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In this Issue . . Impaired workers in industry . . Wartime wages . . Labor conditions in France . . Earnings in brass industry.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR

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OCTOBER 1944, Vol. 59, No. 4

This Issue in Brief

Impaired workers in industry.

When physically impaired workers have been properly placed in work suited to their abilities, they are just as efficient as unimpaired workers, and are generally superior in respect to absenteeism, injury frequency, and labor turnover. This was the consensus among 300 employers of handicapped workers, recently reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The chief problem raised in respect to the industrial utilization of workers with physical impairments was the lack of freedom in transferring them from one job to another in accordance with plant needs. Page 677.

Wartime wage movements and urban wage-rate changes.

Wage stabilization has become increasingly effective during the war period. In the first year after the President's "hold-the-line" order of April 1943, wage rates in urban manufacturing industry increased by only 5.8 percent. A comparatively small part of this increase was due to general wage-rate increases which affected as many as 10 percent of the workers in any one plant. In the 6 months prior to April 1944, urban manufacturing wage rates increased by only 1.9 percent, or by 0.3 percent per month. Before wage stabilization, from January 1941 to October 1942, the average monthly rate of increase was 0.8 percent. Wage rates in nonmanufacturing were generally lower than those in manufacturing and rose somewhat further (9.4 percent) during the year following April 1943. Page 684.

Labor conditions in France.

France had a comprehensive code of labor legislation which had been built up largely since the last war, and several reforms (including the 40-hour week) for which French labor had been pressing were put into effect by the Popular Front Government in 1936. The approach of war in 1938 and 1939, however, necessitated more rigorous labor controls and hours were greatly increased, first in the industries directly concerned with the war effort and later in all industries. Although France had highly developed manufacturing industries, more people were employed in forestry and agriculture than in manufacturing. Also, an unusually high proportion of the gainfully employed population were managers and employers and persons working alone, indicating the importance of small-scale industry and independent work in France. Many changes in the labor legislation were made by the German occupying authorities during the war, although the comprehensive social insurance system was maintained. The Provisional French Government established in Paris by General Charles de Gaulle after the liberation of that city announced wage rates would be increased and the 44-hour week would be reestablished. A general election to enable the French people to select their own government was promised as soon as the prisoners of war and persons who had been deported to Germany could be returned. Page 705

State distribution of Federal employees, June 1944.

Washington, D. C., no longer leads as the area of greatest employment of Federal employees. In June 1944 New York and California each had more Federal workers than the metropolitan area of the Nation's capital. A third of the 2,918,000 workers in Federal service were in the 5 States of New York, California, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Illinois. Over seven-tenths of all the employees were working in war agencies. Page 728.

The effects of long working hours.

Studies in 6 additional plants corroborate previous findings that hours worked beyond 40 or 48 per week result in additional output, but at the price of continuous decreases in efficiency accompanied by marked increases in absenteeism as hours are lengthened. A point is finally reached at which the longer work schedule is no more productive, and actually may be less productive, than a shorter work schedule. Page 737.

Employment changes in Massachusetts in relation to the post-war situation.

Data obtained by the Massachusetts Committee on Post-War Readjustment relative employments covered by the Unemployment Compensation Act indicate that all the major industries in the State employed more workers in December 1941 than in September 1939. During the period since the attack on Pearl Harbor, however, declines in employment have taken place in the textile, leather, food, furniture, apparel, and chemicals industries and in nonmanufacturing as a whole. In those industries which expanded, by far the largest part of the expansion took place in the large establishments. Page 740.

Seniority in the Akron rubber industry.

In the manufacture of rubber, unlike the situation in industries which experienced wartime conversion, there has been little change in plant organization, and the modified department-seniority system evolved for peacetime operations has been continued with slight modification. Under this system, any worker's right to retain his job during lay-off or to be rehired after lay-off depends mainly on the relative length of his company service as compared to the company service of the other workers in his department. Although it is agreed that seniority continues to accumulate during military service, there is some difference of interpretation concerning the relative reemployment rights of veterans as compared with nonveterans of greater seniority. Page 788.

New dwellings in nonfarm areas, first 6 months of 1944.

In the first half of 1944, housing construction was at its lowest ebb since 1934 and was expected to decline still further. Less than half as many nonfarm dwelling units were started in the first 6 months of 1944 as in the corresponding period of 1943. Over four-fifths of these units (two-fifths in 1943) were privately financed. Page 812.

Vocational training, 1940–44.

Enrollments in all types of Federally aided vocational classes declined in the year ending in June 1943, largely as a result of war conditions which reduced the number of young pupils who would normally be taking training in these courses. Since the beginning of the war, vocational training has been especially directed toward training for those occupations necessary in war production. Over 2 million women have been trained for such work. Returning veterans are becoming of increasing importance in the vocational-training program. Page 818.

Wages in the Connecticut Valley brass industry, April 1943.

In selected occupations in the Connecticut brass industry, for which data were obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, average hourly earnings ranged from 73 cents to $1.48. Seventy percent of all the workers in the 18 plants studied had straight-time earnings of from 90 cents to $1.10 an hour. There was a median increase of 11.8 percent in occupational earnings from August 1941 to April 1943. Page 836.

Farm income and wages, by size of enterprise.

A Department of Agriculture study of income and wages in 1939, by size of farm enterprise, shows an extremely large proportion of farms with small net returns. The study indicates that opportunities in agriculture for displaced industrial war workers and returning members of the armed forces will be severely limited after the war. This conclusion is supported by the fact that farm mechanization and improved farming methods may be expected to cause a progressive increase in the average output of farm workers. Page 843.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

Item	Unit	1944			1943: August	1939: Average for year
		August	July	June		
Employment						
Civilian labor force: Total (BC)	Thousands	54,010	55,000	54,220	55,440	[2] 54,230
Male	do	35,570	35,890	35,540	36,990	[2] 40,950
Female	do	18,440	19,110	18,680	18,450	[2] 13,280
Employed	do	53,170	54,000	53,220	54,370	[2] 46,930
Male	do	35,140	35,410	35,040	36,440	[2] 35,600
Female	do	18,030	18,590	18,180	17,930	[2] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	44,600	44,330	43,660	44,730	[2] 37,430
Agricultural	do	8,570	9,670	9,560	9,640	[2] 9,500
Unemployed, total	do	840	1,000	1,000	1,070	[2] 7,300
Employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total [3]	do	38,771	38,724	38,824	39,860	30,353
Manufacturing	do	16,118	16,042	16,093	17,182	10,078
Mining	do	832	833	844	882	845
Construction [4]	do	684	685	691	1,169	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,817	3,808	3,803	3,694	2,912
Trade	do	6,896	6,945	6,977	6,875	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	4,558	4,581	4,520	4,172	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,866	5,830	5,896	5,886	3,988
Wage-earner employment:						
Manufacturing	do	13,001	12,931	12,985	13,990	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	352	351	357	376	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,449	1,443	1,447	1,379	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	2,694	2,732	2,440	2,962	[5] 3,063
Hours of labor						
Average hours per week of wage earners:						
Manufacturing	Hours		44.7	45.5	[6] 44.4	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do		39.5	44.1	[6] 37.1	27.1
Retail trade	do		43.2	42.3	[6] 41.7	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	39.5	40.6	40.2	39.0	32.4
Weekly earnings						
Average weekly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			$45.52	$46.27	[6] $42.76	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			$47.31	$52.27	[6] $42.76	$23.88
Retail trade			$27.83	$27.06	[6] $25.48	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$52.08	$52.81	$52.21	$47.97	$30.24
Hourly or daily earnings						
Average hourly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			$1.019	$1.018	[6] $0.963	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			$1.201	$1.185	[6] $1.150	$0.886
Retail trade			$0.706	$0.701	[6] $0.675	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.317	$1.302	$1.300	$1.231	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			$0.951	$0.944	[6] $0.899	$0.622
Employment by industry, as of January 1939			$0.874	$0.867	[6] $0.823	$0.622
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)			$4.06		[6] $3.34	[6] $1.59
Industrial injuries, labor turnover, and absences from work						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing, per million man-hours worked				[7] 19.3	[7] 20.6	15.4
Labor turnover in manufacturing:						
Total separations, per 100 employees			6.5	7.1	[6] 7.6	(8)
Quits, per 100 employees			4.9	5.4	[6] 5.6	(8)
Lay-offs, per 100 employees			0.5	0.5	[6] 0.5	(8)
Total accessions, per 100 employees			6.2	7.6	[6] 7.8	(8)
Absence rates (workdays lost as percent of total scheduled):						
Manufacturing, selected industries		6.6	6.4	6.1	6.6	(8)
Bituminous-coal mining		11.8	12.2	12.6	9.7	(8)

See footnotes at end of table.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]—Continued

Item	Unit	1944			1943: August	1939: Average for year
		August	July	June		
Strikes						
Strikes beginning in month:						
Number of strikes		485	470	500	310	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	190	145	155	106	98
Man-days idle during month (all strikes):						
Number	do	935	680	680	357	1,484
Percent of available working time		0.12	0.09	0.09	0.05	0.28
Cost of living						
Cost-of-living index (wage earners in large cities): All items	1935–39=100	126.3	126.1	125.4	123.4	99.4
Food	1935–39=100	137.7	137.4	135.7	137.2	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	139.1	138.2	138.0	129.6	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100			108.1	108.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	109.8	109.8	109.6	107.6	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	138.7	138.5	138.4	125.9	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	122.0	121.8	121.7	116.5	100.7
Retail food prices (large cities)						
Retail price index: All foods	1935–39=100	137.7	137.4	135.7	137.2	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	108.5	108.6	108.4	108.1	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	129.0	129.3	129.8	129.7	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	133.6	133.6	133.5	133.4	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	159.4	148.9	129.1	167.4	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	175.6	176.9	174.0	169.8	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	124.3	124.3	124.3	125.3	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	122.7	122.9	123.1	126.5	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	126.5	126.6	126.5	126.6	100.6
Wholesale prices						
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100	103.9	104.1	104.3	103.1	77.1
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100	99.7	99.6	99.6	98.5	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100	98.6	98.5	98.5	97.1	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	122.6	124.1	125.0	123.5	65.3
Foods	1926=100	104.8	105.8	106.5	105.8	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments, total (BFDC)	Millions		$12,982	$13,499	[6]$11,846	[6] $5,806
Consumer expenditures for goods and services, total (BFDC)	do		$7,806	$7,886	[6] $7,454	[6] $4,904
Retail sales, total (BFDC)	do		$5,452	$5,593	[6]$5,231	[6] $3,349
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR):						
Total	1935–39=100	235	232	236	245	109
Manufacturing	1935–39=100	250	248	252	264	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	146	143	146	140	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons	54,220	48,930	52,780	52,432	32,905
Construction expenditures, all types (excluding maintenance)	Millions	$379	$361	$359	$671	[5] $682
Building construction started in urban areas	do	$85	$90	$116	$105	([8])
New family-dwelling units in nonfarm areas		12,675	13,454	18,180	27,900	[5] 51,200
Carloadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	146	147	144	145	101

[1] Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics unless otherwise indicated. Abbreviations used: BC (Bureau of the Census); ICC (Interstate Commerce Commission); BAE (Bureau of Agricultural Economics); BFDC (Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce); FR (Federal Reserve); BM (Bureau of Mines). Most of the current figures are preliminary. Copies of this table are available on request.

[2] 10-month average—March to December 1940.

[3] Differs from employed nonagricultural workers in civilian labor force above, mainly because of exclusion of such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

[4] Includes workers employed by construction contractors and Federal force-account workers (nonmaintenance construction workers employed directly by the Federal Government). Other force-account nonmaintenance construction employment is included under manufacturing and the other groups.

[5] August.

[6] July.

[7] Cumulative frequency rate, January to June.

[8] Not available.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR OCTOBER 1944

Impaired Workers in Industry[1]

Summary

PHYSICALLY impaired workers employed in factories are just as efficient in the jobs they hold as their unimpaired fellow workers. This was the general opinion of management in the first 300 establishments reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in a recent survey of the utilization of physically impaired workers in manufacturing industries. Eighty-seven percent of the 63,382 impaired workers employed in these establishments were reported to be just as efficient as the unimpaired doing similar work, and the 8 percent reported as more efficient outweighed the 5 percent reported as less efficient.

In respect to absenteeism, injury frequency, and labor turnover the physically impaired were rated as superior to the unimpaired. While 44 percent of the impaired workers were reported as having an absentee record no worse than their fellow workers, 49 percent had better records. Only 7 percent were absent more than the unimpaired. According to the reports, the physically handicapped workers generally experienced fewer accidents, for 38 percent were reported as having just as good an accident record, and 51 percent a better record than the workers without disabilities; 11 percent had a higher injury-frequency rate. Similarly, job changes were less frequent among them, with 31 percent reported as having a turnover record comparable to that of the unimpaired and 58 percent a better record. A higher rate of turnover was reported for 11 percent of these workers.[2]

Frequently advanced as a reason for the better absenteeism and labor turnover records of the impaired workers is the fact that, as a general rule, the handicapped worker has found it much more difficult to get a job than his more fortunate fellow worker and therefore exerts greater efforts to keep it. Further, he is anxious to prove to himself and to others that he is as good as, or better than, his unimpaired fellow worker.

Manufacturing plants in all parts of the country reported that they were utilizing workers with physical impairments. About 46 per-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Industrial Hazards, by Clarence A. Trump and Frances J. Montgomery.

[2] Percentages are based upon the total number of impaired workers reported by each employer. Thus, if an employer reported that the impaired workers in his plant were more efficient than the unimpaired the total number of his impaired would be included in the percentage reported as being more efficient than the unimpaired.

cent of all these workers were employed in the highly industrialized East North Central area; more than half were working in plants employing 10,000 or more persons.

A majority of the employers stated emphatically that selective placement is the key to their satisfactory employment. Difficulty in transfers from one job to another and in upgrading were reported by some manufacturers employing relatively large numbers of physically handicapped. Special in-service training facilities have been provided in an attempt to solve these problems. The necessity of flexibility in the manufacturing process was cited by a few manufacturers as limiting the number of physically impaired employees that could be utilized. Several foundries reported that few of their jobs could be filled by physically handicapped workers because foundry work is heavy.

In addition to surveying the plants by mail, the Bureau's representatives interviewed management in six companies that have long made a practice of hiring the physically handicapped. Some of these companies are so concerned with the problem of placing returning veterans that they are conducting surveys of the men who have left their plants for military service, to determine the new skills acquired and the type of work each man desires to engage in upon his return. Analyzing these replies, together with past records of the men, the employers are earmarking at least three jobs for each returning veteran. One of these jobs is being selected on the supposition that the veteran may return disabled.

In the cities in which two of these companies are situated, finding jobs for the handicapped has been made a community responsibility. Every device has been used to create an awareness among employers of the employability of such persons. Some leaders in the field believe that community interest is one answer to the employment of the physically disabled.

The results so far show that impaired persons have been hired in appreciable numbers, especially in critical labor-market areas and in industries engaged most directly in essential war work. Many of these workers probably will be out of jobs when this work ceases. The position of the handicapped worker may be further weakened by the return of the disabled veterans of World War II who must be absorbed into industry. In order that existing prejudices may be met and overcome and that the performance of impaired workers at jobs at which their disabilities are no handicaps, may be appreciated fully, it is essential that a body of factual, objective data be made available. The Bureau hopes to be able to continue its survey, to provide this information.

Scope of the Survey

To fill the need for information on the job performance of workers with disabilities, the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the War Manpower Commission, the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation of the Federal Security Agency, and the Veterans Administration undertook a study of plants employing physically impaired workers. The study consists of 3 parts: (1) A preliminary analysis, part of which is presented here, including a mail survey of the performance of impaired workers; (2) a series of case studies in plants with records permitting a statistical analysis of the performance of the

impaired and the unimpaired, which cannot be completed until funds are made available; and (3) a critical analysis of prevailing methods of placement and rehabilitation, as well as of workmen's compensation problems.

On the questionnaire used in the mail survey, information was requested concerning total employment, number of impaired workers, type of manufacturing activity, physical examinations, job analyses, methods of placement, special problems encountered in the utilization of impaired workers, and job performance of the impaired as compared with the unimpaired. In order to obtain comparative performance data the employer was asked to check for each of the four measures of general performance (efficiency, absenteeism, injury frequency, and labor turnover) whether his impaired workers were better than, as good as, or poorer than the umimpaired doing similar work. Therefore, in the statistical analysis of comparative performance the impaired workers are necessarily treated as groups rather than as individuals.

At the outset it was recognized that neither the number of physically impaired persons in the United States nor the number employable were known. As of 1940, it was estimated that there were 5 million persons with major or minor physical impairments. This estimate included persons with incapacitating and nondisabling orthopedic impairments, total or partial deafness, and blindness in one or both eyes.[3] Of these 5 million persons, 3 million were within the employment age groups. Over a year ago, the War Manpower Commission estimated that there were between 2½ and 3 million physically disabled persons available for industrial employment. It has been estimated that there are 230,000 blind persons who can be fitted into industry.

It is known that the employment of disabled civilians has increased rapidly during the past 2 years, for the records of placements made through WMC facilities reveal that industry has hired increasing numbers of handicapped persons, primarily because of the manpower shortage created by the war. Industry is now faced with another problem. When labor was scarce, employers hired anyone available and made special efforts in many cases to subdivide jobs so that inexperienced and impaired workers could be utilized successfully. Many of these employees will work for the duration only and will leave the labor market, while the returning veterans gradually find their way back into civilian employment. Some of these veterans will be disabled and will be unable to fill the jobs they left or similar jobs. In view of this, it is important to know how successful the disabled men and women have been, whether they have been able to maintain the production pace, and what the problems have been in their employment.

The analysis presented here covers 300 manufacturing establishments which returned the questionnaire on the performance of impaired workers. Although this sample is small, it is nevertheless the first study of this magnitude. The replies indicated, however, that in most cases the employers did not base their judgment on actual statistical measurements. It is likely that such measurements would confirm their opinion, but the fact remains that factual measurements are not yet available.

[3] The Physically Handicapped, by Bernard D. Karpinos. Reprint No. 2521 from the Public Health Reports (Washington), October 22, 1943, p. 17.

For purposes of the study, impaired workers were defined as "employees with marked physical impairments which limit their working capacity if not properly placed." In June 1944, the 300 manufacturers reported that of their 1.3 million employees, approximately 63,000 were thus handicapped. Many companies were so interested in this problem that they conducted surveys within their plants in order to provide the information desired.

The majority (63 percent) of the reports came from establishments in the East North Central and Middle Atlantic States. Fifty-seven percent of the companies employed fewer than 2,000 persons. Half of the reporting plants were engaged in the manufacture of transportation equipment, iron and steel, munitions, and other war material.

Placement of Impaired Workers

Much has been written about how impaired persons should be placed and what facilities should be provided for their proper placement. This survey indicates that the program of selective placement is quite widespread. Only 7 percent of the 300 companies reported that they neither gave pre-employment physical examinations nor had made an analysis of the jobs within their plants; 17 percent reported that job applicants were given pre-employment physical examinations but that they were not placed on the basis of job analyses; 15 percent reported job-analysis programs only; and 61 percent reported both methods. There is strong indication that many plants, regardless of size, are cognizant of the fact that it is now ordinary procedure to examine an applicant for a job and to make a detailed study of the physical requirements for each job in order to place the applicant most advantageously from both his and the firm's viewpoint.

Some small plants consider the elaborate personnel departments of the larger concerns too costly for their own operation. From plant visits it was found that it is not necessary for small employers to maintain the services of a full-time medical examiner and a special placement officer for physically impaired applicants. Any plant can make its own analysis of the physical requirements necessary for each job, and the specialists of the War Manpower Commission stand ready to aid them in making such an analysis. A fair examination made by a competent industrial physician should supply the information necessary to place the impaired worker satisfactorily. The applicant's abilities, training, and experience obviously must also be taken into consideration.

From such simple arrangements as the above, the selective placement facilities range up to very formal ones entailing special counselors and other specialists trained in the placement problems of impaired workers. It should be pointed out that the placement of the blind involves additional problems. A blind person must be trained on the job and special attention must be given to introduce him to the surroundings and to the job itself. In this questionnaire survey, no attempt was made to segregate the impaired by type of disability. A few plants reported that they have found special types of impaired persons, as for example the blind and the deaf, to be particularly adaptable to the operations within their plants. Blind workers sorting rivets, bolts, and small parts by touch are doing better work and staying on the job longer than sighted workers. In extremely noisy

shops, such as boiler factories and the riveting departments of airframe plants, it has been found that deaf workers are more satisfactory than those who can hear.

One of the major problems brought to light in this survey is that the number of jobs open to the impaired within a plant is limited. Especially hazardous or heavy industries and those using the production-line method believe that they cannot use handicapped persons. Some plants, after considerable job analyses, reported they had reached their limit of employment of impaired workers. Many employers seem to be of the opinion that such workers are useful only on tedious or repetitive jobs or as clerks and watchmen. Perhaps a more thorough analysis of physical requirements would reveal additional jobs suitable for the physically handicapped, in plants where this opinion is held.

Such a job analysis should reveal to the employer the jobs which can be performed by persons with one arm, or no hearing, etc. In many cases it will be discovered that a slight job change will permit the use of a physically handicapped person on a particular operation. A striking example of this occurred in a plant where a one-armed operator was given a trial on a particular job. In the course of her work she had to adjust a small screw below the machine table. Normal operators merely reached under the machine, located the position of the screw with one hand and, with a screw driver in the other, made the necessary adjustment. This was impossible for the one-armed operator, so she requested a mirror. When the mirror was placed so that she could see the location of the screw, she easily adjusted it. As a result, the company concluded that mirrors were equally helpful to normal operators. Other equally simple modifications can be made, such as placing a lever on the left instead of on the right, lining up tools in another order, or converting foot releases to hand releases. Such modifications can be determined from job analyses as well as by the workers on the jobs, and the number of jobs available to persons with physical disabilities can be increased.

The difficulty of transferring the physically impaired from one job to another and the consequent loss in flexibility of plant operations was cited by a number of employers as a limitation on the utilization of these workers. Some plants have solved this problem by providing extra training facilities.

A number of plants made adjustments in their personnel and in working conditions, to make work possible for large numbers of handicapped workers. Besides providing special in-service training facilities to aid in job transfers and upgrading, they had trained special supervisors for selected groups of deaf and blind. Many pointed out that special clearance for job transfers was made through the medical officer. In order to spare the more seriously handicapped the general confusion of the rush hours, these workers in some cases were permitted different hours for entering and leaving the plant and for lunch and rest periods.

Union agreements were mentioned in a few instances as hindering the employment of the physically impaired. In a few industries, these contracts require that all new employees enter a plant as laborers. Such a requirement might keep some workers from jobs which they could otherwise fill. Seniority provisions of agreements were likewise mentioned as deterrents to the employment of the handi-

capped. How widespread these two requirements are cannot be determined from this survey, as relatively few employers remarked upon them.

The problem of workmen's compensation was not emphasized to the extent that might be expected. Only 2 percent of the reporting firms commented that some of the employees attempted to obtain compensation for the aggravation of an old injury.

Performance of Impaired Workers

It is clear from the reports that the majority of companies consider handicapped persons to be as good as or better than the nonhandicapped, as regards performance on the job. Only 5 percent of the 63,382 impaired workers covered in this study were reported to be less efficient; only 7 percent had poorer absenteeism records; 11 percent were reported as having accidents more frequently than their fellow workers; and 11 percent showed greater tendency to seek employment in other companies.

On the whole, employers seemed pleased with the performance of this group. Many noted that this depends especially upon selective placement. The crux of the problem is given in the following comment made in one of the reports:

> Successful experience with handicapped presons may be expected when disabilities are not permitted to interfere with performance and safety factors. Job descriptions with physical requirements check lists make possible the classification of jobs in terms of disabilities which will not interfere with performance and safety factors. When employment and medical departments are guided by such data, intelligent recruiting and placement of handicapped workers can be expected.

Experience of Companies with over 3 Percent of Impaired Workers

Of the 300 reports received, 128 were from establishments in which more than 3 percent of the total labor force consisted of impaired workers. Of 502,851 workers in these 128 plants, 53,035 had physical disabilities. Sixty-two percent of the 128 plants were in the East North Central and Middle Atlantic areas. The majority of them were of small size: 33 reports came from plants employing fewer than 500 persons; 20 from the 500–999 group; 15 from the 1,000–1,499 group; 12 from the 1,500–1,999 group; and 47 from plants employing 2,000 or more persons. The principal industries represented in this group were those manufacturing transportation equipment, iron and steel, and munitions.

Eight percent of the companies used neither physical examinations nor job analyses in making placements, 15 percent used physical examinations only, and 14 percent job analyses only. In 63 percent, both methods were in use. This group of 128 plants contained those that have gone farthest in providing special placement facilities. Although the group contained few employing great numbers of impaired, in those few the problems have been thoroughly investigated and special provisions made.

The performance records in these plants are as outstanding as those reported for all 300 companies. The general attitude is expressed in the following quotations taken from the returned questionnaires.

From a company in which 11 percent of the total force consists of impaired workers, the management sent the following comment:

We have employed persons with nearly all types of physical impairments except blindness and epilepsy. The problem of using handicapped persons has been given special consideration recently for two reasons: (1) They are an added labor resource in a tight labor-market area, and (2) we are preparing for the return of our boys in the service who may come back with some degree of physical impairment.

A larger company employing over 200 handicapped workers wrote:

We have found that people with marked physical handicaps can be used to advantage in our factory jobs. They must be carefully placed as to job and also supervision. Under such circumstances they do as well or better than unimpaired individuals, depending upon the personalities involved. However, they are not as flexible as the others and are more difficult to shift from job to job as production, material, or jobs may require.

A large aircraft corporation employing 900 workers with physical impairments noted that—

In the placement of impaired workers, care is taken to make sure they are placed on jobs they can do. An orientation program whereby they are checked periodically by our personnel counselors is also in operation. Cases needing adjustment or change in work are, therefore, taken care of before any real difficulty develops.

Deaf persons have been found very useful in the riveting departments. Because of the noise involved, it has been found that their work is generally better than that of persons with normal hearing. This applies to efficiency on the job, absenteeism, and labor turnover. Blind persons have been used successfully in salvaging operations, mainly in the sorting of rivets.

Wartime Wage Movements and Urban Wage-Rate Changes[1]

Summary

FIELD surveys of actual pay rolls by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that wage stabilization has been increasingly effective during the war period. Since the Stabilization Act of October 1942, comparatively few "general" wage increases have been granted. Moreover, the trend of urban factory wage rates, including wage increases to individual workers, has leveled off in the most recent period. During the 21 months, January 1941 to October 1942, urban factory wage rates increased by 0.8 percent per month. During the following year the increase was 0.6 percent per month. During the 6 months, October 1943 to April 1944, the most recent period for which wage-rate information is available, the average increase dropped to 0.3 percent per month.

Although the gross weekly earnings of factory workers rose by 71 percent from January 1941 to April 1944 and their gross hourly earnings rose by 48 percent, urban factory wage rates rose by only 28 percent in this period and "general" increases in wage rates amounted to less than 16 percent.

The substantial increase in weekly earnings [2] is partly attributable to increased hours of work, amounting to an equivalent of nearly 1 additional day of work each week. Both weekly and hourly earnings, moreover, have been influenced by a variety of factors which have caused earnings to rise more rapidly than wage rates. The most important of these factors in recent years have been the growing prevalence of overtime work at premium rates and the growing importance of employment in the higher-wage war industries. Thus, the estimated averages of straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers, after eliminating the influence of the two factors just noted, show an increase of 33 percent from January 1941 to April 1944, in contrast to the increase of 48 percent in gross hourly earnings. Other factors which have tended to raise earnings more than wage rates include the growing importance of the higher-wage centers of employment, the growth of late-shift work at premium pay, the increased output of incentive workers, and extensions of the incentive method of pay. None of the increases in earnings arising from these factors is inconsistent with a stabilization of wage rates. Neither weekly nor hourly earnings provide an adequate measure of the effectiveness of the wage-stabilization program.

Analysis of the material available regarding the changes in urban wage rates of factory workers reveals a marked transition since the outbreak of the war in the method by which those changes have been

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Robert J. Myers, Harry Ober, and Lily Mary David. The planning and analysis of the study was supervised by N. Arnold Tolles. Special assistance was provided by Toivo P. Kanninen, John F. Laciskey, and Margaret L. Hammond. (Reprinted as Serial No. R. 1684; for sale by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., price 5 cents.)

[2] The increase in net spendable earnings has been much less than the increase in gross weekly earnings. See Spendable Earnings of Factory Workers, 1941-43, by N. Arnold Tolles, in Monthly Labor Review, March 1944 (pp. 477-489) or Bulletin No. 769.

accomplished. From January 1941 to October 1942, prior to the stabilization period, wage rates were typically raised by means of broad, general increases in time or incentive rates, many of which affected all workers in a given establishment. Out of the total increase in wage rates during this period, estimated at 17 percent, about 13 percent—or roughly three-fourths—was accounted for by general increases affecting 10 percent or more of the workers (or all workers in a key occupation) in a given establishment. During the following 18 months (October 1942 to April 1944) wage rates rose by approximately 9 percent, but less than one-third of this increase—a little more than 2 percentage points—was accounted for by general wage increases. The major part of the increase in wage rates during this period resulted from merit increases, in-grade promotions, and other wage adjustments affecting individual workers or small groups. In the most recent period for which information is available, October 1943 to April 1944, general wage increases accounted for only about one-fifth of the declining total of increases in wage rates.

Information regarding wage rates in nonmanufacturing is not available for the entire period since January 1941. From April 1943 to April 1944, however, wage rates in selected nonmanufacturing industries rose by 9.4 percent. The wages paid in nonmanufacturing are typically lower than those in manufacturing and, in general, the greatest increases in wage rates occurred in those segments of nonmanufacturing industry in which the lowest wage rates have prevailed.

Wage Rates and Earnings

Wage rates represent the pay for some specified unit of labor, such as an hour's work or the amount of work necessary to perform a given operation. Hourly earnings may be defined as a total amount of earnings divided by a total of hours actually worked.[3] While the term "wage rate" implies a particular occupation or type of work, the term "hourly earnings" may be applied appropriately to widely dissimilar groups of workers (e. g., an entire industry, all workers in a geographic area, an age group, etc.). Although wage rates, particularly for "white-collar" workers, are frequently quoted in terms of a day, a week, a month, or some other unit, all wage rates referred to in this article have been reduced to an hourly basis.

During periods of general economic stability it may be safely assumed that changes in average hourly earnings reflect changes in wage rates. Under rapidly changing conditions of employment, however, such as those of recent years, earnings and rates may move quite differently. Indeed, for short periods they may move in opposite directions. Simple averages of total pay roll divided by total hours of work can furnish only a rough approximation of changes in wage rates.

The distinction between rates and earnings may be seen more clearly from a list of the chief factors that influence average earnings. Table 1, which presents such a list, indicates which of the major factors affect various measures of wage changes recently issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[3] This is essentially the computation made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in preparing its monthly figures on average hourly earnings, although certain additional steps are necessitated by the nature of the basic data.

TABLE 1.—*Major Factors Influencing Specified Bureau of Labor Statistics Measures of Wage Changes*[1]

Item No.	Factor	Urban wage rates	Straight-time hourly earnings		Gross hourly earnings	Gross weekly earnings	Spendable weekly earnings
			Adjusted to eliminate interindustry employment changes	With industry weights as currently reported			
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)
1	General changes in hourly rates	[2] X	X	X	X	X	X
2	Changes in liberality of basis for incentive pay	[2] X	X	X	X	X	X
3	Adjustments in the hourly rates of individual workers (or small groups) in recognition of merit, length of service, etc	X	X	X	X	X	X
4	Changes in the output of workers paid on an incentive basis	[3] X	X	X	X	X	X
5	Changes in the prevalence of incentive payment	[3] X	X	X	X	X	X
6	Changes in the relative importance of individual companies or establishments	[4] X	X	X	X	X	X
7	Changes in the composition of the labor force	([5])	X	X	X	X	X
8	Changes in the relative importance of individual regions or localities		X	X	X	X	X
9	Changes in the provisions for premium pay for work on extra shifts		X	X	X	X	X
10	Changes in the extent of extra-shift work at premium pay		X	X	X	X	X
11	Changes in occupational structure		X	X	X	X	X
12	Changes in the provisions for premium pay for overtime work		X	X	X	X	X
13	Changes in the relative importance of individual industries			X	X	X	X
14	Changes in the prevalence of overtime work at premium pay				X	X	X
15	Changes in the weekly hours of work					X	X
16	Changes in pay-roll deductions for taxes, bonds, etc						X

[1] The list of factors is not exhaustive, but is believed to include the most important factors influencing wage changes in a group of industries. (As applied to individual industries or establishments the list would require modification.) Nonincentive bonuses, vacations with pay, and similar factors have been excluded from the list because they are rarely reflected in measurements of wage changes. Changes resulting from revised definitions, such as the revision involved in the portal-to-portal decision in coal mining, have also been ignored for present purposes. The measures of wage changes referred to in this table have appeared in recent publications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] Factors 1 and 2 constitute "general wage changes" and are referred to jointly by this term in a later section of this article. As a matter of research procedure, general wage changes are considered to include those wage changes that affect 10 percent or more of the workers (or all of the workers in any key occupation) in an establishment; changes that affect smaller groups are considered as individual adjustments (factor 3).

[3] These factors are permitted to influence the measurement of changes in urban wage rates only because they cannot readily be separated from item 2. In special tabulations, however, it is possible to eliminate the influence of all three factors (2, 4, and 5).

[4] The influence of this factor is allowed only in the interest of simplifying tabulating procedures and because it is believed to be unimportant; it can be excluded if desirable.

[5] The influence of this factor on the measure of urban wage rates has been largely eliminated by the assignment of separate, constant weights to men and women workers, and by the distinction between learners and experienced workers. Under certain circumstances, however, labor turnover among experienced workers of the same sex may affect somewhat the average wage rates of individual occupations.

DEVELOPMENT OF WAGE SERIES

The oldest comprehensive and continuous [4] measure of wage changes issued by the Bureau is in the form of gross average weekly earnings (column f of table 1). Continuous series of average weekly earnings in manufacturing have been published by the Bureau of Labor

[4] Limited information as to both rates and earnings has been assembled since the earliest times and this body of information has been gradually extended ever since the establishment of the U. S. Bureau of Labor in the 1880's. (See History of Wages in the United States, Bulletin No. 604.) At one time the Bureau issued a crude but useful index of wage rates. The Bureau has published union wage scales for a group of time-work trades each year since 1907. (See Monthly Labor Review, January 1944, p. 163; February 1944, pp. 382 and 389; March 1944, p. 601; and April 1944, p. 822.)

Statistics for each month since 1919, and various nonmanufacturing industries have been added in subsequent periods. Average weekly earnings, consisting of a simple division of the total pay roll by the number of workers employed, constitute the most readily available type of wage statistics. Because they are greatly influenced by part-time and overtime work, the changing composition of the labor force, and other factors, average weekly earnings constitute a better measure of income trends than of changes in rates of pay.

Even as a measure of the worker's income available for expenditure, average weekly earnings have become defective in recent years, owing to the increased importance of pay-roll deductions. The approximate amounts of these deductions have been estimated by the Bureau for certain specified groups of workers so that net spendable earnings (column g) may be computed from the published averages of gross weekly earnings.[5]

Gross average hourly earnings (column e) have been published by the Bureau each month since 1932 for all major manufacturing and for selected nonmanufacturing industries. At the outbreak of the war, these averages of gross hourly earnings constituted the only comprehensive indicator of wage-rate changes, even though at least 14 factors influenced the result. More refined estimates of wage-rate changes became necessary as both wages and employment conditions began to undergo rapid wartime changes.

The first step in refining the gross averages of hourly earnings was to eliminate the effect of changes in the extent of overtime work at premium pay (factor 14) and thus to estimate the trend of average earnings on a straight-time basis (column d).[6] To eliminate the effect of interindustry shifts of employment, the Bureau next developed a series of estimates of straight-time earnings for manufacturing in which the distribution of workers by industry was maintained on the same proportionate basis as in 1939 or in any other base period with which comparison was desirable (constant industry weights).[7] This method serves to eliminate the influence of factor 13 in table 1. These two adjustments (column c), elimination of overtime premiums and constant industry weighting, permit the Bureau to distinguish between the 48-percent rise in gross hourly earnings since January 1941, and the 33-percent rise in straight-time earnings which would have occurred if the various industries had continued to employ their original proportions of the labor force.

While the two steps just described brought the Bureau's figures closer than before to a measure of wage-rate changes, several of the other factors accounting for the difference could not be isolated by any estimates derived from the Bureau's mailed questionnaires covering gross pay rolls and man-hours. A new method was required to determine the changes in actual wage rates by occupation. The basis for the new method had been provided by the numerous field investigations of wages, conducted by the Bureau ever since its estab-

[5] See Spendable Earnings of Factory Workers, 1941–43, in Monthly Labor Review, March 1944 (pp. 477–489) or Bulletin No. 769.

[6] For the method of estimating straight-time earnings, see Elimination of Overtime Payments from Gross Hourly Earnings, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1942 (pp. 1053–1056).

[7] For example, straight-time hourly earnings for all manufacturing in April 1944 averaged $0.942 when the averages for the various individual industries were weighted by employment in those industries in that month. The corresponding average was $0.862 when the current industry averages were weighted by employment in January 1939. See Monthly Labor Review, July 1944, p. 147; also Trends in Factory Wages 1939–43, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943.

lishment. These field investigations had provided experience in classifying workers by occupation and obtaining actual wage payments per hour by inspection of company pay rolls. Their defect, as a means of measuring wage-rate changes, consisted simply of the lack of a comprehensive coverage of industries during any given year.

The opportunity to measure changes in job rates themselves was provided by the results of the Bureau's recent work for the National War Labor Board. To provide a factual basis for the setting of local wage brackets, the Board required a vast enlargement of existing information as to actual rates of pay, by occupation, industry, and locality. Generalized averages of hourly earnings for all the workers in an industry could not be used. To meet the Board's needs the Bureau expanded its field investigations of occupational wage rates early in 1943 on a project financed in part by the Board.[8] The wage information collected in this way, supplemented somewhat to improve its representative character, permits wage-rate comparisons for three periods: April 1943, October 1943, and April 1944. Additional information, not previously available, throws light on the nature of wage changes between January 1941 and April 1943.[9] The material for the period before April 1943 is discussed in a later section of this article.

METHOD OF MEASURING WAGE-RATE CHANGES

The measure of wage-rate changes presented for the period, April 1943 to April 1944, possesses the following important features: (1) The measure is based on the observations of trained field representatives of the Bureau, who visited the cooperating establishments and transcribed wage rates directly from pay rolls and other basic records; (2) the wage data relate to specific occupations, defined in writing to assure uniformity, and with appropriate distinction between men and women workers, experienced workers and learners, etc.; (3) the rates obtained are defined uniformly and exclude all premium payments for overtime and for work on extra shifts; (4) all comparisons relate to wage rates in establishments that are virtually identical from period to period; and (5) the use of constant weights assures that each occupation, each industry, and each area (but not each establishment) will exert the same degree of influence in all periods.

Examination of these features of the new measure of wage-rate changes reveals that they eliminate the influence of most of the disturbing factors which affect even the best over-all estimates of straight-time earnings. The influence of changes in the provisions for overtime premium pay (factor 12—illustrated by the adoption of double time instead of time and one-half for the seventh consecutive day of work) has been eliminated by excluding all premium pay from the original data. This approach has also, of course, eliminated the influence of premium pay for work on extra shifts (factors 9 and 10). The effect of changes in the number of workers employed in the various occupations (factor 11) is separable only in statistics collected by occupation and on a comprehensive scale; in the measurement of urban wage-rate changes this factor has been eliminated by

[8] See Statistics for Wage Stabilization, in Journal of the American Statistical Association, December 1943.

[9] Although the wage comparisons developed herein can be continued in the future with comparative ease, it is doubtful whether they can be carried further back into the past. The occupations of individual workers are not customarily shown in company pay-roll records and must be discovered by special investigation, requiring the assistance of foremen and others who know the nature of each worker's job. After the lapse of a few months it thus becomes almost impossible to identify a worker's occupation.

the assignment of constant occupational weights. The influence of shifts in the employment of workers among the various localities (factor 8) has been offset by the same method.

Although the influence of changes in the relative importance of individual establishments (factor 6) could be similarly canceled, there is evidence that this factor has been of little importance during the war period and, up to the present time, its elimination has not appeared to justify the considerable amount of work involved.

Changes in the composition of the labor force (factor 7) are illustrated by the substitution of women for men, or of beginners for experienced workers, without any significant change in the nature or importance of the job. The influence of this factor on the measure of wage-rate changes has been largely, although not entirely, eliminated by the assignment of separate and constant weights to male and female workers and by the elimination of rates for learners from the observations.

The measure of urban wage rates is also influenced somewhat by changes in output due to the increasing effort or skill of workers paid on an incentive basis (factor 4) and by changes in the prevalence of incentive payment (factor 5). Since neither of these factors constitutes a change in wage rates, the removal of their influence would be desirable if the factors could be segregated. In many cases, however, it is impossible, without prolonged and intensive investigation, to ascertain to what extent a change in incentive pay reflects a change in the basis of payment (factor 2) and to what extent a change in the intensity or effectiveness of work (factor 4). Measurement of wage-rate changes for time workers alone serves to eliminate the influence of all three of these factors.

By means of these eliminations and special measurements, therefore, it is possible to determine with considerable accuracy the effect of factors 1, 2, and 3 of table 1, which are believed to constitute a reasonable measure of wage-rate changes. The first two of these factors, which constitute "general wage changes," may also be measured with some accuracy.[10]

NATURE OF BASIC DATA

The data used in the new measure of wage-rate changes were obtained almost exclusively from areas centering in a city of 25,000 population or more. The measure consequently applies only to urban areas. Wage-rate changes in 69 separate areas were analyzed but, since many areas include suburbs or neighboring cities in addition to the central city, the number of cities and towns covered was substantially greater. The 69 areas include about 40 percent of the population of the Nation as a whole and 70 percent of the urban population. They represent all of the 48 States and a great variety of urban industry. In the selection of areas, particular attention was paid to the desirability of representing industries important in each region; thus, Akron was included because of the rubber industry, Grand Rapids to represent the furniture industry, and Waterbury to represent the brass industry of the Connecticut Valley. Although proportionately few areas of less than 100,000 were covered, the weight of these was

[10] As has been pointed out, certain changes in the liberality of incentive pay may be hidden or confused with increases in worker productivity. Ordinarily, however, these constitute but a small part of the total of general wage changes.

increased in order to represent other areas of comparable size.[11] The regional boundaries used in this analysis have economic rather than administrative significance. They are intended to group States in which urban wage levels are roughly similar and in which wage movements would be expected to show generally similar trends.

The manufacturing industries for which data were available had been selected as characteristic of the areas represented. For the most part they were the larger industries and tended to dominate the wage structure of the respective communities. Each area was represented by several different industries—typically 10 to 15.

The nonmanufacturing industries selected for study, unlike the manufacturing industries, were the same for all areas. These consisted of about 10 industries representing five broad groups. Specifically, financial institutions were represented by banks and various types of savings and loan associations; retail trade by department, clothing, and grocery stores; wholesale trade by general-line wholesale grocery establishments; local public utilities by electric light and power companies; and the service trades by laundries, hotels, and auto-repair shops. Conspicuously absent are construction, communication, and transportation, and, of course, the rural industries of mining and lumbering. Obviously the representation of nonmanufacturing is less complete than could be desired. It is hoped that the coverage of such industries may be extended in connection with future measures of wage-rate changes.

Approximately 6,600 establishments [12] were covered in the 69 areas, or an average of about 100 per area. In some of the larger areas, however, more than 300 establishments were covered, while several small areas were represented by fewer than 30 plants. Establishments with fewer than 9 employees were rarely covered, but otherwise the establishments included were reasonably representative of the industries and areas selected, some over-representation of the largest establishments being corrected by weighting.

It was deemed unnecessary to study all of the occupations in the establishments covered. The wage-rate changes in each establishment, therefore, were measured in terms of changes in selected key jobs. These jobs—usually 10 to 12 in number—were uniform within a given industry and were selected to represent the various skill groups and wage levels characteristic of the industry. Office and clerical jobs are represented only in the occupations for nonmanufacturing industries.

A brief comment on weighting will be of interest to most readers. Each occupation (and each sex, in occupations commonly employing both men and women) is considered to represent a skill class or group of similar occupations and has been assigned an appropriate weight, depending upon the proportion of all employees in the industry

[11] The areas covered, identified by central city, were as follows: *New England*—Boston, Bridgeport, Claremont-Springfield, Lowell, Portland, Providence, Waterbury; *Middle Atlantic*—Binghamton, Buffalo, Harrisburg, Newark, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh; *Border States*—Baltimore, Charleston, Louisville, Richmond, Wilmington; *Southeast*—Atlanta, Birmingham, Columbia, Greenville, Jackson, Knoxville, Memphis, Raleigh, Savannah, Tampa, Winston-Salem; *Great Lakes*—Akron, Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Grand Rapids, Green Bay, Indianapolis, Lima, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, South Bend, Springfield; *Southwest*—Dallas, Houston, Little Rock, Lubbock, New Orleans, Tulsa; *Middle West*—Cedar Rapids, Fargo, Kansas City, Omaha, Sioux Falls, St. Louis, Wichita; *Mountain*—Albuquerque, Boise, Cheyenne, Denver, Great Falls, Phoenix, Salt Lake City; *Pacific*—Fresno, Los Angeles, Portland, Reno, San Francisco, Seattle, Yakima.

[12] This figure applies to the period October 1943–April 1944. Data for about 4,400 identical establishments were available for the preceding 6-month period. A somewhat broader industrial coverage was also achieved in the second period and, in general, the findings for the second period are more reliable and permit more detailed analysis than those for the first.

typically found in the class or group represented. Since the same occupational weights have been used for all periods studied, the averages derived have not been affected by changes in occupational composition. Each covered industry and each major industry group within each area has also been assigned a constant weight [13] as has each region. In general, no changes in the relative importance of industries, individual areas, or regions have been permitted to influence the results of the study. The weights assigned represent the distribution of employees in the autumn of 1943.

Trend of Urban Wage Rates, April 1943–April 1944

The 12-month period from April 1943 to April 1944 was one of considerable significance in the history of American wages. Although the National War Labor Board had been given compulsory powers early in 1942 and in October of that year had been charged with inaugurating a general wage-stabilization program, it was not until the spring of 1943 that a full-scale organization was in operation to administer this program. Hence, the year, April 1943–April 1944, represents the first period of operation of a complete program of wage stabilization.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

The increase in urban wage rates in manufacturing industries during the period from April 1943 to April 1944 amounted to 5.8 percent. The rise during the second 6 months of the year (1.9 percent) was only half as great as that during the first 6 months (3.8 percent), reflecting the development of effective stabilizing procedures by the War Labor Board and, in small degree, the continuing exhaustion of increases permitted under the "Little Steel" formula. Gross average hourly earnings in manufacturing,[14] influenced by changes in overtime payments, occupational structure, etc., rose 7.2 percent, and adjusted average hourly earnings (corrected for premium overtime payments and for changes in the importance of individual industries) rose 6.7 percent during the same period.

General wage increases were not a major factor in the rise of wage rates. Increases affecting as many as 10 percent of the employees simultaneously were reported by only 411 of the 2,332 establishments studied during the first 6 months and by only 397 of the 3,612 establishments studied during the second 6 months. In the aggregate, these increases raised the over-all average by only about 1.1 percent during the year.

The extension of incentive payment and the increasing output of incentive workers also appear to have been minor factors. A special tabulation based exclusively on the wage rates of time workers indicates an increase of 5.3 percent during the year, or almost as much as

[13] The information used as a basis for the weighting of industries, areas, and regions was supplied by courtesy of the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and of the various State unemployment compensation commissions.

[14] All figures on average hourly earnings presented in this article have been supplied by the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics. Since these figures relate to earnings in all parts of the United States and are not limited to urban areas, their comparison with the measure of urban wage-rate changes may be subject to question. The comparison is also affected somewhat by differences in the size of establishments covered and by certain other differences. About three-fifths of all manufacturing employees, however, are employed in cities of 25,000 or more, and the inclusion of suburbs of these cities would result in an even higher proportion. Most of the other differences affect even smaller proportions of the workers. In view of this fact, and in view of the general consistency of the measure of hourly earnings and that of wage rates, the comparison is believed to be justified.

the tabulation including incentive workers. The wage rates (i. e., straight-time average hourly earnings) of incentive workers rose somewhat more than those of time workers,[15] but incentive payment was not common enough to exercise great influence.

There is no evidence that changes in the importance of individual establishments significantly affected the level of average wage rates during this period. Information is at hand, however, which will permit measurement of the influence of this factor before the measure of wage-rate changes is extended to later periods.

These observations lead to the inference, which is supported by the reports of hundreds of employers, that merit increases, automatic seniority increases, and other types of individual adjustments were the dominant factor in the rise of wage rates during the year.

Regional Variations

Variations in wage-rate increases by region are of particular interest because of the lack of regional detail in most of the wage information previously available. The figures presented in table 2 reveal a substantial degree of uniformity in wage movement among the various regions. All nine regions showed an increase, but in six the average rate of increase differed from the national average by not more than 1 percentage point.

The smallest increase, 3.7 percent, occurred in the Border States, where lower-than-average increases were rather general among the industries studied. Wage rates increased most, 8.3 percent, in the Middle West, where particularly large gains were registered in the leather industries (14.2 percent) and in metalworking (10.0 percent). The Great Lakes region was also influenced considerably by the metalworking industries, which showed the largest increase (7.1 percent) of any of the industry groups in that region.

There is little evidence here of any consistent relationship between level of wages and extent of increase. Although both the Pacific and Great Lakes regions—the highest-wage regions—showed greater increases than the Nation as a whole, the extent of the difference was slight. The lowest-wage region, the Southeast, also showed a greater-than-average increase, while the increase for the Southwest was only slightly less than the National average. The greatest increase, as has been seen, occurred in the Middle West, where about average wage rates prevail.

[15] It would be erroneous to attribute the relatively rapid rise of incentive wages entirely to increasing worker productivity. There is, in fact, little evidence of increasing productivity during this period. It is probable that liberalization of piece rates (or their equivalent) which are notably difficult to stabilize, was the major factor.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Manufacturing, by Economic Region and Selected Area, April 1943–April 1944*

Economic region and urban area [1]	Number of establishments studied [2]	Percent of increase from—		
		April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1943 to April 1944
All regions	3,612	3.8	1.9	5.8
New England	490	3.2	1.3	4.5
Boston	199			6.9
Providence	66			3.3
Middle Atlantic	715	2.6	2.9	5.5
Buffalo	76			11.8
Newark	93			8.3
New York	267			5.5
Philadelphia	142			3.7
Pittsburgh	44			2.8
Border States	214	1.6	2.0	3.7
Baltimore	61			2.8
Louisville	63			5.4
Southeast	334	3.6	2.2	5.9
Atlanta	55			5.1
Birmingham	45			2.9
Memphis	30			6.4
Great Lakes	945	5.1	1.3	6.5
Chicago	261			4.9
Cleveland	171			6.5
Detroit	134			6.1
Indianapolis	44			4.6
Milwaukee	74			3.0
Minneapolis	73			3.7
Middle West	202	4.8	3.3	8.3
Kansas City	45			3.1
St. Louis	87			10.6
Southwest	184	4.2	1.2	5.5
Dallas	46			9.2
Houston	43			1.8
New Orleans	40			7.8
Mountain	120	3.0	2.3	5.4
Denver	42			7.5
Pacific	408	4.6	1.3	6.0
Los Angeles	159			8.4
Portland	55			.4
San Francisco	84			1.3
Seattle	61			3.3

[1] For the names of other areas included within the various regions, see footnote 11, p. 690.

[2] These figures are included only to indicate the number of establishments from which pay-roll data were obtained; they refer to the period from October 1943 to April 1944. Other information representing all manufacturing employees in the respective regions was used for weighting purposes.

Intercity Variations

Only in the largest of the individual city areas is the coverage sufficient to justify presentation of separate figures. Table 2 gives such information for 28 of the 69 areas.[16]

These figures, too, show some uniformity with respect to the trend of wage rates. Eleven of the areas had increases within 2 percentage points of the national average. Portland, Seattle, and San Francisco all showed small increases during the year; wage-rate increases in these cities were partly offset by a decline in the competence and experience of workers in specific jobs resulting from a high rate of labor

[16] There appears to have been no marked difference in amount of wage increase by size of city. The following figures present weighted averages of the yearly increases of individual areas, classified by size of central city.

Size of central city:	*Number of areas*	*Average increase (percent)*
Under 100,000	28	5.9
100,000 and over	41	5.7

turnover.[17] The largest increases occurred in Buffalo (11.8 percent) and St. Louis (10.6 percent), reflecting primarily increases in wage rates in the metal trades and (in the case of St. Louis) leather products.

As would be expected, the uniformity of wage-rate changes was greater within individual regions than in the Nation as a whole. All but 6 of the 28 areas experienced greater wage increases in the first half-year than in the second.

Wage-Rate Changes by Industry Group

The greatest increase in wage rates during the year studied was in the leather industries, chief of which is the manufacture of leather boots and shoes (table 3). The 8.7-percent increase reported for this industry group in all areas combined was influenced considerably by an increase of 14.2 percent in the Middle West and one of 9.4-percent in New England. Wage rates in petroleum refining, on the other hand, showed virtually no change in four of the five regions in which this industry is of significance. The slight decline in average rates for all regions combined is believed to reflect the substitution of inexperienced for experienced workers as a result of labor turnover. As is pointed out below, several of the industry groups that showed little change in wage rates during this period had shown substantial increases prior to the wage-stabilization program.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Manufacturing, by Industry Group, April 1943–April 1944*

Industry group	Number of establishments studied [1]	Percent of increase from—		
		April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1943 to April 1944
All industries	3,612	3.8	1.9	5.8
Food and kindred products	693	3.2	1.1	4.3
Tobacco manufactures	26	1.1	3.1	4.2
Textile-mill products	192	2.7	2.7	5.5
Apparel and allied products	368	[2].2	5.0	4.8
Lumber and timber basic products	84	[3]	[3]	[3]
Furniture and finished lumber products	99	3.4	1.8	5.3
Paper and allied products	64	5.2	.2	5.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	295	3.1	1.6	4.7
Chemicals and allied products	157	2.4	1.3	3.7
Products of petroleum and coal	33	[2].3	[4]	[2].3
Rubber products	25	2.0	2.5	4.6
Leather and leather products	101	4.5	4.0	8.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	26	[3]	[3]	[3]
Basic iron and steel	27	[5]	.5	[5]
Shipbuilding	43	.4	.4	.8
Metalworking (except basic iron and steel and shipbuilding)	1,379	5.4	1.9	7.4

[1] These figures are included only to indicate the number of establishments from which pay-roll data were obtained and refer to the period from October 1943 to April 1944. Other information representing all employees in the respective industry groups was used for weighting purposes.
[2] Decrease.
[3] Representation inadequate to show percent of increase.
[4] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.
[5] Data not available for April 1943.

[17] This appears to be an unusual case in which the measure of wage-rate changes is appreciably influenced by a change in the composition of the labor force. See footnote 5, table 1.

It is notable that the war and nonwar industry groups show no sharp and consistent differences with respect to increases in wage rates. On the whole, the industries engaged primarily in production for civilian use appear to have raised wages most during the year. It is probable that local manpower shortages, concentrations of substandard wage groups, and other local considerations have been more important in causing variations in the trend of wage rates than have the general characteristics of entire industry groups.

Special attention should be given to the changes in wage rates in metalworking, since this broad group is engaged largely in the manufacture of war products and because it employs over two-fifths of all urban factory workers. Wage rates in the metalworking industries rose 7.4 percent from April 1943 to April 1944, with most of the increase coming in the first 6 months. All regions reported wage increases in this industry group, the range being from 2.7 percent in the Border States to 10.2 percent in the Southwest. The food industries are also of considerable interest, not only because they constitute an important civilian industry group but because they are represented in practically all areas. The following figures indicate the percent of increase in wage rates in the metalworking and food industries, by region:

	Percent of increase in wage rates	
	Metalworking	*Food*
New England	5.8	4.9
Middle Atlantic	8.1	3.3
Border States	2.7	7.5
Southeast	5.1	6.5
Great Lakes	7.1	4.4
Middle West	10.0	5.7
Southwest	10.2	7.1
Mountain States	5.6	4.3
Pacific Coast	8.8	2.5

SELECTED NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

The nonmanufacturing industries represented in the Bureau's study of wage-rate changes cannot be considered to represent all nonmanufacturing, in view of the fact that important industries such as construction, communications and transportation, and mining have been excluded. Agriculture and domestic service are, of course, also omitted. The five industry groups represented, however, currently employ about 9,000,000 urban workers, of whom a significant proportion are white-collar workers. Most of the nonmanufacturing employees represented are paid by the week or month instead of by the hour, and their wage rates are lower, on the average, than the rates of factory workers. Both because of their numerical importance and because of their distinctive characteristics, therefore, the nonmanufacturing workers form a significant group.

Wage rates in the five nonmanufacturing industry groups combined rose 9.4 percent from April 1943 to April 1944 (table 4)—considerably more than wage rates in factories. This increase is not affected by changes in the hours of work, since all weekly and monthly rates were converted to an hourly basis before the changes were computed. Although three of the five industry groups individually showed greater increases than the average for all manufacturing, the greatest increase (12.4 percent) occurred in retail trade, which employs almost

as many urban workers as the other four groups combined. The following percentages indicate that large increases in wage rates in retail stores were experienced in nearly all regions:

	Percent of increase		*Percent of increase*
New England	6.7	Middle West	15.5
Middle Atlantic	12.0	Southwest	21.3
Border States	14.7	Mountain States	7.4
Southeast	14.9	Pacific Coast	4.9
Great Lakes	14.8		

TABLE 4.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, by Industry Group, April 1943–April 1944*

Industry group [1]	Number of establishments studied [2]	Percent of increase from—		
		April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1943 to April 1944
Total, selected industries	3,019	6.4	2.7	9.4
Wholesale trade	269	2.5	2.0	4.5
Retail trade	1,142	9.2	3.0	12.4
Finance, insurance, and real estate	389	3.9	3.1	7.2
Local utilities	87	1.5	1.1	2.6
Service trades	1,132	6.4	2.4	8.9

[1] The specific industries selected to represent these groups in the measurement of wage-rate changes were as follows: *Wholesale trade*—general-line wholesale groceries; *retail trade*—department stores, clothing stores, and groceries; *finance, insurance, and real estate*—banks and savings and loan associations; *local utilities*—electric light and power or gas companies; *service trades*—hotels, power laundries, and auto-repair shops.

[2] These figures are included only to indicate the number of establishments from which pay-roll data were obtained; they refer to the period from October 1943 to April 1944. Other information representing all employees in the respective nonmanufacturing industry groups was used for weighting purposes.

There is reason to believe that the substantial wage increases granted by retail stores, the service trades, and certain other nonmanufacturing industries during this period represented a delayed reaction to the forces that had raised wages in manufacturing industry many months earlier. Many stores and offices that had not previously been affected by manpower shortages were required to raise wages in order to keep their workers or attract new ones during this period. The "substandard wage" policy of the National War Labor Board also facilitated the raising of rates in the low-wage retail stores and service trades. It is notable that the wage rates of local utilities, which increased least during the period studied, have long compared favorably with those in manufacturing industry, and rose substantially prior to the spring of 1943.

General wage increases affected a relatively small proportion of the nonmanufacturing establishments studied. Only 361 of the 2,098 establishments studied in the first 6 months and only 430 of the 3,019 studied in the second 6 months reported such increases. For the most part the raising of rates was accomplished by means of the merit increases and seniority promotions that are characteristic of these industries.

Among the industries covered, incentive pay is of greatest importance in retail trade, particularly in department and clothing stores. Many stores, in addition to raising hourly rates, liberalized salesmen's commissions; sales per salesman, moreover, were at a high level. These factors, however, were not primarily responsible for the wage-rate increases in retailing. The average increase of wage rates for

time workers only was 10.0 percent, or more than that for any other industry.

Variations by Region and City

Interregional and intercity comparisons of wage-rate changes in nonmanufacturing are particularly significant because the same industries have been studied in all localities. Data for all regions and for 28 large cities are presented in table 5. These show considerably wider variation than do the comparisons for manufacturing industry.

TABLE 5.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, by Economic Region and Selected Area, April 1943–April 1944*

Economic region and urban area [1]	Number of establishments studied [2]	Percent of increase from—		
		April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1943 to April 1944
All regions	3,019	6.4	2.7	9.4
New England	501	3.3	2.3	5.7
Boston	144			5.8
Providence	76			2.4
Middle Atlantic	483	5.6	2.3	8.0
Buffalo	73			4.3
Newark	79			[3] 12.7
New York	159			[3] 7.4
Philadelphia	66			12.9
Pittsburgh	43			5.8
Border States	222	6.5	4.6	11.4
Baltimore	49			9.5
Louisville	55			15.8
Southeast	424	9.3	4.1	13.8
Atlanta	54			13.7
Birmingham	37			12.0
Memphis	45			13.3
Great Lakes	541	8.2	2.2	10.6
Chicago	101			11.8
Cleveland	65			11.2
Detroit	69			16.1
Indianapolis	42			8.8
Milwaukee	49			11.1
Minneapolis	49			7.5
Middle West	187	8.6	3.0	11.8
Kansas City	32			11.7
St. Louis	35			11.0
Southwest	215	11.4	5.6	17.6
Dallas	43			21.8
Houston	49			16.3
New Orleans	47			19.2
Mountain	180	4.0	2.7	6.9
Denver	49			5.1
Pacific	266	2.7	1.8	4.5
Los Angeles	69			6.4
Portland	33			4.3
San Francisco	46			3.4
Seattle	37			1.5

[1] For the names of other areas included within the various regions see footnote 11, p. 690.

[2] These figures are included only to indicate the number of establishments from which pay-roll data were obtained; they refer to the period from October 1943 to April 1944. Other information representing all employees in the selected nonmanufacturing industry groups in the respective regions was used for weighting purposes.

[3] Data for April 1943 to October 1943 based only on wholesale groceries and department and clothing stores.

All regions showed greater increases in wage rates in the combined nonmanufacturing industries than in manufacturing. Nonmanufacturing wage rates in all regions were raised more in the first half-year than in the second. The two lowest-wage regions, the Southeast and Southwest, showed the largest increases in nonmanufacturing wage rates (13.8 and 17.6 percent, respectively), and the Pacific Coast,

where the Nation's highest wage rates prevail, showed the smallest increase (4.5 percent). In five of the nine regions the average increase exceeded 10 percent.

In general, the rank of the various regions with respect to the increase in urban wage rates in individual nonmanufacturing industries was about the same as for the five industry groups combined. Thus, the Southwest showed the largest increase in three of the five industry groups and the second largest in the remaining two. The Pacific Coast region showed relatively small increases in all of the four industry groups for which information was available for the full year. [18]

Among the larger individual urban areas the change in wage rates during the year ranged from an increase of only 1.5 percent in Seattle to one of 21.8 percent in Dallas.[19] Only Boston, Providence, Buffalo, Denver, Seattle, and Los Angeles showed smaller increases in nonmanufacturing wage rates than in manufacturing. There was a marked tendency for those cities with the lowest wage levels in nonmanufacturing industry to show the greatest increase in wage rates between April 1943 and April 1944.[20] Among the exceptions to this tendency was Detroit, which, in spite of its high rank with respect to nonmanufacturing wage rates, was fourth from the top in percent of increase.

General Wage Increases in Manufacturing, January 1941–April 1943

Information similar to that presented in the preceding section is not available for the period prior to April 1943. Hitherto unpublished material regarding general wage changes put into effect by several thousand urban manufacturers, however, throws new light on the nature and extent of wage movements between January 1941 and April 1943. During most of this period, general wage increases (i. e., increases affecting the hourly or piece rates of substantial groups of workers simultaneously) provided the customary means of raising factory wages [21] and undoubtedly accounted for the preponderant share of all wage-rate changes.

NATURE OF INFORMATION

The Bureau's information on general wage increases is limited primarily to increases simultaneously affecting 10 percent or more of the workers in a given factory. In rare cases increases affecting smaller groups are included; as, for example, a raise affecting all employees in a key occupation. Most such increases during the period described here were uniform for an entire occupation, division,

[18] Data on the increase in Pacific Coast utility wage rates are not available for the period prior to October 1943.

[19] Wage rates in nonmanufacturing industries increased slightly more in larger than in smaller cities, although this relationship was not found in all regions. The average increase for the cities of 100,000 or more was 9.6 percent while that for smaller areas was 9.3 percent.

[20] See Intercity Variations in Wage Levels, in Monthly Labor Review, August 1944.

[21] In nonmanufacturing industries general wage increases appear to have been much less important as a means of raising wage rates, while merit increases and other types of individual adjustment were more common. Although there is convincing evidence of an appreciable increase in the wage rates of nonmanufacturing workers during this period, an analysis of reports on general wage increases in several thousand nonmanufacturing establishments reveals that this type of wage adjustment was of minor importance.

or shop; for example, 5 percent or 5 or 10 cents per hour for all maintenance workers. Many of the increases affected the entire factory labor force. Office employees were not covered.

As compared with the wage-rate changes described in the preceding section, general wage changes are more limited, since they exclude merit increases and other types of wage adjustment affecting individuals or small groups.[22] In the early years of the war, to be sure, prior to the passage of the Stabilization Act in October 1942, individual wage adjustments were relatively unimportant in their influence on wage levels, particularly in the larger establishments. For all of the early war period, however, and particularly for the period from October 1942 to April 1943, general wage increases provide only a minimum measure of the rise of wage rates.

Information regarding general wage increases was obtained by the Bureau's field representatives in connection with their visits to manufacturing establishments in the spring and summer of 1943. The findings presented in this article summarize general wage increases reported for characteristic industries in 40 large urban areas. Usable data were obtained from more than 5,700 establishments employing approximately 1,750,000 workers. Establishments employing fewer than 9 workers were not visited.

In summarizing the information on general wage increases the amount of each hourly increase was first expressed as a percentage of the estimated straight-time hourly wage bill of all workers.[23] The percentages representing the various establishments, including those that had granted no general raises, were then combined into weighted averages representing industry-area units. These weighted averages were further consolidated to represent broad industry groups and broad regions.

The establishments for which general wage increases have been analyzed are only roughly representative of urban manufacturing. Although careful weighting has improved the usefulness of the material reported, it is recognized to be subject to an appreciable margin of error. The summaries presented below should, therefore, be regarded as approximations, suitable primarily as a basis for broad, general conclusions.

EXTENT OF GENERAL WAGE INCREASES

The findings appearing in table 6 indicate that general wage increases alone raised urban factory wage rates by approximately 14 percent from January 1941 to April 1943. A 13-percent increase was effected in the 21 months prior to the passage of the Stabilization Act, while the 6 months following the passage of that act witnessed an increase of only 1 percent. As has been indicated above, these figures may be considered to represent minimum measures of the change in wage rates.

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[22] In terms of the list of factors influencing hourly earnings, presented in table 1, general wage increases include factors 1 and 2, but exclude factors 3 and 6. Since, in summarizing the increases reported, constant weights were assigned to the areas, regions, and establishments concerned, the resulting measure is clearly free from influence by the other factors.

[23] Thus an across-the-board increase of 5 cents per hour in a factory paying wage rates averaging $1.00 per hour was expressed as a 5-percent increase; a 10-percent increase affecting only half of the workers was also expressed as a 5-percent increase.

TABLE 6.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Manufacturing, Caused Exclusively by General Wage Increases, January 1941–April 1943* [1]

Region and industry group	Number of establishments studied [2]	Percent of increase from—		
		January 1941 to October 1942	October 1942 to April 1943	January 1941 to April 1943
All regions	5,726	12.6	1.1	13.8
Northeast and Middle Atlantic	2,028	13.3	1.2	14.7
Southeast, Southwest, and Border States	962	14.3	.8	15.2
Great Lakes and Middle West	2,154	11.7	.8	12.6
Mountain and Pacific	582	11.1	2.2	13.6
Food and kindred products	792	11.3	1.3	12.7
Tobacco manufactures	32	13.3	.8	14.2
Textile-mill products	362	19.4	.3	19.7
Apparel and allied products	611	11.6	2.3	14.1
Lumber and timber basic products	44	[3]	[3]	[3]
Furniture and finished lumber products	97	9.3	.5	9.9
Paper and allied products	90	7.7	2.2	10.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	468	4.7	1.0	5.8
Chemicals and allied products	177	9.8	1.4	11.4
Products of petroleum and coal	31	15.8	.0	15.8
Rubber products	25	12.3	.6	13.0
Leather and leather products	160	13.1	1.1	14.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	27	[3]	[3]	[3]
Metalworking [4]	2,810	13.3	.9	14.3

[1] Data cover only urban areas of 100,000 or more.
[2] These figures are included only to indicate the number of establishments from which pay-roll data were obtained. Other information representing all manufacturing employees in the respective regions and industry groups was used for weighting purposes.
[3] Representation inadequate to show percent of increase.
[4] Including shipbuilding and basic iron and steel.

A comparison of these findings with available measures of average hourly earnings is of considerable interest. Gross average hourly earnings rose 38 percent from January 1941 to April 1943, or more than twice as much as the rise resulting from general wage increases. Much of the increase in earnings, however, reflected the relative growth of the high-wage war industries and an increase in premium payments for overtime work. If rough correction be made for these factors, the remaining "adjusted" increase in average hourly earnings is 25 percent. For reasons discussed below, this figure also appears to exaggerate somewhat the extent of changes in wage rates and may be considered a maximum measure.

Analysis by broad region indicates that general wage increases were common in all parts of the country during this period. The greatest increase of this type took place in the southern section of the country (Southeast, Southwest and Border States), followed by the Northeast, the Mountain and Pacific States, and the Great Lakes and Middle West. It must be remembered, however, that the picture presented here is incomplete, since it includes general wage increases only. It is probable that wage adjustments of this particular type are more characteristic of the large, organized factories of the Northeast than they are of the smaller southern factories, in which unionization is less common. Although the regional detail provided in table 6 is of value in demonstrating the wide extent of general wage increases, it would be unwise to regard the differences shown as reliable measures of regional variations in the wartime trend of wage rates.

The data for separate industry groups may also be somewhat misleading and must be interpreted with caution. It is indicated, however, that general wage increases in the textile-manufacturing industries were sufficient to raise wage rates by almost 20 percent, while those in printing and publishing raised wage rates by less than 6 percent. Most of the industry groups, however, showed about the same average increase as all manufacturing combined. Several groups that showed little or no increase in wage rates in the year following April 1943 are seen to have granted substantial increases during the preceding 27 months; the petroleum and chemical-products industries are outstanding examples.

ESTIMATED CHANGE IN WAGE RATES

It has been pointed out above that the increase resulting from general wage changes between January 1941 and April 1943 constitutes a minimum measure of the increase in wage rates during this period, while the rise of adjusted average hourly earnings constitutes a maximum measure. The observation regarding adjusted hourly earnings, however, justifies further discussion and qualification.

January 1941 to October 1942.—Correction of hourly earnings for changes in the relative importance of the war industries and premium overtime pay undoubtedly removes the two factors that were primarily responsible for the divergent trends of wage rates and hourly earnings during the early years of the war. It should not be assumed without question, therefore, that the increase in adjusted hourly earnings exceeded that of wage rates; it will be seen, in fact, that during a later period (April 1943 to October 1943) wage rates actually rose more than adjusted hourly earnings.

There is reason to believe, however, that prior to the passage of the Stabilization Act adjusted hourly earnings increased appreciably faster than wage rates. The increase in shift differentials alone raised hourly earnings by almost 2 percent over the January 1941 base.[24] Another important factor was the relative increase of employment in the higher-wage regions and cities.[25] Incentive earnings undoubtedly rose appreciably during this early period, as a result of increased productivity. On the other hand, there was no significant increase in the proportion of women in manufacturing industry during this period and the increasing proportion of unskilled and semiskilled workers could not have been sufficient to offset the important forces tending to raise hourly earnings.

These observations are of help in arriving at a rough estimate of the probable increase in wage rates from January 1941 to October 1942. This estimate may confidently be placed between the limits of 13 percent (the amount of general wage increases in urban industry) and 21 percent (the increase in adjusted average hourly earnings). The upper limit, however, may be reduced by approximately 2 percentage points to eliminate the influence of increased premium payments for work on extra shifts. It appears reasonable to assume that the effect of the increase in the proportion of unskilled and semiskilled

[24] See Trends in Factory Wages, 1939–43, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (p. 882).
[25] Some, but not all, of the effect of interregional and intercity shifts has been eliminated by correction for shifts among industries.

workers is approximately offset by the influence of the relative increase in the proportion of workers in high-wage regions and cities. The increase in hourly earnings due to increased productivity of incentive workers is estimated at 2 to 3 percentage points, which seems conservative. This, however, leaves only 3 to 4 percentage points to represent merit increases and other individual wage adjustments, plus any underreporting of general wage increases. It is doubtful whether the influence of these factors could have been less than this. Seventeen percent is estimated as the most probable increase, although the actual amount may have been 1 or 2 percentage points above or below this figure.

October 1942 to April 1943.—The increase in adjusted hourly earnings from October 1942 to April 1943 amounted to 3.3 percent and reflected a substantially lower monthly rate of increase than occurred in the preceding period. In view of the changes in the organization of industry that had already been accomplished, and in view of the substantial increase that occurred in the proportion of women workers,[26] it is doubtful whether adjusted hourly earnings rose appreciably more than wage rates during this 6-month period.

The estimate of wage-rate changes, however, may, in this case, be built up from the minimum of 1 percent representing general wage increases. Taking this approach, it remains only to add the estimated influence of merit increases and other individual wage adjustments. These accounted for an increase of about 3 percentage points in the following 6-month period, after relaxation of the restrictions on individual adjustments. During the period from October 1942 to April 1943 the extent of such adjustments was undoubtedly somewhat less, and is here estimated at a rounded 2 percent.

Comparative Trends in Earnings and Wage Rates, January 1941–April 1944

On the basis of the data presented in the earlier sections of this report it is now possible to estimate the increase in wage rates in manufacturing industry during the entire period from January 1941 to April 1944, and to compare this estimate with various measures of increases in earnings. Such comparison is afforded by table 7, which gives separate detail for the pre-stabilization period and for three 6-month periods since the beginning of wage stabilization.

The increase in urban wage rates during the entire period since January 1941 is estimated at about 28 percent. Rising wage rates thus accounted for about two-fifths of the increase in average weekly earnings (71 percent) and for less than three-fifths the increase in average hourly earnings (48 percent). "Adjusted" hourly earnings, corrected roughly for increases in premium overtime pay and for changes in the relative importance of the various industries, rose 33 percent during the period, or only about one-fifth more than urban wage rates.

[26] Both the number and the proportion of women workers increased more in this period than in any other 6-month period since the outbreak of the war.

