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REHABILITATION

In this Issue . . Work injuries in 1943 . . . . Aircraft industry in wartime . . . . German Labor Front . . . . Wages in department stores

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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This Issue in Brief

Work injuries in the United States during 1943.

Approximately 2,414,000 workers were disabled because of work injuries during 1943. Actual time lost from production because of these injuries amounted to about 56,800,000 days. The estimated injury total was about 6 percent greater during 1943 than during 1942. The injury-frequency rate (20.0) of the entire manufacturing group during 1943 showed very little change from that (19.9) of the preceding year. Although no improvement was indicated by the number of disabling injuries per million hours worked, the upward trend noted during the last few years was not continued. Detailed data on injury-frequency rates and on the type and severity of injuries are found in the article on page 905.

Wartime development of the aircraft industry.

Total employment in the aircraft industry did not exceed 100,000 in January 1940, as compared with the peak of about 2,100,000 workers in November 1943. Since that time employment has steadily declined to 1,800,000 in August 1944. Increasing productivity has been of sufficient magnitude to permit schedule attainment in spite of the employment declines. The important role of women in the aircraft program is measured by the ultimate employment of almost 500,000 in the production of airframes, engines, and propellers, as compared with 23,000 in January 1942. Prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants are the most important subdivisions of the aircraft industry, accounting for approximately two-thirds of total employment. The article on page 909 also discusses labor turnover, absenteeism, hours and earnings, and production trends.

The German Labor Front.

The German Labor Front, one of the first organizations established by the Nazis, superseded and engulfed not only the trade-unions but also professional organizations and those of employers; their membership in the new organization was virtually compulsory. At its peak, the Labor Front contained about 30 million persons. Its functions covered many fields and permeated all German life. The development and activities of this organization—important from the standpoint of the reconstruction of free workers' associations in post-war Germany—are described in an article on page 932.

Labor conditions in Denmark.

Denmark's economy is primarily based on agriculture, upon which its major industries and foreign trade depend. During the early 1930's there was considerable unemployment, which reached its peak in 1932. The peacetime practice of wage fixing by means of collective bargaining continued after the German invasion. The 8-hour day had been generally established before the war. Average money wages rose from 1.28 kroner in 1929 to 1.75 kroner in 1941, but real wages did not always keep pace with this rising trend. Labor unions, which played an important role in the industrial life of Denmark, continued to function after the occupation, although certain restrictions were imposed. For the settlement of industrial disputes there existed an Arbitration Court, three regional conciliators, and (after the occupation) a Labor and Mediation Board. The Danish cooperative movement ranked among the foremost in the world. A comprehensive system of social insurance provided protection for sickness, old age, unemployment, and industrial injuries. Page 945.

Mid-war developments in civilian family allowances.

The passage of the Canadian Family Allowance Act in August 1944, following the somewhat earlier Eire Act providing for such allocations, the recent Soviet

edict concerning grants in cash for children, and the magnitude of the system of dependents' benefits for the United States armed forces have aroused widespread interest in these subsidies. A brief review of mid-war developments in the movement for civilian family allowances in 23 countries is given in the article on page 982.

Arbitration provisions in union agreements.

Three of every four union agreements in 14 major industries provide for arbitration as the terminal point in the grievance machinery. In the article on page 1001, detailed information is presented (based on an examination of 1,254 union agreements) on the prevalence of arbitration provisions, the type of arbitration arrangement, initiation of arbitration proceedings, composition and selection of agency, time limits, finality of arbitration decisions, and scope of arbitration. Arbitration provisions in agreements covering small plants are also compared with those covering large plants.

Wages in department stores in large cities, spring and summer of 1943.

Median hourly rates of pay of workers in department, general-merchandise, and clothing stores in the spring and summer of 1943 ranged from 39 cents an hour for women bundle wrappers and stock girls to $1.18 (including commissions) for furniture salesmen. Wage rates were found to differ substantially by size of city. Among broad geographic regions, rates of pay were highest in the Pacific Coast area and lowest in the South. Page 1036.

Determination of wage rates for mechanical and laboring positions in the Federal Service.

Nearly a million Federal employees have their wage rates set in accordance with rates paid for similar work by private employers in the respective localities. Most of these employees are in mechanical trades and laboring positions, ranging from highly skilled to relatively unskilled occupations. As far back as 1862 Congress recognized the principle of paying the prevailing wage rate, by requiring wage rates in navy yards to be so determined. The methods used to determine the prevailing wage rate and the changes resulting from the economic-stabilization policies initiated in the fall of 1942 are discussed in an article on page 1063.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

Item	Unit	1944			1943: September	1939: Average for year
		September	August	July		
Employment						
Civilian labor force: Total (BC)	Thousands	53,030	54,010	55,000	53,910	[2] 54,230
Male	do	34,590	35,570	35,890	35,700	[2] 40,950
Female	do	18,440	18,440	19,110	18,210	[2] 13,280
Employed	do	52,250	53,170	54,000	52,950	[2] 46,930
Male	do	34,190	35,140	35,410	35,210	[2] 35,600
Female	do	18,060	18,030	18,590	17,740	[2] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	43,580	44,600	44,330	43,900	[2] 37,430
Agricultural	do	8,670	8,570	9,670	9,050	[2] 9,500
Unemployed, total	do	780	840	1,000	960	[2] 7,300
Employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total [3]	do	38,559	38,740	38,730	39,678	30,353
Manufacturing	do	15,850	16,039	16,012	17,136	10,078
Mining	do	828	834	833	880	845
Construction [4]	do	679	691	686	1,091	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,788	3,817	3,809	3,688	2,912
Trade	do	6,987	6,908	6,942	6,936	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	4,480	4,582	4,618	4,079	4,160
Federal, State and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,947	5,869	5,830	5,868	3,988
Wage-earner employment:						
Manufacturing	do	12,777	12,940	12,924	13,935	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	350	352	351	374	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,428	1,449	1,443	1,373	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	2,817	2,694	2,732	3,100	[5] 3,240
Hours of labor						
Average hours per week of wage earners:						
Manufacturing	Hours		45.1	44.6	[6] 45.1	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do		44.1	39.5	[6] 40.3	27.1
Retail trade	do		43.3	43.2	[6] 42.1	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	40.1	40.1	40.6	39.4	32.4
Weekly earnings						
Average weekly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			$45.85	$45.43	[6] $43.52	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			$52.28	$47.20	[6] $46.15	$23.88
Retail trade			$27.64	$27.83	[6] $25.98	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$53.71	$52.90	$52.81	$49.59	$30.24
Hourly or daily earnings						
Average hourly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			$1.016	$1.018	[6] $0.965	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			$1.189	$1.199	[6] $1.150	$0.886
Retail trade			$0.706	$0.706	[6] $0.678	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.339	$1.323	$1.302	$1.258	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			$0.944	$0.951	[6] $0.897	$0.622
Employment by industry, as of January 1939			$0.871	$0.874	[6] $0.822	$0.622
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)		[7] $4.08		$4.06	[7] $3.51	[7] $1.57
Industrial injuries, labor turnover, and absences from work						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing, per million man-hours work				[8] 19.5	[8] 20.7	15.4
Labor turnover in manufacturing:						
Total separations, per 100 employees			7.8	6.6	[6] 8.3	([9])
Quits, per 100 employees			6.2	5.0	[6] 6.3	([9])
Lay-offs, per 100 employees			0.5	0.5	[6] 0.5	([9])
Total accessions, per 100 employees			6.2	6.3	[6] 7.6	([9])
Absence rates (workdays lost as percent of total scheduled):						
Manufacturing, selected industries		6.3	6.6	6.4	6.1	([9])
Bituminous-coal mining		12.5	11.9	12.2	10.8	([9])

See footnotes at end of table.

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

Item	Unit	1944			1943: September	1939: Average for year
		September	August	July		
Strikes						
Strikes beginning in month:						
Number of strikes		390	485	470	237	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	185	190	145	67	98
Man-days idle during month (all strikes):						
Number	do	660	935	680	210	1,484
Percent of available working time		0.09	0.12	0.09	0.03	0.28
Cost of living						
Cost-of-living index (wage earners in large cities): All items	1935–39=100	126.5	126.4	126.1	123.9	99.4
Food	1935–39=100	137.0	137.7	137.4	137.4	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	141.4	139.4	138.3	132.5	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100	108.2	108.2	108.2	108.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	109.8	109.8	109.7	107.7	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	140.7	139.3	138.7	126.3	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	122.4	122.3	122.0	117.0	100.7
Retail food prices (large cities)						
Retail price index: All foods	1935–39=100	137.0	137.7	137.4	137.4	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	108.7	108.5	108.6	108.2	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	129.0	129.0	129.3	129.9	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	133.6	133.6	133.6	133.5	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	168.0	159.4	148.9	177.5	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	169.9	175.7	176.9	167.0	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	124.3	124.3	124.3	125.2	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	123.0	122.7	122.9	126.5	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	126.3	126.5	126.6	126.8	100.6
Wholesale prices						
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100	104.0	103.9	104.1	103.1	77.1
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100	99.7	99.7	99.6	98.6	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100	98.6	98.6	98.5	97.2	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	122.7	122.6	124.1	123.1	65.3
Foods	1926=100	104.2	104.8	105.8	105.0	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments, total (BFDC)	Millions		$12,661	$12,888	[6] $11,681	[6] $5,483
Consumer expenditures for goods and services, total (BFDC)	do		$8,015	$7,806	[6] $7,388	[6] $5,027
Retail sales, total (BFDC)	do		$5,645	$5,452	[6] $5,230	[6] $3,422
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR):						
Total	1935–39=100	234	235	232	248	109
Manufacturing	1935–39=100	250	251	248	267	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	147	147	143	143	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons	50,010	54,180	48,970	52,214	32,905
Construction expenditures, all types (excluding maintenance)	Millions	$370	$378	$359	$598	[5] $680
Building construction started in urban areas	do	$80	$85	$90	$104	(9)
New family-dwelling units in nonfarm areas		10,400	12,300	13,600	24,200	[5] 42,400
Carloadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	150	146	147	151	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. Reprints 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] September.

[6] August.

[7] October.

[8] Cumulative frequency rate, January to July.

[9] Not available.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

NOVEMBER 1944

Work Injuries in the United States During 1943 [1]

Summary

DURING 1943, approximately 2,414,000 workers were disabled because of work injuries. The actual time lost from production because of these injuries amounted to about 56,800,000 days. If allowance is made for future economic losses caused by the 18,400 deaths, 1,700 permanent total disabilities, and 108,000 permanent partial impairments, the time loss reaches 274,000,000 days, or a full year's work for about 914,000 workers. This entire economic loss can fairly be charged against 1943, because similar injuries deprived the Nation of the effectiveness during 1943 of workers killed or permanently impaired in earlier years.

The estimated injury total was about 6 percent greater during 1943 than during 1942, for which the estimate was 2,267,700. In comparison with the latter year, deaths increased by 300, permanent total disabilities decreased by 100, permanent partial inpairments increased by 7,200, and temporary total disabilities rose by 138,900.