TABLE 7.—*Comparative Summary of Changes in Earnings and Wage Rates in Manufacturing, January 1941–April 1944*

Period	Number of months	Percent of increase				Percent of increase per month [1]			
		Gross weekly earnings	Gross hourly earnings	"Adjusted" hourly earnings [2]	Urban wage rates	Gross weekly earnings	Gross hourly earnings	"Adjusted" hourly earnings [2]	Urban wage rates
Total period (January 1941–April 1944)	39	71.0	48.2	33.0	[3] 27.5	1.3	1.0	0.7	[3] 0.6
Pre-stabilization period (January 1941–October 1942)	21	46.0	30.7	20.7	[3] 17.0	1.8	1.3	.9	[3] .8
Stabilization period (October 1942–April 1944)	18	17.2	13.3	10.2	[3] 9.0	.9	.7	.5	[3] .5
October 1942–April 1943	6	9.2	5.7	3.3	[3] 3.0	1.5	.9	.5	[3] .5
April 1943–October 1943	6	5.6	4.7	3.5	3.8	.9	.8	.6	.6
October 1943–April 1944	6	1.6	2.4	3.1	1.9	.3	.4	.5	.3

[1] In obtaining these monthly averages it has been assumed that the increase for each month is computed as a percentage of the rate at the beginning of that month. In most cases, therefore, the monthly figures are slightly lower than those computed by dividing the percentage for an entire period by the number of months in the period.

[2] Hourly earnings, excluding premium payments for overtime, and with industries weighted according to 1939 employment. This corresponds with column (c) of table 1.

[3] Partly estimated.

WAGE CHANGES BEFORE AND AFTER STABILIZATION

What the trend of wages would have been in the absence of wage stabilization will never be known, but table 7 shows clearly that the rise has been less steep since the beginning of the stabilization program than it was in the early years of the war. From January 1941 to October 1942, a 21-month period, wage rates rose 17 percent, while increases during the following 18 months totaled only 9 percent. The monthly rate of increase dropped from about 0.8 percent before stabilization to 0.5 percent in the stabilization period.[27]

The decline in the rate of increase has not proceeded without interruption, however. Despite the intensification of the stabilization program in the spring of 1943, wage rates rose slightly more in the next 6 months than they had risen in the preceding half-year period. The greatest degree of stabilization was achieved from October 1943 to April 1944, when the increase in urban wage rates averaged only 0.3 percent per month.

In conclusion, it is of interest to note that the factors chiefly responsible for wage movements have shown marked changes during the period covered by this study. In the early years of the war, changes in wage rates in manufacturing industry resulted primarily from general wage increases. Premium payments for overtime work and the growing importance of the high-wage war industries were the chief additional factors tending to raise average hourly earnings, although other factors exercised some influence. Weekly earnings were increased substantially by lengthening hours of work. Under wage stabilization, however, merit increases and other individual wage adjustments replaced general wage increases as the chief in-

[27] This drop appears to have been closely related to the inauguration of wage stabilization. A study of quarterly changes in adjusted hourly earnings indicates that the increase of 3.0 percent from July to October 1942 was the greatest increase for any quarter in the war period. From October 1942 to January 1943, however, the increase amounted to only 1.5 percent, which is about the average for subsequent 3-month periods.

fluence on such rates. The change in the relative importance of the war industries has been of decreasing importance. Weekly hours of work and premium payments for overtime have leveled off. As a result of these developments the differences in the trends of wage rates and hourly or weekly earnings have, for the time being, almost disappeared. In the half-year prior to April 1944 the increase of gross hourly earnings only slightly exceeded, and that of weekly earnings failed to attain, the rise of wage rates.

This experience has deep significance for the future. As a result of reduction of hours of work and the growth of civilian industry, the trends of wage rates and of hourly and weekly earnings will inevitably again diverge. If wage rates are held at a constant level, earnings must necessarily fall. It is possible that even a modest increase of rates would be accompanied by a decline in earnings. In view of the large proportion of the national income that consists of wage payments, the level of wage rates will be a factor of enormous importance in the post-war development of the Nation.

Labor Conditions in France

Summary

ALTHOUGH France had highly developed manufacturing industries, more people were employed in forestry and agriculture than in manufacturing. At the time of the last published census (1931), 7,637,433 persons were engaged in forestry and agriculture and 6,837,684 in manufacturing. The total population of the country in that year was 41,834,923, of whom 52 percent were gainfully occupied. Managers and employers and persons working alone totaled 8,990,590—an unusually high proportion, indicating the importance of small-scale enterprise and independent work in France.

France has a number of coal-mining districts, particularly in the northern section of the country, but under normal conditions was obliged to import coal for industrial use. The North was also the center of the great textile industry. Paris and its environs was, however, the pre-eminent center of industrial activity as well as the political seat of government before the German occupation. As a result of the concentration of industry in the region of Paris, living costs and wages were higher there than in other sections of the country.

Wage rates were substantially unchanged from 1929 to 1936 but an upward movement of wages began with the social laws enacted by the Popular Front Government in 1936. The wage structure was particularly affected by the law establishing the 40-hour week, which provided there should be no reduction in the remuneration of workers in industries in which the 48-hour week had been in effect. Wages of female workers were generally lower than for male workers. Shortly after the armistice with Germany, the State assumed total control of the movement of wages. Minimum hourly rates for various classes of activity were established by an order issued by Pierre Laval in June 1943. The minimum rates ranged from 6 to 10 francs, according to zone. In principle, the average wage could not exceed the minimum by more than 15 percent. Women's rates were fixed at 80 percent of the corresponding rates for men.

The 40-hour week established by the Popular Front Government in 1936 was in practically universal effect by the middle of 1937 but, when war became imminent, legislation was passed which, although retaining the principle of the 40-hour week, fixed the normal week at 45 hours and provided for a 60-hour week for establishments working directly or indirectly for the national defense. At the outbreak of the war in September 1939 a general 60-hour week was decreed and longer hours were authorized when necessary. After the invasion there was widespread unemployment and a flexible workweek was introduced, with hours much below 40 in some industries. As German demands for labor in the war industries increased, however, measures were taken to reduce the number of persons employed in French enterprises by revising the hours-of-work regulations in establishments working short time, and thus releasing the desired manpower which could be put at the disposal of the German recruiting authorities.

The organized labor movement played an important part in the enactment of the Popular Front laws under the Socialist Premier

Léon Blum. The Vichy Government dissolved both trade-union and employer organizations and their places were taken by professional syndicates organized under the French Labor Charter. The free trade-unions survived underground, however, and continued their struggle against the dictatorship of Vichy and Berlin.

Contractual agreements between employers and employees were not so deeply rooted in French as in English custom but were stimulated by a Popular Front Law on collective agreements passed in 1936, which was followed by the conclusion of a large number of agreements. Conciliation and arbitration machinery had been established by a law passed in 1919 and the scope of this machinery was much extended in 1936 and 1937; in 1938 a High Court of Arbitration was created. After the outbreak of war, however, the conciliation and arbitration system was suspended and a new system of labor relations was introduced to fit war conditions. Under the Vichy Government, this system was supplanted by an organization of the totalitarian type.

The cooperative movement was well established in France. In 1934 there were 74,259 associations of all types, with a membership of 4,435,050. About nine-tenths of the consumers' cooperatives were in northern (occupied) France. Although both they and the associations in Vichy France were reorganized (by force) along corporative lines, reports indicate that they were still in operation in June 1943.

Compulsory insurance, covering sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death and providing benefits for dependent children in the event of the disability or death of the insured person, was provided by a law passed in 1930. Two systems were established by the law—one covering industrial and commercial workers and domestic servants, and the other, agricultural workers. The wage limit for inclusion in the system was raised in 1936 and again in 1938, and the Vichy Government in 1942 made considerable changes, extending the liability to insurance by raising and in some cases abolishing the wage limit, and issuing regulations to simplify the operation of the scheme; the agricultural scheme was also reorganized. Unemployment insurance was organized on a voluntary basis by trade-union and mutual-assistance funds which received a State subsidy.

RESTORATION OF THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT

In accordance with an agreement concluded between the Allied Governments and the chief of the military section of the French Committee of National Liberation, early in August 1944, self-government was to be established in the liberated areas as rapidly as the military situation made this feasible. The establishment of a Provisional French Government in Paris, headed by General Charles de Gaulle as president of council, was announced by the French Committee on August 30. The Provisional Government included a former Deputy who was appointed as liaison officer between the Provisional Government and the temporary assembly, and General Georges Catroux was made coordinator of Moslem questions and Commissioner of State for French North Africa. Fourteen commissioners—a rank equivalent to that of cabinet minister—were also appointed. All of the Ministries were in operation by September. On September 10 it was announced that the "French State" of Marshal Petain

and all its major laws had been abolished and, on September 12, that France had returned to the laws of the Third Republic.

A radio broadcast of September 7, 1944, reported that Adrien Tixier, who holds the labor portfolio in liberated France under General de Gaulle, had announced an increase in wage rates of French workers, retroactive to September 1. It is expected that the 44-hour week will be re-established in the near future and that overtime will be paid wherever war exigencies or reconstruction make longer working hours necessary. A change in the social-insurance system is also forecast.

The right of Frenchmen to choose their form of government and officers of the government has been affirmed by General de Gaulle on numerous occasions. After his arrival in Paris he stressed the necessity of holding a general election as soon as possible, to enable the French people to select their own government, and expressed the belief that there should be no call of a national assembly not elected by the people. The Provisional Government will remain substantially the same until war prisoners and deportees can be returned and can take part in the general election.

A "consultative chamber" of the Resistance Council, it was reported, was to meet in Paris to consider a constitution for the projected Fourth Republic.

The post-war program of the chief labor organization in pre-Vichy France—the Confédération Générale du Travail—was summarized by one of its secretaries at the headquarters in Paris in the middle of September. He stated that the organization would demand (1) important reforms which would satisfy the needs of the French workers, and (2) that injustices caused by the Vichy Government and the Nazis should be righted. Specific demands were an immediate increase of 50 percent in wages, since it was stated wages had increased only 18 percent during the occupation whereas living costs had increased 200 percent. For the period of the present emergency it was considered that factories engaged in war work, which comprised practically all industries, should be requisitioned by the Provisional Government and officials installed to control profits and direct administration. Nationalization of the mines, electric-power industries, chemical industries, the steel industry, and the insurance companies was also demanded, and it was stated that the country's banks should be strictly controlled by the Bank of France, which should be nationalized.

Economic Resources of the Country

Manufacturing industries were highly developed in France, particularly the manufacture of automobiles, iron and steel and machine products, chemicals, textiles, and luxury goods, but forestry and agriculture were even more important. France has a number of coal-mining districts, particularly in the northern section of the country, but under normal conditions was obliged to import coal for industrial use. The country has a variety of minerals, of which iron ore, potash, bauxite, pyrites, and antimony are abundant and zinc, lead, manganese, and gold are present in certain quantities. The North is also the center of the great textile industry in and around Lille, but Paris and its environs constituted the chief center of industrial activity as well as the political seat of Government until the fall of France. Shipbuilding was carried on in various coastal cities.

Occupations of the Labor Force

The latest data regarding the industrial distribution of the population are contained in the 1931 General Census. A census was taken every 5 years in France but at the time of its fall in 1940, the results of the 1936 census had not been published except for a part of the first volume covering only general population figures.

Of the total population of 41,834,923 in 1931, 21,611,835, or 52 percent, were gainfully occupied. Forestry and agriculture accounted for 7,637,433 persons and manufacturing for 6,837,684. French managers and employers and persons working alone aggregated 8,990,590, showing the relative importance of small-scale enterprise and independent work in France. Mines and quarries employed 440,677.

Table 1 shows the gainfully occupied population in France in 1931, by branch of activity and by sex.

TABLE 1.—*Gainfully Occupied Population of France, by Occupational Groups, Sex, and Industrial Status, 1931*

Class and sex of workers	All groups	Fishing	Forestry and agriculture	Mines and quarries	Manufacturing	Transportation and warehousing	Commerce, banks, and theaters	Liberal professions	Personal service and domestic servants	Public services
Total gainfully employed	21,611,835	66,747	7,637,433	440,677	6,837,684	1,069,356	2,695,390	657,757	893,376	1,313,415
Male	13,711,487	63,396	4,447,051	429,308	4,725,194	934,746	1,538,172	332,641	176,567	1,064,412
Female	7,900,348	3,351	3,190,382	11,369	2,112,490	134,610	1,157,218	325,116	716,809	249 003
Managers or employers:										
Male	3,392,423	11,759	2,362,758	5,244	522,064	24,633	409,569	34,981	21,415	----------
Female	2,844,155	1,291	2,303,017	140	188,067	6,105	316,813	17,451	11,271	----------
Salaried employees:										
Male	1,958,040	505	4,823	16,431	347,368	159,531	576,812	141,323	31,313	679,934
Female	1,066,845	126	1,058	1,295	191,213	25,132	446,355	182,779	12,617	206,270
Wage earners:										
Male	6,491,660	18,789	1,543,364	401,330	3,221,360	538,908	269,327	34,318	79,786	384,478
Female	2,651,885	1,517	576,961	9,881	1,196,231	31,626	83,522	43,639	665,775	42,733
Unemployed:										
Male	308,141	986	20,356	3,705	165,210	71,892	31,171	10,867	3,954	----------
Female	144,674	4	3,547	43	74,703	13,950	17,317	15,360	19,750	----------
Self-employed, home workers, etc.:										
Male	1,561,223	31,357	515,750	2,598	469,192	139,782	251,293	111,152	40,099	----------
Female	1,192,789	413	305,799	10	462,276	57,797	293,211	65,887	7,396	----------

France normally had a considerable contingent of foreign workers. In 1931 they numbered over 1½ million. First in numerical importance were workers from Italy, followed in order by those from Poland, Spain, and Belgium, and finally by French subjects from North Africa. In peacetime, there was a considerable movement each day of Belgian workers who lived in Belgium but worked in France. Like other countries that raise a large volume of agricultural products, France required the services of extra workers during the season.

Employment Conditions

Changes of employment in France were shown by a series of index numbers beginning in 1930 and running up to August 1939—the month

before the outbreak of war. The series was based on a sample group of 2,363,000 wage earners and salaried employees in mining, industry, transportation, and commerce, using 1930 as 100. Employment progressively declined from 1930 through 1935, when the index was 73.5. After the enactment of the Popular Front laws in 1936, employment improved slightly in the following year, to an index of 74.1. By March 1939, under the impetus of war production, the index was 84.6. However, there was some deterioration in the employment situation by August 1939, when the index dropped to 81.2.

UNEMPLOYMENT, AND MEASURES OF CONTROL

The effects of the world-wide depression were not felt as early in France as in most of the industrialized countries, although statistics are unlikely to reflect the full volume of unemployment in a country in which there is no general unemployment-insurance system and, therefore, neither compulsory registration nor the opportunity to benefit from registration. This is the case in France where the only regularly recorded unemployment has been among those voluntarily registering for relief or with the employment exchanges in an effort to secure work. Such statistics as are available show that in 1929 only 928 unemployed persons were listed as on relief and 10,052 as applicants for work. The numbers on the rolls for unemployment relief and applications for work increased steadily from 1929 to 1936. In the latter year the average number of unemployed on relief was about 432,000 and work applications about 475,000. There was some recession in the 2 following years but by October 1940 the numbers on relief and registered for work were at a peak of 1,100,000. By January 1941, the totals had dropped by approximately one-third and at the end of that year were in the neighborhood of 200,000.

Various measures were taken by the Vichy Government to cope with the unemployment following the armistice. These included the prohibition of multiple employment and overtime, restrictions on the employment of women, compulsory termination of the employment of married women in the State services in some cases, and fixing the quota of posts both in public and private employment which could be filled by women.

Preliminary measures were taken, providing for the reinstatement of demobilized workers and salaried employees by their former employers, in a legislative decree of April 1939. This decree was supplemented by laws passed in September 1940 and June 1941. The legislation applied to demobilized men in general, and therefore to returned prisoners of war. Acts passed in February and June 1942 and a decree of July 1942 contained provisions for compulsory reinstatement, placement, and retraining. In addition, a medical service was started for returned war prisoners to help them to become physically fit for work, and various measures were adopted to facilitate their readjustment to civilian life.

WARTIME EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

In July 1938, a law was passed providing for the requisitioning of both industry and labor in the event of war. By this and a later decree the worker lost his right to move freely from job to job. General

control of labor was placed in the hands of the Minister of Labor, who had charge of the occupational and geographical allotment of the personnel between public and private employing services—military or civil, industrial, commercial, or agricultural—and the specific assignment of personnel to establishments and farms.

Such a high proportion of the adult male population was placed under arms when the war started that it became increasingly difficult to man the war industries. As the labor-supply problem grew worse, the Government used its power to recall mobilized men who, because of their technical qualifications, were indispensable on war work.

Rigid control over employment was established by a Vichy law of September 1942, which provided that all male citizens between the ages of 18 and 50 years and all unmarried women between the ages of 21 and 35, who were shown by a medical examination to be physically fit, could be required to carry out any work judged by the Government to be in the higher interests of the nation. The law provided that no worker might be dismissed and no labor contracts canceled in industrial and commercial enterprises without the authorization of the labor-inspection service, and no one might be hired without such authorization.

The recruitment of French labor for work in Germany began in 1941, and in the spring of 1942 the German Government began to press the Laval Government to supply an increasing number of workers (particularly trained workers) for German factories. These demands were followed by threats. Although the French Government insisted for a time upon recruitment on a voluntary basis, a redistribution-of-labor act passed in September 1942 furnished the means of exerting sufficient pressure on the workers to induce them to sign contracts with German firms, while nominally retaining the voluntary principle. One of the inducements offered workers to volunteer for employment in Germany was the release of a certain number of war prisoners for a fixed number of labor volunteers. Various reasons were advanced by the French Government, and repeated by the propaganda services, to justify the sending of French labor to Germany: The social argument of the fight against unemployment; the occupational argument that workers and technicians would have the opportunity of keeping up and even improving their skill; the political argument of the desirability of Franco-German understanding and of collaboration in the struggle against Bolshevism and in the building of a new Europe; and, lastly, the moral and sentimental argument in favor of the release of prisoners of war.

As voluntary recruitment failed to show the desired results, more and more pressure was applied on the workers. By the end of March 1942, between 140,000 and 150,000 skilled and unskilled workers had been recruited, mainly in the Paris region. Of this number about 20 percent were women, and between 22 and 23 percent of the recruits were colonial or foreign workers living in France. Subsequently, thousands of these workers returned to France on various pretexts. In June 1942, 350,000 more workers were demanded and in February 1943, 250,000 more. In order to get these workers, conscription for compulsory labor service was introduced, and two acts were passed making young men between the ages of 20 and 23 liable for conscription. In the compulsory recruitment, violent and even brutal measures were resorted to, and many workers tried to evade recruitment

either by hiding in the interior of the country or by escaping to neutral countries (Spain or Switzerland). Since the quota of younger men was not obtained, measures were taken to conscript men under 50 years of age who were not liable to compulsory labor service and were employed in various capacities in commerce, the hotel industry, banks, insurance companies, and similar establishments. Later a law provided for the suspension of prison sentences for persons who could be released without danger to the public welfare, in order that they might be sent to work in Germany.

Males between the ages of 18 and 50 years were required as of April 20, 1943, to have an employment certificate and were prohibited from leaving the employment specified on the certificate without a transfer order issued by the General Commissioner for Compulsory Labor Service. This card had to be shown upon demand.

The second quota—250,000 workers—demanded by Germany in February 1943, was sent to join the 350,000 to 400,000 already working in German factories and on German construction sites; 210,000 more were added in June 1943. At that time over 2 million Frenchmen (including prisoners of war) were in Germany and at Germany's service; these were in addition to all the workers required by and for the benefit of the occupation authorities on French territory.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

Public employment agencies were first placed in operation in 1904, and in 1925 a law made it mandatory for cities of more than 10,000 inhabitants to establish free labor exchanges. In addition to the municipal offices the Government maintained offices in the various departments. Under the 1904 law private fee-charging agencies were permitted to collect a maximum fee of 60 francs from employers, but no fee could be charged to workers. Advisory councils, which included equal numbers of employers and employees in their membership, were established by the 1925 law. In 1936 the Ministry of Labor abolished the divisional offices and entrusted the coordination of departmental and municipal offices to the divisional inspectors of labor. A further centralization of the employment offices was carried out under a decreee of March 1939, which made the departmental offices subject to the direct authority of the Ministry of Labor.

After war was declared, decrees were issued regulating the hiring and firing of workers, which placed under the jurisdiction of the labor inspectors and the departmental labor-mobilization services all the municipal employment offices and the free offices (established by professional syndicates of workers, or employers, or both), the labor exchanges, trade-unions, mutual-aid societies and all other legally constituted associations, and the authorized fee-charging agencies. The trades or occupations for which all hiring must be done through the public employment offices, and those for which all hiring and firing must be reported to those offices, were established by orders of the Minister of Labor.

A Vichy decree of October 1940 abolished the existing departmental and municipal exchanges and substituted a State system of employment offices organized on a regional basis. In January 1943, an act to reorganize the French Secretariat of State for Labor abolished the Unemployment Commissariat and transferred those of its functions

for which the Secretariat remained responsible to the Directorate of Labor and Employment and the Office for the Occupational Redistribution of Labor.

Workers' Wages

GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

Wages in France before the war were low in comparison with those in Great Britain, Sweden, and Germany, and particularly the United States. Even within France there had always been a great difference between the wages paid in Paris and its environs and in cities in other parts of the country. In October 1938 hourly wages of adult males in manufacturing industries averaged 10.50 francs in the Paris region and 6.19 francs in cities other than Paris. Wage rates remained substantially without change from 1929 to 1936 when the social laws enacted by the Popular Front Government resulted in a general upward movement of wages. The laws which particularly affected the wage structure were the decree establishing the 40-hour week, which provided that there should be no reduction in the remuneration of the workers in industries in which the 48-hour week had been in effect either in wages or other payments, and the one on collective agreements which provided for the establishment of minimum wages by classes and by regions.

The French franc, which had had an exchange value of 19.30 cents in United States currency for many years prior to and during the first World War, underwent a long series of revaluations after the war. The exchange value in terms of United States currency was also affected by the reduction in the gold content of the dollar. In 1934 the exchange value was 6.56 cents, in 1937 it had dropped to 4.34 cents, and in 1940 (the latest year for which quotations have been made by the Federal Reserve Board) it was only 2.08 cents. Although the exchange value in 1940 was only about one-third of what it was in 1934–36, this does not mean that there was a corresponding drop in the purchasing power of the franc in France. According to figures presented in the 1941 I. L. O. Yearbook of Labor Statistics, the cost-of-living index for Paris (based on 1929=100) was 93 in 1934 but rose to 111 in 1937 and to 126 in 1938. As the wage rates rose even more rapidly during those years, there was a net gain in the hourly "real" wage of about 30 percent. On the other hand, as a result of the 40-hour-week law, the weekly "real" wage in 1938 was just about what it was in 1934.

WAGES IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES

Average hourly wages paid in a number of occupations for the years 1935 through 1938 are shown in table 2. The 1935 data are for the period just before the enactment of the 40-hour law, which resulted in sharp increases in hourly wage rates.

The minimum guaranteed hourly wages of metalworkers in the Paris district, as fixed by collective agreement in May 1938, are shown in table 3. Hours worked above the 40 per week provided by law were paid for at time and a quarter for the first 2 hours and time and a third for additional hours; time and a half was paid for night work and work on Sundays and holidays. Other extra payments included a meal allowance of 8 francs for night shifts, bus or car fare of 2 francs

for the second day shift, a half-hour rest period paid for at the full rate for workers on continuous shifts, paid vacations between June 1 and October 15 at the rate of 1 day per month of work, and the family allowances prescribed by law.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Wages in French Cities in October of Each Year, 1935 to 1938, by Occupation*

Occupation	Average hourly wages (in francs [1]) in —							
	Paris and its environs				Cities other than Paris			
	1938	1937	1936	1935	1938	1937	1936	1935
Males								
Average	10.50	10.06	7.06	6.23	6.19	5.60	4.42	3.80
Brewers					5.54	5.17	4.02	3.39
Printers, compositors	11.90	10.50	7.25	6.15	6.87	6.09	4.70	4.24
Bookbinders	11.90	10.50	6.75	5.05	6.84	5.99	4.56	4.13
Tanners					5.86	5.12	4.06	3.49
Saddlers, harnessmakers					5.48	4.96	4.20	3.42
Shoemakers					5.45	4.85	3.95	3.40
Tailors	8.49	8.49	6.38	5.50	5.87	5.43	4.42	3.84
Dyers, cleaners					5.56	5.15	4.12	3.56
Weavers					5.13	4.63	3.62	2.90
Ropemakers					5.31	4.95	3.92	3.33
Wheelwrights					5.96	5.40	4.33	3.72
Wood turners	9.80	9.10	7.50	6.25	6.37	5.72	4.57	3.94
Coopers					5.90	5.45	4.34	3.75
Cabinetmakers	10.10	9.40	6.50	5.87	6.42	5.79	4.55	3.97
Upholsterers					6.32	5.61	4.60	4.00
Pit sawyers			6.50		6.04	5.29	4.41	3.78
Carpenters	9.85	9.65	6.50	5.87	6.44	5.84	4.63	4.02
Joiners	9.85	9.65	6.75	5.87	6.35	5.76	4.53	3.88
Coppersmiths					6.90	6.14	4.81	4.16
Tinsmiths					6.28	5.76	4.53	3.83
Plumbers	10.45	10.28	7.25	6.25	6.47	5.91	4.63	3.96
Blacksmiths	11.70	10.50	7.50	6.10	6.59	5.84	4.57	3.89
Farriers					6.08	5.45	4.32	3.74
Stovemakers					6.35	5.78	4.53	3.83
Locksmiths	9.85	9.65	7.25	6.00	6.35	5.78	4.48	3.77
Fitters					6.88	6.11	4.74	4.01
Metal turners	11.90	10.35	7.20	6.05	6.92	6.14	4.84	4.03
Electrical fitters	9.91	9.70	6.80	6.00	6.56	5.94	4.77	4.03
Watchmakers					6.56	6.00	4.83	4.26
Quarrymen	8.55		6.50	6.25	5.93	5.37	4.16	3.58
Stonecutters	12.85	12.10	9.25	9.25	6.72	6.05	4.84	4.16
Masons	10.15	10.60	7.00	6.37	6.43	5.85	4.59	3.92
Navvies (*terrasiers*)	9.55	9.55	6.50	6.25	5.67	5.11	3.96	3.31
Roofers	10.45	10.28	7.25	6.25	6.50	5.95	4.63	4.02
House painters	9.85	9.65	7.00	6.00	6.33	5.77	4.48	3.83
Ornamental-stone cutters	11.35	11.05	7.67	7.12	7.78	6.85	5.50	4.95
Brickmakers					5.72	5.06	4.10	3.48
Potters					6.01	5.25	4.52	3.56
Glaziers	11.45		7.00	6.12	6.34	5.75	4.47	3.82
Motormen, tramways					6.20	5.67	4.46	3.98
Conductors, tramways					5.91	5.40	4.10	3.86
Truck drivers					6.15	5.78	4.44	3.83
Laborers					4.92	4.44	3.46	2.87
Females								
Average					3.42	3.08	2.62	2.26
Ironers					3.36	3.10	2.63	2.33
Dressmakers					3.40	3.09	2.67	2.33
Seamstresses					3.30	2.97	2.53	2.15
Waistcoat makers					3.59	3.24	2.71	2.33
Lace makers					3.55	3.09	2.63	2.27
Embroiderers					3.42	3.04	2.62	2.19
Milliners					3.31	3.05	2.58	2.20

[1] Average exchange rate of franc in October 1935=6.59 cents; October 1936=4.67 cents; October 1937=3.35 cents; October 1938=2.67 cents.

TABLE 3.—*Hourly Wages in the Metal Industry, Paris Region, May 1938, by Occupation*

Occupation	Hourly rate (in francs [1])	Occupation	Hourly rate (in francs [1])
Boilersmiths, formers, and sheet-iron formers	11.86	Plumbers	9.91
Skilled tool workers—tracers, engravers, millers, fitters	11.55	Carpenters	9.79
Adjusters	11.21	Skilled machine workers:	
Ironsmiths, hand	11.21	Male	9.53
Machine manufacture—turners, millers, rectifiers, borers, mortisers, planers	10.82	Female	8.15
Welders	10.82	Boiler stokers	9.47
Sheet-iron makers	10.82	Skilled assemblers:	
Fitters	10.56	Male	9.34
Clockmakers	10.56	Female	7.62
Mechanics—setters	10.56	Warehousemen	9.21
Electricians	10.30	Laborers—heavy work	8.38
Locksmiths	10.18	Ordinary laborers:	
		Male	7.86
		Female	6.78

[1] Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938=2.81 cents.

The wages paid after February 1938 in different localities in the Departments of Moselle and Meurthe-et-Moselle, in certain branches of the iron and steel industry, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Daily Wages in the Iron and Steel Industry in the Departments of Moselle and Meurthe-et-Moselle, February 1938*

Occupation	Daily wages (in francs [1]) in—		
	Blast furnaces	Steel mills	Rolling mills
Skilled workers:			
First class	62.15–74.24	59.34–71.60	60.90–70.25
Second class	58.70–62.45	52.66–67.20	59.25–64.56
Third class	55.40–59.62	50.00–60.98	56.58–57.58
Specialized workers:			
First class	51.99–61.08	52.50–56.13	53.26–55.20
Second class	48.53–57.95	50.40–53.36	52.98–54.72
Third class	45.60–51.05	47.68–54.05	47.45–50.96
Classified laborers	49.47–62.10	46.80–50.80	45.45–57.54
Ordinary laborers	43.60–49.00	37.60–44.10	39.51–42.65

[1] Average exchange rate of franc in February 1938=3.28 cents.

Table 5 gives the average hourly wages in the textile industry in the Lille and Lyon districts in May 1938. In general, overtime work was not encouraged; in case of rush work, however, time and a quarter was paid in the silk mills in the Lyon district, while 10 percent above the regular rate was paid for overtime in the velvet mills. Family allowances in this district ranged from 50 francs per month for one child to 320 francs for four children, and 150 francs for each child above the fourth. In the silk and rayon industry a lower allowance was paid if both husband and wife worked. The cost of vacations with pay in the district was estimated at about 4 percent of the annual pay roll.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Wages in the Textile Industry of Specified Districts in France, 1938*

LILLE DISTRICT

Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rate, May 1938 (in francs [1])
Cotton and linen weaving	
Weaving:	
Winders:	
Linen, male	3.91
Cotton, male	3.75
Apprentice, male	2.23
Warpers, male	4.25
Weavers:	
Ordinary looms, male	3.97–5.15
Multiple looms, male	4.41–7.00
Other workers:	
Trimmers, male	6.85
Sizer, male	6.14
Sizers' assistant, male	4.69
Head yarn preparer, male	6.15
Yarn preparer, male	5.00
Gatherer, male	4.65
Gatherer, apprentice, male	2.15
Warp assemblers, male	4.13
Shearers, sharpeners, male	5.73
Reelers, male	4.03
Pickers, female	3.47
Thread spinning	
Winding:	
Winders, linen, female	3.53
Assemblers, female	3.64
Cleaners, pickers, female	3.51
Twisters:	
Heavy looms, female	3.66
Light looms, female	3.67
Reelers, female	3.38
Bundlers, male	4.78
Splicers, female	3.35
Finishers, male	4.49
Calenderers:	
Male	4.66
Female	3.58
Glazers:	
Male	3.97
Female	3.72
Polishers, female	4.09
Finishing:	
Winders:	
Automatic machines, female	3.54
Semiautomatic machines, female	3.38
Hand looms, female	3.32
Hand, female	4.68
Spindle tenders, unpolished and polished thread, female	3.50
Winders, sewing thread, female	3.78
Cotton-spinning mills	
Coarse yarn:	
Carders, doffers, male	4.51
Cotton-spinning mills—Continued.	
Coarse yarn—Continued.	
Winders, male	4.56
Card fixers, male	4.31
Scutchers, male	5.02
Grinders, male	5.16
Packers, male	4.69
Greasers	4.71
Oilers, male	4.90
Spinners, male	[2] 6.08
Piecers, male	[2] 2.40–4.80
Carders, male	4.00
Combers, female	[2] 3.58
Drawers, female	3.35
Rovers, male	3.39
Ring spinners, female	3.30
Ring twisters, female	3.47
Doublers, female	3.39
Laborers, male	4.28
Medium and fine counts:	
Spinners:	
Male	5.64
Beginners, male	1.71
Reelers:	
Female	2.62
Beginners, female	1.58
Carders, female	3.24
Combers, female	3.41
Drawers, female	3.30
Rovers, female	3.38
Ring spinners, female	3.44
Doublers, female	3.35
Winders, female	3.32
Knitting mills	
Winders, runners-on (fine gauge), female	4.34
Runners-on (coarse gauge), female	4.27
Linkers, female	4.27–4.55
Sewing-machine operators, female	4.41
Runners-on, female	4.55
Trimmers, female	4.41
Runners-on of toes, female	4.13
Folders, female	3.99
Inspectors, female	4.06
Pairers, female	4.13
Operators, circular machines, female	4.34
Rib top runners-on, female	4.13
Runners-on, male	4.45
Footers, male	6.56
Utility men	5.57
Laborers, male	4.87
Beginners:	
Girls, 14 years	[3] 1.54
Boys, 14 years	[3] 1.68

[1] Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938—2.81 cents.
[2] Piece rate.
[3] Increased 0.10 franc each quarter.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Wages in the Textile Industry of Specified Districts in France, 1938*—Continued

LYON DISTRICT

Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rate, April 1938 (in francs [4])		Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rate, April 1938 (in francs [4])	
	Silk and rayon	Velvet		Silk and rayon	Velvet
Silk and rayon and velvet			*Silk and rayon and velvet*—Continued		
Winders, female	3.70	4.25–4.50	Finishers:		
Reelers, female	3.70	4.25–4.50	Male	7.00	5.50–6.50
Warpers, female	4.50	4.75–5.00	Female		4.25–4.75
Weavers:			Dyers, male	8.15	8.15
Male	4.70		Printers, male	9.00	
Female	4.40	4.75–5.00	Laborers, weaving, male	5.50	
Loom fitters, male	[5]				
Loom fitters' apprentices, male	4.00–5.75				

[4] Average exchange rate of franc in April 1938=3.10 cents.
[5] 1,344.00 francs per month.

WAGES DURING THE WAR

In the spring of 1939 the workweek was lengthened and the normal week fixed at 45 hours without any change in the weekly wages formerly paid for 40 hours of effective work. The remuneration for supplementary hours above 45 per week was successively reduced from 75 percent of the normal hourly rate to 66⅔ percent and to 60 percent; the proceeds of the reduction were paid into the Treasury, to the account of the National Solidarity Fund for the payment of allowances to the families of needy soldiers. Bonuses and fees which were intended to compensate for extra hours were also subject to the reduction. Personnel whose pay was independent of the hours of work, as well as those paid by the month in production services of industrial enterprises, were subject to a direct 40-percent reduction on any increases, including bonuses and fees, granted after September 1, 1939, because of longer hours worked in the establishment. Similar deductions from overtime pay were also put into effect for workers in mines and quarries.

WAGES AFTER THE ARMISTICE WITH GERMANY

Shortly after the armistice, which would normally have brought the suppression of the regulation of wages provided for during hostilities, the State on the contrary assumed total control of the movement of wages. Owing to the great increase in living costs, supplementary wages were provided by a decree of May 1941 for workers in industrial and commercial enterprises, the liberal professions, civil servants, etc., whose salaries or wages did not exceed the limit for inclusion in the social-insurance system. The allowances were made retroactive to June 1, 1941, and were based on the wages in effect in September 1939, or readjusted thereafter. They ranged from 50 centimes to 1.15 francs per hour and were reduced by one-half for workers under 17 years of age and by one-quarter for those under 20. The maximum permissible increase for young workers was 20 percent.

FACTORS AFFECTING WAGES

The actual value of pre-war French wages to the worker was increased by the existence of family allowances, by the granting of paid vacations, and by a system of social insurance.

Family allowances.—Under a law passed in 1932 family allowances were paid to heads of families for each dependent child under 14, and in some cases for children up to 16 years of age. The minimum payments fixed by decree varied widely in different parts of France, the highest rates being paid in Paris. The payments increased in size with the number of dependent children. The purpose of the law was to stimulate the birth rate. The system started in industry and commerce and was extended to many classes of agricultural workers. The funds from which allowances were paid were contributed entirely by employers, except in the case of certain agricultural workers. Contributions varied according to industry and locality but in general were estimated at about 2 to 5 percent of pay roll. In 1939, several decrees extended and improved the family-allowance system, especially for agricultural wage earners, small farmers, and rural artisans. These schemes were absorbed and unified by a decree of July 1939 establishing a family code which provided for family allowances for the heads of families throughout the country not only in the wage-earning and salaried groups but also for employers and independent workers. Funds necessary for the application of the code were raised by taxation. The French Labor Charter, put into effect by the Vichy Government in October 1941, provided for a minimum basic wage to be fixed by the Government by region, Department, or locality; to the wages thus established, supplements were added for family charges. In September 1942, family allowances were extended to widows with family responsibilities, who were not wage earners.

Vacations with pay.—Annual paid vacations were granted to all employees in industry, commerce, the liberal professions, domestic service, and agriculture, by legislation of June 1936. The minimum vacation was 15 days, including 12 working days, for employees with 12 months' continuous service, and 1 week for at least 6 months' service. The right to a vacation with pay, or to compensation if the vacation was cancelled, was continued for the year 1941 by the Vichy Government by a law passed in May 1941.

Social-insurance benefits.—Compulsory insurance, covering sickness, maternity, invalidity, old-age, and death, and providing benefits for dependent children of insured persons in the event of disability or death, was provided by a law passed in 1930. Two systems were established—one covering industrial and commercial workers and domestic servants, and the other agricultural workers. There was no compulsory unemployment-insurance system. The general social-insurance system was maintained by the Vichy Government, and the liability to insurance was extended by raising and in some cases abolishing the wage limit.

REGULATION OF WAGES

Minimum wages for home work were first regulated in the clothing industry, under a law passed in 1915 which originally covered female workers and was extended to include males by an amendment of 1928. During the 1930's various measures were taken to make the law more

effective. Minimum rates of home workers were again dealt with by legislation in August 1941, covering all home industries, which provided that all home workers, male and female, should receive not less than the minimum rates of pay fixed by the prefects. The prefects were bound to consult with the Departmental wage committees which under the 1915 law had previously established rates. The law empowered the Secretary of State for Labor to fix home-work rates different from those specified by the prefect, and no appeal was permissible in such cases. The law also defined the rights of home workers with regard to family allowances (already granted under special legislation) and holidays with pay.

The law on collective agreements and that on conciliation and arbitration, enacted in 1936 by the Popular Front Government, were designed to extend wage standardization in industry and commerce. Both had for their purpose the fixing of minimum-wage rates (and other conditions of employment). If rates could not be agreed upon voluntarily, they were to be imposed by conciliation and arbitration. The terms of a collective agreement made by a single branch of industry might be made a common rule by Ministerial order and thus attain very general application. A new arbitration law enacted in March 1938 provided that minimum-wage rates fixed by collective bargaining or arbitration must be varied, at stated intervals, with changes in the cost of living.

Criteria for determining rates of pay were established by the Labor Charter of October 1941, which provided that members of an occupation were to be remunerated according to their place of employment, occupational qualifications, and the special conditions under which they worked. All workers were to receive a living wage, and geographic location, family responsibility, and skill of the worker were to be taken into account in fixing pay. The minimum living wage was to be fixed for each region, Department, or locality in accordance with the recommendation of a superior wage committee.

With the consent of the occupation authorities, a new system of minimum-wage determination was introduced in June 1943. The system was first applied in the metal industry and it was provided that it should be extended to other industries by special orders. Places of work were divided into six zones according to population of the locality and to the living conditions of the workers; the workers were divided into classes, ranging from laborers to highly skilled workers. A minimum hourly wage and a maximum average hourly wage were fixed within each zone and for each class of activity. The cost of the wage increases was to be borne by the employers, and could not be passed along in increased prices. The minimum hourly rates for the various classes of activity for male workers 20 years of age or over ranged from 6 to 10 francs according to the zone concerned and the maximum average hourly rates from 6.90 to 20.10 francs. Women's rates were fixed at 80 percent of the corresponding rates for men.

Hours of Labor

In June 1936, when the Popular Front laws were passed, the 40-hour week was established for all industry and commerce, educational and welfare organizations, etc. The law provided that the method of application by profession or industry for the total of a territory or for a

region would be determined by the council of ministers, after consultation with the competent section or sections of the National Economic Council. In establishing the hours for a particular industry, the employer and worker organizations concerned had to be consulted. Most of the decrees permitted a choice of the 5-day week, the 5½-day week, or the 6-day week of 6 hours and 40 minutes a day. In general, if such a choice was allowed, it was provided that hours which had been fixed by collective agreement must be followed.

By the middle of 1937, the law was in practically universal effect, although a gradual transition to the new hours was necessary in some industries and in some cases it was necessary to allow a week longer than 40 hours. In the iron and steel industry, for example, which had been operating in general on a 56-hour week, a gradual reduction to a 4-shift system with a 42-hour week was allowed. Longer hours were authorized in industries in which the work was of an intermittent character, such as service industries, food stores, hotels, and restaurants. In underground mines, the time underground for each worker was not to exceed 38 hours and 40 minutes a week.

In order to meet the needs for increased production, particularly in works carried on for the national defense and safety, supplementary hours up to 100 per year were authorized in August 1938; and in November the workweek was extended from 5 to 6 days and necessary overtime over the basic 40 hours was authorized up to a week of 50 hours. As war approached, a law enacted in April 1939, while retaining the principle of the 40-hour week, fixed the normal week at 45 hours with no increase in pay for the forty-first to the forty-fifth hours. In establishments working directly or indirectly for the national defense, the Minister of Labor was authorized to increase hours above 60 when necessary.

Wartime hours.—A decree issued September 1, 1939, at the outbreak of the war, provided for a 60-hour week in industrial, commercial, and cooperative establishments of every kind, with a general maximum workday of 11 hours which could be extended to 12 hours to make up for collective interruptions of work. A 56-hour week, averaged over a period of 12 weeks without special authorization, was fixed for continuous operations and if the work was for national defense or for a public service it could be extended to 72 hours a week, if authorized by the labor inspector. The maximum hours of women and young persons were in general fixed at 10 per day and 60 per week.

Normal hours of work were extended to 43 hours and 30 minutes for underground work in coal mines, with no change in wages for the additional hours, and maximum hours were fixed at 52 hours and 30 minutes a week, or 8 hours and 45 minutes a day.

Hours after the German occupation.—After the armistice, hours were much reduced, owing to the widespread unemployment. An act of August 1940 provided that as a temporary measure for spreading available employment among the largest possible number of workers, the prefect might issue an order fixing hours of work, for a particular occupation, class of work, region, or undertaking or group of undertakings at a lower level than that laid down by the general regulations. The amount of overtime, which thereafter was to be paid for at normal hourly rates, was uniformly fixed at 75 hours a year. In March 1941, this act was amended to provide that orders might be issued increasing

the maximum weekly hours from 40 to 48 or such other hours as might be considered equivalent by reason of the nature of the work. Overtime pay for work in excess of 48 hours was fixed at 10 percent over the normal wage. In the mining industries the weekly hours for underground workers were fixed by decree of July 1941 at 46 hours and 30 minutes, and for surface work at 48 hours. In mineral mines supplementary hours might be authorized by the chief mining engineer up to a maximum of 60 hours per week and 10 hours per day.

Labor and Employers' Organizations

Freedom of association, although recognized by ancient French law, was, except for short intervals, denied to French workmen up to the year 1860, when it began to be tolerated. A slow growth in workmen's societies occurred until 1884, when a law was passed according freedom of association to both employers and workers; these rights were not fully granted, however, until 1901. Organization had always been more complete among employers than workers, although after the outbreak of World War I membership in the principal employees' federation, the Confédération Générale du Travail, increased rapidly. The aims of the C. G. T., as expressed in its constitution, were to unite the workers in defense of their moral, material, economic, and professional interests. In 1920, the Federations of Civil Servants, including three separate groups, affiliated with the C. G. T. Four organizations of agricultural workers with somewhat similar aims were united in the National Federation of Agricultural Laborers. There were several smaller national trade-union groups.

An extremist group in the C. G. T., which favored affiliation with the Third International (Moscow), broke away in 1921 and formed the C. G. T. Unitaire. The two organizations were reunited in 1936. Unification greatly strengthened the workers' bargaining position and with the election of the Socialist Premier, Léon Blum, the way was paved for the enactment of the social laws which so profoundly changed the working conditions of French labor.

In the so-called "Matignon" agreements leading to the adoption of the new laws, the C. G. T. was named the bargaining agent for labor, and the Confédération Générale du Patronat Français, for the employer groups. French labor supported the Government in the modification of the social laws to meet the need for increased production; and in October 1939, after war was declared, a comprehensive agreement fostered by the Government was reached between employers and workers to develop "the spirit of cooperation and trust * * * between the Ministry of Munitions, employers, supervisory staff, and workers."

Membership in the C. G. T. increased from about a million at the beginning of 1936 to nearly 5 million at the first of January 1937 but had dropped to 3½ million on January 1, 1939. A year later the membership was only about 800,000. The members of the three other most important federations totaled about 660,000 at that time, of whom about 488,000 were in the Christian trade-unions.

The principal employer organizations were the Confédération Générale du Patronat Français, the Comité des Forges, and the Comité Central des Houillères de France.

In November 1940, the central employers' and workers' organizations were dissolved by the Vichy Government, although the decree concerning the C. G. T. applied only to its executive and administrative committees and not to the national federations and departmental or local unions affiliated to the Confederation. According to the Minister and Secretary of State for Industrial Production and Labor, this action was taken because the political activities of these organizations exceeded their economic activities. The federation of public employees' unions, affiliated to the C. G. T., was dissolved in October 1940 and new regulations were issued defining and limiting the right of association of these employees.

The French Labor Charter, made effective by decree of October 4, 1941, provided for the organization of workers and employers in professional syndicates, by localities. Within these syndicates separate groups were to be formed for employers and for different categories of workers. Membership was compulsory. Insofar as French workers were able to express their opinion on the new organization, they manifested their unalterable opposition to the social and economic policy of the Vichy Government. The free trade-union movement, moreover, survived underground and continued the struggle against the dictatorship of Vichy and Berlin. The C. G. T. and the General Confederation of Christian Workers are represented in the National Council of French Resistance and the Consultative Assembly which was established in Algiers and was removed to Paris in the latter part of August 1944, after the city was liberated. General de Gaulle had promised the restoration of trade-union liberties and activities, and the C. G. T. met openly in Paris on August 30 for the first time since the dissolution of the trade-unions.

Industrial Relations

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

Regulation of industrial relations by collective agreements made slower progress in France than in many other countries, although a basic law authorizing agreements between representatives of employers and employees was enacted in 1919. Written agreements were required, and became effective only after being filed in a public office. There was no specified time limit for agreements but the general maximum term was 5 years. Legally, agreements might contain provisions by which any disputes arising under the agreement could be referred to arbitration. In 1933 only 7.5 percent of the wage earners in industry and commerce were covered by agreements.

Most agreements were local, covering at most one town or even one establishment; few agreements, except those for printing trades and bakeries, covered all conditions of employment. Normally, some particular aspect of employment relations (usually wages) was the subject of agreement. Hours of labor were second in importance. The characteristic French form of collective agreement was the official regulation of working conditions based on agreement between the parties. Such regulations played an important part in the French labor law, and in June 1934 a total of 283 public administrative regulations covering 4,800,000 wage earners had been issued dealing with the 8-hour day or exceptions from it. Prefectoral orders relating

to the application of the act requiring a weekly rest period did not have such wide scope. Between 1929 and 1932, however, 387 prefectoral orders were issued, 17 of which were later revoked.

The legislation on collective agreements was amended by the Popular Front law of June 24, 1936, which provided that on the demand of an employers' or workers' organization the Minister of Labor was required to appoint a joint committee for the purpose of concluding a collective agreement in the branch of industry or commerce concerned, for either a specified district or an entire territory. If the joint committee could not reach an agreement upon one or more of the provisions to be included in the agreement, it was the duty of the Minister of Labor to intervene on the request of either party, to assist in securing agreement. The Minister could act only after obtaining the advice of the interested professional section or sections of the National Economic Council.

An agreement reached by the joint committee had to specify whether or not it was concluded for a fixed period and had to contain provisions concerning (1) trade-union freedom and freedom of opinion of the workers; (2) the appointment, in establishments employing more than 10 persons, of delegates elected by the employees to represent them in claims relative to the application of rates of wages, the labor code, and other laws and regulations concerning workers' protection, safety, and sanitation (these delegates could demand the assistance of a representative of their trade-union); (3) minimum wages by class and by district; (4) notice of dismissal; (5) the organization of apprenticeship; (6) the procedure to be followed in enforcement; and (7) the procedure by which the agreement might be amended or changed. The collective agreements could not contain provisions conflicting with the laws and regulations in force but could provide more favorable conditions.

Agreements thus concluded could be made compulsory by a decree issued by the Minister of Labor for all employers and employees in the district, in the industries to which they applied, for the period of the agreements. Before a decree was issued the Minister was required to publish a notice in the Journal Officiel, requesting the filing of comments or objections within a period of not less than 15 days. The decree ceased to be effective when the contracting parties agreed to terminate, revise, or modify it. Also, the Minister of Labor could rescind the decree, after securing the advice of the interested parties and the National Economic Council, when it appeared that the agreement was not in accord with the economic situation of the industry in the district concerned.

Following enactment of the 1936 law the Minister of Labor made very large use of the powers conferred on him and the number of collective contracts increased rapidly. Between June 1936 and December 15, 1938, 5,159 agreements had been concluded.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Up to 1936 the most serious disputes in France were a 1920 railwaymen's strike involving demands for nationalization of industry, a 1929 "folded arms" strike by postal employees in Paris, and a series of Communist-inspired strikes in 1930 against wage deductions to help finance the social insurance law that had just been passed.

In May 1936 a revolutionary strike movement broke out. The trouble started with three strikes in small aviation plants but spread to the Paris metallurgical industry, including many automobile plants. Finally, most of the other industries in the Paris district were involved, with the exception of the essential city services. Practically the same situation existed in the most important textile center—Lille. There was a general strike among the miners in the North and many other Provincial centers were affected. In almost all instances the strikes were "stay-in" or "sit-down" strikes, as the workers appeared to regard these as more effective than picketing and as a means of preventing lockouts. However, labor was not successful in preventing lockouts in a number of localities. Léon Blum took office as Premier on June 4 and promised to defend the workers' interests but stated that "the law must be obeyed." The Popular Front laws were enacted shortly thereafter and peaceful relations were again restored.

The suppression or regulation of trade-unions after the fall of France in 1940 had the effect of removing the strike weapon as a means of redressing grievances. In November 1941, the German military commander in occupied France issued an order providing that any person who stopped work without a lawful termination of the employment contract, who dismissed workers or incited them to stop work, or who disturbed industrial peace in any way, would be liable to severe penalties, even death in serious cases.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

According to the March 1919 law on collective agreements, a contract between employers and employees could provide for the settlement of differences arising under the agreement by conciliation and, in default of an agreement, by arbitration. Following the widespread sit-down strikes in the early part of 1936, the French Government made its first serious attempt to prevent strikes by providing that disputes must be settled by peaceful means. A law of December 1936 provided that disputes must be submitted to conciliation before resorting to strike or lockout, and if recourse to conciliation would mean undue delay cases could be submitted at once to arbitration. Arbitrators were required to make their decisions without delay, and their findings were binding and without appeal. Measures to speed up the arbitration machinery were adopted in 1937, and in March 1938 the scope of the original law was broadened and procedure governing disputes arising under collective agreements was established.

Each collective agreement had to provide for a joint conciliation commission to deal with disputes which had not been settled by the parties within the period fixed by the agreement. The agreement had to provide for the designation of an arbitrator and alternates to act in conflicts which had not been settled by the commission. One of the main aims of the 1936 law was to consolidate the gains in wages which the workers had obtained through the 1936 strikes. To this end, the 1938 law provided that the conciliation and arbitration machinery should be used in case of a considerable variation in the cost of living. Wage revision could be demanded if the cost-of-living index varied at least 5 percent from that on the nearest date on which

wages had been fixed by the agreement. Both wages and family allowances were to be adjusted to the cost of living in such cases, unless the employers could prove that the adjustment was incompatible with the economic conditions of the activity in the area covered by the agreement, in which case the arbitrators would fix the wages. Wage revisions could be made only at 6-month intervals, unless the index advanced 10 percent. The workers thus gained, in exchange for compulsory arbitration, a sliding scale of wages guaranteeing in large measure stability of purchasing power.

A High Court of Arbitration was created by the March 1938 law which had jurisdiction on a par with the Supreme Court and the High Court of Appeals. This court, made up of high Government officials, was a court of appeals. It judged awards and principles but did not take the place of an arbiter to settle disputes.

The conciliation and arbitration system was suspended when war was declared, and a new system of labor relations was introduced in November 1939 by which the Minister of Labor, in consultation with technical committees appointed in each Department, was given power to modify the terms of agreements in accordance with production requirements, or in the absence of collective agreements, to fix the conditions of employment for a given occupation or district.

After the armistice, the Government established a new organization modeled on totalitarian lines by which special organization committees were created in each branch of industrial or commercial activity. These committees, under the Minister of State for Production, controlled raw materials and the programs of production and manufacture and could requisition materials, products, labor, and enterprises, thus apparently putting an end to the provisions governing conciliation and arbitration.

Social Insurance

SICKNESS, MATERNITY, INVALIDITY, OLD AGE, AND DEATH

Compulsory insurance covering sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death, and providing for benefits for dependent children of insured persons in the event of disability or death was provided by a law passed in 1930. Two systems were established by the law—one covering industrial and commercial workers and domestic servants, and the other, agricultural workers. Unemployment insurance was not included in the system, but persons who were compulsorily insured and became involuntarily unemployed were exempted from payment of the social-insurance contribution for a specified period. In addition to the general systems, special systems were maintained for miners, seamen, railwaymen, civil servants, and public utility employees and workers. In three instances the special systems provided only old-age, invalidity, and death benefits.

Industrial and commercial workers.—The wage classes on which contributions and benefits were based in the original law were abolished in 1935. The wage limit for inclusion in the system, which was fixed at 25,000 francs a year in the original law, was raised to 30,000 francs in 1938. In January 1942 the Vichy Government abolished the wage limit for manual workers and others paid on an hourly, daily, weekly, or piece-rate basis or by the job; workers paid on a monthly or fort-

nightly basis or on a commission or turnover basis were made liable for insurance if their annual pay or earnings, excluding family allowances, did not exceed 42,000 francs a year. Domestic servants and persons intermittently employed continued to be covered by the provisions of the 1935 decree, as amended.

Under the earlier system the payment of sickness benefits depended either on a qualifying period or on the payment of a minimum number of contributions. The 1942 amendments provided that insured persons and their families were entitled to benefit if the insured person had been in insured employment or registered with an employment office during the 3 months preceding the claim for benefit. Cash benefits under the present system are payable from the fourth day after the beginning of sickness or accident, for a period not to exceed 6 months. Services of a general practitioner and specialist treatment are provided from the beginning of illness, dental services are furnished, and hospital or sanatorium care may be provided but with reduced cash benefits. The patient has free choice of a doctor.

Maternity benefits, including a cash benefit and the payment of the cost of medical and pharmaceutical care and necessary institutional care, are payable if the applicant can show membership in the system for more than 10 months preceding the confinement and if the proper notice was sent to the fund at least 3 months before the expected date of confinement. A nursing bonus or milk allowance is also paid.

Invalidity pensions are payable, under the law of August 1942, at the end of the sixth month covered by sickness insurance or in case of injury if the working capacity is reduced by at least two-thirds. A supplementary benefit is payable for each child under 16 years of age.

Old-age pensions are payable at the age of 60 years without any qualifying period. In case of the death of an insured person a lump sum is paid to the surviving dependents, and the widows of insured persons with at least three children under the age of 14 years are entitled to an orphan's pension for each child after the second. The payment of these benefits—formerly dependent upon 1 year's membership and the payment of not less than 60 francs in the four quarters immediately preceding death—now depends only upon the insured person's having been in paid employment or registered with an employment office during the 3 months preceding the death or the sickness or accident causing death.

Contributions amounting to 8 percent of insured wages, calculated on actual earnings, are payable in equal parts by insured persons and their employers. The State pays a fixed annual subsidy.

Agricultural workers.—The compulsory insurance system covers workers in agriculture and forestry, whose occupations are governed by the Industrial Accidents Act, persons employed by rural craftsmen who do not employ more than two persons, persons employed by contractors for threshing and other work, and those employed by agricultural trade-unions and other agricultural organizations. Members of the farmer's family are included.

Under the original law various mutual benefit societies and insurance funds covered the different risks; national reinsurance funds reinsured the risks of sickness and maternity, participated in the medical programs, provided medical treatment for invalids, and paid invalidity pensions for the first 5 years of invalidity. General financial operations were covered by the General Guaranty Fund. The

reinsurance funds, except those of an occupational character, were abolished in 1941 and the various funds affiliated to or reinsured in the Central Agricultural Mutual Insurance Fund; the activities of branches of pension funds were transferred to the Central Agricultural Pensions Fund. The insurance is financed by equal contributions by employers and insured persons and a State subsidy.

Under the former system, benefits in case of sickness and maternity were not uniform as they were fixed by the rules of the mutual benefit societies or the section of the departmental fund to which the workers were affiliated. In order to qualify for sickness benefit an insured person must have paid 5 monthly contributions during the two calendar quarters immediately preceding the sickness or accident or 10 monthly contributions in the preceding four calendar quarters. Qualification for maternity benefit depends upon a contribution by the insured woman or her husband equal to the aggregate amount of 9 monthly contributions in the four calendar quarters preceding the quarter in which the confinement takes place.

Old-age pensions are payable at the age of 60 years. Under the act passed in March 1941, persons who were 50 years of age on that date were entitled to pensions on reaching the age of 60 if certain qualifying conditions as to contributions were met (the minimum payment was 600 francs a year). For persons under 50 years of age and those already pensioned, the provisions are the same as those for industry and commerce. Survivors' benefits, payable in a lump sum, are equal to 10 times the amount credited to the individual account of the insured person during the last four quarters.

UNEMPLOYMENT RELIEF AND COMPENSATION

Aid to unemployed persons in France takes two forms—unemployment assistance and a system of voluntary insurance subsidized by the State. A decree of May 1939 consolidated and amended the laws relating to unemployment, and numerous decrees have been issued since that time for the purpose of correcting anomalies and reforming the systems to meet the abnormal conditions brought about by the war and the armistice. The relief and insurance systems broke down after the fall of France and emergency measures had to be taken for the relief of the unemployed who at that time numbered over a million. A new unemployment-relief system was established by an act of October 1940, which also reorganized the public employment services.

Unemployment allowances were paid to unemployed workers and their families who could prove that they had been engaged in a trade or occupation and had resided in the commune for specified periods, if they had been registered with the public employment offices and had been unable to find work.

The voluntary unemployment-benefit funds maintained by trade-unions, mutual-aid associations, and similar organizations provided benefits for insured members after 2 months' membership in the fund. The other conditions governing the payment and duration of benefits varied in the different funds, and the amount of contribution varied from fund to fund. In general, the State subsidy could not exceed one-third of the benefits paid.

Cooperative Movement

The consumers' cooperative movement and the workers' productive associations began about the middle of the nineteenth century and were already well established in France before the first World War; cooperation among the farmers began only in the early years of the twentieth century.

During the period of the first World War the Government made considerable use of the network of consumers' cooperatives for purposes of distributing supplies to the people, and the cooperatives of all kinds played a substantial part in the reconstruction of devastated areas.

A policy of amalgamation of small associations within one or more departments began shortly after the first World War. The so-called regional development associations thus formed played an increasingly large part in the consumers' cooperative movement, their business rising from 35 percent of the combined sales of all the associations affiliated to the National Federation in 1920 to 67 percent in 1938.

Consumers' cooperatives affiliated to the National Federation of Cooperatives in 1938 numbered 1,176, with a membership of 1,165,000 and a total volume of business amounting to 2,500,000,000 francs.

During the years 1935–38 the consumers' cooperative movement gradually attained recognition in the system of planned economy that was slowly being put into force in France. Beginning in 1939, the cooperatives began to suffer increasingly from the wartime economic regulations and difficulty of obtaining supplies because of the scarcity of certain essential commodities. Nevertheless the movement was holding its own and even increasing its productive output.

Most of the regional cooperatives were in the northern section of France. Considerable damage to buildings was sustained in the bombardment that accompanied the invasion of France in June 1940. A policy of "regroupment, unification, and purification of the cooperative movement" was immediately started by the Germans. The National Federation and the Cooperative Wholesale Society were merged into one organization and all associations in a single town or city were required to consolidate. In unoccupied France cooperatives, like other organizations, were subjected to the measures inaugurated by the Vichy Government with a view to reorganizing French economic life along corporative lines, but the associations were allowed to continue in operation.

Apparently, after the initial period of destruction, the Germans also found the continued existence of the cooperatives advisable. Thus, in June 1943 the associations not only were still in operation but took part in a cooperative congress which brought together delegates from all parts of France except Alsace-Lorraine.

Employment and Labor Conditions

State Distribution of Employment in Federal Agencies, June 1944[1]

Summary

FIVE States—New York, California, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Illinois—had a third of the 2,918,000 Federal employees in continental United States in June 1944. New York and California, with 297,000 and 289,000, each had more Federal workers than the Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area (270,000). In fact, 10 of every 11 employees were outside Washington.

In the Washington area, 1 of every 2 Federal employees was in a war agency, as compared with 3 of every 4 in the 48 States. War agencies accounted for 9 of every 10 employees in Rhode Island, South Carolina, Virginia, Florida, and Utah, and 8 of every 10 in 10 other States (Alabama, California, Georgia, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Washington). Many of the employees in war agencies were working on the construction and repair of ships, or on the manufacture of guns, ammunition, and other matériel of war, or were in Army and Navy training camps and schools. Also, some were engaged in activities of emergency war agencies, such as the Office of Censorship, War Shipping Administration, Office of Price Administration, Selective Service System, etc.

Employment was widely distributed among the States for every large agency except the Navy Department, for which concentrations were greatest in the coastal States, especially in those having navy construction and repair yards. Concentrations of employees in certain States for other agencies resulted from the location of a district or regional office there. This was true especially of New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, California, and Texas.

Scope and Method of Study

This article was prepared jointly by the Civil Service Commission and the Bureau of Labor Statistics on the basis of reports submitted to the Commission by all agencies of the Federal Government. The reports were as of June 30, 1944, for the Navy Department and as of March 31, 1944, for all other agencies. Data for all agencies except the Navy Department were then adjusted to their respective levels as of June 30, 1944.

The present study covers all types of employees of the Federal Government who were in work status and were stationed within the

[1] Prepared by John W. Mitchell, U. S. Civil Service Commission, and F. Lucile Christman, Division of Construction and Public Employment of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

continental limits of the United States (exclusive of Alaska and Panama Canal Zone). Full- and part-time, regular, temporary, and intermittent employees, force-account construction workers,[2] and trainees were included. Those working without compensation or at $1 a month or year, and those stationed outside the continental limits of the United States, were excluded.

The 7,100 employees, shown under "undistributed," could not be allocated to any State because of being in travel status at the time of the survey and not being assigned to a particular station (tables 2 and 3).

Employment is here shown, by State, only for the relatively large Federal agencies. Tables showing data by State for the other agencies will be furnished upon request.

Relative Size of Federal Agencies

Of the 2,918,000 Federal employees in continental United States in June 1944, 72 percent were in war agencies (table 1). The War Department alone had 42 percent of the total and the Navy Department 23 percent. Other war agencies, which had 7 percent of the total, included the emergency war agencies, such as the War Manpower Commission, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, and the Selective Service System, to mention some of the larger ones, in addition to the three peacetime agencies—Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, and The Panama Canal—now having only war functions.

The rest of the agencies, which had 28 percent of the employment, were by no means all engaged in normal peacetime pursuits. The Post Office Department, with 352,000 of the 814,000 employees in this group in June 1944, handled a volume of mail unprecedented before the war. Many of the Treasury Department's 93,000 employees were engaged in activities connected with financing the war, while the 50,000 employees of the Veterans Administration were engaged in the financial remuneration, medical care, and hospitalization of men and women who have served in this or in previous wars. Also, the National Housing Agency is charged with the responsibility of providing houses for war workers, and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation with the provision of financial means for constructing war production facilities. Other agencies share in the prosecution of the war to a greater or less extent and have added new war units or have modified the type of service rendered as a result of the war.

Only 7 percent of the employees of war agencies who were stationed within continental United States were in the Washington metropolitan area, as contrasted with 16 percent for other agencies. Of the war agencies the War and Navy Departments, War Manpower Commission, War Shipping Administration, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Selective Service System, and the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, because of the nature of their activities, had only a small proportion of their employees in Washington. The opposite was true for the Office of Civilian Defense, the Office of Scientific Research and Development, War Production Board, Office of Strategic Services, and Petroleum Administration for

[2] Force-account workers are those who are hired directly by the Government to work on a particular construction project and whose employment will be terminated at the completion of the project. Federal agencies which employ large numbers of this type of worker are the War and Interior Departments and the Tennessee Valley Authority.

War. Although the figures in table 1 indicate that a high proportion of employees of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Foreign Economic Administration, and The Panama Canal, as well as of the State Department, were in Washington, this is only because the large numbers of employees of these agencies stationed outside continental United States [3] were not included.

Of the other agencies, the Employees' Compensation Commission, Railroad Retirement Board, Securities and Exchange Commission, and Tennessee Valley Authority had their headquarters offices outside Washington. The functions of the Treasury, Justice, Post Office, Agriculture, and Interior Departments, National Housing Agency, and Veterans Administration demand a wide geographic distribution of staff.

TABLE 1.—*Employment in Executive Branch of U. S. Government Inside and Outside Washington (D. C.) Metropolitan Area, by Agency, June 30, 1944* [1]

Agency	Number of employees			Agency total as percent of total for all agencies	Employees outside Washington metropolitan area as percent of total
	Total	Washington metropolitan area [2]	Other areas		
All agencies	2,918,287	270,019	2,648,268	100.0	90.7
War agencies	2,103,800	139,978	1,963,822	72.1	93.3
War Department	1,240,933	54,288	1,186,645	42.5	95.6
Navy Department	672,169	51,450	620,719	23.1	92.3
Other war agencies	190,698	34,240	156,458	6.5	82.0
The Panama Canal	208	161	47	(3)	22.6
Maritime Commission	10,574	3,453	7,121	.4	67.3
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics	6,068	120	5,948	.2	98.0
Office for Emergency Management:					
Alien Property Custodian	890	376	514	(3)	57.8
Central Administrative Services	3,840	1,520	2,320	.1	60.4
Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs	1,015	825	190	(3)	18.7
Fair Employment Practice Committee	116	54	62	(3)	53.4
Foreign Economic Administration	3,885	3,624	261	.1	6.7
National War Labor Board	3,478	623	2,855	.1	82.1
Office of Civilian Defense	157	105	52	(3)	33.1
Office of Defense Transportation	4,783	699	4,084	.2	85.4
Office of Economic Stabilization	9	9	----------	(3)	----------
Office of Scientific Research and Development	858	651	207	(3)	24.1
Office of War Information	4,185	991	3,194	.1	76.3
Office of War Mobilization	45	45	----------	(3)	----------
Smaller War Plants Corporation	1,602	363	1,239	.1	77.3
War Manpower Commission	26,169	1,425	24,744	.9	94.6
War Production Board	15,412	9,658	5,754	.5	37.3
War Shipping Administration	11,911	1,290	10,621	.4	89.2
Committee for Congested Production Areas	85	32	53	(3)	62.4
Office of Censorship	10,561	655	9,906	.4	93.8
Office of Price Administration	59,155	4,284	54,871	2.0	92.8
Office of Strategic Services	1,972	1,799	173	.1	8.8
Petroleum Administration for War	1,254	831	423	.1	33.7
Selective Service System	22,435	618	21,817	.8	97.2
War Refugee Board	31	29	2	(3)	6.5
All other agencies	814,487	130,041	684,446	27.9	84.0
Executive office of the President:					
White House Office	50	50	----------	(3)	----------
Bureau of the Budget	544	526	18	(3)	3.3
Liaison Office for Personnel Management	3	3	----------	(3)	----------
Executive mansion and grounds	87	87	----------	(3)	----------
State	3,574	3,214	360	.1	10.1
Treasury	93,312	23,800	69,512	3.2	74.5
Justice	28,776	8,218	20,558	1.0	71.4
Post Office	351,642	8,321	343,321	12.1	97.6
Interior	39,100	4,831	34,269	1.4	87.6

See footnotes at end of table.

[3] In this study The Panama Canal Zone was considered outside the continental limits of the United States.

TABLE 1.—*Employment in Executive Branch of U. S. Government Inside and Outside Washington (D. C.) Metropolitan Area, by Agency, June 30, 1944* [1]—Continued

Agency	Number of employees			Agency total as percent of total for all agencies	Employees outside Washington metropolitan area as percent of total
	Total	Washington metropolitan area	Other areas		
All other agencies—Continued.					
Agriculture	76,167	10,195	65,972	2.6	86.6
Commerce	28,685	10,103	18,582	1.0	64.8
Labor	6,035	1,974	4,061	.2	67.3
American Battle Monuments Commission	1	1		[3]	
American Commission for Protection of Monuments in Europe	3	3		[3]	
Board of Governors, Federal Reserve System	455	435	20	[3]	4.4
Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation	19	19		[3]	
Civil Service Commission	6,887	3,325	3,562	.2	51.7
Employees' Compensation Commission	471	32	439	[3]	93.2
Export Import Bank	56	56		[3]	
Federal Communications Commission	1,524	900	624	.1	40.9
Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation	1,720	246	1,474	.1	85.7
Federal Power Commission	667	484	183	[3]	27.4
Federal Security Agency	30,054	6,887	23,167	1.0	77.1
Federal Trade Commission	446	390	56	[3]	12.6
Federal Works Agency	19,868	14,363	5,505	.7	27.7
General Accounting Office	11,962	7,538	4,424	.4	37.0
Government Printing Office	7,086	7,031	55	.2	.8
Interstate Commerce Commission	2,120	1,424	696	.1	32.8
National Archives	349	340	9	[3]	2.6
National Capital Housing Authority	243	243		[3]	
National Capital Park and Planning Commission	4	4		[3]	
National Housing Agency	18,264	3,260	15,004	.6	82.2
National Labor Relations Board	697	297	400	[3]	57.4
National Mediation Board	87	24	63	[3]	72.4
Panama Railroad Company	59		59	[3]	100.0
Petroleum Reserves Corporation	11	11		[3]	
Railroad Retirement Board	1,775	21	1,754	.1	98.8
Reconstruction Finance Corporation	7,898	3,791	4,107	.3	52.0
Securities and Exchange Commission	1,151	9	1,142	.1	99.2
Smithsonian Institution	776	768	8	[3]	1.0
Tariff Commission	303	293	10	[3]	3.3
Tax Court of the United States	122	122		[3]	
Tennessee Valley Authority	21,025	9	21,016	.7	99.9
Veterans Administration	50,409	6,393	44,016	1.7	87.3

[1] Data exclude employees outside continental limits of the United States and those on basis of $1 per month or year or without compensation. See Monthly Report of Employment, Civil Service Commission.
[2] The Washington metropolitan area includes certain adjacent sections in Maryland and Virginia, as designated by the Bureau of the Census.
[3] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

State Distribution of War and Other Agencies

New York and California each had nearly 300,000 Federal employees in June 1944—more than the National Capital. These two States, together with Pennsylvania, Texas, and Illinois, accounted for a third of all Federal workers. In addition, Massachusetts, Virginia, and Ohio had over 100,000 Federal employees each.

War agencies had one of every two Federal employees in the Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area and 3 of every 4 in the 48 States. These heavier concentrations are explained by the fact that in every State with 100,000 or more Federal employees (except New York and Illinois), war agencies accounted for a higher proportion of the total employment than the average for the 48 States as a whole. New York City and Chicago contain the headquarters or large branch offices of many peacetime agencies and this served to reduce the proportion of

war-agency employees to 3 of every 5 in Illinois and to just under 3 of every 4 in New York.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Employment in Executive Branch of U. S. Government, by War and Other Agencies and by States June 30, 1944* [1]

State	Number of employees			State total as percent of all areas	War agencies as percent of State total
	Total	War agencies [2]	All other agencies		
All areas	[3] 2,918,289	[3] 2,103,798	[3] 814,491	100.0	72.1
Washington metropolitan area [4]	270,019	139,978	130,041	9.3	51.8
Other areas	2,648,270	1,963,820	684,450	90.7	74.2
Alabama	57,710	43,930	13,780	2.0	76.1
Arizona	18,670	11,690	6,980	.6	62.6
Arkansas	27,430	19,640	7,790	.9	71.6
California	289,060	246,270	42,790	9.9	85.2
Colorado	26,980	17,570	9,410	.9	65.1
Connecticut	12,530	6,230	6,300	.4	49.7
Delaware	2,920	1,900	1,020	.1	65.1
Florida	73,470	64,190	9,280	2.5	87.4
Georgia	70,710	55,760	14,950	2.4	78.9
Idaho	9,780	5,910	3,870	.3	60.4
Illinois	128,550	75,100	53,450	4.4	58.4
Indiana	37,630	24,730	12,900	1.3	65.7
Iowa	17,490	6,720	10,770	.6	38.4
Kansas	34,290	24,280	10,010	1.1	70.8
Kentucky	29,840	16,150	13,690	1.0	54.1
Louisiana	41,590	31,510	10,080	1.4	75.8
Maine [5]	29,740	25,050	4,690	1.0	84.2
Maryland	53,560	39,220	14,340	1.8	73.2
Massachusetts	114,170	93,730	20,440	3.9	82.1
Michigan	53,290	34,200	19,090	1.8	64.2
Minnesota	18,820	4,710	14,110	.7	25.0
Mississippi	26,660	19,550	7,110	.9	73.3
Missouri	50,730	29,110	21,620	1.7	57.4
Montana	8,320	3,030	5,290	.3	36.5
Nebraska	27,650	20,020	7,630	1.0	72.4
Nevada	6,050	3,740	2,310	.2	61.8
New Hampshire [5]	3,960	1,860	2,100	.1	47.0
New Jersey	83,240	69,810	13,430	2.9	83.9
New Mexico	15,840	10,230	5,610	.6	64.6
New York	297,420	211,880	85,540	10.2	71.2
North Carolina	45,440	28,780	16,660	1.6	63.3
North Dakota	5,050	600	4,450	.2	12.0
Ohio	111,620	83,410	28,210	3.8	74.7
Oklahoma	44,850	34,810	10,040	1.5	77.6
Oregon	18,730	10,110	8,620	.6	54.0
Pennsylvania	196,910	158,050	38,860	6.7	80.3
Rhode Island	25,540	23,280	2,260	.9	91.2
South Carolina	51,180	45,120	6,060	1.8	88.2
South Dakota	10,240	5,130	5,110	.4	50.1
Tennessee	41,190	21,250	19,940	1.4	51.6
Texas	144,910	115,280	29,630	5.0	79.6
Utah	35,740	31,060	4,680	1.2	86.9
Vermont	2,800	460	2,340	.1	16.3
Virginia	109,170	95,180	13,990	3.8	87.2
Washington	93,230	78,060	15,170	3.2	83.7
West Virginia	9,960	3,490	6,470	.3	35.0
Wisconsin	21,280	8,250	13,030	.7	38.8
Wyoming	5,200	2,270	2,930	.2	43.7
Undistributed [6]	7,130	1,510	5,620	.3	21.2

[1] Data exclude employees outside continental limits of the United States and those on basis of $1 per month or year or without compensation.