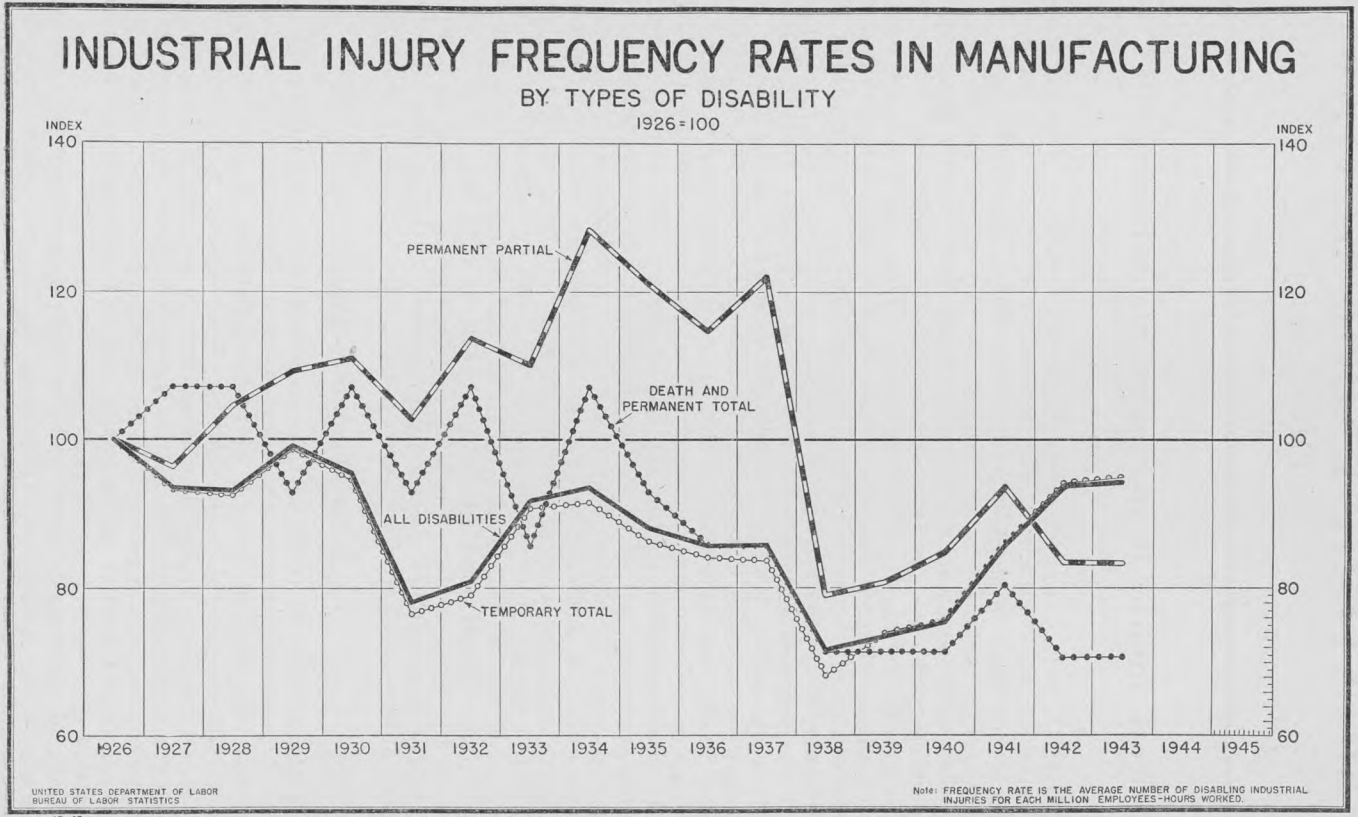
In sharp contrast to the experience during 1941 and 1942, the injury-frequency rate of the entire manufacturing group during 1943 showed very little change from that of the preceding year. Although the number of disabling injuries per million hours worked did not indicate any improvement over the average for 1942, it did not continue the upward trend noted during the last few years and remained practically at the 1942 level. For 1943 the frequency rate was 20.0—an increase of only a half of 1 percent over the 1942 rate (19.9). The reason for this stability was that the increase in injuries in manufacturing was matched by a similar increase in the number of total hours during which workers were exposed to the hazards of their jobs.

Injury-Frequency Rates

The disability distribution of nearly 483,000 injuries reported by 35,853 manufacturing establishments—with about 11 million employees who worked a total of nearly 25 billion hours—remained essentially unchanged from that of 1942. Deaths and permanent total disabilities together accounted for 0.4 percent of all injuries, permanent partial impairments for 4.5 percent, and temporary total disabilities for 95.1 percent. In this group, the average time charge for permanent partial impairments was 884 days, and the average duration of temporary total disabilities was 16 days.

Logging, as in past years, had the highest frequency rate among manufacturing industries. Its rate of 82.2, nevertheless, indicated some improvement over the 1942 rate of 89.6. Sawmills, with 58.4 disabling injuries per million employee-hours of exposure, also showed

[1] Detailed data will be given in a forthcoming bulletin.



a reduction from the 1942 rate of 61.7. Foundries experienced a decrease in accident frequency (from 49.7 to 43.4), as did the brick, tile, and terracotta industry (from 47.1 to 42.9), the concrete, gypsum and plaster products industry (from 48.4 to 40.8), and the wooden-container industry (from 50.2 to 48.8).

On the other hand, a number of industries with high frequency rates in 1942 had still higher rates in 1943. The respective 1943 and 1942 rates for these industries were 47.6 and 44.8 for slaughtering and meat packing, 40.8 and 38.0 for iron and steel forgings, and 44.2 and 37.6 for planing mills.

The plate-fabrication and boiler-shop-products industry, with a high rate of 44.3 in 1943, was not shown separately in earlier years.

In the nonmanufacturing group of industries, stevedoring ranked highest with a frequency rate of 91.3. This industry was not surveyed in earlier years. There is reason to believe that the frequency rate, high though it is, is conservative and probably understates considerably the average experience of this industry.

Trucking and hauling, with a rate of 41.4, also showed a considerable increase in accident frequency, as the comparison with the 1942 rate of 34.8 indicates.

Among the manufacturing industries most closely associated with the war, shipbuilding had an average frequency rate of 31.5, aircraft 9.7, aircraft parts 11.7, guns 15.5, heavy ammunition 19.0, tanks 12.2, small arms 8.6, and small-arms ammunition 5.1. The entire ordnance group had a frequency rate of 13.4, one of the lowest group rates in the entire survey.

That extremely hazardous industries can be properly safeguarded is shown by the very low frequency rate of 5.3 for explosives.

Type and Severity of Injuries

An indication of the severity of injuries is provided by the proportions of them which result in death or permanent impairment. It is noteworthy that some of the industries with high percentages of serious injuries nevertheless experienced low frequency rates; in other words, injuries occurred less often per million employee-hours, but among these injuries relatively high proportions were serious. Thus, the percentage of deaths and permanent disabilities in the explosives industry was 13.3 percent, as compared with the all-manufacturing average of 4.9 percent. High percentages in other industries were 11.3 for iron and steel, 10.0 for cement, 7.3 for hardware, 7.6 for ornamental metal work, 8.9 for plumbers' supplies, 7.9 for stamped and pressed metal products, and 8.7 for tin cans and other tinware.

The iron and steel industry also had the highest average duration per temporary disability, 36 days. The cement industry followed with 31 days. Both industries had low frequency rates, 10.0 and 8.2, respectively.

As in all previous years, hand and finger injuries accounted for more than three-quarters of all permanent impairments in manufacturing. That the specific percentage of such impairments remains fairly constant is indicated by the data for the last 3 years: 77 percent in 1941, 79 percent in 1942, and 78 percent in 1943. Foot or toe impairments were reported in 7 percent of all cases, leg and arm impairments each in 3 percent, and permanent eye injuries in 5 percent.

The relative distributions, of course, varied considerably in individual industries. Thus, 97 percent of all permanent impairments in

the furniture industry were to the hand or fingers. In the hardware and metal-stamping industries, this percentage was nearly as high, 96 percent. Outstanding for high percentages of arm and foot or toe impairments was the fertilizer industry, in which the specific percentages for these body parts were 13 and 16. In logging, with only 44 percent of impairments to the hand or fingers, legs were permanently injured in 20 percent of all impairment cases. As one would expect, industries with heavy products experienced large proportions of permanent foot and toe injuries: Breweries 18 percent, foundries 15 percent, steam fittings 15 percent, logging 11 percent, paper and pulp 15 percent, and engines and turbines 13 percent.

Estimates of Disabling Work Injuries

The following table gives estimates of disabling injuries for major industrial groups. Footnotes permit an evaluation of the reliability of these estimates, some of which are based on broad, comprehensive data, while others necessarily had to be predicated on very sketchy and inadequate source material. In manufacturing, for example, the survey data covered about 64 percent of the total employment. Similarly, the mining and railroad estimates are based on adequate data. On the other hand, very little is known about accidents in the construction industry, and still less about those in agriculture.

The total estimate of 2,414,000 disabling injuries during 1943 represents an increase of about 6 percent over the 1942 total. Fatalities increased by about 300, to a total of 18,400. Permanent total disabilities remained nearly constant, at 1,700. Permanent partial impairments increased from 100,800 to about 108,000, and temporary total disabilities rose to 2,285,900 from an estimated 1942 total of 2,147,000.

As in 1942, manufacturing outranked every other major industrial group. It alone accounted for nearly 802,500 disabilities, of which 3,100 resulted in death and 34,400 in permanent impairments. Compared with the 1942 totals, injuries in manufacturing industries increased by 26 percent. As already noted, however, the incidence of work injuries showed practically no change from that of 1942, as indicated by the relative frequency rates of 19.9 and 20.0 for 1942 and 1943. The increase in injuries was matched by a proportionate increase in total hours worked, and the frequency rate thus remained constant.

Estimated Number of Disabling Injuries During 1943, by Industry Groups

Industry group	All disabilities		Fatalities		Permanent total disabilities		Permanent partial disabilities		Temporary total disabilities	
	Total	To employees	Total	To employees	Total	To employees	Total	To employees	Total	To employees
All industry groups	2,414,000	1,961,400	18,400	13,400	1,700	1,400	108,000	86,900	2,285,900	1,859,700
Agriculture [1]	311,900	75,400	4,800	1,200	400	100	15,600	3,700	291,100	70,400
Mining and quarrying [2]	96,400	91,100	2,000	1,900	200	200	4,200	4,000	90,000	85,000
Construction [3]	260,100	191,400	2,500	1,800	200	200	12,800	9,400	244,600	180,000
Manufacturing [4]	802,500	788,900	3,100	3,100	300	300	34,100	33,500	765,000	752,000
Public utilities	19,700	19,700	400	400	([5])	([5])	500	500	18,800	18,800
Trade [3]	268,400	215,100	1,100	900	100	100	6,600	5,300	260,600	208,800
Railroads [6]	85,400	85,400	1,300	1,300	200	200	5,900	5,900	78,000	78,000
Miscellaneous transportation [3]	146,000	125,400	1,300	1,100	100	100	4,100	3,500	140,500	120,700
Services, government, and miscellaneous industries [3]	423,600	369,000	1,900	1,700	200	200	24,200	21,100	397,300	346,000

[1] Based on fragmentary data.
[2] Based largely on Bureau of Mines data.
[3] Based on small sample studies.
[4] Based on comprehensive survey.
[5] Less than 50.
[6] Based on Interstate Commerce Commission data

Wartime Development of the Aircraft Industry[1]

Summary

TOTAL employment in the aircraft industry did not exceed 100,000 workers in January 1940; but in the latter part of 1943, when the peak was attained, about 2,100,000 were at work. Since then employment has been steadily declining and in August 1944 was slightly more than 1,800,000.

Increasing productivity has been of sufficient magnitude to permit schedule attainment despite this 14-percent decline in employment. The average airframe weight accepted per employee increased from 21 pounds in January 1941 to 96 pounds in May 1944. Along with this, the number of completed airplanes accepted rose from 1,000 per month early in 1941 to between 8 and 9 thousand per month thus far in 1944. Whereas about 4 million pounds (including weight of spare parts) were accepted monthly in the beginning of 1941, approximately 100 million pounds per month were being accepted in 1944.

Prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants are the most important subdivisions of the industry, accounting for approximately two-thirds of total employment. Airframe prime contractors alone employ from 45 to 50 percent of the total. This group, with about 59,000 workers in January 1940, reached an employment peak of 936,000 in November 1943 and declined 18 percent to 769,000 in August 1944. The number at work in engine plants increased 21 times from 16,000 at the beginning of 1940 to a peak of 340,000 by February 1944 but decreased 7 percent to 317,000 by August. Propeller employment advanced from only 3,000 in January 1940 to 57,000 by the end of 1943. The August 1944 figure was 53,000 or 6 percent less.

The important role played by women workers in the aircraft program is measured by the ultimate employment of almost 500,000 women engaged in the production of airframes, engines, and propellers as compared with 23,000 in January 1942. Women represented 40 percent of the labor force in airframe plants and approximately 30 percent in engine and propeller plants in August 1944, whereas in January 1942 they had accounted for only about 5 percent.

Because of the possibility of enemy attack, the coastal location of aircraft plants was a source of grave concern. In 1940, about 95 percent of total airframe employment was in plants on both coasts, but by 1943 this was reduced to 61 percent. More important, in view of the threat from Japanese aircraft carriers, was the fact that the proportion on the West Coast was reduced from 60 to 33 percent. Engine and propeller plants, formerly concentrated on the East Coast, had approximately 40 percent of their employment in Ohio and Michigan by 1943.

Separation rates have been higher in airframe plants than in engine and propeller plants, but have been consistently lower than the average for manufacturing as a whole.

Engine and propeller workers reported higher earnings than did airframe workers, but employees in all three branches of the industry showed an increase in income.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment, by Leonard G. Levenson.

Description of the Industry

Prior to World War II the aircraft industry was a relatively unimportant segment of transportation-equipment manufacturing. Within 4 years it has become one of the Nation's major industries in terms of employment and output. This report traces the industry's meteoric rise as measured by employment and related factors.

The aircraft industry is composed of eight subdivisions. These are airframes, gliders, special-purpose aircraft, engines, propellers, subcontractors, parts suppliers, and modification centers.

The airframe plants are by far the most important in terms of both employment and function. Plants so designated assemble the fuselage, wings, and tail fabricated on their own premises and those of their subcontractors and, in addition, install the engines, propellers, instruments, and accessories necessary to complete the airplane for delivery. The airframe plant, often called the airplane plant, is truly a plant of final assembly, for it represents that stage at which a long series of assemblies culminates in the finished product.

Glider and special-purpose aircraft are part of the airplane family. The glider is simply an unpowered airplane. Special-purpose aircraft are primarily targets which are small, powered, pilotless airplanes controlled by radio and used in training aerial gunners. Both types of craft are simple to build. The quantities needed, however, have been relatively small in comparison with total requirements.