[2] Includes Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, and the emergency war agencies.

[3] Data for individual States were rounded to the nearest 10, and therefore the totals for all areas do not agree exactly with those shown in table 1.

[4] The Washington metropolitan area includes certain adjacent sections in Maryland and Virginia as designated by the Bureau of the Census.

[5] Portsmouth (N. H.) navy yard included with State of Maine because its physical location, with the exception of headquarters office, is in that State.

[6] Covers employees in travel status and not assigned to any particular station.

Rhode Island ranked highest in the proportion of employees in war establishments but was followed closely by South Carolina, Virginia, Florida, Utah, and California, all of which had 9 of every 10 employees in war establishments. South Carolina, Virginia, and California have large navy yards; Rhode Island and Florida have naval torpedo stations, operating bases, and air stations; and Utah has a large Army air depot.

Only 10 States had less than 50 percent of their Federal employment in war agencies. In Vermont and North Dakota, only 16 and 12 percent, respectively, of Federal employees were in war establishments.

STATE DISTRIBUTION OF SELECTED AGENCIES

Of the 48 States, New York ranked highest in the Post Office, Treasury, and Justice Departments, War Manpower Commission, Office of Price Administration, National Housing Agency, and Veterans Administration, as well as in a number of the smaller agencies. Although California led in only four of the agencies shown in table 3, these included the War and Navy Departments, as well as the Agriculture and Commerce Departments, and brought the California total of 289,000 within 8,000 of the New York total. Arizona, Pennsylvania, and Maryland ranked first, among the agencies shown in table 3, in the Interior Department, Selective Service System, and Federal Security Agency, respectively.

Of the agencies shown in table 3, the Navy Department showed the greatest tendency toward concentration of employees in certain of the States. California, with over 100,000 Navy employees, not only had a navy yard, but also is the nearest to the area of the largest naval operations and for this reason had many supply depots. Also, because of its climate and its harbor facilities, it had many air stations and training schools.

All the other agencies shown, except the Veterans Administration, had some employees in every State, with concentrations in the States where branch offices were located. For example, the concentration of employees of the Treasury Department in the State of Illinois reflected the large staff of the Division of Savings Bonds and that in New York the location of a number of Treasury offices there—customs office, assay office, secret service, narcotic control, and others. Likewise, the concentration of Justice Department employees in California, New York, Pennsylvania, and Texas was the result of the location there of immigration and naturalization offices, penal institutions, and district offices of United States attorneys and marshals. Larger than the number of Justice employees in any single State was the group which was not distributed by State, which consisted mainly of employees of the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

The nature of the activities of the Interior and Agriculture Departments was such that the State distributions were markedly different from those in the rest of the agencies. The Office of Indian Affairs was largely responsible for the high proportion of Interior employees in Arizona, Montana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and South Dakota, and the Bureau of Reclamation for the high proportion in California, Colorado, Nevada, and Washington, while the Bonneville Power Administration had most of the Interior employees in Oregon. Experi-

mental metallurgical work directed from the regional office of the Bureau of Mines in Salt Lake City made Utah an important State for the Interior Department. Although the Agriculture Department had some employees in every State, there were higher numbers in States where agriculture is a prominent industry. California and Wisconsin had a number of employees in the Forest Service, including some on emergency rubber projects, while the Office of Distribution in the War Food Administration carried on extensive activities in New York and Illinois. In addition, the State distribution was influenced by the location of the headquarters of certain of the Bureaus in the States, such as that of the Farm Credit Administration and of the Rural Electrification Administration in Missouri and that of the Farm Security Administration in Ohio.

The 5,300 employees of the Federal Security Agency in the State of Maryland were, for the most part, working in the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board in Baltimore.

Agencies not shown separately in table 3 had slightly over 100,000 employees, or 6 percent of the total. The 21,000 in New York were mainly in the Office of War Information, War Shipping Administration, Office of Censorship, Labor Department, and Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Most of the employees in this group in Tennessee, North Carolina, Kentucky, and Alabama were in the Tennessee Valley Authority; those in Pennsylvania were mainly in the Securities and Exchange Commission, Maritime Commission, Labor Department, National War Labor Board, and Reconstruction Finance Corporation. In Illinois the headquarters office of the Railroad Retirement Board accounted for 1,100 of the 6,400 employees not shown by agency in table 3, and in Ohio, the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics accounted for 2,200 of the 4,800 employees in this group.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Employment in Selected Agencies of the Federal Government, by State, June 30, 1944*[1]

State	War	Navy	Post Office	Treasury	Justice	Interior	Agriculture
All areas[2]	1,240,938	672,170	351,641	93,310	28,778	39,101	76,165
Washington metropolitan area[3]	54,288	51,450	8,321	23,800	8,218	4,831	10,195
Other areas	1,186,650	620,720	343,320	69,510	20,560	34,270	65,970
Alabama	41,510	200	4,760	440	120	180	1,870
Arizona	10,930	50	1,120	240	210	3,860	480
Arkansas	18,250	----------	3,950	250	60	460	1,620
California	123,920	106,900	19,690	3,820	1,270	2,750	5,030
Colorado	15,720	100	3,420	1,020	180	1,820	1,600
Connecticut	1,770	2,010	4,400	760	230	20	160
Delaware	1,430	150	720	100	10	10	70
Florida	33,700	26,460	4,480	810	360	230	1,020
Georgia	50,940	1,400	6,130	1,050	510	200	2,550
Idaho	2,940	2,390	1,440	150	50	820	940
Illinois	59,860	7,330	27,480	11,670	430	870	3,200
Indiana	14,280	7,760	8,580	930	240	170	1,280
Iowa	4,330	450	7,220	750	50	40	1,510
Kansas	22,360	350	5,810	530	330	370	1,390
Kentucky	14,050	170	6,690	1,050	170	220	1,290
Louisiana	22,420	5,820	3,910	1,040	210	100	1,870
Maine	2,660	[4] 21,370	2,810	450	160	70	270
Maryland	24,220	12,740	4,550	1,600	130	100	570
Massachusetts	40,900	47,250	13,100	2,480	480	170	540
Michigan	26,950	2,420	12,160	1,990	570	130	990
Minnesota	1,960	360	8,240	1,170	250	760	1,790
Mississippi	17,920	10	3,510	240	60	260	1,480
Missouri	24,770	910	12,320	1,620	330	690	3,060
Montana	2,410	----------	1,900	260	150	1,210	1,080
Nebraska	12,870	5,900	4,260	460	50	200	1,700
Nevada	1,580	1,930	440	60	20	1,380	200
New Hampshire	1,200	[4] 80	1,520	160	10	50	170
New Jersey	58,500	7,810	8,960	1,720	310	50	550
New Mexico	9,680	----------	1,310	130	180	2,030	980
New York	98,750	87,280	47,870	14,070	2,550	300	2,370
North Carolina	19,420	6,980	5,960	680	90	260	1,690
North Dakota	70	(5)	2,350	220	170	580	760
Ohio	69,070	5,020	17,700	2,800	540	180	1,690
Oklahoma	25,170	7,870	4,890	440	290	2,040	1,410
Oregon	7,310	920	3,230	520	80	1,590	1,820
Pennsylvania	73,490	75,210	22,710	6,000	1,920	890	1,760
Rhode Island	1,670	20,600	1,580	290	50	10	80
South Carolina	15,680	28,140	2,920	260	50	90	1,340
South Dakota	4,490	----------	2,300	150	20	1,300	870
Tennessee	18,270	910	5,910	550	80	290	1,290
Texas	97,950	9,800	13,120	2,560	1,550	720	4,840
Utah	25,070	5,240	1,520	230	40	1,340	780
Vermont	20	----------	1,410	230	190	10	220
Virginia	21,710	68,010	7,160	790	220	330	1,150
Washington	33,880	41,370	4,920	1,330	610	3,380	1,440
West Virginia	2,080	130	4,390	420	210	170	620
Wisconsin	5,070	920	7,550	910	70	290	2,190
Wyoming	1,940	(5)	950	100	10	830	390
Undistributed[6]	1,510	----------	----------	----------	4,690	450	(5)

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 3.—*Estimated Employment in Selected Agencies of the Federal Government, by State, June 30, 1944*[1]—Continued

State	Commerce	War Manpower Commission	Selective Service System	Office of Price Administration	Federal Security Agency	National Housing Agency	Veterans Administration
All areas[2]	28,683	26,165	22,438	59,154	30,057	18,260	50,413
Washington metropolitan area.[3]	10,103	1,425	618	4,284	6,887	3,260	6,393
Other areas	18,580	24,740	21,820	54,870	23,170	15,000	44,020
Alabama	350	440	450	960	320	80	1,240
Arizona	190	140	90	290	50	90	610
Arkansas	240	270	330	690	220	80	780
California	1,890	2,200	1,410	3,810	1,250	1,800	2,930
Colorado	230	280	170	820	150	50	470
Connecticut	60	410	240	920	100	200	300
Delaware	60	50	40	170	20	10	----------
Florida	600	390	370	870	640	260	710
Georgia	940	490	480	1,570	770	580	910
Idaho	150	100	120	300	30	40	210
Illinois	770	1,370	1,180	3,110	1,120	850	2,920
Indiana	250	690	450	1,280	170	240	860
Iowa	200	380	350	1,050	40	40	800
Kansas	260	250	310	900	60	330	870
Kentucky	140	360	430	1,000	650	60	660
Louisiana	440	310	390	980	1,530	70	480
Maine	90	170	140	490	100	150	540
Maryland	310	460	280	690	5,340	500	830
Massachusetts	210	950	670	2,520	680	290	1,440
Michigan	240	1,120	890	2,060	440	1,020	790
Minnesota	190	590	370	1,080	150	50	1,000
Mississippi	260	260	410	720	240	190	720
Missouri	880	740	500	1,390	660	250	810
Montana	290	90	120	340	120	10	180
Nebraska	180	240	250	650	30	310	240
Nevada	100	60	40	110	20	10	50
New Hampshire	40	110	80	330	20	40	70
New Jersey	60	870	710	1,460	120	240	630
New Mexico	260	80	110	310	170	30	430
New York	1,350	2,340	2,230	4,450	2,430	1,940	8,040
North Carolina	270	450	500	1,180	420	110	950
North Dakota	130	70	110	300	20	(5)	180
Ohio	450	1,560	1,050	3,160	550	1,030	2,060
Oklahoma	240	330	370	900	130	90	340
Oregon	290	320	190	670	100	130	540
Pennsylvania	520	1,880	2,250	3,140	640	450	1,540
Rhode Island	40	220	100	490	30	20	90
South Carolina	260	260	290	660	490	30	460
South Dakota	100	100	160	320	10	20	310
Tennessee	300	430	410	1,020	260	240	1,290
Texas	1,770	1,010	1,060	3,090	1,160	910	1,550
Utah	180	180	110	360	20	220	160
Vermont	50	60	60	270	10	30	150
Virginia	1,310	460	520	1,040	530	770	1,140
Washington	1,020	540	270	990	480	810	610
West Virginia	140	210	290	680	110	60	280
Wisconsin	140	390	410	1,100	90	220	1,420
Wyoming	140	60	60	180	10	50	430
Undistributed[6]	(5)	----------	----------	----------	470	----------	----------

[1] Data exclude employees outside continental limits of the United States, and those on basis of $1 per month or year or without compensation.

[2] Data for individual States were rounded to the nearest 10, and therefore the totals for all areas will not agree exactly with those shown in table 1.

[3] The Washington metropolitan area includes certain adjacent sections in Maryland and Virginia, as designated by the Bureau of the Census.

[4] Portsmouth (N. H.) navy yard included with State of Maine because its physical location, with exception of headquarters office, is in that State.

[5] Fewer than 5 employees.

[6] Covers employees in travel status and not assigned to any particular station.

Effects of Long Working Hours: Summary of 12 Plant Surveys[1]

STUDIES by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the effects of long working hours in 6 additional plants corroborate and shed further light on the tentative conclusions drawn from the first 6 plant surveys.[2] It appears that hours worked beyond 40 or 48 per week result in additional output, but at the price of continuous decreases in efficiency and marked increases in absenteeism as hours rise. A point is finally reached at which the longer work schedule is no more productive, and actually may be less productive, than a shorter work schedule. With few exceptions, the longer working time in the plants studied resulted in a general slowing down, not only during the added hours but throughout the entire workweek.

Another point illustrated by the survey of the additional plants is that the 7-day week, as a steady program, is uneconomic and may actually result in less production than the 6-day week.

Among the 12 metalworking plants studied, the operations varied from foundry and forge-shop work to bench operations which required the processing of metal parts weighing as little as one ounce. There was no intention to study metalworking operations exclusively; it simply happened that long working hours were found most frequently in these industries. The material worked, however—whether metal, or wood, or leather, or paper, or any other substance—is of no great significance. Given the same types of exertion requirements, control over speed, and wage incentives, the work performance under the same hours schedules will probably follow much the same patterns.

Hours in Relation to Output

The surveys make clear that there is no such thing as an "optimum hour schedule" for all of industry. What appears to be a satisfactory schedule of hours for a plant with light machining operations may be economically wasteful in a foundry. Further, there is a marked difference in the performance of men working under wage incentives and those working at straight hourly rates without any kind of wage incentive. Much depends on the type of work and the requirements it exacts from workers, the degree to which workers can control the speed of operations, and the incentives which motivate them—whether in the volume of pay, participation in the war effort, labor relations, or working conditions generally.

The available evidence indicates that, on the whole, the 5-day week and 8-hour day are more efficient than a work schedule with longer hours. That does not mean, however, that longer hours are not productive. There is little sacrifice of efficiency, for instance, if a sixth day of 8 hours or less is added.

The sharper break comes when daily hours are raised from 8 to 9½ or 10 or 11, provided the workers operate under an incentive-wage system. The primary effect of this lengthening of daily hours for workers on the day shift, when the 5-day week is maintained, is to wipe out the

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Hazards Division, by Max D. Kossoris.
[2] See Monthly Labor Review for June 1944 (p. 1131).

midweek spurt. The analysis of daily production patterns in several plants under a 40- or 48-hour schedule shows a building up of hourly efficiencies toward a peak on the third and fourth days of the week, with a slight drop thereafter. When daily hours were lengthened to 9½ or more, however, this peak disappeared. The production curve for the successive days of the week flattened out, and any one day was about as good as any other day. When a sixth day was added, the line of production remained flat, but dropped to a lower level. The data indicate clearly that workers adjust themselves to longer hours by slowing down, not because they want to, but because they have to.

For workers on the second or night shift, the pattern is somewhat different. Their daily efficiency performance under the 8-hour day and 5-day week looks much like that of the day shift on the 10-hour day. There is practically no midweek spurt, and production tends to flatten into a fairly level line. The reason for this appears to be that these workers are somewhat tired when they come to work, having been up for some hours and probably at work around home. In any case, they are not so refreshed when they come on the job as the men on the day shift who have their leisure hours after, not before, the day's work. When a sixth day is added to stretch the week to 58 or 60 hours, the result is likely to be a steady decline in the efficiency level, day after day, with the peak points on Monday or Tuesday, at the very beginning of the week.

These "fatigue patterns" furnish a reasonably accurate basis for anticipating, for incentive-wage workers, the result of (a) changing daily hours from 8 to 10, or from a 40-hour week to one of 50 hours, and (b) from this level to a still higher one, by adding a sixth workday. The first decrease in efficiency may amount to about 5 percent, and the second from 7 to 10 percent if hours do not exceed 58 or 60, but may be as high as 20 percent when hours reach 66.

For men on straight day-work rates, the lengthening or shortening of hours seems of considerably less significance. This was observed in two foundries. In one, daily scheduled hours remained at 10, but the sixth day was dropped. In the other, daily hours during a 6-day week were raised from 8 to 9½. In each plant the hourly efficiency level remained essentially unchanged under the different levels of hours. Apparently the pace at the shorter hours was not so fast that the addition of extra hours caused a slowing down; nor did the shortening of hours bring about any quickening of the work tempo.

In plants in which work was light or very light, the general tendency for workers under incentive systems, and with weekly hours ranging between 55 and 58, was to produce about a 2-hour volume of production for every 3 hours added above 48 per week (i. e., 6 days at 8 hours each). When work was heavy, as in foundries, the ratio was more nearly 1 hour's additional output for every additional 2 hours worked. One reason for this was the greater need for rest pauses.

The studies included two plants in which shorter hours were found to result in a volume of output as great as or greater than was the case under longer hours. In a forge shop, where the work was both hot and heavy, a 52-hour week was found to be as productive as a 58-hour week. In a shell plant, in which morale was excellent and the work medium heavy, the lengthening of daily hours from 8 to 10 for the day shift and 11 for the night shift, and of weekly hours from 40 to 60 and 66, had such unsatisfactory results that the plant

eventually changed to a 48-hour week. The average increase in output under the longer schedule was only about 7 percent above that for the 40-hour week—a result which could have been achieved easily by increasing weekly hours from 40 to 43 or 44. The additional 20 hours were sheer waste of time.

The experience of one plant which had operated extensively on Sundays under a 7-day weekly schedule demonstrated the undesirability of continued Sunday work. While remaining on the 8-hour day, this plant worked a 7-day week for over a year. It then dropped out every third Sunday, later every other Sunday, and finally every Sunday. The analysis of this plant's performance shows that efficiency was lowest during the 7-day week, and highest during the 6-day week when no Sundays were worked at all, and that efficiency mounted as additional Sundays were dropped. The data indicate that efficiency was about 36 percent better and total output about 13 percent greater during the shortest work schedule. In terms of this performance, the 7-day week amounted to 8 days' pay for 5 days' output. The 30 identical operators traced throughout the entire period involved in these changing schedules actually produced one more day's output during the straight 6-day week than they formerly produced during the 7-day week.

Hours and Absenteeism

The relationship between longer hours and absenteeism was found to be the same in nearly every instance: As hours increased—whether daily or weekly—absenteeism increased. In most cases the reason could not be determined from plant records. Some of the data suggest a higher incidence of illness. In some instances it was quite clear that workers wanted or required more time for leisure or to attend to personal matters. It is also likely that the strain of longer hours and the fact that the weekly pay envelope was higher than it had been for years combined to induce workers to pay more attention to their health and well-being. The fact that workers were limited in the items their money could buy was also cited by some plant executives as a reason why men took more time out, or why they absented themselves for reasons which they would not have heeded under shorter work schedules and with smaller earnings.

As a rule, absenteeism was higher for the night shift than for the day shift under the longer work schedules. This was particularly true of women, whose absenteeism rates generally exceeded those of men.

Hours, Accidents, and Efficiency

In the absence of effective safety programs, work injuries tended to occur relatively more frequently under longer hours. In one plant they occurred only one-third as frequently when the daily hours were reduced from 10 to 8. Where plants had good, active accident-prevention programs, the lengthening of hours did not bring about a disproportionate increase in work injuries.

Women were found to be more efficient than men at light, repetitive and rhythmic operations requiring nimble fingers and little physical exertion. On the other hand, men were superior on machines which required close adjustments or which were complicated.

The merit of an incentive-wage system as a spur toward greater production was well observed in a foundry. It was found that the change from day-work to piece-work rates resulted in slight increases in output even when hours remained at 10 per day and 58 per week. The result was dramatic when the introduction of the incentive coincided with a reduction in weekly workdays from 6 to 5, even though the 10-hour day was maintained. Output during the shorter workweek was 13 percent greater than it formerly had been under the 6-day week. In terms of the production level which had prevailed during the longer workweek, the men—at piece rates—produced as much in 5 days as they formerly had in 7 days without a wage incentive.

Employment Changes in Massachusetts in Relation to the Post-War Situation

By VERNA R. FINE, *Statistician, Massachusetts Committee on Post-War Readjustment*

THE central problem in post-war planning is people. If it is essential for the Nation's survival in war that people be found for all wartime jobs, it is equally essential for the Nation's recovery and security in peacetime that jobs be found for all the people who want to work—for every home-coming soldier and sailor, for every demobilized war worker, and all others who will desire employment.

Mobilization is largely a synthetic process, in which individuals from all walks of life are joined in mass activities. Demobilization, on the other hand, is a kind of dispersion. Fighting men return from a common profession to multitudinous activities of peaceful civilian life. Soldiers, sailors, and airmen once more become farmers, factory workers, store clerks, mechanics, lawyers, singers, actors, businessmen, teachers, students, etc. War workers also must return to peacetime jobs. The machinist working for a large corporation returns to the small machine shop in his home town; the lawyer working in a shipyard returns to the practice of his profession; the war-worker housewife builds her home anew.

All of this is proving to be a gradual, frequently piecemeal, process involving in the State of Massachusetts alone over a half million individual shifts. In this great dispersal the importance of each individual job cannot be overestimated. No company is too small to be of use, since every job furthers the process of demobilization and contributes to the goal of full employment which, in Massachusetts, will involve 1½ million jobs.

An indication of how gradual this process is may be seen in the fact that the Nation is already confronted with the task of finding jobs for discharged war veterans and of re-assigning workers discharged from plants which either have scaled down operations or have actually shut down, although in many areas there is a labor shortage. As of December 1943, of the 430,000 Massachusetts citizens who entered the armed forces, already over 60,000 have been returned to civilian life. Before final victory, there will certainly be an increase in the number of discharged veterans; and, with major cut-backs and cancellations, the ranks of discharged war workers will be considerably swelled. In this sense the term "post-war readjustment" is inac-

curate; the Massachusetts Committee on Post-War Readjustment prefers to use the term "war adjustment now," always bearing in mind, of course, the paramount demands of the war itself.

The Committee has been studying the employment changes in Massachusetts industries that have taken place, in order to obtain some idea of those that will take place. The statistics given in this article are based upon data supplied by the Massachusetts Division of Employment Security. These data are concerned only with persons covered by the Massachusetts Unemployment Compensation Act. It must be borne in mind that shifts by the people not covered by the act (including employees of nonprofit institutions, Federal, State, and local employees, domestic workers and self-employed persons) into the group covered by the act cannot be ascertained.

Changes in Employment Situation in Massachusetts

The material gathered on employment in the major industries in Massachusetts falls into two distinct periods: (1) The defense (or pre-Pearl Harbor) period, from the beginning of the war in Europe to the time when the United States entered the war; and (2) the war period, from December 1941 to December 1943 (the most recent date for which relatively complete data are available).

Defense period (September 1939–December 1941).—The pre-war period brought increased industrial activity to Massachusetts. The war in Europe and the defense program at home created a period of prosperity long before the United States entered the fight. In fact, the largest expansion of employment in the State took place in the year 1940; the greatest increase in manufacturing employment also occurred before the attack on Pearl Harbor, in 1941.

As the accompanying tabulation indicates, the major industries all employed more people in December 1941 than in September 1939.

	Increase in employment, Sept. 1939–Dec. 1941		*Increase in employment, Sept. 1939–Dec. 1941*
All nonmanufacturing	90, 000	Ordnance	5, 000
Nonelectrical machinery	36, 000	Nonferrous metals	4, 000
Electrical machinery	33, 000	Chemicals	4, 000
Textile-mill products	32, 000	Apparel [1]	4, 000
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	19, 000	Rubber	3, 000
Iron and steel	13, 000	Furniture	3, 000
Leather	5, 000	Food [1]	2, 000

[1] Because of marked seasonality, the change in employment from December 1939 to December 1941 was used.

It is important to note here that not only did employment in manufacturing industries expand before the war, but employment in nonmanufacturing, especially wholesale and retail trade, expanded even more. The pre-war expansion cannot be explained merely as shifts from nonessential to essential work. No doubt such shifts did occur; a great many people entered the working force first through nonmanufacturing, nonessential, channels and then shifted to war work. The general expansion indicated by the data available was partly the result of the increase in the number of working people covered by the social security statistics as their employers entered the group of covered establishments and partly, of course, the result of an actual enlargement of the working force.

War period (December 1941–December 1943).—Although in the pre-war period there was a general expansion in all the major industries, the war period has seen a decline in half of these industries. The 14 industries can be divided into two groups—those industries employing more people, and those employing fewer, in December 1943 than at the time of the attack on Pearl Harbor. As indicated below, of the 14 major industries that expanded in employment before Pearl Harbor, the half that continued to expand were those more directly connected with the war effort. Their expansion totaled 141,000. The other half, whether or not they expanded within the war period, by December 1943 were employing 108,000 fewer workers than in the same month of 1941.

	Estimated change in employment, Dec. 1941–Dec. 1943		*Estimated change in employment, Dec. 1941–Dec. 1943*
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	+54, 000	All nonmanufacturing	−56, 000
Electrical machinery	+47, 000	Textile-mill products	−31, 000
Rubber	+11, 000	Leather	−12, 000
Nonelectrical machinery	+10, 000	Food	−4, 000
Ordnance	+ 9, 000	Furniture	−3, 000
Iron and steel	+ 7, 000	Apparel	−2, 000
Nonferrous metals	+ 3, 000	Chemicals	[1]

[1] Decrease of less than 500.

Entire period (September 1939–December 1943).—If the whole 52-month period beginning in September 1939 is studied, it is seen that some industries in Massachusetts employed more workers in December 1943 than in September 1939, some employed fewer workers, and in some the level of employment was about the same in both months.

	Change in employment, Sept. 1939–Dec. 1943		*Change in employment, Sept. 1939–Dec. 1943*
Group I:		Group II:	
Electrical machinery	+80, 000	Leather	−7, 000
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	+72, 000	Apparel	−5, 000
Nonelectrical machinery	+46, 000	Food	−5, 000
All nonmanufacturing	+34, 000	Group III:	
Iron and steel	+20, 000	Textile-mill products	+1, 000
Rubber	+14, 000	Furniture	[1]
Ordnance	+14, 000		
Nonferrous metals	+7, 000		
Chemicals	+3, 000		

[1] Decrease of less than 500.

Of the 14 major industries, 10 had net increases in employment over September 1939 totaling 291,000. Some of these, as has been shown, had already started to decline. Although the nonmanufacturing-industries group had the largest pre-war employment expansion and the greatest wartime decline when compared with the major manufacturing industries, at the end of 1943 nonmanufacturing was still in the group that has had an over-all expansion since September 1939, and was still above its pre-defense level.

The decrease since the attack on Pearl Harbor in employment in the textile, leather, food, furniture, and apparel industries, when totaled, appears large (over 50,000), but during the whole 4⅓-year

period the net change in employment in these five major industries amounted to a drop of only 16,000. In the pre-Pearl Harbor period, employment in all these major industries increased by 253,000, whereas in the war period the net increase was only 33,000.

As already shown, by the end of 1943 employment in seven of the major industries had reached a definite peak and a downward trend had set in. In the nonelectrical machinery industry, also, a decline started in 1942, although for the period as a whole there was a net increase. The accompanying tabulation shows the year and volume of peak employment in seven of the industries, and the estimated drop in employment from the peak to December 1943. Since the peak employment dates fall within the major periods used, these total declines do not correspond with those shown previously.

	Year	*Peak employment*	*Estimated decrease from peak to Dec. 1943*
Food	1940	44, 000	9, 000
Nonmanufacturing	1941	584, 000	67, 000
Textile-mill products	1941	161, 000	34, 000
Leather	1941	81, 000	17, 000
Apparel	1941	57, 000	10, 000
Furniture	1941	18, 000	3, 000
Nonelectrical machinery	1942	95, 000	14, 000

Additional data indicate that employment in the ordnance, iron and steel, and nonferrous-metals industries leveled off in 1943, while employment in chemicals and transportation equipment showed signs of a turning point toward the end of 1943. Employment in electrical machinery and rubber was still increasing, although at a slower rate.

It should be recognized that declines in employment are not as yet chiefly the result of dismissals, but represent mostly the voluntary quits of workers who are shifting to more essential jobs, quits of military selectees or enlistees, and (more recently) quits of women leaving the labor market entirely. The major effects of cut-backs of war contracts had not been felt in Massachusetts industries by December 1943.

Importance of Timing in Employment Changes

The important point is the element of timing of the changes in employment. The major industries have been affected differently by pre-war and war conditions, depending on their importance to military demands; each industry, too, will be affected differently by post-war conditions. The adjustment period is not a definite one affecting all industries simultaneously, nor is it a period that is still in the future, to arrive only when fighting ceases. The adjustment period is here now; its effects on industry will continue, irregularly spaced, into the post-war period. However, since all but two of the major industries have already made downward adjustments, the full impact of reduction is being spread out.

As just shown, the labor force of six of Massachusetts' major industries had reached a peak even before the United States was actually in the war, and by 1943 had decreased by 140,000. The net increase of these six industries in the pre-Pearl Harbor period (136,000), however, was considerably less than the net increase of the remaining eight industries for the entire period, September 1939–December

1943 (256,000). These remaining industries, therefore, present a greater total readjustment problem still to be faced. When severe cutbacks do come, war-stimulated demand will not be present to absorb the workers released, as has been the situation in the past. Nevertheless, vigorous independent action now, coupled with the advantages of piecemeal adjustment, will go a long way toward dealing successfully with the post-war situation.

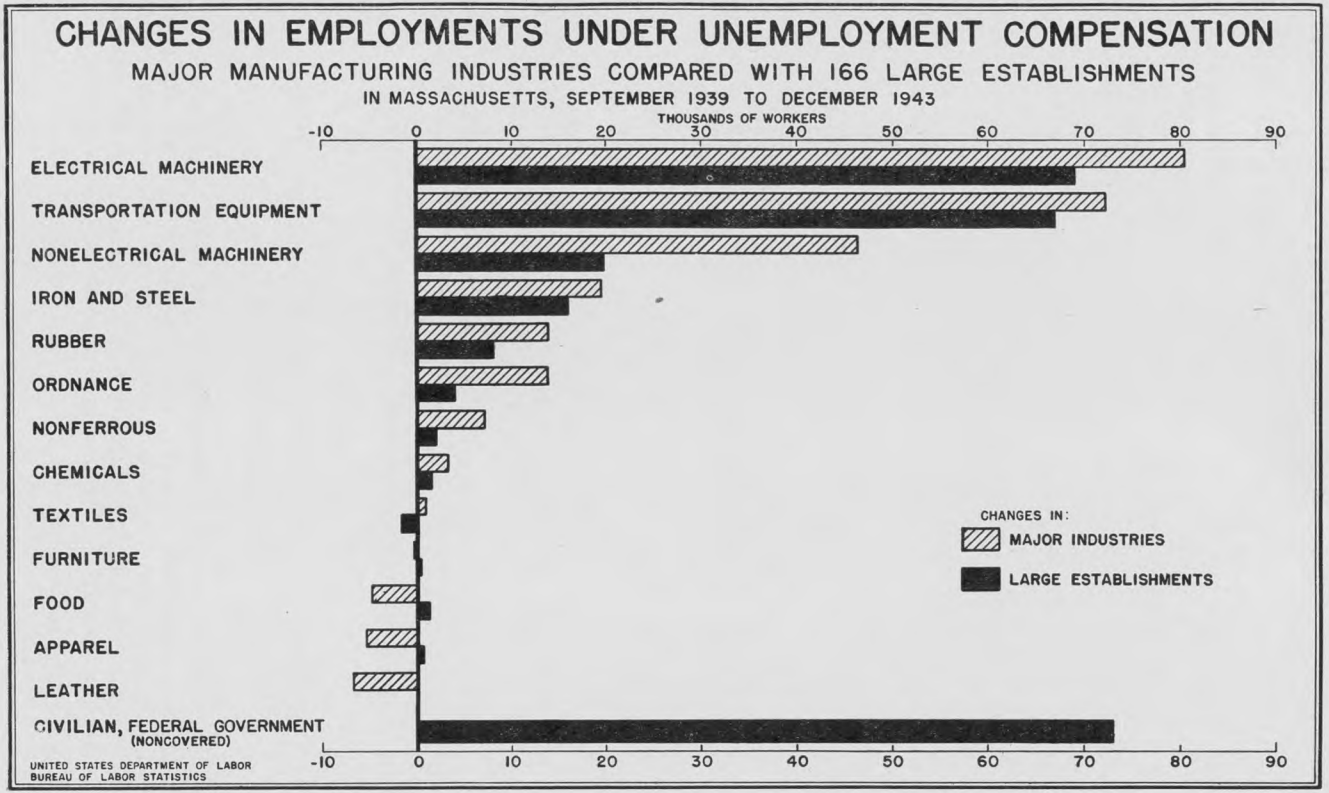
Importance of Large Massachusetts Establishments

The over-all picture is, of course, the one of greatest general interest and it is of utmost importance to have the whole situation in mind, but the Massachusetts Committee on Post-War Readjustment has found it equally important to "bite off" a little bit of the problem at a time. This was done by study and analysis of the pre-war and wartime employment in the largest private manufacturing [1] and government [2] establishments in Massachusetts employing civilians. The largest establishments were defined arbitrarily as those that at some time during the period September 1939–December 1943, employed over 1,000 people. The importance of the 166 establishments which fall in this group is shown in the accompanying chart, which compares the total numerical change in employment by industry groups from September 1939 to December 1943 with the change, during the same period, in the employment in the large establishments in these industries.

Employment in all the establishments that manufacture electrical machinery increased about 80,000, of which the few large establishments accounted for almost 70,000, or over 85 percent. Similarly, the expansion in the employment of the transportation-equipment industry was over 70,000, while the corresponding expansion in the large establishments was over 65,000, or over 90 percent of the total. The large establishments that manufacture nonelectrical machinery increased their employment almost 20,000, and the total employment expansion for the entire industry was over 45,000; here the large establishments accounted for only 40 percent of the total increase. When comparing the employment changes in all the iron and steel manufacturing establishments with the large establishments falling in this group, it is evident that the total increase was about 20,000, while the large establishments in this industry accounted for an increase of 15,000, or nearly 80 percent of the total. From the point of view of employment expansion since September 1939, the large establishments have played the most important role.

The chart also shows the expansion in the civilian employment in the largest Federal establishments in Massachusetts, and shows how important the Government's position is as an employer in the State. Of the 166 establishments that at some time employed over 1,000 persons, only about 65 expanded their employment by more than 1,000 workers since September 1939. The importance of the post-war plans of these 166 employing units is shown in the fact that, though they constitute less than 0.3 of 1 percent of all the establishments in Massachusetts, they employ almost one-third of all the workers in the State.

[1] Covered by the social security system.
[2] Not covered by the social security system.



Feeding of War Workers on the Job[1]

ABOUT 5,000,000 workers in approximately half of the manufacturing plants in the United States engaged in war work can now obtain midshift meals on the job, according to a recent survey by the War Food Administration covering 2,056 plants.

According to this information, 81 percent of the workers employed in the manufacture of war supplies were in plants having some type of food-service facilities. That there is need for further expansion, the WFA states, is shown by the fact that actually only 39 percent of the workers in the plants are obtaining midshift meals. The most extensive development in industrial feeding is shown in the large plants. The survey shows that 91 percent of the plants having more than 2,500 workers, and 80 percent of the plants employing from 1,000 to 2,499 workers, have some type of in-plant feeding facilities. Of the small companies, however, only 28 percent have food services.

Large plants also formed the largest proportion of the companies planning new installations and expansions. Of the enterprises employing more than 2,500 workers, 41 percent reported that they are planning new installations, the majority of which would include cafeterias, the most permanent type of in-plant food service. Other kinds of facilities include lunch counters, lunch stands, and stationary or mobile canteens. The type of food service varies according to size of plant (measured by employment). Among companies with 2,500 or more employees, which provide feeding facilities, 4 of every 5 have cafeterias, as compared with only 1 of every 5 plants employing fewer than 2,500 workers.

In addition to the survey of the 2,056 manufacturing plants, the War Food Administration received returns from large plants in shipbuilding, aircraft, and other essential war industries. Although 91 percent of the large shipyards have some type of food service, only 35 percent of their workers are being served midshift meals. In the aircraft industry, 97 percent of the large plants have facilities and 68 percent of the workers are being served.

The WFA points out that less than half of the existing facilities are adequate. This conclusion is based upon field reports and the survey results, which show that only 44 percent of the plants with food facilities are serving 60 percent or more of their workers.

Occupational Distribution of Population of El Salvador, 1941

INFORMATION obtained from the Department of Labor of El Salvador indicates that in 1941, out of a population of about 1¾ million, approximately 1,000,000 were classed as "working population." Of the remaining number, 615,000 were listed as children of 12 and under, and 135,000 as "unemployables."

[1] U. S. Department of Agriculture, Press release USDA 2809-44, July 28, 1944.

	Number in 1941	*Percent of total*[1]
Total	[2] 1,750,000	100.0
Children (12 and under)	615,000	35.0
Unemployable	135,000	7.7
Working population	1,000,000	57.3
Domestic workers	355,000	20.2
Laborers, rural	350,000	20.0
Laborers, urban	112,000	6.4
Artisans	80,000	4.7
Farmers	65,000	3.7
Tradesmen	15,000	.9
Employees	15,000	.9
Professional persons	8,000	.5

[1] Percentages given in original source.
[2] Actual population was 1,732,384.

A more detailed analysis, by occupational group, is given in the accompanying table.

Distribution of the Working Population of El Salvador, 1941, by Occupational Group

Occupational group	Number	Occupational group	Number
Total workers	503,000	Artisans—Continued.	
Agricultural	[1] 415,000	Woodworkers, carpenters, bricklayers	14,000
Coffee production:		Mechanics, electricians, etc.	2,000
Permanent plantation employees	80,000	Fishermen	6,000
Seasonal coffee pickers	235,000	Miners, quarriers	2,000
Basic food workers (corn, beans, rice)	200,000	Professional persons	[3] 8,000
Cotton workers	30,000	Artists (musicians, painters, etc.)	3,500
Sugar workers	12,000	Army officers	380
Stock-raising and dairy workers	10,000	Lawyers	385
Balsam of Peru workers	2,000	Doctors	320
Miscellaneous and migratory labor	80,000	Nurses, midwives (350)	600
Artisans	[2] 80,000	Teachers (private schools only)	1,835
Weavers (loom operators, hand)	15,000	Pharmacists	207
Shoemakers	9,000	Clergymen	200
Hat makers (or palm braid workers)	20,000	Engineers and architects	85
Clay products workers (pottery, toys, etc.)	10,000	Dentists	85
Basket weavers	4,000	Scientists	15
		Others, miscellaneous	400

[1] Not including seasonal workers.
[2] Rounded figure; items add to 82,000.
[3] Rounded figure; items add to 8,012.

Employment in Haiti, 1943

IN A population of approximately 3,000,000 in 1943, the Republic of Haiti, according to reliable authorities, had not more than 185,000 who derived their livelihood from wage or salary payments. Among that number, about 82,000 were agricultural laborers, and some 75,000 were domestic servants. Of the more than 80,000 in agriculture, 56,800 were employed in the Haitian-American Agricultural Development Program, better known as SHADA from the initials of its French name (Société Haitiano-Américaine de Développement Agricole). This large SHADA employment was of a temporary nature, resulting from an intensive Cryptostegia-rubber development program, which necessitated hiring thousands of laborers to clear fields and plant them with the rubber-producing vine. Aside from agricultural workers and domestic servants, shop employees constituted the next largest number of workers (12,000).

Employment in 1943, by principal types, was estimated as follows:

	Number of workers
All types of employment	182, 240
Agricultural development program (SHADA)	56, 800
Sisal industries	6, 700
Sugar industries	5, 600
Banana industry	2, 700
All other day laborers	11, 700
Domestic servants	75, 000
Shop employees	12, 000
Government	9, 400
Railroads	360
Vegetable-oil factory	160
Airways	150
Oil companies	150
Public utilities	100
Ice plant	70
Banks (not including Banque Nationale de la Republique d'Haiti)	30
Other companies	1, 220

Distribution of persons employed at a salary or wage, by income groups, brings out the fact that 154,506 or 85 percent of the total employed in 1943 had an annual cash income below $100. The second largest group, 17,162, received more than $100, but less than $200 per year. Persons in these two income categories were the unskilled laborers—agricultural manual laborers, yard and minor house servants, nurses, houseboys, laundresses, and cooks. Also included were certain Government employees, such as janitors, street sweepers, together with shop employees who were errand boys and janitors.

Persons earning $200 or more per annum were classed as semiskilled or skilled workers. They consisted of the many Government clerks, members of the Garde d'Haiti, accountants, typists, shop employees, etc. The approximately 1,000 persons who earned more than $1,000 in annual salary included only the most highly trained and proficient Haitians and most of the foreigners residing in Haiti who were employed locally. Nearly 650 of this highest-paid group were high Government officials.

The distribution of employees by size of income was as follows:

Annual cash salary or wage:	*Number*
Below $100	154, 506
$101–$200	17, 162
$201–$1,000	9, 510
$1,001 and over	1, 062
Total	182, 240

The relatively small employment of labor should not be taken as an indication of unemployment or of an oversupply of labor. According to reliable sources of information, the peasants who form the largest section of the population have little or no interest in employment for wages. The fact that they own their land makes their economic condition better than that of wage earners in some comparable areas where employment is greater and wages far higher.

The paid-labor force was undoubtedly larger in 1943 than at any time in the history of Haiti. Total employment was said to be at least 45 percent greater than during the pre-war period. The agricultural labor force was greater by about 300 percent, and reached 400 percent during the periods of peak SHADA operations. Employment of other types increased also, though to a considerably smaller degree. Earning rose somewhat as a result of increased economic activity stimulated by the war, but lagged considerably behind living costs.

Wartime Policies

Employment Ceilings and Manpower Priorities

THE continuing threat of a shortage in the production of certain vital war materials caused the Director of War Mobilization, on August 4, 1944, to issue a directive to provide adequate manpower for essential war production.[1] In line with that directive, the War Manpower Commission moved to implement item 1 of that order, which deals with the establishment of comprehensive employment-ceiling programs and with the better utilization of the existing labor force. To effect these objectives, the Commission issued to the regional directors instructions [2] which are covered in the following paragraphs.

Employment-Ceiling Program

All regional manpower directors were instructed, on August 7, in the matter of putting into effect the employment-ceiling program. Such a ceiling is defined as "the maximum number of employees or specified types of employees which an establishment may have in its employ during a specified period." The objective of the program is to provide a means of allocating the available labor supply to those employers, engaged in essential war production, most urgently in need of workers. According to the instructions of the WMC, this is to be accomplished by—

(*a*) Establishing the minimum number of workers required to meet an establishment's approved production schedule;
(*b*) Establishing the minimum number of workers needed in the area to carry on essential war production and essential civilian services;
(*c*) Limiting or reducing the number of workers employed in less-essential production and services where such workers are needed for more-essential production and services.

In establishing employment ceilings, the following principles are to be followed:

The establishment of ceilings in firms engaged in urgent production must not interfere with validated employment demands, but at the same time they must be sufficiently realistic to provide for the most effective possible utilization of manpower, and they therefore should be established on a plant-by-plant basis. Establishment of ceilings for these establishments should not be permitted to delay the setting of ceilings for all other employers in the area. Ceilings must be established in such manner as to place urgent, essential, and locally needed activities in an advantageous position, with respect to a limited labor supply.

[1] See Monthly Labor Review, August 1944 (p. 303) and September 1944 (p. 515).
[2] War Manpower Commission. Field Instruction No. 505, Part 1, August 7, 1944.

The War Manpower Commission states that emphasis should be placed upon establishing ceilings which will focus the attention of employers on the need for increased utilization of their current labor force and emphasize the need for dealing with the in-plant factors relating to such matters as turnover, absenteeism, and use of women workers.

Release of Workers

In areas where critically short and urgently needed production is behind schedule, the Area Manpower Director is to inaugurate the program covering required release of workers. This may be applied to a wide or to a restricted range of activities, depending upon manpower needs. However, it is to be applied only to male workers, or to male workers of designated age range who meet certain occupational requirements; if the latter, it need not necessarily result in a change in the ceiling for affected establishments.

The following policies are to be effected in programs requiring the release of workers:

1. The program for required release of workers shall be applied only to male workers.

2. Workers made available under this program must be referred only to establishments engaged in production included on the Production Urgency List established by the Production Executive Committee of the War Production Board, or on local orders which have been assigned the top category of priority by the Area Manpower Director.

3. No employer shall release a worker on grounds that his employment ceiling so requires, until after the employment office has advised the employer that the worker shall be released. The employment office shall so advise the employer only after—

(*a*) The worker has been interviewed by the public employment office and a determination has been made that suitable work is available to that worker and that the worker does not have good cause for refusing such work, and

(*b*) An employer to which the worker has been referred by the USES has agreed to hire the worker; or

(*c*) The worker has been afforded a reasonable opportunity for an interview.

4. Workers qualified for referral who refuse suitable employment without good cause shall be terminated from present employment. Such refusal shall not jeopardize their eligibility for subsequent referral in accordance with the priority referral program. Workers who fail to report for interview after reasonable opportunity shall also be terminated.

5. Workers made available under this program may be hired only upon referral by the U. S. Employment Service. No arrangements shall be made to permit the referral of such workers by other authorized referral channels.

Staffing of Special "Must" Plants

Recent changes and developments in the combat areas have emphasized the importance of "must" production programs as opposed to the large list of essential activities. This will require redirection of emphasis and efforts in the general manpower program.[3]

WMC instructions to the regional directors stated that it will be necessary for recruiting, placement, and priority mechanisms to be geared primarily to staff these special "must" plants regardless of the immediate effect on other activities within the area. The "must" enterprises are thus designated, by the Production Executive Committee of the War Production Board, because they are producing items

[3] War Manpower Commission. Field Instructions Nos. 514, August 14, 1944, and 514 (Revised), August 28, 1944.

which are of prime importance to the war effort and of which there is a national supply shortage. The area director is to determine whether the plant is actually behind schedule because of manpower shortage, and, if so, the reason for the lag and the types and number of workers required to overcome the lag.

The WMC is attempting in two ways to remedy the manpower shortage in the "must" plants. Regional directors have been informed that an exhaustive effort should be made to staff such plants within the locality, and at the same time, every possible action toward that end should be taken at the area level. The second means of remedying this manpower shortage consists of encouraging the more effective use of the existing labor force.[4] WMC representatives in the field are to concentrate on making appraisals of the use of labor in the plants of employers whose only solution of pressing labor problems appears to be in the interregional recruitment of workers. Furthermore, all initial ceilings and priorities will be subject to review, and "manpower priorities committees will require evaluation reports periodically as to progress made in a plant in the improvement of manpower use in cases where conditions were previously reported as unsatisfactory."

Appeals Procedure [5]

To prevent any delay in the procurement of necessary manpower for urgent war production, the War Manpower Commission outlined the procedure to be followed by WMC field personnel in handling appeals from employment-ceiling and manpower-priority determinations under the intensified program for critical war plants.

Under this procedure an employer has the right to appeal any employment-ceiling or manpower-priority determination of the WMC area director, in accordance with established WMC regulations. Such determinations, however, will remain in effect until a final decision is made on the appeal. Cases of extreme urgency may be brought to the Chairman of the Commission for a final ruling at any stage in the appeals process. WMC appeals boards have jurisdiction over such questions as labor utilization and supply, but not those relating to the relative urgency of a plant's product, service, or production schedules.

The instructions to the regional manpower directors included information regarding appeals covering the release of workers from less-essential activities. Under an employment-ceiling program involving the release of workers, such release may occur only after the worker has without good cause failed to appear at a U. S. Employment Service office for an interview, or after such an interview has been held and the USES has determined that (1) suitable work in an activity urgently needed for the prosecution of the war is available for the worker, and (2) the latter does not have good cause for refusing to accept such employment. If the worker files a bona fide appeal, the employer's obligation to release him for employment-ceiling reasons will be suspended until a final decision is handed down.

[4] War Manpower Commission. Press release PM-4657, August 23, 1944.
[5] Idem, Field Instruction No. 505, Part IV, August 16, 1944; Press release P. M.-4656, August 23, 1944.

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If an employer appeals from an employment-ceiling determination that involves the release of employees, the action may be suspended until a final decision is rendered, if reasonable doubt exists as to whether (1) the employer is covered by that part of the program involving the release of workers, and (2) the employer or employee is engaged in an activity that has been designated to release workers.

Measures for Control of Textile Industry in Brazil

A RECENT Brazilian decree law[1] mobilizes the textile industry to help meet the needs of inhabitants of liberated areas and of the Brazilian and United Nations armed forces. In furnishing textiles for the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, Brazil is called upon to produce 90,000,000 square yards of cotton textiles. This amount requires an increase of approximately 25 percent of present production. In normal times Brazil would have three means of enlarging output—by expansion of equipment, increase of working hours, or stabilization of the labor market. At present, as expansion of equipment is almost impossible, the working hours have been lengthened and textile-mill employees generally have been frozen to their jobs.

Under the Industrial Mobilization Law of July 13, all establishments producing natural or artificial yarns, weaving and finishing textiles, or producing knotted goods, are considered as being of national interest. Consequently, they are placed on the same footing as establishments of military interest, and as such are mobilized in accordance with the terms of the present law. The following regulations apply to establishments in the textile field covered above, with the exception of those which, on advice from the Executive Textile Commission, are exempted by the Minister of Labor, Industry and Commerce.

Labor contracts.—No worker in the establishments covered may change his vocation without prior authorization from the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce or a properly delegated official. At the same time, no employer in any economic field may hire such a worker without presentation of the above authorization; and in the field covered by this law, no employer may engage a worker who does not have a release certificate issued by his former employer. The Textile Executive Commission may transfer employees locally from one establishment to another, in which case employees retain their seniority rights and economic status. Textile workers drafted for the armed forces are to be deferred, unless the employer can dispense with their services.

Hours and working conditions.—With prior authorization from the Minister of Labor, Industry and Commerce, normal working hours may be 10 per day, the last 2 hours being paid for at a rate of at least 20 percent above the normal rate. To aid the production of textiles, females and all workers over 16 years of age are permitted to perform night work. Upon proper authorization, the right to vacations (with pay) may be replaced by an indemnity amounting to twice the

[1] No. 6688 of July 13, 1944.

respective pay rate; however, this right to substitute an indemnity for a vacation does not apply to workers under 18 years of age or to employees who for reasons of health apply for holidays.

Textile Executive Commission (C. E. T.).—The Textile Executive Commission, in the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce, has authority and responsibility for directing the industry, increasing production, fixing quotas, and administering the law. The Commission is to be composed of eight representatives of the industry chosen from the management of the mills, five members representing governmental ministries and agencies, and a president designated by the President of Brazil.

Penalties.—All groups in the textile industry are required to obey the regulations of the Commission. Refusal by a worker to accept his transfer is tantamount to abandonment of employment, while absenteeism on the part of the employee without just cause entails forfeiture of overtime pay for the week in which he was absent. Furthermore, absenteeism for 8 consecutive days, without just cause, is to be considered equivalent to abandonment of work. Violations of the job freeze by employers are subject to fines up to 5,000 cruzeiros and establishments that refuse to comply with the regulations and directives of the Commission may be placed by presidential decree under a regime of governmental intervention.

Method of obtaining release from textile industry.[2]—Since the law mobilizing the textile industry has been in effect, the Minister of Labor issued instructions for handling workers who wish release from employment in the textile industry or from a specific enterprise in that industry. The instructions authorize the National Bureau of Labor in the Federal District, the State Bureau of Labor in São Paulo, and the National Labor Delegates in the remaining States to process the requests for release presented by the workers. Before release is granted, a worker must present a written certificate from his current employer and the request must be referred to the employer's syndicate. If the employer's syndicate objects to the release, its reasons for objection must be stated in writing. Failure by the syndicate to respond to the application for release is to be regarded as approving the release.

[2] Report from United States Embassy, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, August 23, 1944 (No 751).

Post-War Reconstruction

Post-War Planning in Australia[1]

THE Australian Government is committed to a policy of international cooperation to raise living standards after the war, and the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction, created late in 1942, having carried on exploratory work on post-war planning, has announced a comprehensive reconstruction program, including plans for the immediate post-war period and for the long-term. Progress made in Australian post-war plans and the powers and relationships of the different specially created and previously existing administrative agencies dealing with post-war problems are here described.

Scope of Planning

International aspects.—International collaboration has been stressed in Australia's post-war plans, the Prime Minister having pledged the Government to cooperate with other countries to increase living standards, and to maintain a high level of employment as a necessary foundation for the revival of international trade. The Prime Minister supports the principles laid down in the Atlantic Charter, and the reconstruction program announced by the Minister of Post-War Reconstruction embraces its aims.

National planning.—A comprehensive reconstruction program was announced by the Minister of Post-War Reconstruction in 1943. It was concerned not only with the transition from a war to a peace economy but, equally, with long-term planning for improved social security and the advancement of living standards. At that time the object was stated to be the framing of a policy, adoption of a plan for carrying it out, and seeing that the machinery was ready when needed. Maintenance of a high level of employment was assumed to be imperative for any Government in power immediately after the war and later. Although the Government must plan for an adequate supply of jobs, it is the opinion of the Minister of Post-War Reconstruction (as reported in May 1944) that there may be more jobs than people to fill them after the war ends. Between 1940 and 1950, the estimated population increase will be 10 percent. From 7 to 8 percent more people will be seeking work. Therefore, there will be proportionately more people for those at work to clothe, feed, and house. The estimated working population for 1950 is 3,100,000 persons.

[1] Data are from Australian News and Information Bureau (New York), Australia, July 1944, and Australia Looks to the Future [1944 ?]; Manpower Review (Australia, Director General of Manpower, Sydney), February 1944; Australian Worker (Sydney), May 31, June 14, and June 21, 1944; Furnishing Worker (Sydney), May 6, 1944; Employers' Review (Employers' Federation of New South Wales, Sydney), March 31, 1944; Round Table (London), June 1943; Agenda (Oxford, England) August 1943; International Labor Review (Montreal), March and November 1943 and January, April–May, June, and July 1944; Political Handbook of the World (Council on Foreign Relations, Inc., New York), 1944; New Zealand Standard (Wellington), February 3, 1944; Foreign Agriculture (U. S. Department of Agriculture), August 1944; and daily press.

Detailed statements by the Minister of Post-War Reconstruction stressed the point that in the change-over from war to peace there would be the same pressure on the country's resources, ingenuity, and manpower as in wartime, and the same urgency to make the best use of them. The Government will be required to determine the most critical needs and fix production schedules, giving priority to a set of products differing widely from those of wartime. Dependence should not be placed on the interplay of supply and demand. He added that critical demands should be assessed immediately and a nation-wide plan made to use national resources and manpower to meet them. The need for 250,000 dwellings was cited as one post-war priority. In supplying them, the Minister stated, both the Government and private industry must participate.

Regarding controls over prices of raw materials and commodities and over salaries and wages, the Minister expressed the opinion that some, but by no means all, would have to be retained after the war.

Governments should do away with any deliberate restrictions on output that limit national wealth and employment. Post-war Australia should not tolerate monopolistic or other restrictions upon output imposed for private advantage or from sheer misunderstanding of what is involved in an economy of abundance. National productive capacity should be built up by public investment in hydro-electric, forestry, soil- and water-conservation, and transport-development projects.

Self-sufficiency, he said, was not his aim. On the contrary, he maintained that general acceptance by all nations of domestic policies of full employment is the indispensable basis of a fruitful and lasting peace.

Full employment and social security are interdependent. Under the best conditions a need will exist for some social-security services. Adequate provisions for aid will sustain purchasing power and help to maintain full employment; in turn, full employment will keep social-security costs at a minimum, especially for unemployment benefits. The Minister stated that the principle of comprehensive social security was accepted in Australia, and all that was needed was to fill in the existing gaps in the system. The Government was convinced, he stated, that the program should be extended as soon as the legislation could be prepared and the necessary administrative manpower became available. Financing social security from general revenue, he added, has the advantage of distributing the burden according to the ability to pay. He cautioned against overstating the importance of social-security services, however, declaring that they are at best palliatives for the world's economic problems.

In the House of Representatives, the Minister for War Organization of Industry advocated five fundamental principles for the post-war period: Proper use of the nation's productive resources; production to meet fundamental needs of all; employment for all who are able and willing to work; equality of educational and occupational opportunity; and progressive reduction of inequality of income, of leisure, and of working conditions. He announced that as conditions improved, almost all wartime restrictive regulations would be removed and would be replaced by regulations to encourage expanded production of goods and services.

The Government's decentralization-of-industry policy is intended to carry over into peacetime. The Acting Minister for Supply announced that by the end of January 1944, 50 country clothing factories would be in operation. Thousands of rural women employed in these plants otherwise would have remained idle or would have had to work in overpopulated cities.

Governmental Administrative Machinery for Planning

Reconstruction.—As originally established in 1941, the Department of Labor and National Service included a section which dealt with reconstruction as one phase of a wide range of problems. Owing to the importance of post-war plans and the volume of the Department's other duties, the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction was established in December 1942, and took over the reconstruction section from the Department of Labor. The Federal Treasurer was appointed Minister of Post-War Reconstruction, and the former Director of Rationing became Director General of Reconstruction. The Ministry is to work through and with other departments of the Federal, State, and local governments, and its broad functions are those of planning and coordination of the Government's activities.

Covering the immediate post-war period, the Ministry is to plan for the reestablishment of members of the armed forces in civil life[2]; the transfer of war industries and personnel to peacetime activities; disposal of war plants and problems arising out of termination of contracts; and, on the international side, post-war relief. For long-term reconstruction, the Ministry's responsibility consists of working out the policy and plans for maintenance and expansion of employment and national income and prevention of unemployment; development and conservation of resources; prevention of want, and the raising of living standards; and international negotiation for social and economic reconstruction and advancement.

In carrying out its work the Ministry makes use of commissions especially appointed to study and report on specific subjects. They are not intended to become permanent bodies, but during their tenure are an integral part of the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction. Examples are the commissions on rural reconstruction, housing, public works, and secondary industries. Fields of operation of the first three are those implied by their names; the last-mentioned investigates possible uses of war plants in peacetime. The decision to appoint the Secondary Industries Planning Commission was made in October 1943. Its main function is to review and investigate wartime industrial development, with special reference to Government factories, to define a policy of industrial development for the country, and to plan and recommend to the Government measures to carry out the policy.

At a conference of Premiers of the States, held in July 1943, it was decided to establish a National Works Council to coordinate post-war public works. Membership of the Council consists of representatives of all seven State governments, with the Prime Minister of the Commonwealth as chairman.

Social services.—A newly established Department of Social Services, in cooperation with the Treasury, deals with the remedial side of prevention of want, that is, in administering the various forms of social insurance and protection.

[2] A separate discussion of demobilization plans for veterans is given on p. 759 of this issue.

Concrete Post-War Plans

Of the post-war plans other than those for demobilized servicemen, the greatest progress at the time of the referendum in August 1944 (when the voters failed to grant specific controls to the Government for 5 years after the war) had been made with regard to housing, disposal of war plants, and rural reconstruction.

Housing.—The first interim report of the Commonwealth Housing Commission was presented in October 1943. Immediate and long-term housing programs were recommended to overcome the acute shortage (estimated at 300,000 units by 1945).

Support of the principle of public financial assistance was given by the Cabinet, and in December the immediate post-war housing program to build 50,000 homes in the first post-war year was approved. Of this total, 30,000 would be Government-sponsored dwellings for low-income families, and 20,000 would be built by public and private agencies with Federal aid where needed. The Prime Minister stated that the program would be reviewed annually, in the light of available material and labor, until the shortage had been overcome. Establishment of an experimental building station was approved by the Cabinet.

In May 1944, it was announced that Federal and State authorities had agreed to a post-war housing plan and that it would be submitted to the next conference of Premiers. The conference at which the plan was agreed upon was convened by the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction. Officials of the Treasury and of the Department of Labor and National Service, and representatives of the State governments, were present. Under the proposals, the Commonwealth Government would borrow money for housing in the normal manner—that is, through the Loan Council—and the funds would be earmarked for the different States in accordance with needs. Each State would act for the Commonwealth within its own boundaries, granting financial assistance to allow persons of low income to attain a reasonable standard of shelter.

On rental housing, subsidies would take the form of payments to State housing authorities to enable them to allow rent rebates to eligible persons, in an amount equal to the difference between the economic rent for a dwelling and the agreed proportion of the family income (not solely that of the main breadwinner) to be devoted to rent. Family income, for the purposes of the plan, consists of the husband's entire income, plus two-thirds of that of the wife, plus one-third of that of each child (to a maximum of 30s. a week from the income of each child). A child's income of less than 10s. weekly would be excluded.

A purchaser of a Government-built dwelling would be required to make a down payment of not less than 5 percent of the cost of both house and land. The sales tax (£60 to £100, depending upon type of house) would be waived in buying a Government dwelling, and rates of interest would be low. The Commonwealth Government offered to pay three-fifths of any financial losses incurred on Government-sponsored housing schemes, the States to bear the remainder. Allocation of dwellings would be based on need, and it was suggested that priorities be granted to remove people from condemned houses

and overcrowded areas, and to enable them to live nearer their places of employment.

Other plans for public works, including housing, are being prepared by the National Works Council on direction from the Loan Council. To maintain employment an expenditure up to £200,000,000, during the 2 years following the war, is expected.

Use of war plants.—Official opinion has been expressed in Australia that war plants should not be sacrificed. A question of how best to use these national assets is involved. No fixed Government policy has been established for disposing of them. Some plants, it was stated, can be added to the productive enterprises of which they are a part in wartime, and provision has been made for doing so on a valuation basis. Others might be of use in works operated by the State, such as railway workshops.

The first of a series of advisory panels established for the purpose of assisting the Secondary Industries Planning Commission was created for textiles. The panel makes recommendations to the Commission, and thence to the Director General of Post-War Reconstruction, regarding the future of the textile industries.

Rural reconstruction.—In January 1944, the Rural Reconstruction Commission submitted its first report to the Minister of Post-War Reconstruction. The most important of the domestic measures recommended are the devaluation of the Australian pound in terms of British currency; a moratorium preventing foreclosure for debt; compulsory reduction of wage and interest rates; assistance to producers through the extension of "home consumption price" schemes; and inauguration of a comprehensive plan for debt adjustment. Regarding international collaboration, the Commission stated that expansion of Australian farming depends upon acceptance of the spirit of the Atlantic Charter and the terms of the resolutions adopted at the Hot Springs Conference.

Discharged Soldiers

Wage-Adjustment Rulings Relating to Veterans

RETURNING servicemen may be reinstated at a rate above the minimum of a rate range without being counted as new employees, within the hiring restrictions of General Order No. 31 of the National War Labor Board.[1] This ruling was made recently by the Board's legal division.

General Order No. 31, as amended June 27, 1944, states that within a given year an employer may hire, "at rates in excess of the minimum of the properly established rate range for that job classification," not to exceed 25 percent of all the employees hired for any job classification. Regarding servicemen, however, the Board's associate general counsel stated that the returning veteran may be reinstated at a rate above minimum in conformity with the Selective Service Law, without such reinstatement being counted as the hiring of a new employee.

An earlier interpretation of the Board had laid down additional rules relating to wage adjustments.[2] Under these rules, which pertain to employees in the armed services and those who are returned to their former employer, the employer is permitted to pay the returned employee "the presently established rate for his former position, reflecting all increases granted during his absence to which he would have been entitled had he been continuously employed, without Board approval. If he is placed in a higher-rated job, he may be paid the established rate for that job applicable to an employee of his skill and ability, and reflecting any increase due to seniority." Thus, under these rules, an employee who has returned from military service is permitted to advance "in a length-of-service schedule as though there has been no break in his employment." In other words, employees who have entered the military service are treated as on leave of absence, and not as having terminated their employment.

Protection of Veterans in Australia [3]

AUSTRALIA is utilizing its experience in discharging servicemen while the war is still in progress to develop techniques that will be required to deal with demobilization on a larger scale after hostilities end. The

[1] National War Labor Board, General Order No. 31, amended June 27, 1944; telegram from associate general counsel, NWLB, to the secretary of the Commerce and Industry Association of New York, August 14, 1944.

[2] National War Labor Board, Interpretation, April 27, 1944.

[3] Data are from Australia, Statutory Rule, 1943, No. 233; Manpower Review (Australia, Director-General of Manpower), February 1944; Australian Worker, June 14, 1944; Employers' Review (Employers' Federation of New South Wales, Sydney), February 29, 1944; Planning (London), April 14, 1944; International Labor Office, Legislative Series, 1939–Australia 3, 1941–Australia 2, and 1942–Australia 2; and International Labor Review (Montreal), July and August 1943, and February, April–May, July, and September 1944.

measures for veterans' protection that are already in effect or have reached the stage of advanced planning include provision for reinstatement in pre-service employment and revival of apprenticeship rights; training in all its aspects; an effective employment service; a vocational-guidance service to assess aptitudes and permit scientific selection for training courses and occupations; demobilization furloughs to facilitate readjustments and reentry into civil life; payment of "sustenance" pending physical and mental recovery and the finding of employment; advances for purchase of trade tools and of businesses; preference in public appointments; and modification of conditions governing entry into certain occupations or industries.

Administrative Machinery

General planning of all measures required to deal with the reestablishment of ex-service personnel in civil life is centered in the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction. At the operating level, broad responsibility has been divided among several specialized Government agencies created before and during the present war. In cases in which their fields of activity are related, these administrative bodies are also represented on three interdepartmental committees that have been established to inquire into special problems of demobilization, reestablishment and reemployment, and training. The committees are responsible to the Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction.

Operating agencies.—In brief, the Repatriation Commission (which has acquired much specialized experience since its establishment under the Australian Soldiers Repatriation Act of 1920) is responsible for determining pensions earned, their payment, medical and psychiatric treatment, provision of artificial aids, sustenance payments during treatment and pending placement, advances for business, provision of tools of trade, advancement and education of soldiers' children, and many other functions covered by the Repatriation Act. Authority to place labor is vested in the Manpower Directorate. Although the jurisdiction of the Directorate depends on the defense power contained in the Australian Constitution, and therefore is of limited duration, an official publication states that this agency is likely to develop into an employment service after the war. A separate section of the Directorate, to deal with discharged servicemen's reestablishment in civil employment, was already in operation early in 1944. The Industrial Training Division of the Department of Labor and National Service has acquired considerable experience in training large numbers of civilian and service personnel in technical occupations and will be the controlling authority for vocational and industrial training. The Universities Commission is empowered, under its charter, to control university and professional training and to administer a system of subsidies payable to students selected to proceed to university and other approved courses. In addition, all three services—Army, Air Force, and Navy—have rehabilitation sections.

Planning agencies.—The planning bodies to which reference is made are the Demobilization, Reestablishment and Reemployment, and Reconstruction Training Committees. Responsibility for integrating technical service plans for demobilization with plans for reemployment and reconstruction is vested in the Demobilization Committee.

The Reestablishment and Reemployment Committee prepares plans and machinery for the reemployment and placement of members of the armed forces and civilian war workers. The Reconstruction Training Committee advises on preliminary professional and vocational training to be given by the three services before cessation of hostilities, prepares plans for training that the services can carry out under its guidance after hostilities cease (taking into account requirements of economic reconstruction plans) and advises on post-discharge training, as part of the general training program for the reconstruction period.

Vocational Guidance in Services

Men receive vocational guidance for their post-war careers while they are still in the armed forces. Vocational-guidance officers attached to the psychological staffs of the services have been assigned to give expert advice to servicemen in selecting courses of study. Particular stress is placed on guidance of young men in air crews who were recruited directly from school for the RAAF. A choice of correspondence courses is offered and, where practicable, men are encouraged to attend technical or other vocational institutes. Directed reading and discussion groups are fostered. Every effort is made to fit the plans to the needs of the men. Vocational-guidance officers also aid men in the service who, for psychiatric reasons, are considered unfit for normal duties, by bridging the gap between the psychiatrists and all the other persons concerned.

Preference in Demobilization

The War Cabinet announced in June 1944 that the main factor determining order of discharge for servicemen is to be length of service, but age and marital status are to be taken into account. Some exceptions from the priority system are to be made for key persons who are urgently needed to start peacetime industrial operations. In the interest of the men and the nation, demobilization is to be as rapid as possible.

Aid at Discharge Centers

Methods of demobilization have been so planned as to involve only an enlargement of the existing staff and facilities connected with discharge centers when the large-scale post-war discharge of servicemen takes place. Each branch of the armed services has its own discharge centers, the majority of which are in State capitals. It is questionable, however, whether all discharge centers will be utilized. At the centers, the men being demobilized are required to prepare or complete their basic records, and they apply for and receive civilian identification and ration books. In filling in the necessary forms, they are assisted by members of the rehabilitation unit maintained at the center. Assistance is given by a rehabilitation officer and also by a trained employment officer. When final action respecting future employment cannot be taken at the discharge center, the ex-serviceman is invited to go to his nearest central rehabilitation section or national service office.

Rights of Veterans Returning to Civil Life

On return to civil life, discharged veterans are entitled to aid in obtaining employment, various cash and other benefits, preference in certain employments, reinstatement in pre-service employment, and training.

Aid in obtaining employment and financial assistance.—As amended and issued in revised form on September 16, 1943 (Statutory Rules No. 233), the Australian Soldiers' Repatriation Regulations provide that any member of the armed forces, who has been discharged from active duty (or, if he was not employed on active service, suffered material prejudice in consequence of war service) and has a satisfactory record, may apply to the Deputy Commissioner of Repatriation in his State within 12 months of his discharge for assistance in obtaining employment and for sustenance while waiting for employment. The Deputy Commissioner may assist the veteran in finding work and may grant him financial assistance for not to exceed 3 months. No payment may be granted to an ex-serviceman who has failed to accept suitable work or who has had employment for an aggregate of 6 months following discharge. If the veteran obtains casual or intermittent employment, the allowance is reduced by the amount earned, and, if he obtains regular employment, the allowance ceases.

The Deputy Commissioner is also empowered, in his discretion, to pay the ex-serviceman's fare to the place of employment if he is sent to a job by the Repatriation Department or obtains it through his own efforts.

The Repatriation Regulations also provide that, where necessary, a Deputy Commissioner may grant gifts of household furniture; tools of trade, plant and equipment, professional instruments or other articles of personal equipment, exclusive of clothing in any form; and loans.

Employment preference to veterans.—The Australian Soldiers' Repatriation Act was amended on April 1, 1943, to grant preference in public employment and on public contracts to returned members of the armed forces who have served overseas in prescribed combat areas, provided they are capable of doing the work. Each public contract must include a clause binding the contractor to grant such preference, subject to a £50 fine for each act of noncompliance. After the last war, preference to returned soldiers was granted under provisions of the Commonwealth Public Service Act. When it was decided to take such action again, the Labor Government expressed opposition to making the provision under the Repatriation Act, stating that it should be approached more generally. However, the clause was inserted in the Repatriation Act by an amendment moved by the opposition. The interstate executive of the Australasian Council of Trade-Unions has taken the position that preference in employment to returned servicemen is not in the best interest of the country and should be abandoned, and that the efforts of the nation should be concentrated on making opportunity for employment for all citizens in the post-war period. The Council's resolution opposing military preference is representative of opinion of trade-unionists throughout Australia.

Reinstatement in employment.—The National Security (Reinstatement in Civil Employment) Regulations (Statutory Rules, 1939), as

amended, provide that any person may apply for reinstatement in employment after completion of a period of war service or within 14 days before his completion of such service. The employer shall, immediately after the receipt of the application or the completion of the war service, reinstate the worker in his employment in an occupation and under conditions not less favorable to him than those which would have been applicable to him had he remained in the employment of that employer (including any increase of remuneration to which he would have become entitled had he remained in such employment). The employer is relieved from the obligation of reemploying the veteran if the latter has failed to apply for reinstatement within 1 month after the termination of his military service; if he has failed to present himself for reinstatement, without reasonable excuse, at the time and place specified by the employer; if it was not reasonably practicable to reinstate the employee; or if the offer has been made to reinstate the employee in the most favorable position and under the most favorable terms possible. Employment of a reinstated employee may not be terminated without cause. For contravention of any provision of the regulations, a fine may be imposed by court order. The fine is payable to the employee.

Contracts of apprentices are also subject to adjustment, the Minister of Labor being permitted to relieve the parties of their obligations under an apprenticeship contract or to extend the contract for a period not exceeding the period of war service.

Training scheme.—Pending the establishment of a comprehensive plan, training for demobilized persons was provided through the Repatriation Commission. During the training period the Repatriation Commission was empowered to pay sustenance allowances that, in its opinion, were reasonable. For veterans who were apprentices or trainees when inducted into the service, assistance might be given in the form of a wage supplement sufficient to insure an income (wages and supplement, exclusive of pension) equivalent either to the wage the person would have been receiving, had his training or apprenticeship not been interrupted, or the minimum wage for the industry or trade, whichever is the less.

Later, a permanent scheme worked out by the Reconstruction Training Committee was adopted, which came into operation on a limited scale in February and March 1944. By June, it was stated that over 350 ex-service men and women had been accepted for trade and professional training to be given under the Commonwealth reconstruction training scheme. Full- and part-time courses are furnished and allowances are provided for during training.

Productivity of Labor and Industry

Production in Federal Prison Industries in 1943[1]

THE 1943 production of industries in Federal prisons was more than 400 percent above peacetime levels. Sales in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1943, totaled $18,789,181, as compared with $7,062,015 in 1941, and $4,777,691 in 1939. The production increase took place in spite of a 50-percent decline, since the war began, in the number of available prisoners who could be assigned to industry. Value of goods produced per employed inmate rose from $1,462 in 1939 to $5,300 in 1943. One shop showed an annual sales value of output per worker of $20,131 during the latter year. The report under review states that "such production per worker has never been equaled in any prison industry anywhere and compares favorably with the per-capita output of free workers."

Ninety-eight percent of all production in the Federal prison industries was devoted to war needs in 1943. Novel forms of the prisons' war production were three 65-foot wooden boats for the Army, canvas water tanks used by the Marines in the South Pacific and elsewhere, and bomb fins for the Air Force. The stripping, sizing, and salvage of copper cable and the weaving of cargo-loading nets are typical examples of some of the hand-labor tasks performed by Federal prisoners. The prisoners also salvaged and repaired floats used by the Navy Department to buoy submarine nets. To meet special war needs for increased production of war goods in the institutions and for industrial skills of all kinds in outside industry, the vocational-training program in all institutions was expanded and intensified; new vocational classes were organized and classes already in operation were altered. Of course, many commodities usually included in prison production in peacetime, such as matresses, brushes, shoes, and chairs, continued to be made.