Production of aircraft engines calls for facilities specializing in the machining and assembling of an item requiring extremely close tolerances. This is reflected in the high proportion of skilled workers employed. However, immediate adoption of mass-production techniques was made possible by the size of the unit, the great numbers of engines required, and the relative stability of design. The experience of the automobile industry in this type of production was used to good advantage. The manufacturing process is completely different from that of airframes, with the result that engine plants (which are virtually giant machine shops) cannot perform the operations of airframe plants which are enclosed assembly areas with high ceilings and wide bays.

The propeller branch of the industry also is highly specialized. Although a propeller may at first sight appear to be simple, it is actually extremely complicated. A large proportion of skilled workers is required in its production. The machined parts going into the hub of a propeller require the closest tolerances. The blades must be perfectly balanced. Furthermore, as changes are made, to improve the effectiveness of propellers in connection with existing engines or improved engines, they become more complex and continue to rely on highly skilled workmanship. Like engine plants, propeller plants are one-purpose establishments.

The producers discussed thus far are classified as prime contractors. They enter into a contractual obligation directly with the Government to deliver a finished product within a specified time. The accepted item must meet specifications, but how the job is to be done remains the responsibility of the prime contractor. The war brought with it pressure for unprecedented production in the shortest possible time. The aircraft industry met the challenge by subcontracting much of the work formerly done within the plant. Naturally, the

ability to maintain the close tolerances of the aircraft industry was a major criterion in the selection of subcontractors. Many automobile plants took on the job of making items such as wing sections, fuselage sections, or tail assemblies, while plants in other industries did what they could to assist in aircraft production. As the program progressed and some of the prime contractors completed their jobs, they in turn took on subcontract work. It is estimated that a fifth of total airframe production, a third of engine, and a fourth of propeller production has been accomplished by subcontractors.

Parts suppliers are relied upon to furnish many of the items that go into the finished airplane. This branch of the industry is composed of specialists in their respective fields, devoting their attention to such products as instruments, turbo-superchargers, generators, and the like. The war naturally resulted in expansion in this segment of the industry, and new specialists entered the field. In order to maintain standardization and simplify procurement of items common to several airplane models, the Government has followed the policy of contracting for equipment which is then turned over to manufacturers for installation. Allocation of scarce items is made in accordance with the relative need for different types of airplanes.

Modification centers are a war innovation. When the airplane shortage was particularly acute, the latest changes in aeronautical design were incorporated into completed planes by modification centers until such changes could be introduced in the production line. In addition, these plants installed special equipment on combat planes, to prepare them for flying conditions in different theaters of operation. Improved production techniques and the current supply of aircraft are now such that in many cases the function of modification centers can conveniently be taken over by the airframe plants themselves.

Coverage.—The basic data for this report were secured from the Aeronautical Monthly Progress Reports developed by the Army Air Forces, and from the Bureau's reports on labor turnover and on hours and earnings. Arrangements have been made whereby all prime contractors of airframes, engines, propellers, gliders, special-purpose aircraft, and modification centers submit detailed data monthly on these schedules. Prime contractors now account for about 65 percent of the industry's total employment. Subcontractors and parts suppliers are not direct reporters under this program for the aircraft industry as such, but the data submitted by prime contractors include the basis for estimating off-site man-hours spent, permitting an estimate of the level of employment for these branches of the industry. Within the reporting group, glider, special-purpose, and modification-center employment is relatively unimportant, representing less than 5 percent of the total. Consequently, in the present article major emphasis is placed on the prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants in tracing the industry's progress.

Employment Trends

In January 1940 total employment in the entire aeronautical industry probably did not exceed 100,000 workers. When peak employment was attained in the latter part of 1943, about 2,100,000 were at work—20 times the number 4 years earlier. In August 1944

employment was approximately 1,800,000, or 14 percent below the peak (table 1).

From not quite 80,000 workers employed in prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants at the beginning of 1940, the figure rose to over 1,300,000 by the end of 1943, or to 16 times the previous figure (table 2). The greater part of the expansion took place within a 2-year span. This is one of the most striking accomplishments of the war and resulted in the creation, in record time, of the world's most powerful air force.

Airframe plants now employ about two-thirds of the workers in prime contracting establishments, engine plants a little over a fourth, and propeller plants only about 5 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Total Employment in the Aircraft Industry, by Type of Contractor, January 1942–August 1944* [1]

[In thousands]

Month	1942			1943			1944		
	Total	Prime contractors [2]	Subcontractors and parts suppliers [3]	Total	Prime contractors [2]	Subcontractors and parts suppliers [3]	Total	Prime contractors [2]	Subcontractors and parts suppliers [3]
January	618.4	460.4	158.0	1,609.3	1,064.3	545.0	2,079.9	1,368.9	711.0
February	682.8	501.8	181.0	1,681.2	1,111.2	570.0	2,062.7	1,356.7	706.0
March	735.1	538.1	197.0	1,739.4	1,148.4	591.0	2,018.1	1,327.1	691.0
April	792.6	572.6	220.0	1,789.9	1,180.9	609.0	1,986.9	1,305.9	681.0
May	848.2	611.2	237.0	1,836.6	1,211.6	625.0	1,956.5	1,285.5	671.0
June	930.0	664.0	266.0	1,895.3	1,252.3	643.0	1,909.6	1,254.6	655.0
July	1,000.3	710.3	290.0	1,941.5	1,281.5	660.0	1,883.4	1,235.4	648.0
August	1,099.4	772.4	327.0	1,980.7	1,304.7	676.0	1,811.0	1,186.0	625.0
September	1,179.8	819.8	360.0	2,032.3	1,338.3	694.0			
October	1,280.3	879.3	401.0	2,073.9	1,364.9	709.0			
November	1,384.3	939.3	445.0	2,101.6	1,382.6	719.0			
December	1,496.5	1,003.5	493.0	2,079.1	1,369.1	710.0			

[1] All data are as of end of month.

[2] Includes actual employment of airframe, engine, propeller, glider, and special-purpose aircraft plants, and modification centers.

[3] Estimated; includes employment in many plants classified by the Bureau's Employment Statistics Division in other industries, such as electrical equipment and automobiles; all establishments having subcontracts are included, even when aircraft and parts do not constitute their primary activity.

Airframe prime contractors had an estimated 59,000 persons at work in 21 facilities[2] in January 1940. During the course of the year, employment more than doubled, reaching 134,000. The monthly net increase averaged 7,000 workers. The net increase in 1941 was 180,000, an average of 15,000 per month, and when Pearl Harbor was attacked, employment had exceeded 300,000. Immediately afterward, expansion was greatly accelerated largely because of the completion of new plants. The first half of 1942 witnessed an average monthly increase of 26,000 workers, but the average monthly gain for the last half of 1942 jumped to 43,000. The greatest increase in any one month occurred in December 1942, when 49,500 workers were added. Not only were existing plants expanded, but new plants were put into operation. There were 54 facilities at that time as compared with 21 in 1940. Thus, by December 1942, employment stood at 730,000, a net increase of 417,000 workers over the end of 1941.

[2] The term facility as used in this report represents a single plant fabricating a complete airframe, engine, or propeller, or different plants working under the same corporate management and together as a unit fabricating the complete airframe, engine, or propeller.

TABLE 2.—*Total Employment in Prime Contracting Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, January 1940–August 1944* [1]

Year and month	Total employment in—				Year and month	Total employment in—			
	All plants	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants		All plants	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants
1940					*1942*—Con.				
January [2]	77,500	59,000	16,000	2,500	May	611,272	439,188	148,738	23,346
February	82,416	62,125	17,433	2,858	June	653,033	470,765	156,964	25,304
March	87,742	65,518	19,106	3,118	July	695,359	505,274	162,893	27,192
April	95,182	71,116	20,671	3,395	August	753,425	553,240	170,680	29,505
May	104,066	77,246	23,176	3,644	September	796,954	589,503	176,597	30,854
June	114,698	85,744	24,825	4,129	October	852,862	635,056	185,387	32,419
July	126,214	93,799	28,042	4,373	November	910,932	680,535	195,869	34,528
August	135,293	101,030	29,738	4,525	December	970,359	729,995	204,177	36,187
September	146,054	108,710	32,392	4,952	*1943*				
October	156,353	117,637	33,290	5,426					
November	167,294	125,501	36,129	5,664	January	1,027,914	770,471	219,084	38,359
December	178,489	133,654	38,848	5,987	February	1,072,573	800,055	232,186	40,332
1941					March	1,106,664	819,848	244,434	42,382
					April	1,139,018	839,349	255,547	44,122
January	194,135	146,197	41,329	6,609	May	1,166,555	856,244	263,684	46,627
February	204,962	153,554	44,143	7,265	June	1,203,479	881,139	273,798	48,542
March	216,156	161,231	47,205	7,720	July	1,233,385	900,584	282,944	49,857
April	231,102	172,240	50,461	8,401	August	1,257,427	907,098	297,329	53,000
May	246,006	183,134	53,960	8,912	September	1,290,181	924,872	310,573	54,736
June	269,059	200,260	59,381	9,418	October	1,311,765	931,109	325,916	54,740
July	293,661	218,925	64,813	9,923	November	[3] 1,326,345	936,466	336,128	[4] 53,751
August	319,125	238,549	70,213	10,363	December	[3] 1,310,799	922,859	333,303	[4] 54,637
September	341,450	255,796	74,710	10,944	*1944*				
October	371,247	276,810	82,907	11,530					
November	391,453	291,574	87,544	12,335	January	[3] 1,307,953	913,091	337,698	[4] 57,164
December	423,027	313,297	96,746	12,984	February	1,295,791	898,865	339,833	57,093
1942					March	1,267,657	875,423	335,614	56,620
					April	1,247,182	856,325	334,458	56,399
January	460,356	341,603	104,156	14,597	May	1,227,724	840,351	332,149	55,224
February	501,753	368,669	116,804	16,280	June	1,197,974	811,623	331,667	54,684
March	538,060	390,278	129,387	18,395	July	1,180,866	796,976	329,620	54,270
April	572,616	412,927	138,974	20,715	August	1,139,919	769,282	317,346	53,291

[1] All data are as of end of month.
[2] Estimated.
[3] A change in propeller coverage occurred in December 1943 and January 1944, adding 1,500 workers in December and 2,500 more in January. If November and December data were placed on a comparable basis with those for January and subsequent months, propeller employment would be 57,400 and 57,100, respectively, and the corresponding figures for total employment would be 1,330,000 and 1,313,300. Revised figures are not being published for months prior to November or for November and December since the percent of difference would be insignificant in most months, and the revised series would differ from the official series used by the Army Air Forces and the Aircraft Resources Control Office.

Employment continued upward in prime contracting airframe plants during the first 11 months of 1943, though at a slower pace. The monthly average increase for the period was down to 19,000, reflecting the general tightening of the labor market and the completion of the program of staffing needed at the levels of efficiency that had been attained. In November 1943 peak employment of 936,000 was reached, or more than 15 times the 59,000 so employed at the beginning of 1940.

Since November the employment level has been receding steadily. The average monthly decrease for the 9-month period—November 1943 to August 1944—was close to 19,000 workers. By the end of August, airframe employment had dropped to 769,000, a decline of 167,000 or 18 percent from the peak. It is significant, however, that output has continued to increase despite the employment decline as a result of increasing productivity.[2]

The need for multiple-engine airplanes resulted in extremely high engine requirements. The automobile industry provided valuable

[2] See section on production trends, p. 929.

assistance on this problem and consequently is well represented in the engine phase of aeronautical production. Pratt & Whitney engines are being manufactured by Buick, Chevrolet, Ford, and Nash; Wright engines by Chrysler and Studebaker; and Rolls-Royce Merlin engines by Packard. By the time the engine industry reached peak employment, 50 percent of the workers employed in engine manufacture were under automobile management.

At the beginning of 1940 there were only about 16,000 at work in engine plants and nearly 90 percent were employed by two firms—Pratt & Whitney and the Wright Aeronautical Corporation. The engine branch of the industry more than doubled its employment during 1940 as a result of the impetus given by the European war, ending the year with almost 39,000 workers. By the end of 1941 employment was in the vicinity of 97,000, nearly 2½ times the number at the end of 1940. Engine plants were able to recruit and train employees in sufficient numbers to add an average of 9,000 per month in 1942, and an average of 11,000 per month in 1943. This continued expansion raised employment to 204,000 in December 1942 and to 333,000 in December 1943. The peak was not reached until February 1944 when 340,000 were at work in 19 facilities. Since then employment has declined each month, although horsepower produced has remained about the same. The number at work dropped to 317,000 by the end of August 1944—a decline from peak of 22,500 or 7 percent.

The rapid expansion experienced by the propeller branch of the industry paralleled that of engines. There were fewer than 3,000 workers engaged on propeller production in 1940, representing the total employment of the only two producers in the field, Hamilton Standard and Curtiss Propeller Division. These two doubled their employment by the end of the year. Three more facilities entered the industry in the following year, so that employment more than doubled, reaching 13,000 by December 1941. By the end of 1942 there were 9 propeller facilities in operation and employment had made an almost threefold expansion over 1941. The peak of 57,000 was attained toward the end of 1943.[3] However, by August 1944 the figure dropped to 53,000, or 6 percent, following closely the decrease in engine employment.

The effective use of the glider as a tactical weapon was disclosed in the German invasion of Crete in May 1941. In June 1942 there were about 2,000 persons at work in this phase of the aircraft program. Thereafter expansion was very rapid, as evidenced by the December 1942 employment figure of 12,000. The peak came toward the end of 1943 when 16,000 were employed, but the figure was again down to 12,000 by June 1944 and remained without change thereafter.

The modification centers came into existence in the middle of 1942 and by the end of the year employed 20,000 workers. This figure more than doubled during 1943, and during the first 6 months of 1944 employment rose to about 43,000. It remained fairly constant up to July but declined to 33,000 by the end of August.

[3] A change in propeller coverage occurred in December 1943 and January 1944, adding 1,500 workers in December and 2,500 more in January. If November and December data were placed on a comparable basis with those for January and subsequent months, propeller employment would be 57,400 and 57,100, respectively.

Roughly, 1 worker is employed by subcontractors and parts suppliers for every 2 workers engaged in plants of final assembly. Toward the end of 1943 and the beginning of 1944, subcontracting plants employed about 700,000 workers (table 1). It is reasonable to expect an employment decline in these facilities commensurate with that of final assembly plants, since they are so closely affiliated. Accordingly, employment among subcontractors is estimated to have been about 650,000 by mid-1944 and 625,000 in August.

TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Competition of other war industries and the armed services for manpower made it plain that production schedules could be met in the aircraft industry only by extensive employment of women workers. There was at first reluctance to hire women for jobs customarily filled by men, but by 1942 the industry had recognized the need for making the adjustments necessary for the mass hiring and utilization of this new and inexperienced labor force. The significant role eventually played by women in aircraft production may be measured by the fact that whereas these plants had practically no women workers before the war, toward the end of 1943 prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants employed almost 500,000—37 percent of the entire work force (table 3).

The airframe branch of the industry had numbers of jobs that could be broken down and thus performed, after only nominal training, by inexperienced women workers. At the beginning of 1942, the 18,700 women employed in prime contracting airframe plants constituted only 5.5 percent of total employment. Within that year alone, female employment showed a more than twelvefold increase, and finally in December comprised exactly one-third of the entire labor force. Although expansion did not continue at this rapid pace, some increase occurred in each succeeding month until in November 1943, when the peak female employment of 370,300 was attained, women represented practically two-fifths of the work force. Thereafter the number of women workers declined, along with the drop in total employment, but their proportion of the total remained about the same. It is beyond the scope of this report to examine the volume of female employment in individual airframe plants. It is, nevertheless, interesting to note that at peak employment, three major plants had more women than men on their pay rolls.

The total number of employees required by engine plants was a great deal smaller than that needed by airframes. This branch of the industry, therefore, delayed large-scale hiring of women. Early in 1942 there was a female work force of nearly 4 percent of the total employment, which expanded to 17 percent by the end of the year as compared with the 33 percent for airframes. Nevertheless, this represented more than a sevenfold increase, from 3,900 in January to 34,100 by December. The engine plants apparently felt their manpower squeeze in 1943, for by November, when peak female employment was attained, they had 103,100 women workers who made up 31 percent of the labor force. There has been some decrease since then, especially between July and August 1944, but the number has remained at about 100,000 and the proportion at about 30 percent.

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TABLE 3.—*Total Female Employment in Prime Contracting Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, January 1942–August 1944* [1]

Year and month	Number of women in—				Percent of total employment			
	All plants	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants	All plants	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants
1942								
January	23,137	18,656	3,920	561	5.0	5.5	3.8	3.8
February	30,218	24,226	5,352	640	6.0	6.6	4.6	3.9
March	38,455	30,448	7,040	967	7.1	7.8	5.4	5.3
April	48,009	38,442	8,225	1,342	8.4	9.3	5.9	6.5
May	60,350	48,218	10,348	1,784	9.9	11.0	7.0	7.6
June	77,135	63,307	11,686	2,142	11.8	13.4	7.4	8.5
July	95,482	79,346	13,565	2,571	13.7	15.7	8.3	9.5
August	119,967	100,966	15,913	3,088	15.9	18.2	9.3	10.5
September	153,301	131,351	18,480	3,470	19.2	22.3	10.5	11.2
October	196,665	168,993	23,517	4,155	23.1	26.6	12.7	12.8
November	237,002	202,542	29,394	5,066	26.0	29.8	15.0	14.7
December	280,497	240,595	34,090	5,812	28.9	33.0	16.7	16.1
1943								
January	321,788	274,248	41,247	6,293	31.3	35.6	18.8	16.4
February	351,752	295,743	47,889	8,120	32.8	37.0	20.5	20.1
March	370,635	309,129	52,779	8,727	33.5	37.7	21.6	20.5
April	387,092	319,329	58,110	9,653	33.9	38.0	22.7	21.9
May	402,385	328,740	62,873	10,772	34.5	38.4	23.8	23.1
June	421,548	340,288	69,730	11,530	35.0	38.6	25.4	23.7
July	435,468	347,494	75,970	12,004	35.2	38.6	26.8	24.1
August	449,938	353,656	83,694	12,588	35.7	39.0	28.1	24.2
September	468,169	363,952	91,353	12,864	36.2	39.3	29.4	23.5
October	479,923	367,701	99,199	13,023	36.5	39.5	30.4	23.8
November	[2] 486,073	370,262	103,112	[2] 12,699	36.7	39.5	30.7	23.6
December	[2] 472,519	358,823	100,657	[2] 13,039	36.0	38.9	30.2	23.9
1944								
January	[2] 466,292	351,509	100,743	[2] 14,040	35.7	38.5	29.8	24.6
February	461,074	346,028	100,732	14,314	35.6	38.5	29.6	25.1
March	454,412	339,296	100,450	14,666	35.8	38.8	29.9	25.9
April	448,066	333,316	99,704	15,046	35.9	38.9	29.8	26.7
May	445,725	331,295	99,434	14,996	36.3	39.4	29.9	27.2
June	439,503	324,262	99,929	15,312	36.7	40.0	30.1	28.0
July	435,608	319,055	101,217	15,336	36.9	40.0	30.7	28.3
August	419,216	307,699	96,417	15,100	36.8	40.0	30.4	28.3

[1] All data are as of end of month. Data are not available prior to 1942.

[2] A change in propeller coverage occurred in December 1943 and January 1944, adding 450 women workers in December and 450 more in January. If November and December data were placed on a comparable basis with those for January and subsequent months, employment of women in propeller plants would be 13,600 and 13,500, respectively, and the corresponding figures for total female employment would be 486,900 and 473,000. Revised figures are not being published for months prior to November or for November and December, since the percent of difference would be insignificant in most months, and the revised series would differ from the official series used by the Army Air Forces and the Aircraft Resources Control Office.

Total labor requirements in propeller plants were considerably lower even than for engine plants, and many jobs were not adaptable to women workers. In January 1942 there were fewer than 600 women propeller workers—nearly 4 percent of total employment. By the end of the year 5,800 women were at work. As these represented 16 percent of the total, this branch of the industry kept pace with the engine branch which ended 1942 with a woman work force of 17 percent. Addition of female workers in propeller plants continued steadily throughout 1943. By the end of that year the approximately 13,000 employed were nearly a fourth of the labor force. Female employment in propeller plants did not reach peak until July 1944, when 15,300 workers, or 28 percent of total employment, were women. This was not quite the proportion (31 percent) attained in engine plants.

Employment Distribution

LABOR-MARKET AREAS

An indication of the recruitment task which confronted aircraft management and assisting governmental agencies may be gauged by an examination of the industry's employment, as shown by War Manpower Commission labor-market-area classifications.[4] During each month of 1943 and of 1944 through August, more than half of the total workers in prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants were in Group I areas, i. e., areas of existing labor shortage (table 4). If plants in areas of labor stringency are included (Group II), about 85 percent of total employment is accounted for during 1943 and approximately 80 percent through August 1944. Airframe plants throughout the period had far more employment in Group I areas than did engine and propeller plants. Propeller plants had least employment in areas of labor shortage. The proportion of both airframe and propeller Group I employment decreased during the period January 1943–August 1944, while engine employment tended to increase. The recruitment problem should, of course, be considered on a case basis, for conditions vary from locality to locality and in many instances the plants themselves, because of their size, created the labor-market conditions that existed. Nevertheless, the critical manpower situation in general is readily apparent from consideration of these data.

The location of airframe plants was such as to place 70 percent of employment in areas of existing labor shortage (Group I) in January 1943. In February, the airframe proportion dropped to 66 percent, and labor-market conditions continued to keep about two-thirds of total employment in Group I until peak employment was reached in November 1943. By December, 60 percent was in Group I, but in March 1944 the ratio declined to 55 percent where it remained through June. Though the proportion in Group I advanced to 58 percent in July and August, evidence of improved labor-market conditions was apparent. Employment in Groups III and IV approximated 14 percent throughout 1943, as compared with 23 percent for the period April through August 1944.

Engine plants have never had as much Group I employment as airframe plants, but the volume in this classification increased rather than decreased as time went on. Roughly, a third of engine employment was in Group I areas from January through August 1943. For the remainder of the year, the proportion approximated 45 percent. Except for January, 47 percent of employment was in areas of labor shortage during the first 7 months of 1944. In August the proportion dropped to 40 percent. About 50 percent of the employment was in areas of labor stringency (Group II) at the beginning of 1943, but the ratio declined to nearly half of this by July 1944, rising in the following month, however, to 40 percent. Whereas, during most of 1943, approximately 15 percent of total engine employment was in areas experiencing neither shortage nor stringency, this rose to almost 25 percent during 1944.

[4] Group I—areas of current labor shortage; Group II—areas of labor stringency and those anticipating a labor shortage within 6 months; Group III—areas in which slight labor reserves will remain after 6 months; and Group IV—areas in which substantial labor reserves will remain after 6 months. Throughout this discussion the labor-market classifications are current as issued monthly by the War Manpower Commission. For example, an increase in percentage of employment in Group I areas may be caused either by an increase in the number of areas classified as Group I or by an increase in actual employment.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Distribution of Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Employment by WMC Labor-Area Classification, January 1943–August 1944* [1]

Type of plants and WMC labor-area classification [2]	1943									
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October
All plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	61.3	57.6	56.4	58.6	57.7	57.1	56.9	56.0	61.0	58.0
Group II	22.7	29.0	30.3	26.4	27.0	27.6	28.1	29.0	24.5	26.2
Group III	10.3	7.8	7.8	8.5	8.9	9.0	9.3	9.3	8.9	10.3
Group IV	5.7	5.6	5.5	6.5	6.4	6.3	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.5
Airframe plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	70.4	65.7	64.6	68.1	66.7	66.2	67.0	65.8	68.6	64.7
Group II	15.8	21.8	23.0	17.9	19.0	19.6	19.1	20.3	18.2	20.0
Group III	6.6	5.4	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.1	6.6	6.4	6.0	8.2
Group IV	7.2	7.1	7.0	8.3	8.3	8.1	7.3	7.5	7.2	7.1
Engine plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	35.2	35.0	34.2	32.7	33.5	33.1	32.8	34.1	45.4	45.1
Group II	42.9	51.0	51.8	51.3	50.2	50.9	51.5	50.6	39.5	39.9
Group III	20.2	12.6	12.5	14.6	14.9	14.6	14.4	14.1	12.9	12.8
Group IV	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	2.2	2.2
Propeller plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	27.5	26.4	27.5	26.6	26.0	26.3	11.4	10.7	20.8	20.0
Group II	44.9	45.7	45.8	46.0	44.5	43.1	57.3	55.5	45.0	47.7
Group III	27.6	27.9	26.1	26.7	28.5	29.2	29.8	32.2	34.2	32.3
Group IV	-------	-------	.6	.7	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.6	-------	-------

Type of plants and WMC labor-area classification [2]	1943—Con.		1944							
	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August
All plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	58.0	54.5	51.6	55.6	51.3	51.0	50.4	50.7	53.2	50.7
Group II	26.4	29.9	31.2	25.8	28.9	25.9	26.8	26.6	22.2	26.9
Group III	10.4	10.3	10.9	12.0	13.5	17.3	16.9	17.1	19.2	11.3
Group IV	5.2	5.3	6.3	6.6	6.3	5.8	5.9	5.6	5.4	11.1
Airframe plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	65.0	60.3	60.2	61.6	55.4	55.1	54.2	54.8	57.6	57.6
Group II	20.2	25.0	25.3	22.1	26.4	22.1	22.8	22.5	16.9	18.1
Group III	7.9	7.6	5.9	7.7	9.8	14.7	14.8	15.2	18.1	11.4
Group IV	6.9	7.1	8.6	8.6	8.4	8.1	8.2	7.5	7.4	12.9
Engine plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	44.7	44.4	35.4	47.4	47.4	47.6	47.5	47.5	47.9	40.4
Group II	40.4	40.0	41.7	29.3	29.5	29.0	28.2	27.7	27.0	39.5
Group III	13.8	14.4	21.7	20.9	21.2	22.4	23.3	23.4	23.6	11.6
Group IV	1.1	1.2	1.2	2.4	1.9	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.5	8.5
Propeller plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Group I	20.3	19.7	9.5	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.4	9.2	20.5	11.6
Group II	47.6	50.0	64.5	64.3	64.4	65.0	78.5	81.2	70.2	79.2
Group III	32.1	30.3	26.0	26.1	26.0	25.4	10.8	8.3	8.0	7.9
Group IV	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3

[1] All data are as of end of month.