Besides their industrial production, 20 institutions operated farms raising vegetables, field crops, and hogs. Eleven farms had dairy units, 14 raised beef cattle, and several maintained poultry projects. The agricultural production also increased during the year 1943, the total value amounting to $776,495.

Wages paid to over 3,500 prisoners amounted to $783,433 in 1943, and averaged $221 per inmate. Approximately $600,000 of this total was sent to dependents or was retained for the prisoners pending their release.

In addition to the wages, $2,700 was paid as accident compensation to inmates injured during employment. Such funds are paid monthly to prisoners deprived of regular institutional wages by injuries and

[1] Data are from Federal Prisons, 1943 (El Reno, Okla.), U. S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Prisons, 1944.

to such men after release, in order to help them reestablish themselves in the community. The accident rate in Federal prisons has not risen with increased production. In fact, although the number of lost-time injuries in 1943 remained almost the same as in 1942, the severity of such injuries declined 50 percent.

Hours of Work and Productivity in British War Factories

FROM a study of output in selected war factories where hours of labor had been reduced, the Industrial Health Research Board of the British Medical Research Council [1] concluded that there was reason to believe that the effects of shorter hours were favorable, although other factors obscured the results. For workers in three groups the operations of which were fairly free of disturbing influences, increases in hourly output ranged from 3.3 to 6.3 percent after hours were reduced. In spite of interfering factors, the hourly output increased in 15 of 21 groups of employees whose hours were studied. The average rise was 4.1 percent, but in some groups the increases ranged as high as 11 to 21 percent. Small but progressive improvements in the methods or conditions of work were mainly responsible, but in some factory groups fairly large-scale reorganization contributed. It was concluded that technical improvements and reorganization are most likely to lead to an increasingly high and steady level of efficiency. Where operation was on a 2-shift basis, hourly output was practically the same on day and night work. Although differences were not large on the 3-shift system, output was likely to be highest on the afternoon shift and lowest in the morning.

Variability in the records covering output was the most striking feature disclosed in the investigation. Causes of the fluctuations were chiefly changes in the type or design of product, mechanical difficulties and machine break-downs, differences in the quantity and quality of material used, progressive improvements in methods or conditions of work, changes in the type and lay-out of machines, and personal factors such as dissatisfaction with the method or rate of payment and occasional friction between the management and the workers.

The Industrial Health Research Board prefaced its report by the following statement:

> It has been firmly established that, except as a temporary emergency measure, working hours in manual operations involving a fair amount of physical effort should not exceed 60–65 per week for men and 55–60 per week for women. If longer periods of work are demanded, efficiency will in time fall. * * * Many people, however, hold the view that if maximum efficiency is to be achieved, working hours should be cut down below these limits.

Coverage of Inquiry

Late in 1942, when weekly working hours were reduced in a number of factories engaged in war production, it was believed that the change might have a measurable effect on output. The extent of the reduc-

[1] A Study of Variations in Output, by S. Wyatt (Medical Research Council, Industrial Health Research Board, Emergency Report No. 5, London, 1944).

tion varied in different plants and was very small in some cases. However, the investigation which is summarized here was undertaken for the primary purpose of ascertaining the effects, if any, of shorter hours.

Plans were made on the assumption that it would be possible to find a representative group of about 200 fully experienced workers in different parts of each factory, whose output could be studied for a 4- to 6-week period prior to the decrease in hours, and for 12 weeks thereafter. In four factories, individual weekly output was studied, but in three other factories changes in the type of work necessitated the use of group piece-work earnings to measure output. It was felt that use of group piece-work earnings was a permissible procedure, provided the changes in the type of work were small and the piece-work rates were adjusted correctly.

Investigation of output on different shifts, where more than one shift was worked, could be made only in the groups where workers were paid individual piece rates. It was not possible to secure records of daily and hourly output.

In general, very few processes were suitable for measurement, and most of those selected were affected by other factors besides hours of work. The results obtained "should be regarded as samples of output curves over a period of several weeks, during which time the change in hours was only one, and often not the most important, factor."

Changes in Hours and Output

The average number of hours worked per week in each factory, before and after hours of work were reduced, is shown in table 1, by sex of worker. Net working hours are given, excluding periods allowed for meals and rest. Reductions ranged from 0.7 percent for females in factory C to 11.5 percent for males in factory A.

TABLE 1.—*Average Number of Hours Worked per Week in Selected British Factories, Before and After Reduction*

Factory	Sex of workers	Shift system	Weekly hours of work			Factory	Sex of workers	Shift system	Weekly hours of work		
			Before reduction	After reduction	Percent of decrease				Before reduction	After reduction	Percent of decrease
Factory A	Male	2	65.4	57.9	11.5	Factory E	Male	2	56.2	54.3	3.4
	Female	3	45.0	43.5	3.3		Female	2	56.2	54.3	3.4
Factory B	Male	2	58.6	53.9	8.0	Factory F	Male	2	63.2	60.2	4.7
	Female	2	57.3	52.7	8.0		Female	2	59.1	54.6	7.6
Factory C	Male	2	63.3	60.2	4.9	Factory G	Male	2	56.7	52.3	7.8
	Female	3	46.0	45.7	.7		Female	2	56.7	52.3	7.8
Factory D	Male	2	56.7	55.0	3.0						
	Female	2	54.9	53.2	3.1						

Except for a few groups in factory B, all the output results shown in table 2 are for female employees. The relative hourly output by factory, group of workers, and sex is shown for periods before hours were reduced and afterward. Close inquiry in each department showed that the changes in output were affected by factors other than shorter hours. In only 3—A4, E1, and F1—of the 21 groups was it

possible to infer with some degree of certainty that the increase in hourly output resulted from reduced working time. The increase in output in group A4 was attributed mainly to shorter hours, as there were no interfering factors. In groups E1 and F1, the period after the reduction in hours was broken by the annual vacation, and it was presumed that output might have been increased to obtain a little extra money for vacation purposes, and also because of a rise in the tempo of work following the vacation. Hence, the report under review states, higher output in these two groups may not have been the result of a shortened workweek solely. In the remaining 18 groups, factors other than working time were of such overwhelming influence as to obscure the effects of shorter hours.

TABLE 2.—*Hourly Output of Labor in Selected British Factories, Before and After Reduction in Hours of Work*

Factory and group	Sex of workers	Number of workers	Hourly output					
			Before reduction in hours	After reduction in hours				Percent of change 12 weeks
				First 4 weeks	Second 4 weeks	Third 4 weeks	Average 12 weeks	
Average			100.0	103.9	102.9	105.7	104.1	+4.1
Factory A:								
Group 1	Female	98	100.0	94.5	93.1	98.4	95.3	−4.7
Group 2	Female	95	100.0	110.0	114.6	117.3	114.0	+14.0
Group 3	Female	400	100.0	101.4	102.6	110.1	104.7	+4.7
Group 4	Female	1,100	100.0	102.6	104.4	102.9	103.3	+3.3
Group 5	Female	1,050	100.0	106.8	112.7	113.9	111.1	+11.1
Factory B:								
Group 1	Male	47	100.0	101.6	104.7	107.5	104.6	+4.6
Group 2	Male	12	100.0	101.3	101.6	96.5	99.8	−.2
Group 3	Male	50	100.0	101.6	102.6	105.1	103.1	+3.1
Group 4	Male	10	100.0	107.9	114.1	116.9	113.0	+13.0
Group 5	Male	20	100.0	111.1	114.8	109.3	111.7	+11.7
Group 6	Female	63	100.0	102.0	106.7	94.4	101.0	+1.0
Group 7	Female	42	100.0	101.4	89.9	96.2	95.8	−4.2
Group 8	Female	30	100.0	96.1	98.0	96.5	96.9	−3.1
Factory C:								
Group 1	Female	120	100.0	124.8	90.6	93.9	103.1	+3.1
Group 2	Female	128	100.0	107.4	100.4	110.8	106.2	+6.2
Group 3	Female	29	100.0	104.2	101.5	110.5	105.4	+5.4
Group 4	Female	35	100.0	87.5	88.7	95.5	90.6	−9.4
Factory D, Group 1	Female	125	100.0	98.0	91.3	96.2	95.2	−4.8
Factory E, Group 1	Female	115	100.0	106.0	106.6	106.4	106.3	+6.3
Factory F, Group 1	Female	170	100.0	99.8	105.1	109.9	104.8	+4.9
Factory G, Group 1	Female	200	100.0	115.0	117.5	130.9	121.1	+21.1

Productivity in the British Coal-Mining Industry

A STATISTICAL digest issued by the British Ministry of Fuel and Power shows a decline in productivity of coal-mine labor during wartime, accompanied by a decrease in employment and production and a rise in idleness owing to disputes and avoidable absences. Information on productivity and related subjects is given in the following table for 1938, 1942, and 1943, and the first quarter of 1944.[1]

[1] Data are from Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), July 1944.

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Productivity in the British Coal-Mining Industry, in Selected Periods

Item	1938	1942	1943	1944 (first quarter)[1]
Salable coal produced—tons	226, 993, 200	203, 633, 400	194, 493, 000	47, 581, 300
Wage earners—average number	781, 700	709, 300	707, 800	703, 600
Average output per wage earner:				
Per year—tons	290. 4	287. 1	274. 8	67. 6
Per man-shift:				
At coal face—do	2. 95	2. 87	2. 75	2. 72
All wage earners—do	1. 12	1. 03	1. 03	1. 02
Idleness owing to disputes—man-days	664, 600		692, 600	1, 564, 100
Avoidable idleness [2]—percent of shifts	6. 4	10. 4	12. 4	12. 4
Average weekly cash earnings	£2 15s 9d.	£4 13s. 2d.	£5 0s. 0d.	£5 2s. 5d.

[1] Preliminary returns.
[2] Excludes shifts lost through work not being available, and because of recognized holidays, disputes, accidents, transport difficulties, etc.

Average output per wage earner per year dropped from 290.4 tons in 1938 to 274.8 tons in 1943. If the rate of productivity attained in the first quarter of 1944 should be continued throughout the year, the average annual output would be reduced somewhat further to an estimated 270.4 tons. The decline per man-shift, for men employed at the coal face only, was from 2.95 tons in 1938 to 2.72 tons in the first quarter of 1944. The average for all wage earners, including underground and surface labor, was 1.12 tons of coal per man-shift in 1938 and 1.02 tons in the first quarter of 1944. Tonnage of salable coal produced was 14.3 percent lower in 1943 than in 1938. In this same period the average number of wage earners employed dropped 9.5 percent, from a total of 781,700 to 707,800. Idleness caused by disputes was not substantially higher in 1943 than in 1938, but in the first quarter of 1944 was more than double that for the whole year of 1938 (1,564,100 man-days, as compared with 664,600). Avoidable idleness, including voluntary and involuntary absenteeism, nearly doubled in the same period, increasing from 6.4 percent to 12.4 percent. Rises in weekly earnings have been steady, the average of £5 2s. 5d for the first quarter of 1944 exceeding the £2 15s. 9d. weekly earnings received in 1938 by 83.7 percent.

Recent Developments in Company Pension Plans

VARIOUS changes have occurred in company pension plans since the adoption and revision of the Social Security Act. The National Industrial Conference Board has made a series of surveys of these plans and has traced trends and developments in the movement since 1935. The most recent study [1] covers the experience through 2 years of war and shows the effect of present economic conditions and of the Social Security Act and the tax laws on these plans.

The most important factor in changes which have occurred in the pension plans of private companies was the enactment and revision of the Social Security Act. It was at first believed that the old-age benefits under the act would relieve employers of the necessity of granting supplemental benefits, but the maximum of only $85 under the Federal system is not sufficient for persons accustomed to even a moderately high standard of living. The report points out that opportunities for such employees to provide a supplemental allowance for their old age are now much diminished as the result of high taxes and lowered returns on securities and investments. For the lower-income groups savings are even more difficult, since for the first time they are required to pay high income taxes at a period when living costs are rising. With the Government pension as a base, however, the cost to the employer of providing supplemental benefits is much less than if he bore the entire burden of providing an adequate pension.

The liberal tax deductions allowed under the Internal Revenue Code for employer contributions to pension and profit-sharing trusts are of great importance to employers in the creation and operation of pension plans for their employees. The Revenue Act of 1942 (section 162) and regulations issued in July 1943, strictly prescribe the conditions under which employer contributions may be deducted from taxable income. Under the wage and salary stabilization controls, pension plans which qualify under the Internal Revenue Code (section 165 (a)) are not considered as wage or salary increases, and an employee is not required, therefore, to pay taxes on the employer's contribution until it is made available to him. This makes the pension plan desirable from the higher-income employee's standpoint.

The war has thus had the effect of promoting the adoption of pension plans, since employers with large wartime profits can deduct their contributions from taxable income. Conditions arising from the war, such as high taxes, the rising cost of living, and the pressure on employees to invest 10 percent of their incomes in war bonds, may also affect the structure of the pension plans, since these conditions

[1] Trends in Company Pension Plan (National Industrial Conference Board, Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 61, New York, 1944).

raise the question as to whether the employees can afford to share in the cost of a plan or whether the employers should bear the entire cost, at least during the war, when many establishments are earning large profits.

Number and Types of Pension Plans

There are three main types of funded plans: (1) Group annuity plans, underwritten and administered by insurance companies, are in the form of a master contract between the employer and the insurance company. Contributions under the plan are in the form of premiums. (2) Individual-policy plans, also underwritten by insurance companies, provide retirement annuities such as any individual may purchase. Such plans are administered under a pension-trust agreement with a trustee, usually a bank or trust company, to hold and administer the policies. (3) Trust-fund plans are usually administered by a bank or trust company and are entirely separated from corporation control and assets. The contributions are deposited in an irrevocable trust under a trust agreement.

The study is based upon information from 339 companies with formal pension plans, employing more than 2.3 million persons. A considerable number of the companies in the war industries did not give statistics on employment, as this information was considered in the nature of a military secret, but in these cases the latest available figures on employment were used. The number of employees participating in the plans, however, was considerably smaller because of the influx of new workers who had not yet met the eligibility requirements or who were excluded by restrictive conditions of the plans. Of the 339 plans, 256 were insured plans, and of these 223 were group annuity and 33 were individual annuity plans. Sixty-seven were noninsured plans, with 45 trust-fund, 16 pay-as-you-go, and 6 balance-sheet reserve plans. Sixteen plans were a combination of types. Altogether, 185 plans were in manufacturing industries and 154 were in nonmanufacturing enterprises.

An analysis was made of 200 plans which had been adopted or revised during the first 2 years of war, in order to discover prevailing practices and, by comparison with previous investigations, to trace significant changes in these programs. In addition, information was obtained about plans which had been in existence for 2 or more years, in order to determine the changes in provisions necessitated by wartime conditions.

Principal Provisions of Plans

Eligibility requirements may be based on length of service, age, compensation, or class of employee. An increasing use of two or more of these factors to limit participation has been made in plans recently adopted; however, for the trust to qualify under section 165(a) of the Internal Revenue Code a basic requirement is that it must not discriminate in coverage. In general, the law requires that the plan must apply to 70 percent of all employees, or to 80 percent of the eligible employees if 70 percent or more of all employees are eligible; in computing the number of eligible employees the employer may exclude those having less than 5 years' service, or those working less than 20 hours a week or 5 months a year. One-fifth of the 200

plans cover permanent or regular employees, but required service periods in the other plans range from 3 months to 20 years. One year's service is the most frequent requirement.

One hundred twenty-seven of the 200 companies do not impose an age restriction, but 16 restrict participation to employees 25 years of age and over, while 31 fix the entrance age at 30 years, and 15 at 35 years. In the remaining plans, 8 fix the entrance age at either 18 or 21 years and one sets it at 40 years, while 2 have different entrance ages for men and women. In adopting a new retirement-benefit program, most companies exclude long-service employees, whose inclusion would impose too heavy a financial burden on the system. As a consequence the majority of pension plans, especially those underwritten by insurance companies, provide for pensions for these older persons outside of the regular plans.

A trend in recent years has been toward plans restricted to employees earning over $3,000 a year. This has been the result of the Federal wage and salary stabilization regulations which have made it difficult to increase the compensation of higher-paid employees, and the fact that Federal social security benefits are not paid on any amount of income in excess of $3,000. The inadequacy of the social security benefit for these higher-paid employees and the difficulty they meet under present conditions in providing for their old age out of their own savings have been largely responsible for the adoption of plans having this restriction. The Internal Revenue Code specifies that a classification shall not be considered discriminatory merely because it excludes employees earning $3,000 or less, or because contributions or benefits on compensation over $3,000 differ from those on compensation under $3,000, or because contributions or benefits differ on account of Federal or State requirements, if the total benefits establish an integrated and correlated retirement system. Treasury formulas have been issued which establish bases on which such plans may be integrated with the social security benefits without being considered discriminatory.

In general, the plans do not provide for compulsory membership even though such a provision would have the advantage of keeping participation at a satisfactory level, since any unnecessary element of compulsion is resented by employees in spite of the fact that the plan is for their exclusive benefit. Less than a tenth of the plans require employees to participate, although once an employee has elected to join the plan he is usually required to retain his membership during employment unless the employer consents to his withdrawal.

The normal retirement age in 124 of the 200 plans is 65 years, and in 6 it is 60 years. In 35 cases it differs according to the age of entrance. The other plans fix the retirement age at either 65 or 60 years for males, with the retirement age for females 5 years earlier except in 2 cases, where there is 10 years' difference, the retirement age being 65 for males and 55 for females. Only one company fixes the retirement age for males as high as 70 years. The recent tendency is to set the retirement age at 65 for all employees, regardless of sex, since, if women retire at an earlier age than men they receive a relatively smaller pension as they have had a shorter time to build up an annuity. All the insured plans permit retirement at an earlier age (but with a reduced annuity) if the employer consents, and they also permit the employer, with the consent of the employee, to request

earlier retirement. Under normal conditions, employment beyond the age for regular retirement is generally discouraged, although many plans provide that in exceptional cases an employee may work after that time on a year-to-year basis.

Company Pension and Social Security Benefits

In determining the method of computing the employee's pension under a private plan, two factors have to be taken into account: The relation of the company's plan to the social security benefit, and the regulations of the Internal Revenue Code. Under the social security system for a worker without dependents, earning between $100 and $150 a month, the final benefit would represent from 29.0 to 36.2 percent of his average earnings, but the percentage decreases sharply as income increases, and for the person earning $3,000 it would equal only 23.2 percent of annual salary. It is said to be generally recognized that the pension should represent approximately half of average pay, and on this basis the Government benefits are inadequate, especially for the higher-paid employee.

There are various methods of correlating the company plan with the social security benefits. One is to provide the desired pension under the company plan and deduct all or part of the Government benefit. This is the method commonly used in the trust-fund and discretionary plans. In insured plans close correlation is more difficult, and they provide for a separate scale of benefits which are correlated to a certain extent with the Government benefits. A third method coming into use is to ignore the social security benefits entirely and fix the pension at a uniform percentage of income for all compensation groups. In preparing plans for employees earning over $3,000, employers are required to follow one of two formulas fixed by the Bureau of Internal Revenue, which give percentages of annual compensation above $3,000, based on length of service.

Under early discretionary plans, employees were not required to contribute, but as these plans ran into financial difficulties the practice of requiring contributions became more prevalent. During the depression of the 1930's nearly all the plans adopted were on a joint-contributory basis, but the war has brought another change in attitude toward employee contributions. The installation of noncontributory plans was encouraged by section 165 of the Internal Revenue Code because it permitted employers to deduct their contributions from taxable income, but it is pointed out in the report:

> While some employers may be induced to adopt a noncontributory pension plan because of the immediate tax benefits that may be possible, such a motivation may work to their serious disadvantage at a later date. When the war is over and profits are reduced, or the plant is operating at a loss, can the employer continue to finance the noncontributory plan? If it becomes necessary to discontinue it, can he convince the Bureau of Internal Revenue that the plan was of a permanent character, which is one of the requisites of a qualified trust. If he cannot, he will be liable for taxes on all contributions made in past years.

Wartime Experience

As a part of the study, employers who had pension plans in operation through the war period were asked what problems they had encountered as a result of abnormal conditions and what benefits

they had derived from their pension plans. There were 199 of these companies, employing more than a million and a half persons.

The effect of withholding taxes, rising living costs, and deductions for war bonds was not found to have affected adversely employee participation in contributory plans, as less than 3 percent of the companies reported that the percentage of employees dropping out of the plan was high enough to cause serious concern. In two cases the plan had been changed from a contributory to a noncontributory one, in one instance because the company feared that many employees could not afford to continue their contributions; in the other case all employees earning less than $3,000 a year were put on a noncontributory basis. In general, reporting companies were well satisfied with the way in which employee participation had been maintained, and some companies stated that employees were so convinced of the value of the plan that they were willing to make sacrifices to continue in it. In other cases employees' earnings had been increased by overtime so that they could easily afford to pay the relatively small contributions required for pensions.

About a third of the companies with contributory plans reported some difficulty in enrolling new employees. These new workers looked upon themselves as temporary employees and wished to postpone entrance into the plan until their jobs promised to be of a more permanent nature. Women, especially, considered work as temporary and were reluctant to become participants. Another excuse given for not joining under a contributory plan was the number of pay-roll deductions already required. Rising living costs and the possibility of inflation also prevented some employees from signing up. A few concerns stated that they had made no concentrated effort to persuade new employees to join during the war period.

In contrast, approximately half of the companies with contributory plans reported that they had experienced no difficulty in persuading employees to join and contribute under the pension plan when they became eligible. A number of these concerns stressed the pension plan as an excellent medium for savings and sold the idea of participation on this basis.

Operation of Canadian Unemployment Insurance Fund, 1942–43

THE first full year of operation of the Canadian unemployment insurance system was completed on March 31, 1943, the law having become effective for the payment of contributions July 1, 1941. The unemployment insurance law authorized an Unemployment Insurance Commission to create and administer a coordinated program of unemployment insurance and employment service. Since the spring of 1942, when National Selective Service was introduced in Canada, one of the main functions of the Commission has been the administration of the National Selective Civil Service Regulations, which has called for the opening of a number of additional offices and an increase in the staff.

The second annual report [1] of the Canadian Unemployment Insurance Commission shows that there were 3,067,169 registered insured persons on March 31, 1943, and the number of registered employers was 168,337. However, since many persons who were registered as insured between July 1, 1941, and March 31, 1943, may have left

[1] Second report of the (Canadian) Unemployment Insurance Commission for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1943 (Ottawa, 1944).

insurable employment, the number given is in excess of the number of insured workers at any given date.

The only important changes in coverage during the year related to life insurance agents and workers in mines and in shipbuilding. In the case of life insurance agents, some had been considered to be employed under a contract of service and were therefore insurable, while in other cases the employer-employee relationship did not exist. To remove this anomaly all life insurance agents were excepted from the provisions of the law, as of November 21, 1942. It had been found extremely difficult to estimate annual earnings of miners, owing to different methods of payment, with the result that some miners had been ruled insurable and others not. A regulation effective in February 1943 provided, therefore, for the inclusion within the insurable classes of all persons employed in a mine unless they are employed on a fixed-salary basis exceeding $2,000 a year. An order in council of January 7, 1942, had provided that contributions were to be required for employees whose remuneration exceeded $2,000 a year if the Commission considered it to be above that amount as a result of the existing state of war. This order was applied to all employees in the shipbuilding industry whose wartime earnings exceeded $2,000 a year (whereas prior to the war they were $2,000 or less), by ruling of the Commission, effective April 1, 1943.

For the year ending March 31, 1943, contributions to the Unemployment Insurance Fund by employers and employees amounted to $57,435,305. The contributions are made according to a graded scale, but for the country as a whole, employers and employees contribute approximately equal amounts. There were 26,713 claims for benefit that were allowed during the year, for which the total amount of benefit paid was $716,058. The total assets of the fund as of March 31, 1943, amounted to $114,011,083.

British Unemployment Insurance Fund in 1943

RECEIPTS of £79,391,172 were reported by the British Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee for 1943,[1] as against expenditures of only £5,575,530. Of this latter amount £2,795,000 was expended for unemployment benefits—more than a million pounds less than in 1942. Although there can be no doubt as to the full mobilization of the nation's energies for war in 1943, the report stated, the fact that more than 2¾ million pounds were spent in unemployment benefits shows that, even in a community working at full capacity as the British community worked during the year, there are intervals of idleness resulting from changes of program and method and other inevitable causes.

Under the Unemployment Insurance (Emergency Powers) (Amendment) Regulations, 1943, no changes in the contributions and benefits of the Unemployment Insurance Scheme may be made except by legislation. The powers given to the Committee and the Minister of Labor and National Service, subject to consultation with the Treasury and the approval of Parliament, to bring about changes in

[1] Eleventh Report on the Financial Condition of the Unemployment Fund (General Account), and Eighth Report of the Financial Condition of the Unemployment Fund (Agricultural Account), as of December 31, 1943. London, Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee, 1944.

the contributions and benefits by a special procedure not involving legislation, were suspended for the war period by the 1943 regulations cited above. As a consequence no recommendations were made by the Committee, and the report was confined to the financial condition of the Fund.

The accompanying table shows the approximate receipts and payments of the general and agricultural accounts for the years 1942 and 1943. The statement includes figures taken from accounting and other records which had not yet been subjected to examination and audit.

Receipts and Expenditures of British Unemployment Insurance Fund, Years Ending December 31, 1942 and 1943

Item	General account		Agricultural account	
	1942	1943	1942	1943
Total receipts	£79,027,670	£77,782,284	£1,597,654	£1,608,888
Contributions from—				
Employers and workers	51,298,675	49,023,428	987,101	960,249
Exchequer	25,648,702	24,510,952	493,534	480,113
Interest on investments	2,077,429	[1] 4,246,073	116,942	[1] 168,460
Miscellaneous sources	2,864	1,831	77	66
Total expenditures	6,567,876	5,306,435	354,138	269,095
Unemployment benefit	3,708,000	2,709,000	166,000	86,000
Refunds on contributions for noninsurable employment	1,271	1,524	33	23
Grants toward authorized courses of instruction	267,000	241,000	3,000	3,000
Grants toward traveling expenses of insured persons seeking employment	14,970	14,970	30	30
Administrative expenses	2,576,635	2,339,941	185,075	180,042
Excess of receipts over payments	72,459,794	72,475,849	1,243,516	1,339,793
Balance on December 31	152,265,545	224,741,394	6,137,968	7,477,761

[1] No allowance has been made for interest accrued but not received on December 31, 1943.

General account.—The amount paid in to the general account during 1943 amounted to £77,782,284, of which all but £4,247,904 represented contributions by employers, employed persons, and the State. There was a total expenditure of £5,306,435, of which £2,709,000 was expended for unemployment benefit and £2,597,435 for administration and other expenses. The excess of income over expenditure, therefore, was £72,475,849. The balance on December 31, 1942, was £152,265,545, so that the net balance at the end of 1943 was £224,741,394. As compared with 1942, contributions by employers and employed persons showed a decrease of £2,275,247. This figure was affected by the withdrawal of men and women into the armed forces and the substitution of uninsured part-time workers for insured full-time workers (which tended to decrease) and the decline of unemployment and the influx of new insured entrants into industry (which tended to show an increase). No contributions were received from the Defense Departments as payments for men discharged from the armed forces have been suspended since the outbreak of war, until an assessment can be made. A decrease amounting to £1,137,750, occurred in the Exchequer contribution, which was proportionate to the net contributions from other sources.

Expenditure for unemployment benefit in 1943 was £999,000 less than in 1942, and there was a decrease of £236,694 in the cost of administration, resulting largely from the reduction in unemployment.

Agricultural account.—The agricultural account receipts in 1943 amounted to £1,608,888, of which all but £168,526 represented insurance contributions by employers, employed persons, and the State. The expenditure of £269,095 included £86,000 for unemployment benefit and £183,095 for administrative and minor items.

Contributions from employers and workers showed a decrease of £26,852. The reason for this decrease, it is believed, may have been the relative increase in voluntary workers and similar uninsurable classes. The expenditure on benefits fell by £80,000, largely as a result of the lower rate of unemployment in 1943. The charge for administration, which is fixed at one-eighth of the net income from contributions, automatically decreased by about £5,000 as a result of the lower income from contributions.

Cooperation

Operations of Consumers' Cooperatives in 1943 [1]

A GENERAL advance in both membership and volume of business by cooperative associations providing consumer goods and services was noted in 1943. In that year retail distributive business done by these associations reached an estimated total of 468 million dollars, and service business (meals, housing, medical care, burial, etc.) accounted for about 12¼ million dollars—altogether over 480 million dollars. The wholesale associations supplying these local organizations had a combined wholesale distributive business of over 148¼ million dollars, in addition to a service business exceeding 3¼ million dollars. Net savings on the wholesales' operations for the year exceeded 8½ million dollars, of which over 6 million was returned to member associations in patronage refunds. Service federations had a combined business of nearly 2 million dollars.

The central business federations manufactured goods valued at over 31 million dollars, all but 5 million of which was produced by the wholesales.

Increased production and acquisition of productive plant by the federations and diversification of activities by the local associations may be said to have been the outstanding developments in the consumers' cooperative movement in the United States in 1943.

Nearly all types of associations showed an increase in number as well as business progress in 1943 compared with 1942. Exceptions were housing associations, which are practically at a standstill because of wartime restrictions, associations providing rooms and meals, which have declined somewhat because of the closing of many rooming and eating clubs of male students at universities, and credit unions, whose membership and business have fallen off as a result of a combination of wartime factors.

Table 1 summarizes the status of local associations and federations as of the end of 1943.

[1] Detailed statistics on the activities of consumers' cooperatives will appear in Bulletin No. 796.

TABLE 1.—*Membership and Business of Local Cooperatives and Central Federations in 1943*

LOCAL ASSOCIATIONS

Type of association	Total number of associations (estimated)	Number of members (estimated)	Amount of business (estimated)
Retail distributive associations	4,225	1,355,000	$468,000,000
Stores and buying clubs	2,700	600,000	235,000,000
Petroleum associations	1,475	735,000	225,000,000
Other distributive	50	20,000	8,000,000
Distributive departments of farmers' marketing associations [1]	550	200,000	180,000,000
Service associations	594	386,300	12,270,000
Rooms and/or meals	200	20,000	2,775,000
Housing	59	2,100	[2] 1,575,000
Medical and/or hospital care:			
On contract	75	200,000	4,000,000
Own facilities	18	25,000	1,750,000
Burial: [3]			
Own facilities	40	30,000	300,000
Caskets only	3	1,300	5,000
Cold storage	80	26,000	950,000
Water	33	2,000	200,000
Printing and publishing	16	75,000	475,000
Recreation	25	3,500	65,000
Miscellaneous	45	1,400	175,000
Electricity associations [4]	850	1,210,000	35,000,000
Telephone associations [5]	5,000	330,000	[2] 5,485,000
Credit unions	10,460	3,041,000	211,492,000
Insurance associations	2,000	10,000,000	185,000,000

DISTRIBUTIVE, SERVICE, AND PRODUCTIVE FEDERATIONS [6]

Type of federation	Number of federations	Member associations	Amount of business			Value of own production	Net earnings from all departments	Patronage refunds from all departments
			Wholesale distributive	Service	Retail			
Wholesales:								
Interregional	2	24	[7] $5,182,943			[7] $2,149,002	[7] $131,750	[7] $114,826
Regional	23	3,377	140,293,798	$3,191,796	$16,610,613	23,395,842	8,317,010	6,044,657
District	11	165	2,808,696	105,888		555,283	112,229	89,769
Service federations	14	1,114		1,865,376			54,954	8,911
Productive federations	9	[8] 15				5,004,128	166,115	114,437

[1] Figures not estimates but actual aggregates for the 550 associations for which data were available.
[2] Gross income.
[3] Local associations only; burial organizations composed of local associations, are included under "service federations."
[4] Data are for 1942; no data on which to base later estimate.
[5] Data are for 1936; no data on which to base later estimate.
[6] Data relate to reporting associations only.
[7] One organization only.
[8] Five federations only.

Activities of Credit Unions in 1943 [1]

THE 9,000 active credit unions in the United States made more than 1½ million loans to their 3 million members in 1943, amounting to considerably over 211 million dollars. On this business, earnings were made exceeding 6½ million dollars, from which dividends on share capital amounted to $5,337,845. Total assets of these cooperative credit associations amounted to nearly 362 million dollars.

[1] A more detailed report will appear in Bulletin No. 797.

As a result of a combination of wartime factors (increased earnings of workers, lessened need for credit, control of installment buying, dearth of certain high-cost consumer goods, etc.) this branch of the cooperative movement has been showing a downward trend since 1941, after a hitherto unbroken rise.

As compared with 1942, all of the above totals except assets showed a decrease. The membership fell 3.3 percent, business (loans granted) 16.2 percent, and earnings 37.6 percent. On the other hand, share capital increased 6.6 percent and total assets 6.3 percent.

Considering credit unions of all types combined, at the end of 1943 6 States (Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin) had over 500 active associations each; in only Illinois, however, did the credit-union membership exceed 300,000. Illinois and New York were the leading States as regards loans made during the year.

Contrary to the general trend, substantial increases in membership were shown in nine States (Alabama, Georgia, Hawaii, Indiana, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and South Carolina), and in loans made in 6 States (Alabama, Hawaii, Kansas, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and Vermont).

The data on which the above findings are based were furnished to the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the State-chartered associations in most cases by the State officials—usually the Superintendent of Banks—charged with the supervision of these associations. For Alabama and South Carolina the data were supplied by the State Credit Union League. No report was received for Mississippi; for this State estimates were made, based upon the trend in other States and in this State in previous years. The same was done also for certain items concerning which some States do not require reports. All of the data for the Federal associations were furnished by the Credit Union Division of the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.

The data shown for individual States include both the Federal and State credit unions, except in Delaware, Hawaii, Nevada, New Mexico, South Dakota, and Wyoming, which have no State credit union act. In Connecticut where credit union legislation was passed in 1939, no associations had been chartered by the State at the end of 1943. For all of these States the figures therefore cover Federal credit unions only.

Operations in 1942 and 1943

The membership and business operations of credit unions are shown, by States, for 1942 and 1943, in the accompanying table. Data are for the calendar year in all States except for the State-chartered associations in Arizona, Kentucky, New Hampshire, and Vermont where they are for years ending June 30, and Georgia where they are for the years ending November 30.

In Nebraska, only part of the "cooperative credit associations" formed under the 1929 law were operating in well-defined groups of persons having a common bond of interest (the usual requirement for issuance of a credit union charter). The others were rural organizations, each operating throughout an entire community—usually one which was without banking facilities—and had become in actuality commercial banks. A credit union law became effective August 29,

1943. By the end of the year, 32 of the former cooperative credit associations of the credit-union type had applied for and been granted charters under the new law. The data shown in the table, however, cover both types of credit associations.

Operations of Credit Unions in 1942 and 1943, by States

State and type of charter	Year	Number of associations [1]		Number of members	Number of loans made during year	Amount of loans—	
		Chartered	Reporting			Made during year	Outstanding, end of year
All States	1943	10,460	9,084	3,041,136	1,658,432	$211,491,670	$123,507,413
	[2] 1942	10,602	9,470	3,144,603	1,945,413	250,000,284	148,771,572
State associations	1943	5,372	5,225	1,738,773	970,290	134,226,288	88,279,260
	[2] 1942	5,622	5,400	1,797,084	1,129,902	158,463,317	105,884,822
Federal associations	1943	5,088	3,859	1,302,363	688,142	77,265,382	35,228,153
	1942	4,980	4,070	1,347,519	815,511	91,536,967	42,886,750
Alabama	1943	83	77	25,967	[3] 20,425	2,681,446	1,251,656
	1942	95	87	23,658	21,864	2,575,065	1,272,249
Arizona	1943	26	24	[3] 3,504	[3] 1,454	[3] 200,728	112,421
	1942	25	22	[3] 3,802	[3] 2,608	[3] 348,878	180,107
Arkansas	1943	35	28	3,282	2,034	197,956	103,315
	1942	37	29	3,682	3,869	254,407	132,043
California	1943	523	453	191,773	[3] 97,665	[3] 13,044,088	7,818,505
	1942	508	457	199,172	[3] 130,237	[3] 18,037,253	10,233,838
Colorado	1943	119	102	23,852	[3] 13,385	[3] 1,939,659	933,037
	1942	118	109	24,879	[3] 17,056	[3] 2,571,389	1,120,222
Connecticut [4]	1943	215	170	92,775	47,812	5,760,962	2,198,752
	[3] 1942	214	179	96,931	46,729	5,884,490	2,472,209
Delaware [4]	1943	13	10	2,291	1,252	143,923	62,775
	[3] 1942	13	11	2,811	1,889	176,638	89,739
District of Columbia	1943	130	104	67,148	[3] 36,200	3,861,540	2,166,807
	1942	129	109	70,803	[3] 43,507	4,740,720	2,880,680
Florida	1943	192	163	34,431	23,687	2,960,969	1,559,768
	1942	204	171	36,066	25,875	3,012,198	1,732,640
Georgia	1943	155	140	34,164	[3] 25,108	[3] 2,620,957	1,800,283
	1942	146	112	30,939	25,102	2,779,071	1,622,294
Hawaii [4]	1943	102	94	38,291	14,393	2,419,304	1,295,258
	1942	100	93	37,499	13,670	2,359,964	1,513,557
Idaho	1943	44	34	4,199	1,655	210,154	98,672
	[3] 1942	46	34	4,324	2,103	259,110	133,085
Illinois	1943	811	782	334,346	[3] 223,257	24,978,297	13,209,074
	1942	849	836	349,936	[3] 231,730	27,765,716	17,038,979
Indiana	1943	343	302	[3] 107,736	[3] 63,814	[3] 6,111,586	3,234,452
	1942	337	299	[3] 101,673	[3] 64,453	[3] 8,531,891	3,423,880
Iowa	1943	240	212	41,690	22,112	2,626,549	2,005,400
	1942	243	214	44,037	[3] 25,465	3,173,641	2,498,219
Kansas	1943	133	121	38,162	[3] 21,665	2,291,252	1,092,536
	1942	145	133	28,889	[3] 18,003	2,134,745	1,319,197
Kentucky	1943	117	112	[3] 27,498	[3] 16,524	[3] 2,247,978	1,405,106
	1942	125	115	[3] 27,461	[3] 18,455	[3] 3,379,342	2,201,233
Louisiana	1943	175	134	[3] 31,603	[3] 18,220	[3] 1,936,933	952,416
	1942	166	138	[3] 32,922	[3] 30,381	[3] 3,130,165	1,196,904
Maine	1943	54	39	9,726	4,061	434,584	261,046
	1942	54	44	9,817	5,267	558,045	356,755
Maryland	1943	75	67	27,984	[3] 15,924	[3] 1,343,063	804,408
	1942	76	68	29,353	[3] 18,758	[3] 1,894,590	945,858
Massachusetts	1943	563	532	256,302	[3] 120,978	22,168,017	15,211,316
	1942	568	544	255,836	[3] 158,057	24,629,075	16,132,974
Michigan	1943	278	243	106,136	49,636	7,722,250	5,497,141
	1942	282	249	101,136	[3] 59,415	[3] 10,564,345	6,155,480
Minnesota	1943	381	343	68,487	[3] 41,535	[3] 3,625,376	5,420,834
	1942	394	362	73,092	46,308	4,876,474	6,273,488
Mississippi [5]	[3] 1943	30	26	11,450	5,700	651,057	404,542
	[2] 1942	28	24	11,021	5,402	719,131	263,064
Missouri	1943	391	381	96,623	[3] 50,342	[3] 5,740,274	3,520,332
	1942	395	382	98,343	[3] 64,492	[3] 6,686,808	[3] 4,810,631
Montana	[3] 1943	45	37	5,868	2,176	277,280	142,740
	1942	45	39	5,862	[3] 2,581	[3] 269,673	155,209
Nebraska	1943	206	192	34,122	19,234	3,871,903	1,560,038
	1942	212	208	35,803	26,296	3,885,935	1,834,326
Nevada [4]	1943	6	4	635	137	17,644	7,242
	1942	6	5	675	185	21,687	12,299
New Hampshire	1943	16	15	5,948	[3] 3,135	[3] 656,434	606,649
	1942	17	17	5,923	[3] 3,470	[3] 908,052	662,337

See footnotes at end of table.

Operations of Credit Unions in 1942 and 1943, by States—Continued

State and type of charter	Year	Number of associations [1]		Number of members	Number of loans made during year	Amount of loans—	
		Chartered	Reporting			Made during year	Outstanding, end of year
New Jersey	1943	282	232	104,500	62,353	$6,417,190	$2,666,516
	1942	280	245	113,361	79,370	6,905,554	3,267,671
New Mexico [4]	1943	19	15	1,476	542	54,043	28,538
	1942	19	14	1,485	798	88,636	45,751
New York	1943	933	737	286,851	[3] 153,746	[3] 25,246,435	14,056,090
	1942	928	799	300,050	[3] 193,080	[3] 31,538,905	17,196,206
North Carolina	1943	188	154	28,581	19,950	2,231,635	1,215,305
	1942	187	173	32,232	[3] 27,763	[3] 2,695,972	1,556,658
North Dakota [5]	1943	105	92	10,331	5,643	580,284	363,609
	1942	114	65	8,602	[3] 5,178	[3] 458,744	239,481
Ohio	1943	680	597	216,627	103,264	13,258,049	6,665,583
	1942	718	642	224,545	114,374	13,902,793	7,850,789
Oklahoma	1943	89	75	[3] 18,873	[3] 8,764	[3] 1,174,373	677,717
	1942	87	77	19,447	11,720	1,397,850	744,911
Oregon	1943	92	77	14,025	5,850	879,082	569,731
	1942	92	81	16,382	9,210	1,096,449	772,255
Pennsylvania	1943	702	573	219,647	113,012	13,120,655	6,667,170
	1942	694	598	241,814	134,965	15,435,936	8,164,499
Rhode Island	1943	40	33	24,553	7,232	1,574,520	3,331,938
	1942	40	34	23,814	7,980	1,486,372	3,343,196
South Carolina	1943	62	32	8,168	[3] 5,547	[3] 448,872	[3] 199,940
	1942	61	36	7,825	[3] 9,624	[3] 623,099	[3] 293,487
South Dakota [4]	1943	37	32	5,165	3,050	296,487	126,812
	1942	37	32	5,191	3,655	378,327	176,704
Tennessee	1943	165	126	35,216	[3] 30,037	[3] 3,579,940	1,413,518
	1942	160	132	39,065	[3] 31,778	[3] 4,135,787	1,680,836
Texas	1943	447	352	80,773	[3] 50,934	[3] 5,805,904	3,314,809
	1942	456	391	89,496	[3] 64,545	[3] 7,282,265	4,307,161
Utah	1943	73	67	11,327	[3] 5,566	[3] 763,993	515,792
	1942	72	66	12,007	[3] 6,862	[3] 906,272	593,058
Vermont	1943	11	9	1,390	[3] 1,117	[3] 75,456	24,971
	1942	10	8	1,108	[3] 1,059	[3] 60,483	22,180
Virginia	1943	126	86	26,243	17,201	1,862,480	1,020,981
	1942	127	97	28,854	19,241	2,061,500	1,081,232
Washington	1943	229	200	39,852	17,276	2,328,995	1,298,075
	1942	248	220	44,614	22,585	2,765,767	1,870,228
West Virginia	1943	82	64	16,269	[3] 8,639	[3] 806,435	[3] 485,553
	1942	75	56	17,151	11,808	1,060,274	605,213
Wisconsin	1943	572	571	162,615	[3] 74,023	8,081,679	4,050,187
	1942	597	596	168,614	[3] 75,034	9,428,179	6,221,555
Wyoming [4]	1943	25	19	2,661	1,166	162,000	78,057
	1942	22	18	2,601	1,557	162,622	75,005

[1] Most of the difference between the total number of associations and the number reporting is accounted for by associations chartered but not in operation by the end of the year and associations in liquidation which had not relinquished their charters.
[2] Revised.
[3] Partly estimated.
[4] Federal associations only; no State-chartered associations in this State.
[5] Preliminary; subject to revision.

Labor Organizations

International Typographical Union Convention, 1944 [1]

THE decisive expression of the will of the rank and file in three referendums held in the spring of 1944 and the measures approved by the delegates giving the executive council emergency powers to cope with any situation that may arise in the post-war period marked the eighty-seventh convention of the International Typographical Union, held in Grand Rapids, Mich., August 19–25, as one of its most significant annual meetings. In the first referendum vote, the membership of the I. T. U. authorized the executive council to call a convention in 1944, thus reversing a previous decision not to hold conventions while the war emergency lasted. The second referendum approved the reaffiliation of the I. T. U. with the American Federation of Labor, reversing several previous decisions to remain independent. The terms of reaffiliation had been agreed upon between the executive council of the A. F. of L. and the officers of the I. T. U. in 1940, and were approved by the 1943 convention of the A. F. of L. The official reaffiliation took place in August 1944, when the International Typographical Union resumed per capita tax payments to the A. F. of L., making it possible for delegates from the Typographical Union to attend the convention of the A. F. of L. in November 1944.

The third referendum vote elected all the major officers of the I. T. U. from a single slate presented by the "progressive party" of the union. This action broke an executive council deadlock that has existed since 1938 because the principal officers belonged to different "political parties" and could not work harmoniously together.[2]

This year all the officers were elected from the progressive slate. Woodruff Randolph, former secretary-treasurer of the I. T. U. was elected president; Jack Gill, of Cleveland, secretary-treasurer; Larry Taylor, of Dallas, Tex., first vice president; and Elmer Brown, of New York, as second vice president. As in previous years, the third vice president, Thomas J. Martin, was elected by the mailers exclusively. The majority of the delegates to the convention were also members of the progressive party of the I. T. U.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Information Service by Boris Stern.

[2] The I. T. U. is probably the only labor organization which officially recognizes the existence of two "political parties" within its fold as an effective method for maintaining democratic procedure within the union. The two parties—the progressives and the independents—have had about equal followings in the membership of the I. T. U. and have competed strongly in the biennial elections of the I. T. U. major officers. Each party has a national committee with branches in most of the local unions and most of the chapels of the I. T. U. Each party generally prepares a complete slate of officers, and campaigns vigorously for their election by means of meetings, forums, caucuses, and the distribution of appropriate literature and other propaganda. This arouses the interest of the membership in the affairs of the union and accounts for the large percentage of members participating in the elections. (For more information on the growth and development of the two parties in the I. T. U., see article, Opposition to Union Officers in Elections, by Philip Taft, in Quarterly Journal of Economics, February 1944, p. 246.)

Principal I. T. U. Problems

As the major political and controversial problems had been decided by the membership prior to the convention, the delegates and the executive council were free to devote their entire time and energy to the regular business of the union—wages, hours, and working conditions, and preparations for emergencies that may arise when the country is in the process of reconverting from war to peacetime economy. The keynote to deliberations was set by the executive council in a special report which highlighted the problems confronting the union:

> We are approaching a period of readjustment and change which will call for our utmost effort and unity in the solution of the very difficult problems confronting us. This convention has the opportunity of legislating for our post-war period * * *. Some legislation presented before this convention is revolutionary in character and is frankly so described in order that there may be no mistake as to the purpose behind it. It is desired that such legislation be submitted to referendum vote of the membership of the I. T. U., even though the legislation might be adopted by the convention without that procedure. It is desired that the members be fully aware of the purposes of the legislation so that if it is adopted its enforcement will be the will of the membership.

Practically all the recommendations in line with the program of action outlined by the council were adopted, though in some cases not without extensive deliberation. Some had to be decided by a division vote requested by the opposition.

By far the most significant action was the adoption of what the executive council referred to as the "revolutionary" plan to fortify the I. T. U. against any drive to reduce wages and destroy working conditions. This action took the form of a change in the union by-laws, giving the executive council emergency powers to call a strike and to use all available funds if deemed necessary to maintain the integrity of the union. The clause adopted reads as follows:

> Recognizing the probable necessity of emergency action to protect the interests of subordinate unions and the international union during the war and post-war periods of economic instability, the executive council of the I. T. U. is authorized * * * to approve or order strikes or recognize lockouts if in its judgment it deems it necessary.
>
> In exercising the above power, the application of provisions of section 12, article IX, of the constitution [which says: "The executive council shall have the power and authority to transfer money of this union from one fund to another whenever deemed necessary to maintain the integrity of this organization] shall be deemed proper for the purpose of paying strike benefits.
>
> The above emergency powers shall stand repealed upon the declaration by the executive council or a convention that they are no longer necessary.

Although the convention adopted this amendment by a vote of 144 to 88, it will not go into effect until after it has been voted upon by the membership in a referendum on a date to be selected by the executive council. It is characteristic of the democratic procedure of this organization that the executive council and its supporters favoring the change and the delegates who opposed it were in complete agreement as to the desirability of submitting it for final decision by the membership.

Effect of the War

To make it possible for the delegates to act intelligently on matters of collective bargaining, wages, and working conditions in the printing industry, the executive council prepared and the convention endorsed

a detailed statement describing the conditions under which the members of the Typographical Union are employed now as a result of war conditions, particularly emphasizing the injurious effects of the wage stabilization program on the real income of the membership. Parts of the statement follow:

> The International Typographical Union has a membership of approximately 82,000, 10,000 of whom are in the armed forces, and 6,711 on the union's old-age pension roll as of July 20, 1944. It has 848 subordinate unions in the United States and Canada. The membership in these local organizations ranges from 8 members in small towns to more than 9,500 in larger cities. * * *
>
> Members of the union, for the most part, have had to struggle along with the proceeds of weekly pay checks derived from a minimum number of hours at the 1941 straight-time hourly rate, plus meager increases permitted by the War Labor Board.
>
> Additional earnings derived from overtime have been insignificant. This is due to a number of factors peculiar to the printing industry.
>
> First, there were a considerable number of unemployed craftsmen in the printing trade during the years preceding the war. The records show that 13.74 percent of the members were unemployed in 1941, 12.52 percent in 1942, and 11.03 percent in 1943.
>
> Second, the union exercises rigid control of overtime. Members who work in excess of the minimum number of hours are required to give such excess time to the first available unemployed member. Thus, so long as there are any number of unemployed members the member who occasionally works overtime, because of rush orders or temporary shortage of help, lays off a number of hours equivalent to the number of overtime hours worked, bringing his total earnings back near the minimum weekly rate.
>
> Third, the acute shortage of paper and other material, equipment, etc., has greatly reduced the demand for printers during the last 2 years. * * *
>
> The printer's economic position under the Government's "hold-the-line" program is pictured in the following table:

Year	*Average full-time wage rate*	*Indicated actual average earnings (including overtime, if any)*	*Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index*	*Real wages if working full time*
1939	$46. 71	$38. 59	99. 4	$46. 99
1940	47. 13	39. 60	100. 2	47. 03
1941 (Jan. 1)	47. 52	------	100. 8	47. 14
1941 (full year)	47. 52	40. 99	105. 2	45. 17
1942	48. 58	42. 50	116. 5	41. 69
1943	49. 96	44. 95	123. 5	40. 45
1944 (June)	51. 99	51. 13	125. 4	41. 45
1944	51. 99	51. 13	(1)	(1)

[1] Based upon an index of 145.0 (arrived at in labor's so-called Meany-Thomas report), the "real wages" in 1944 amounted to $35.85 per week. (Ed.)

In 1938–39–40, the average printer, provided he was the head of a household with one or more dependents, paid no income tax. His 1941 income tax was negligible. In 1943–44, his $35.85 real wage is further reduced by a withholding tax of from $3 to $5 per week—after which he may go out and indulge in an orgy of spending.

In conclusion, the executive council's statement requested (1) that the War Labor Board "revert to the principle it established when it announced that a 15-percent increase in the cost of living warranted a 15-percent increase in wages," and (2) that it "recognize as approved any wage scale up to the increase in the cost of living and in cases of employers not directly charging wages against war materials that increases negotiated up to 50 percent stand as approved."

In response to the request of the executive council for action on a program of collective bargaining to meet post-war contingencies, the convention approved a series of amendments to the laws of the organi-

zation, most of which dealt with recommendations to the locals and chapels on what to incorporate into their future or revised agreements with employers. The most significant of these changes were as follows:

1. Subordinate unions shall incorporate in proposed contracts a clause providing for holidays with pay; annual vacations with pay; severance pay of not less than 2 weeks for all members affected by suspensions or mergers; and pay allowances for sickness.
2. Six months after the cessation of hostilities, no contracts shall be approved for negotiation by the International which does not provide for a maximum workweek of 5 days, the shifts of which shall not exceed 7½ hours each; the I. T. U. shall not approve for negotiation any contract that does not contain a provision for a minimum vacation allowance of 2 weeks with pay.
3. At the conclusion or amelioration of governmental restrictions on wage rates, all local unions are urged to seek to negotiate by supplementary agreement, or otherwise, wage scales more representative of the higher cost of living and progressive living standards. * * *
4. Subordinate unions shall provide in proposed contracts that night work shall be paid for at not less than 10 percent over the day scale.
5. When any arbitration procedure to which a local union is committed reaches a deadlock where further action cannot result in a conclusion within a reasonable time, the local union may request the executive council to release it from further obligations under such arbitration procedure or agreement. The executive council shall have authority to decide that issue and may so release a local union.

I. T. U. Difficulties with Mailers

The International Typographical Union, mother of all printing trades unions, had at one time complete and sole jurisdiction over the entire printing industry. Gradually, however, as the industry grew and technological developments made it possible to draw a clear distinction among the separate crafts in the industry, the I. T. U. relinquished part of its jurisdiction to newly established international unions covering the separate crafts concerned. In 1895 the printing pressmen and the bookbinders were authorized to establish their own international organizations, independent of the I. T. U. The International Stereotypers' and Electrotypers' Union was similarly established in 1901, and the International Photo-Engravers' Union in 1903.

For some time past, the I. T. U. has been in difficulties with another craft within its organization, that of the mailers. The difficulty dates back to 1926 when by a court injunction the representatives of the mailers' group compelled the I. T. U. to refrain from submitting to a referendum vote a resolution intended to cancel the rights of the mailers to participate in the general election of the officers of the I. T. U., but to give them the right to select a president of their own who would automatically also become a vice president of the International Typographical Union. The same injunction made it mandatory upon the I. T. U. to retain article XIII of its constitution, which refers to the formation of trade district unions by any craft within the union and gives in detail the specific rights and prerogatives of such district unions.

In 1937 the I. T. U. held a referendum vote on whether mailers should be permitted to form an independent international union. The majority of the membership voted against the proposal.

In 1943 delegates from a substantial number of mailers' trade district unions met in Cincinnati and formed the International Mailers Union. Such was the growth of this union that in a number of cities

it became able to compete with the I. T. U. for designation as collective-bargaining representative of the mailers. In some cases the new union won the collective-bargaining right from the I. T. U.

In reporting to the convention on the problem of mailers, the executive council emphasized that it regarded the new International Mailers Union as a dual union, which is strictly forbidden by the laws of the I. T. U. The president particularly objected to the claims of the International Mailers Union that its members, while working at the mailing trade as members of the new organization, should also be allowed to continue as members of the I. T. U. for the purpose of protecting their pension and mortuary rights in that union. The executive council recommended to the convention the enactment of legislation which would give the seceding mailer members an opportunity to rejoin the I. T. U., without prejudice, prior to January 1, 1945, but at the same time also give the executive council the right to expel without trial any members of the Typographical Union who continued to belong to the International Mailers Union after the deadline of January 1, 1945, and to dissolve or revoke the charter of any subordinate I. T. U. body or take charge of its affairs when necessary to protect the I. T. U. jurisdiction.

Two other amendments to the bylaws were adopted by the delegates intended to combat dual unionism in general and the recent development among the mailers in particular. Regarding dual unionism, the following was adopted:

> Where two or more subordinate unions of the I. T. U. are represented in a local Allied Printing Trades Council, either local may call upon the executive council to decide questions of jurisdiction or international policy.
>
> Where dual unionism is involved, the executive council may name the delegates of the local union to the local Allied Printing Trades Council or the executive council may bar delegates from a local union from participation in meetings and decisions of such local councils.

On the question of traveling cards for the mailers, the amendment reads:

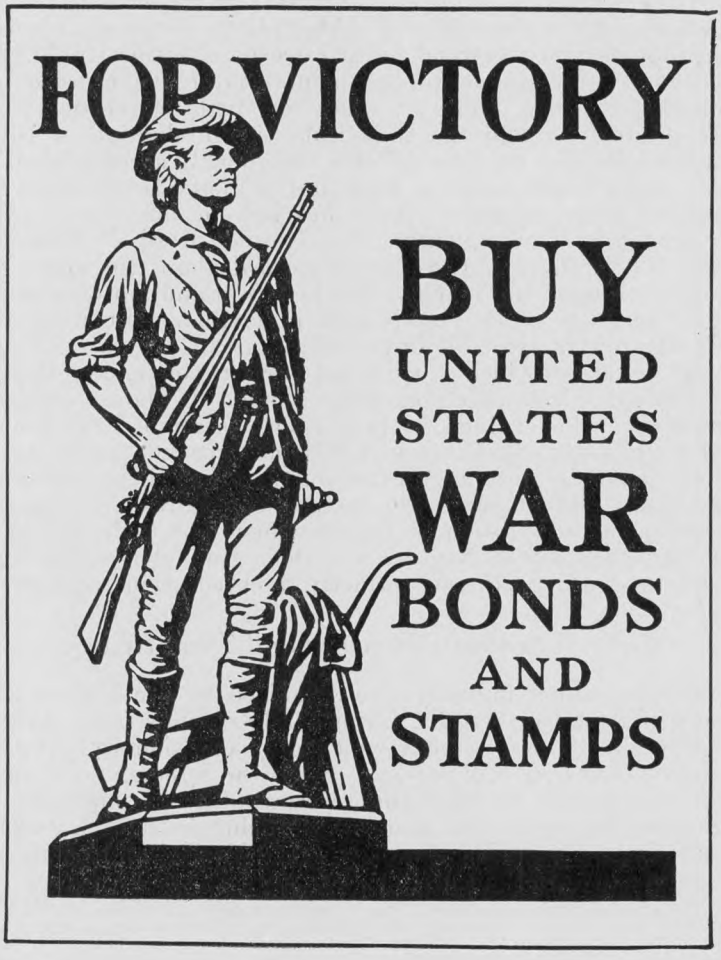
> Travel cards from the Mailers Trade District Union may not be accepted by the I. T. U., mailer, or printer unions, without consent of the executive council.

With the permanent injunction of the mailers still pending against the Typographical Union, some of the delegates, including the third vice president (who is elected by the mailers exclusively), questioned whether the convention had the right to adopt such drastic steps against the mailers and against the International Mailers Union. It was intimated, and indirectly also admitted by President Randolph, that additional litigations before the courts will be necessary before the case of mailer membership in the I. T. U. is finally settled.

General Resolutions

Most of the more than 170 propositions submitted to the delegates dealt either with collective bargaining or with the problem of the pension and mortuary funds. Among the exceptions was a resolution calling for the peace committee of the A. F. of L. and the C. I. O. to begin immediate conferences for the purpose of uniting the two great labor organizations. Another resolution instructed the executive council to explore the possibilities of creating a daily newspaper, to be owned and operated exclusively by subscribing international

labor organizations. Two other resolutions instructed the officers of the I. T. U. (1) to seek legislation to amend the Social Security Act by extending the Federal old-age and survivors insurance benefits to employees of religious, educational, and charitable organizations not now covered by the act, and (2) to amend the unemployment-insurance laws in every State to include the employees of all such institutions as are now exempt from the law.



Industrial Relations

Seniority in the Akron Rubber Industry[1]

Summary

THE war has both increased the demand for rubber products and decreased the supply of crude rubber. It was expected early in the war period that the conversion of rubber plants to the manufacture of other products and the trend toward decentralization would lead to the closing of the Akron rubber plants and to widespread unemployment. Actually, however, there was little conversion to nonrubber production, and the shift from the production of tires for civilians to tires for the armed forces was quickly accomplished without any major adjustments in machines or methods. Instead of the anticipated unemployment, Akron has become an area of extreme labor shortage. Consequently, the United Rubber Workers of America (C. I. O.) is not greatly concerned about the effect of decentralization upon full employment in Akron and anticipates that a post-war increase in the production of civilian rubber goods will absorb all workers available in the Akron area.

Unlike industries which experienced wartime conversion, the Akron rubber industry has undergone little change in plant organization, and seniority rules evolved for peacetime operations have been continued with slight modification. The adjustments made to meet wartime demands were the introduction of synthetic rubber; the change to the 48-hour week; the increased proportion of women and the consequent adaptation of the machinery for their use; and the increased proportion of Negroes and their gradual assimilation into occupations and departments formerly reserved exclusively for white workers.

General Seniority Practices and Their History

Before the rubber industry was organized by the United Rubber Workers of America, lay-offs, hiring, and transfers were entirely at the discretion of management which only occasionally gave major consideration to length of service. Since the foreman's judgment of "merit" was usually decisive, there were continual complaints of unfairness and discrimination, and even the charge that "lay-offs were used as a form of intimidation; men were laid off to make an example

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Philomena Marquardt and Sophia F. McDowell. For a similar study on Seniority in the Automobile Industry, see Monthly Labor Review, September 1944 (p. 463). In the present study, officials of the Akron rubber companies and international and local officers of the United Rubber Workers Union (C. I. O.), as well as representatives of the War Manpower Commission and the U. S. Employment Service, were interviewed. All the plants of the following companies situated in either Akron or Barberton, Ohio, were included in the survey: Firestone Tire & Rubber Co., General Tire & Rubber Co., B. F. Goodrich Co., Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co., Seiberling Rubber Co., and Sun Rubber Co. All the locals referred to are affiliates of the United Rubber Workers of America.

of them if they protested against working conditions." Accordingly, the demand for seniority rules was one of the organizing issues of the U.R.W.A., and with the signing of union agreements between 1937 and 1940, seniority became the governing factor in lay-offs, rehiring, and transfers.

In general, management has conceded to labor the prerogative of defining seniority, and management and labor representatives seem to agree that under present conditions "seniority is a good thing." "If a man didn't have anything on the job he could call his own, the labor turnover would be too great," one management representative observed. "The theory of seniority is not 100 percent perfect," one international union representative admitted, "but it is better than any other theory that has been advanced. Someone's judgment as to merit is certainly not as fair." However, both management and labor state that seniority rules may be responsible for the accumulation of a lot of "dead timber." Said one union representative, "Too many times the worker gives more consideration to job security than to opportunities that may arise for advancement."

In general labor and management representatives are confident that, as one expressed it, "we've got the seniority problem licked," but union agreements and their seniority clauses are so new that there have been few opportunities to test their effectiveness during large-scale lay-offs or even during the characteristic seasonal variations in employment.

Basis for determining seniority.—Before an employee acquires seniority, he must serve a probation period, the length of which varies from 60 days to a year.

The nature and organization of the skills in the rubber plants broadly determine the seniority pattern. Although there are a small number of highly skilled operations, the majority of the jobs require a learning period of less than 3 weeks, and while seniority is qualified by "ability to do the job" a trial or learning period is usually permitted. If the senior worker does not have the education or physical strength required to learn a particular job during the trial period, he is thereby restricted in the exercise of his seniority.

There tends to be a general similarity of jobs on a departmental basis, a less close similarity of jobs on a divisional basis, and a still less close similarity on a plant basis. Consequently, the unit for seniority determination, parallelling the organization of factory operations, is basically departmental, although total length of company service is also taken into consideration.

Under the modified department seniority system in the Akron rubber industry, an employee's right to a job depends initially on the relative length of his company service as compared with that of other employees in his department. This is in contrast with the stricter department system in some other industries where it is the employee's length of department service that is compared with that of other employees in his department. Moreover, although the primary seniority unit in the rubber industry is the department, the senior worker in the department frequently has the right to avoid lay-off by moving to another department to fill a vacancy, or, if there is no vacancy, to displace a worker with less company service.

While "job seniority" is specified in only one agreement, it is an important issue among the rubber workers of several plants. The

term is used with various, even contradictory, meanings and applied in several different ways. What constitutes the "job" may be interpreted as a type of machine (or sometimes even the particular machine), or the product to be made on the machine, or the type of material handled.[2] "Job seniority" may mean on the one hand that whoever has been working longest on a given job has a right to that particular job, regardless of his length of service with the company. On the other hand, it may mean that the senior worker (i. e., the one with the longest company service or, in some cases, the longest department service) has a right of choice of job in his department. In the latter case he would not only have first consideration in case of a vacancy, but would be allowed to take over the job of a junior worker in that department, whenever he chose.

Union officials complain that this arrangement encourages great intra-departmental mobility, inefficiency, and many disputes between union members. Job seniority is urged mainly by those workers who stand to gain personally from the particular arrangements they demand. In plants where job seniority is not provided in the agreement, the extent to which it is practiced reflects the pressure which particular groups of workers are able to exert.

Work Sharing

Most rubber plants provide for the reduction of the workweek before lay-offs are made. If further lay-offs become necessary, employees are removed from the department on the basis of seniority, until the workweek is increased to a more nearly normal level.

Agreement provisions regarding work sharing have all been superseded for the duration by Executive Order No. 9301 which reads in part as follows: "For the duration of the war, no plant, factory, or other place of employment shall be termed to be making the most effective utilization of its manpower if the minimum workweek therein is less than 48 hours per week."

The strict enforcement of the 48-hour week by the War Manpower director for the Akron area has occasioned some criticism by both management and union. When temporary curtailment of production is necessary, management may not wish to risk the permanent loss of trained workers through lay-off and may try to retain these workers by reducing the workweek. Several union officials declared that the labor shortage is not so great as the requirement of a 48-hour week would imply, and complained that morale was being lowered by workers' being sent home early owing to lack of work or material.

There was a test case of the enforcement of the 48-hour week regulation in March 1944 when the gas-mask department at the Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co., employing about 1,500 workers, was discontinued. The Goodyear agreement calls for curtailment of hours for 8 weeks before any employee is taken off the pay roll. Both the company and the union favored work sharing, but the WMC area director maintained that the agreement had been superseded by Executive Order No. 9301. After much discussion it was agreed that for the duration there is to be no reduction of hours without

[2] For example, the worker may prefer making a tire of a particular size on which his earnings are greatest' or he may seek the privilege of working only with natural rubber, which is easier and cleaner to work with than synthetic rubber.

WMC permission, and such permission is to be granted only if the company can reabsorb in a very short time the employees involved.

Lay-Off Procedure

Lay-offs in the Akron rubber industry are initially on a department basis. After temporary employees have been removed, regular employees in the department are laid off on the basis of company service.[3] There are some variations, however, among the companies. In all but two companies senior employees have the bumping privilege.

At the B. F. Goodrich Co. a 5-year man has divisional rather than mere departmental seniority, and to avoid lay-off can displace (bump) the employee in the same division who has the least company service, providing the latter has less than 5 years' company service.

A broader seniority unit is provided at the Goodyear Co., where a qualified employee may displace another employee with less seniority anywhere in the plant. The order of displacement in the event of lay-off is stipulated as follows: (a) To identical operations, or operations listed as like operations in other departments; (b) to other operations in other departments for which the transferee's previous satisfactory experience, gained at any time while in the employ of the company (except when temporary filling of job has been caused by vacations or sickness), can qualify him; (c) to short learning period operations for which he can qualify. Thus, bumping can occur practically anywhere except for jobs requiring long training periods for which the senior employee has no prior qualifications. However, union officials report difficulty in enforcing the transfer and bumping provisions because "the company insists on job seniority. It would rather lay off men than bring them into a new department for training."

At the Firestone Co., in contrast, bumping is never permitted and the senior employee has only the advantage that, "if * * * there is a vacancy in some other department where all the employees have been returned to work, this laid-off employee shall have first consideration, consistent with his experience and qualifications to do the work." The local union president defends this arrangement, saying, "Plant-wide seniority would be impractical. It upsets the department all the time. * * * Besides our lay-offs are generally company-wide. For instance, the big lay-off in the fall of 1937 and spring of 1938 affected every department at the same time."

Rehiring Procedure

In general, rehiring occurs in each department in reverse order to lay-off. After department employees are called back and before any new workers are hired, laid-off employees from elsewhere in the plant are recalled to fill vacancies in that department. If new de-

[3] Although the agreements commonly state that junior employees are "laid off" when production is curn practice this may not result in automatic loss of work. Instead the "laid-off" worker is first sent to the company's employment or personnel office. There he is assigned to any vacancy elsewhere in the plant for which he can qualify on the basis of his seniority along with his past experience or ability to learn the job. It is only when such vacancies do not exist that the employee is actually taken off the pay roll. Thus, the term "transfer to avoid lay-off" can for all practical purposes be commonly substituted for the term "lay-off." The only general restriction is that transfers cannot be made between skilled maintenance work and production work.

partments are established, an employee's company seniority is compared with that of all those in the division and/or in the plant who bid for the jobs available.

Rules for Transfers [4]

Intercompany transfers.—Anticipating wartime conversion from rubber products and seeking to encourage movement to essential war work, the OPM made an agreement in December 1941 with employer and employee representatives of the rubber industry, providing that employees transferring from one company to another be permitted to accumulate seniority with their original employer. There were few such transfers, as the anticipated conversion never took place. There was only the slight movement of experienced rubber workers to supervisory positions in the newly constructed airplane-wings plants of the Goodyear and Firestone companies and a few intercompany transfers of workers who sought higher wages. This movement from one essential job to another came under the regulation of WMC whose most recently amended Employment Stabilization plan for the Akron area (March 1944) permits only the retention with the original employer of seniority already accumulated.

The divergence between the original OPM agreement and the superseding WMC regulation has caused no trouble because there have been so few transfers either under the OPM or WMC—not over 400, according to the WMC director. All but a few transferees have returned to their original plants, where local negotiations have generally restored them to their former status with accumulated seniority.

Intracompany transfers.—Transfers are permitted when vacancies occur in better-paid or otherwise more-desirable jobs, or when new operations are established. Since there are no "lines of promotion" based on skill or wage rates, the term "promotion" is not used by company or union officials. However, advancement to higher-paid jobs is generally based on length of company service along with minimum ability. Although senior employees are entitled to a trial period in "advertised" or "posted" vacancies, those without the physical or educational prerequisites usually refrain from bidding.

The transfer becomes official if, after a trial period, the employee can "efficiently handle the job to be filled." Since an objective measurement of efficiency in terms of the number of Bedeaux or other units produced is possible, there are few disputes regarding ability to do the job. Sometimes during the trial period the transferred employee may be paid a hiring or learning rate; sometimes minimum earnings are guaranteed during this period even if performance is not up to par.

Seniority rights vary with the circumstances of the transfer. Although employees who transfer at the company's request generally carry their seniority rights into the new department immediately, those who transfer at their own request retain their seniority in the original department for a specified period of time until permanent status is established elsewhere.

[4] Other than transfers to avoid lay-off.

Transfer to supervisory positions.—In filling vacancies in the supervisory force, the companies are not required to give consideration to seniority. Workers promoted to supervisory positions are no longer in the bargaining unit and generally do not accumulate seniority.

Loss of Seniority

There is some variation among agreements, in the extent to which seniority is retained during excused absences, such as sick leave, and during lay-off. Frequently, the agreements stipulate a 2-year period of lay-off without loss of seniority, although in a few instances workers with longer service retain their standing for longer periods. Seniority is lost when the employee is discharged for just cause, resigns, fails to report when called after lay-off, or accepts permanent employment elsewhere.

Exceptions to Seniority

Disabled employees.—Exceptions to the general seniority rules are generally made in the case of workers injured or disabled on the job. The union favors such clauses, but the individual workers tend to regard industrial accidents as the company's responsibility and to feel that they should not have to give up their own rights in favor of those disabled on the job.

Occasionally there are grievances when union judgment concerning the extent of disability does not agree with that of the company medical department. For example, while the latter may regard overweight, the loss of a finger, or some such minor disability as disqualifying the worker for particular types of work, the employee involved may feel able to perform the job.

Union officers.—Union representatives and officers have certain special seniority privileges. They are permitted to retain, and in some cases accumulate, seniority during leaves of absence for union business, and in one large company they have top seniority in the unit for which they are elected.

Reemployment of Veterans

The provisions of the Selective Service Act are for the most part incorporated in the rubber agreements. However, whereas the act guarantees jobs only to those returning veterans who were permanent employees, the agreements generally assure jobs to all former employees, regardless of whether or not they served their probationary period before entering the Army.

It is understood by union and management that the term "like seniority" in the act means that seniority accrues during a worker's period of military service. Nevertheless, some company officials maintain that the veteran has an absolute right to his former job, and others feel that this matter will be determined in the future through collective bargaining or by Selective Service interpretation. From the outset the U. R. W. A. has insisted that workers entering the armed forces should suffer no loss of seniority; at the same time it maintains that there should be no discrimination against the workers who remained on their jobs. Accordingly, it insists upon straight seniority, with each employee having only those rights to which his length of service (including service in the military forces) entitles him.

The one aspect of the veteran reemployment problem about which some unions express great concern is industry's future attitude toward physical and other handicaps of returning veterans. Since the company medical department has the prerogative of deciding whether a man is fit for a job he formerly performed, the company's medical policy will be a very important factor in determining how the job-rights provisions of the Selective Service Act are carried out.

Women Workers

With the increasing demand for labor in the Akron area, more and more women have been recruited into the rubber industry. Now, as before the war, the departments engaged in assembling, testing, and curing of inflated rubber products employ chiefly women, but the products formerly made by women have been almost entirely eliminated and the fabrication of barrage balloons, rubber boats, self-sealing fuel tanks, etc., has taken their place.

Frequently, mechanical adjustments are made in the machines so they can be handled by women, and many of the heavier jobs formerly done by men have been divided into lighter, relatively simple operations. If it is impossible to simplify or dilute the job, one man is assigned to do the heavy work, such as lifting materials or "setting up" the machine, for a group of women workers.

Where such adjustments are made, the basic rate for the job is apportioned between the women and the men involved, in keeping with the requirements of the revised job, and the women's rate is adjusted downward in accordance with the percentage of work taken out of the job. As for the men who are replaced by women, it is provided that on their new job they be guaranteed 100 percent, or in some cases, 95 percent of their former average hourly earnings.

Union representatives frequently complain that slight changes in operations are accompanied by a more-than-commensurate downward adjustment of the rate of pay. Some female employees claim that they are often requested to perform men's jobs for part of the time, while their compensation continues for full time at the women's rate. In certain cases, however, women have been able to qualify, without reservation or adjustment, for men's jobs.

The union is afraid that the employment of women on hitherto male jobs and the "diluting" of men's jobs into those for women will result in permanent lowering of wage rates and a curtailment of the number of men's jobs in the post-war period. Therefore, precaution is generally taken to stipulate that the adjustments which have been made are strictly an emergency measure. To control the number and nature of men's jobs taken over by women it is usually stipulated that placing of a woman on a man's job does not in any way change the classification of the job, and that change of classification shall not occur without negotiations.

Seniority status of women.—When men and women work on distinctly separate jobs, it makes no difference whether or not there are separate seniority lists. If men and women are doing the same kind of work, it is provided that women will be returned after the emergency to their regular pre-war operations in accordance with their company seniority. Those with no pre-war women's jobs on which to apply their wartime seniority may be laid off. For the duration, however, the seniority status of these women is the same as for men.