[2] Group I—Areas of current labor shortage; Group II—Areas of labor stringency and those anticipating a labor shortage within 6 months; Group III—Areas in which slight labor reserves will remain after 6 months; and Group IV—Areas in which substantial labor reserves will remain after 6 months.

The propeller branch had about half of its employment in Group II areas during 1943. However, beginning with January and continuing through the first 8 months of 1944, Group II employment increased from 65 to 80 percent. Sharp variations in employment in labor-market area classes indicate the preponderance of a few large plants in the reporting sample causing major shifts which were of less significance than might at first appear.

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

During World War I the sea was considered an adequate barrier against the enemy, completely excluding the necessity of considering, in the location of industrial facilities, the possibility of attack. The product of the industry with which this report is concerned changed all that. Because of the potentialities of the present-day airplane as an offensive weapon, it could no longer be taken for granted that the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans made this continent impregnable. Consequently, the coastal location of the airframe, engine, and propeller plants at the outset of the war was a source of uneasiness. Plans for new plants called for location within the interior of the country. Existing facilities, however, were expanded, despite their questionable location, because of the urgent need for airplanes. The extent of the geographic dispersion of the industry is apparent from the fact that at the time of the United States' entrance into the war, airframe, engine, and propeller plants were situated in 16 States as compared with 25 States by the end of 1943. The shift in geographic distribution can be visualized in more detail from consideration of changes in the proportion of employment in the six Army Air Forces Procurement Districts [5] as the industry grew (table 5).

In 1940, approximately 60 percent of airframe employment was in the Western District and 35 percent in the Eastern District. Thus, 95 percent of the industry was in a vulnerable location. One year later, almost 90 percent of the airframe workers were still on both coasts. It was not until 1943 that the results of inward migration became apparent. By the end of that year, although 28 percent of employment was in the Eastern District, the proportion in the Western District had fallen to 33 percent. Thus, within a 3-year period the 95 percent coastal employment was reduced to 61 percent, but especially important (in view of the threat from Japanese ship-based air power) was the fact that the proportion on the West Coast decreased from 60 to 33 percent. Despite the inland shift, southern California continued to be the most important airframe region. At the beginning of 1940, the State of California had 32,000 airframe workers or more than half of total airframe employment. By the time Pearl Harbor was attacked, this figure exceeded 150,000 and was 48 percent of the total. Peak was reached in July 1943 with 280,000 at work, but the proportion of the total had fallen to 31 percent. New York was the only other State that approached California in airframe employment; the highest level attained in New York was slightly more than 135,000 in September 1943. The move inland is readily apparent from the employment peak in 1943 of 41,000 for Oklahoma and 69,000 each for Kansas and Texas.

Engine employment was found in 7 States in 1940, Connecticut and New Jersey being the principal areas of production. Consequently, the Eastern District had from 80 to 90 percent of all engine employment throughout the year. As a result of the entrance of the automobile industry into this phase of aircraft manufacture, the

[5] States included in Army Air Forces Procurement Districts are as follows: *Eastern.*—Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont. *Southeastern.*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. *Central.*—Michigan and Ohio. *Mid-Central.*—Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. *Mid-Western.*—Arkansas, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas, and Wyoming. *Western.*—Arizona, California, Idaho, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, and Washington.

Central District (covering Ohio and Michigan), which had accounted for only 2 to 5 percent of engine employment in 1940, contained 39 percent of the workers by the end of 1943. The proportion in the Eastern District had declined to a third. Michigan led all other States in engine employment by November 1943, with 97,600; this figure was more than double that for either Connecticut or New Jersey, the former leaders in the field. The West Coast, though first in airframe production, had but one small engine plant whose prime contracts were completed by mid-1943.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Employment, by Army Air Forces Procurement Districts, June 1940–June 1944* [1]

Army Air Forces Procurement District	1940		1941		1942		1943		1944
	June	December	June	December	June	December	June	December	June
All plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Eastern	48.1	46.5	42.7	36.2	35.0	33.7	31.3	30.3	28.9
Southeastern	.5	.5	.9	.8	.7	.9	1.5	2.3	2.9
Central	.3	1.1	4.7	9.9	15.8	17.6	19.4	19.3	19.7
Mid-Central	2.9	3.8	3.4	4.1	5.2	5.5	7.0	8.7	9.5
Mid-Western	2.3	4.0	5.6	6.9	10.0	12.6	14.6	16.2	17.5
Western	45.9	44.1	42.7	42.1	33.3	29.7	26.2	23.2	21.5
Airframe plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Eastern	35.0	35.1	33.2	30.2	30.7	30.5	28.3	28.1	27.1
Southeastern	.7	.7	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.2	2.0	3.2	4.1
Central			.8	2.7	8.3	11.6	12.6	11.1	11.4
Mid-Central					.1	.6	2.0	2.6	2.7
Mid-Western	3.1	5.4	7.5	9.3	13.8	16.7	19.4	22.0	23.1
Western	61.2	58.8	57.3	56.7	46.1	39.4	35.7	33.0	31.6
Engine plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Eastern	84.8	77.4	66.6	49.9	44.0	41.7	37.6	33.0	30.4
Southeastern									.6
Central	1.5	5.0	17.6	33.1	36.5	36.0	38.0	38.6	36.5
Mid-Central	13.3	17.2	15.5	16.7	19.3	22.2	22.5	25.6	25.9
Mid-Western							1.7	2.8	6.6
Western	.4	.4	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2		
Propeller plants	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Eastern	100.0	100.0	92.3	79.1	61.8	52.9	51.3	49.7	48.0
Southeastern									
Central			7.7	12.4	27.5	37.0	37.6	40.6	41.8
Mid-Central				8.5	10.7	10.1	11.1	9.7	10.2
Mid-Western									
Western									

[1] All data are as of end of month.

In 1940 all propeller employees were in the Eastern District, in the States of Connecticut and New Jersey. As in the case of engines, the assistance of outside industry had the effect of moving part of the production inland. In December 1943, 50 percent of the employment was in the Eastern and 40 percent in the Central District. In June 1944, Ohio had more propeller employment than any other State, with almost 14,000 employees; and Michigan and New Jersey were next, with 9,000 each; Connecticut had approximately 8,000 workers. States on the West Coast had no propeller production.

Labor Turnover

The magnitude of the task confronting persons concerned with the manning of aircraft plants becomes clearer when consideration is given to turnover in the industry. Before additional workers could

be added to the labor force to provide for increased schedules, those who quit or were drafted had first to be replaced. The recruitment problem became more and more difficult as time passed because of increasing competition for a rapidly depleting supply of labor. Thus, in 1941, airframe, engine, and propeller plants had to hire 1,500 workers to increase employment by 1,000, but in the following year to obtain the same increase it was necessary to hire 2,100 workers. The situation was most critical in 1943, though this ratio was no longer meaningful, as the rate of expansion slowed down. The main cause of this situation was separations, 60 to 70 percent of which were voluntary. In 1941, the average monthly rate for all separations was 3.3 per 100 workers. It rose to 5.3 in 1942 and to 5.7 in 1943 (table 6). To meet this situation the War Manpower Commission introduced certificates of availability and a controlled-referral program to help keep the production lines manned. It should be noted, however, that separation rates in airframe, engine, and propeller plants have consistently been lower than the average for manufacturing as a whole. The separation rate averaged 6.3 percent in the first 8 months of 1944, but the increase over 1943 was due to an increase in discharges and lay-offs and not to an increase in the quit rate.

It was more difficult to recruit and maintain the airframe branch of the industry than the engine and propeller branches, not only because more workers were required, but because airframe employees showed a much higher incidence of quits than engine and propeller workers. For the whole year 1941, approximately 30 airframe employees of every 100 on the pay roll quit, as against only 17 in engine and propeller plants. These voluntary withdrawals remained at about the same level in engine and propeller plants in 1942 but increased to approximately 45 quits per 100 employees in airframe plants. All 3 branches recorded increases in 1943, but again the quits rose most in airframe plants, advancing to 55 per 100 employees. There were 37 quits for every 100 employed in propeller plants in 1943 and only 30 in engine plants. The 1944 picture through August remains substantially the same, the poorest showing being made by airframe and the best by engine plants. For a variety of reasons the quit rate among female workers was roughly double that of males in 1943 and somewhat less than double in 1944 (table 7). The female quit rates have been highest in airframe plants. With women accounting for 40 percent of airframe employment and about 30 percent of engine and propeller employment, the effect on separation rates is obvious.

The greater instability among airframe workers is understandable. The difficulty is a basic one inherent in the mushrooming of an industry. The necessity for hiring thousands of workers in a short space of time resulted in the acquisition of many inadaptable to factory employment. Turnover is always greater among those newly hired than among those with longer work experience in an establishment. Reference has already been made to the larger proportion of women in this branch of the industry and the effect of their higher quit rates. Serious housing, transportation, and shopping problems have arisen in centers of large airframe production, and these too have contributed to the higher separations in this branch of the industry. This has affected women especially, many of whom, with home responsibilities as well, found continuous work 6 days a week impossible. Though there is no record of the number of individuals quitting the industry

as opposed to those moving from one establishment to another, it is significant that many of the quits have been temporary as indicated by the numbers rehired. Fortunately, airframe management and labor have recognized the problems involved and have done much to meet them in order to keep production lines fully manned.

TABLE 6.—*Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants,[1] January 1941–August 1944*

[1944 figures revised]

Year and month	Total airframe, engine, and propeller plants					Airframe plants				
	Total accessions	Separations				Total accessions	Separations			
		Total	Quits	Military	All other [2]		Total	Quits	Military	All other [2]
1941 [3]										
Annual rate [4]	114.7	39.0	27.0	3.7	8.3	124.1	43.0	30.2	3.6	9.2
January	12.0	3.3	2.2	.4	.7	12.0	3.5	2.4	.4	.7
February	7.8	3.2	2.0	.5	.7	7.8	3.5	2.3	.4	.8
March	8.1	3.9	2.5	.4	1.0	9.0	4.1	2.4	.4	1.3
April	9.5	3.4	2.5	.3	.6	10.3	3.7	2.8	.3	.6
May	9.9	3.5	2.5	.3	.7	10.5	4.0	2.8	.3	.9
June	10.2	2.8	2.0	.2	.6	10.9	3.0	2.3	.2	.5
July	11.3	3.0	2.1	.2	.7	12.5	3.3	2.4	.1	.8
August	10.1	3.2	2.4	.1	.7	11.4	3.6	2.8	.1	.7
September	9.5	3.3	2.7	.1	.5	10.5	3.6	3.0	.1	.5
October	9.6	3.5	2.4	.2	.9	10.6	3.9	2.7	.2	1.0
November	7.4	2.6	1.8	.2	.6	8.2	3.0	2.1	.2	.7
December	9.3	3.3	1.9	.8	.6	10.4	3.8	2.2	.9	.7
1942 [3]										
Annual rate [4]	123.9	63.9	38.5	17.2	8.2	134.6	72.0	45.2	18.0	8.8
January	11.3	3.7	2.0	.9	.8	11.2	4.1	2.4	1.0	.7
February	8.2	3.5	2.2	.7	.6	8.0	3.9	2.6	.8	.5
March	8.7	4.6	3.0	.8	.8	8.7	5.4	3.6	.9	.9
April	9.5	5.3	3.8	.9	.6	10.0	6.1	4.4	.9	.8
May	8.9	4.8	3.4	.8	.6	9.9	5.6	4.0	.9	.7
June	10.3	4.3	2.9	.9	.5	12.0	4.9	3.5	.9	.5
July	10.6	5.1	3.1	1.3	.7	12.5	5.7	3.7	1.4	.6
August	10.9	6.1	3.6	1.8	.7	13.0	7.1	4.3	1.9	.9
September	12.0	7.2	4.1	2.4	.7	13.6	8.1	4.8	2.5	.8
October	12.3	7.4	3.9	2.8	.7	13.3	8.0	4.4	2.8	.8
November	11.6	6.3	3.4	2.2	.7	12.4	6.9	3.9	2.2	.8
December	9.6	5.6	3.1	1.7	.8	10.0	6.2	3.6	1.8	.8
1943 [5]										
Annual rate [4]	91.4	68.6	49.9	11.1	7.6	92.5	73.7	55.0	10.9	7.8
January	10.2	5.6	3.3	1.8	.5	10.5	6.1	3.7	1.8	.6
February	8.9	5.5	3.3	1.7	.5	9.1	5.9	3.7	1.7	.5
March	8.9	6.3	4.3	1.4	.6	8.9	6.7	4.8	1.4	.5
April	7.5	5.6	4.2	.9	.5	7.4	6.0	4.6	.8	.6
May	7.0	5.1	3.9	.6	.6	7.1	5.5	4.3	.6	.6
June	8.1	5.5	4.1	.7	.7	8.5	5.9	4.6	.7	.6
July	8.1	6.2	4.8	.8	.6	8.3	6.6	5.2	.7	.7
August	7.2	6.4	5.1	.8	.5	7.3	6.9	5.6	.8	.5
September	7.9	6.3	5.0	.7	.6	8.1	6.9	5.5	.7	.7
October	7.3	5.8	4.5	.7	.6	7.5	6.2	4.9	.7	.6
November	6.1	5.4	3.9	.5	1.0	6.0	5.7	4.2	.5	1.0
December	4.2	4.9	3.5	.5	.9	3.8	5.3	3.9	.5	.9
1944 [5]										
January	5.4	5.7	4.0	.6	1.1	5.0	6.1	4.3	.6	1.2
February	4.4	5.1	3.6	.5	1.0	4.0	5.5	4.0	.5	1.0
March	4.1	6.4	4.2	.8	1.4	3.8	6.9	4.6	.9	1.4
April	4.1	5.8	4.1	.9	.8	3.7	6.1	4.3	1.0	.8
May	4.8	7.2	4.4	1.1	.8	4.5	6.7	4.7	1.2	.8
June	5.5	6.3	4.9	.8	1.5	5.6	8.0	5.4	1.0	1.6
July	5.0	6.3	4.6	.6	1.1	5.0	6.4	4.9	.7	.8
August	4.2	7.9	5.7	.4	1.8	4.5	8.7	6.2	.5	2.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, January 1941–August 1944*—Continued