Reserved occupations for women.—In an effort to make the most economic use of available manpower in the rubber industry, the WMC in the Akron area is currently seeking to introduce, through voluntary union and management action, a program of "preferred jobs for women." Through the normal operation of seniority provisions in the rubber plants, many of the most desirable light jobs which could be done by women are held by men with long service records. Men will be urged to relinquish these operations voluntarily and to accept the heavier, dirtier jobs that women cannot handle; they will retain, however, the higher rate of pay of their former positions.

While management does not object to the proposal in principle, it anticipates complications in carrying it out as well as an unwillingness of both male and female workers to submit to the restrictions involved. A district C. I. O. official whom the Akron War Manpower director called upon to organize this program charges that wherever tried it has proved a failure, and that it is particularly unsuited to the rubber industry. In general, he fears that this plan, though scheduled to last only for the duration, will set a precedent for lowering post-war labor standards.

In some of the individual plants, voluntary arrangements already prevail whereby men relinquish their jobs to women during the emergency period, with safeguards against the lowering of post-war standards, and with guaranties for the removal of women when the labor shortage has been relieved in Akron. The international union recognizes the post-war employment problem of women as a major one—"as great a problem as the veterans." However, one of its officials declared: "if left alone the problem will resolve itself, on the basis of seniority, better than if meddled with."

Negro Workers

There has been a 15-percent rise in the general population in Akron since 1940, but the Negro population has increased over 500 percent.[5] There has been a commensurate increase in Negro employment in the rubber industry. Before the war, the few rubber plants which hired Negroes (the Firestone Company was the only one which hired them in any great numbers) employed them in unskilled menial jobs, such as sweepers and elevator operators. Since the war Negroes have been hired in production work, but more frequently they have been given the heavy, less desirable jobs, such as mill-room work.

Although the colored workers are entitled to the privileges of seniority and, like any white worker, can bid for vacancies, the actual proportion of Negroes upgraded is very small. Several work stoppages have occurred because white workers have objected to working with them. White employees' demands for segregation or for separate sanitary facilities have in no case been sanctioned by management or union. The U. R. W. A. has consistently upheld the application of seniority without regard to race, color, or creed, and whenever the transfer of a Negro into a hitherto white department is contested by the white workers, the U. R. W. A. investigates and, when necessary, disciplines the union members.

[5] Figures furnished by War Manpower Commission for Akron area.

Certain Negro leaders in Akron are asking that in the post-war period Negroes be guaranteed a quota in the rubber industry. They point out that if seniority is left to its normal operation, colored workers will be largely excluded from post-war production and "will not be permitted to play a part in building the peace." This proposal has not met with the approval of either company or union officials. The latter see in it a source of great Negro-white conflict, and the destruction of established seniority clauses.

Compulsory Arbitration of Labor Disputes Temporarily Decreed in Colombia[1]

AN EXECUTIVE decree of July 28, 1944, provides for compulsory arbitration of labor disputes in Colombia. The measure is to remain in effect during the present emergency. Under its provisions, labor disputes that have not been, or cannot be, settled by direct negotiation or conciliation must be submitted to arbitration. In the latter event, unless the parties to the dispute can agree upon a single arbitrator, the tribunal is to consist of three members, one named by each of the disputing groups and the third by the Minister of Labor, Hygiene, and Social Welfare.

The names of these arbitrators are to be communicated to the appropriate labor official within 12 hours after the signing of the agreement for direct settlement or for conciliation. Within 8 days after the installation of the arbitral body, the latter is required to render its decision, and any extension of time can be granted only by the Minister of Labor, Hygiene, and Social Welfare.

Until normal conditions are restored, employers in general are to be restricted in their activities. Only previous authorization from the proper labor official, or, on appeal, from the Minister of Labor, Hygiene, and Social Welfare, exempts the employers from the regulatory provisions. Under these restrictions, the employers are prohibited from—

(1) Ceasing their activities or lessening them sufficiently to involve the dismissal of 20 percent of their workers. If such actions, duly authorized, are taken, the employees are to be paid any sums due them; and when work is resumed, the dismissed workers are to be reinstated if they appear within 3 days after the announced reopening.

(2) Discharging workers who belong to a union board of directors or who have intervened as negotiators, spokesmen of their colleagues, or conciliators or arbitrators in matters connected with the same enterprise.

(3) Decreasing the amount of salaries, wages, premiums, bonuses, or emoluments with which they actually pay their workers; increasing the hours of work; reducing in any way the loans they enjoy; and, in general, making working conditions less favorable.

The duly authorized labor official must, if possible, obtain assistance of one representative of the enterprise and one representative of employees to decide the authorizations that should be sought in relation to the dispute.

[1] Data are from report by W. E. Dunn, counselor for economic affairs, United States Embassy, Bogotá, Colombia, July 29, 1944.

Industrial Disputes

Strikes in August 1944

THERE were 485 strikes in August 1944, involving 190,000 workers and 935,000 man-days of idleness, according to the Bureau's preliminary estimates.

Strike activity in August was somewhat greater than in July. Idleness in August was 0.12 percent of the available working time, as compared with 0.09 percent in July and 0.05 percent in August a year ago. It was proportionately less than in August during the pre-war years of 1939, 1940, and 1941. Some of the larger strikes are referred to below.

All figures in the following table exclude strikes lasting less than 1 day (or shift) and those involving fewer than 6 workers.

Strikes in August 1944, with Comparative Figures for Earlier Periods

Month	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle during month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
August 1944 [1]	485	190,000	935,000	0.12
July 1944 [1]	470	145,000	680,000	.09
August 1943	310	105,601	356,510	.05
August 1942	330	92,226	448,712	.07
August 1941	465	211,515	1,825,488	.29
August 1940	231	61,356	706,308	.13
August 1939	275	79,670	1,101,419	.19

[1] Preliminary estimates.

The midwestern truckers' strike.—In February 1944, the National War Labor Board issued an order directing a large number of trucking companies in the midwestern area to increase hourly and mileage rates for their over-the-road drivers, and outlining certain other terms and conditions of employment that should become part of their contracts with the union—the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen, and Helpers of America (A. F. of L.). Over a period of months the order was put into effect by most of the companies, but up to June approximately 100 companies, most of which were members of the Midwest Operators Association, had failed to pay the increases. They also had started temporary injunction proceedings against the National War Labor Board and the Director of Economic Stabilization, claiming that payment was "economically impossible," and that the order had deprived them of their right to bargain collectively with their employees.

In June the drivers voted to strike under the War Labor Disputes Act, but a stoppage was averted when the NWLB scheduled a hearing for the companies to show cause why the increases had not been paid. Subsequent to the hearing, attempts were made by many companies to work out plans for paying the increases, but these were unsuccessful. On August 5 the men struck, gradually tying up a large part of the over-the-road operations in several Midwestern States. On August 12 the Office of Defense Transportation took over most of the companies, and 2 days later the men went back to work. Under this arrangement, the wage increases directed by the War Labor Board were paid, the temporary injunction having been denied by a Federal district court. A few of the companies worked out their own plans for payment and were returned to private operation. The others continued to operate under ODT direction.

Philadelphia Transportation Co. strike.—A strike in protest against upgrading of colored workers to operating positions halted Philadelphia bus and streetcar transportation for about a week beginning August 1. The National War Labor Board assumed jurisdiction, and recommended Government seizure of the properties in order to restore operation. Under Presidential order the United States Army took over the lines on the third day of the strike.

The Transport Workers Union of America (C. I. O.), which had won an election as the bargaining agency for the workers, was in process of negotiating a new contract with the company, including a provision for nondiscrimination. This was to supplant an expired contract with the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Employees Union, which had been defeated in the election—the old contract contained clauses discriminatory against Negroes. The Transport Workers Union disclaimed all responsibility for the strike and charged that leaders of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit group were among those active in fomenting the dispute.

Immediately after Army seizure, the Department of Justice began investigations to determine any liability under the War Labor Disputes Act. The strike continued, however, through the sixth day. On order of the Army, the majority of workers returned to work on August 7, and a number of alleged strike leaders were discharged. Army supervision of the system continued to August 18. Later an agreement was reached on the proposed new contract. A Federal grand jury was convened to investigate the underlying cause of the strike. Its report, submitted early in October, indicated 30 employees on charges of violating the War Labor Disputes Act. However, the report also expressed the conviction that "the great majority of the employees were not interested to strike on this basis" (that is, in protest against upgrading of Negro workers).

Strike of coal-mine foremen.—A series of strikes in the Pennsylvania bituminous-coal mines began in August. The primary purpose of these strikes was to obtain recognition for foremen and supervisors, members of the United Clerical, Technical and Supervisory Employees Union of the Mining Industry (a division of District 50 of U. M. W. A.), but issues of wages, overtime, seniority, etc. were also involved. Almost without exception, the strikes were preceded by votes of foremen and supervisors, under the War Labor Disputes Act.

Following the precedent set in the Detroit foremen's case,[1] the National War Labor Board accepted jurisdiction over the dispute with respect to all issues except recognition and discriminatory discharges, and called union officers to a hearing in Washington to show cause why the men did not go back to work.

In late August, officials of the U. M. W. A. appealed to the men to return; but few responded and, with approximately 8,000 men idle, the situation was so serious that the Secretary of the Interior was directed by Presidential order to take over the mines then on strike. Strike votes at additional mines continued throughout the month, and in September the movement spread to West Virginia. The NWLB appointed a panel to conduct hearings and inquiries on all issues over which it had assumed jurisdiction.

A number of mines reopened on September 4, and others later; but additional mines were closed after strike votes were conducted by the National Labor Relations Board. At the end of September, most of the mines involved were continuing under Government operation, with the major issue—union recognition—still unresolved.

[1]See Monthly Labor Review, July 1944 (p. 117).

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Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor [1]

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

EFFECT of refusal of union to present grievance.—The National Labor Relations Board in a recent decision outlined the rights of unions and individuals as to grievances, as follows: The representative chosen by majority vote of an appropriate unit of employees has exclusive bargaining power as to all employees respecting grievance procedure, and is the exclusive representative of the individual employee either in adjusting a grievance which involves interpretation of the contract or in disposing of a complaint concerning a matter not covered by the contract, because the latter amounts to bargaining about a condition of employment. No labor organization other than that chosen by the majority has any right to act.

The individual employee with a grievance may appear on his own behalf, but the employees' exclusive representative is entitled to be present and negotiate at each stage of the proceedings.

The existence of a collective-bargaining agreement prevents the use by an individual employee or group of employees of any other grievance procedure than that provided in the contract. Only when the exclusive representative of the bargaining unit refuses to participate in the handling of a grievance may the employer meet an individual or group alone to deal with that grievance, and even in such cases the procedure and adjustment must conform to the substance of the union agreement.

The refusal of the employees' exclusive representative chosen under the National Labor Relations Act to present a grievance for an individual or group does not deprive the representative of its exclusive right to conduct all bargaining for employees in the unit which it represents. (*In re Hughes Tool Co.*, 57 N. L. R. B.—, Aug. 8, 1944.)

Appropriate bargaining unit.—As organization of life-insurance agents has been developing on a State-wide basis, a unit restricted to a metropolitan area was not considered appropriate by the National Labor Relations Board (*The National Life & Accident Insurance Co.*[2] case). However, an election in one district office was directed in a case in which the union (without fault on its part) had been deprived, for nearly 1½ years, of an opportunity to show its majority status in the district (*Western & Southern Life Ins. Co.*, Case No. 225, 57 N. L. R. B. — Aug. 21, 1944).

[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of the 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]——N. L. R. B.——(Aug. —, 1944). Cf. *John Hancock Mutual Life Ins. Co.*, 57 N. L. R. B. 115 (July 27, 1944).

Representation decisions under contracts with automatic renewal clauses.—The National Labor Relations Board held that an automatic renewal clause in a contract would not bar representation proceedings if the petitioning union gave notice of its claim of representation prior to the automatic renewal notice date (*In re Michigan Bumper Corporation*[3]). The same would hold true if no notice to terminate was given, provided the petitioning union acted within a reasonable time before the effective automatic renewal date (*Columbus & Southern Ohio Electric Co.*, 57 N. L. R. B. No. 1, Aug.—1944).

In a case in which a department covered by the contract was discontinued in order to enlarge another department, and the contracting union had not met with the employer for more than a year and evidenced no interest in the employees, the Board decided that the mere existence of a contract did not prevent it from determining representation. (*The Jaeger Machinery Co.*, 57 N. L. R. B. 113, July 26, 1944.) In the *Aluminum Co. of America* case,[4] although certification was not followed by a contract, since it was not shown that the certified union was inactive during the year, the Board refused to entertain a petition for a new certification.

Equivalents of intention with regard to unfair labor practices.—A decision of the National Labor Relations Board was approved by a Federal appellate court on the theory that the effect of an employer's action as an unfair labor practice, rather than its purpose, is decisive. A brewery with a closed-shop agreement with its drivers had contracted for its hauling with an independent hauler who had a closed-shop contract with a rival union. Since this forced the brewer's drivers, who found employment with the haulers, into the rival union, the Board directed both the brewer and the hauler to take steps to undo the results of this violation of the act. The hauler was held involved because of his knowledge of the effect of his arrangement with the brewer on the employees and on interestate commerce. It made no difference that he was technically not an employer of the brewer's drivers. (*National Labor Relations Board* v. *Glueck Brewing Co.*, C. C. A. 8, Aug. 7, 1944.)

Reinstatement not ordered after discriminatory discharge.—In view of the present situation in war industry, an employer was not ordered by the National Labor Relations Board to reinstate a union member who had been discharged because of the employer's antiunion prejudice, as the employee had secured a better-paid position with a war plant which had a closed-shop agreement with the union in which he held membership. (*Thompson Products, Inc.*, 57 N. L. R. B. 151, Aug. 4, 1944.)

Jurisdiction over intracity bus company.—In the case of Charleston Transit Co.[5] it was found that the busses of the company were used by about a sixth of the workers going to and from plants in and around the city and that the products of those plants moved in interstate commerce. The bus company was therefore held to be covered by the National Labor Relations Act.

Elections.—In *Indiana Bridge Co., Inc.*[6] the National Labor Relations Board held that as an election did not result in choice of a

[3] 57 N. L. R. B. 135 (Aug. 2, 1944).
[4] 57 N. L. R. B. 148 (Aug. 4, 1944).
[5] 57 N. L. R. B. —— (Aug. —, 1944).
[6] 57 N. L. R. B. —— (July —, 1944).

majority representative, the Board's policy of not directing another election within a year was not applicable. In another case the Board (*Harrison Steel Castings Co.*[7]) set aside an election which was preceded by hints from an important customer of the employer and the employing company itself that the customer would withdraw its patronage if the union won the election. This would have caused a reduction in employment in a community where the company was the principal source of employment. An election was also set aside in a case in which the employer threatened before the election to move the plant to another location, if the union won (*Electric Utilities Co.*, 57 N. L. R. B. 75).

High-school boys working during the summer were excluded from voting in a representation election, in the absence of evidence showing that any of them planned to work beyond the school vacation (*U. S. Gypsum Co.*[8]).

In the case, *In re Major Aircraft Foundry*,[9] the Board ruled that a decision as to representation should be made in spite of the employer's contention that contract cancelations and cut-backs made it uncertain whether he would remain in business.

Veterans' Benefits

Reemployment rights lost by contract.—A reserve officer had an employment agreement terminable by either party on 6 months' notice. After the effective date of the Army Service Law of 1940, when called to the service, he renewed this agreement "in all respects," except for certain irrelevant pay provisions. Later, while the officer was in the service, the employer gave the 6 months' notice. In declaring the rights of the parties, in *Wright* v. *Weaver Bros., Inc.*,[10] the Maryland District Court rejected the argument that the provisions of the Army Service Law had the effect of cancelling out the termination clause from the original agreement, and that therefore it was no part of the renewal agreement. The court held that the officer was free to and did renew his agreement in respect to the termination clause, substituting his contractual for his statutory rights, and that, therefore, the employer had lawfully terminated not only the employment but the reemployment rights by giving 6 months' notice under the renewal agreement.

Civil Rights

Under the New York Civil Rights Law, the Railway Mail Association, which has as one of its objects the promotion of the welfare of railway postal clerks by improving their working conditions, but operates chiefly as a beneficial association, is a "labor organization" which may not deny any person membership by reason of race, color, or creed (*Railway Mail Association* v. *Corsi*[11]).

In the absence of a State statute regulating the subject, the Supreme Court of California refused to compel a shipbuilder with a closed-shop agreement to hire Negro members of a union auxiliary on an equal basis with white union members, as the union bylaws placed Negroes in an auxiliary and the employer was hiring under referral procedure

[7] 57 N. L. R. B. No. 92.
[8] 57 N. L. R. B. — (Aug. —, 1944).
[9] 57 N. L. R. B. — (July —, 1944).
[10] — Atl. (2d) — (USDC. Ind.) (Aug. 15, 1944).
[11] — N. E. (2d) — (July 19, 1944).

...shed by the union contract. The employer, though operating under a Government contract prohibiting discrimination, was held not to be engaging in the prohibited discriminatory practices. The court held that the absence of a State law left the union free to prescribe its own membership rules, and noted that the equal-protection clause of the fourteenth amendment controls the action of State governments and not of private persons and organizations (*Blakeney* v. *California Shipbuilding Corporation* [12]).

Decisions Under State Labor Laws

Collective bargaining for municipal employees.—In *Nutter* v. *City of Santa Monica* [13] the California Superior Court, Los Angeles County, decided that under the California labor code requiring collective bargaining the city was required, like any private individual, to bargain with its bus-driver employees. This decision was based upon the fact that (1) the operation of a bus system by a city is not a political and governmental activity dealing with a municipal affair but is a proprietary and private activity, and (2) under the law of California the organization of public employees is not unlawful.

Maintenance-of-membership clause upheld.—The Alabama Bradford Act provides that every person shall be free to join or refrain from joining any labor organization. Reversing a previous opinion, the Attorney General of Alabama held that the act was not in conflict with a maintenance-of-membership clause, if the clause is limited in its application to those who are members of a union when a contract with the employer is executed and to those who are employed later but become parties to the agreement through voluntary notice to the employer that they accept its terms.[14]

Unions of supervisory employees.—The policy of the National Labor Relations Board not to recognize foremen's unions (*Maryland Drydock*, Case 49 N. L. R. B. 733) does not prevent the New York State Labor Relations Board from determining the bargaining representative for supervisors, as a unit, in a plant engaged in interstate commerce (*Allegheny Ludlum Steel Corporation* v. *Kelley*, — N. E. (2d) ——, July 27, 1944).

The National Labor Relations Board had certified a representative for rank-and-file workers but had not been asked by any foremen's union to designate a bargaining agent and had never acted in any way in regard to this supervisory group. The State court to which the case was taken thought that Congress had not intended to cover the whole field of employment in these plants and, therefore, did not intend to supersede or suspend the power of the States; hence the failure of N. L. R. B. to exercise the full potential of regulation did not operate to exclude the State from acting.

On the other hand, a court of Allegheny County (Pa.) upheld the order of the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board that a group of supervisory employees, including instructors, district route foremen, dispatchers and traffic dispatchers, is not an appropriate collective-bargaining unit. The court found the Board's decision neither

[12] — Pac. (2d) —— (Aug. 7, 1944).
[13] — Pac. (2d) —— (Aug. 9, 1944).
[14] Alabama Department of Labor, Administrative bulletin No. 10, July 24, 1944.

unreasonable nor arbitrary. (*Amalgamated Association of ... tric Railway, etc., Employees* v. *Pennsylvania Labor Relations ...*)

Discharge under closed-shop contract.—Under a closed-shop contract, a worker who returned to work before the end of an illegal strike was threatened with cancellation of union membership and discharged. The court granted him an injunction against such action, notwithstanding that he failed to appeal his case within the union. The court's decision was based upon the fact that the union constitution provided no definite method of appeal and did not compel union consideration of an appeal. In the course of its opinion the court seemed to regard the employee's union membership as a property right, as under a closed-shop contract his membership affected his right to hold his job. (*Loney* v. *Wilson Storage & Transfer Co.*[16]).

Liability of union to union member.—A union local secured discharge of certain members under a union contract by representing that they were not in good standing, but failed to proceed on charges against them in accordance with union bylaws and thereby made unavailable the procedure for appeals within the union. The court held that the discharged employees might secure a court order compelling the union to treat them as in continuous good standing and an order directing the employer to rehire them. It ruled, however, that a claim for damages against the union, based on knowledge and inaction by the general membership, could not be upheld if the claimants did not in good faith try to obtain other employment. (*O'Brien* v. *Papas*, 49 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 521.)

Travel time under State hours law.—That the Colorado statute, which prohibits more than 8 hours' work in 24 for miners underground, does not conflict with a proposed agreement, providing for a 9-hour day including 45 minutes' compensated travel time and 15 minutes' unpaid lunch time, was the conclusion of a Federal court in instructing a trustee to adopt the agreement of the Secretary of the Interior with the United Mine Workers. The court noted that the Colorado statute has always been interpreted as allowing 8 hours' work on the face, without regard to other time spent underground, in travel, etc., and without regard to the payment or nonpayment for such other time (*In re Rocky Mountain Fuel Co.*[17]).

Employer not party to representation case.—Under the Rhode Island Labor Relations Act, an employer is not a party to a representation case, and in a later proceeding for refusal to bargain with the certified union may urge that the Board made an error of law in its decision. In *McGee* v. *Local 682*,[18] the Rhode Island Supreme Court found that an error existed by reason of the Board's failure to decide that a union which has an automatically renewable agreement loses the benefit of the renewal clause by demanding a wage increase before the expiration date and calling a strike to enforce its demand. In such a case the employer may bargain with a rival union, without being guilty of an unfair labor practice.

Back wages after discriminatory discharge.—The New York Labor Relations Board in its annual report for 1943 indicates a change in policy as to back pay in cases of discriminatory discharge. Formerly it ordered payment of back wages from the date of discharge to the

[16] — Atl. (2d) —.
[16] — N. W. (2d) — (Circuit Ct. S. Dak.) (June 29, 1944).
[17] — Fed. Supp. (2d) — (U. S. D. C., Colo.) (Aug. 5, 1944).
[18] 38 Atl. (2d) 303 (Sup. Ct. R. I.).

establi[illegible] of reinstatement, minus any wages earned during the [illegible]der the new policy the Board will order payment of a sum equal to what the employee would have earned between the date of discharge and either the date of offer of reinstatement or the date when equivalent employment was obtained, whichever occurred first, minus any amount earned during the period so established. The change will stop the practice of postponing the offer of reinstatement to an employee who holds a higher-paid position in order to expand the credit for actual wages earned against the sum due.

Arbitration

In a case in which arbitrators acting under the Railway Labor Act were unable, within the time stipulated, to agree on an award, and the parties had not consented to an extension of time therefor, the belated award was set aside by the court (*Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks* v. *Norfolk Southern Ry. Co.*[19]).

War Labor Board Decisions

Elimination of substandards of living.—Regional War Labor Board IX ordered a reduction of the workweek for food-store clerks and meat cutters from 55 to 48 hours, not only because of intraplant inequalities (under State law women received overtime for work beyond 48 hours, but the men did not) but because the N. W. L. B. has construed the President's reference to substandards of living as covering not only small earnings but also long hours. The Board further noted that hours in excess of 48, even in wartime—and particularly where uncompensated by premium pay—are not approved by the Government or industry generally. (*Denver, Colo. Markets and Food Stores*, Case No. 111–5572–D, Regional Board IX, July 18, 1944.)

Reversing a regional board, the National War Labor Board decided that the establishment of a guaranteed minimum of 50 cents per hour to wipe out substandard earnings does not require an employee to be paid 50 cents for each hour worked; the requirement is met if the weekly wage represents at least 50 cents multiplied by the number of hours worked. (*Philip Carey Manufacturing Co.*, Case No. 111–3951–D.)

Union responsibility.—A regional War Labor Board had refused to grant a local union a maintenance-of-membership clause and check-off provision because of a wildcat strike. The union claimed, however, that it had ended the unauthorized stoppage promptly. This circumstance and the fact that 10 months had passed, during which the union had demonstrated its responsibility, led the National Board to instruct that the regional order be reconsidered (*Armour Fertilizer Works*, Case No. 111–3520–D, July 13, 1944). In granting a standard maintenance-of-membership and check-off clause in the first contract of a union which had struck a year earlier against an order allowing similar privileges to a rival union, the Regional War Labor Board took into account changes in union leadership, the union's performance during the probationary period, and the advantages of union security in stabilizing relations in a situation in which four changes of union allegiance had taken place in 6 years (*Celanese Corporation of America*, Case No. 111–7403–D, July 22, 1944).

[19] —— Fed. (2d) —— (C. C. A. 4).

Because a union struck in violation of its pledge, Regional War Labor Board II withdrew the benefit of an agreement setting a retroactive date for overtime pay. Overtime was approved only from the date on which the strike ended (*New Jersey Brewers Association*, Case No. 111–8744–D, Aug. 17, 1944).

In a decision affecting the *Cramp Shipbuilding Co.*,[20] under a contract for joint union-employer fixing of rates for an incentive plan, the Shipbuilding Commission found that the union's persistent refusal to agree to lower rates had led to wage payments of a character markedly inconsistent with the stabilization program and to excessive unit labor costs. The Commission gave the company the sole right of final determination of such special piece rates, reserving to the union the right of discussion under short-cut grievance procedure, but not the right to arbitrate or join in fixing the rates.

Enforcement of War Labor Board directives against a union.—Strikes of machinists in certain West Coast plants led to the seizure of the plants by the Government. In connection therewith, the National War Labor Board, subject to the requirements of the National Labor Relations Act, cancelled the union's contract clause compelling preferential hiring of union members, placed the scheduling of vacations in the hands of the Navy, and wiped out the provisions of the agreement involving consent of the union local or its participation in industrial relations under the contract (*California Metal Trades Association*, Case No. 111–7566–D, Aug. 19, 1944).

In the case of a union which refused to obey an order of the National War Labor Board, all the supplemental gasoline rations of its members for travel to and from work were called in and cancelled by the Office of Economic Stabilization (Directive, Aug. 15, 1944, as amended Aug. 18, 1944).

Arbitration and grievance procedures.—After the National War Labor Board had directed arbitration of grievances and appointed an arbitrator, the employer refused to obey the directive or to arbitrate. The Board then defined certain types of grievances which might be reported to it as disputes under the War Labor Disputes Act, and directed the arbitrator to hold public hearings under that act as agent of the Board, to settle these "disputes" (*Montgomery Ward & Co.*, Case No. 11–5353–D, Aug. 21, 1944).

A collective agreement named the War Labor Board as final agent to settle disputes on intraplant inequities. These grievances were referred by the Board to a group of technical experts, and the action was challenged because of a clause in the union contract, excluding arbitration of such disputes. The Board decided that in executing powers granted by the contract it acts in a process of "compulsory adjudication" and may select any method it chooses (*Carnegie Illinois Steel Co.*, Case No. 111–5929–D, Regional Board III, July 25, 1944).

In the case of a union contract providing only for voluntary arbitration, the National War Labor Board reversed a directive changing the contract to one for compulsory arbitration of grievances. However, it reiterated its policy of settling referred disputes based on minor grievances by assigning them to an outside arbitrator for binding arbitration (*Aluminum Co. of America*, Case No. 111–2531–D, July 5, 1944).

[20] Decision of Shipbuilding Commission, July 21, 1944, published August 4, 1944.

Continuance of contract pending N. L. R. B. action.—The National War Labor Board, to settle a dispute, directed that terms and conditions of an old agreement should continue in effect until further notice (to be given after N. L. R. B. action) in a case in which the refusal of the employer to negotiate a new contract involved the need of N. L. R. B. action to decide on the proper bargaining agency (*Fred A. Snow Co.*, Case No. 111–5597–D, June 29, 1944 [21]).

Miscellaneous.—A union contract which was self-renewing except on notice (which had not been given) was held by a Regional War Labor Board to be in effect, although no union members were employed at the renewal date. The company had thereafter reemployed two union workers (*Samuel Bingham's Son Manufacturing Co.*, Case No. 111–7692–HO, Regional Board III, Aug. 5, 1944).

Although allowing leeway for a union and employer to agree on waiver of part of retroactive pay which the National War Labor Board had approved, the Board refused to order such waiver on the ground of an employer's financial difficulties (*Acme Rubber Manufacturing Co.*, Case No. 4149–CSD, May 27, 1944).

In spite of pending court action by ousted officials of a local to enjoin new officers from acting (no injunction being asked against the employer), the National War Labor Board ordered the employer to turn over check-off funds to the new officers, accredited by the international union, and to deal with them on grievances (*Wilson & Co.*, Case No. 111–9800–D, Aug. 24, 1944).

Social Security Laws

Exemption from the coverage of social-security legislation on the ground that the taxpayer was an organization operated exclusively for charitable, scientific, or educational purposes was denied in the following cases for the reasons indicated:

A club incorporated to promote fellowship among those interested in literature, science, and art was covered because it made available living quarters and meals for its members (*Round Table Club* v. *Fontenot* [22]); and a cemetery corporation, because it was not a public charity (*Lexington Cemetery Co.* v. *Kentucky U. C.*[23]). The American Medical Association was refused exemption because, in opposing group health service and in publishing advice to physicians relative to compliance with social-security and income-tax laws in its Journal, it demonstrated activity in the economic interest of its membership which was not within its described scientific and educational purposes (*American Medical Assn.* v. *Murphy* [24]).

Availability for suitable work.—The Supreme Court of Minnesota decided that, under the unemployment-compensation law of that State, which denies benefits to those not available for suitable work, refusal to accept a truck driver's job did not deprive a boilermaker's helper of his right to compensation, since he had reason to believe he would shortly obtain local work at his own customary trade. (*Berthiaume* v. *Christgau*, 15 N. W. (2d) 115.)

Intra-union controversy not a labor dispute.—Under a Florida statute excluding from unemployment compensation those out of work as

[21] Cf. *Fuld and Hatch Kniting Co.*, Case No 111–10070 D (Regional Board II—Aug. 11, 1944).
[22] — Fed. (2d) —— (CCA 5).
[23] — S. W. (2d) —— (Ky. Supreme Ct.).
[24] — N. E. (2d) — (Circuit Ct., Cook Co., Ill.).

the result of a labor dispute, it was held that a discharge required under a union agreement on notification by the union that a member is not in good standing, did not bar payment of the compensation, because a controversy between a union member and the president of an international union is not a labor dispute under the act (*Huerta* v. *Regensberg & Sons.*[25]).

Tips as wages.—Tips received by waiters from customers under the Wisconsin unemployment-compensation law constitute "wages" upon which contributions must be paid, because the statute expressly includes tips as wages. The statute is not unconstitutional and cannot be taken to mean tips received from the employer only. (*Ernst* v. *Industrial Comm. of Wisconsin.*[26])

Miscellaneous

Fair Labor Standards Act.—The circuit court of appeals in *Borella* v. *Borden Co.*[27] decided that the Fair Labor Standards Act applied to service and maintenance workers in a building which housed the executive and administrative staff of a company producing milk products for interstate commerce at other locations only.

Laws licensing labor organizers.—An application for preliminary injunction against enforcement of a city ordinance requiring labor organizers to obtain a license was refused by the Federal district court; an appeal from a criminal case involving the same organizer, the same ordinance, and the same constitutional question was pending in the State courts. (*Starnes* v. *City of Milledgeville*, — Fed. (2d) —— (Dist. Ct., Georgia, July 31, 1944.) In the criminal case, the city ordinance was later held unconstitutional.

Decisions of Brazilian Labor Court, 1943[28]

THE National Labor Council of Brazil, the highest labor court in the country, considered 348 cases in 1943. Sixty percent of these were rejected, and of the remaining 40 percent in which decisions were rendered, 47 percent favored employees and 53 percent favored employers. This labor court is composed of a commissioned president and 18 members, 4 representing employers, 4 representing employees, 4 representing clerks of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce and subordinate social-security institutes, together with 6 persons of learning, all appointed by the President. The Council's juridical powers cover appeals on decisions of the Chamber of Labor Justice and jurisdictional disputes between the Chambers of Labor Justice and Social Security.

In addition to its work in full council, the National Labor Council may function (with 9 members in each case) as a Chamber of Labor Justice and a Chamber of Social Security. The Chamber of Labor Justice received 528 cases in 1943. Of these, 11 percent were rejected or subjected to further investigation, 50 percent were decided in favor of employees, and 39 percent in favor of employers.

[25] — So. (2d) —— (Circuit Ct., Hillsboro Co., Fla.).
[26] — N. W. (2d) ——.
[27] — Fed (2d) —— (CCA 2) (July 28, 1944).
[28] Data are from report of Reginald S. Kazanjian, second secretary, United States Embassy, Rio de Janeiro, July 6, 1944 (No. 585); and Consolidation of Brazilian Labor Laws (Rio de Janeiro) 1944.

Brazilian labor law provides also for regional labor councils and local boards of conciliation and judgment. Membership of a board of conciliation and judgment consists of a president and two members, one representing employers and one employees. Its duties include the conciliation and judgment of disputes regarding employees' permanency, remuneration, holidays, individual labor contracts, and certain indemnities. In 1943 the 36 Brazilian boards of conciliation and judgment heard 24,302 cases. Of these, 11,650 (involving about 11,000,000 cruzeiros[29] were conciliated, 6,533 (involving about 12,000,000 cruzeiros) were judged, and some 6,000 (involving 5,000,000 cruzeiros) were rejected.

Labor Inspection and Labor Court Decisions in Chile, 1943[30]

THE General Labor Office of the Ministry of Labor of Chile carried out 59,133 inspection visits during 1943. According to a press release of the inspection division of the General Labor Office, these visits were made to industrial, commercial, and mercantile establishments, which employed 214,217 persons. In 1943, the inspection division had some 280 inspectors assigned to various regions of the country; their duties included investigation to check compliance with Chilean law relating to possession of health certificates, and regulations on hours of work, salaries, day of rest per week, and other conditions. The data below indicate that in the 4-year period between 1940 and 1943, the inspection coverage was greatest in 1941.

	Number of—	
	Inspections	*Workers*
1943	59, 133	214, 217
1942	80, 453	259, 103
1941	91, 116	286, 801
1940	85, 103	258, 413

The labor inspectors may make recommendations but have no authority to take legal action. When complaints are filed, the practice is to invite the employer to attend an informal hearing in the inspector's office. In 1943 such complaints numbered 29,451, and 14,710 of these were amicably settled. Of the remainder, 7,395 were submitted to labor courts and 7,346 were withdrawn or dismissed.

Through the intervention of the labor inspectors, 6,432,098 pesos[31] owed to wage earners were collected and paid. Other activities of the inspection division in 1943 included the distribution of 123,620,000 pesos in profit-sharing bonuses to 37,360 white-collar employees and 16,000,000 pesos to labor unions, as their share of profits under the labor law.

In addition to handling the cases recommended to them by the labor inspectors, the labor courts of Chile hear cases brought by individual wage earners regarding failure to pay dismissal allowances and other benefits guaranteed by law. A solicitor attached to the inspection division of the General Labor Office represents the division

[29] Average exchange rate of cruzeiro in 1943=6 cents (official) or 5 cents (free).

[30] Data are from report of Daniel L. Horowitz, senior economic analyst, United States Embassy, Santiago, July 25, 1944 (No. 366); and Industrial Safety Survey (International Labor Office), October–December 1943.

[31] Average exchange rate of peso in 1943=3.09 cents.

in defense of its recommended complaints. The Government provides no representation in cases otherwise brought, but a bar association, the College of Attorneys, gives some legal assistance to needy workers. The labor courts received 35,339 cases in 1943. Some 8,600 decisions were rendered, and more than 23,000 cases were disposed of without the necessity of decision. Altogether the sum of 12,509,607 pesos was paid to wage earners as a result of court action.

Egyptian Law on Labor Contracts[1]

LABOR contracts between employers and individual workers in Egypt are regulated by a law passed May 10, 1944, effective August 15, 1944. The law covers workers and employees of both sexes, but its provisions do not apply to agricultural workers, casual workers, dependent members of the family of the employer, persons working in establishments not equipped with machinery and employing fewer than five persons, officers and men of the merchant marine, permanent State employees, or domestic servants.

The law provides that the labor contract may be verbal if wages amount to less than 10 Egyptian pounds a month, but must be written in other cases. Labor contracts concluded between employers and labor-recruiting officers must in every case be written, and the contract must stipulate the kind of work, the wage rate, the approximate duration of work, and the guaranties covering payment of wages at the place of work. Wages of workers fixed by contract and wages really paid may not difier by more than 10 percent. The cost of transport of the workers from their Provinces to their place of work must be paid by the employer. Persons engaged in labor recruiting must have an authorization from the Department of Labor before they can engage in this work, and the law provides safeguards for the payment of wages and fixes the time limits within which workers paid by the day and those paid for longer periods of time must be paid.

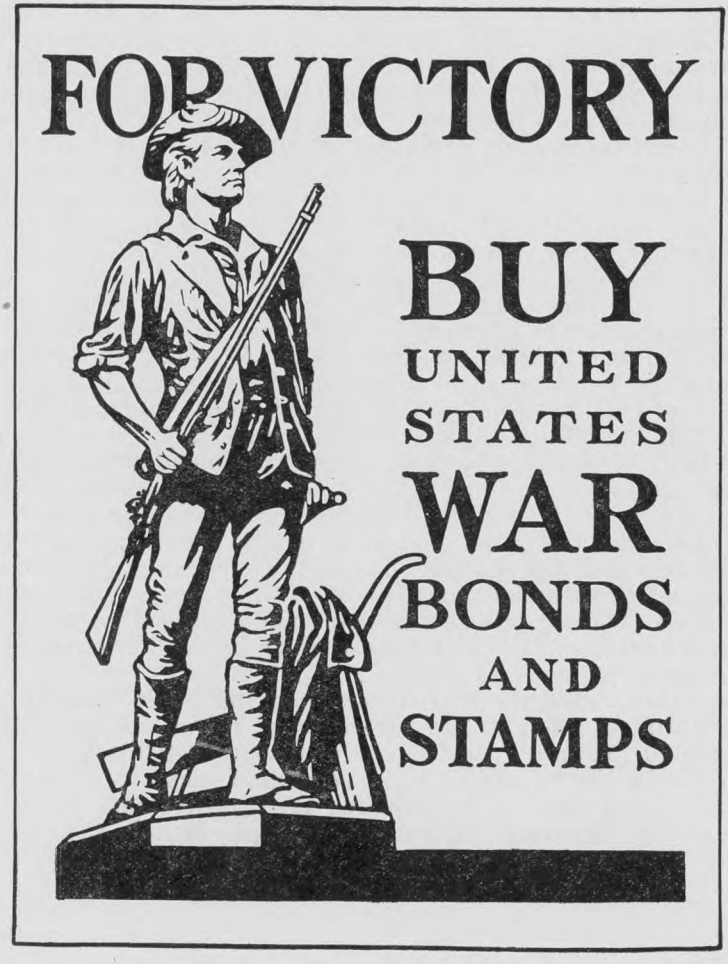
Employers and recruiting agents may not require any worker to purchase articles or merchandise produced or bought by them or to purchase such articles in specified stores. Deductions from a worker's pay for breakage of tools or equipment may not exceed their actual replacement cost, and not more than 5 days' wages may be retained for this purpose in any one month. An employer may not require a worker to do any work other than that for which he was engaged, except to prevent or repair the results of an accident, or in cases of force majeure. Contracts for indefinite periods of work may be terminated by either party if due notice is given. Penalties are fixed for both workers and employers for breaking the contract without giving proper notice, and penalties for various infractions of rules are specified or limited.

Employers are required to provide medical services for their employees. If more than 100 workers are employed, a doctor must be engaged to visit them, and medicines must be provided free. Employers are also required to pay half of the wages of a worker who is sick

[1] Data are from report by K. L. Rankin, commercial attaché, American Legation at Cairo, dated May 29, 1944, and Journal du Commerce et de la Marine (Cairo), May 20, 1944.

for a maximum of 30 days a year. Workers employed by the day are entitled to 7 days' vacation with pay a year, or to 10 days' vacation if employed on unhealthful or dangerous work; workers and employees paid by the month are entitled to 15 days' vacation a year.

Labor matters in Egypt are under the jurisdiction of the Labor Department. This Department was started as a labor office in 1930 in the Ministry of the Interior, but was raised to the status of a Department in 1935, and in 1939 was placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Social Affairs.



Housing Conditions

New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 6 Months of 1944[1]

Summary

FEWER than 100,000 new nonfarm family dwelling units were put under construction during the first half of 1944, as compared with 200,000 during the first half of 1943 and 368,000 during the first half of the best year, 1941. Although residential construction is now at the lowest level since 1934, some further decline may be expected.

Of the 97,100 dwelling units started during the first half of 1944, over four-fifths (79,900) were privately financed, as compared with about two-fifths (85,800) of the 200,200 dwellings started during the same months in 1943. Publicly financed housing projects for which construction contracts were awarded during the first half of 1944 provided new accommodations for 17,200 families, chiefly in temporary-type structures; this was only one-seventh as many as were put under contract housing projects during the first half of 1943, when the Federal war housing program was at its peak. In addition to this new construction, Federal contracts were awarded during the first half of 1944 for projects to contain 300 converted family dwelling units, 3,300 dormitory units, and 13,200 trailers.

Of the 79,900 private family dwelling units upon which work was started during the first half of 1944, 61,100 were started under the private war housing program of the National Housing Agency. This brought the number of units begun since 1941 under this program to 467,200, of which 398,900 units had been completed and 68,300 units were under construction, at the end of June 1944. At that time Federal war housing projects available for occupancy or under construction contained 504,300 family dwelling units, 152,000 dormitory units, and 41,500 trailers.

The valuation of the 97,100 new nonfarm family dwelling units begun during the first half of 1944 is estimated at $273,400,000; the corresponding figure for the first half of 1943 was $489,100,000. Since permit valuations of privately financed units commonly understate actual building costs, it is estimated that construction of the new units in 1944 will involve expenditures of approximately $309,000,000.

Scope of Report

The above estimates cover the construction of all new family dwelling units in the nonfarm area of the United States. The "nonfarm area" of the United States consists of all urban and rural non-

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

farm places. The urban designation is applied to all incorporated places with a population of 2,500 or more in 1940, and, by special rule, to a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Rural nonfarm construction includes all construction for nonagricultural use in unincorporated areas and incorporated places of less than 2,500 population. Hence, urban construction is classified by location, whereas rural nonfarm construction is classified according to the intended use of individual buildings.

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

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

Volume of Residential Construction

With both the privately and publicly financed war housing programs nearing completion, the volume of new nonfarm family dwelling units started during the first half of 1944 was the lowest since 1934. Fewer than 100,000 new units were started, as compared to 200,000 during the first half of 1943 and 368,000 during the first half of the peak year 1941.

The volume of new privately financed units has remained almost stationary for over 2 years except for seasonal fluctuations. Only 7 percent fewer units were started during the first half of 1944 than during the same months of the previous year. Since April 1942, when the War Production Board issued conservation order L–41 halting all nonessential construction, the major part of the new private units have been started under the private war housing program of the National Housing Agency. During the first half of 1944, 61,100 units, or 76 percent of all new private units, were started under this program. The remainder consist, for the most part, of rudimentary dwelling units costing only a few hundred dollars apiece [2] and of units built to replace those destroyed by fire, flood, or other catastrophe where nonreplacement would constitute a hardship.

At the end of June, there had been started since 1941, under the private war housing program, 467,200 new family dwelling units, of which 398,900 had been completed and 68,300 were under construction. Some 55,700 additional units were scheduled under this program

[2] See Construction of $500 Houses in 1943, in Monthly Labor Review, December 1943 (p. 1058).

but were not yet started. It should be pointed out that these data are based on builders' reports of construction progress and consequently are not strictly comparable with estimates based on building permits issued.

In contrast to the even level of private residential activity, the 17,200 publicly financed dwelling units placed under construction contract during the first half of 1944 were only about one-seventh of the total for the same months of last year. The 1944 total is the smallest number of publicly financed units put under contract during any similar period since 1938. The volume of public housing may be expected to decline even more this year. At the end of June, only 9,500 family dwelling units assigned for construction were not under contract.

In addition to the new family dwelling units, Federal construction contracts were awarded in 1944 for projects to contain 300 converted family-dwelling units, 3,300 dormitory units, and 13,200 trailers. By the end of June, Federal war housing projects available for occupancy or under construction contained 504,300 family dwelling units, 152,000 dormitory units, and 41,500 trailers.

Comparison by Population Groups

Not only was the volume of new units in the first half of 1944 much below that of the first half of 1943, but the locations and sizes of porjects were materially different. During the first half of 1943, 16 Federal projects of 1,000 or more units each, providing in aggregate almost a fourth of the public total for the period, were placed under contract. In the first half of 1944, only one Federal project as large as 1,000 units was placed under contract. For these larger projects it was often not feasible to utilize sites within urban areas. Also, by 1944, most of the housing had been provided for those isolated war-activity centers where construction of virtually entire communities had been necessary. Consequently, rural nonfarm units, which in 1943 constituted over two-fifths of the total, in 1944 accounted for less than a third of the new units.

The shift to urban locations was most noticeable in the case of public units. During the first half of 1943, about half of the public units were in rural nonfarm areas, as compared to about a third in 1944. The number of privately financed units in rural nonfarm areas also decreased relatively more than did the number located in urban areas, 14 percent as compared to 3 percent.

The number of new units in all city-size groups fell off sharply during the first half of 1944 as compared with 1943. Declines between the two periods varied from 26 percent for cities with 2,500 to 5,000 population to 67 percent for cities in the 50,000 to 100,000 population class. Over half of both the new private and new public units were located in cities of over 100,000 population in 1944 as compared to less than half in 1943.

TABLE 1.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 6 Months of 1943 and 1944, by Population Group, Source of Funds, and Type of Structure*

Area and population group (1940 census)	Total new dwelling units		New dwelling units financed by —			
			Public funds [1]		Private funds: All types	
	First 6 months of —					
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All nonfarm areas	97,100	200,200	17,200	114,400	79,900	85,800
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−51.5		−85.0		−6.9	
Urban (cities)	64,500	113,200	11,100	58,300	53,400	54,900
500,000 and over	14,600	20,800	2,200	10,000	12,400	10,800
100,000–500,000	19,100	26,300	3,500	11,700	15,600	14,700
50,000–100,000	4,400	13,500	600	8,000	3,800	5,500
25,000–50,000	5,100	11,000	600	6,000	4,500	4,900
10,000–25,000	10,400	22,900	2,400	14,300	8,000	8,600
5,000–10,000	6,000	12,100	1,100	5,800	4,900	6,300
2,500–5,000	4,900	6,600	700	2,500	4,200	4,100
Rural nonfarm areas	32,600	87,000	6,100	56,100	26,500	30,900
	New dwelling units financed by private funds, by type of structure					
	1-family		2-family [2]		Multifamily [3]	
All nonfarm areas	65,300	65,700	6,300	7,700	8,300	12,400
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−0.6		−18.1		−33.1	
Urban (cities)	40,300	37,100	5,900	7,300	7,200	10,500
500,000 and over	8,900	5,900	1,700	2,000	1,800	2,900
100,000–500,000	11,300	9,500	1,500	2,200	2,800	3,000
50,000–100,000	2,700	3,300	700	600	400	1,600
25,000–50,000	3,100	3,200	300	800	1,100	900
10,000–25,000	6,200	6,700	1,100	800	700	1,100
5,000–10,000	4,200	4,700	400	800	300	800
2,500–5,000	3,900	3,800	200	100	100	200
Rural nonfarm areas	25,000	28,600	400	400	1,100	1,900

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

Comparison by Geographic Divisions

The increasing concentration of new family dwelling units in certain geographic areas became even more pronounced during the first half of 1944. Over three-tenths of the new units during this period were in the Pacific States, while three other regions (the East North Central, South Atlantic, and West South Central) each accounted for at least a sixth of the total. The remaining five regions had 17 percent of the new units. In the first half of 1943 there were only two regions—the Pacific and the South Atlantic—with as many as one-sixth of the new dwelling units each, while in 1944 there were four such areas. The five regions accounting for 17 percent of the new units during the first 6 months of 1944 contained well over a fourth of the new units during the same period in 1943.

The number of publicly financed units declined sharply in all regions from the first half of 1943 to the same period of 1944. In both periods, about half of the public units were the South Atlantic and Pacific States. Shifts in geographic locations of new private units

were more marked than in the case of public war housing; decreases of as much as two-thirds in the New England and Middle Atlantic States were almost offset by an increase of over a third in the West South Central States and one of nearly 100 percent in the Pacific States.

Over 20,000, or almost a third of the private 1-family units put under construction during the first half of 1944, were in the Pacific States. This was almost double the number of such units started during the same months of 1943 in these States. The number of both 2-family and multifamily units started by private builders in this area also increased, the former from 1,000 to 2,100 units and the latter from 2,000 to 3,300 units. The decline in the number of multifamily units in the South Atlantic States—4,100 units—between the first half of 1943 and of 1944 was equal to the decline for the whole country.

TABLE 2.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 6 Months of 1943 and 1944, by Geographic Division, Source of Funds, and Type of Structure*

Geographic division	Total new dwelling units		New dwelling units financed by—			
			Public funds [1]		Private funds; all types	
	First 6 months of—					
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All divisions	97,100	200,200	17,200	114,400	79,900	85,800
New England	1,100	6,700	[3]	3,400	1,100	3,300
Middle Atlantic	3,900	19,700	700	9,800	3,200	9,900
East North Central	17,900	32,100	3,000	15,000	14,900	17,100
West North Central	2,500	6,600	400	3,500	2,100	3,100
South Atlantic	16,200	40,100	4,100	18,900	12,100	21,200
East South Central	5,300	7,000	1,400	3,200	3,900	3,800
West South Central	16,100	22,700	2,300	12,700	13,800	10,000
Mountain	3,600	13,400	1,000	10,600	2,600	2,800
Pacific	30,400	51,900	4,300	37,300	26,100	14,600
	New dwelling units financed by private funds, by type of structure					
	1-family		2-family [1]		Multifamily [2]	
All divisions	65,300	65,700	6,300	7,700	8,300	12,400
New England	1,000	2,500	[3]	100	100	700
Middle Atlantic	2,300	7,400	600	1,600	300	900
East North Central	11,700	13,500	2,100	1,800	1,100	1,800
West North Central	1,600	1,800	[3]	700	500	600
South Atlantic	10,200	14,200	600	1,600	1,300	5,400
East South Central	3,800	3,400	100	200	[3]	200
West South Central	11,700	9,000	700	500	1,400	500
Mountain	2,200	2,300	100	200	300	300
Pacific	20,700	11,600	2,100	1,000	3,300	2,000

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.
[3] Less than 50 units.

Estimated Permit Valuations

The estimated valuation of the 97,100 new nonfarm family dwelling units started during the first half of 1944 aggregated $273,000,000, or over half of the $489,000,000 estimated for the 200,000 units begun

during the same months in 1943 (table 3). Of the 1944 total, the 79,900 privately financed units were valued at $231,000,000, accounting for 85 percent of the total. In 1943, the value of the 85,800 units started by private builders aggregated $250,000,000 and accounted for only slightly over half of the total. The average valuation of the new private units was about the same in both 1943 and 1944. The average value of the public units, however, was almost a fifth higher than in 1943, as a result of the larger proportion of permanent rather than temporary-type dwellings.

When comparing the private and public valuations shown in table 3, allowance must be made for the general understatement of construction costs by private builders when applying for building permits. After allowing 15.5 percent for this understatement, it is estimated that construction of the 97,100 units started thus far in 1944 will cost approximately $309,000,000.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Valuation of New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 6 Months of 1943 and 1944, by Geographic Division, Source of Funds, and Type*

[In millions of dollars]

Geographic division	Total valuation, all new dwelling units		Valuation, new dwelling units financed by—			
			Public funds (contract amount)		Private funds: All types (permit valuations)	
	First 6 months of—					
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All divisions	273.4	489.1	42.7	239.5	230.7	249.6
New England	4.1	20.0	.2	7.3	3.9	12.7
Middle Atlantic	13.0	57.1	2.3	25.0	10.7	32.1
East North Central	70.7	103.6	8.4	35.8	62.3	67.8
West North Central	6.8	14.6	.9	6.9	5.9	7.7
South Atlantic	38.7	95.4	10.7	41.2	28.0	54.2
East South Central	10.7	11.9	4.0	5.3	6.7	6.6
West South Central	30.5	39.4	5.4	20.6	25.2	18.8
Mountain	9.5	30.9	2.3	23.7	7.2	6.1
Pacific	89.4	116.2	8.5	73.7	80.8	42.5
	Permit valuations, new dwelling units financed by private funds, by type of structure					
	1-family		2-family [1]		Multifamily [2]	
All divisions	185.7	197.7	21.1	20.5	23.9	31.4
New England	3.7	10.3	(3)	.4	.2	2.0
Middle Atlantic	8.2	25.2	1.9	4.8	.6	2.1
East North Central	48.4	56.1	9.5	5.9	4.4	5.8
West North Central	4.2	4.9	.1	1.5	1.6	1.3
South Atlantic	22.5	37.0	1.6	3.8	3.9	13.4
East South Central	6.4	5.8	.2	.4	.1	.4
West South Central	20.7	17.2	1.6	.8	2.9	.8
Mountain	6.1	6.0	.2	.5	.9	.7
Pacific	65.5	35.2	6.0	2.4	9.3	4.9

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.
[3] Less than $50,000.

Education and Training

Vocational Training, 1940–44

Training Courses to Relieve Shortages in War Industries [1]

SINCE December 1940, 1,249,973 persons have taken 33,770 courses approved by the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training program (ESMWT) of the U. S. Office of Education. These courses have been given by 224 colleges and universities in conjunction with at least 15,000 different industrial establishments to relieve specific shortages in war industries and the armed forces.

There are two types of courses, the full-time and the part-time, with the latter constituting the great majority. In the 1944 program, the part-time courses average 72 contact-hours in length (i. e., hours in which the teacher meets the students in class and laboratory, but not including study periods). Some full-time courses, however, meet for as many as 800 or 900 contact-hours.

Before any course is approved by the ESMWT, a careful study is made of the area in which those completing the study would be employed. Industry needs in that region are surveyed, and, through conferences between responsible school officials and representatives of the industry concerned, the necessary training is determined. To be approved by the ESMWT, the institutional representative—usually a dean or a financial officer of the school—has to certify that the need for the subject is great, and that employment possibilities are excellent.

In addition to establishing a need for the training, the institution must see that the course is at the college level. This requires that enrollees must have had a high-school education or its equivalent and that the instruction be comparable with that usually offered to regular college students. Quite naturally there is a wide variation among the types of students in the several classes. Although some courses are taken by individuals who barely satisfy the educational requirements, other courses enroll some persons whose educational and professional attainments are far above the average. For example, in the course on statistical methods applied to quality control, many industrial executives are enrolled.

At first the training was conducted largely on the campus of the college or university that was offering the course. However, with the growth of the program, and with wider acceptance and appreciation of the training by representatives of industry, the schools have found it advisable to organize courses very near, or actually in, the war plants from which their enrollments were drawn. Thus, Purdue

[1] Data are from the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training program of the U. S. Office of Education.

University at Lafayette, Ind., has organized "off-campus" courses to meet war training needs at South Bend, Indianapolis, and dozens of other Indiana cities and towns. Similarly, other institutions, including Alabama Polytechnic Institute, the University of California, the Georgia School of Technology, the University of Kansas, Ohio State University, and many others, have operated widespread off-campus training centers, situated wherever they could best serve war training needs. The Pennsylvania State College, for instance, has conducted training almost simultaneously in more than 150 Pennsylvania towns.

From such arrangements has grown the system now predominantly followed, in which the employers of the trainees provide space for classes, substantial quantities of the necessary instructional equipment, overtime pay for the trainees, and, often, qualified engineers or technical men who meet requirements and are employed as part-time instructors. The design and supervision of the courses, under such circumstances, remain, of course, with the sponsoring college or university.

Increasingly, employers are sending groups of new employees to college under ESMWT before assigning them to production duties. Illustrative of this trend are the programs of the Grumman Aircraft Manufacturing Co. and the Wright Aeronautical Corporation that send sizable groups of employees to full-time training courses at colleges away from the plant, with full pay and no other duties.

ENROLLMENTS, BY COURSES

From December 1940, when the first program was started, to July 1944, new enrollments and re-enrollments totaled 1,558,123, and were found in 18 types of courses. The greatest number of students (302,697) were in production supervision, while the fewest (184) were enrolled in ceramic engineering, a subject that was given only the first year. The following tabulation indicates the number of students in each type of course approved by the ESMWT and its predecessors, during the period, 1940–44.

	Enrollment
All courses	1, 558, 123
Aeronautical engineering	134, 587
Architectural engineering	8, 237
Basic science for engineers	79, 106
Ceramic engineering [1]	184
Chemical engineering	42, 624
Civil engineering	61, 925
Electrical engineering	209, 252
General engineering	187, 965
Industrial engineering [2]	155, 353
Marine-engine and naval architecture	34, 957
Mechanical engineering	156, 177
Metallurgical engineering	57, 188
Mining engineering	1, 581
Other engineering	4, 985
Courses for instructors	8, 621
Chemistry	31, 507
Physics	25, 764
Production supervision [3]	302, 697

[1] Given in 1940–41 only.
[2] Related to production supervision but given mainly in engineering schools.
[3] Given largely in nonengineering schools.

Production supervision has shown the greatest increase. Courses in this subject have expanded in number from 1,072 in 1941–42 to 2,903 for the year ending July 1, 1944. This increase is due to the growing realization, upon the part of industry, of the need for and possibility of having supervisory training in the plants.

In the last 2 years, there has been a marked change in the type of background from which the trainees have come. When the program was started in 1940, the majority of the enrollees were unemployed and were preparing themselves for defense work and, later, for war work. More recently, most of the students have been what may be called "in-service" trainees; they were already employed in industry, and were taking training while on the job. At present, approximately and were taking training while on the job. At present, 90 percent of those enrolled are taking courses designed to prepare them for a different type of work or for upgrading in their present occupation.

Although there are no up-to-date statistics regarding the number of students who finished their courses, a study of 2 years ago indicated that between 60 and 70 percent of the enrollees completed the prescribed work. This compares favorably with the proportion of successful completions in high school and college, and considerably exceeds the proportion of correspondence-school students who complete their courses. This favorable comparison is partly explained by the fact that the goals, both financial and occupational, are more immediate and tangible for those enrolled under the ESMWT program than is usual with high-school, college, or correspondence-course students. At the same time the very immediacy of those goals or the lure of other and more lucrative employment has, no doubt, caused many of the training enrollees to discontinue their courses before they have been completed.

VETERANS' ENROLLMENTS

With the continuation of the war, another group of students has been and will become of increasing significance, namely the discharged veterans. The first ESMWT statistics on veterans, for July 1943, showed 31 enrolled, or 0.39 percent of all trainees. In June 1944, veterans enrolled numbered 1,001 or 3.44 percent of all trainees.

The 10 courses with the highest enrollment of veterans are shown below.

	Enrollment
Mathematics (basic sciences for engineers)	367
Industrial organization and management	357
Personnel administration and labor	319
Communications	310
Engineering drawing and descriptive geometry	304
Accounting	253
Production engineering	238
Structures (aeronautical engineering)	230
Electronics	182
Safety	133

TRAINING OF WOMEN [2]

Over 2 million women, of various ages, have been trained under public vocational and college war-training programs carried on in the

[2] Data are from War Manpower Commission, Press release (Washington), May, 12, 1944.

48 States, in Hawaii, and in Puerto Rico. Their enrollments from July 1, 1940, to March 31, 1944, were distributed as follows:

	Enrollment
Total women receiving training	2, 461, 943
In public vocational schools under program of vocational training for war production workers	1, 136, 576
In food war production training courses	678, 379
In engineering, science, and management war training courses in colleges	230, 411
In training-within-industry courses	160, 000
In the National Youth Administration courses (NYA discontinued in 1943)	256, 577

Of the total enrollments of women in vocational courses, the largest single number, 484,254, was in programs providing training in occupations required in the production of aircraft. Enrollments of women in machine-shop occupations totaled 198,871, and in shipbuilding occupations the enrollments amounted to 115,054.

Of the 230,411 enrollments of women in college-level courses under the engineering, science and management war training program, 19 percent were in engineering drawing and similar subjects applicable to many types of war production jobs. The remainder of the enrollments in college courses were in such subjects as personnel and labor relations, inspection and testing, communications, engineering fundamentals, and industrial organization and management.

Women who have been trained under training programs financed by the Federal Government are now doing nearly every type of war work. Many women who became trainees shortly after training programs were inaugurated are now veteran employees and, in many cases, have important supervisory jobs.

All Types of Vocational Training, 1933–43 [3]

For the year ended June 30, 1943, a decline of 329,326 was reported as compared to the preceding year, in total enrollments in all types of vocational-education schools and classes conducted under Federal grants. This decline is explained by war conditions and the necessary adjustments of both adults and children to changes resulting from these conditions.

For 1943 the expenditures of Federal, State, and local money for vocational education—salaries of teachers, teacher trainers, supervisors, and directors of vocational education—totaled $63,502,396 of which $20,305,381 was Federal money and $43,197,015 was State and local money.

The accompanying table gives the enrollments in vocational schools and classes from 1933 to 1943 inclusive, the peak enrollment for the years listed being 2,629,737 in 1942.

[3] Data are from U. S. Office of Education, Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Educa, tion to the U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1943 (Washington) 1944.

Enrollment in Vocational Schools or Classes, by Years, 1933–43 [1]

Year	Total		Agriculture	Trade and industrial	Home economics	Distributive education
	Number	Increase				
1943 [2]	2,300,411	[3] 329,326	492,932	618,471	874,342	314,666
1942	2,629,737	200,683	610,050	850,597	954,041	215,049
1941	2,429,054	38,313	596,033	804,515	871,891	156,615
1940	2,290,741	206,984	584,133	758,409	818,766	129,433
1939	2,083,757	273,675	538,586	715,239	741,503	88,429
1938	1,810,082	313,245	460,876	685,804	627,394	36,008
1937	1,496,837	115,136	394,400	606,212	496,225	----------
1936	1,381,701	134,178	347,728	579,971	454,002	----------
1935	1,247,523	128,383	329,367	536,932	381,224	----------
1934	1,119,140	[3] 32,894	289,361	486,058	343,721	----------
1933	1,152,034	[3] 24,128	265,004	537,512	348,518	----------

[1] For the years 1933 to 1937, inclusive, the enrollment shown in this table includes enrollment in Federally aided and non-Federally aided vocational schools operated under State plans. After 1937 and prior to 1943, non-Federally aided schools were not reported separately by the States.

[2] Provisional figures, subject to final audit of State reports.

[3] Decrease. The decreases for 1933 and 1934 should be considered in connection with the decreases in Federal funds available in these years. A reduction in 1933 of 8 percent in these funds, and a further reduction in 1934 of 10 percent, as compared with the previous years, largely account for the decrease in enrollments of less than 3 percent for each of these years.

Fellowships for Citizens from Other American Countries

QUALIFIED applicants from other American countries are to be awarded fellowships in the U. S. Department of Commerce, according to a recent announcement.[1] These fellowships are to be of the internetraining type and may include instruction and practical training in a variety of branches or courses. At present, fellowships are offered in geodetic surveying, map and chart production, hydrographic surveying, vital statistics, and foreign trade statistics. Awards are to be made by the respective directors of the agencies concerned (the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce), with the approval of the Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of State or the duly authorized representative of the Secretary of State.

Holders of these awards are entitled to monthly allowances for quarters and subsistence during the entire period spent in the United States, or its possessions, in pursuance of a fellowship. The allowance rates are not to exceed $180 per month while under assignment in a city of more than 100,000 population, nor $150 per month while in a city of less than 100,000. While under assignment to receive training as a member of a field party or at an educational institution, the monthly allowance is to be $120 or $135, respectively.

The fellowships may be awarded for periods varying in accordance with the field of studies in which the application for a fellowship is made. These periods range from 3 to 12 months, and may be extended for equal periods of time.

[1] Federal Register (Washington), June 24, 1944 (p. 6984).

Wage and Hour Statistics

Earnings in Cotton-Goods Manufacture During the War Years[1]

Summary

THE cotton-textile worker is still among the lower-paid American factory workers, in spite of substantial wage increases in cotton mills since the outbreak of the war. Hourly earnings, which averaged 38.4 cents in April 1939, rose to 62.3 cents in April 1944, an increase of 62.2 percent. Straight-time average hourly earnings, that is, earnings after eliminating extra pay for overtime worked, increased from 38.4 cents to 59.9 cents during the same period, or by 56.0 percent.

Average hourly earnings in northern mills exceeded those in southern mills by 21 percent in April 1939, and 20 percent in April 1944. Since March 1944, a slight narrowing of this difference has occurred, caused in part by wage orders permitting wage increases in the South.

The extent of the recent wage changes has varied from area to area within regions, as well as between the North and South, because of varying hours of work, products manufactured, bidding for workers by other industries, and other economic pressures. Increases in average hourly earnings in 18 wage areas in the North ranged from 0.6 cents to 7.1 cents; in 48 southern wage areas the changes ranged from a decrease of 0.5 cents per hour to an increase of 7.9 cents per hour.

Of 20 key occupational groups studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in certain selected areas in the North and South, in the spring and summer of 1943, class-A maintenance electricians, the highest-paid group, averaged 99 cents per hour in the North and 79 cents in the South. Janitors and janitresses each averaged 52 cents per hour in the North and 44 and 43 cents respectively in the South. Among jobs that are particularly representative of the industry, the respective northern and southern averages were as follows: Loom fixers, other than Jacquard, 98 and 75 cents; male weavers, other than Jacquard, 80 and 64 cents; female weavers, other than Jacquard, 75 and 62 cents; female spinners, 63 and 52 cents; and female yarn winders, 63 and 52 cents.

Scope of the Industry

The cotton-goods industry is composed of establishments primarily engaged in manufacturing cotton yarn and thread, and woven goods over 12 inches in width. Cotton woven goods include a variety of fabrics such as duck, sheeting, print cloth, colored cotton goods, towel-

[1] Prepared by Clara F. Schloss and Toivo P. Kanninen of the Bureau's Divisions of Employment Statistics and Wage Analysis, respectively.

ing, upholstered and drapery materials, and pile fabrics. Establishments primarily engaged in dyeing or finishing cotton yarn or fabrics, or in manufacturing cotton woven goods 12 inches or less in width, are considered to be in separate industries.

Broad woven goods are produced in integrated spinning and weaving mills which carry on all the operations necessary to transform ginned cotton into cotton fabric, and in independent weaving mills which are generally engaged in producing specialty fabrics; the latter account for only a minor part of cotton-goods production. Cotton thread and yarn are produced for sale as such in independent spinning mills, in thread-finishing mills, in yarn-winding and yarn-twisting mills which prepare specialty yarns from purchased yarns, and to a minor extent as a part of the operations of integrated spinning and weaving mills.

Employment in the Industry

Establishments engaged in the manufacture of cotton textiles (except cotton small wares) employed about 450,000 wage earners in the early months of 1944, or approximately 3½ percent of all manufacturing wage earners in the United States. Only the major metal-working industries, such as the airframe, shipbuilding, automobile, machinery, and electrical-equipment manufacturing industries, employed a larger number of workers. The cotton-textile industry employs at least a seventh of the manufacturing wage earners in the South Atlantic and South Central States.

In response to expanded consumer demand and the need of the armed forces for cotton fabrics, the number of wage earners in the cotton-goods industry rose during the early years of the war to a level in excess of previous peak employment. The increase between June 1939 and December 1942, the lowest and highest months in recent years, amounted to 36.6 percent, or from 373,400 to 510,300 employees. In 1943, however, the number of wage earners in the industry began to decline, as a result of losses to the armed forces and to other industries. By April 1944, despite continuing urgent need for textiles, employment was only 445, 300, or 65,000 below the earlier peak level. [2] The proportion of women working in the industry increased from 38 per 100 in October 1939 to 47 per 100 in April 1944, largely as a result of this increased demand and the loss of male employees.

Shift Operation and Incentive Pay

Two- and three-shift operation is now common in the cotton-textile industry. Over three-quarters of the mills surveyed by the Bureau in the spring and summer of 1943 were operating more than one shift; about three-fifths were working three shifts. Only about one-fifth of the mills operating more than one shift reported premium rates of pay for work on the late shifts.

Incentive pay, which is prevalent in the manufacture of cotton goods, is found somewhat more commonly in the North than in the South. Incentive workers constitute over three-quarters of the weavers, yarn winders, spinners, and doffers in the North, and about two-thirds of all workers in these occupations in the South.

[2] A further decrease of 9,500 employees occurred between April and June 1944.

Wartime Wage Trends

Average hourly earnings of workers in the cotton-goods industry amounted to 62.3 cents in April 1944—an increase of 62.2 percent over April 1939, when wages averaged 38.4 cents per hour. Eliminating from these averages the extra pay received for overtime worked, the increase was 56.0 percent, or from 38.4 cents per hour in April 1939 to 59.9 cents in April 1944. This latter increase may be contrasted with an estimated increase of 38.6 percent for all manufacturing industries in straight-time hourly earnings, from 62.2 cents in April 1939 to 86.2 cents in April 1944, after correction for overtime pay and interindustry shifts of employment.

Among the manufacturing industries for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics regularly collects wage data, only a few, such as the work-shirt and handkerchief industries, report lower average hourly earnings than are found in the manufacture of cotton textiles. The relatively low level of wages in cotton mills is accentuated somewhat by the location of a large part of the industry in lower-wage sections of the country, by the relatively low proportion of skilled workers employed, and by the large proportion of women workers in the industry.

Because of the competitive nature of the cotton-textile industry and the importance of wage differences in explaining the industry's southward trend, the relative level of wages in northern and southern mills is a matter of particular interest. Wage rates in the North have consistently exceeded southern rates, although the amount of difference has varied.

Between April 1939 and April 1944 average hourly earnings, including premium pay for overtime and work on extra shifts, increased from 44.4 cents to 72.0 cents in the North and from 36.7 cents to 60.1 cents in the South (table 1). This increase amounted to 62.2 percent in the North and 63.8 percent in the South. At the same time, the pay margin between the two regions increased from 7.7 to 11.9 cents per hour.[3]

The difference in average hourly earnings as between the North and South is influenced not only by differences in wage rates but also by differences in the type of products manufactured. Product differences influence the proportion of workers employed at the various levels of skill. Hence, it is probable that the absolute amount of the regional difference in wages, in the case of a given type of goods, might vary considerably from the gross difference that has been indicated.

In each of the two broad regions the increase in earnings reflects, among other things, the competition with the war industries for workers, and the various rulings or wage orders issued by Governmental agencies. An example of this latter type of increase was the establishment of the 32½-cent minimum under the Fair Labor Standards Act; this action was followed by increases of 2.5 cents per hour in the North and 2.6 cents per hour in the South, between October and December 1939. Subsequent orders were issued under the Fair Labor Standards Act, and by the National Defense Mediation Board. By the end of 1941, average hourly earnings had increased to 57.9 cents in the North and 48.3 cents in the South.

[3] Average hourly earnings for cotton-textile manufacturing are calculated for both the North and the South each month by the Division of Employment Statistics, and are available upon request.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in the Cotton-Goods Industry, 1939–44*

Month	Average hourly earnings (in cents)											
	1939		1940		1941		1942		1943		1944	
	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South
January	44.4	36.6	47.1	39.2	47.5	40.3	58.4	48.4	68.4	55.9	71.2	57.3
February	44.4	36.6	47.1	39.2	47.6	40.2	58.8	48.7	68.6	55.8	71.8	57.2
March	44.6	36.7	47.1	39.2	48.1	40.6	59.0	48.9	68.8	56.0	71.9	57.8
April	44.4	36.7	47.3	39.2	51.8	42.6	59.1	49.2	69.4	56.2	72.0	60.1
May	44.8	36.8	47.3	39.4	52.3	43.1	59.9	50.9	69.7	56.6	[2] 72.5	[2] 61.4
June	44.7	36.4	47.6	39.3	52.6	43.1	60.1	50.9	70.3	56.2	------	------
July	44.6	36.2	47.6	39.4	53.2	45.4	60.1	50.8	70.1	56.4	------	------
August	44.7	36.2	47.7	39.6	53.0	45.6	60.7	53.4	70.3	56.0	------	------
September	44.6	36.3	47.5	40.0	57.1	45.8	67.3	55.1	71.1	57.3	------	------
October	44.7	36.3	47.6	39.6	58.0	48.2	67.7	55.1	70.8	56.6	------	------
November	46.8	38.9	47.3	39.6	58.1	48.1	67.8	55.2	71.1	56.7	------	------
December	47.2	38.9	47.4	39.9	57.9	48.3	67.9	55.4	71.0	57.1	------	------

[1] Including premium pay for overtime and work on late shifts.
[2] Preliminary.

The next major increase, amounting to 7.6 cents per hour in the North and 4.3 cents per hour in the South, occurred between July and September of 1942, following a National War Labor Board order for a 7½-cent increase in hourly wage rates for certain specific mills.

In March 1944 the Atlanta Regional War Labor Board gave southern mills permission to make application for a 50-cent minimum wage, with additional adjustments permitted in wage rates above the minimum level. Although the effect of this latter increase is probably not fully reflected by the most recently collected wage-rate data, preliminary figures for May 1944 indicate that average hourly earnings in the Southern States amounted to 61.4 cents, an increase of 3.6 cents over the average for March 1944.

In June 1944, bracket rates for key textile occupations were established for New England by the Boston Regional War Labor Board. The stabilized rate for common labor was determined to be 52 cents per hour. Mills paying less than the stabilized rates may, upon proper application, receive permission to increase their wage rates to the permitted levels. Wage data are not yet available, to measure the effect of this order.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly Hours in the Cotton-Goods Industry, 1939–44*

Month	1939		1940		1941		1942		1943		1944	
	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South
January	37.8	36.1	37.6	36.5	38.2	37.0	41.3	40.1	42.7	41.0	43.2	41.0
February	38.0	36.0	36.4	36.2	39.0	38.2	41.6	40.7	42.7	41.2	43.4	41.4
March	37.7	36.1	36.1	35.4	39.6	38.6	41.9	40.8	42.9	41.3	43.6	41.4
April	37.0	35.2	35.3	35.0	39.3	39.3	41.6	40.9	43.2	41.5	43.1	40.9
May	35.9	35.6	34.9	34.4	40.1	39.4	42.1	40.8	43.2	41.7	[1] 43.3	[1] 41.2
June	36.6	35.5	33.7	34.0	40.0	39.5	41.6	40.8	43.4	40.9	------	------
July	37.6	35.7	36.4	34.6	39.6	38.5	41.9	40.1	42.8	40.5	------	------
August	37.3	36.4	36.6	35.2	40.0	39.2	42.0	40.5	43.4	40.5	------	------
September	38.5	37.5	37.3	36.2	39.9	39.6	40.6	40.2	43.1	40.6	------	------
October	37.8	38.1	38.1	36.9	39.0	39.5	42.0	40.3	43.4	41.1	------	------
November	38.3	37.1	36.3	37.1	37.8	39.5	41.6	40.8	43.1	41.5	------	------
December	38.5	37.4	39.0	37.8	40.4	40.2	42.5	41.1	42.6	41.5	------	------

[1] Preliminary.