Year and month	Engine plants					Propeller plants				
	Total accessions	Separations				Total accessions	Separations			
		Total	Quits	Military	All other [2]		Total	Quits	Military	All other [2]
1941 [3]										
Annual rate [4]	90.0	27.3	17.2	3.2	6.9	71.0	24.4	17.2	2.6	4.6
January	12.0	1.9	1.0	.4	.5	7.2	1.1	.9	.1	.1
February	8.1	2.3	1.2	.5	.6	5.9	2.8	1.2	1.2	.4
March	6.1	3.5	2.9	.2	.4	6.7	2.8	1.5	.3	1.0
April	7.6	2.5	1.6	.4	.5	6.3	2.3	1.7	.1	.5
May	8.6	2.3	1.6	.2	.5	5.8	1.9	1.3	.3	.3
June	8.5	2.3	1.3	.3	.7	6.3	2.6	2.1	.1	.4
July	8.3	2.3	1.2	.2	.9	6.1	2.6	1.7	.1	.8
August	6.7	2.1	1.2	.1	.8	4.0	1.7	1.4	.1	.2
September	7.1	2.5	1.8	.1	.6	3.9	2.5	2.2	(6)	.3
October	6.7	2.4	1.6	.2	.6	6.1	1.7	1.5	.1	.1
November	4.9	1.4	.9	.1	.4	5.1	1.2	.9	(6)	.3
December	5.4	1.8	.9	.5	.4	7.6	1.2	.8	.2	.2
1942 [3]										
Annual rate [4]	93.1	40.8	19.1	15.1	6.6	90.2	35.9	17.6	13.6	4.7
January	11.7	2.4	1.1	.7	.6	11.3	2.5	1.3	.9	.3
February	8.2	2.3	1.3	.5	.5	11.9	1.9	1.3	.4	.2
March	8.5	2.7	1.6	.5	.6	11.2	2.5	1.6	.5	.4
April	7.8	3.4	1.9	.8	.7	9.9	2.5	1.4	.8	.3
May	6.3	2.9	1.7	.7	.5	7.8	2.7	1.7	.6	.4
June	6.2	2.9	1.6	.8	.5	5.2	2.4	1.2	.9	.3
July	5.7	3.4	1.6	1.2	.6	5.4	2.6	1.2	1.0	.4
August	4.8	3.3	1.4	1.4	.5	4.8	3.6	1.6	1.2	.8
September	7.4	4.6	1.9	2.1	.6	4.7	4.0	1.7	1.9	.4
October	8.9	5.0	1.9	2.6	.5	5.6	4.8	2.1	2.3	.4
November	9.3	4.4	1.7	2.2	.5	6.0	3.8	1.5	1.9	.4
December	8.3	3.5	1.4	1.6	.5	6.4	2.6	1.0	1.2	.4
1943 [5]										
Annual rate [4]	87.1	48.5	29.7	11.3	7.5	82.5	55.7	36.9	10.8	8.0
January	9.3	3.8	1.6	1.7	.5	7.4	3.8	1.8	1.5	.5
February	7.8	3.6	1.3	1.8	.5	7.8	3.8	1.8	1.6	.4
March	8.6	4.5	2.3	1.5	.7	8.0	3.5	1.9	1.2	.4
April	8.0	4.0	2.5	1.0	.5	6.3	3.5	2.0	1.1	.4
May	6.5	3.6	2.3	.8	.5	7.9	3.8	2.5	.9	.4
June	6.6	4.0	2.6	.7	.7	7.0	4.0	2.7	.8	.5
July	7.0	4.6	3.1	.8	.7	8.1	5.5	4.0	.7	.8
August	6.8	4.6	3.3	.7	.6	7.0	5.4	4.1	.7	.6
September	7.3	4.4	3.1	.7	.6	7.8	4.9	3.9	.6	.4
October	6.8	4.1	2.8	.6	.7	6.2	6.2	4.5	.7	1.0
November	6.6	3.8	2.6	.5	.7	4.8	6.1	3.8	.6	1.7
December	5.8	3.5	2.2	.5	.8	4.2	5.2	3.9	.4	.9
1944 [5]										
January	7.0	4.3	3.0	.6	.7	4.7	4.8	3.4	.8	.6
February	5.6	4.0	2.6	.5	.9	4.4	4.3	3.0	.7	.6
March	5.0	5.0	2.8	.7	1.5	4.0	4.7	3.4	.8	.5
April	5.3	4.9	3.1	.7	1.1	5.1	6.1	4.6	.9	.6
May	5.6	4.9	3.3	.6	1.0	4.6	7.3	4.9	.7	1.7
June	5.2	5.1	3.2	.4	1.5	5.7	5.7	4.7	.4	.6
July	4.8	5.7	3.8	.3	1.6	6.3	6.4	5.3	.3	.8
August	3.2	5.9	4.1	.2	1.6	4.6	6.5	5.5	.3	.7

[1] Turnover data are not strictly comparable with employment data, since they have been obtained from different sources and coverage is not identical.
[2] Includes discharges, lay-offs, and miscellaneous separations.
[3] Based on wage earners only.
[4] Annual rates are the sums of the monthly rates per 100 employees.
[5] Based on total employment.
[6] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 7.—*Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, by Sex, January 1943–August 1944*[1]

[1944 figures revised]

Year and month	Total accessions							
	All plants		Airframe plants		Engine plants		Propeller plants	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1943								
January	7.5	17.1	7.8	17.0	6.9	18.9	4.4	16.7
February	6.7	13.3	6.9	13.2	6.1	14.0	5.8	13.8
March	7.0	12.2	7.2	11.9	6.1	14.2	6.5	12.9
April	6.3	10.3	6.5	9.8	5.9	13.1	5.1	9.5
May	5.5	9.5	5.7	9.3	4.7	10.2	6.1	12.8
June	6.4	11.1	6.9	11.2	4.6	10.0	6.3	13.6
July	6.5	10.5	7.0	10.4	4.4	11.0	7.4	10.3
August	5.8	9.3	6.1	9.3	4.5	9.5	6.6	8.1
September	6.6	10.0	7.0	9.9	5.0	10.9	7.2	9.6
October	6.0	9.2	6.4	9.2	4.5	9.5	5.6	8.0
November	4.9	7.3	5.1	7.4	4.3	7.1	4.6	5.5
December	3.6	4.5	3.5	4.1	3.9	6.7	3.9	5.0
1944								
January	4.5	6.1	4.5	5.8	4.8	7.8	3.4	8.5
February	3.5	5.5	3.3	5.2	4.1	7.2	3.8	5.9
March	3.1	5.7	3.0	5.1	3.4	8.0	3.1	6.4
April	3.2	5.4	2.9	4.9	3.8	7.0	4.0	8.1
May	3.5	6.6	3.6	6.1	3.4	8.8	3.6	7.2
June	4.2	7.7	4.4	7.4	3.7	8.6	4.4	9.0
July	3.8	7.0	3.8	6.7	3.5	7.7	5.3	8.6
August	3.3	5.7	3.5	6.1	2.8	3.9	4.2	5.5

Year and month	Total separations[2]							
	All plants		Airframe plants		Engine plants		Propeller plants	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1943								
January	5.6	5.7	6.0	6.0	4.0	3.6	3.8	3.0
February	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.9	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.5
March	6.0	6.8	6.4	7.2	4.3	4.7	3.6	4.0
April	4.9	6.8	4.9	6.8	3.6	5.3	3.5	3.7
May	4.4	6.5	4.6	6.9	3.5	4.1	3.5	4.5
June	4.6	7.1	4.8	7.5	3.7	4.7	3.5	5.3
July	5.2	7.8	5.5	8.2	4.3	5.5	5.3	6.3
August	5.5	8.1	5.9	8.5	3.9	6.0	5.1	6.4
September	5.5	7.8	6.1	8.1	3.6	6.3	4.5	6.1
October	4.9	7.4	5.3	7.7	3.2	6.0	6.2	6.3
November	4.3	7.2	4.6	7.5	3.0	5.5	5.6	7.3
December	4.0	6.6	4.2	7.0	2.6	4.7	5.4	4.4
1944								
January	4.7	7.3	5.1	7.8	3.5	5.3	4.8	4.8
February	4.3	6.4	4.7	6.7	3.2	4.9	4.4	4.2
March	5.7	7.5	6.2	8.0	4.3	5.9	4.9	4.2
April	5.3	6.8	5.6	7.1	4.2	5.7	6.1	6.0
May	5.8	7.2	6.2	7.5	4.0	5.7	6.8	8.3
June	6.3	8.7	7.1	9.4	4.4	6.8	5.4	6.3
July	5.2	7.9	5.4	7.9	4.6	8.1	6.3	6.8
August	6.8	9.8	7.6	10.3	4.8	8.2	6.3	6.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 7.—*Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, by Sex, January 1943–August 1944* [1]—Continued

[1944 figures revised]

Year and month	Quits							
	All plants		Airframe plants		Engine plants		Propeller plants	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1943								
January	2.5	5.0	2.8	5.3	1.3	2.9	1.4	2.6
February	2.5	4.9	2.8	5.2	1.4	2.9	1.4	2.8
March	3.4	5.9	3.8	6.3	1.9	3.4	1.7	3.3
April	3.2	6.1	3.6	6.4	2.0	4.1	1.5	3.2
May	2.9	5.7	3.2	6.0	1.9	3.3	2.0	3.8
June	2.9	6.2	3.2	6.6	2.0	3.9	2.0	4.4
July	3.6	6.9	3.9	7.4	2.6	4.4	3.9	4.4
August	3.8	7.3	4.2	7.8	2.4	5.2	3.6	5.6
September	3.8	7.1	4.3	7.4	2.1	5.7	3.4	5.4
October	3.2	6.6	3.5	7.0	1.7	5.1	4.5	4.6
November	2.8	5.7	3.1	5.9	1.7	4.5	3.7	4.0
December	2.5	5.4	2.7	5.7	1.4	4.0	4.0	3.4
1944								
January	3.0	5.8	3.2	6.2	2.3	4.5	3.2	4.1
February	2.8	5.2	3.0	5.5	1.9	3.8	2.9	3.3
March	3.3	5.8	3.6	6.3	2.1	4.0	3.3	3.5
April	3.1	5.7	3.2	6.1	2.4	4.2	4.3	5.3
May	3.3	6.0	3.5	6.5	2.3	4.1	4.4	6.1
June	3.8	6.7	4.2	7.3	2.5	4.7	4.4	5.4
July	3.5	6.6	3.6	6.7	2.7	6.2	5.1	5.9
August	4.5	7.7	4.9	8.2	3.2	6.2	5.4	5.9

[1] Data not available prior to January 1943.
[2] Includes quits, military separations, discharges, lay-offs, and miscellaneous separations.

Military separation rates were about the same for the 3 branches of the industry (table 6). Withdrawals for the armed forces were very small during 1941, amounting to less than 4 per 100 employees. With the United States' entrance into the war, inductions increased, resulting in 17 of every 100 employees being taken into the services during 1942. While the average monthly rate for 1941 was 0.3 per 100 workers, it increased to approximately 1.5 for 1942, with the peak of 2.8 coming in October. Manning and replacement schedules did much to slow down the rate of induction during the beginning of 1943. However, the demand for workers was so great and the supply of available manpower so limited that West Coast airframe manufacturers made it clear that their plants could offer airplanes or men for the services but not both. There was agitation for draft deferment for West Coast airframe workers in October 1943, and a stay of induction was finally ordered early in November for this area. The military separation rate consequently declined to 0.5 per 100 by November 1943. Nevertheless, about 11 out of every 100 airframe, engine, and propeller workers entered the armed forces during 1943. Cancellation of occupational deferments held by men under 26 years of age increased the military separation rate during the first half of 1944, but the industry's increased productivity was

relied upon to offset the manpower taken by the armed forces. Since then the rate has been declining in line with the retarded rate of induction.

Discharges and lay-offs were of little significance until 1944. With workers so hard to get, discharges were largely confined to cases of serious infraction of company regulations. This was particularly true through 1943. Later, plants began to weed out unsatisfactory personnel. Lay-offs, except in a few isolated cases, were unheard of prior to 1944 but have been increasing. Contract terminations and cutbacks, inevitable after the defeat of Germany, will cause the discharge and lay-off rates to become more important in the near future.

Absenteeism of Workers

Absenteeism became of major concern during the present emergency because lost time could not be afforded in the production of vitally needed war goods. The aircraft industry, particularly the airframe branch, realized that a reduction in absenteeism was possible only by a determination of the causes and the adoption of remedial action designed to keep worker morale high both on and off the job. The measures taken, especially with reference to the provision of community facilities, were never adequate to counteract the strains imposed upon living and working conditions by the exigencies of the war. Efforts were made to provide more adequate wash- and lunchroom facilities. Absence-control measures were undertaken, to give assistance where needed or to institute disciplinary action where necessary. In addition, health and recreation facilities were established and personal services provided, such as assistance in finding housing and making car-pooling arrangements. Day nurseries were established so that women workers could be on the job regularly. Provisions were also made for additional housing, better transportation facilities, and more convenient shopping hours.

Despite the vigorous action generally adopted by airframe plants, absence rates were slightly higher in this branch of the industry than in engine and propeller plants in 1943. Rates in 1943 were generally about 7 to 8 percent in airframe plants and 6 to 7 percent in engine and propeller plants (table 8). During the influenza epidemic in December 1943, the absence rate slightly exceeded 10 percent for airframes and approximated 9 percent for engines and propellers. With the turn of the year, the rates returned to their former level. However, during March and April the propeller branch, with rates of about 8 percent, exceeded the airframe figure. The sharp drop registered from April to May for the three branches is not a real measure of change, since the figures for April and all previous months were computed for direct workers alone and all subsequent figures are based on total employment. Since April, the rate for all branches has been around 6 to 7 percent. Throughout the period covered, the combined airframe, engine, and propeller rate showed slight variation from the average for all manufacturing. Thus, in March 1943 the combined aircraft figure was 6.6 percent as compared with 6.1 for all manufacturing. In August 1944 the rates were 6.5 and 6.6, respectively.

TABLE 8.—*Absence Rates* [1] *in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, January 1943–August 1944*

Month	1943 [2]				1944 [2]			
	All plants	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants	All plants	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants
January	(3)	6.3	(3)	(3)	7.1	7.4	6.3	6.5
February	(3)	6.8	(3)	(3)	7.5	7.7	6.7	7.5
March	6.6	6.7	6.1	6.0	7.1	7.3	6.5	7.9
April	6.5	6.7	5.8	6.3	7.9	8.1	7.3	8.4
May	6.9	7.1	6.1	5.9	6.4	6.5	6.3	6.5
June	6.9	7.2	6.1	6.4	6.2	6.2	6.2	5.2
July	7.4	7.8	6.2	6.9	6.4	6.2	6.9	6.2
August	7.6	8.0	6.6	7.6	6.5	6.2	7.3	6.1
September	7.1	7.4	6.1	7.2				
October	7.3	7.5	6.6	7.3				
November	7.1	7.3	6.8	6.5				
December	9.7	10.1	8.7	9.1				

[1] Based on workweek nearest 15th of month.
[2] Absence rates for period January 1943–April 1944 based on man-hours lost as a percent of time worked plus time lost by direct workers. Beginning with May 1944 absence rates are based on total employment and represent man-shifts lost as a percent of man-shifts scheduled.
[3] Reports for engine and propeller plants not submitted prior to March 1943.

Hours and Earnings [6]

As in other war industries, aircraft workers have experienced materially increased earnings. This was the result primarily of the extended workweek and resulting overtime pay (time and a half for all hours in excess of 40) as well as increases granted in hourly rates. Upgrading as a result of acquired skill and differentials for second- and third-shift employment also had their effect.

When the National War Labor Board assumed responsibility for wage structure, there was no uniformity in hourly rates paid to airframe workers performing identical jobs. The Board considered it impossible to act equitably under the circumstances and appointed a special committee to study the wage structure of West Coast airframe plants. On the basis of this study, which covered eight companies, the committee in March 1943 proposed various changes for the region. This served as a pattern for the airframe industry and, together with subsequent orders, resulted in the establishment of basic rates for specified occupations and grades, entrance rates, provision for automatic upgrading, and shift differentials.

Average hourly earnings in airframe plants increased steadily from $0.69 in January 1940 to $1.16 by August 1944 (table 9). The average weekly earnings rose from $27.85 to $54.15 during the same period. This exceeded the income for manufacturing workers generally, since the average hourly earnings for this group rose from $0.66 to $1.02 and average weekly earnings from $24.56 to $45.85 during the corresponding period. However, the workweek of airframe wage earners was longer than that prevailing in manufacturing as a whole, namely, 41 hours as against 38 in January 1940 and 47 as against 45 in August 1944. The airframe hourly earnings continued to rise in 1944, probably because of the decrease in the number of learners and the effects of upgrading resulting from acquired skill.

[6] The aircraft figures shown here cover all prime contractors of completed airframes, engines, and propellers, including converted plants. They should not be compared with monthly data for the aircraft and aircraft-engine industries released by the Bureau's Employment Statistics Division which exclude converted plants but cover subcontractors and parts manufacturers as well as prime contractors.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hours and Earnings [1] of Wage Earners in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, January 1940–August 1944*

Year and month	Airframe plants			Engine plants			Propeller plants		
	Average			Average			Average		
	Weekly hours [2]	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly hours [2]	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly hours [2]	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings
1940									
January	40.6	$27.85	$0.69	47.0	$40.09	$0.85	45.8	$35.29	$0.77
February [4]	39.9	27.55	.69	44.9	38.90	.87	37.6	27.69	.74
March	41.1	28.48	.69	45.4	38.15	.84	45.5	34.94	.77
April	40.6	28.16	.69	46.1	38.32	.83	45.4	34.73	.77
May	40.0	28.18	.70	46.0	37.47	.82	44.0	32.82	.75
June	41.8	30.37	.73	46.9	38.55	.82	45.0	34.41	.76
July	41.3	29.88	.72	46.0	37.91	.82	42.9	32.16	.75
August	43.6	31.87	.73	46.1	38.65	.84	44.2	33.71	.76
September	44.3	32.34	.73	47.1	38.50	.82	44.7	34.09	.76
October	44.0	32.64	.74	45.9	38.61	.84	44.1	33.77	.77
November	44.3	32.95	.74	43.4	37.23	.86	37.6	29.37	.78
December	44.5	32.97	.74	46.5	39.39	.85	44.7	34.30	.77
1941									
January	44.7	34.08	.76	46.3	41.22	.89	45.1	37.26	.83
February	45.3	34.85	.77	45.5	39.57	.87	47.4	39.28	.83
March	44.9	34.50	.77	45.8	40.79	.89	47.7	41.15	.86
April	45.2	35.11	.78	41.9	38.36	.92	37.9	31.39	.83
May	45.2	35.21	.78	47.0	45.07	.96	47.4	43.30	.91
June	44.6	34.80	.78	47.0	46.49	.99	48.5	44.40	.92
July	44.5	35.32	.79	47.0	47.36	1.01	49.6	46.33	.93
August	45.5	37.85	.83	47.0	48.71	1.04	[3] 42.1	46.26	[3] 1.10
September	45.4	37.81	.83	48.1	50.82	1.06	45.7	46.50	1.02
October	44.9	38.63	.86	47.2	52.04	1.10	48.6	49.26	1.01
November [4]	44.0	39.34	.89	47.7	55.28	1.16	44.8	51.37	1.15
December [4]	45.8	41.53	.91	48.3	55.63	1.15	53.2	63.95	1.20
1942									
January	48.9	46.12	.94	50.6	62.09	1.23	52.0	59.10	1.14
February	47.5	44.35	.93	49.7	59.34	1.19	49.7	54.15	1.09
March	47.6	44.33	.93	49.3	60.93	1.23	50.1	56.42	1.13
April	47.4	44.62	.94	48.5	58.90	1.21	50.9	58.04	1.14
May	46.7	44.52	.95	48.3	58.43	1.21	51.5	59.51	1.16
June	46.1	44.65	.97	48.2	58.07	1.21	51.0	59.58	1.17
July	45.6	44.49	.97	48.0	59.61	1.24	52.1	59.01	1.13
August	46.0	44.78	.97	48.3	60.21	1.25	48.9	57.47	1.18
September [4]	45.8	45.34	.99	47.6	61.00	1.28	47.7	59.44	1.25
October	45.7	44.35	.97	48.8	61.14	1.25	48.3	60.18	1.24
November	46.1	44.91	.97	47.3	59.25	1.25	46.2	56.38	1.22
December	46.4	45.59	.98	47.1	58.92	1.25	48.9	59.89	1.22
1943									
January	46.3	45.82	.99	47.2	59.84	1.27	49.0	59.62	1.22
February	45.9	45.89	1.00	47.8	60.21	1.26	47.4	58.05	1.23
March	46.1	46.48	1.01	48.5	61.33	1.26	47.7	58.18	1.22
April	47.1	48.90	1.04	48.0	60.40	1.26	48.2	60.14	1.25
May	46.7	49.21	1.05	48.8	62.10	1.27	48.2	60.27	1.25
June	48.4	51.53	1.07	46.7	59.03	1.26	48.3	60.56	1.25
July	45.4	48.31	1.06	46.7	59.40	1.27	48.3	60.94	1.26
August	45.6	48.97	1.07	47.1	59.70	1.27	49.0	61.27	1.25
September [4]	46.5	51.58	1.11	47.7	62.25	1.30	49.0	64.11	1.31
October	46.6	51.30	1.10	47.7	61.14	1.28	47.0	58.89	1.25
November	46.6	50.90	1.09	47.4	61.14	1.29	47.6	59.75	1.26
December	45.6	51.12	1.12	46.2	58.47	1.26	47.2	59.89	1.27
1944									
January	47.6	53.94	1.13	47.7	61.51	1.29	48.8	62.02	1.27
February	47.3	53.64	1.13	46.9	60.39	1.29	47.4	59.52	1.26
March	46.8	53.55	1.14	47.1	60.97	1.29	46.5	58.54	1.26
April	46.6	53.54	1.15	47.1	61.15	1.30	46.7	59.10	1.26
May	46.8	54.30	1.16	46.0	59.49	1.29	46.4	58.16	1.25
June	46.9	54.37	1.16	46.7	60.93	1.31	47.3	60.61	1.28
July	46.5	53.90	1.16	42.2	55.32	1.31	44.3	57.00	1.29
August [5]	46.8	54.15	1.16	45.4	59.19	1.30	48.3	62.72	1.30

[1] Based on workweek nearest 15th of month. The figures shown cover all prime contractors of completed airframes, engines, and propellers, including converted plants. They should not be compared with monthly data for the aircraft and aircraft-engine industries released by the Bureau's Employment Statistics Division which exclude converted plants but cover subcontractors and parts manufacturers as well as prime contractors.

[2] Average weekly hours are for all wage earners and therefore not strictly comparable with the average weekly hours shown for direct workers in other series.

[3] Fluctuation of hours and earnings in this month was caused by a strike in 1 plant.

[4] Fluctuation of hours and earnings in this month caused by holiday. [5] Preliminary.

Both engine and propeller plants reported higher earnings than airframe plants, with the hourly average for engines slightly more than that of propellers. A longer workweek and more second- and third-shift employment had some effect. However, the greater proportion of skilled workers in these branches was primarily responsible for the higher earnings. In January 1940 engine wage earners averaged a 47-hour week and earned an average of $0.85 per hour or $40.09 per week. Propeller wage earners had a 46-hour week and averaged $0.77 per hour or $35.29 per week. Because of longer hours the weekly earnings for propeller wage earners at times slightly exceeded those of engine workers. The variation in earnings between the two branches was narrowed in June 1944; at that time both engine and propeller wage earners approximated a 47-hour week with hourly earnings of about $1.31 for the former and $1.28 for the latter. This resulted in weekly earnings of $60.93 for engine wage earners and $60.61 for propeller workers. Both branches of the industry reported hourly earnings averaging $1.30 for August. However, propeller hours exceeded those of engines, resulting in an earnings figure of $62.72 as compared with $59.19 for engines.