The average hourly earnings shown in table 1 are gross averages—that is, they include earnings from overtime pay. These comparisons have a tendency to exaggerate the difference in the average between the regions, since mills in the North averaged somewhat longer hours than mills in the South. In April 1944, northern mills averaged 2.2 hours more work per employee per week than southern mills (table 2).

A refinement of the measure of regional differences can be obtained by eliminating premium payments for overtime work. The results of this elimination are shown in table 3, which gives the actual difference (in cents) in average hourly earnings between the North and South. The greatest differences between the gross and the straight-time averages will be found in the more recent months, after the amount of overtime worked had increased. Before 1942, the amount of extra pay resulting from overtime work was negligible.

TABLE 3.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *in the Cotton-Goods Industry, 1939–44*

Month	North	South	North minus South	Month	North	South	North minus South
1939:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	1941—Continued.	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
January	43.7	36.2	7.5	October	56.7	47.0	9.7
February	43.7	36.2	7.5	November	57.2	46.9	10.3
March	43.9	36.3	7.6	December	56.2	46.9	9.3
April	43.8	36.7	7.1	1942:			
May	44.8	36.8	8.0	January	56.3	47.0	9.2
June	44.2	36.4	7.8	February	56.4	47.1	9.3
July	43.9	36.2	7.7	March	56.5	47.3	9.2
August	44.1	35.8	8.3	April	56.7	47.5	9.2
September	43.8	35.8	8.0	May	57.3	49.2	8.1
October	44.0	35.7	8.3	June	57.7	49.2	8.5
November	46.0	38.4	7.6	July	57.5	49.4	8.1
December	46.4	38.4	8.0	August	58.1	51.7	6.4
1940:				September	65.1	53.5	11.6
January	46.4	38.7	7.7	October	64.8	53.4	11.4
February	46.5	38.8	7.7	November	65.1	53.4	11.7
March	46.6	39.2	7.4	December	64.6	53.4	11.2
April	47.3	39.2	8.1	1943:			
May	47.3	39.4	7.9	January	65.0	53.9	11.1
June	47.6	39.3	8.3	February	65.2	53.7	11.5
July	47.0	39.4	7.6	March	65.3	53.9	11.4
August	47.1	39.6	7.5	April	65.7	54.0	11.7
September	46.8	39.6	7.2	May	65.9	54.3	11.6
October	46.8	39.1	7.7	June	66.4	54.3	12.1
November	46.8	39.1	7.7	July	66.6	54.7	11.9
December	46.5	39.3	7.2	August	66.4	54.3	12.1
1941:				September	67.3	55.5	11.8
January	46.7	39.8	6.9	October	66.9	54.6	12.3
February	46.5	39.5	7.0	November	67.3	54.5	12.8
March	46.9	39.8	7.1	December	67.6	54.9	12.7
April	50.6	41.6	9.0	1944:			
May	50.8	42.0	8.8	January	67.4	55.3	12.1
June	51.1	42.0	9.1	February	67.9	55.0	12.9
July	51.8	44.5	7.3	March	67.9	55.5	12.4
August	51.5	44.5	7.0	April	68.2	58.1	10.1
September	55.6	44.6	11.0	May	[2] 68.5	[2] 59.1	[2] 9.4

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime.
[2] Preliminary.

Straight-time average hourly earnings increased from 43.8 cents to 68.2 cents, or 55.7 percent, in the North, and from 36.7 cents to 58.1 cents, or 58.3 percent, in the South, between April 1939 and the same month of 1944. Nearly half (48.6 percent) of the increase in the North, and 45.8 percent of the increase in the South, occurred prior to October 1942 when the National War Labor Board was given

legal responsibility for wage stabilization. Since the summer of 1943, the time of the Bureau's study of occupational wage rates which is discussed later in this article, straight-time hourly earnings have risen 5 percent. Most of this increase occurred in the South during the early months of 1944, following the previously mentioned decision of the War Labor Board.

Weekly earnings in the cotton-goods industry averaged $26.34 in May 1944. This is considerably below the all-manufacturing average of $46.13 and below the $37.04 average for the nondurable-goods group of industries. In spite of the relatively low level of earnings in the cotton-goods industry in 1944, the May figure represents a doubling of the prevailing earnings in 1939.

The average weekly earnings in the cotton-goods industry as a whole tend to conceal the wide difference in earnings between the North and South. For example, in May 1944 the earnings in the Northern States averaged $31.39, and in the Southern States, $25.30 (table 4). As has been indicated, in each of these regions the weekly earnings reflect the increased hourly earnings necessitated by competition with the war industries in order to attract or retain labor.

TABLE 4.—*Average Weekly Earnings* [1] *in the Cotton-Goods Industry, 1939–44*

Month	1939		1940		1941		1942		1943		1944	
	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South
January	$16.78	$13.21	$17.71	$14.31	$18.15	$14.91	$24.12	$19.41	$29.21	$22.92	$30.76	$23.49
February	16.87	13.18	17.14	14.19	18.56	15.36	24.46	19.82	29.29	22.99	31.16	23.68
March	16.81	13.25	17.00	13.88	19.05	15.67	24.72	19.95	29.52	23.13	31.35	23.93
April	16.43	12.92	16.70	13.72	20.36	16.74	24.59	20.12	29.98	23.32	31.03	24.58
May	16.08	13.10	16.51	13.55	20.97	16.98	25.22	20.77	30.11	23.60	[2] 31.39	[2] 25.30
June	16.36	12.92	16.04	13.36	21.04	17.02	25.00	20.77	30.51	22.99	-------	-------
July	16.77	12.92	17.33	13.63	21.07	17.48	25.18	20.37	30.00	22.84	-------	-------
August	16.67	13.18	17.46	13.94	21.20	17.88	25.49	21.63	30.51	22.68	-------	-------
September	17.17	13.61	17.72	14.48	22.78	18.14	27.32	22.15	30.64	23.26	-------	-------
October	16.90	13.83	18.14	14.61	22.62	19.04	28.43	22.21	30.73	23.26	-------	-------
November	17.92	14.43	17.17	14.69	21.96	19.00	28.20	22.52	30.64	23.53	-------	-------
December	18.17	14.55	18.49	15.08	23.39	19.42	28.86	22.77	30.25	23.70	-------	-------

[1] Including premium pay for overtime and work on late shifts.
[2] Preliminary.

Variation in Average Hourly Earnings Within Regions

The general averages of hourly earnings for the North and South, just cited, fail to reveal the wide variations in the averages for the several areas included in each region. A special study of 12 Southern States shows that Mississippi had the lowest average hourly earnings, 49.4 cents, in May 1944, while South Carolina, Kentucky, and Tennessee headed the list with 64.5 cents, 62.5 cents, and 61.6 cents, respectively. These State averages do not necessarily indicate comparable differences in wages paid for specific occupations. For example the presence of a large proportion of yarn mills within a given area may reduce the average of hourly earnings solely because of differences in the composition of the labor force.

The Bureau has just completed an analysis of 66 separate areas important in the cotton-textile manufacturing industry. Eighteen of these areas are in the North and 48 in the South. The results of a part of this analysis are shown in tables 5 and 6. In order to determine the extent of recent wage increases, a comparison of average hourly earnings for identical establishments has been made for the months of April 1943 and April 1944.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings and Employment in 18 Northern Areas of the Cotton-Textile Industry, in Identical Mills, April 1943 and April 1944* [1]

Area	Average hourly earnings [2]		Increase in average hourly earnings	Employment (in thousands)	
	April 1943	April 1944		April 1943	April 1944
			Cents		
Pennsylvania (except Philadelphia)	58.5	62.8	4.3	0.9	0.7
New Jersey, State	61.5	67.2	5.7	.8	.6
Baltimore, Md	62.4	64.9	2.5	2.9	2.4
Illinois, State	63.1	70.9	7.8	.2	.2
Massachusetts [3]	65.8	67.6	1.8	2.5	2.3
Lowell-Lawrence, Mass.–Manchester N. H	66.4	68.7	2.3	7.6	6.5
Worcester, Mass	66.7	73.7	7.0	1.0	.9
Boston-Salem-Newton, Mass	68.0	69.8	1.8	4.9	3.9
Maine, State [4]	68.3	71.0	2.7	9.5	8.1
New York [4]	68.8	70.4	1.6	2.2	1.9
New Bedford, Mass.[4]	70.0	72.2	2.2	13.5	11.4
Holyoke, Mass	70.4	72.9	2.5	1.5	1.3
Fall River-Taunton, Mass.[4]	70.7	72.4	1.7	11.0	9.5
Fitchburg-Winchendon Springs, Mass	70.7	72.2	1.5	1.2	1.1
Norwich-Grosvenor Dale, Conn.[4]	72.2	73.0	.8	5.8	5.1
Rhode Island [4]	72.7	77.1	4.4	9.3	7.6
New York, N. Y	74.5	77.5	3.0	3.8	3.0
Philadelphia, Pa	77.5	82.3	4.8	1.2	1.1

[1] Data are from the Bureau's report, Employment, Hours, and Earnings, and Turnover Rates in Cotton Goods, by Areas, January 1942–April 1944.
[2] Including overtime pay at premium rates and shift differentials.
[3] Covers areas not elsewhere listed.
[4] Denotes an area covered in the study based upon occupational wage rates, to be found in the following pages.

Increases in average hourly earnings ranged from 0.8 cents to 7.8 cents per hour in the northern areas represented, the smallest increase occurring in Connecticut, and the greatest in the case of a limited number of workers in Illinois.

The areas in the South showed increases in average hourly earnings ranging from 0.1 cents to 8.5 cents. As is the case in the broader areas previously discussed, the difference between areas is caused by variation in the number of hours worked, the type of product manufactured, and local competition for labor by other industries.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Earnings and Employment in 48 Southern Areas of the Cotton-Textile Industry, in Identical Mills, April 1943 and April 1944* [1]

Area	Average hourly earnings (in cents) [2]		Increase in average hourly earnings	Employment (in thousands)	
	April 1943	April 1944		April 1943	April 1944
			Cents		
Newnan, Ga.	48.9	49.6	0.7	3.2	2.9
Mississippi, State	49.8	50.4	.6	2.0	1.9
Arkansas, State	49.8	50.9	1.1	.9	.7
Dallas, Tex.	51.0	56.9	5.9	2.0	1.3
Albemarle-Troy, N. C.	51.6	59.4	7.8	4.8	4.6
Granite Falls-Lenoir, N. C.[3]	51.7	54.6	2.9	3.6	3.5
Virginia [4]	51.9	57.0	5.1	2.1	2.2
Georgia [4]	52.5	53.0	.5	4.6	4.0
Laurinburg, N. C.-Dillon, S. C.	52.5	53.1	.6	4.1	3.8
Fayetteville, N. C.	52.6	52.8	.2	1.1	1.0
Lanett, Ala.-LaGrange, Ga.	52.8	58.1	5.3	19.2	17.7
Rockingham, N. C.	52.9	56.3	3.4	3.6	3.2
Macon-Forsyth, Ga.[3]	53.0	53.6	.6	3.5	3.2
Athens-Gainesville, Ga.	53.0	56.5	3.5	4.8	4.9
Texas [4]	53.2	55.4	2.2	3.0	2.7
Monroe, Ga.	53.7	55.2	1.5	3.4	3.3
Gaffney, S. C.-Shelby, N. C.	54.2	55.1	.9	8.5	8.5
Winston-Salem-Lexington, N. C.[3]	54.4	59.3	4.9	2.6	2.2
North Carolina [4]	54.4	56.4	2.0	8.6	8.1
Columbus, Ga.	54.7	55.9	1.2	12.6	10.3
Alabama [4]	55.1	56.2	1.1	18.9	17.8
Lincolnton-Newton N. C.[3]	55.1	58.6	3.5	2.6	2.5
Gastonia, N. C.[3]	55.2	61.7	6.5	18.3	16.8
Sylacauga-Talladega, Ala.	55.3	55.5	.2	7.8	6.8
Statesville-Salisbury, N. C.[3]	55.4	62.1	6.7	4.8	4.5
Rome-Cartersville-Cedartown, Ga.	55.5	62.5	7.0	14.9	13.9
Roanoke Rapids-Warrenton, N. C.[3]	55.6	58.7	3.1	4.6	4.1
Atlanta, Ga.[3]	56.2	62.9	6.7	7.2	5.8
Rock Hill-Chester, S. C.	56.4	59.7	3.3	5.6	5.2
Tennessee [4]	56.5	60.4	3.9	6.8	5.4
Lancaster, S. C.-Monroe, N. C.	56.6	61.0	4.4	11.0	10.1
Huntsville, Ala.[3]	57.1	57.2	.1	3.0	2.6
Anderson, S. C.	57.4	62.4	5.0	9.7	9.4
Walhalla-Pickens, S. C.	57.5	60.6	3.1	4.3	4.3
Anniston-Gadsden, Ala.	57.6	58.3	.7	5.8	5.4
Griffin-Thomaston, Ga.	57.6	64.3	6.7	10.0	9.0
Greenwood-Newberry, S. C.	57.8	62.5	4.7	10.5	10.0
South Carolina [4]	57.9	58.3	.4	1.6	1.6
Chattanooga, Tenn.	58.0	60.8	2.8	5.3	4.9
Charlotte, N. C.[3]	58.3	63.6	5.3	4.4	3.9
Burlington-Hillsboro-Durham, N. C.	58.4	60.7	2.3	9.4	8.0
Augusta, Ga.-Graniteville, S. C.	58.8	60.7	1.9	6.7	5.8
Reidsville, N. C.-Danville, Va.[4]	59.6	63.9	4.3	17.7	14.3
Columbia, S. C.	59.9	64.5	4.6	7.5	6.8
Greenville, S. C.[3]	60.1	64.7	4.6	8.0	7.5
Spartanburg, S. C.[3]	60.2	62.3	2.1	15.0	13.8
Greensboro, N. C.[3]	61.4	69.3	7.9	7.1	6.4
Concord, N. C.[3]	61.7	70.2	8.5	22.1	19.0

[1] Data are from the Bureau's report, Employment, Hours and Earnings, and Turnover Rates in Cotton Goods, by Areas, January 1942–April 1944.

[2] Including overtime pay at punitive rates, and shift differentials.

[3] Denotes an area covered in the study based upon occupational wage rates, to be found in the following pages.

[4] Covers areas not elsewhere listed.

Occupational Wage Rates

Method of study.—In the summer of 1943, as part of the Bureau's nation-wide study of occupational wage rates, hourly rates and straight-time hourly earnings in the cotton-goods industry were obtained for 6 northern and 10 southern areas. The study covered the various types of mills engaged in the manufacture of cotton broad woven goods [4] and cotton yarn. Thread mills, situated principally in the northern States, were excluded.

The wage data were compiled from pay rolls of 233 mills by field representatives of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, who visited the individual establishments and classified the workers in accordance with the Bureau's standard job descriptions.

The occupational data relate to a July 1943 pay-roll period in the case of two northern areas (Maine, and Utica-Gloversville, N. Y.) and all of the southern areas except Atlanta, Ga. The latter city and the remainder of the northern areas were surveyed in April 1943.

The information obtained consisted of average hourly earnings including incentive payments but excluding premium payments for overtime or late-shift work. Average hourly earnings were obtained for 20 selected key occupational classifications, including half of the wage earners in the mills. Because of the greater concentration of workers in relatively few occupations in yarn mills, the proportion of workers covered in such establishments was somewhat greater than in broad-goods mills.

Representativeness of areas studied.—The information on occupational wage rates presented at this time is limited primarily to cities of 25,000 or more and to their immediately surrounding communities. Since this particular field study was intended mainly to provide information on a wage-area (community) basis, it is emphasized that the data do not represent those segments of the industry that are in relatively isolated, small communities. The survey provides a somewhat poorer representation of southern than of northern textile mills. Thus, in Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina, where much of the industry is scattered in communities of less than 25,000, the coverage of the study is less adequate than that obtained in North Carolina or Virginia.

Comparison of the average hourly earnings of wage earners in the areas surveyed with the level of earnings for wage earners in the entire industry reveals that wage levels in the communities studied were somewhat higher than in the industry as a whole (tables 5 and 6). Since the overstatement of wage levels was slightly greater in the South than in the North, the data also understate slightly the differences in wage levels between northern and southern communities. Within each region the variations in wage levels were also less pronounced among the areas surveyed than those which would be found in a survey covering all wage areas in the industry.

In July 1943, the straight-time earnings of the workers in the six selected northern areas averaged 67.7 cents, or 1.1 cents more than the average wage for all northern cotton-textile wage earners as a group. The cotton-textile workers in the selected southern areas averaged 56.9 cents, or 2.2 cents above the corresponding figure for all wage earners in the cotton-textile industry in the South. Recent wage increases which have taken place would tend to make the occupational averages more representative of the entire South, although somewhat below those now found in the specific areas covered.

Unionization in plants studied.—One-fourth of the mills included in the Bureau's study of wage rates were operating under the terms of union agreements. Unionization was much more extensive in the North than in the South; 43 of the 58 mills surveyed in the New England–New York State region had entered into agreements with unions, whereas only 17 of the 175 southern mills had done so.

Unionization in the South had made greater progress among the integrated mills than among the independent weaving and independent yarn mills. Since the former are typically larger, the proportion of

[4] Except in one northern and two southern areas the survey excluded establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture of pile fabrics. Wages in mills manufacturing this product in these areas did not differ appreciably from those in other mills in the same area.

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wage earners covered by union agreements, 1 out of 5, was considerably greater than would be indicated by the number of mills with such contracts. Although one or more unionized mills were found in 6 of the 10 southern wage areas studied, the workers covered by agreements in the mills studied in that region were largely concentrated in three areas: Danville, Va.; Greenville and Spartanburg, S. C.; and the Tennessee Valley area of northern Alabama. Of 118 mills studied in North Carolina, only 4 had union contracts. All of the 15 mills surveyed in the 3 Georgia areas were nonunion.

OCCUPATIONAL VARIATIONS

A summary of the occupational wage-rate study is presented in table 7. These data, as has been mentioned, represent wage levels during the spring and summer of 1943, and do not reflect subsequent upward adjustments which have been of importance primarily in the South. The figures presented for the northern and southern regions represent weighted averages of the data for only the individual areas studied.

TABLE 7.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Occupations in Cotton-Goods Manufacture in Northern and Southern Wage Areas, Spring and Summer, 1943*

Sex and occupation of worker	6 northern areas		10 southern areas		Excess of North over South	
	Number of workers [2]	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers [2]	Average hourly earnings	Amount	Percent
Male workers:						
Card grinders	263	$0.75	1,119	$0.65	$0.10	15
Card tenders and strippers	775	.63	3,717	.51	.12	24
Carpenters, class A	49	.93	109	.70	.23	33
Carpenters, class B	110	.82	350	.60	.22	37
Doffers, spinning frame	805	.74	6,868	.57	.17	30
Electricians, class A	48	.99	79	.79	.20	25
Electricians, class B	39	.88	142	.67	.21	31
Inspectors, cloth, hand	[3]	[3]	246	.52		
Inspectors, cloth, machine	[3]	[3]	205	.50		
Janitors [4]	358	.52	2,241	.44	.08	18
Loom fixers, other than Jacquard	1,694	.98	3,796	.75	.23	31
Machinists, class A	104	.95	239	.79	.16	20
Machinists, class B	98	.81	348	.65	.16	25
Second hands	590	.97	3,000	.73	.24	33
Spinners, ring frame	413	.67	187	.53	.14	26
Stock clerks	130	.59	569	.52	.07	13
Truckers, hand	624	.55	2,133	.45	.10	22
Watchmen	229	.58	981	.47	.11	23
Weavers, other than Jacquard	2,648	.80	4,292	.64	.16	25
Winders, yarn	107	.66	207	.51	.15	29
Female workers:						
Doffers, spinning frame	525	.64	431	.49	.15	31
Inspectors, cloth, hand	992	.53	1,347	.49	.04	8
Inspectors, cloth, machine	577	.52	1,650	.56	.04	7
Janitresses [4]	76	.52	423	.43	.09	21
Spinners, ring frame	3,294	.63	16,886	.52	.11	21
Stock clerks	21	.54	77	.49	.05	10
Truckers, hand	48	.54	[3]	[3]		
Weavers, other than Jacquard	2,790	.75	6,372	.62	.13	21
Winders, yarn	3,006	.63	10,435	.52	.11	21

[1] Excluding premium payments for overtime and for work on second or third shifts.
[2] Represents estimated total employment in all mills in areas covered by survey.
[3] Number of establishments and/or workers too small to justify presentation of data.
[4] Including cleaners and sweepers.

It is of interest that none of the key occupations covered in this survey paid an average wage as high as $1 per hour. The highest wages were paid to maintenance workers. Class A maintenance electricians averaged 99 cents in the North and 79 cents in the South. Class A maintenance machinists in the South also averaged 79 cents.

The lowest-paid workers were janitors and janitresses, each of whom earned 52 cents in the North and 44 and 43 cents, respectively, in the South. Loom fixers and second hands were the highest-paid workers whose jobs are characteristic of the industry. Watchmen and hand truckers received a few cents more on the average than did janitors. Among the numerically most important occupational classifications, male weavers showed earnings of 80 cents in the North and 64 cents in the South, female weavers averaged 75 cents in the North and 62 cents in the South, and female spinners earned 63 cents in the North and 52 cents in the South. All occupations in the North and all male occupational categories in the South, except janitors, watchmen, and hand truckers, averaged more than 50 cents an hour.

Although wages in the North were higher than those in the South in every category, the difference varied by occupation. The smallest differences were found in the occupations of female cloth inspectors and stock clerks, while the largest were found among carpenters, second hands, Class B electricians, loom fixers, and doffers. The differential was, in general, larger among the skilled jobs than among the unskilled. The median difference (unweighted) was about 23.5 percent.[5]

TABLE 8.—*Indexes of Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Occupations in Cotton-Goods Manufacture in Northern and Southern Wage Areas, Spring and Summer of 1943*

Sex and occupation of worker	Relative earnings (male hand truckers=100)		Sex and occupation of worker	Relative earnings (male hand truckers=100)	
	Six northern areas	Ten southern areas		Six northern areas	Ten southern areas
Males:			Males—Continued.		
Loom fixers, other than Jacquard	178	167	Janitors	95	98
Second hands	176	162	Truckers, hand	100	100
Weavers, other than Jacquard	145	142	Females:		
Card grinders	136	144	Weavers, other than Jacquard	136	138
Doffers, spinning frame	135	127	Spinners, ring frame	115	116
Card tenders and strippers	115	113	Winders, yarn	96	109
Stock clerks	107	116	Inspectors, cloth, hand	95	124
Watchmen	105	104	Inspectors, cloth, machine		

[1] Earnings exclude premium payments for overtime or for work on second or third shifts.

The variation in earnings among the numerically most important occupations is shown in relative form in table 8, which expresses the average wage rate for each job in terms of the earnings for male hand truckers. This occupation was selected as the base because of its wage stability and because it is one of the lower-paid occupations in the industry, which employs relatively large numbers of workers. Analysis of table 8 indicates that the variation in earnings among these important occupational classifications was relatively consistent

[5] Part of the variation in hourly earnings between the North and South may be attributed to the concentration of cotton-yarn mills in southern textile areas. Wage materials collected in this and previous studies of the wage structure of the cotton-goods industry indicate that wage rates for a given occupation are generally lower in independent yarn mills than in integrated mills. In the Bureau's mimeographed release entitled "Cotton Broad Woven Goods and Yarn Mills: Five Southeastern States, Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings, Selected Occupations, July 1943," occupational earnings are presented separately for integrated and for yarn mills. These differences are also discussed in the earlier report on the industry, Wages in Cotton-Goods Manufacturing (Bulletin 663), and in Hours and Earnings in Manufacture of Cotton Goods, September 1940 and April 1941 (Serial No. R. 1414).

in the North and South among most of the lower-paid job categories, female cloth inspectors being a notable exception to this statement. There was somewhat less consistency in the case of the higher-paid occupations. The relative earnings of the two highest-paid major jobs—those of loom fixers and second hands—were distinctly higher in the North than in the South, the relatives being 178 and 176, respectively, in the North, as compared with 167 and 162 in the South. Doffers also had somewhat higher relative earnings in the North, resulting in part from the greater importance of incentive pay for this occupation in the North. The rates paid to card grinders in the North appear to have been relatively low.

OCCUPATIONAL RATES, BY WAGE AREA

Occupational averages for the individual wage areas are presented in table 9. It is apparent from this table that the variations among the individual areas surveyed within the same region are in general less pronounced than the North-South wage differences noted above. Somewhat greater differences between the wage levels within each of the two major regions might have been shown if the survey had included cotton mills located in relatively isolated small communities.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Occupations in Cotton-Goods Manufacture in 16 Wage Areas, Spring and Summer of 1943*

Sex and occupation of worker	Northern areas						Southern areas	
	Norwich-Danielson (Conn.) area	Maine area	Fall River (Mass.) area	New Bedford (Mass.) area	Utica-Gloversville (N. Y.) area [2]	Providence (R. I.) area	Tennessee Valley area of northern Alabama	Atlanta (Ga.) area
Males								
Card grinders	$0.72	$0.77	$0.79	$0.73	$0.70	$0.74	$0.63	$0.62
Card tenders and strippers	.62	.59	.65	.63	.59	.67	.56	.48
Carpenters, maintenance, class A	.85	.98	1.01	.94	(3)	.94	-------	-------
Carpenters, maintenance, class B	.81	.87	.78	.90	.88	.77	-------	.57
Doffers, spinning frame	.61	.65	.76	.76	.78	.74	.58	.64
Electricians, maintenance, class A	1.04	1.01	1.12	.97	1.03	.94	-------	-------
Electricians, maintenance, class B	.86	.88	.92	-------	-------	.84	-------	.64
Inspectors, cloth, hand	.63	-------	(3)	(3)	-------	(3)	(3)	.48
Inspectors, cloth, machine	-------	-------	-------	.54	-------	-------	-------	.47
Janitors [4]	.52	.69	.50	.53	.51	.56	.46	.43
Loom fixers, other than Jacquard	.92	.96	.98	.98	1.05	1.00	.69	.67
Machinists, maintenance, class A	.91	.99	-------	.95	1.08	.93	-------	.89
Machinists, maintenance, class B	.77	.88	.78	.88	.86	.79	-------	.64
Second hands	.98	1.02	.92	1.00	(3)	.94	.84	.74
Spinners, ring frame	.62	.72	.61	.76	-------	-------	.49	(1)
Stock clerks	.60	.63	.56	.58	.58	.62	.49	.45
Truckers, hand	.55	.52	.51	.54	.55	.59	.48	.45
Watchmen	.57	.62	.54	.60	.56	.59	.48	.45
Weavers, other than Jacquard	.81	.78	.79	.79	.81	.83	.60	.53
Winders, yarn	.61	-------	.65	.68	-------	(3)	.54	.58
Females								
Doffers, spinning frame	.60	.65	-------	.67	.60	.68	-------	-------
Inspectors, cloth, hand	.51	.53	.52	.54	-------	.51	(3)	-------
Inspectors, cloth, machine	.52	.52	.52	.52	-------	.52	-------	(3)
Janitresses [4]	-------	(3)	-------	.53	.52	.52	.48	-------
Spinners, ring frame	.61	.64	.58	.66	.66	.67	.53	.50
Stock clerks	.52	-------	-------	.55	-------	-------	.47	(3)
Truckers, hand	.60	-------	-------	.54	-------	.53	-------	-------
Weavers, other than Jacquard	.76	.73	.72	.76	.77	.75	.55	.50
Winders, yarn	.60	.59	.56	.67	.62	.68	.55	.49

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Occupations in Cotton-Goods Manufacture in 16 Wage Areas, Spring and Summer of 1943*—Continued

Sex and occupation of worker	Southern areas—Continued							
	Augusta (Ga.) area	Macon (Ga.) area	Burlington-Winton-Salem (N. C.) area	Charlotte (N. C.) area	Rocky Mount (N. C.) area [2]	Statesville (N. C.) area	Greenville-Spartanburg (S. C.) area [2]	Danville (Va.) area
Males								
Card grinders	$0.67	$0.58	$0.66	$0.64	$0.66	$0.59	$0.69	$0.65
Card tenders and strippers	.51	.49	.53	.49	.47	.49	.50	.54
Carpenters, maintenance, class A	-------	-------	.67	.66	(3)	.85	.70	.75
Carpenters, maintenance, class B	.70	-------	.57	.54	.64	.55	.60	.70
Doffers, spinning frame	.59	.48	.62	.54	.57	.55	.59	.57
Electricians, maintenance, class A	-------	-------	.73	.80	(3)	.63	.82	.94
Electricians, maintenance, class B	.80	-------	.59	.62	.68	-------	.65	.72
Inspectors, cloth, hand	-------	(3)	.59	.52	-------	.47	.51	.59
Inspectors, cloth, machine	-------	-------	.50	.65	(3)	.51	.50	.48
Janitors [4]	.41	.40	.47	.42	.43	.45	.45	.45
Loom fixers, other than Jacquard	.75	.63	.77	.79	.71	.77	.74	.77
Machinists, maintenance, class A	-------	1.25	.76	.77	.76	.86	.76	.83
Machinists, maintenance, class B	.75	.65	.58	.62	.63	.61	.68	.76
Second hands	.86	.65	.78	.66	.70	.66	.83	.78
Spinners, ring frame	-------	-------	-------	.50	-------	.57	-------	-------
Stock clerks	.59	.46	.53	.58	.55	.49	.53	.52
Truckers, hand	.42	.44	.47	.43	.42	.45	.46	.46
Watchmen	.51	.42	.49	.43	.46	.44	.49	.49
Weavers, other than Jacquard	.62	-------	.65	.68	.61	.66	.66	.60
Winders, yarn	-------	-------	.48	-------	.52	.50	-------	-------
Females								
Doffers, spinning frame	-------	-------	.56	.52	-------	.51	-------	.42
Inspectors, cloth, hand	.50	.47	.48	.47	(3)	.45	.49	.52
Inspectors, cloth, machine	.48	-------	.49	.66	.46	.52	.51	.53
Janitresses [4]	-------	-------	-------	.43	.40	.43	.45	.42
Spinners, ring frame	.53	.52	.54	.51	.49	.49	.52	.54
Stock clerks	-------	-------	-------	.50	.54	.44	.52	.50
Truckers, hand	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	.42	-------	-------
Weavers, other than Jacquard	.61	.61	.62	.67	.58	.64	.63	.58
Winders, yarn	.49	.53	.54	.52	.47	.48	.51	.55

[1] Excluding premium payments for overtime and for work on second or third shifts.
[2] Includes establishments primarily engaged in manufacturing pile fabrics. Data for other areas do not cover such establishments.
[3] Number of establishments and/or workers too small to justify the computation of an average.
[4] Including cleaners and sweepers.

No one area either in the North or in the South consistently paid the lowest or highest rates in its region. In general, however, wage rates in the North appear to have been highest in the Providence area and lowest in the Norwich-Danielson and Fall River areas. In the South the highest general levels prevailed in the Burlington-Winston-Salem area and the lowest in the Atlanta and Rocky Mount Areas. Weighted averages based on 11 occupational categories common to all areas are presented below:

	Average [1]		Average [1]
North:		South—Continued.	
Norwich-Danielson, Conn	$0.65	Augusta, Ga	$0.55
Maine	.66	Macon, Ga	.53
Fall River, Mass	.65	Burlington-Winston-Salem, N. C	.57
New Bedford, Mass	.70	Charlotte, N. C	.55
Utica-Gloversville, N. Y	.69	Rocky Mount, N. C	.52
Providence, R. I	.71	Statesville, N. C	.53
South:		Greenville - Spartanburg, S. C	.55
Tennessee Valley of Alabama	.55	Danville, Va	.56
Atlanta, Ga	.52		

[1] Weighted averages, based on rates in the following occupational categories: Card grinders, male; card tenders and strippers, male; doffers, spinning frame, male; janitors, male; loom fixers, other than Jacquard, male; stock clerks, male; truckers, hand, male; watchmen; spinners, ring frame, female; weavers, other than Jacquard, female; and winders, yarn, female. Uniform occupational weights were used in all areas.

Wages in the Connecticut Valley Brass Industry, April 1943[1]

Summary

A STUDY of wages in 18 brass plants in the Connecticut Valley in April 1943 reveals wide variations in straight-time earnings among occupations, the range being from 73 cents an hour for watchmen to $1.48 for casters. Seventy percent of the workers were in occupations averaging between 90 cents and $1.10 an hour. The prevalence of incentive-wage payment exercises a considerable influence on the level of wages in this industry and explains, in part at least, the rather wide interplant variations in average hourly earnings.

Between August 1941 and April 1943, there was a median increase in occupational earnings of 11.8 percent. Eighteen of the 27 occupations on which the comparison is based showed increases of 5 to 15 percent.

Characteristics of the Industry

Copper was among the earliest metals used by man and, although not consumed on the same scale as steel, it is one of the most important of all metals used in the manufacture of both peace- and war-time products. Certain physical characteristics of copper contribute to its importance: it is noncorrosive, has a low melting point, is easily worked hot or cold, and can be combined with many other metals to form various alloys. Its superior electrical conductivity makes it indispensable to the electrical and communication industries.

Copper and copper-base products are now almost exclusively reserved for military use. Countless implements of war are made in whole or in part of copper and copper alloys. The largest single wartime use of copper is in brass cartridge cases. Because the Nation's supply of copper has been insufficient to meet both civilian and essential military needs, copper and copper-base alloys have been under priority control by the Government since 1941.

The first plants manufacturing copper-finished products in the United States were situated in New England. The Connecticut Valley has retained its advantage of an early start and is today the center of the industry. This study is concerned with but one portion of that industry—the rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys.

Copper comes from the refining furnaces in the form of ingots or slabs. In the plants manufacturing copper alloys, the copper is combined with other metals to form the desired alloy before any further processing is done. For example, zinc and lead are combined with copper to produce a variety of brasses, while different types of bronzes result from combinations of copper with tin, lead, zinc, and aluminum. After alloying, the metal is recast into convenient form—ingots, slabs, billets, or bars. In rolling mills, the copper is heated and passed through a series of rolls which reduce its thickness and increase its length until a sheet of the desired size is obtained. In wire mills, the heated bars are first reduced on a rolling mill. The resulting rod is then drawn through a series of successively smaller

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Edith M. Olsen and Mary Elizabeth Brown.

dies (wire-drawing machines) until wire of the desired tolerance is obtained. Billets are made into tubes and pipes on either a seamless-tube mill or an extrusion press.

Scope and Method of Survey

The information presented in this report was collected as part of the Bureau's occupational wage-rate survey, which covered characteristic industries in cities of 25,000 or more. Eighteen plants in Connecticut came within the scope of the survey and all of these were covered. Fourteen of these plants were engaged primarily in the rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys. The other four plants were divisions of integrated plants whose major products fell into other industry groups.

Wage data were obtained for selected key occupations which are believed to be representative of the skill and earnings levels of the industry. Each of these occupations was found in almost all of the plants; the covered occupations include nearly 8,000 workers, or approximately half of all workers employed in the rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys in these plants. The wage data relate to a representative pay-roll period in April 1943.

Visits to the individual plants were made by experienced field representatives of the Bureau, who transcribed the wage data from pay-roll and other plant records. In classifying the workers by occupation, standard job descriptions were used in order to assure maximum comparability of occupational duties from plant to plant.

The Labor Force

The number of employees in the 18 plants studied ranged from 65 to about 3,000. Two-thirds of these plants had more than 251 workers. With the exception of the office personnel, male workers constituted the greater part of the labor force of the industry in Connecticut. Although a few women were found in processing occupations in 6 of the 18 plants, separate wage data for women workers can be shown for only three occupations. Operators of various specialized machines constitute a large proportion of the labor force in these plants. The operations involved in rolling are the most skilled and require considerable experience and training. Important though less-skilled occupations are those of crane operators and truckers, since at all stages of the processing materials must be handled and transported from operation to operation.

Eleven of the 18 plants were operating under collective-bargaining agreements with the International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers, a C. I. O. affiliate. These 11 plants accounted for 90 percent of the workers for whom detailed occupational information is shown.

Wage-Payment Practices

"Take-home" earnings of workers in the rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys are influenced appreciably by the number of hours worked, premium payments for overtime and late-shift work, and the prevalence of incentive-wage systems. These factors varied considerably among the plants studied.

The length of the normal workweek was 48 hours in 10 of the 18 plants, and in the other 8 ranged from 46.2 to 70 a week. All plants paid time and a half for hours worked in excess of 8 a day or 40 a week, and double time for the seventh consecutive day of work. Work on the six national holidays was paid for at the rate of time and a half by 17 plants, and at straight time by the other.

All plants operated more than one shift; 14 were on a three-shift and 4 on a two-shift basis. First- or day-shift workers, however, comprised about 60 percent of the total working force in these plants, while the second and third shifts accounted for about 25 and 15 percent, respectively. In eight plants, the hourly rate for late-shift workers exceeded those of the day shift by 5 percent, and in eight other plants by 5 cents. One plant paid no shift differential, while in the remaining plant, the differential was 5 and 10 percent, respectively, for the second and third shifts. A third of the plants reported periodic rotation of shifts by the workers.

Incentive methods of wage payment were found in 16 of the plants studied and affected the earnings of slightly more than half of the workers for whom occupational wage data are shown in this report. These incentive workers were either paid on a piece-work basis or received bonus payments for production in excess of standard performance.

Nonproduction bonuses, usually in the form of Christmas bonuses, were reported for all plants; in four plants, however, these bonuses applied to office and supervisory workers only. These annual nonproduction bonuses have not been taken into consideration in computing the straight-time average hourly earnings presented in the study.

Minimum entrance rates for inexperienced male workers ranged from 65 to 81 cents an hour; two-thirds of the plants had minimum entrance rates ranging from 70 to 75 cents an hour. Rates for inexperienced women workers in the plants reporting this information ranged from 55 to 76 cents an hour. With the exception of two plants, where the rates for both sexes were identical, established entrance rates for women were lower than for men by 10 to 14.2 cents an hour. Wage increases above the entrance rate were determined on the basis of individual merit in 11 plants. In six of the seven other plants, the rate was increased by 2 to 6 cents an hour after 1 to 3 months, and in the remaining plant, the job rate for each occupation was reached after 1 month.

All of the 18 plants reported established entrance rates for male common labor. Entrance rates for these workers ranged from 55 to 81 cents an hour, with 11 plants paying between 70 and 75 cents an hour.

Average Hourly Earnings

Straight-time average hourly earnings are shown in table 1 for 7,390 workers, classified into 50 selected occupational groups. Averages for male workers ranged from 73 cents an hour for watchmen to $1.48 for casters. Hourly earnings for the three occupations yielding separate averages for women (plate, sheet, and strip inspectors, tube inspectors and electric-bridge crane operators) averaged 75, 91, and 98 cents, respectively, for the women workers. The average hourly earnings for male workers in the same three occupations amounted to 96, 98, and 99 cents, respectively.

TABLE 1.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations, in Rolling and Drawing of Copper and Copper Alloys, Connecticut, April 1943*

Occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings		
		General average	Lowest plant average	Highest plant average
Maintenance:				
Carpenters, class A	41	$1.05	$1.00	$1.20
Carpenters, class B	27	.96	.81	1.06
Electricians, class A	54	1.12	.95	1.29
Electricians, class B	49	.95	.78	1.01
Machinists, class A	168	1.12	1.05	1.22
Machinists, class B	143	.94	.80	1.03
Millwrights, class A	51	1.03	.88	1.30
Millwrights, class B	25	.91	.78	.94
Oilers	47	.89	.85	.92
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments	157	1.09	.89	1.61
Processing:				
Annealers	331	1.01	.85	1.24
Annealers' helpers	442	.92	.70	1.11
Blockers	278	.92	.72	1.14
Casters	520	1.48	.90	2.27
Casters' helpers	430	1.33	.80	2.00
Catchers, cold-roll	63	1.16	.78	1.55
Die makers, class A	38	1.19	.82	1.27
Die makers, class B	17	1.03	.92	1.06
Extrusion-press operators	30	1.20	1.09	1.25
Furnace operators, preheating	31	1.15	.85	1.37
Picklers	214	.94	.80	1.09
Rod drawers	26	1.02	.88	1.05
Rod-pointing operators	37	.98	.83	1.20
Rod rollers, break-down and intermediate	8	.95	.84	1.27
Rod rollers, finishing	7	.93	.84	1.21
Rollers, cold-roll, break-down and run-down	72	1.21	.86	1.75
Rollers, cold-roll, finishing	150	1.25	.87	1.50
Rollers, hot-roll, break-down and run-down	25	1.28	1.04	1.51
Rollers, hot-roll, finishing	38	1.32	(1)	(1)
Saw operators, power	272	.99	.80	1.24
Shearmen, power	107	1.08	.88	1.50
Slitter operators	151	.96	.71	1.10
Stickers, hot-roll and cold-roll	274	1.02	.78	1.65
Straighteners, machine	185	1.01	.70	1.25
Tube drawers (draw-bench operators)	740	1.06	.84	1.30
Tube-pointing operators	201	.90	.83	1.26
Inspection and testing:				
Inspectors, plate, sheet, and strip	112	.96	.75	1.22
Inspectors, plate, sheet, and strip, female	35	.75	(1)	(1)
Inspectors, rod	41	.87	.80	1.10
Inspectors, tube	217	.98	.84	1.29
Inspectors, tube, female	45	.91	(1)	(1)
Material movement:				
Crane operators, electric bridge	607	.99	.79	1.32
Crane operators, electric bridge, female	34	.98	.90	1.02
Truck drivers	69	1.00	.75	1.11
Truckers, hand	106	.99	.83	1.11
Truckers, power	242	1.01	.82	1.24
Custodial:				
Guards	304	.88	.75	.98
Janitors	101	.86	.73	.95
Watchmen	8	.73	.47	.87
Recording and control: Stock clerks	23	.86	.75	.88

[1] Average omitted to avoid disclosure of data for individual establishments.

Approximately four-tenths of the workers were found in occupations averaging between 90 cents and $1.00 an hour, and three-tenths were in occupations which averaged between $1.00 and $1.10. Occupational averages for only one-twelfth of the workers were less than 90 cents an hour, and somewhat more than two-tenths were employed in the 12 occupations for which average earnings exceeded $1.10 an hour.

Among the workers engaged in processing occupations, about three-tenths were classified in the occupations with averages amounting to more than $1.10 an hour. Average hourly earnings for tube drawers

and electric-bridge crane operators, numerically the most important occupations, were $1.06 and 99 cents, respectively. Casters, who were paid the highest average hourly rate, formed the third largest group of workers and accounted for 11 percent of the processing workers studied.

Wide interplant variations in average hourly earnings were found for most occupations. Casters, for example, showed a range of $1.37 from the lowest to the highest plant average. Such ranges reflect, in part, differences in method of wage payment, since incentive-paid workers generally averaged more than workers paid by the hour.

An examination of earnings data for the 26 occupations found in at least two union and two nonunion plants, showed the averages for the union plants to be higher for 17 occupations, by amounts ranging from 1 to 19 cents an hour. Average hourly earnings in the nonunion plants were higher in nine occupations, by 2 to 33 cents. A clear-cut comparison of rates in union and nonunion plants, however, is made difficult by other factors. Generally speaking, the nonunion plants, which included but 10 percent of the workers in this study, were small. Four of the seven nonunion plants had fewer than 250 workers, while 9 of the 11 union plants had more than 250 workers. Nonunion plants also differed from the union plants with respect to method of wage payment. Two nonunion plants paid all their workers on a time basis, while the majority of the workers in three other plants were paid on time rates.

For the purpose of showing a comparison between the earnings of workers paid on time and incentive rates, separate wage data are presented in table 2 for 21 occupations in which both methods of wage payment were found. In order to eliminate the influence of unionization, only the 11 union plants have been included in this comparison.

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Earnings of Incentive and Time Workers in 11 Union Plants Rolling and Drawing Copper and Copper Alloys, Connecticut, April 1943*

Occupation	Time payment		Incentive payment	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Processing:				
Annealers	153	$1.00	118	$1.06
Annealers' helpers	206	.87	186	.99
Blockers	164	.83	100	1.05
Casters	30	.97	440	1.49
Casters' helpers	27	.96	277	1.29
Picklers	49	.89	141	.98
Rod drawers	4	.89	22	1.04
Rod-pointing operators	9	.93	28	.99
Rollers, cold-roll, break-down and run-down	9	.92	42	1.31
Rollers, finishing, cold-roll	22	1.04	89	1.35
Saw operators, power	149	.92	122	1.08
Shearmen, power	43	1.01	41	1.16
Slitter operators	45	.85	75	1.03
Stickers, hot and cold-roll	78	.95	137	1.07
Straighteners, machine	71	.97	104	1.04
Tube drawers (draw-bench operators)	183	.95	557	1.10
Tube-pointing operators	148	.85	53	1.04
Inspection and testing:				
Inspectors, plate, sheet and strip	32	.91	69	.99
Inspectors, tube	110	.92	107	1.05
Material movement:				
Crane operators, electric bridge	340	.95	264	1.04
Truckers, power	170	.98	62	1.12

For each of these 21 occupations, incentive-paid workers averaged more than time workers by amounts ranging from 6 to 52 cents an hour. The median difference was 14 cents an hour. It is interesting to note in this connection that time rates in the union plants were higher than those for all plants in 7 of the 10 occupations found in at least two union and nonunion plants. For incentive workers, however, rates in union plants were higher in only 2 of the 11 occupations found in both union and nonunion plants.

Wage Changes, August 1941 to April 1943

In order to measure wage changes occurring between 1941 and 1943, straight-time average hourly earnings are shown in table 3 for 27 identical occupations found in 10 plants covered both by the present survey and by an earlier survey made by the Bureau in August 1941.[2] The number of comparable occupations has been restricted by difference in the methods of the two surveys. In the 1941 study, almost all occupations in the industry were covered, while the later study was concerned only with selected key occupations. Furthermore, the classification of labor grades within an occupation was not made in the earlier study and, therefore, the 1943 earnings data for certain occupational groups have been combined for comparison with the 1941 study.

All groups of workers for whom comparable information is available received an increase in wages between August 1941 and April 1943. Average wages increased from 2 percent for millwrights (an occupation employing relatively few workers) to 30.3 percent for hand truckers. In general, however, the percent of change shown was fairly uniform from occupation to occupation. Eighteen of the 27 occupations showed increases of 5 to 15 percent, while the median occupational increase was 11.8 percent. Janitors, the lowest-paid occupation in 1941, showed an increase of 14.7 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Straight-Time Earnings in Selected Occupations in 10 Connecticut Plants, Rolling and Drawing Copper and Copper Alloys, August 1941 and April 1943*

Occupation	Average hourly earnings	
	1941	1943
Maintenance:		
Carpenters	$0.95	$1.02
Electricians	1.00	1.04
Machinists	1.00	1.06
Millwrights	.98	1.00
Oilers	.86	.88
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments	1.06	1.10
Processing:		
Annealers	.94	1.04
Annealers' helpers	.86	.97
Die makers	.98	1.16
Extrusion-press operators	.96	1.19
Furnace operators, preheating	1.05	1.18
Picklers	.89	.96
Rod and tube draw-bench operators	.93	1.04
Rod and tube-pointing operators	.89	1.00
Processing—Continued.		
Rollers, break-down and run-down	$1.17	$1.23
Rollers, finishing	1.21	1.27
Saw operators	.90	1.04
Shearmen	.91	1.09
Slitter operators	.96	1.03
Stickers	.91	1.00
Straighteners	.93	1.05
Inspection: Inspectors	.87	.99
Material movement:		
Crane operators, electric bridge	.90	1.02
Truckers, hand	.76	.99
Truckers, power	.90	1.02
Custodial:		
Janitors	.75	.86
Watchmen and guards	.83	.88

[2] An earlier study of the wage structure of the nonferrous-metals industry was conducted by the Bureau in the fall of 1941. That study, which included the mining, milling, smelting, refining, and primary fabrication of nonferrous metals was published as U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 729.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to July 1944

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to July 1944.[1] The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $45.52 in July 1944—96.3 percent above the average in January 1939, 70.9 percent above January 1941, and 17.0 percent above October 1942. Such factors as longer hours of work, merit increases for individual workers, premium pay for overtime worked, changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in earnings.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 101.9 cents in July 1944—61.2 percent above the average in January 1939, 49.2 percent above January 1941, and 14.1 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. The effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in July 1944 was 95.1 cents per hour; this was 52.6 percent higher than in January 1939, 43.2 percent above January 1941, and 13.3 percent above October 1942.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to July 1944

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings [1]			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings weighted by January 1939 employment [2]		
	All manufacturing (1)	Durable goods (2)	Nondurable goods (3)	All manufacturing (4)	Durable goods (5)	Nondurable goods (6)	All manufacturing (7)	Durable goods (8)	Nondurable goods (9)	All manufacturing (10)	Durable goods (11)	Nondurable goods (12)
1939: Jan.	$23.19	$25.33	$21.57	$0.632	$0.696	$0.583	$0.623	$0.688	$0.574	$0.623	$0.688	$0.574
1940: Jan.	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.644	.703	.589	.635	.697	.589
1941: Jan.	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601	.648	.711	.600
1942: Jan.	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.762	.835	.670	.729	.810	.667
July	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.809	.885	.701	.759	.846	.694
Oct.	38.89	45.31	30.66	.893	.990	.751	.839	.919	.723	.782	.869	.716
1943: Jan.	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.859	.941	.733	.794	.886	.724
Apr.	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.878	.957	.751	.808	.897	.741
July	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.899	.981	.766	.823	.919	.750
Oct.	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.086	.824	.916	.997	.781	.836	.929	.765
Dec.	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.927	1.011	.788	.846	.942	.773
1944: Jan.	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.931	1.013	.793	.850	.945	.778
Apr.	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.013	1.110	.850	.942	1.023	.806	.862	.955	.792
May	46.02	51.89	37.03	1.017	1.112	.858	.944	1.025	.810	.866	.958	.796
June [3]	46.27	52.17	37.35	1.018	1.113	.862	.944	1.024	.813	.867	.959	.798
July [3]	45.52	51.20	37.07	1.019	1.118	.862	.951	1.037	.815	.874	.973	.799

[1] Average hourly earnings, excluding the effect of premium pay for overtime.
[2] Average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime, weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of the manufacturing industry for January 1939.
[3] Preliminary.

[1] Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939–43, Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (pp. 869–884), especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, July 1944, table 6 (p. 889, of this issue).

The shift of workers from relatively low-wage to relatively high-wage industries since 1939 would have raised the average earnings of factory workers, even if no other influences had been present. The effects of such interindustry shifts have been eliminated from the averages shown in columns 10 to 12 of the table. If employment had been distributed between industries as it was in January 1939, the straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers would have averaged 87.4 cents in July 1944, or 40.3 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 34.9 percent above January 1941, and 11.8 percent above October 1942. Between June 1944 and July 1944 the rise in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to eight-tenths of 1 percent. Even this latter series of averages exaggerates the rise in wage rates, because it includes the influence of interplant shifts of employment, merit increases for individual workers, and premium rates for work on extra shifts and on holidays.

Farm Income and Wages, by Region and Size of Enterprise, 1939

FARM incomes and wages in 1939 showed an extremely wide range. About 58,000 farms with value of product of $10,000 or more afforded average net returns of $8,690 per farm, or $9,611 per "man-equivalent" family worker. The average wage per man-year of hired labor on these farms was $595. Actual net returns were substantially larger when such items as Government payments and rental value of farm dwellings are included. The large group of 871,000 farms with value of product of $400–$599 afforded net returns of only $239 per farm, or $240 per "man-equivalent" family worker, and only $166 in wages per man-year of hired labor. More than 7 out of 8 farms were in value-of-product groups with net returns averaging $880 and progressively smaller amounts. These and related facts, given in the report of a study by the U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics,[1] have a significant bearing on the extent of opportunities that may be expected after the war in small-scale farming by displaced industrial war workers and returning soldiers.

There were 6,096,799 farms in the United States in 1939, according to the Bureau of the Census, and of these, 5,968,755 were classified by value of product (including value of goods sold, traded, or used by farm households). The average value of product of the classified farms was $1,309. There were about 332,000 farms with a value of product below $100, but many of these did not require full-time work by the operators, and the value of product was affected in some instances by crop failures or other temporary circumstances, or by the classification as farms of certain suburban properties used primarily for residential purposes.[2] At the other extreme, there were about 58,000 farms with a value of product of $10,000 or more. There were 4,600,000 farms, or 77 percent of the total, with value of product of less than $1,500. The extreme differences in the net returns per "man-equivalent" family worker and in wages per man-year of hired farm labor are shown in table 1.

[1] Differentials in Productivity and in Farm Income of Agricultural Workers, by Size of Enterprise and by Regions, by Louis J. Ducoff and Margaret Jarman Hagood. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1944. (Mimeographed.)

[2] For the definition of a farm for Census purposes, see table 2, footnote 1.

TABLE 1.—*Net Farm Income per Family Worker and Wage Income per Hired Farm Worker, by Size of Enterprise in Terms of Value of Product, 1939* [1]

Value of product per farm	Net returns to family labor, capital and management per man-equivalent family worker [2]					Wage income per man-year of hired labor [3]				
	United States	North-east	North Central	South	West	United States	North-east	North Central	South	West
All farms	$517	$710	$572	$410	$795	$349	$418	$431	$223	$562
Classified farms	528	726	584	417	828	349	418	432	223	563
$1–$99	−129	−202	−224	−37	−284	176	259	272	121	196
$100–$249	29	−36	−81	91	−204	153	267	217	102	282
$250–$399	150	90	13	202	−45	152	289	257	105	272
$400–$599	240	163	101	306	−25	166	388	276	115	242
$600–$749	321	327	197	393	71	164	237	261	115	322
$750–$999	388	384	282	476	189	185	203	247	148	292
$1,000–$1,499	491	520	424	590	319	240	301	314	175	362
$1,500–$1,999	640	694	597	752	481	292	278	353	228	392
$2,000–$2,499	791	886	739	937	660	325	320	392	240	428
$2,500–$3,999	1,082	1,141	1,059	1,228	925	367	319	456	260	477
$4,000–$5,999	1,523	1,620	1,583	1,536	1,201	424	413	495	296	578
$6,000–$9,999	2,477	2,162	2,508	2,741	2,432	478	511	607	310	660
$10,000 and over	9,611	9,586	7,821	11,600	10,496	595	697	744	392	743

[1] For source, see footnote 1 (p. 843). The averages given in the table are based upon Bureau of the Census data of value of products. The estimates do not include Government payments and for various other reasons are materially lower than the estimates by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. The net income per man-equivalent farm family worker for the United States as a whole, on the basis of Bureau of Agricultural Economics estimates, was $714 instead of $517. The lower figures were used because the basic classification of farms which it was necessary to use is in terms of the total value of product as reported by the Bureau of the Census, and the only feasible procedure was an adjustment of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics data to correspond with Census figures of value of production. The primary significance of the estimates is their showing of comparative net returns by size of enterprise and by region.

[2] Farm operators who were 65 years of age or over or who worked off farms 100 days or more and unpaid family workers were regarded as doing only one-half as much farm work as was done by regular farm workers. The estimated number of family workers averaged 7,836,000, and the adjusted estimate of "man-equivalent" family workers was 5,851,000.

[3] The annual wage income per worker, assuming 12 months of employnent at the average amount of work per week during the 12 reporting weeks.

The net returns to family workers do not include Government payments, or the rental value of farm dwellings, and for these and other reasons the estimated aggregate net returns are materially lower than those regularly made by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the Department of Agriculture.[3]

The net returns per "man-equivalent" family worker (see table 1, note 2), including returns on investment, ranged from an average loss of $129 for farms with value of product of less than $100 to an average net income of $9,611 for farms with value of product of $10,000 and over. There were 709,000 farms in the $1,000 to $1,499 group and the net returns per "man-equivalent" family worker in this group averaged $491. The averages of the groups totaling 3,891,000 farms with a value of product below $1,000 were progressively smaller than $491. In all farm groups with value of product below $2,500 (more than 7 out of 8 of all farms), the highest net returns per "man-equivalent" family worker averaged only $791.

The wage income per man-year of hired farm labor ranged from $562 in the West to $223 in the South, the general average being $349. The highest average wages are, uniformly, on farms with the largest value of product, but the estimates throw no light on the com-

[3] The study here summarized explains in detail the reasons for using the lower estimate for 1939 as the only feasible one for a detailed analysis on the basis of farms classified by value of product and by region. It is pointed out that for comparisons of net returns by size of farm and by region, the use of the lower estimate is valid for showing the relationships as distinguished from the absolute levels. The difference is indicated broadly by the estimate for the United States of net income per farm of $502 on the basis actually used in the comparisons, and of $693 on the basis of the regular Bureau of Agricultural Economics estimates. The estimated average wage on the first basis is $349, and on the second basis, $413.

parative status of workers on large and small farms with regard to such supplementary factors as regularity of employment and value or perquisites or noncash wages. The Bureau of the Census classifies as farms a considerable number of establishments that are operated primarily not for farming but for residential purposes. This fact accounts for some of the net losses incurred on farms in the smaller value-of-product groups. It probably also explains the fact that the average wage on farms in the smallest value-of-product groups was somewhat larger than the averages on farms with slightly higher value of product.

Farm-family workers are members of the families of farm operators, and net returns to these workers therefore include not only compensation for their labor, but also returns on their investments, whether as owners or as tenants. In 1939, the group of farms with value of product ranging from $2,000 to $2,499 had an average net return per farm of $880, but there were 5,016,000 farms, or 84 percent of the total, in groups with smaller value of product and with smaller average net returns. Thus, in the large group of 871,000 farms with value of product ranging from $400 to $599, the average net return was only $239. (See table 2.) A similar situation existed in each of the nine geographic divisions. The highest average net return for the $2,000 to $2,499 value-of-product group was $991 in the Middle Atlantic States, and the lowest was $577 in the Pacific States. The net returns per farm of farms in the $2,000 to $2,499 value-of-product group in the East South Central States averaged $899, but the proportion of farms in these States in groups with value of product of $2,500 or more was only 2 percent.

Production on farms with small value of product was predominantly for home consumption and not for markets. Farm produce consumed on the farm was valued at approximately the prices farmers received for such produce when marketed, and the value thus assigned was much smaller than farmers would have had to pay at retail for similar items. The retail prices that farmers pay for farm produce are frequently much lower than the prices of similar items in urban markets, where industrial workers must buy similar goods. Another consideration bearing on the extremely low estimates of net returns is the fact that in the study here summarized it was necessary, as already stated, to use estimates that exclude such items as Government payments and the rental value of farm dwellings. It should also be noted that there are certain intangible factors affecting the comparative economic status of farmers and of industrial workers, notably the security of tenure and the assurance of at least a subsistence from farming, as compared with the insecurity of job tenure and uncertainty of wages of industrial workers.

The study here summarized is limited to the Census year 1939. It is known that farm income greatly increased during the war. Wartime conditions, however, are presumably abnormal, and when light is sought on post-war farming opportunities for displaced industrial war workers and returning soldiers, the conditions prevailing in 1939 may have more significance than those accompanying abnormal wartime demands for farm products.

The extremely small net returns from farming for the vast majority of farmers in 1939 indicate that additional opportunities in agriculture for displaced industrial war workers and returning members of the

armed forces will be severely limited after the war. This conclusion is supported by the fact that farm mechanization, improved farming methods, and advances in the processing and marketing of farm goods may be expected to conserve labor and progressively increase the average output of farm workers.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Farms and Net Returns per Farm, by Geographic Division and Size of Enterprise in Terms of Value of Product, 1939*[1]

Value of product per farm	Number of farms	Net returns per farm	Number of farms	Net returns per farm	Number of farms	Net returns per farm	Number of farms	Net returns per farm	Number of farms	Net returns per farm
	United States		New England		Middle Atlantic		East North Central		West North Central	
$1–$99	332,195	−$82	12,083	−$101	22,502	−$112	58,009	−$122	42,714	−$143
$100–$249	812,810	22	19,696	−13	40,820	−28	101,909	−39	86,861	−77
$250–$399	821,616	135	15,758	84	33,141	60	83,976	54	84,519	−33
$400–$599	870,629	239	13,460	89	33,170	149	95,664	151	106,897	41
$600–$749	479,481	341	6,970	224	19,989	336	63,667	248	74,053	150
$750–$999	574,094	414	8,866	299	27,737	377	94,760	348	109,974	244
$1,000–$1,499	708,917	537	13,032	491	43,859	514	153,073	537	168,630	403
$1,500–$1,999	416,081	706	9,310	722	31,730	749	106,612	758	114,446	.603
$2,000–$2,499	264,020	880	7,006	765	22,458	991	68,971	912	78,346	801
$2,500–$3,999	375,973	1,208	11,972	1,069	34,964	1,325	94,916	1,292	116,971	1,203
$4,000–$5,999	165,679	1,679	6,842	1,669	16,405	1,764	37,460	1,838	49,101	1,872
$6,000–$9,999	88,947	2,602	4,141	2,929	8,558	2,129	16,425	3,037	22,704	2,869
$10,000 and over	58,313	8,690	2,624	8,597	4,668	8,267	7,033	8,646	11,500	7,736
	South Atlantic		East South Central		West South Central		Mountain		Pacific	
$1–$99	51,944	−$34	62,979	−$7	45,811	−$43	16,578	−$148	19,575	−$193
$100–$249	147,518	65	218,150	98	138,388	52	27,019	−131	32,449	−145
$250–$399	166,439	186	222,481	210	165,862	180	21,862	−28	27,578	−37
$400–$599	183,829	315	207,353	334	182,038	313	21,726	−67	26,492	18
$600–$749	98,648	439	93,290	456	94,619	433	13,345	−15	14,900	136
$750–$999	110,773	547	84,093	568	99,953	498	18,301	134	19,637	203
$1,000–$1,499	114,329	729	64,299	692	96,237	589	26,967	314	28,491	304
$1,500–$1,999	50,262	890	22,778	861	42,833	750	18,535	559	19,575	354
$2,000–$2,499	26,299	1,128	10,720	899	22,974	950	12,987	758	14,259	577
$2,500–$3,999	29,058	1,350	12,701	1,290	29,357	1,068	21,135	1,096	24,899	861
$4,000–$5,999	11,176	1,584	5,175	1,307	13,452	1,450	11,342	1,504	14,726	1,091
$6,000–$9,999	6,382	1,832	2,963	1,979	8,512	2,563	7,741	2,948	11,521	2,071
$10,000 and over	4,769	5,858	1,795	4,015	7,055	10,458	7,036	9,714	11,833	10,016

[1] For source, see footnote 1 (p. 843).

The number of farms that were classified by value of product was 5,968,755. The total number of farms was 6,096,799. According to the Census of 1940, covering the year 1939, a farm was "all the land on which some agricultural operations are performed by one person, either by his own labor alone, or with the assistance of members of his household, or hired employees. The land operated by a partnership is likewise considered a farm." Any tract of land of less than 3 acres was not reported as a farm unless its agricultural products were valued at $250 or more.

Net returns per farm include returns for family labor, management, and capital. Net returns are computed by deducting production costs, including wages paid to hired farm workers. The estimates of net returns used in this table are lower than the regular estimates made by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics for reasons stated above (table 1, note 1), but a comparison of net returns by region and by size of enterprise is valid whether the larger or the smaller estimate of aggregate net returns is used.

Wage and Hour Regulation

Certain Absences Excusable in Computing Premium Pay

CERTAIN types of absences from work are deemed excusable in computing premium pay for the sixth and seventh days of work, the National War Labor Board stated on September 8, 1944.[1] The list includes absences on certain designated holidays or for State guard service, sickness, accident, or major transportation disruption.

The Board also held that union representatives who are absent from the job while investigating and adjusting grievances are to be given credit for time worked. They are to be credited with time worked in computing premium pay for the sixth consecutive workday if they were absent for all or part of a day, but in computing premium pay for the seventh consecutive day they are to be credited for time worked only if they were absent part of a day.

Wage Increase for Canadian Railroad Workers[2]

A GENERAL increase of 6 cents per hour, plus a 9-cent cost-of-living bonus, was authorized on July 31, 1944, by the Canadian National War Labor Board, for practically all categories of railway workers. The award was retroactive to September 15, 1943, for the 16 standard railway brotherhoods; to March 3, 1943, for the Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Workers; and to May 25, 1943, for the Brotherhood of Railway Employees. The retroactive wages will amount to substantial additional lump-sum payments for the workers. In requesting wage increases, the unions claimed that their rates of pay should equal the much higher rates in the United States, and that railway pay rates had been stabilized during a period when rates in other Canadian industries had increased. The Board refused to accept the thesis that Canadian wage rates should be equal to those in the United States, but admitted that railwaymen's rates had not risen over recent years to an extent comparable to rises in other industries. The order gave most railway workers increases amounting to nearly 50 percent of their demands. Up to mid-August no increases had been made under the award, pending decision by the War Labor Board as to whether cost-of-living bonuses were to be considered as included in "basic wage rates." Increases were not authorized in cases in which the basic wage rates had been increased since August 1939. Early board action was expected.

[1] Press release, B-1738.

[2] Data are from reports by John W. Tuthill, vice consul, and H. M. Bankhead, commercial attaché, United States Embassy, Ottawa, August 2 and 8, 1944 (Nos. 234 and 242); and Labor (Washington, D. C.), August 19, 1944.

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Minimum Wages for Construction Workers in Cuba[1]

MINIMUM wages for the three principal classifications of construction-industry laborers in Cuba were set August 11, 1944, by the National Minimum Wage Commission, at figures ranging from 4 pesos [2] per 8-hour day for masons in Habana, to 2 pesos for helpers in other cities and in nonurban localities. The new regulation (agreement No. 62) supersedes a presidential decree of 1941 and the Minimum Wage Commission's order of July 6, 1944, which increased wages established by the same Commission on June 21, 1937.

The regulation of August 11, 1944, states that because of the high cost of living the laborers had urged wage increases and that the employers were disposed to grant them. The wage schedules set for the 8-hour day in different population areas were as follows:

	Habana (in pesos)	*Provincial capitals and cities above 25,000 (in pesos)*	*Towns of 25,000 or less and nonurban (in pesos)*
Masons	4. 00	3. 30	3. 20
Carpenters	4. 00	3. 30	3. 20
Helpers	2. 50	2. 00	2. 00

Wage Rates and Hours Under British Trade-Board System

GENERAL minimum hourly time rates of pay have been established in a number of industries in Great Britain under the Trade Boards Acts, and the Ministry of Labor and National Service recently issued the following table [3] showing the authorized minimum rates of pay by sex, the ages at which workers are entitled to receive such payments, and the normal weekly hours of work during which the rates are payable. Trade boards were established to protect workers in the less-organized trades against employment at unduly low wages.

Hourly Time Rates of Pay and Normal Weekly Hours, by Trade and Sex, under Trade Boards, 1944

Trade	Minimum hourly time rates of pay [1]		Normal weekly hours
	Males	Females	
	Pence [2]	*Pence* [2]	
Aerated waters (England and Wales)	18¼	[3] 11½	48
Aerated waters (Scotland):			
Orkney and Shetland Islands	15	[4] 8½	48
Other parts	16	[4] 9½	48
Baking:			
England and Wales	16¾–18½	[5] 11½–12½	48
Scotland [6]	[5] 15½–16¾	10½–11¾	48
Boot and floor polish	18¾	[7] 12	48
Boot and shoe repairing	19½	[8] 14¾	48
Brush and broom [6]	13¼	[8] 8¼	48
Button manufacturing	17¾	10½	48
Chain [9]	17⅞	7 23/60	
Coffin furniture and cerement making:			
Coffin furniture [6]	[10] 15 15/47	[8] 10 3/47	47
Cerement making		[11] 10¾	47

See footnotes at end of table.

[1] Data are from report of Charles H. Ducoté, commercial attaché, Habana, August 19, 1944 (No. 7710) enclosing copy of agreement No. 62 from Gaceta Oficial, August 16, 1944 (No. 451).
[2] Average exchange rate of Cuban peso=$1 in United States currency.
[3] Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), July 1944.

Hourly Time Rates of Pay and Normal Weekly Hours, by Trade and Sex, under Trade Boards, 1944—Continued

Trade	Minimum hourly time rates of pay [1]		Normal weekly hours
	Males	Females	
	Pence [2]	*Pence* [2]	
Corset	[12] 18	10¼	48
Cotton-waste reclamation:			
England and Wales	17	10	48
Scotland	17	9¾	48
Cutlery	19	[8] 12¾	48
Dressmaking and women's light clothing (England and Wales):			
Retail custom dressmaking	[12] 17	[5] 9¼, 10, 10½	48
Other branches	[12] 17	10¼	48
Dressmaking and women's light clothing (Scotland):			
Retail branch	[12] 17	[5] 9¾, 10¼	48
Other branches	[12] 17	10	48
Drift-net mending		[13] 7	44
Flax and hemp	17 1/48	10 3/8	48
Fur	17¼	[3] 10	48
Furniture making [6]	18	[3] 11	47
Fustian making	[14] 12¼	7½	48
General waste-materials reclamation	15½	9½	48
Hair, bass, and fiber [6]	13¾	8¼	48
Hat, cap, and millinery (England and Wales)	[12] 17	10¼	48
Hat, cap, and millinery (Scotland):			
Wholesale cloth hat and cap	[12] 17¾	10½	46
Other branches	[12] 17¾	[5] 9½, 10	46
Hollow ware	18¼	11¼	47
Jute	16 25/48	10 23/48	48
Keg and drum	18⅞	[8] 13½	47
Lace finishing [15]		7 7/10	
Laundry:			
Cornwall and North of Scotland	18¼	[4] 10¾	48
Other parts of Great Britain	18¼	[4] 11¼	48
Linen and cotton handkerchiefs and household goods and linen piece goods	17½	10½	48
Made-up textiles [6]	14 19/20	8 31/40	48
Milk distribution:			
England and Wales	[5] 16, 18, 18¾	[7] 10½, 11¾, 12¼	48
Scotland	16 5/16	[8] 10½	48
Ostrich and fancy feather and artificial flower	[12] 13	8	48
Paper bag	19 1/15	11	45
Paper box	18 2/15	11	45
Perambulator and wheel chair	[6] 18	[8] 12	48
Pin, hook and eye, and snap fastener	19	[8] 11½	47
Ready-made and wholesale custom tailoring	[12] 16½	10¼	48
Retail custom tailoring:			
England and Wales	[16] 14¼–20¼	[16] 9¼–12¼	48
Scotland	[16] 12 27/40–15 3/5	[16] 8 9/40–9	48
Rope, twine, and net:			
Net section	16½	11¼	48
Other sections	17	11½	48
Rubber manufacturing	17¼	[8] 11¼	48
Rubber reclamation	17¼	[8] 11¼	48
Sack and bag	17¼	10 29/40	48
Shirtmaking	[12] 18½	10¼	48
Stamped or pressed metal wares	17	11¼	47
Sugar confectionery and food preserving	17¾	[8] 10¾	48
Tin box	19½	12½	48
Tobacco [5]	19 109/192	12 33/64	48
Toy manufacturing	17¾	[8] 11¼	48
Wholesale mantle and costume	[12] 16½	10¼	48

[1] Rates cover males at the age of 21 years and females at the age of 18 years, unless otherwise specified.
[2] Official exchange rate of penny in 1944=1.68 cents.
[3] Payable at 19 years of age.
[4] Payable at 20 years of age.
[5] Rate varies with area.
[6] In this trade, rates vary in accordance with changes in official cost-of-living index.
[7] Payable at 21 years of age; rate varies with area.
[8] Payable at 21 years of age.
[9] Rates vary in accordance with changes in official cost-of-living index. Minimum rates are not fixed by sex; rates shown are for work normally performed by men and women, respectively.
[10] Payable after specified period in trade.
[11] Payable at 24 years of age, after specified period in trade.
[12] Payable at 22 years of age.
[13] Payable after specified period in trade.
[14] Payable at 18 years of age.
[15] Minimum rates are not fixed by sex; rates shown are for work normally performed.
[16] Rate varies with area; payable after specified period in trade.

Most trade boards have also fixed, for various classes of qualified workers, higher minimum time rates than are shown in the table. Similarly, they have established lower time rates for juvenile workers, based on age, or experience, or a combination of both. In some cases, boards have made the payment of learners and apprentices at a scale below the general minimum contingent on observance by employers of conditions considered necessary for securing effective instruction. Approximately a fourth of the boards have established minimum piece-work rates of pay. However, the majority of the boards have fixed piece-work-basis time rates, that is, rates that take the place of the general minimum time rate as the basic rate for piece workers who are not subject to a general minimum piece-rate schedule. Lacking such a schedule, piece workers must be paid at a piece rate sufficient to yield an ordinary worker as much pay as would be received if he were covered by a piece-work-basis time rate. The piece-work-basis time rates are slightly above the general minimum time rates. Certain boards have adopted a guaranteed time rate for piece workers that is sufficient to insure them a minimum amount for the time employed, in case their piece-work earnings fall below the guaranteed minimum. Other boards specify that an ordinary piece worker shall receive at least the general minimum time rate if no minimum piece rates or piece-work-basis time rates have been established.

With the exception of the two industries appearing in the table for which no scheduled weekly hours are shown, the trade boards fixed the workweek. For hours beyond the weekly limits listed in the table, extra wages were paid. Nearly all boards also specified daily hours, including the hours on Saturday or any other short day of work, beyond which overtime rates were prescribed. The prevailing overtime rate of pay is time and a quarter for the first 2 hours and time and a half for subsequent hours worked. With few exceptions, double time is payable for work on Sundays and public holidays.

Under the terms of the Holidays with Pay Act of 1938, trade boards are empowered to direct that a vacation with pay, not to exceed 1 working week per year, shall be granted to any worker for whom a minimum rate of wages has been fixed. Accordingly, with few exceptions, the industries covered by the trade-boards legislation are subject to orders requiring that a paid vacation of 6 consecutive days shall be granted to workers annually. In the milk-distributive trade the vacation period is 7 days. The trades for which no directions governing paid vacations have been issued are jute, flax and hemp, lace finishing, and mending of drift nets. Jute and flax and hemp workers receive paid vacations under the terms of collective agreements. Workers engaged in lace finishing and drift-net finishing are female homeworkers chiefly, who do not work on the employers' premises.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Cost of Living in Large Cities, August 1944

HIGHER prices for clothing and seasonally higher prices for eggs were chiefly responsible for the 0.2-percent increase in average retail prices of living essentials between mid-July and mid-August.

During the 5 years of the war in Europe, prices of goods important in the purchases of moderate-income families have increased 28 percent, contrasted with the 73-percent rise in the corresponding period in 1914–19. About a tenth of the advance during the present war occurred in the year ending August 15, 1944.

During the month ending in mid-August, average prices of all major groups of foods except eggs either decreased or remained unchanged, but the 7-percent seasonal advance in egg prices more than offset these other declines in the cost of foods. Fresh fruits and vegetables showed the greatest decrease during the month. Seasonal price declines of 19 percent for apples, approximately 10 percent for onions, and 9 percent for sweetpotatoes were greater than the increases that took place in the prices of green beans, cabbage, spinach, carrots, lettuce, and white potatoes. Other food groups showed only minor changes. Declines in beef and pork prices, unusual at this time of year, together with a 1-percent decrease in prices of roasting chickens, resulted in a slight drop for meats and fish as a group.

Higher prices for women's winter cloth coats were chiefly accountable for the 0.7-percent rise in clothing costs between mid-July and mid-August. The increase in the Federal excise tax on furs, which became effective during the spring, contributed to the advance for fur-trimmed coats; and disappearance of lower-priced lines, especially of untrimmed sport coats, was also a factor. Retailers generally reported that the quality of woolen fabrics in this year's coats is better than in those of last year. Small increases for some other clothing resulted primarily from unavailability of the lower-priced lines.

The cigarette shortage was reflected in price advances in several cities, as more retailers limited sales to one pack to a customer, thus removing the saving resulting from purchases of two packs at a time. Newspaper prices rose in New York City. Scattered increases in housefurnishings brought average costs up 0.1 percent above the level of July 15. Fuel, electricity, and ice charges on the average remained unchanged. Rents are surveyed only during the quarterly months of March, June, September, and December, and are not available for August.

In connection with the figures herein given, it should be borne in mind that the Bureau of Labor Statistics index indicates average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents, and services bought by

families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. The items covered represent 70 percent of the expenditures of families who had incomes ranging from $1,250 to $2,000 in 1934–36.

The index does not show the full wartime effect on the cost of living of such factors as lowered quality, disappearance of low-priced goods, and forced changes in housing and eating away from home.

It does not measure changes in *total* "living costs"—that is, *in the total amount families spend for living.* Income taxes and bond subscriptions are not included.

TABLE 1.—*Cost of Living in Large Cities, August 15, 1944, and Previous Dates*

Date	Indexes [1] (1935–1939=100.0) 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
September 15	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
1943: August 15	123.4	137.2	129.6	108.0	107.6	125.9	116.5
1944: July 15	126.1	137.4	138.2	(2)	109.8	138.5	121.8
August 15	126.3	137.7	139.1	(2)	109.8	138.7	122.0

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.
[2] Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change* [1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods, by Groups of Items*

Period	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent [2]	Fuel, electricity, and ice	Housefurnishings	Miscellaneous
July 15, 1944, to Aug. 15, 1944	+0.2	+0.2	+0.7	(3)	0	+0.1	+0.2
Aug. 15, 1943, to Aug. 15, 1944	+2.4	+.4	+7.3	+0.1	+2.0	+10.2	+4.7
Sept. 15, 1942, to Aug. 15, 1944	+7.2	+8.8	+10.6	+.1	+3.4	+12.2	+9.5
May 15, 1942, to Aug. 15, 1944	+8.9	+13.2	+10.2	−1.6	+4.7	+13.5	+10.0
Jan. 15, 1941, to Aug. 15, 1944	+25.3	+40.8	+38.1	+3.0	+8.9	+38.6	+19.7
Aug. 15, 1939, to Aug. 15, 1944	+28.1	+47.3	+38.7	+3.6	+12.6	+37.9	+21.5

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.
[2] Changes through June 15, 1944.
[3] Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change*[1] *in Cost of Living July 15, 1944–Aug. 15, 1944 by Cities*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	Housefurnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	[2] 0+.2	[3] +0.2	[4] +0.7	[5] 0	[4] +0.1	[4] +0.2
New England: Boston	+.3	+. 2	+1.0	0	+.6	+.4
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	−.2	−.7	+.4	0	0	0
New York	+.6	+.6	+.8	+.1	+.1	+.6
Philadelphia	+.5	+1.0	+.4	0	+.2	0
Pittsburgh	+.8	+1.5	+1.2	0	+.4	0
East North Central:						
Chicago	−.4	−1.1	+.5	0	+.1	0
Cincinnati	−.5	−1.7	+.7	+.1	+.7	+.4
Cleveland	0	−.2	+.6	+.3	+.1	0
Detroit	−.4	−1.5	+1.1	0	−.1	0
West North Central:						
Kansas City	−.2	−1.0	+1.0	0	+.2	0
Minneapolis	−.2	−.6	+.1	0	0	+.2
St. Louis	−.5	−1.3	+.4	0	−.1	0
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	+.2	+.3	+1.0	+.1	+.1	0
Savannah	+.6	+1.2	+.6	+.2	0	0
Washington, D. C	+.5	+1.3	+ .1	+.1	0	+.1
East South Central: Birmingham	+1.2	+2.8	+ .8	+.2	+1.0	0
West South Central: Houston	+ .2	+ .6	+ .4	0	0	+.1
Mountain: Denver	−1.0	−2.5	+ .5	0	+ .1	0
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	+ .9	+1.9	+ .4	0	0	0
San Francisco	+ .1	0	+ .6	0	+ .3	0
Seattle	+ .1	− .2	+ .8	+1.1	+ .1	0

[1] Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.
[2] Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.
[3] Based on prices for 56 cities collected on Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.
[4] Based on data for 21 cities.
[5] Based on data for 34 cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percent of Change*[1] *in Cost of Living in Specified Periods, by Cities*

City	Aug. 15, 1943, to Aug. 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to Aug. 15, 1944	Jan. 1, 1941, to Aug. 15, 1944	May 15, 1942, to Aug. 15, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to Aug. 15, 1944
Average: Large cities	+2.4	+28.1	+25.3	+8.9	+7.2
New England: Boston	+2.3	+26.5	+23.9	+8.3	+5.7
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	+.6	+28.1	+23.8	+4.7	+4.7
New York	+3.5	+28.4	+25.8	+12.2	+9.3
Philadelphia	+.5	+28.3	+26.5	+9.4	+7.4
Pittsburgh	+3.2	+29.9	+26.3	+10.4	+8.8
East North Central:					
Chicago	+2.2	+27.3	+24.1	+7.8	+7.1
Cincinnati	+1.9	+29.9	+26.9	+9.1	+7.1
Cleveland	+1.8	+30.3	+27.7	+9.7	+8.9
Detroit	+2.2	+29.2	+26.0	+7.2	+7.5
West North Central:					
Kansas City	+2.6	+25.7	+25.9	+8.6	+8.0
Minneapolis	+1.7	+23.2	+20.6	+6.0	+4.1
St. Louis	+1.8	+27.3	+23.7	+8.0	+7.1
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore	+2.4	+30.3	+27.7	+8.8	+7.3
Savannah	+2.6	+36.5	+33.6	+12.1	+11.0
Washington, D. C	+1.5	+26.7	+25.0	+8.9	+6.7
East South Central: Birmingham	+4.1	+33.8	+29.7	+11.0	+10.9
West South Central: Houston	+2.2	+23.8	+22.3	+7.3	+5.7
Mountain: Denver	+3.0	+26.5	+24.7	+7.9	+6.4
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	+2.3	+27.0	+24.5	+8.0	+4.8
San Francisco	+4.1	+30.3	+27.1	+10.0	+7.0
Seattle	+3.0	+29.2	+26.9	+6.9	+5.6

[1] Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, 1935 to August 1944*

Year and month	Indexes [1] (1935–39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent [2]	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	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.8
1944:							
Jan. 15	124.2	136.1	134.7	108.1	109.5	128.3	118.4
Feb. 15	123.8	134.5	135.2	108.1	110.3	128.7	118.7
Mar. 15	123.8	134.1	136.7	108.1	109.9	129.0	119.1
Apr. 15	124.6	134.6	137.1	108.1	109.9	132.9	120.9
May 15	125.1	135.5	137.4	108.1	109.8	135.0	121.3
June 15	125.4	135.7	138.0	108.1	109.6	138.4	121.7
July 15	126.1	137.4	138.2	[2]	109.8	138.5	121.8
Aug. 15	126.3	137.7	139.1	[2]	109.8	138.7	122.0

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.
[2] Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

Retail Prices of Food in August 1944

PERCENTAGE changes in retail food costs on August 15, 1944, as compared with costs in the previous month and in August 1943, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods*

Commodity group	July 18, 1944, to Aug. 15, 1944	Aug. 17, 1943, to Aug. 15, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to Aug. 15, 1944	Jan. 14, 1941, to Aug. 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to Aug. 15, 1944
All foods	+0.2	+0.4	+8.8	+40.8	+47.3
Cereals and bakery products	−.1	+.4	+2.9	+14.3	+16.2
Meats	−.2	−.5	−1.2	+27.6	+34.8
Beef and veal	−.1	−.6	−5.9	+8.4	+19.1
Pork	−.1	−2.0	−9.7	+30.1	+27.3
Lamb	−.2	−.2	+.7	+36.5	+36.3
Chickens	−1.1	+1.8	+12.0	+54.1	+58.4
Fish, fresh and canned	+.3	−2.1	+17.7	+66.8	+98.8
Dairy products	0	+.1	+4.6	+27.1	+43.5
Eggs	+7.1	−4.8	+2.7	+63.7	+75.7
Fruits and vegetables	−.7	+3.4	+35.4	+88.2	+90.0
Fresh	−1.0	+4.1	+43.2	+99.8	+101.1
Canned	+.2	−.7	+4.4	+41.5	+41.2
Dried	+.2	+3.2	+15.1	+65.7	+82.7
Beverages	0	−.8	+.4	+36.7	+31.0
Fats and oils	−.2	−3.0	+1.7	+52.8	+45.2
Sugar and sweets	−.1	−.1	−.4	+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.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56 [1] Large Cities Combined,[2] by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1944		1943	1942	1941	1939
	Aug. 15 [3]	July 18	Aug. 17	Sept. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	137.7	137.4	137.2	126.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	108.5	108.6	108.1	105.4	94.9	93.4
Meats	129.0	129.3	129.7	130.6	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	118.6	118.7	119.3	126.0	109.4	99.6
Pork	112.0	112.1	114.3	124.0	86.1	88.0
Lamb	134.7	135.0	135.0	133.7	98.7	98.8
Chickens	149.8	151.4	147.2	133.7	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	198.0	197.5	202.2	168.2	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	133.6	133.6	133.4	127.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs	159.4	148.9	167.4	155.2	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	175.6	176.9	169.8	129.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh	186.6	[4] 188.4	179.3	130.3	93.4	92.8
Canned	129.3	129.0	130.2	123.8	91.4	91.6
Dried	165.0	164.6	159.9	143.4	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.3	124.3	125.3	123.8	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	122.7	122.9	126.5	120.7	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.5	126.6	126.6	127.0	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.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Average Retail Costs of All Foods, by Cities,[1] on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

City and regional area	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Aug. 15 [2]	July 18	Aug. 17	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	137.7	137.4	137.2	97.8	93.5
New England:					
Boston	132.2	131.9	131.1	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport	135.1	135.5	135.2	96.5	93.2
Fall River	132.3	132.9	134.0	97.5	95.4
Manchester	135.0	135.3	133.7	96.6	94.9
New Haven	136.0	135.3	136.7	95.7	93.7
Portland, Maine	136.5	135.1	133.6	95.3	95.9
Providence	136.8	135.5	135.0	96.3	93.7
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	134.0	135.0	137.9	100.2	94.5
Newark	138.4	139.2	139.0	98.8	95.6
New York	138.9	138.1	137.2	99.5	95.8
Philadelphia	136.1	134.8	135.3	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh	138.7	136.7	137.8	98.0	92.5
Rochester	133.0	133.8	133.1	99.9	92.3
Scranton	138.8	138.6	137.5	97.5	92.1
East North Central:					
Chicago	137.1	138.6	136.4	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati	136.8	139.2	137.6	96.5	90.4
Cleveland	144.3	144.6	145.2	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	130.2	129.2	131.6	93.4	88.1
Detroit	134.4	136.5	134.8	97.0	90.6
Indianapolis	134.4	134.6	135.1	98.2	90.7
Milwaukee	136.4	137.4	134.4	95.9	91.1
Peoria	141.1	140.4	141.2	99.0	93.4
Springfield, Ill	142.5	144.2	142.1	96.2	94.1
West North Central:					
Cedar Rapids [3]	139.1	140.5	138.0	95.9	----
Kansas City	131.2	132.5	131.7	92.4	91.5
Minneapolis	130.5	131.3	130.4	99.0	95.0
Omaha	129.7	130.4	130.8	97.9	92.3
St. Louis	140.1	141.9	140.2	99.2	93.8
St. Paul	128.5	129.6	128.9	98.6	94.3
Wichita [3]	147.8	148.4	146.2	97.2	----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Average Retail Costs of All Foods, by Cities, on Specified Dates*—Continued

[1935–39=100]

City and regional area	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Aug. 15 [2]	July 18	Aug. 17	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta	139.2	138.1	139.2	94.3	92.5
Baltimore	143.5	143.1	145.2	97.9	94.7
Charleston, S. C.	135.4	133.0	136.5	95.9	95.1
Jacksonville	148.9	144.8	150.9	98.8	95.8
Norfolk [4]	144.8	143.2	151.1	95.8	93.6
Richmond	136.5	134.4	137.0	93.7	92.2
Savannah	154.7	152.9	152.4	100.5	96.7
Washington, D. C.	136.7	134.9	138.5	97.7	94.1
Winston-Salem [3]	138.8	136.0	138.3	93.7	----
East South Central:					
Birmingham	145.4	141.4	141.3	96.0	90.7
Jackson [3]	142.9	138.5	151.5	105.3	----
Knoxville [3]	158.6	157.3	156.2	97.1	----
Louisville	133.4	133.4	134.7	95.5	92.1
Memphis	148.3	146.1	148.0	94.2	89.7
Mobile	147.1	144.4	149.7	97.9	95.5
West South Central:					
Dallas	133.5	132.3	135.4	92.6	91.7
Houston	137.8	137.0	136.2	102.6	97.8
Little Rock	137.7	135.8	137.6	95.6	94.0
New Orleans	152.7	149.6	153.3	101.9	97.6
Mountain:					
Butte	133.7	134.8	137.2	98.7	94.1
Denver	137.1	140.6	134.5	94.8	92.7
Salt Lake City	139.9	141.1	139.5	97.5	94.6
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	141.1	138.5	141.1	101.8	94.6
Portland, Oreg.	145.3	146.2	144.7	101.7	96.1
San Francisco	142.4	142.4	137.3	99.6	93.8
Seattle	141.6	141.9	139.8	101.0	94.5

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), 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] June 1940=100.
[4] Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,* [1] *1913–August 1944*

[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	*1943*—Con.	
1914	81.8	1928	130.8	1942	123.9	October	138.2
1915	80.9	1929	132.5	1943	138.0	November	137.3
1916	90.8	1930	126.0	*1943*		December	137.1
1917	116.9	1931	103.9			*1944*	
1918	134.4	1932	86.5	January	133.0	January	136.1
1919	149.8	1933	84.1	February	133.6	February	134.5
1920	168.8	1934	93.7	March	137.4	March	134.1
1921	128.3	1935	100.4	April	140.6	April	134.6
1922	119.9	1936	101.3	May	143.0	May	135.5
1923	124.0	1937	105.3	June	141.9	June	135.7
1924	122.8	1938	97.8	July	139.0	July	137.4
1925	132.9	1939	95.2	August	137.2	August	137.7
1926	137.4	1940	96.6	September	137.4		

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Consumption Expenditures, 1929–43

CONSUMPTION expenditures in 1943 totaled $97,750,000,000 (preliminary estimate) as compared with an annual average of $63,481,000,000 during the years from 1929 to 1941. The amount in 1929 was $78,425,700,000. There was a decline to a low point of $46,552,400,000 in 1933, and a peacetime rise to $66,466,100,000 in 1939. These estimates are part of an extensive revision of consumption expenditures made by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the Department of Commerce as one phase of the work of that agency's National Income Unit.[1]

The Department of Commerce points out that these revised figures differ significantly from the consumer-expenditures figures shown in its estimates of national product and published also as a monthly series. It is stated, however, that the revisions are to be incorporated in the national-product data and that work is in progress on the preparation of quarterly series that will tie in with the present annual totals.[2]

The estimates of consumption expenditures include figures for commodities and services separately, and indicate significant variations in the percentage distribution of expenditures for the two types of consumption. The variations, however, are limited substantially to abnormal periods such as the depression of the early thirties and the period of the present war. Services formed 38.6 percent of the total in 1929 and 37.1 percent in 1939. The proportion rose sharply during the depression, to 42.2 percent in 1933, but fell during the war to 32.4 percent (in 1943). The proportions of expenditures for services and commodities are, of course, affected by price changes. In general, it may be said that the prices of services did not fall so much as did the prices of commodities during the depression and that the prices of services have not risen so much during the war as have the prices of commodities. Services include rents, and the proportions are affected during the war by the relatively rigorous control of rents.

Estimates of consumption expenditures by major types of products were also made, as shown in tables 1 and 2. During the years 1929 to 1941 the average proportion of expenditures for food (including alcoholic beverages) and tobacco was 30.2 percent of the total.[3] Expenditures for the other major types of products ranged downward from 14.5 percent for household operation to 0.9 percent for private education and research and also for foreign travel and remittances (table 1). The effects of wartime prices and conditions are reflected in an increase in the proportion of expenditures for food and tobacco to 37.4 percent in 1943 and a reduction in that year to 0.2 percent for foreign travel and remittances.

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[1] Survey of Current Business (Washington), June 1944 (pp. 6–13): Consumption Expenditures, 1929–43, by William H. Shaw. Reprints of this article are available from the Department of Commerce.

[2] The concepts and definitions used and the nature of the revisions are described in detail in the article here reviewed.

[3] The percentages apply to all consumers, not only to wage earners and lower-salaried workers, and differ therefore from the percentages in the Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living studies.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Consumption Expenditures, by Type of Product, Average 1929–41, 1942, 1943* [1]

Type of product	Percentage distribution [2]		
	Average, 1929–41	1942	1943 [3]
All products	100.0	100.0	100.0
Commodities	61.8	66.3	67.6
Services	38.2	33.7	32.4
Food and tobacco	30.2	35.5	37.4
Clothing, accessories, and jewelry	12.8	14.1	15.1
Personal care	1.5	1.7	1.8
Housing	14.1	11.4	10.6
Household operation	14.5	15.0	13.6
Medical care and death expenses	4.9	5.0	4.8
Personal business	4.0	3.2	3.0
Transportation	9.6	6.3	5.8
Recreation	5.2	5.2	5.1
Private education and research	.9	.9	.9
Religious and welfare activities	1.6	1.4	1.5
Foreign travel and remittances	.9	.2	.2

[1] Data are from table 1 of the source given in footnote 1, p. 857. For commodities and services that are used both by business and by consumers, only that portion of the expenditures allocated to consumers is included.
[2] Details do not necessarily add to total, because of rounding of figures.
[3] Preliminary.

Expenditures in dollars, as distinguished from percentages, by major types of product, are shown in table 2 for the years 1929, 1933, and 1937 to 1943. The extreme declines in expenditures in 1933 and the variations in extent of declines were in part caused by reductions in prices. The rise in expenditures between 1939 and 1943 and the variations in the extent of the increases were caused largely by price changes and by wartime conditions affecting the relative availability of different types of goods and services.

TABLE 2.—*Consumption Expenditures, by Type of Product, in Specified Years, 1929 to 1943* [1]

Type of product	Value of consumption expenditures (in millions) [2]								
	1929	1933	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943 [3]
All products	$78,426	$46,552	$66,219	$63,303	$66,466	$70,806	$80,606	$88,681	$97,750
Commodities	48,132	26,891	42,183	39,388	41,775	44,931	52,822	58,753	66,050
Services	30,294	19,661	24,036	23,915	24,691	25,875	27,784	29,928	31,700
Food and tobacco	21,723	13,277	21,420	20,110	20,607	21,876	25,296	31,459	36,600
Clothing, accessories, and jewelry	11,138	5,637	7,879	7,835	8,311	8,801	10,341	12,547	14,800
Personal care	1,112	705	967	949	994	1,107	1,274	1,529	1,800
Housing	11,273	7,732	8,280	8,628	8,833	9,136	9,664	10,127	10,400
Household operation	11,064	6,698	9,655	9,028	9,794	10,690	12,319	13,294	13,300
Medical care and death expenses	3,559	2,382	3,162	3,150	3,325	3,522	3,939	4,407	4,700
Personal business	3,413	2,029	2,677	2,544	2,593	2,742	2,953	2,877	2,950
Transportation	8,032	4,058	6,687	5,772	6,523	7,207	8,482	5,576	5,700
Recreation	4,275	2,253	3,396	3,229	3,434	3,736	4,264	4,640	5,000
Private education and research	652	474	592	614	626	644	703	801	850
Religious and welfare activities	1,190	867	890	912	938	1,040	1,094	1,233	1,500
Foreign travel and remittances	995	440	613	532	488	306	277	190	150

[1] Data are from tables 1 and 2 of the source given in footnote 1, p. 857. For commodities and services that are used both by business and consumers, only that portion of the expenditures allocated to consumers is included.
[2] Details do not necessarily add to totals because of rounding of figures.
[3] Preliminary.

The variations in the proportions of expenditures for the major types of product may be illustrated by the expenditures for food and

tobacco and for housing. The proportion of expenditures for food and tobacco rose from an average of 30.2 percent in the years from 1929 to 1941 to 37.4 percent in 1943. On the other hand, the proportion of expenditures for housing fell from an average of 14.1 percent in the years from 1929 to 1941 to 10.6 percent in 1943. The contrast was caused largely by the relatively small increase in rental charges as compared with changes in food prices since 1933.

More significant than the variations in the percentages of expenditures for the main types of product are the variations for separate items of expenditures not included in the accompanying tables but given in the article here summarized. An extreme example is the amount of expenditures for new cars. The amount for this item fell from $2,527,000,000 in 1941 to $143,300,000 in 1942. The amounts were highly variable before the war, ranging in the period between 1929 and 1941 from $2,562,900,000 in 1929 to $612,100,000 in 1932. Expenditures for new cars thus illustrate the types of expenditures that exhibit a high degree of variability. The comparatively stable types of expenditures may be illustrated by expenditures for electricity used in household operation. The amount for this item in 1929 was $615,500,000, and this was the smallest amount in any year from 1929 to 1942, the latter being the peak year, with expenditures of $1,016,100,000.[4]

The series of expenditures for consumption are of considerable significance as a development and expansion of the national-income studies. The detailed items of expenditures for commodities and services given in the source but not here reproduced are particularly valuable for a number of purposes. Price adjustments for limited types of expenditures can be made more satisfactorily than can price adjustments for the aggregate or for the major groups. The variations in expenditures for particular types of consumption reflect shifts in demand, in the use of income, and in living standards, and throw light on various problems such as shifts in employment opportunities and in the investment of capital.

Cost of Living at a Subsistence Level

A VALUABLE contribution to the knowledge of present-day living costs of families at minimum subsistence levels has been made by the Textile Workers Union of America in its report, Substandard Conditions of Living, a Study of the Cost of the Emergency Sustenance Budget in Five Textile Manufacturing Communities in January–February 1944.[5] The study was designed to measure the cost of a clearly defined minimum list of goods and services required to maintain a family of four (husband with moderately active work, wife, a boy aged 13, and a girl aged 8) at a subsistence level of living. Since this is the first repricing of the "emergency" budget developed and priced by the Works Progress Administration in 1935,[6] it provides

[4] The article here reviewed does not give itemized expenditures for 1943 except for the major types of products.

[5] Published by the Textile Workers Union of America, C. I. O., New York, 1944. The communities studied were New Bedford, Mass.; Lewiston-Auburn, Maine.; West Warwick, R. I.; High Point, N. C.; and Henderson, N. C.

[6] WPA Research Monograph XII: Intercity Differences in Costs of Living in March 1935, 59 cities, by Margaret L. Stecker (Washington) 1937; also Research Bulletin No. 21: Quantity Budgets of Goods and Services Necessary for a Basic Maintenance Standard of Living and for Operation Under Emergency Conditions.

valuable data on prices of the lowest-quality merchandise. Articles specified in this budget are generally of lower quality than those included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers. The index applies to families with incomes ranging from about $1,250 to about $2,000 in 1934–36, whereas the average cost of the "emergency" budget in 59 cities in March 1935 was $903.

The average cost of the commodities and services included in the "emergency" budget was found to be $1,415.46 in the five textile communities early in 1944. With the addition of required income and social security taxes and an allowance of 10 percent of the total cost for purchase of war bonds, the cost amounted to $1,621.41. Considering the meager list of goods and services provided by the "emergency" budget, there can be no question that the latter figure represents the very least that would be needed by a family of this type residing in these communities in 1944. In fact, the real question is whether the figure is not too low for acceptance as a minimum.

The minimum cost recommended in the T. W. U. A. report is $1,752.18, which includes an allowance for waste resulting from lack of knowledge about the most economical food purchases which must be made to assure an adequate diet at this cost.[7] The "food shopping allowance" included here amounts to 17 percent of the total food cost. Although an allowance for this factor can be justified, there is no way of knowing how much money would be required to insure adequate diets for textile workers' families.

The T. W. U. A. total does not include certain factors which tend to increase costs but which cannot be measured satisfactorily. No adjustment was made in the number of clothing articles allowed in the 1935 budget, even though quality deterioration has resulted in the pricing of cheap and shoddy garments which could not be expected to wear as long as the lowest-priced merchandise available before the war. In addition, in spite of the fact that most of the textile workers relied on installment buying for the purchase of clothing, furniture, and household equipment and that credit prices exceeded cash prices by 10 to 40 percent, only cash prices were used in computing the budgetary costs, on the theory that if the textile workers' families had higher incomes they could pay cash prices.

The data collected in January and February are used by the T. W. U. A. to compute a rough measure of the increase in the cost of the budget between 1935 and 1944, which was estimated at 37.2 percent. No figures are available as to the cost of this budget in 1935 in the 5 communities surveyed. It was thus necessary to use 1935 data from nearby cities for comparison with the figures obtained in the 1944 survey. There are no Bureau of Labor Statistics figures to compare with these, as most of the lowest-quality goods priced for the official index of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and clerical workers are of somewhat higher quality than those specified in the "emergency" budget. The BLS price quotations do show, how-

[7] The food cost was determined by pricing the items included in the low-cost wartime food diet, weighting No. 1, developed by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Minor adjustments to conform with rationing requirements were furnished by the same Bureau. The Bureau states that this food budget provides acceptable minimum standards of nutrition which should not involve health risks if followed indefinitely. The report may overemphasize the monotony of the diet provided by an expenditure of $642 per year for a family of four. The list of foods priced is more restricted than foods purchased need be in actual practice. Substitutions could be made of other low-cost foods that are equally nutritious, if the housewife has the interest and knowledge to do so.

ever, that changes in the lowest-quality goods priced for the index have been greater than price changes in the medium-quality goods which are also included in the index. Consequently, one would expect to find that the increase in the cost of this budget since 1935 would be greater than that for a budget providing goods of better quality which are customarily purchased by average families in the wage-earner and clerical group.

The union received technical assistance in this study from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on detailed specifications for the goods that were priced and from the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics on the food budget. The union's field workers were also trained in techniques of selecting the samples of stores and of price collection by members of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' field staff.

Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in August 1944

LED by substantial reductions in prices for a wide variety of agricultural products, including grains, cotton, and fresh fruits and vegetables, the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of commodity prices in primary markets [1] dropped 0.2 percent in August. The decline brought the all-commodity index to the lowest level reached since April, 103.9 percent of the 1926 average. Notwithstanding the recent decline, commodity prices were 0.8 percent higher than in August 1943. In the 5 years of war, prices for these commodities have risen 38½ percent.

Average prices for farm products dropped 1.2 percent during the month. Foods declined 0.9 percent and hides and leather products, 0.2 percent. There were a few scattered price increases in industrial commodity markets in August, largely because of OPA action in granting higher ceiling prices for cotton textiles, lumber, and certain fertilizer materials. Textile products advanced 0.4 percent and metals and metal products, building materials, and housefurnishing goods, 0.1 percent. The indexes for fuel and lighting materials, chemicals and allied products, and miscellaneous commodities remained unchanged at the July level. Slightly lower prices were reported for gasoline at midcontinent refineries. Fractional increases occurred in prices for fertilizer materials and mixed fertilizers, because of higher ceilings for phosphate rock and the elimination of the usual seasonal discounts.

The decline in prices for agricultural commodities largely accounted for a decrease of 0.8 percent in the index for raw materials during the month. Semimanufactured commodities, on the contrary, rose 0.2 percent, while quotations for finished products remained unchanged from the July level.

Average prices for farm products at the primary market level dropped 1.2 percent during August. Grain markets continued weak, with favorable crops reported in most sections of the country. Quotations for oats were more than 7 percent lower; barley, over 4 percent; and wheat, 2 percent. Rye advanced 1.4 percent, while cotton declined 2 percent under heavy liquidation of stocks. Lower prices were also reported for cows, sheep, eggs, live poultry at New York, and for most fruits and vegetables. The livestock markets averaged higher than for the preceding month. Light receipts of hogs kept prices at ceiling levels, or nearly 5 percent higher than in July. Prices of steers were 2.5 percent higher; lambs, 0.5 percent; and

[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.

live poultry at Chicago, 2.2 percent. Higher prices were also reported for fresh milk, flaxseed, tobacco, dried beans, and sweetpotatoes.

A decline of 5.5 percent in prices for fruits and vegetables was mainly responsible for a decrease of 0.9 percent in average prices of foods in wholesale markets in August. Prices were lower for apples, citrus fruits, onions, and potatoes in most markets except New York. Oatmeal declined nearly 8 percent and egg prices fell about 3 percent. The movement in prices of flour was mixed, with a slight upward tendency. Fresh milk in the Chicago and New York markets was somewhat higher than in July, and pork also advanced. The new pack of canned fruits and vegetables came onto the markets at higher prices than the ceilings which prevailed on last year's pack. Further declines were reported in prices for shearlings and goatskins. Prices for shoes and other leather products remained steady.

The effect of the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944 was reflected by an increase of nearly 2 percent in average prices for cotton textiles with the result that the index for textile products as a group rose 0.4 percent.

Quotations for gasoline at midcontinent refineries were lowered about 1 percent in August. Prices for anthracite, bituminous coal, and coke were firm.

The increase of 0.1 percent in the metals and metal products group resulted from an advance of 5.5 percent in quotations for mercury and higher prices for alloy steel bars and for tractors.

Higher prices for certain types of spruce and western pine lumber, for prepared roofing, and for turpentine brought the index for the building materials group up 0.1 percent. Quotations were lower for rosin and for common brick in a few areas.

More efficient production methods enabled manufacturers to reduce prices on alcohol and formaldehyde in August. Prices for fertilizer materials and mixed fertilizers advanced when quotations on superphosphate were increased and the seasonal discounts were dropped.

An increase of over 6 percent in prices for pillow cases and sheets, under the Stabilization Extension Act to set parity controlled ceilings for cloth, caused the index for housefurnishing goods to rise 0.1 percent.

A minor decline was reported in prices for soap powder.

Prices for most industrial commodities fluctuated within a very narrow range during the 12-month period, except in a few instances. Increased excise taxes on alcohol were largely responsible for an increase of over 33 percent in the index for drugs and pharmaceuticals. Prices for anthracite, coke, and lumber rose more than 6 percent during the year as a result of OPA action in granting higher ceilings. For no other group of commodities did prices advance more than 5 percent between August 1943 and August 1944. Price declines in industrial commodity markets have been very limited in the past year. Sharp reductions in quotations for shearlings caused the index for hides and skins to drop nearly 9 percent. Minor reductions were made in prices for certain chemicals and for heating equipment.

Agricultural commodity markets also moved within a comparatively narrow range in the past year. Grains advanced nearly 5 percent and dairy products,1.5 percent. Fruits and vegetables, on the contrary, were 2.2 percent lower than in August of last year and livestock and poultry prices declined 3.2 percent.

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TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, August 1944, Compared with July 1944, August 1943, and August 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	August 1944	July 1944	Percent of change	August 1943	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	103.9	104.1	−0.2	103.1	+0.8	75.0	+38.5
Farm products	122.6	124.1	−1.2	123.5	−.7	61.0	+101.0
Grains	122.5	125.2	−2.2	116.8	+4.9	51.5	+137.9
Livestock and poultry	125.4	123.4	+1.6	129.5	−3.2	66.0	+90.0
Other farm products	120.0	123.2	−2.6	120.8	−.7	60.1	+99.7
Foods	104.8	105.8	−.9	105.8	−.9	67.2	+56.0
Dairy products	110.5	110.3	+.2	108.9	+1.5	67.9	+62.7
Cereal products	94.3	94.3	0	93.8	+.5	71.9	+31.2
Fruits and vegetables	122.8	129.9	−5.5	125.6	−2.2	58.5	+109.9
Meats	105.9	105.9	0	106.0	−.1	73.7	+43.7
Other foods	94.1	94.7	−.6	98.0	−4.0	60.3	+56.1
Hides and leather products	116.0	116.2	−.2	117.8	−1.5	92.7	+25.1
Shoes	126.3	126.3	0	126.4	−.1	100.8	+25.3
Hides and skins	105.7	106.8	−1.0	116.0	−8.9	77.2	+36.9
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	98.4	98.0	+.4	97.4	+1.0	67.8	+45.1
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.0	0	81.5	+31.3
Cotton goods	115.9	114.0	+1.7	112.7	+2.8	65.5	+76.9
Hosiery and underwear	70.6	70.6	0	70.5	+.1	61.5	+14.8
Rayon	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	+6.3
Silk	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	-------	44.3	-------
Woolen and worsted goods	112.9	112.9	0	112.5	+.4	75.5	+49.5
Other textile products	100.5	100.5	0	98.7	+1.8	63.7	+57.8
Fuel and lighting materials	83.2	83.2	0	80.9	+2.8	72.6	+14.6
Anthracite	95.4	95.4	0	89.6	+6.5	72.1	+32.3
Bituminous coal	120.5	120.5	0	116.5	+3.4	96.0	+25.5
Coke	130.7	130.7	0	122.4	+6.8	104.2	+25.4
Electricity	(1)	(1)	-------	57.6	-------	75.8	-------
Gas	(1)	78.9	-------	76.3	-------	86.7	-------
Petroleum and products	63.9	64.0	−.2	63.0	+1.4	51.7	+23.6
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.7	+.1	103.7	+.1	93.2	+11.4
Agricultural implements	97.5	97.3	+.2	96.9	+.6	93.5	+4.3
Farm machinery	98.6	98.4	+.2	98.0	+.6	94.7	+4.1
Iron and steel	97.1	97.1	0	97.1	0	95.1	+2.1
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.7	+.1	86.0	−.2	74.6	+15.0
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	90.4	+2.2	79.3	+16.5
Building materials	116.0	115.9	+.1	112.2	+3.4	89.6	+29.5
Brick and tile	100.7	100.7	0	99.0	+1.7	90.5	+11.3
Cement	96.4	96.4	0	93.6	+3.0	91.3	+5.6
Lumber	154.4	154.2	+.1	145.0	+6.5	90.1	+71.4
Paint and paint materials	105.5	105.5	0	102.8	+2.6	82.1	+28.5
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	90.4	+2.2	79.3	+16.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	103.2	103.1	+.1	101.4	+1.8	89.5	+15.3
Chemicals and allied products	105.3	105.3	0	100.2	+5.1	74.2	+41.9
Chemicals	96.2	96.2	0	96.5	−.3	83.8	+14.8
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	220.1	220.1	0	165.2	+33.2	77.1	+185.5
Fertilizer materials	81.2	81.1	+.1	80.1	+1.4	65.5	+24.0
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.3	+.3	86.1	+.6	73.1	+18.5
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	0	102.0	0	40.6	+151.2
Housefurnishing goods	104.4	104.3	+.1	102.6	+1.8	85.6	+22.0
Furnishings	107.4	107.2	+.2	107.1	+.3	90.0	+19.3
Furniture	101.4	101.4	0	98.1	+3.4	81.1	+25.0
Miscellaneous	93.6	93.6	0	92.6	+1.1	73.3	+27.7
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	+20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	0	155.7	+2.5	68.4	+133.3
Paper and pulp	107.2	107.2	0	104.3	+2.8	80.0	+34.0
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	96.9	96.9	0	96.3	+.6	81.3	+19.2
Raw materials	112.7	113.6	−.8	112.7	0	66.5	+69.5
Semimanufactured articles	94.1	93.9	+.2	92.9	+1.3	74.5	+26.3
Manufactured products	100.9	100.9	0	99.7	+1.2	79.1	+27.6
All commodities other than farm products	99.7	99.6	+.1	98.5	+1.2	77.9	+28.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.6	98.5	+.1	97.1	+1.5	80.1	+23.1

[1] Data not yet available.

Broad price increases took place in most commodity markets during the 5-year period of hostilities. Among the outstanding price increases are the following: Over 185 percent for drugs and pharmaceuticals, 151 percent for industrial fats and oils, about 138 percent for grains, 133 percent for cattle feed, and nearly 110 percent for fruits and vegetables. Increases of more than 90 percent were recorded in prices for livestock and poultry, more than 70 percent for cotton goods and lumber, and more than 50 percent for dairy products, over 30 percent for cereal products, meats, hides and skins, woolen and worsted goods, anthracite, paper and pulp, and crude rubber, and from approximately 15 to about 25 percent for shoes, leather, hoisery and underwear, coal, coke, petroleum products, nonferrous metals, plumbing and heating fixtures, paint and paint materials, chemicals, fertilizer materials, mixed fertilizers, housefurnishings, furniture, and automobile tires and tubes.

Percentage comparisons of the August 1944 level of wholesale prices with July 1944 and August 1943 and August 1939 with corresponding index numbers are given in table 1.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to August 1944

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1943, and by months from August 1943 to August 1944, 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
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	100.3	102.7	92.2	103.1
1943											
August	123.5	105.8	117.8	97.4	80.9	103.7	112.2	100.2	102.6	92.6	103.1
September	123.1	105.0	117.8	97.5	81.0	103.7	112.5	100.3	102.6	93.0	103.1
October	122.2	105.1	117.8	97.6	81.0	103.7	112.7	100.4	102.6	93.1	103.0
November	121.4	105.8	116.5	97.7	81.2	103.8	113.1	100.3	102.8	93.2	102.9
December	121.8	105.6	117.0	97.7	82.1	103.8	113.4	100.4	102.8	93.3	103.2
1944											
January	121.8	104.9	117.2	97.7	82.3	103.7	113.5	100.4	104.5	93.2	103.3
February	122.5	104.5	116.9	97.7	83.1	103.7	113.6	100.4	104.2	93.4	103.6
March	123.6	104.6	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	114.2	100.4	104.3	93.5	103.8
April	123.2	104.9	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	115.2	105.4	104.3	93.5	103.9
May	122.9	105.0	117.0	97.8	83.2	103.7	115.7	105.4	104.3	93.5	104.0
June	125.0	106.5	116.4	97.8	83.3	103.7	115.9	105.2	104.3	93.5	104.3
July	124.1	105.8	116.2	98.0	83.2	103.7	115.9	105.3	104.3	93.6	104.1
August	122.6	104.8	116.0	98.4	83.2	103.8	116.0	105.3	104.4	93.6	103.9

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 comodities 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 8 and 9 of Wholesale Prices, July to December and Year 1942 (Bulletin No. 736).

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*1943*					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	August	112.7	92.9	99.7	98.5	97.1
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	September	112.4	92.9	99.9	98.6	97.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	October	111.9	92.9	100.0	98.7	97.3
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	November	111.3	92.9	100.2	98.8	97.4
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	December	112.1	93.1	100.2	99.0	97.6
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	*1944*					
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	January	112.2	93.2	100.2	99.1	97.8
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	February	112.8	93.4	100.4	99.3	98.0
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	March	113.4	93.7	100.5	99.3	98.1
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	April	113.2	93.6	100.8	99.6	98.4
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	May	113.0	93.7	100.9	99.7	98.5
						June	114.2	93.8	100.9	99.6	98.5
						July	113.6	93.9	100.9	99.6	98.5
						August	112.7	94.1	100.9	99.7	98.6

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during July and August 1944 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, July and August 1944*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Aug. 26	Aug. 19	Aug. 12	Aug. 5	July 29	July 22	July 15	July 8	July 1
All commodities	103.5	103.6	104.0	103.6	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	104.1
Farm products	121.8	122.3	124.8	122.5	124.1	124.1	124.2	124.1	125.5
Foods	104.0	104.5	106.1	104.6	105.3	106.0	105.6	106.0	106.7
Hides and leather products	116.6	116.4	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.8
Textile products	97.6	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.4	97.4	97.3	97.3	97.3
Fuel and lighting materials	83.7	83.8	83.8	83.8	83.9	83.9	83.8	83.8	83.8
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8
Building materials	116.0	116.0	116.0	116.0	115.9	115.9	115.8	115.8	115.9
Chemicals and allied products	105.3	105.3	105.2	105.2	105.2	105.2	105.2	105.4	105.3
Housefurnishing goods	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0
Miscellaneous	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3
Raw materials	112.5	112.8	114.3	112.9	113.8	113.8	113.9	113.8	114.6
Semimanufactured articles	93.9	93.8	93.8	93.8	93.8	93.8	93.7	93.7	93.7
Manufactured products	101.0	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.1	101.1
All commodities other than farm products	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.6	98.7	98.7

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, July 1944

FOR every 1,000 workers on factory pay rolls in July, 65 either changed jobs or left manufacturing work. The rate of accessions was 62 per 1,000, considerably below the June rate of 76, but approximately on a level with May.

For every 1,000 manufacturing employees, 49 quit their jobs, 7 were discharged, 5 were laid off, and 4 left to enter the armed services. The military separation rate was the lowest since the war began.

In all major manufacturing groups, the rate of hiring for July was below that of June. In each case, the hiring rate in June was the highest for the year, reflecting the influx of teachers and students into the labor market.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turnover and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation:												
1944	6.69	6.52	7.33	6.78	7.08	7.12	[2]6.48					
1943	7.11	7.04	7.69	7.54	6.57	7.07	7.56	8.18	8.16	7.02	6.37	6.55
1939	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46
Quit:												
1944	4.60	4.56	5.00	4.90	5.27	5.43	[2]4.93					
1943	4.45	4.65	5.36	5.41	4.81	5.20	5.61	6.30	6.29	5.19	4.46	4.38
1939	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.07	.93	.83	.69
Discharge:												
1944	.69	.64	.65	.59	.63	.68	[2].66					
1943	.52	.50	.57	.53	.55	.61	.68	.67	.62	.64	.63	.60
1939	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12
Lay-off: [3]												
1944	.79	.76	.87	.58	.50	.50	[2].49					
1943	.74	.54	.52	.64	.45	.50	.50	.46	.53	.51	.69	.99
1939	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65
Military:												
1944	.53	.49	.73	.64	.60	.44	[2].33					
1943	1.26	1.23	1.12	.87	.69	.69	.69	.67	.64	.61	.52	.50
Miscellaneous: [4]												
1944	.08	.07	.08	.07	.08	.07	[2].07					
1943	.14	.12	.12	.09	.07	.07	.08	.08	.08	.07	.07	.08
Accession:												
1944	6.47	5.46	5.76	5.53	6.39	7.60	[2]6.22					
1943	8.28	7.87	8.32	7.43	7.18	8.40	7.83	7.62	7.73	7.17	6.62	5.19
1939	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84

[1] Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor-turnover rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a 1-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor-turnover data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. The labor-turnover sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing, and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

[2] Data are preliminary.

[3] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

[4] Data for 1939 included with quits.

Total separation rates declined in all major groups except nonferrous metals and apparel. Each of these groups showed a marked increase in lay-off rates. The nonferrous-metals group reported the highest lay-off rate, 11 per 1,000, reflecting further cut-backs in the aluminum industry. In the apparel group, the increase in the lay-off rate was of a seasonal nature.

Not a single major manufacturing group reported an increase in the quit rate. The decline in the quit rates may be attributed in part to the priority referral program which became effective on July 1.

The separation rate for metal mining was 64 per 1,000 employees in July, as compared with 75 per 1,000 employees in June. In contrast to this trend, which is similar to that in manufacturing, the separation rates in anthracite and bituminous-coal mining increased over the month. The separation rates in both of the coal mining industries were, nevertheless, considerably below the level of rates in the manufacturing industries.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,* [1] *July 1944*

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	July 1944[2]	June 1944	July 1944[2]	June 1944	July 1944[2]	June 1944	July 1944[2]	June 1944	July 1944[2]	June 1944	July 1944[2]	June 1944
Manufacturing												
Ordnance	6.8	7.2	5.0	5.0	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.4	0.5	7.7	9.4
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment [3]	5.3	5.5	3.8	3.8	.7	.7	.4	.5	.4	.5	-----	-----
Ammunition, except small-arms [3]	7.9	8.4	6.0	6.3	1.0	1.0	.5	.6	.4	.5	-----	-----
Tanks [3]	(4)	7.3	(4)	3.8	(4)	.9	(4)	2.2	(4)	.4	-----	-----
Sighting and fire-control equipment [3]	3.1	3.8	1.8	2.5	.4	.4	.5	.3	.4	.6	-----	-----
Iron and steel and their products	4.9	5.3	3.5	3.9	.5	.5	.5	.4	.4	.5	4.8	5.8
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.4	3.6	2.7	2.8	.2	.2	.1	.1	.4	.5	3.6	4.3
Gray-iron castings	6.9	9.0	5.5	6.9	.8	1.1	.2	.4	.4	.6	7.7	8.7
Malleable-iron castings	5.0	6.7	4.2	5.7	.4	.4	.0	.0	.4	.6	5.3	6.3
Steel castings	6.5	7.0	5.2	5.6	.7	.6	.1	.2	.5	.6	6.7	6.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.5	5.9	4.1	4.5	.3	.4	.2	.3	.9	.7	6.6	6.3
Tin cans and other tinware	10.8	13.9	8.6	11.2	1.5	1.8	.1	.4	.6	.5	14.3	20.3
Wire products	2.8	3.4	2.1	2.3	.3	.3	.1	.3	.3	.5	4.4	4.0
Cutlery and edge tools	(4)	5.9	(4)	4.7	(4)	.9	(4)	.1	(4)	.2	(4)	7.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.2	6.0	4.0	4.9	.7	.6	.2	.2	.3	.3	5.1	6.8
Hardware	3.8	4.8	3.2	3.6	.2	.3	.2	.4	.2	.5	4.3	5.0
Plumbers' supplies	4.7	6.9	3.7	5.5	.4	.5	.2	.2	.4	.7	4.7	6.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	7.6	9.2	5.7	5.8	.9	.9	.5	1.9	.5	.6	7.3	12.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	(4)	6.6	(4)	3.9	(4)	.4	(4)	1.6	(4)	.7	(4)	4.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	7.1	8.0	5.7	5.8	.6	.7	.3	.9	.5	.6	8.9	10.0
Fabricated structural-metal products	9.8	9.6	5.6	6.4	1.7	1.7	2.0	.8	.5	.7	7.7	9.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	5.0	6.0	3.8	4.2	.7	.8	.1	.6	.4	.4	4.8	6.1
Forgings, iron and steel	4.4	4.9	3.4	3.8	.3	.4	.3	.1	.4	.6	3.2	4.4
Firearms (60 caliber and under) [3]	10.9	8.2	3.6	3.5	.8	1.5	5.7	2.6	.8	.6	-----	-----
Electrical machinery	5.1	5.5	3.9	4.2	.6	.6	.2	.3	.4	.4	5.0	6.5
Electrical equipment for industrial use	4.1	4.1	3.1	3.1	.4	.5	.2	.1	.4	.4	3.8	4.7
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	6.4	6.8	5.1	5.2	.8	.7	.2	.5	.3	.4	6.5	8.6
Communication equipment, except radios	4.1	4.7	3.1	3.5	.4	.4	.2	.3	.4	.5	4.3	5.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,* [1] *July 1944*—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944
Manufacturing—Continued												
Machinery, except electrical	4.6	5.2	3.3	3.7	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	4.2	5.6
Engines and turbines [3]	4.9	5.5	2.9	3.6	.7	.8	.8	.4	.5	.7	----	----
Agricultural machinery and tractors	5.3	6.8	4.2	5.2	.5	.6	.2	.4	.4	.6	6.1	7.1
Machine tools	3.3	3.9	2.2	2.6	.5	.5	.2	.2	.4	.6	2.8	3.9
Machine-tool accessories	4.3	5.2	2.6	3.1	.7	.8	.6	.6	.4	.7	3.5	4.9
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.6	4.3	2.5	2.9	.5	.6	.1	.1	.5	.7	3.4	4.7
Textile machinery	(4)	3.5	(4)	2.5	(4)	.2	(4)	.4	(4)	.4	(4)	5.3
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.0	5.3	3.7	4.0	.6	.6	.3	.2	.4	.5	4.2	5.7
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.1	5.9	3.1	4.3	.5	.7	.1	.3	.4	.6	4.6	5.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.5	8.3	5.0	5.5	1.3	1.3	.6	.8	.6	.7	6.1	6.8
Aircraft	6.4	7.9	4.7	5.3	.6	.6	.4	1.1	.7	.9	5.2	5.7
Aircraft parts	5.5	5.6	3.7	3.8	.8	.9	.7	.4	.3	.5	4.9	5.6
Shipbuilding and repairs	9.4	10.5	6.0	6.7	2.0	2.1	.8	.9	.6	.8	7.3	8.5
Automobiles	5.3	5.7	3.6	4.0	.7	.7	.6	.5	.4	.5	5.8	6.5
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	4.9	5.4	3.0	3.5	.5	.6	1.1	1.0	.3	.3	5.5	6.7
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	5.5	6.0	4.0	4.4	.8	.8	.3	.2	.4	.6	6.0	6.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	7.4	7.4	5.1	5.3	.7	.7	1.1	.8	.5	.6	6.0	6.9
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.3	4.8	3.2	3.9	.4	.3	.2	.1	.5	.5	3.4	4.5
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	12.2	13.6	9.2	9.0	.7	.7	1.5	2.9	.8	1.0	13.3	9.8
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	4.5	4.4	3.6	3.3	.3	.3	.1	.3	.5	.5	4.4	3.5
Aluminum and magnesium products	8.9	7.8	5.4	5.5	.9	.8	2.0	.7	.6	.8	5.0	6.9
Lighting equipment	6.4	6.2	5.1	4.8	.7	.6	.4	.3	.2	.5	7.5	9.3
Nonferrous metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	6.0	7.4	4.7	5.8	.7	.7	.2	.5	.4	.4	5.8	8.1
Lumber and timber basic products	8.4	9.7	7.0	7.9	.4	.5	.5	.6	.5	.7	9.3	10.3
Sawmills	8.2	9.1	6.9	7.6	.3	.4	.5	.3	.5	.8	9.6	9.8
Planing and plywood mills	7.2	9.0	5.6	7.0	.6	.8	.5	.7	.5	.5	6.7	9.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.6	10.2	7.4	8.9	.6	.7	.3	.2	.3	.4	8.8	11.9
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.9	10.2	7.8	8.9	.5	.7	.3	.2	.3	.4	8.6	11.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.2	5.9	4.1	4.6	.4	.4	.3	.5	.4	.4	5.3	6.8
Glass and glass products	5.1	6.1	3.6	4.1	.5	.5	.5	1.0	.5	.5	5.8	6.8
Cement	3.4	3.4	2.9	2.7	.1	.1	.1	.3	.3	.3	5.1	5.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	6.2	7.7	5.2	6.6	.4	.4	.2	.2	.4	.5	6.0	7.7
Pottery and related products	6.5	6.9	5.9	6.2	.2	.3	.1	.1	.3	.3	6.4	9.4
Textile-mill products	6.3	6.7	5.3	5.7	.4	.4	.3	.3	.3	.3	5.9	6.9
Cotton	6.9	7.6	5.9	6.5	.5	.4	.2	.3	.3	.4	6.9	7.6
Silk and rayon goods	6.2	7.4	5.2	6.1	.5	.6	.2	.3	.3	.4	6.3	7.8
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	4.0	3.7	3.3	3.0	.2	.2	.2	.3	.3	.2	3.1	3.9
Hosiery, full-fashioned	4.5	5.9	4.0	5.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	.1	.2	4.9	5.7
Hosiery, seamless	6.2	6.9	5.7	6.3	.3	.3	.1	.1	.1	.2	5.6	8.2
Knitted underwear	7.6	5.5	6.4	4.8	.3	.3	.8	.2	.1	.2	5.0	6.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	4.2	5.3	3.0	3.9	.6	.6	.3	.3	.3	.5	3.6	5.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	6.5	6.4	5.6	5.8	.2	.2	.6	.3	.1	.1	5.7	7.2
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.4	4.3	4.0	4.0	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	4.1	4.7
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.0	.3	.3	.1	.1	.1	.1	5.6	7.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,* [1] *July 1944*—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944	July 1944 [2]	June 1944
Manufacturing—Continued												
Leather and leather products	5.8	6.5	4.9	5.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	5.8	7.2
Leather	4.6	4.4	3.7	3.6	.4	.3	.2	.2	.3	.3	4.9	5.5
Boots and shoes	6.0	6.9	5.2	5.9	.2	.4	.3	.2	.3	.4	5.9	7.5
Food and kindred products	10.0	11.2	8.5	9.7	.6	.6	.5	.4	.4	.5	10.2	14.0
Meat products	9.5	11.2	7.9	9.5	.7	.7	.4	.4	.5	.6	9.5	13.8
Grain-mill products	11.6	11.0	9.2	9.5	1.2	.6	.6	.2	.6	.7	14.1	13.8
Tobacco manufactures	7.9	8.6	7.3	7.4	.3	.4	.2	.7	.1	.1	7.6	9.1
Paper and allied products	6.6	7.4	5.3	6.3	.5	.4	.3	.2	.5	.5	7.0	9.1
Paper and pulp	5.6	6.7	4.4	5.6	.4	.3	.3	.2	.5	.6	6.4	8.4
Paper boxes	8.6	8.9	7.3	7.8	.7	.5	.2	.1	.4	.5	8.8	11.2
Chemicals and allied products	5.3	6.1	3.6	3.9	.6	.5	.7	1.2	.4	.5	5.5	6.5
Paints, varnishes, and colors	4.5	5.4	3.5	4.4	.6	.6	.1	.1	.3	.3	5.0	7.0
Rayon and allied products	4.0	4.6	3.2	3.6	.3	.3	.2	.2	.3	.5	5.0	6.5
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.8	5.1	3.2	3.8	.6	.6	.5	.1	.5	.6	4.5	6.1
Explosives [3]	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.9	.8	.5	.1	.2	.4	.7	-----	-----
Small-arms ammunition [3]	7.4	10.1	4.2	4.3	.7	.6	2.2	4.7	.3	.5	-----	-----
Products of petroleum and coal	2.8	3.6	2.1	2.7	.2	.3	.2	.2	.3	.4	3.6	4.0
Petroleum refining	2.7	3.5	2.1	2.6	.2	.3	.1	.2	.3	.4	3.5	3.9
Rubber products	6.1	6.7	5.1	5.6	.5	.4	.1	.3	.4	.4	6.4	7.5
Rubber tires and inner tubes	5.6	6.0	4.7	4.8	.5	.4	.1	.3	.3	.5	5.8	6.8
Rubber footwear and related products	6.8	8.0	6.0	7.2	.2	.4	.3	0	.3	.4	6.0	9.0
Miscellaneous rubber industries	6.7	7.5	5.5	6.3	.6	.5	.2	.3	.4	.4	7.1	8.0
Miscellaneous industries	4.1	4.7	2.9	3.5	.4	.5	.4	.2	.4	.5	4.6	5.0
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining	6.4	7.5	4.6	5.5	.4	.4	.4	.5	1.0	1.1	3.9	4.5
Iron-ore	3.4	3.9	2.3	2.6	.2	.2	.1	.2	.8	.9	2.0	2.7
Copper-ore	8.8	9.2	6.4	6.9	.4	.4	.5	.3	1.5	1.6	4.6	5.3
Lead- and zinc-ore	7.0	8.7	5.0	7.0	.3	.5	.9	.2	.8	1.0	4.6	5.6
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum-ore	8.6	10.9	6.4	7.2	1.0	1.0	.3	1.9	.9	.8	6.5	5.3
Coal mining:												
Anthracite	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.4	0	0	.2	.1	.2	.2	1.5	1.8
Bituminous	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.0	.2	.2	0	.1	.3	.3	3.3	3.1
Public utilities:												
Telephone	3.5	3.7	3.0	3.3	.2	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	4.0	4.9
Telegraph	3.6	4.0	3.2	3.5	.2	.1	.1	.2	.1	.2	4.5	4.4

[1] Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turnover have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-rolls sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are still classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major product.

[2] Data are preliminary.

[3] Publication of accession rates is restricted in these specific war industries.

[4] Data not available.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees)* [1] *for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, July 1944* [2]

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All manufacturing	5.6	8.2	3.9	6.8	5.2	8.1
Ordnance	5.5	8.7	3.7	7.1.	5.8	10.8
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	4.6	7.2	3.0	5.7	4.3	7.1
Ammunition, except small-arms	6.5	9.5	4.4	7.9	7.0	12.5
Tanks	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Sighting and fire-control equipment	2.1	5.3	1.1	3.3	1.5	3.9
Iron and steel and their products	4.5	8.7	3.1	6.3	4.2	9.0
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.2	6.7	2.4	6.0	3.2	7.4
Gray-iron castings	6.5	8.9	5.1	6.3	7.3	11.5
Malleable-iron castings	4.6	7.7	3.7	7.5	5.0	7.5
Steel castings	6.4	7.9	5.1	6.1	6.6	7.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.4	5.0	4.1	4.9	6.4	9.0
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	9.1	15.8	2.9	5.3	3.5	9.0
Electrical machinery	3.8	6.5	2.5	5.5	3.5	6.4
Electrical equipment for industrial use	3.0	5.9	1.9	4.8	2.5	5.4
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	4.8	7.6	3.1	6.6	4.8	7.9
Communication equipment, except radios	3.0	5.0	1.6	4.4	3.1	5.3
Machinery, except electrical	4.0	6.7	2.7	5.3	3.6	6.3
Engines and turbines	4.4	6.7	2.4	4.5	3.7	5.6
Machine tools	2.6	5.9	1.8	4.6	2.2	5.9
Machine-tool accessories	3.9	5.6	2.2	4.1	3.0	5.1
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.2	5.7	2.1	4.6	2.8	6.6
General industrial machinery, except pumps	4.3	7.2	2.9	6.0	3.6	6.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	3.3	7.0	2.3	6.1	3.5	9.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.0	8.9	4.4	6.8	5.3	8.3
Aircraft	5.5	7.8	3.5	6.5	4.1	7.0
Aircraft parts	4.3	8.2	2.8	5.8	3.5	8.0
Shipbuilding and repair	9.0	11.8	5.6	8.4	6.6	11.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	7.0	9.1	4.8	6.4	5.5	7.6
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.2	6.8	3.1	5.2	3.1	7.9
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	12.7	8.5	9.6	6.3	13.8	8.7
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	3.8	6.6	2.8	5.9	3.2	8.2
Aluminum and magnesium products	7.9	12.8	4.9	7.3	4.6	6.8
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	5.5	6.7	4.2	5.9	5.2	7.1
Chemicals and allied products	4.5	7.0	2.8	5.2	4.3	8.1
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.3	6.9	2.8	4.8	4.0	6.5
Explosives	4.4	6.4	3.2	4.8	5.3	13.3
Small-arms ammunition	6.4	8.7	3.2	5.5	5.2	9.3

[1] These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates and should not be used to estimate employment.
[2] Data are preliminary.
[3] Data not available.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, August 1944

BUILDING construction started in urban areas of the United States during August was valued at 85 million dollars, 6 percent less than the July total. Federal contract awards declined one-fifth in value to the lowest level since the beginning of the war construction program, while non-Federal construction volume remained virtually the same as in July. The value of additions, alterations, and repairs declined 10 percent and that of new residential and new nonresidential construction, 6 and 3 percent, respectively.

Chiefly because of a 44-percent decrease in the volume of Federal construction contracts awarded, there was a 9-percent drop in the value of all urban building construction started this August as compared with August of last year. Permit valuations for non-Federal construction were only 8 percent lower than last August.

Both Federal and non-Federal new residential building were substantially lower this August than in August 1943. On the other hand, in the case of new nonresidential building, the non-Federal was more than twice last year's August total, while the Federal was a third less, resulting in a 10-percent increase in the total.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, August 1944*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	August 1944	Percent of change from—		August 1944 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		July 1944	August 1943		July 1944	August 1943
All building construction	55,719	−12.1	−12.7	$84,969	−6.1	−19.2
New residential	6,996	−12.0	−47.9	26,725	−6.0	−49.2
New nonresidential	6,162	−29.5	−19.3	31,606	−2.6	+10.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	42,561	−8.8	−.4	26,638	−10.2	+11.3

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which building permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded during August, and their valuation, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, August 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	August 1944	Percent of change from—		August 1944 (in thousand)	Percent of change from—	
		July 1944	August 1943		July 1944	August 1943
All dwellings	8,236	−5.6	−53.5	$26,426	−5.1	−49.5
Privately financed	7,271	−4.9	−44.4	22,849	−3.5	−46.6
1-family	5,441	−16.8	−25.0	17,069	−15.4	−30.0
2-family [1]	658	+67.9	−66.0	2,427	+78.1	−59.5
Multifamily [2]	1,172	+63.5	−70.0	3,353	+56.0	−73.0
Federally financed	965	−10.1	−79.1	3,577	−13.9	−62.3

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

Comparison of First 8 Months of 1943 and 1944

Permit valuation and contract values for all building construction as reported in the first 8 months of 1944 are compared with similar data for 1943 in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 8 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total construction			Federal		
	First 8 months of—		Percent of change	First 8 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All construction	745,253	857,485	−13.1	224,414	426,240	−47.4
New residential	254,484	398,182	−36.1	38,014	153,018	−75.2
New nonresidential	290,482	315,137	−7.8	178,316	261,127	−31.7
Additions, alterations, and repairs	200,287	144,166	+38.9	8,084	12,095	−33.2

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 8 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 8 months of—		Percent of change	First 8 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All dwellings	82,094	145,901	−43.7	251,598	387,030	−35.0
Privately financed	68,265	79,094	−13.7	215,141	244,514	−12.0
1-family	52,212	51,900	+.6	164,604	169,919	−3.1
2-family [1]	6,953	10,595	−34.4	23,971	29,365	−19.4
Multifamily [2]	9,100	16,599	−45.2	26,566	45,230	−41.3
Federal	13,829	66,807	−79.3	36,457	142,516	−174.4

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

Construction from Public Funds, August 1944

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during July and August 1944 and August 1943 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes construction both inside and outside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started On Construction Projects Financed From Federal Funds, August 1944*

Source of Federal Funds	Value of contracts awarded and force account work started (in thousands)		
	August 1944 [1]	July 1944 [2]	August 1943 [2]
All Federal funds	$306,722	$179,555	$227,589
War public works	5,671	7,026	4,031
Regular Federal appropriations	296,852	167,948	204,493
Federal Public Housing Authority	4,249	4,581	19,065

[1] Preliminary; subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States which by Census definition includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more, and by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning volume, are derived from the 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 urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits which were received in August 1944 for the cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at $17,901,000 in August 1944, $22,655,000 in July 1944, and $31,942,000 in August 1943.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Reports for August 1944

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was 38,771,000 in August, 47,000 more than in July but a million less than in August 1943. The gain during the month reflects a seasonal expansion of the manufacturing component and the addition of 36,000 workers to Federal, State, and local governments.

Industrial and Business Employment

Wage-earner employment in all manufacturing industries increased 70,000 in August, in spite of a decrease of 19,000 in the durable-goods group of manufacturing industries. The decline in this group of industries primarily reflects further cut-backs in the aircraft and shipbuilding industries, aggregating 34,000 for the transportation-equipment group as a whole. To a limited extent this was offset by an increase of 10,000 in the automobile industry and by gains of less magnitude in the iron and steel and lumber groups. The gain in the automobile industry resulted from increased production of automobile replacement parts. The rise in iron and steel employment was localized in the bag and shell loading industry, while the increased employment in lumber was seasonal.

The gain of 89,000 wage earners in the nondurable-goods group was due primarily to the seasonal expansion of the food group and, to a lesser degree, of the apparel group. The canning industry was wholly responsible for the 75,000 wage earners added to the food group. The peach and apricot crops, the largest on record, necessitated the hiring of many part-time workers by the canning industry.

The expansion in the production of smokeless powder is reflected in the addition of 4,000 employees to the chemicals group. The increase over the month in this group is the first increase since October 1943.

Anthracite mines employed 64,400 wage earners, slightly less than in July but more than 4,000 less than in June, an indication of the strikes that started in July and continued into August. Similarly the decline of 5,000 miners in bituminous-coal mining between June and August reflects, primarily, scattered strikes in that industry.

TABLE 1.—*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 (in thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944
All manufacturing	13,001	12,931	12,985	13,990	158.7	157.8
Durable goods	7,715	7,734	7,819	8,321	213.7	214.2
Nondurable goods	5,286	5,197	5,166	5,669	115.4	113.4
Iron and steel and their products	1,663	1,657	1,660	1,718	167.7	167.1
Electrical machinery	719	720	729	717	277.4	277.8
Machinery, except electrical	1,154	1,161	1,177	1,251	218.4	219.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1,998	2,032	2,079	2,304	1258.6	1280.2
Automobiles	691	681	689	714	171.7	169.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	380	379	385	415	165.6	165.2
Lumber and timber basic products	438	431	427	482	104.3	102.4
Furniture and finished lumber products	341	340	339	362	104.1	103.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	331	333	334	358	112.7	113.4
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,083	1,089	1,105	1,204	94.7	95.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	762	747	773	834	96.5	94.6
Leather and leather products	307	307	308	325	88.5	88.5
Food	1,127	1,052	975	1,097	131.8	123.1
Tobacco manufactures	83	83	84	88	88.5	88.6
Paper and allied products	303	303	303	315	114.1	114.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	332	333	331	337	101.1	101.6
Chemicals and allied products	588	584	585	741	204.0	202.7
Products of petroleum and coal	135	134	132	127	127.6	126.7
Rubber products	191	190	191	194	157.8	157.4
Miscellaneous industries	375	375	379	407	153.2	153.5

[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.
[2] Preliminary.

Public Employment

Total employment of the Navy Department declined in August 1944, for the first time since April 1938. Navy employment in continental United States, however, continued upward, with an increase of 5,000. Employment in the War Department, after recessions in fall and spring and increases in winter and summer months, showed a net decrease of 58,000 in August 1944 over August 1943. Increases which occurred in agencies other than the war agencies were mainly in the Post Office Department (9,000) and in the Agriculture and Interior Departments and Veterans Administration (1,000 each). The inland Waterways Corporation, previously reported as a Government corporation, was included with data for the Commerce Department for the first time in August 1944, and accounted for the entire increase of 2,000 in Commerce Department employment.

The total of 3,326,000 employees in the entire Federal executive service in August 1944 was 20,000 higher than the total in July, and 40,000 higher than that of a year ago. From July to August 1944, war agencies gained 5,000 and other agencies 14,000.

Employment on shipbuilding and repair projects financed by the Federal Government totaled 1,530,000 in August 1944. Of the decline of 32,000 during the month 2,000 took place in navy yards and 30,000 in private shipyards.

Although the Pacific region showed the greatest numerical decrease (8,000), greater relative decreases occurred in all the other regions. However, the Pacific region showed the greatest relative decline over the year—13 percent.

Employment on Federally financed construction projects showed little net change over the month. The construction of nonresidential buildings, streets and highways, water and sewer systems, and miscellaneous projects showed slight increases, which, however, were more than offset by small decreases on other projects. The net decline on all projects was 700 during the month and 315,000 during the year.

Completions of war-production facilities during August 1944 were responsible for a decline of 5,000 persons on projects financed from RFC funds.

Seasonally greater activity on the construction and maintenance of State roads financed from State or local funds caused increases of 2,000 and 3,000, respectively, on the two types of projects, during August.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services, August 1944*

[Subject to revision]

Service	Employment			Pay rolls		
	August 1944	July 1944	August 1943	August 1944	July 1944	August 1943
Executive [1]	3,325,848	3,306,261	3,285,466	$712,592,000	$708,630,000	$704,618,000
War agencies [2]	2,482,261	2,476,944	2,468,842	543,959,000	542,800,000	541,166,000
Continental United States	2,112,426	2,103,800	2,161,506	(3)	(3)	(3)
Outside continental United States [4]	369,835	373,144	307,336	(3)	(3)	(3)
Other agencies	843,587	829,317	816,624	168,633,000	165,830,000	163,452,00
Continental United States	828,723	814,428	800,558	(3)	(3)	(3)
Outside continental United States [4]	14,864	14,889	16,066	(3)	(3)	(3)
Judicial	2,655	2,663	2,651	784,351	786,714	767,776
Legislative	6,212	6,258	6,091	1,528,319	1,508,434	1,510,725

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards and on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects. Pay rolls for July and August 1944 are estimated.

[2] Covers War and Navy Departments, 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, Selective Service System, Petroleum Administration for War, War Refugee Board, and Committee for Congested Production Areas.

[3] Break-down not available.

[4] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

Data for the legislative and judicial services are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics and data for the executive service are reported through the Civil Service Commission. For most agencies the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction and shipbuilding and repair projects, financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, directly from the shipyards and construction contractors. For projects of the War Department and Federal Public Housing Authority, however, reports are received through the headquarters of the respective agencies, and for State road projects, they are received through the Public Roads Administration.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data is shown in table 2 for the regular Federal services. Table 3 shows data for construction and total shipbuilding and repair projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, and for State road projects financed wholly from State or local funds, while table 4 shows data for shipbuilding and repair projects by region. It should be noted that data for employees

located outside continental United States are included in the figures for the regular Federal services but are excluded from those for construction and shipbuilding and repair projects. Federal workers who receive either $1 a year or month or no compensation whatever for their services are excluded.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls on Federally Financed Construction and Shipbuilding and Repair Projects* [1] *and on Locally Financed State Roads, August 1944*

[In thousands]

Program and type of project	Employment			Pay rolls		
	August 1944 [2]	July 1944	August 1943	August 1944 [2]	July 1944	August 1943
Federal						
Shipbuilding and repair	1,529.5	1,561.2	1,714.9	426,185	435,040	460,824
United States navy yards [3]	324.0	326.2	333.0	89,019	89,632	88,291
Private shipyards	1,205.5	1,235.0	1,381.9	337,166	345,417	372,533
Construction:						
Financed from Federal appropriations [4] [5]	184.0	184.7	409.7	34,829	35,110	91,721
Airports	18.8	19.9	71.8	3,170	3,364	11,825
Buildings—						
Residential	21.8	23.6	76.2	4,708	5,108	15,634
Nonresidential	79.3	78.3	227.9	14,690	14,496	41,664
Electrification	.4	.3	.7	78	67	114
Reclamation	13.9	14.5	21.3	3,041	3,172	4,169
River, harbor, and flood control	19.8	20.3	29.6	3,854	3,961	5,387
Streets and highways	17.5	17.0	35.2	3,102	3,020	6,247
Water and sewer systems	6.7	5.1	8.5	1,063	809	1,833
Miscellaneous	5.8	5.7	27.5	1,123	1,113	4,848
Financed from R. F. C. funds	31.7	36.6	156.1	7,073	8,164	36,102
State [5]						
New road construction	21.0	19.1	28.9	([6])	([6])	([6])
Road maintenance	101.2	98.2	98.1	([6])	([6])	([6])

[1] Data are for continental United States exclusive of Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone. Employment data represent the weekly average; pay-roll data for construction projects are for the calendar month; pay-roll data for shipbuilding and repair are for the fiscal month.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Md.) Coast Guard yard.

[4] Includes the following force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government: August 1943, 47,631; July 1944, 39,272; August 1944, 38,369. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service; all other workers were employed by contractors or subcontractors.

[5] Data for August 1944 partially estimated.

[6] Data not available.

TABLE 4.—*Total Employment in United States Navy Yards and Private Shipyards, by Shipbuilding Region, August 1944*

Shipbuilding region	Employment (in thousands)			Percent of change	
	August 1944 [1]	July 1944	August 1943	July to August 1944	August 1943 to August 1944
All regions	1,529.5	1,561.2	1,714.9	−2.0	−10.8
United States navy yards [2]	324.0	326.2	333.0	−.7	−2.7
Private shipyards	1,205.5	1,235.0	1,381.9	−2.4	−12.8
North Atlantic	552.5	562.5	630.0	−1.8	−12.3
South Atlantic	135.0	137.4	153.1	−1.7	−11.8
Gulf	207.7	213.4	231.3	−2.7	−10.2
Pacific	513.2	521.0	587.8	−1.5	−12.7
Great Lakes	58.9	63.5	66.1	−7.2	−10.9
Inland	62.2	63.4	46.6	−1.9	+33.5

[1] Preliminary.

[2] Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Md.) Coast Guard yard.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, July 1944

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of employment in nonagricultural establishments are shown in table 1. The estimates are based on reports of employers to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on unemployment-compensation data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance. The estimates include all wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural establishments but exclude military personnel, proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic servants.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are published each month in a detailed report on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Total estimated employment [1]	38,724	38,824	38,672	39,921
Manufacturing	16,042	16,093	16,122	17,059
Mining	833	844	839	888
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	685	691	686	1,222
Transportation and public utilities	3,808	3,803	3,768	3,689
Trade	6,945	6,977	6,962	6,920
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,581	4,520	4,363	4,230
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,830	5,896	5,932	5,913

[1] Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 26 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on 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 cleaning and dyeing, 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

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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 about 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, cleaning and dying, and insurance, to about 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 154 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 154 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.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, for May, June, and July 1944, and for July 1943, are presented in tables 3 and 5.

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 data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers, regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables, since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustments to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group do not in general add to the total for that group.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry [2]	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
All manufacturing	12,931	12,985	13,020	13,911
Durable goods	7,734	7,819	7,879	8,296
Nondurable goods	5,197	5,166	5,141	5,615
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,657	1,660	1,656	1,715
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	481.0	481.8	481.5	517.7
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	72.6	73.1	73.4	80.9
Malleable-iron castings	24.3	24.6	24.6	26.2
Steel castings	73.5	74.6	75.6	84.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.6
Tin cans and other tinware	41.2	39.8	37.5	35.2
Wire drawn from purchased rods	32.8	33.4	33.5	35.7
Wirework	35.2	35.0	34.6	32.8
Cutlery and edge tools	22.8	23.0	22.9	21.4
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	27.1	27.7	27.8	27.6
Hardware	45.8	45.6	45.8	45.7
Plumbers' supplies	22.7	22.9	23.0	23.2
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	63.5	63.0	61.7	54.8
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	55.6	56.3	56.7	59.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	89.0	88.8	88.5	91.2
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	75.3	76.2	76.2	69.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	13.2	13.1	13.2	13.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	26.3	26.6	27.0	29.2
Forgings, iron and steel	35.0	36.5	37.4	40.1
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	26.2	26.4	26.2	26.8
Screw-machine products and wood screws	44.8	45.9	46.4	49.9
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	6.9	6.5	6.7	8.6
Electrical machinery	720	729	731	714
Electrical equipment	449.8	456.0	455.1	463.6
Radios and phonographs [3]	126.3	128.6	128.9	115.7
Communication equipment [3]	112.1	112.5	115.0	111.0
Machinery, except electrical	1,161	1,177	1,178	1,251
Machinery and machine-shop products	462.2	468.0	469.6	494.5
Tractors	60.0	60.0	59.7	52.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	45.4	45.9	45.3	38.7
Machine tools	77.0	78.5	79.1	110.5
Machine-tool accessories	67.8	68.7	69.5	88.3
Textile machinery	26.8	27.2	27.6	28.4
Pumps and pumping equipment	79.0	80.9	80.5	76.6
Typewriters	11.3	11.1	11.2	11.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	32.2	33.4	33.1	34.9
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	13.6	13.7	13.5	14.1
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	9.3	9.3	9.3	10.7
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	52.2	52.9	52.5	54.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,032	2,079	2,137	2,306
Locomotives	35.6	36.1	36.4	33.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	58.2	58.3	58.5	62.0
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.4	9.5	9.3	9.8
Automobiles	681	689	696	694
Nonferrous metals and their products	379	385	388	414
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	48.3	49.1	51.0	58.2
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	67.9	70.3	71.5	74.6
Clocks and watches	25.6	25.4	24.8	24.8
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	13.7	14.1	14.2	15.8
Silverware and plated ware	10.6	10.5	10.4	11.8
Lighting equipment	26.5	26.2	25.3	24.4
Aluminum manufactures	72.7	74.6	76.1	78.8
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	32.3	32.4	31.7	30.3
Lumber and timber basic products	431	427	425	484
Sawmills and logging camps	237.5	235.4	232.5	264.5
Planing and plywood mills	71.3	71.0	72.2	82.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Con

Industry [2]	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Durable goods—Continued				
Furniture and finished lumber products	340	339	336	360
Mattresses and bedsprings	16.9	16.6	16.4	18.3
Furniture	156.5	157.7	155.9	168.6
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	28.2	28.2	28.2	29.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.5	12.7	12.4	11.8
Wood preserving	10.2	10.0	9.8	10.6
Wood, turned and shaped	22.0	21.1	21.2	22.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	333	334	332	358
Glass and glassware	91.3	92.7	91.6	88.4
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.3	10.3	10.4	11.4
Cement	17.4	17.1	17.0	24.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	42.8	42.7	42.3	51.1
Pottery and related products	41.4	41.6	41.2	42.2
Gypsum	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.6
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.7	9.4	9.2	11.0
Lime	8.2	8.2	8.4	9.5
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13.1	12.7	12.4	12.6
Abrasives	21.3	21.7	21.5	24.5
Asbestos products	20.6	20.5	20.8	22.3
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,089	1,105	1,111	1,219
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	434.2	435.8	437.9	484.2
Cotton smallwares	13.1	13.4	13.5	16.6
Silk and rayon goods	88.5	89.5	89.6	95.0
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	145.9	151.3	152.1	164.8
Hosiery	104.1	106.2	106.5	15.6
Knitted cloth	10.4	10.6	10.8	11.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	28.8	29.6	30.0	32.9
Knitted underwear	35.2	36.1	36.1	41.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	60.1	60.8	62.4	66.8
Carpets and rugs, wool	19.9	20.3	20.3	22.4
Hats, fur-felt	9.2	9.4	9.5	9.8
Jute goods, except felts	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.17
Cordage and twine	15.3	15.4	15.7	17.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	747	773	769	833
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	207.7	213.2	212.7	227.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	53.2	53.7	53.4	59.3
Underwear and neckwear, men's	11.9	12.2	12.4	13.1
Work shirts	15.1	15.3	15.4	18.3
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	205.0	216.6	213.4	229.2
Corsets and allied garments	14.4	15.2	15.3	16.0
Millinery	17.4	16.9	18.6	18.4
Handkerchiefs	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.7
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	13.1	13.3	13.0	16.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	10.4	10.2	9.6	14.2
Textile bags	14.0	14.3	14.5	14.4
Leather and leather products	307	308	307	330
Leather	40.0	40.3	40.4	45.1
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	16.2	16.3	16.2	17.1
Boots and shoes	174.0	174.9	173.8	184.2
Leather gloves and mittens	12.7	12.8	12.9	14.4
Trunks and suitcases	12.3	11.8	11.6	13.6
Food	1,052	975	944	1,019
Slaughtering and meat packing	158.7	157.7	154.6	161.2
Butter	25.1	25.2	23.8	23.9
Condensed and evaporated milk	15.8	16.1	14.8	14.6
Ice cream	18.0	17.5	15.6	17.9
Flour	29.0	28.0	27.6	28.2
Feeds, prepared	19.9	19.8	19.8	21.7
Cereal preparations	9.4	9.3	9.3	10.0
Baking	258.4	257.4	253.9	253.0
Sugar refining, cane	15.1	14.6	14.5	14.9
Sugar, beet	4.0	4.2	4.4	5.0
Confectionery	54.2	56.4	56.6	51.7
Beverages, nonalcoholic	32.3	30.6	27.9	30.2
Malt liquors	53.3	50.8	50.1	48.4
Canning and preserving	177.9	110.5	99.9	161.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Con.

Industry [2]	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Tobacco manufactures	83	84	82	89
Cigarettes	35.0	34.3	33.3	33.2
Cigars	34.7	36.2	36.2	41.8
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	7.8	7.7	7.7	8.1
Paper and allied products	303	303	303	316
Paper and pulp	146.2	146.0	144.9	149.9
Paper goods, other	45.9	46.1	46.8	47.8
Envelopes	9.5	9.6	9.7	10.4
Paper bags	13.3	13.2	13.5	12.3
Paper boxes	79.3	79.0	79.2	84.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	333	331	329	339
Newspapers and periodicals	109.7	110.4	110.0	112.0
Printing, book and job	134.6	131.6	130.9	134.7
Lithographing	25.1	25.0	24.6	25.8
Bookbinding	28.2	28.2	28.3	30.2
Chemicals and allied products	584	585	593	745
Paints, varnishes, and colors	30.0	29.9	29.9	30.0
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	50.0	50.6	51.0	46.6
Perfumes and cosmetics [4]	11.9	11.5	11.8	11.9
Soap	13.5	13.5	13.5	12.8
Rayon and allied products	52.7	52.3	51.7	52.6
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	118.9	119.5	120.0	117.0
Compressed and liquefied gases	6.1	6.2	6.1	6.4
Cottonseed oil	11.4	11.8	13.4	12.0
Fertilizers	18.6	19.5	22.6	17.9
Products of petroleum and coal	134	132	130	126
Petroleum refining	90.5	88.7	87.4	82.0
Coke and byproducts	23.4	23.0	22.9	24.6
Paving materials	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.6
Roofing materials	9.7	9.6	9.6	9.7
Rubber products	190	191	193	192
Rubber tires and inner tubes	89.6	89.2	90.1	87.5
Rubber boots and shoes	19.6	20.0	20.7	22.1
Rubber goods, other	71.9	72.3	72.9	73.1
Miscellaneous industries	375	379	380	407
Photographic apparatus	29.6	29.2	29.2	30.6
Pianos, organs, and parts	6.1	6.8	7.9	10.3
Games, toys, and dolls	16.4	15.9	15.4	15.9
Buttons	9.1	9.5	9.7	10.8
Fire extinguishers	5.6	5.8	6.1	7.7

[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. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage earners in restricted 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 U. S. Government agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; ammunition, small-arms; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; firearms; fireworks; instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; and shipbuilding and boatbuilding.

[3] Comparable data for earlier months available upon request.

[4] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Perfumes and cosmetics.—January 1943 through April 1944 wage earners to 10.3, 10.8, 11.4, 11.5, 11.4, 11.5, 11.9, 11.5, 11.2, 11.6, 12.2, 12.2, 11.7, 11.9, 11.6, and 11.5.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*[1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry[2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
All manufacturing	157.8	158.5	158.9	169.8	310.2	318.2	317.6	315.6
Durable goods	214.2	216.5	218.2	229.7	427.2	442.8	444.1	439.7
Nondurable goods	113.4	112.8	112.2	122.6	195.8	196.3	193.8	194.2
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	167.1	167.4	167.0	172.9	306.2	311.0	308.6	299.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	123.8	124.0	124.0	133.3	224.9	224.5	221.1	223.7
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	124.2	125.2	125.7	138.5	243.6	248.9	250.4	246.2
Malleable-iron castings	134.8	136.6	136.5	145.0	273.5	280.5	276.0	257.2
Steel castings	244.4	248.0	251.4	279.5	434.4	452.5	461.4	478.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	93.6	92.4	91.2	94.4	177.0	175.3	176.0	161.8
Tin cans and other tinware	129.7	125.3	118.2	110.7	210.2	206.6	195.5	172.6
Wire drawn from purchased rods	149.5	151.9	152.3	162.6	239.2	250.8	252.7	247.6
Wirework	116.0	115.3	113.8	108.1	233.2	227.7	225.0	203.0
Cutlery and edge tools	148.0	149.5	148.3	139.1	304.2	310.8	308.5	271.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	177.2	180.7	181.7	180.1	327.8	338.9	339.3	319.3
Hardware	128.4	128.1	128.4	128.1	257.6	263.3	260.4	241.5
Plumbers' supplies	92.3	92.9	93.5	94.1	164.2	170.6	168.6	159.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	137.7	136.6	133.8	118.8	252.0	258.8	252.5	198.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	183.3	185.8	187.2	195.3	330.9	346.1	353.7	360.9
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	160.2	159.9	159.3	164.2	319.8	322.7	313.0	297.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	212.1	214.4	214.4	196.2	415.5	420.7	435.2	356.4
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	171.0	169.0	170.1	176.8	315.4	313.3	317.9	299.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	183.9	186.1	188.5	204.2	339.2	367.4	369.0	359.4
Forgings, iron and steel	227.7	237.5	243.0	261.1	434.2	466.0	473.3	456.3
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	313.3	314.9	313.3	320.4	600.6	614.7	605.6	592.0
Screw-machine products and wood screws	264.6	271.2	274.0	294.9	502.9	529.8	528.3	541.5
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	112.8	106.3	110.1	142.4	212.7	209.5	216.0	249.1
Electrical machinery	277.8	281.4	282.1	275.5	494.2	507.5	501.0	462.8
Electrical equipment	248.8	252.3	251.8	256.5	450.6	464.6	456.4	437.9
Radios and phonographs[3]	290.3	295.4	296.2	265.8	541.8	559.6	551.5	463.1
Communication equipment[3]	349.1	350.2	358.0	345.5	557.2	559.2	562.7	503.0
Machinery, except electrical	219.8	222.8	223.0	236.8	403.5	422.3	417.1	420.1
Machinery and machine-shop products	228.4	231.3	232.1	244.4	408.6	429.1	426.1	425.5
Tractors	191.7	191.9	191.0	167.1	293.4	304.0	298.0	254.0
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	163.2	165.2	162.7	139.1	335.0	335.6	332.6	255.7
Machine tools	210.2	214.4	216.0	301.8	370.6	383.8	381.3	491.2
Machine-tool accessories	269.5	273.0	276.4	350.8	457.9	474.6	470.9	557.3
Textile machinery	122.3	124.1	125.8	129.6	225.7	230.2	227.3	223.2
Pumps and pumping equipment	326.0	333.8	332.2	316.0	676.1	711.7	698.7	629.9
Typewriters	69.4	68.7	69.0	73.4	140.2	141.0	140.2	142.8
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	163.6	169.5	167.9	177.4	315.2	334.3	329.7	337.8
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	181.9	184.0	180.6	188.4	325.4	329.9	322.0	298.9
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	119.0	119.0	119.1	136.7	243.2	259.8	258.5	283.7
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	148.5	150.5	149.5	154.9	248.8	269.7	258.6	260.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1280.2	1309.6	1346.2	1452.6	2612.4	2691.0	2775.1	2790.6
Locomotives	550.7	558.6	562.7	523.0	1183.3	1265.9	1272.9	1091.3
Cars, electric and steam railroad	237.4	237.6	238.4	252.8	473.9	480.3	483.0	460.1
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	134.5	136.0	133.2	140.1	249.4	249.7	245.3	237.6
Automobiles	169.4	171.2	173.1	172.6	290.3	319.0	318.1	314.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	165.2	168.1	169.1	180.6	304.7	315.9	314.8	321.1
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	174.7	177.5	184.6	210.6	324.8	334.2	342.1	372.6
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	174.8	181.1	184.2	192.0	318.9	340.3	339.9	351.7
Clocks and watches	126.1	125.1	122.4	122.3	257.0	260.9	253.2	226.2
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	94.9	97.4	98.3	109.2	149.4	160.0	160.6	151.2
Silverware and plated ware	87.3	86.9	86.0	97.1	157.4	159.0	155.8	164.8
Lighting equipment	129.4	127.9	123.4	119.1	218.9	231.3	222.4	202.5
Aluminum manufactures	308.9	316.7	323.2	334.6	550.5	566.5	570.1	583.6
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	172.1	172.6	169.2	161.8	322.5	319.6	314.3	267.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Industry [2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Durable goods—Continued								
Lumber and timber basic products	102.4	101.6	101.2	115.1	185.1	193.5	186.9	193.3
Sawmills and logging camps	82.5	81.7	80.7	91.8	151.5	159.3	152.1	156.2
Planing and plywood mills	98.2	97.7	99.4	113.8	165.5	170.1	169.9	179.3
Furniture and finished lumber products	103.5	103.4	102.5	109.8	183.8	187.5	184.4	178.6
Mattresses and bedsprings	91.9	90.7	89.7	99.9	155.0	156.5	154.6	155.5
Furniture	98.3	99.0	97.9	105.9	173.9	177.9	175.7	171.8
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	111.2	111.2	111.4	116.1	214.4	220.4	214.8	199.1
Caskets and other morticians' goods	100.8	102.4	99.9	94.6	163.6	173.7	168.8	148.3
Wood preserving	90.3	89.0	87.3	94.7	194.7	191.7	178.5	173.0
Wood, turned and shaped	100.0	95.8	96.4	103.0	176.0	172.8	171.6	165.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	113.4	113.7	112.9	122.1	184.1	189.8	187.7	184.4
Glass and glassware	130.7	132.8	131.2	126.6	197.1	209.7	208.4	181.9
Glass products made from purchased glass	103.4	103.2	103.7	114.0	165.5	168.1	170.1	165.0
Cement	73.2	71.7	71.2	101.3	112.8	110.6	108.7	144.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	75.5	75.2	74.5	90.0	121.5	122.8	118.9	134.5
Pottery and related products	125.0	125.5	124.6	127.6	187.0	196.3	192.5	179.3
Gypsum	82.7	82.9	85.6	94.2	140.9	145.4	144.9	160.9
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	119.1	116.1	113.0	136.0	217.6	211.5	195.5	199.7
Lime	86.4	86.2	88.4	100.3	167.3	170.4	174.2	173.2
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	70.7	68.7	67.2	68.1	105.8	104.5	101.5	91.1
Abrasives	275.3	280.5	278.3	316.2	452.6	459.3	468.2	481.3
Asbestos products	129.4	129.3	131.0	140.2	253.2	257.1	255.8	253.7
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	95.2	96.6	97.2	106.5	168.5	172.5	171.2	173.0
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	109.6	110.0	110.6	122.3	206.6	204.7	202.4	207.0
Cotton smallwares	98.1	100.3	101.1	124.5	174.7	180.7	180.2	206.8
Silk and rayon goods	73.9	74.7	74.8	79.3	130.7	135.8	136.1	130.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	97.8	101.4	102.0	110.5	184.3	194.8	192.9	198.2
Hosiery	65.5	66.8	67.0	72.7	101.5	105.7	105.5	102.2
Knitted cloth	95.2	97.0	99.2	107.1	160.9	165.6	168.5	164.4
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	102.4	105.2	106.8	116.9	181.4	189.1	188.7	188.7
Knitted underwear	91.4	93.7	93.6	108.2	159.4	168.9	167.4	173.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	89.9	90.9	93.3	99.8	147.0	150.7	152.2	152.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	77.9	79.3	79.2	87.4	132.1	135.5	132.3	139.2
Hats, fur-felt	63.4	64.7	65.3	67.6	109.3	120.7	120.5	111.8
Jute goods, except felts	89.3	92.3	92.1	103.7	167.7	177.5	173.9	185.4
Cordage and twine	126.1	127.0	130.1	141.9	231.2	232.6	236.8	233.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	94.6	97.9	97.4	105.6	156.6	166.2	163.0	155.8
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	95.0	97.5	97.3	104.1	154.3	166.2	166.4	151.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	75.5	76.3	75.8	84.2	133.5	134.5	134.4	131.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's	73.7	75.7	76.9	81.0	142.3	148.4	149.3	136.0
Work shirts	112.1	113.9	114.4	136.4	183.2	204.4	206.8	216.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	75.5	79.7	78.6	84.4	125.6	134.8	128.1	125.3
Corsets and allied garments	76.5	80.9	81.6	85.0	126.4	141.0	139.6	130.3
Millinery	71.6	69.7	76.6	75.7	103.2	90.7	101.9	98.3
Handkerchiefs	59.7	61.8	62.2	76.5	103.9	109.6	114.8	123.0
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	77.2	78.7	76.6	98.3	147.4	157.0	144.4	150.5
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	98.3	96.1	90.7	133.2	178.3	174.9	159.0	225.3
Textile bags	116.7	119.3	121.2	119.8	190.1	192.1	192.9	179.0
Leather and leather products	88.5	88.8	88.4	95.0	153.1	155.9	153.5	145.9
Leather	84.6	85.3	85.5	95.5	146.5	148.2	146.8	141.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	85.7	86.4	86.0	90.8	139.7	144.3	142.3	132.5
Boots and shoes	79.8	80.2	79.7	84.5	139.8	142.8	139.8	131.4
Leather gloves and mittens	127.0	128.6	129.4	144.5	215.9	215.2	218.8	222.0
Trunks and suitcases	147.1	141.6	139.8	163.6	234.5	232.4	233.2	238.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Industry [2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food	123.1	114.1	110.5	119.3	196.5	185.6	179.9	175.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	131.7	130.9	128.3	133.7	219.6	217.5	216.9	203.9
Butter	140.0	140.6	132.7	133.2	216.2	216.8	201.9	186.9
Condensed and evaporated milk	162.7	165.6	152.2	150.1	271.0	280.1	245.9	231.8
Ice cream	114.4	111.4	99.6	113.8	163.5	153.6	137.3	151.6
Flour	116.9	113.0	111.5	113.9	195.3	187.5	179.3	170.3
Feeds, prepared	129.5	128.4	128.5	140.7	224.3	221.0	221.2	218.3
Cereal preparations	125.8	125.0	124.8	133.5	214.8	219.4	216.5	224.0
Baking	112.0	111.6	110.1	109.7	168.0	166.8	163.8	153.4
Sugar refining, cane	107.0	103.3	102.7	105.5	167.9	166.3	163.7	157.5
Sugar, beet	38.7	40.1	42.1	48.0	55.7	62.7	60.5	67.8
Confectionery	108.9	113.5	113.7	103.9	178.2	185.8	183.3	149.1
Beverages, nonalcoholic	151.8	143.7	131.2	142.2	212.2	192.8	168.9	178.4
Malt liquors	147.8	140.8	138.9	134.2	225.5	210.0	201.9	189.9
Canning and preserving	132.3	82.2	74.3	120.3	243.6	156.7	143.2	200.7
Tobacco manufactures	88.6	89.5	88.3	95.1	157.1	157.5	152.9	153.5
Cigarettes	127.7	125.2	121.4	121.2	196.9	189.2	182.0	182.3
Cigars	68.2	71.2	71.1	82.2	132.3	141.0	137.9	137.7
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	84.6	83.8	84.5	87.8	132.7	124.6	122.0	126.9
Paper and allied products	114.3	114.2	114.2	118.9	185.3	187.0	184.7	176.3
Paper and pulp	106.4	106.2	105.4	109.1	179.1	180.5	177.2	168.8
Paper goods, other	122.0	122.5	124.3	127.1	194.1	194.1	194.6	180.6
Envelopes	109.6	110.6	111.3	119.9	167.2	171.0	169.1	167.2
Paper bags	120.0	118.9	122.1	111.3	193.9	200.0	198.5	175.3
Paper boxes	114.6	114.2	114.5	122.7	175.8	178.7	177.2	174.2
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	101.6	100.8	100.3	103.4	138.0	137.4	135.0	127.0
Newspapers and periodicals	92.5	93.1	92.7	94.4	117.1	117.1	116.1	112.4
Printing, book and job	106.5	104.1	103.6	106.6	151.8	149.3	144.8	132.7
Lithographing	96.5	96.1	94.5	99.2	132.4	137.3	132.9	122.4
Bookbinding	109.2	109.6	109.8	117.2	178.7	178.4	180.9	175.5
Chemicals and allied products	202.7	202.9	205.6	258.6	358.5	358.4	360.2	435.7
Paints, varnishes, and colors	106.8	106.4	106.3	106.8	167.1	169.1	167.2	157.5
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	182.4	184.6	186.1	170.1	263.4	266.7	270.7	231.6
Perfumes and cosmetics [4]	115.1	111.1	113.5	114.8	160.9	156.0	158.8	147.8
Soap	99.5	99.2	99.4	94.3	162.9	168.3	163.6	139.1
Rayon and allied products	109.2	108.3	107.1	108.9	174.0	174.1	173.5	168.6
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	170.9	171.8	172.5	168.2	299.8	298.7	296.5	277.0
Compressed and liquefied gases	154.0	157.6	154.5	161.7	270.4	275.8	271.4	270.1
Cottonseed oil	74.8	77.9	88.3	78.7	145.6	148.8	170.3	133.0
Fertilizers	99.1	103.7	120.4	95.3	224.7	227.7	266.8	188.9
Products of petroleum and coal	126.7	124.4	122.8	119.1	223.0	215.7	212.6	190.3
Petroleum refining	124.3	121.8	120.0	112.6	215.6	207.5	205.2	179.9
Coke and byproducts	107.8	106.1	105.6	113.3	191.7	187.5	183.0	175.4
Paving materials	70.0	68.5	63.6	66.0	132.4	130.1	120.4	107.3
Roofing materials	120.6	118.7	119.5	120.5	218.6	216.4	212.2	202.2
Rubber products	157.4	157.8	159.7	158.9	277.2	279.0	280.8	256.1
Rubber tires and inner tubes	165.6	164.8	166.5	161.7	280.9	278.5	283.0	253.3
Rubber boots and shoes	132.1	134.6	139.8	149.3	237.0	245.9	248.6	246.5
Rubber goods, other	138.9	139.8	140.8	141.3	245.2	251.2	248.3	228.1
Miscellaneous industries	153.5	154.8	155.1	166.4	288.9	297.3	295.8	291.4
Photographic apparatus	171.7	168.8	169.3	177.3	271.9	273.0	273.5	264.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	79.6	89.1	103.6	135.0	143.8	170.9	196.8	257.2
Games, toys, and dolls	88.0	85.1	82.6	85.1	169.8	167.2	159.5	132.5
Buttons	83.3	87.0	88.8	98.9	158.0	170.3	174.3	169.1
Fire extinguishers	561.3	580.3	616.2	777.1	1126.2	1167.0	1292.9	1425.0

[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. 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 U. S. Government agencies upon request. Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; ammunition, small-arms; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; firearms; fireworks; instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; and shipbuilding and boatbuilding.

[3] Comparable indexes for earlier months available upon request.

[4] Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes published for earlier months:
Perfumes and cosmetics—January 1943 through April 1944, employment indexes to 98.9, 103.9, 110.0, 111.3, 110.2, 110.8, 114.8, 111.2, 107.8, 111.6, 117.8, 118.1, 112.6, 114.7, 112.2, and 111.4; pay-roll indexes to 122.8, 134.0, 141.3, 146.0, 146.6, 148.8, 147.8, 148.4, 150.6, 154.7, 164.7, 158.6, 150.3, 150.5, 156.9, and 157.8.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Coal mining:				
Anthracite	64.5	68.8	68.5	71.4
Bituminous	351	357	356	379
Metal mining	77.3	80.3	82.6	95.4
Iron	27.4	28.1	28.8	33.8
Copper	25.2	26.7	27.4	29.9
Lead and zinc	15.5	16.1	16.8	18.3
Gold and silver	5.7	5.7	5.8	6.7
Miscellaneous	3.5	3.7	3.8	6.7
Electric light and power [1]	203	203	202	211
Street railways and busses [1]	230	231	231	228
Hotels (year-round) [1]	352	353	352	347
Power laundries	253	254	249	268
Cleaning and dyeing	82.6	85.7	84.2	84.5
Class I steam railroads [2]	1,443	1,447	1,425	1,391

[1] Data include salaried personnel.
[2] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943
Coal mining:								
Anthractite	77.9	83.0	82.7	86.2	130.6	151.8	155.8	133.1
Bituminous	94.8	96.2	96.0	102.2	195.5	219.0	215.5	190.0
Metal mining	87.6	91.1	93.6	108.1	135.1	145.7	148.5	164.3
Iron	136.2	139.4	142.4	167.2	211.9	226.2	229.4	261.7
Copper	105.6	112.1	115.1	125.6	168.4	183.1	187.7	202.3
Lead and zinc	99.8	103.7	108.4	117.7	177.0	191.5	196.5	197.4
Gold and silver	23.0	23.1	23.6	27.2	28.2	30.7	30.4	33.0
Miscellaneous	88.3	93.9	95.7	169.8	144.7	159.3	158.6	262.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	86.4	85.8	84.5	98.8	160.7	162.2	157.4	168.9
Crude-petroleum production [1]	84.1	83.6	82.5	82.3	136.5	131.1	127.9	120.3
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Electric light and power	83.2	83.1	82.8	86.3	114.6	114.8	112.9	110.5
Street railways and busses	118.8	119.1	119.1	117.7	170.7	170.8	168.5	156.1
Wholesale trade	95.1	95.0	94.4	96.0	135.9	135.4	133.4	127.1
Retail trade	95.5	96.7	96.9	96.6	128.3	127.3	124.2	119.9
Food [3]	106.4	106.7	107.3	105.4	142.4	139.2	135.2	134.1
General merchandise [3]	104.5	107.7	108.5	108.6	136.7	136.4	132.4	130.7
Apparel [3]	101.8	108.8	110.4	99.4	139.4	145.8	144.5	122.8
Furniture and housefurnishings	63.4	63.6	63.2	66.7	88.4	88.4	86.3	85.8
Automotive	66.6	66.0	64.8	63.6	97.5	96.7	94.4	84.8
Lumber and building materials	92.1	91.1	90.2	92.9	131.8	127.6	127.9	123.2
Hotels (year-round) [4]	109.1	109.4	109.0	107.6	156.9	157.2	155.3	139.5
Power laundries	112.1	112.4	110.1	118.7	165.1	163.6	161.3	152.4
Cleaning and dyeing	122.3	126.9	124.8	125.2	187.3	195.7	194.2	170.6
Class I steam railroads [5]	146.0	146.5	144.2	140.8	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Water transportation [7]	249.1	238.9	233.5	152.5	585.6	571.7	552.6	345.8

[1] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[2] Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.
[3] Revisions have been made as follows in indexes previously published:
Retail trade: Food group.—April pay-roll index to 134.4; *General merchandise group.*—March pay-roll index to 131.2; *Apparel group.*—March employment index to 106.7, pay-roll index to 137.0, April employment index to 111.4, pay-roll index to 144.8.
[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.
[5] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[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.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for May, June, and July 1944, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. The average weekly earnings for individual industries 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 computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$45.52	$46.27	$46.02	44.7	45.5	45.3	101.9	101.8	101.7
Durable goods	51.20	52.17	51.89	45.8	46.9	46.6	111.8	111.3	111.2
Nondurable goods	37.07	37.35	37.03	43.0	43.4	43.2	86.2	86.2	85.8
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	50.01	50.68	50.41	46.0	46.9	46.8	108.8	108.2	107.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	54.58	54.32	53.43	45.9	46.4	46.1	118.9	117.0	116.0
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	50.77	51.37	51.54	47.4	48.0	48.0	107.1	107.0	107.5
Malleable-iron castings	50.44	51.39	50.24	48.1	48.6	48.0	104.9	105.3	104.7
Steel castings	49.54	50.89	51.17	44.1	45.6	46.2	112.4	111.7	110.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	40.07	40.19	40.87	45.8	46.5	46.9	87.4	86.3	87.1
Tin cans and other tinware	38.16	38.88	38.99	43.7	44.5	44.4	87.3	87.4	87.8
Wirework	50.72	49.65	49.83	48.1	47.6	47.5	105.5	104.5	104.9
Cutlery and edge tools	43.59	43.99	44.06	46.2	46.3	46.6	94.3	95.0	94.5
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	44.83	45.51	45.23	46.6	47.0	47.1	96.3	96.9	96.2
Hardware	44.64	45.63	44.93	46.5	47.5	47.3	95.9	96.0	94.9
Plumbers' supplies	46.59	47.75	46.95	45.4	45.9	45.8	102.1	104.0	102.5
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	45.71	47.26	47.08	45.8	47.1	46.9	99.8	100.4	100.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	46.44	48.00	48.73	45.7	47.5	48.2	101.6	101.0	101.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	46.43	46.96	45.82	44.9	46.1	45.5	103.0	101.9	100.8
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	54.98	55.05	56.95	48.6	48.6	49.9	112.6	112.6	113.5
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	49.86	50.10	50.53	47.3	47.5	47.7	105.6	105.9	106.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	46.55	49.85	49.42	44.4	48.3	48.1	104.9	103.2	102.7
Forgings, iron and steel	56.79	58.64	58.20	46.2	47.6	47.5	123.5	123.3	122.7
Screw-machine products and wood screws	49.01	50.23	49.61	47.6	48.8	48.5	102.9	102.9	102.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	41.30	42.85	42.63	42.6	43.6	43.6	96.5	98.2	97.8
Firearms	59.00	60.80	59.87	45.6	47.7	47.7	129.4	127.5	125.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944
Durable goods—Continued									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Electrical machinery	$47.25	$47.99	$47.28	45.8	46.7	46.3	103.3	102.8	102.1
Electrical equipment	49.77	50.72	49.97	46.0	47.2	46.8	108.1	107.4	106.8
Radios and phonographs	40.80	41.23	40.75	45.3	45.7	45.7	89.8	90.2	89.2
Communication equipment	44.91	44.92	44.21	45.1	45.4	45.0	98.5	98.0	97.3
Machinery, except electrical	53.39	55.10	54.37	47.5	49.1	48.7	112.3	112.2	111.6
Machinery and machine-shop products	51.95	53.81	53.18	46.9	48.7	48.4	110.7	110.4	109.9
Engines and turbines	58.84	61.60	60.48	47.3	49.8	49.8	124.9	124.4	122.1
Tractors	51.65	53.47	52.67	46.0	47.4	46.7	112.4	112.9	112.7
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	54.16	53.61	54.00	47.6	48.0	48.2	113.5	111.6	112.1
Machine tools	56.80	57.77	57.08	50.2	51.0	50.8	113.1	113.1	112.2
Machine-tool accessories	58.48	59.68	58.59	49.3	50.2	49.6	118.9	119.0	118.2
Textile machinery	48.10	48.33	47.08	48.6	49.3	48.6	99.0	98.1	97.0
Typewriters	48.64	49.38	48.87	49.5	49.8	49.3	98.3	99.1	99.1
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	58.34	59.71	59.45	49.1	49.6	49.5	119.7	121.3	121.0
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	47.53	47.55	47.28	45.4	45.8	45.9	104.6	103.3	102.9
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	55.26	59.09	58.59	50.4	52.7	52.8	110.7	112.8	111.7
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	47.56	50.89	49.10	44.4	47.4	45.9	107.1	107.3	106.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	59.30	59.68	59.87	46.8	47.3	47.4	126.7	126.2	126.4
Locomotives	61.05	64.29	64.18	45.7	49.1	49.0	133.7	131.0	131.0
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	52.63	53.27	53.40	45.3	46.6	46.4	116.2	114.3	115.0
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	54.48	54.59	54.10	47.1	47.1	46.8	115.7	115.9	115.8
Aircraft engines	59.21	61.27	59.73	44.9	46.7	46.1	131.8	131.1	129.6
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	62.90	62.84	64.02	47.3	47.5	48.1	133.0	132.2	133.2
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	51.30	50.83	50.93	47.8	47.6	47.9	107.4	106.7	106.3
Automobiles	57.02	58.39	57.68	44.2	45.9	45.5	129.0	127.3	126.6
Nonferrous metals and their products	48.65	49.37	48.83	45.9	47.1	46.6	105.9	104.9	104.7
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	49.22	50.05	49.27	45.8	46.9	46.4	107.4	106.8	106.1
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	52.62	54.15	53.03	47.0	48.4	47.6	111.4	111.8	111.3
Clocks and watches	42.91	43.71	43.38	46.2	46.7	46.7	93.0	93.7	93.0
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	40.97	42.76	42.52	43.3	44.9	44.7	93.2	93.5	93.5
Silverware and plated ware	47.55	48.03	47.63	47.0	47.3	46.9	101.1	101.6	101.7
Lighting equipment	44.23	47.37	47.35	43.1	46.0	45.8	102.7	103.0	103.5
Aluminum manufactures	48.92	49.28	48.73	46.0	46.5	46.1	106.7	106.2	105.7
Lumber and timber basic products	33.73	35.56	34.54	42.3	44.5	43.3	79.7	79.9	79.8
Sawmills and logging camps	32.74	34.72	33.59	41.5	43.9	42.7	78.9	79.2	78.8
Planing and plywood mills	37.09	38.36	37.56	45.2	46.7	45.4	82.0	82.2	82.8
Furniture and finished lumber products	35.65	36.36	36.04	43.7	44.7	44.4	81.7	81.4	81.2
Furniture	36.02	36.60	36.72	43.4	44.4	44.3	83.9	83.4	83.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	37.78	39.26	39.01	43.8	45.6	45.5	86.2	86.4	85.7
Wood preserving	34.46	34.46	32.71	44.3	44.8	43.5	77.9	76.8	75.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	38.14	39.21	38.98	42.4	43.9	43.7	89.9	89.4	89.3
Glass and glassware	37.66	39.42	39.60	39.7	42.2	42.3	94.9	93.7	93.7
Glass products made from purchased glass	33.48	34.09	34.34	43.1	43.7	44.2	77.8	78.0	77.6
Cement	41.28	41.34	40.98	44.2	44.8	44.7	93.3	92.3	91.6
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	33.06	33.54	32.83	41.8	42.8	41.6	78.8	78.2	78.1
Pottery and related products	34.58	36.13	35.82	39.4	41.9	41.5	88.7	87.5	86.8
Gypsum	44.13	45.44	43.84	48.3	48.8	48.3	91.4	93.2	90.8
Lime	38.02	38.83	38.75	48.7	49.9	49.7	78.4	78.2	78.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	39.21	39.88	40.47	44.2	44.4	44.7	89.6	90.0	90.5
Abrasives	46.26	46.08	47.33	46.8	46.5	47.6	98.9	99.2	99.4
Asbestos products	46.85	47.76	46.92	48.2	48.7	48.0	97.3	98.0	97.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944
Nondurable goods									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	$29.63	$29.87	$29.51	41.7	42.0	41.6	71.0	71.2	71.0
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	27.10	26.76	26.33	42.4	42.0	41.6	63.9	63.7	63.4
Cotton smallwares	33.18	33.79	33.40	43.3	43.8	43.7	77.0	77.3	76.5
Silk and rayon goods	28.32	29.09	29.13	40.8	42.1	41.8	69.3	69.1	69.7
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	35.35	36.04	35.50	42.1	42.7	42.2	84.0	84.5	84.2
Hosiery	28.29	28.84	28.80	37.4	38.4	38.4	75.8	75.2	75.2
Knitted cloth	31.60	32.01	31.82	43.6	43.9	43.4	72.4	72.7	72.5
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	29.55	30.01	29.54	40.1	40.5	39.9	73.1	73.5	73.4
Knitted underwear	25.68	26.62	26.37	40.0	40.7	40.4	63.6	64.6	64.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	33.86	34.33	33.85	44.4	45.0	44.7	76.1	76.2	75.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	39.13	39.44	38.52	43.4	43.6	42.9	90.4	90.8	90.1
Hats, fur-felt	39.98	43.33	42.70	38.9	41.7	41.5	103.2	104.7	103.5
Jute goods, except felts	33.44	34.26	33.65	44.6	44.9	44.5	75.0	76.3	75.6
Cordage and twine	32.57	32.58	32.36	45.3	45.2	44.9	71.7	72.0	71.9
Apparel and other finished textile products	29.27	29.95	29.45	37.3	38.2	38.1	78.5	78.4	77.2
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	30.65	32.16	32.28	38.0	39.1	39.3	80.9	82.0	81.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	24.42	24.35	24.42	37.3	37.5	37.5	65.0	64.9	65.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	25.98	26.37	26.14	36.7	37.7	37.5	70.9	70.0	69.7
Work shirts	18.01	19.78	19.93	32.8	36.6	37.2	53.4	52.8	52.7
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	35.31	35.88	34.39	36.1	37.0	36.6	95.9	94.5	91.8
Corsets and allied garments	28.80	30.43	29.84	39.8	41.8	41.3	72.6	73.0	72.4
Millinery	35.10	31.66	32.37	32.4	29.1	30.7	89.8	89.1	88.4
Handkerchiefs	22.75	23.18	24.05	36.6	37.6	38.6	62.2	61.7	62.4
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	25.64	26.78	25.32	37.5	38.8	38.4	68.3	68.3	65.1
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	31.80	31.82	30.62	41.5	42.0	41.3	76.6	75.9	74.3
Textile bags	28.29	27.91	27.71	42.0	41.3	41.2	67.8	67.8	67.5
Leather and leather products	32.90	33.39	33.02	41.1	41.7	41.3	80.0	80.2	80.0
Leather	43.09	43.15	42.63	45.6	45.8	45.4	94.6	94.2	94.1
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	32.98	33.82	33.46	42.2	43.1	43.3	79.0	79.5	78.4
Boots and shoes	31.12	31.43	30.95	40.2	40.8	40.3	76.4	76.7	76.6
Leather gloves and mittens	29.56	28.94	29.36	37.6	37.9	38.2	79.6	77.5	77.3
Trunks and suitcases	33.45	34.45	34.85	41.6	42.0	42.5	79.4	81.1	81.1
Food	38.50	39.08	39.08	45.6	45.9	45.8	84.4	85.2	85.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	45.87	45.73	46.41	49.9	49.6	49.9	92.1	92.4	93.4
Butter	34.18	34.14	33.69	47.7	47.9	47.4	70.8	70.0	70.0
Condensed and evaporated milk	38.06	38.68	36.94	50.7	51.8	50.3	75.1	74.6	73.4
Ice cream	39.27	37.84	37.75	47.9	46.3	45.6	79.1	78.1	79.1
Flour	41.97	41.69	40.48	49.8	49.6	48.8	84.6	84.1	83.0
Cereal preparations	44.05	44.78	44.25	46.7	47.1	46.5	94.3	95.2	95.2
Baking	38.42	38.21	38.06	45.8	45.5	45.5	83.9	84.1	83.9
Sugar refining, cane	37.55	38.53	38.18	43.7	45.0	45.3	86.0	85.6	84.3
Sugar, beet	36.05	39.07	35.93	35.8	40.5	37.6	100.6	96.4	95.6
Confectionery	30.08	30.16	29.70	41.6	41.9	41.6	72.5	72.1	71.5
Beverages, nonalcoholic	37.13	35.62	34.17	46.2	44.7	43.4	80.7	80.0	78.7
Malt liquors	53.96	52.83	51.26	47.3	47.6	46.6	114.2	111.3	110.7
Canning and preserving	29.76	30.84	31.27	40.3	40.4	40.8	74.3	77.0	77.7
Tobacco manufactures	30.04	29.82	29.34	42.4	42.3	42.0	70.9	70.6	69.8
Cigarettes	32.84	32.19	31.97	43.2	42.4	42.3	76.0	75.9	75.5
Cigars	27.67	28.26	27.68	41.9	42.6	42.3	66.2	66.6	65.5
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	27.71	26.22	25.48	41.0	39.8	39.0	67.6	65.8	65.3
Paper and allied products	38.72	39.24	38.77	45.7	46.4	46.0	84.8	84.6	84.2
Paper and pulp	42.47	42.86	42.49	47.8	48.4	48.3	88.7	88.4	87.9
Envelopes	36.66	37.20	36.54	44.9	45.7	45.1	81.7	81.4	81.0
Paper bags	32.87	34.23	33.09	43.0	44.3	43.7	75.4	76.1	76.0
Paper boxes	33.76	34.72	34.25	42.9	43.8	43.4	79.3	79.4	79.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	44.18	44.37	43.84	41.2	41.2	40.9	107.4	107.7	107.2
Newspapers and periodicals	48.63	48.45	48.29	38.3	38.3	38.1	125.3	124.8	124.8
Printing, book and job	42.92	43.17	42.09	42.6	42.6	42.1	99.9	100.3	99.4
Lithographing	44.76	46.61	45.84	44.2	45.0	44.4	101.4	103.6	103.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1944	June 1944	May 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Chemicals and allied products	$44.37	$44.27	$43.91	45.8	46.0	46.0	96.9	96.2	95.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	45.66	46.57	45.96	47.2	47.9	47.8	96.8	97.0	96.4
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	34.43	34.44	34.76	42.6	42.8	43.3	81.2	80.8	80.7
Soap	46.65	48.33	46.90	47.6	48.6	47.5	97.9	99.5	98.6
Rayon and allied products	38.78	39.12	39.45	43.0	43.2	43.4	90.2	90.5	90.9
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	52.75	52.28	51.42	46.8	47.0	46.7	111.6	110.5	110.1
Explosives and safety fuses	48.13	47.72	47.66	46.7	46.7	46.8	103.0	102.1	101.8
Ammunition, small-arms	45.55	45.64	44.98	46.8	46.7	46.3	97.3	97.8	97.1
Cottonseed oil	26.47	25.97	26.29	48.3	48.2	49.9	54.8	53.8	52.6
Fertilizers	32.11	30.49	30.33	45.7	44.7	45.5	70.2	68.2	66.7
Products of petroleum and coal	56.09	55.26	55.14	46.8	46.8	47.0	119.7	118.1	117.4
Petroleum refining	59.08	57.98	58.27	46.9	46.6	47.0	126.3	124.8	124.2
Coke and byproducts	48.66	48.37	47.58	45.9	46.5	46.2	106.2	103.8	102.8
Roofing materials	46.65	47.00	45.74	48.9	49.6	48.9	95.3	94.8	93.5
Rubber products	49.12	49.30	48.98	44.9	45.2	45.1	109.3	109.1	108.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	57.01	56.78	57.11	45.5	45.3	45.5	125.6	125.4	125.7
Rubber boots and shoes	40.40	41.11	40.02	44.4	44.6	44.1	91.0	92.2	90.7
Rubber goods, other	41.48	42.21	41.24	44.4	45.2	44.8	93.5	93.6	92.4
Miscellaneous industries	43.23	44.18	43.88	45.2	46.1	46.1	95.6	95.9	95.2
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	55.61	56.22	55.41	49.8	50.6	50.4	112.1	111.3	110.2
Photographic apparatus	47.21	48.31	48.18	44.7	45.4	45.8	105.6	106.6	105.3
Pianos, organs, and parts	44.16	46.49	46.07	44.3	45.7	46.0	99.6	102.2	100.5

NONMANUFACTURING

							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	$43.22	$47.10	$48.54	35.8	40.9	41.9	119.4	114.4	115.9
Bituminous	47.31	52.27	51.66	39.5	44.1	44.0	120.1	118.5	117.5
Metal mining	43.44	45.12	44.72	42.9	44.6	44.4	101.1	100.9	100.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	40.33	40.85	40.20	46.3	47.7	47.4	87.1	85.7	84.9
Crude-petroleum production	54.85	52.99	52.14	44.8	45.6	45.5	120.2	113.8	113.1
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Electric light and power	48.12	48.42	47.77	42.6	43.8	43.4	112.6	110.4	110.3
Street railways and busses	48.12	48.19	47.46	50.7	50.9	50.6	93.5	93.5	92.8
Wholesale trade	42.36	42.40	42.00	42.8	43.0	42.8	98.9	98.6	97.9
Retail trade	27.83	27.06	26.29	43.2	42.3	41.3	70.6	70.1	69.7
Food	32.15	31.55	30.25	42.4	41.2	39.8	71.2	71.2	70.8
General merchandise	23.09	22.23	21.42	40.2	38.7	37.4	60.4	60.2	59.5
Apparel [3]	28.77	28.15	27.79	38.6	38.2	37.4	81.0	79.9	79.9
Furniture and housefurnishings [3]	37.93	38.11	37.55	44.1	44.2	44.2	87.4	86.7	85.3
Automotive	41.73	41.57	41.32	46.5	46.8	46.3	90.8	90.2	90.6
Lumber and building materials	37.55	36.78	37.23	44.9	44.4	44.5	90.1	89.2	89.2
Hotels (year-round) [4]	22.64	22.62	22.46	44.8	44.6	44.5	50.2	50.2	49.8
Power laundries	27.19	26.84	27.26	44.1	43.6	43.9	62.1	61.7	62.0
Cleaning and dyeing	31.08	31.37	31.65	44.4	44.3	44.7	72.2	72.4	72.5
Brokerage	55.89	53.48	52.21	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Insurance	45.01	44.56	45.04	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Private building construction	52.81	52.21	52.95	40.6	40.2	40.4	130.2	130.0	131.0

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnished man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

[2] Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in data published for earlier months:
Retail trade: Apparel group.—March average weekly earnings to $27.36; *Furniture group.*—April average weekly hours to 44.2, average hourly earnings to 84.5 cents.

[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.

[5] Not available.

Civilian Labor Force, August 1944

A SEASONAL decline of 990,000 from the July peak reduced the civilian labor force to a total of 54,010,000 in August 1944, according to the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Employment fell by 830,000, as a decline of 1,100,000 in agriculture was partially offset by an increase of 270,000 in nonagricultural industries. Unemployment dropped by 160,000 to a level of 840,000.

The reduction in farm employment between July and August was equally divided between men and women workers. The entire increase in nonagricultural employment during the month interval, however, was accounted for by men. This was the first such July-August increase since 1941 and it may be attributed in large measure to the fact that the rate of induction into the armed forces in the summer of 1944 was considerably below that of the two preceding summers. Employment of women and girls in nonagricultural industries remained at approximately the all-time high of more than 16,400,000, reached in July.

Total employment of women in August 1944—18,030,000—was 560,000 below the seasonal peak of July 1944, but 100,000 above the August 1943 level. In nonagricultural industries the number of women employed was approximately 600,000 above, but the number of women in farm work was 500,000 below, the level of August 1943.

Civilian Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status and by Sex, July and August 1940–44[1]

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over[2]									
	1944		1943		1942		1941		1940	
	August	July	August	July	August	July	August	July	August	July
Total civilian labor force	54,010	55,000	55,440	56,040	56,340	56,770	56,500	56,550	56,050	56,420
Unemployment[3]	840	1,000	1,070	1,290	1,950	2,430	4,950	5,240	7,980	8,410
Employment	53,170	54,000	54,370	54,750	54,390	54,340	51,550	51,310	48,070	48,010
Nonagricultural	44,600	44,330	44,730	45,050	44,690	44,340	42,140	41,380	38,070	37,350
Agricultural	8,570	9,670	9,640	9,700	9,700	10,000	9,410	9,930	10,000	10,660
Males										
Civilian labor force	35,570	35,890	36,990	37,380	40,790	41,220	42,020	42,150	42,300	42,570
Unemployment[3]	430	480	550	710	1,280	1,510	3,410	3,580	5,530	5,890
Employment	35,140	35,410	36,440	36,670	39,510	39,710	38,610	38,570	36,770	36,680
Nonagricultural	28,170	27,890	28,890	29,050	31,470	31,510	30,560	30,100	27,850	27,270
Agricultural	6,970	7,520	7,550	7,620	8,040	8,200	8,050	8,470	8,920	9,410
Females										
Civilian labor force	18,440	19,110	18,450	18,660	15,550	15,550	14,480	14,400	13,750	13,850
Unemployment[3]	410	520	520	580	670	920	1,540	1,660	2,450	2,520
Employment	18,030	18,590	17,930	18,080	14,880	14,630	12,940	12,740	11,300	11,330
Nonagricultural	16,430	16,440	15,840	16,000	13,220	12,830	11,580	11,280	10,220	10,080
Agricultural	1,600	2,150	2,090	2,080	1,660	1,800	1,360	1,460	1,080	1,250

[1] Estimates for period prior to November 1943 revised April 24, 1944.
[2] All data exclude persons in institutions.
[3] Includes persons on public emergency projects prior to July 1943.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

October 1944

Child Labor and Child Welfare

Boys in men's shoes: A world of working children. By Harry E. Burroughs. New York, Macmillan Co., 1944. 370 pp., illus. $3.50.

The author is the founder and president of the Burroughs Newsboys Foundadation of Boston, which was established for the benefit of these young street traders. He describes the work of the Foundation and relates various stories of boys who were given opportunities through this organization.

Employment of children in New York State. Albany, New York State Department of Labor, Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, 1944. 10 pp.; mimeographed.

Our concern—every child: State and community planning for wartime and post-war security of children. By Emma O. Lundberg. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1944. 84 pp. (Bureau publication No. 303.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Summary of Federal and State child-labor laws and regulations affecting employment in transportation and associated industries. Prepared by Division of Transport Personnel, U. S. Office of Defense Transportation, and Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Washington 25, June 1944. 41 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Consumer Problems

Consumer credit charges after the war. By William Trufant Foster. Jaffray, N. H., Pollak Foundation for Economic Research, 1944. 22 pp. (Pollak pamphlet No. 46; reprinted from Journal of Business of the University of Chicago, January 1944, part 1.) 10 cents.

Discusses the credit situation from the point of view of the small borrower, and the ways in which unscrupulous lenders confuse the borrower and increase actual rates of interest. Banks are urged to adopt the simple interest method.

Consumer problems in wartime. Edited by Kenneth Dameron. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1944. 672 pp., charts, illus. $3.75.

A collection of articles on four main subjects: The consumer faces the war; The consumer and the marketing system; The consumer and his Government; Consumer skills and their application to specific goods. The last-named includes articles on the outlook from the consumer's standpoint as regards specific groups of commodities (home furnishings, textiles and clothing, footwear, etc.).

Consumer training. By Edward William Heil. New York, Macmillan Co., 1943. 584 pp., illus. $2.72.

Grade labeling. (In Contemporary America, Vol. 5, No. 1, American Association of University Women, Washington 6, November 1943; 19 pp., bibliography. 25 cents.)

Gives the legislative history of grade labeling, tells why such labeling is of advantage to the consumer, names the groups opposing and favoring it, and offers suggestions for furthering the movement for its use. The study notes that consumers' cooperatives have pioneered in the introduction of labeling of foods.

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.

Cost of Living and Prices

Restricted quantity and cost budget for maintenance of families or children (current needs only). Wartime budget for a single working woman. Wartime budgets for three income levels—family of an executive; family of a white-collar worker; family of a wage earner. Wartime food for four income levels. Berkeley, Calif., University of California, Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, 1944. 4 reports, 58, 17, 113, and 45 pp., respectively; mimeographed. Various prices, ranging from 20 to 85 cents.

The prices used in the budgets were those prevailing in San Francisco in March 1944.

What the [U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics] cost-of-living index is. By Aryness Joy Wickens. (In Journal of Business of the University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Ill., July 1944, pp. 146–161; charts. $1.25.)

The cost-of-living index of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics is described as a good approximation of changes in the average prices for essentials of family living—that is, average price changes for food, clothing, housefurnishings, rent, and services. It is a price barometer, not a measure of changes in the total amount of money spent for family living. The article describes the collection of the basic data and the computing of the index, and also summarizes recent discussions of the index.

Typical net monthly bills as of January 1, 1944, for electric service to residential consumers, cities of 2,500 population and more. Washington 25, Federal Power Commission, 1944. 89 pp. 25 cents, Federal Power Commission, Washington 25.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

The aliphatic alcohols: their toxicity and potential dangers in relation to their chemical constitution and their fate in metabolism. By W. F. von Oettingen. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Public Health Service, 1943. 253 pp., bibliography. (Public health bull. No. 281.) 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Health problems in the fur industry of New York. By Harry Heiman, M. D. (In Industrial Bulletin, New York State Department of Labor, Albany, June 1944, pp. 217–220; bibliography. Also reprinted.)

A medical study of 694 workers in the fur industry showed the principal hazards were dermatosis from handling dyed furs; asthma, when certain dyes were used; and affections of the nose and throat thought to be due to the presence of dust in the environmental air. However, there was no evidence that pulmonary tuberculosis is more frequent among fur workers than in the general population.

Nursing practices in industry. By Olive M. Whitlock, Victoria M. Trasko, F. Ruth Kahl. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Public Health Service, 1944. 70 pp., bibliography. (Public health bull. No. 283.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Survey of industrial nursing practices in 924 establishments located in 36 States and the District of Columbia. The purpose of the survey was to obtain factual information on the activities of industrial nurses, to serve as a basis for determining the range of nurses' activities, for defining current problems in industrial nursing, and for formulating standards of good practice.

Summary report by the Department of Health for Scotland for the year ended June 30, 1944. Edinburgh, 1944. 23 pp. (Cmd. 6545.) 4d. net.

The report shows that the general standard of national health is being maintained in Scotland in spite of wartime conditions but that the increasing incidence of tuberculosis and the relatively high rate of infant mortality are cause for concern. There are chapters on the work of the health services, housing, town and country planning, the emergency hospital scheme, social services, and emergency welfare services.

Ventilation and heating, lighting and seeing. London, Medical Research Council, Industrial Health Research Board, 1943. 20 pp., diagrams, illus. (Conditions for industrial health and efficiency, pamphlet No. 1.) 3d. net.

Discusses requirements of and arrangements for good ventilation, heating, lighting, and seeing.

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Income

Agricultural income. Washington 6, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, April 1944. 40 pp., charts.

It is stated that the inclusion of part-time farmers and of some nonfarmers with those engaged more extensively in farming results in a distorted picture of the disparity between farm and nonfarm income. Farm population tends to increase during periods of depression, when many persons resort to subsistence farming, and to decrease in prosperous periods. Farm prosperity is viewed as depending vitally on high and dependable levels of nonagricultural employment and consumer buying power.

Analyses of Minnesota incomes, 1938–39. By R. G. Blakey, William Weinfeld, J. E. Dugan, and A. L. Hart. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1944. 367 pp., charts. (University of Minnesota studies in economics and business, No. 14.) $5.

Based on three major sources: Income-tax data, unemployment-compensation data, and information collected by extensive field surveys. Individual and family incomes, as related to occupation, are analyzed for 10 economic groups. The wage-salary groups include clerical workers, laborers, operatives, craftsmen, service workers, salaried professional workers, salaried business workers, farmers, independent business groups, and independent professional groups. Factors affecting income that are analyzed include age, sex, size of family, number of earners per family, occupation or industry, length of employment, nativity, and relief status. The basic materials were published by the Minnesota Resources Commission in a series of volumes entitled "Minnesota Incomes, 1938–39."

Incomes in selected professions: Part 6, Comparison of incomes in nine independent professions. By Edward F. Denison. (In Survey of Current Business, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington 25, May 1944, pp. 15–19; charts. Also reprinted.)

The professions covered are certified public accountants, lawyers, physicians, dentists, osteopathic physicians, chiropodists, chiropractors, nurses, and veterinarians, engaged in independent practice, 1929–41.

The share of capital in national income—United States, United Kingdom, and Germany. By Julius Wyler. (In Social Research, New York, November 1943, pp. 436–454. 75 cents.)

Includes a discussion of the share of labor as distinguished from capital and entrepreneurial shares. Between 1929 and 1937 the percentage share of labor increased in both the United States and the United Kingdom but declined in Germany.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Discussion of industrial accidents and diseases. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. Various paging. (Bull. No. 68.) Limited free distribution.

Proceedings of convention of International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, Harrisburg, Pa., October 1943.

The safe installation and use of abrasive wheels. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1944. 175 pp., illus. $1. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of the I. L. O.

The ever-widening field for grinding processes in a great variety of industries has made the subject of the dangers incidental to their use of increased importance. The report covers the composition and manufacture of abrasive wheels, accidents and injuries caused by them, and safety precautions against accidents caused by bursting of wheels or from other causes. There is a summary of the main precautions recommended; and technical reports on the conditions of resistance of abrasive wheels and the stresses in rotating disks are presented. The second part of the report contains the safety regulations in force in Germany, Great Britain, and the United States.

Safety through management leadership. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 19 pp. (Special bull. No. 15.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The importance of management leadership in promoting safety in both large and small plants is discussed, as well as effective organization of safety committees, training, and supervision. Safety programs in three plants—large, medium, and small—are described.

Safety shoes for women workers. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, [1944]. 3 pp. (Supplement to special bull. No. 3.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Federal supremacy in five workmen's compensation problems. By Samuel B. Horovitz. (In Boston University Law Review, Boston, Mass., June 1944, pp. 109–143. 70 cents.)

Examines five issues relating to workmen's-compensation cases in which the United States Government is the final arbiter, namely, constitutionality, admiralty, extraterritoriality, interstate commerce, and Federal territory.

Principal features of workmen's compensation laws [in the United States], as of July 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 21 pp. (Bull. No. 62, revised.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Industrial Homework

Development and control of industrial homework. By Ruth Crawford. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 1659; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1944.) Free.

Trabajo a domicilio—exposición y comentario a la ley No. 12713, [Argentina]. By Alejandro M. Unsain. Buenos Aires, "Librería Jurídica," 1942. 371 pp.

Study of the Argentina homework law of 1941, including its historical and economic background and its relation to other labor laws. The texts of the law and its regulations are reproduced.

Indústrias caseiras em Portugal. (In Comissariado do Desemprêgo, Ministério das Obras Públicas e Comunicações, Lisbon, July–August 1943, pp. 19–23.)

This article on industrial homework in Portugal enumerates various homework industries and tells of their need of governmental regulation. The effects of regulation are illustrated by an account of the embroidery industry in the Madeira Islands.

Industry Reports

Cotton goods industry: Employment, hours, and earnings, and turnover rates, by areas, January 1942–April 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Occupational Outlook Branch, 1944. 83 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Employment, labor turnover, and absenteeism in private shipyards, 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1655; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1944.) Free.

[*Report of Pacific Coast Transit Fact Finding Committee.* Washington 25, U. S. Office of Defense Transportation, (1944?).] 159 pp.; processed.

The committee, which was appointed by the Director of Economic Stabilization, compiled, with the aid of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Office of Defense Transportation, and the War Manpower Commission, a large amount of data relating to wage rates and earnings, labor turnover, and other phases of West Coast transit labor.

Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Conditions of Work of Potmen at the Aluminum Co. of Canada, Ltd., Shawinigan Falls, Quebec. [Quebec, Department of Labor?], 1944. 70 pp.; mimeographed.

A study of conditions of work, sickness, absenteeism, and related matters.

The textile industries of China and Japan. By Fessenden S. Blanchard. New York, Textile Research Institute, Inc., 1944. 71 pp. $1.

The report reviews briefly developments in the textile industries of China and Japan since 1917, and economic conditions and problems in the two countries, with a view to determining what the post-war opportunities for American investment will be.

International Labor Organization

Constitutional development of the International Labor Office as affected by the recent International Labor Conference. By Smith Simpson. (In American Political Science Review, Menasha, Wis., August 1944, pp. 719–725. $1.)

The International Labor Organization. London, S. W. 1, Fabian Publications, Ltd., 1944. 24 pp. (Research series No. 82.) 6d.
Descriptive survey of the International Labor Organization, including brief discussions of its future and of trade-union power and responsibility concerning it.

Results of International Labor Conference, April-May 1944. By Carter Goodrich and John Gambs. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 1665; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1944.) Free.

Labor and Social Legislation

Collection of unpaid wages. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 13 pp. (Bull. No. 69; reprinted in part from Monthly Labor Review of U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 1944, pp. 1015–1020.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Equal pay for equal work for men and women. (In National Consumers League Bulletin, Cleveland, Ohio, May 1944, pp. 2, 3.)
Brief résumé of the legislation concerning equal pay for equal work in 5 States with special emphasis on the recent New York law. The War Labor Board's policies in connection with wage rates for men and women performing comparable operations are also reviewed.

Legislación social: Codigo del trabajo, [Chile]. By Alberto Ruiz de Gamboa A. and Juan Díaz Salas. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1942. Vol. I, 1046 pp.; Vol. II, 760 pp.
Annotated, indexed edition of the Chilean Labor Code of 1931, including, in addition to the amended text of the code, regulatory and other related legislation enacted through December 18, 1942, topically arranged; pertinent legal opinions and court decisions; and other material.

Legislación dominicana de trabajo. By J. Bernaldo de Quirós. (In Trabajo, Ministerio del Trabajo, Habana, Cuba, April 1944, pp. 423–450.)
Summary of legislation of the Dominican Republic concerning labor and social welfare, with pertinent background material and a brief account of the relations of the Republic with the International Labor Organization.

Léon Blum before his judges at the Supreme Court of Riom, March 11 and 12, 1942. London, S. W. 1, Labor Party, 1944. 159 pp. 1s.
Contains the defense of Léon Blum concerning the effect of the Popular Front laws, in particular the law on the 40-hour week, which his accusers had charged were among the principal causes of the fall of France.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

Directory of labor unions. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, July 1944. 22 pp.; processed. Free.
A list of national and international unions in the United States.

Labor unionism in agriculture. By Stuart Marshall Jamieson. [Berkeley, Calif., University of California, Department of Economics?], 1943. Various paging, bibliographies; processed.
Study of the development of labor unionism and unrest in American agriculture on both a local and a Nation-wide scale, with a more detailed analysis of the evolution of unionism in certain States and regions.

Union labor in California, 1943. San Francisco, Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Statistics and Law Enforcement, 1944. 23 pp., charts.
Contains data on union membership, women in unions, and sick-leave provisions in union agreements.

Labor organizations in the Territory of Hawaii, [as of August 12, 1944]. Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1944. 11 pp.; mimeographed.

Lists unions affiliated with American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, respectively, and independent organizations.

Union security in wartime. By Lester B. Orfield. (In University of Chicago Law Review, Chicago 37, Ill., June 1944, pp. 349–373. 75 cents.)

Covers, for the present war, the subjects which comprise "union security," namely, the closed shop, the union shop, preferential hiring, and maintenance of membership.

Report of Educational Department, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, June 1, 1942, to May 31, 1944. New York 19, 1944. 31 pp., illus.

Detailed facts and figures regarding the activities of one of the oldest programs of union-controlled and union-supported workers' education in this country.

Forty-seventh annual report of the Scottish Trades Union Congress, 1944, including report of organization of women committee and report of youth advisory council. Glasgow, C. 2, Scottish Trades Union Congress, 1944. 159 pp. 1s. net.

Manpower

Demobilization of manpower, 1918–19. By Stella Stewart. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 68 pp., map. (Bull. No. 784.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Report on the Navy's utilization of its civilian manpower. Prepared by office of Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 26 pp., charts. (Senate doc. No. 143, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Population

Estimates of future population of the United States, 1940–2000. By Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, of the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems. Washington 25, U. S. National Resources Planning Board, 1943. 137 pp., charts. 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Sixteenth census of the United States, 1940—Population: Estimates of labor force, employment, and unemployment in the United States, 1940 and 1930. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1944. 18 pp. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The concepts used in the collection of statistics on workers in 1940 differed in many respects from those of earlier censuses. In order to provide a basis for historical comparisons, this report presents estimates of the labor force in 1930 and 1940 on a comparable basis, by age and sex

Sixteenth census of the United States, 1940—Puerto Rico: Population bulletin No. 3, Occupations and other characteristics by age. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1943. 106 pp. In English and Spanish. 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The statistics cover marital status, literacy, ability to speak English, employment status, etc., of the Puerto Rican population.

The myth of open spaces: Australian, British, and world trends of population and migration. By W. D. Forsyth. Melbourne, Melbourne University Press; London, Oxford University Press; 1942. 226 pp., maps, charts. 17s. 6d. ($4.25, Stechert & Co., New York).

The future population of Europe and the Soviet Union—population projections, 1940–1970. By Frank W. Notestein and others, of the Office of Population Research, Princeton University. Geneva, League of Nations, 1944. 315 pp., bibliography, maps, charts. $3.50, Columbia University Press, New York.

The committee appointed by the assembly of the League of Nations to prepare a plan for this study approved the putting of emphasis on three major groups of problems: The problems of countries with rapidly increasing populations; those of countries with tendencies toward diminishing populations; and those of counries with a small population as compared with productive areas or natural resources. One of the chapters deals with manpower and another is entitled "The burden of dependency: Youth versus the aged."

Abstract of tables giving the main statistics of the [population] census of the Indian Empire of 1941, with a brief introductory note. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1943. 16 pp. (Cmd. 6435.) 3d.

Post-War Reconstruction

Bibliography on post-war planning. New York, Time, Inc., Service on Post-War Information, April 1944. 73 pp.

Post-war employment and the liquidation of war production—a statement on national policy. By the research committee of the Committee for Economic Development. New York 17 (285 Madison Avenue), Committee for Economic Development, 1944. 22 pp.

Discussion of the problems of contract cancellation, disposal of surplus, and disposition of war plant and equipment. The committee also makes recommendations.

The public reaction to the returned service man after World War I. By Mary Frost Jessup. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Post-War Division, 1944. 45 pp.; mimeographed. (Historical study No. 73.) Free.

The veteran comes back. By Willard Waller. New York 16, Dryden Press, Inc., 1944. 316 pp. $2.75.

Considers the socio-psychological adjustments that occur in men, with particular reference to those in World War II, as they are changed from civilians into soldiers and then back to civilians.

Bermuda after the war—problems and answers. Bermuda, Trade Development Board, Economic Advisory Committee, 1943. 55 pp.

Contains suggestions for demobilization and post-war employment. Particular attention is given to public works and housing.

The war and after: Plans, organization, and work of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association in connection with the war and in preparation for conditions after the war. Toronto 1, Ontario, Canadian Manufacturers' Association, 1944. 48 pp.

The Britain I want. By Emanuel Shinwell. London, Macdonald & Co., Ltd., 1943. 216 pp.

Discussion of the need for change in Britain's economy and way of life, in the post-war period. Suggestions made by the author include elimination of the private-enterprise system in such fields as coal and transport.

First interim report of the Welsh Reconstruction Advisory Council. London, Office of the Minister of Reconstruction, 1944. 132 pp. 2s. net.

In making its report the committee has directed attention to the special significance of post-war planning in Wales, where economic conditions were extremely difficult between the two wars. Concrete recommendations are made for future action.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Operations and employment of the Work Projects Administration. Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 20 pp. (House doc. No. 392, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Report of operations under funds appropriated to the Work Projects Administration of the Federal Works Agency by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts, fiscal years 1942 and 1943.

The WPA and Federal relief policy. By Donald S. Howard. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1943. 879 pp. $4.

This study of the various Federal policies followed during the period of the Work Projects Administration deals only with the continental United States. The volume includes discussions of the problem of relief and the adequacy of general relief programs and an exhaustive analysis of the WPA and its program.

Organization of American relief in Europe, 1918–19. By Suda Lorena Bane and Ralph Haswell Lutz. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University Press, 1943. 745 pp., map. (Hoover library on war, revolution, and peace, publication No. 20.) $6.

A collection of documents, chronologically arranged, telling the story of American relief activities in Europe. Particular attention is paid to the organization and administration of this American relief.

Social Security

Assistance payments under the Social Security Act at the end of 1943. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Public Assistance, 1944. 15 pp.

Current and future problems of employee insurance. New York 18, American Management Association, 1944. 44 pp. (Insurance series No. 59.)

Papers presented in a panel session of the Association, dealing with group life insurance and pension plans; health, accident, and hospitalization insurance; trust-fund plans; and questions relating to workmen's compensation.

Social insurance benefits and contributions in relation to family income, 1941. By Selma J. Mushkin and Leila N. Small. Washington 25, U. S. Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1944. 19 pp., charts; processed. (Bureau memorandum No. 59.)

The study was designed to provide quantitative information which may be useful in analyses of both the impact on family groups at different income levels and the economic effects of the present social-insurance systems in the United States.

Social security. By Harold Kellock. Washington 5, Editorial Research Reports (1013 Thirteenth Street NW.), 1944. 13 pp. (Vol. 1, 1944, No. 9.) $1.

Review of the development of social security in the United States, proposed expansions of the social-security system, and effect of the war on the existing systems.

Can we afford 'Beveridge'? By H. W. Singer. London, S. W. 1, Fabian Publications, Ltd., 1943. 23 pp. (Research series No. 72.) 6d.

The question of how much improvement can be afforded under the social services in Great Britain and at what point the price of further improvement becomes excessive is discussed in relation to the Beveridge plan. The total cost of the plan is analyzed, the budgetary aspect of the problem is discussed, and there is an estimate of the post-war national income.

Royal warrant concerning retired pay, pensions, and other grants for officers, soldiers, and nurses disabled, and for the widows and children of officers and soldiers deceased, in consequence of service during the Great War. London, Ministry of Pensions, 1944. 8 pp. (Cmd. 6528.) 2d. net.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Salary and wage data, [by occupation], Michigan cities of more than 10,000 population, hours of work, overtime policies, and bonuses, 1943–44. Ann Arbor, Michigan Municipal League, 1944. 17 pp.; mimeographed. (Information bull. No. 45.) $1.

Wages in iron mining, October 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 14 pp. (Bull. No. 787; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1944.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Salary report of telephone and telegraph carriers and holding companies, 1942. Washington 25, Federal Communications Commission, 1944. 45 pp.; mimeographed.

Gives, by company, the annual salaries in 1941 and 1942 of officers, directors, and other persons, amounting to $10,000 or more, and related information.

Problems of wage policy after the war. By Sumner H. Slichter. (In Proceedings of Academy of Political Science, Vol. XXI, No. I, New York, May 1944, pp. 64–88. Also reprinted.)

The author reviews changes during the war, such as the comparative increases in wages by region, by industry, and by degree of skill. There is also a discussion of possible need for wage controls after the war.

The national wage stabilization code and its practical application. Washington 25, U. S. National War Labor Board, Division of Public Information, 1944. 7 pp.; processed.

The War Labor Board: An experiment in wage stabilization. By Jane Cassels Record. (In American Economic Review, Washington 6, 722 Jackson Place NW., March 1944, pp. 98–110. $1.25.)

What your bank can do about wage and salary stabilization: Rules governing pay increases which may be made with and without U. S. approval. New York 5, New York State Bankers Association, 1944. 68 pp. $1.

Payment by results in British engineering. By W. McLaine. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, June 1944, pp. 630–646. Reprints of article are available from Washington branch of I. L. O. at 10 cents each.)

Women in Industry

Employing women in shipyards. By Dorothy K. Newman. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1944. x, 83 pp., bibliographies, illus. (Bull. No. 192–6.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Recruiting women workers. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, [1944]. 44 pp., illus.

Wartime work for girls and women—selected references, June 1940 to July 1943. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1944. 66 pp. (Vocational division bull. No. 227; Occupational information and guidance series, No. 11.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

British policies and methods in employing women in wartime. By Janet M. Hooks. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1944. 44 pp., map, charts. (Bull. No. 200.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The industrial nurse and the woman worker. By Jennie Mohr. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1944. 47 pp., bibliography. (Special bull. No. 19.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The bulletin describes conditions which women workers have to meet under war conditions and the way in which the plant nurse can assist in promoting healthful working and living conditions. Specific subjects discussed are fatigue, everyday good health habits, health and safety on the job, and taking part in a health and safety program in the plant.

Youth Problems

Work leaders for groups of nonfarm youth employed in agriculture. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1944. 10 pp. (Bureau publication No. 305.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Young workers and their education; Providing the right type of education and problems of release from work. Report of conference held at College of Technology, Manchester, April 15, 1943. London, British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education, [1943?]. 40 pp. 1s.

Subjects discussed include day continuation schools as youth centers; changeover from voluntary to compulsory part-time education; and part-time education schemes in operation in various industries.

The youth service after the war: A report of the Youth Advisory Council appointed by the president of the Board of Education in 1942 to advise him on questions relating to the Youth Service in England. London, Board of Education, 1943. 32 pp. 6d. net.

General Reports

Rendezvous with destiny. Addresses and opinions of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, selected and arranged with factual and historical references and summaries by J. B. S. Hardman. New York 16, Dryden Press, 1944. 367 pp. $3.

Various economic and labor subjects are touched upon.

Condiciones de vida de la familia obrera; La regulación colectiva del trabajo, [*Provincia de Buenos Aires, Argentina*]. La Plata, Departamento del Trabajo de la Provincia de Buenos Aires, 1943. 192 pp., charts.

Part 1 presents the results of investigations of family budgets together with cost-of-living indexes for certain localities in the Province of Buenos Aires in August 1938 and August 1942; part 2 gives a summary of provincial legislation on occupational associations and information on labor agrreements through 1942.

Labor in wartime [*in India*]. By S. R. Bose. (In Indian Journal of Economics, Allahabad, January 1944, pp. 179–191. Rs. 3–4.)

Japan: Its resources and industries. By Clayton D. Carus and Charles L. McNichols. New York, Harper & Bros., 1944. 252 pp., bibliography, maps, charts, illus. $3.50.

While the emphasis in this volume is industrial, the facts presented have important implications from the labor viewpoint.

Industrial development of the Netherlands Indies. By Peter H. W. Sitsen. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, [1944?]. 65 pp., charts. (Netherlands and Netherlands Indies Council bull. No. 2.) 50 cents.

A general view of industry and industrial policy in the Netherlands Indies, supported by statistics insofar as available.

Understanding New Zealand. By Frederick L. W. Wood. New York, Coward-McCann, Inc., 1944. 267 pp., illus. $3.50.

Overall picture of New Zealand from the early settlements to 1943. Chapters are devoted to farming and industry and considerable attention is given to the growth of the labor movement and the development of labor and social legislation.

Life and labor in Shanghai: A decade of labor and social administration in the International Settlement. By Eleanor M. Hinder. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, International Secretariat, 1944. 143 pp. $1.50.

History of almost a decade of efforts by the Shanghai Municipal Council's Industrial and Social Division, headed by the author, to improve conditions of employment and livelihood for the workers in the International Settlement of Shanghai.

Soviet Russia: A selected list of recent references. Compiled by Helen F. Conover. Washington 25, U. S. Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1943.) pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

The references are broadly classified by subjects, which include agriculture, industries and labor, health and nutrition, and population.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1944