Production Trends

The number of completed airplanes accepted each month has risen steadily from January 1941. At that time approximately 1,000 completed planes were accepted monthly. The figure had risen to almost 2,500 by the end of the year, around 5,000 by the end of 1942, and 8,800 by the end of 1943. In March 1944 alone, 9,117 completed units were accepted, the record for any one month (table 10).

While this eightfold increase in acceptances is in itself considerable, the performance it represents is actually even more outstanding. Prior to 1943, production was concentrated on lighter airplanes. There was need for large numbers of primary, basic, and advanced trainers. Fighters predominated among the combat airplanes. Beginning with 1943, particularly the latter part of the year, heavy bombers and cargo ships became a significant part of total acceptances. To evaluate properly this shift in type of production, together with the fact that each airplane has its complement of spare parts, it is necessary to consider the airframe acceptances in terms of weight rather than units. The total weight of monthly acceptances including spare parts was about 4 million pounds early in 1941; it had almost tripled by the last quarter of the year, reaching about 10 million pounds per month. The increase continued during 1942 and by the end of 1943 the acceptance figure was close to 90 million pounds. In May 1944 over 102 million pounds were accepted, more than in any previous month and 30 times the number in January 1941.

The average weight per acceptance each month was about 4,500 pounds in 1941 and increased to 9,800 pounds by the end of 1943. It rose during 1944 because of continued large-scale production of heavy bombers and transports and the introduction of superbombers into our aircraft program. The highest average weight per acceptance ever attained was 12,150 pounds reached this June, roughly 3 times the average weight of acceptances in the early stages of the production program.

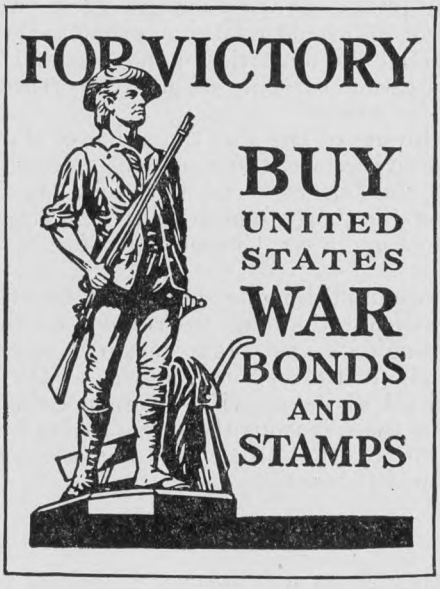
TABLE 10.—*Number and Weight of Airframe Acceptances and Number of Airframe Workers (Including Subcontracting), January 1941–August 1944*

Year and month	Acceptances		Total employment, including estimate for subcontracting	Average weight [3] per unit accepted (in pounds)	Average weight [3] accepted per employee (in pounds)	Average number of employees per complete unit accepted
	Total number of complete units [1]	Total weight including spares [2] (in pounds)				
1941						
January	1,012	3,420,300	162,200	3,380	21	160
February	963	4,120,100	170,600	4,278	24	177
March	1,136	4,699,500	179,200	4,137	26	158
April	1,391	6,386,900	191,200	4,592	33	137
May	1,329	6,056,200	203,100	4,557	30	153
June	1,478	6,908,000	222,300	4,674	31	150
July	1,462	6,263,600	242,900	4,284	26	166
August	1,854	8,713,500	265,500	4,700	33	143
September	1,946	9,077,100	283,800	4,664	32	146
October	2,284	10,588,200	310,800	4,636	34	136
November	2,138	9,658,100	327,600	4,517	29	153
December	2,462	13,497,100	356,300	5,482	38	145
1942						
January	2,977	15,021,700	388,600	5,046	39	131
February	3,047	16,660,500	423,700	5,468	39	139
March	3,483	20,318,000	448,300	5,833	45	129
April	3,506	20,057,400	479,900	5,721	42	137
May	3,984	23,237,000	510,200	5,833	46	128
June	3,738	24,846,300	553,800	6,647	45	148
July	4,106	27,402,700	594,300	6,674	46	145
August	4,281	29,025,000	658,200	6,780	44	154
September	4,307	32,148,800	710,500	7,464	45	165
October	4,063	30,848,400	774,100	7,593	40	191
November	4,812	35,064,700	840,500	7,287	42	175
December	5,501	41,178,600	913,000	7,486	45	166
1943						
January	5,014	37,532,100	975,500	7,485	38	195
February	5,423	43,961,600	1,013,100	8,107	43	187
March	6,265	51,038,900	1,037,800	8,147	49	166
April	6,472	55,252,100	1,062,300	8,537	52	164
May	7,087	60,692,700	1,084,200	8,564	56	153
June	7,097	61,535,600	1,115,100	8,671	55	157
July	7,376	65,458,500	1,139,600	8,875	57	155
August	7,613	69,296,700	1,148,100	9,102	60	151
September	7,598	71,103,900	1,170,900	9,358	61	154
October	8,363	76,256,500	1,179,100	9,118	65	141
November	8,791	82,444,600	1,185,500	9,378	70	135
December	8,802	86,353,400	1,167,900	9,811	74	133
1944						
January	8,789	89,989,000	1,156,100	10,239	78	132
February	8,761	93,500,000	1,137,900	10,672	82	130
March	9,117	101,400,000	1,108,400	11,122	91	122
April	8,331	96,400,000	1,084,300	11,571	89	130
May	8,902	102,400,000	1,063,400	11,503	96	119
June	8,049	97,800,000	1,027,600	12,151	95	128
July	8,000	93,900,000	1,009,000	11,738	93	126
August	7,937	93,900,000	973,300	11,831	96	123

[1] Latest revisions released by the Army Air Forces. Excludes spares.
[2] Data from January 1941–December 1943 are latest revisions released by the Army Air Forces. Data for January–August 1944, from War Production Board.
[3] Weight of spares included in computation of average.

The remarkable achievement in productivity is particularly evident from the decrease in the number of employees per acceptance (including subcontractors as well as prime contractors) and the substantial increase in the weight accepted per employee. During the period 1941–43, the number of employees per acceptance varied considerably from month to month but ranged roughly from 130 to 180 workers. However, with the beginning of 1944, the range was at a much lower level, namely, between 120 and 130. The average weight accepted per employee doubled between the early months of 1941 and

the summer of 1942. Then, with the beginning of a new phase in the production program, there was no increase in accepted weight per employee until the early spring of 1943. From that time onward the increase in accepted weight per employee has been rapid, almost doubling in a year and reaching 96 pounds in May 1944, as compared with only 21 pounds in January 1941 and 49 pounds in March 1943. Part of the increase in 1941 was due to a lengthening of hours, but since 1942 the increase described is an increase in hourly output as well as per worker per month. Because of this increase in output, the labor cost per pound of airplane is only about a third as great as it was early in 1941, despite the fact that earnings per hour are over half again as large. The pattern of increasing productivity in the airframe branch as shown here may be taken as an illustration of the production experience of the other branches of the aircraft industry.



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The German Labor Front

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Summary

MORE than 11 years ago, shortly after the seizure of power by the National Socialists, the German Labor Front was created as the first of their mass organizations. It consisted of a nucleus of 5 million trade-union members, who, after the storm troopers' raid on all union headquarters on May 2, 1933, and the ruthless liquidation of the labor-union officers, were forced under Nazi control. Six years later, when the second World War broke out, the Labor Front included 20 million individual members in Germany proper as well as almost 3 millions in Austria, Sudetenland, Danzig, and the western Polish territories, which had been incorporated into "Greater Germany." The Labor Front then included practically all nonagricultural gainfully occupied persons with the exception of the civil servants and members of the professions, who were assigned to other associations. The National Food Estate, the compulsory organization of the people in agricultural occupations, the Chamber of Culture, National Socialist Lawyers' Association, etc., became "collective members," bringing the total membership in the Labor Front to about 30 millions.

It carried on press and propaganda work, was responsible for certain features of industrial relations, promoted welfare work in the plants, and directed the activities of the so-called "Strength through Joy"—an organization carrying on many recreational, athletic, and other functions for workers.

After the beginning of the war the scope of the Labor Front narrowed and its activities were increasingly directed toward war aims and away from the former social purposes. Its main efforts were those of keeping up Army morale with entertainments of various kinds and of looking after German and foreign workers in labor camps.

Although its accomplishments should not be overrated, the Labor Front was nevertheless the main instrument for propaganda in Nazi Germany. Through its vast organization it was in touch with individuals throughout the country, down to the last "propaganda consumer," and all of its activities were permeated with the Nazi philosophy. For these reasons the organization is very important in any consideration of the future of free associations among the workers of post-war Germany.

Structure of the Labor Front

When the Labor Front was created, it seemed to set a pattern for the corporations, the then glorified prospective structural units of the Third Reich. The corporations of manual workers and of salaried employees each consisted of several Nazi-controlled associations which superseded the 168 former unions that had been dissolved;

[1] This article is a summary of a report prepared in connection with the Research Project on Social and Economic Controls in Germany and Russia, organized under the Graduate Faculty of the New School for Social Research.

corporations of employers and middle-class peoples were likewise created and incorporated into the Labor Front as Nazi substitutes for former free associations.

In November 1933, however, the corporations were declared dissolved. From then on the once-praised corporate idea was alternately denounced as reactionary or as "Marxism authorized and controlled by the State." The Labor Front was eventually proclaimed by Hitler to be "the only existing corporation." Employers, manual workers, salaried employees, and urban middle-class people were reorganized into the Labor Front on an individual basis without being allowed separate organizations. The remodeling of the Labor Front, which was completed at the end of 1934, severed the old trade-union ties and loyalties and disorganized labor entirely, thus removing the potential danger of countermoves against the regime.

With the disappearance of the corporate idea, the guiding principle of Labor Front organization became that of tight bureaucratic control over the mass membership. By 1939 the Labor Front was subdivided into 41 districts (*Gaue*), 807 counties (*Kreise*) and 27,127 locals in the "Greater German Reich." In all shops with more than 5 employees, chief stewards (*Betriebsobmaenner*) were installed, who controlled the cell and block leaders (chiefs of the smallest units) and had staffs ranging up to 14 functionaries with assistants and an impressive range of activities designed for the control of workers on the job and during their leisure time. The chief stewards were also the leaders of the shop troops (*Werkscharen*)—the militarized National Socialist elite of youthful workers who assumed leadership in every campaign for political purposes, increased productivity, etc. The shop troops, "implacable adversaries of class struggle and capitalism," by 1939 numbered 340,000 in 9,500 plants.

This whole network of agencies and formations was directed from the top by Labor Front leader Robert Ley, with the aid of numerous central bureaus. Between 1938 and 1941 (the years of the greatest variety of tasks) the central office of the Labor Front was subdivided into 59 branch offices—11 for administrative tasks of the Labor Front itself, 19 for various activities, 17 to deal with specific industries and trades, and 6 to handle relationships with the Office of the Four-Year Plan and with the army, navy and air fleet; 6 others were subdivisions of the Strength through Joy department of the Labor Front.

Relation to National Socialist Party

The position of the German Labor Front in the Third Reich was characterized on the one hand by independence from the Reich administration and on the other by complete dependence upon the Nazi Party. The Party wanted the Labor Front as an instrument of its own, performing services requested by the Nazi Government but not subordinated to the national bureaucracy which the Party members never ceased to distrust in spite of its increasing nazification. The device of identical leadership over corresponding governmental and Party agencies, which was applied in many instances, was not extended to the Labor Front and the Ministry of Labor. Also, when at the outbreak of the war many bodies previously not subjected to direct governmental control were incorporated into governmental agencies in order to avoid friction and conflicts by clear subordination, the Labor Front remained untouched by these measures.

Thus, strange as it seems, the Labor Front always had only a loose connection with the Reich Ministry of Labor. There was even a ban on the name and photograph of Minister of Labor Franz Seldte. Robert Ley, on the other hand, was not only Labor Front leader but also chief of staff of the Nazi Party, a position fourth in rank in the Party hierarchy. From there on down, the closest affiliation between Nazi Party and Labor Front was ensured. The subdivisions corresponded geographically to those of the Party. The chiefs of the Labor Front offices all over the country were politically subordinated to chiefs of the Party offices and often to their deputies. The chief stewards and the cell and block leaders were representatives of the Party.

The privilege of Party membership was confined to a minority of the German people; consequently, the German Labor Front included a majority of non-Party members and the ratio might run as high as 4 to 1. The Labor Front was built, however, upon one fundamental Nazi device: the entire leadership stratum, paid leaders and subleaders as well as unpaid petty functionaries such as chiefs of small locals and plants, cells and blocks in shops and streets, consisted of Party members. In 1939, the Labor Front had 36,000 paid officials; in addition 2 million unpaid functionaries dedicated their spare time to its service, attracted by numerous small advantages, the prestige of belonging to the ruling Party, and the pride in being petty commanders in a militarized society. Finally, the shop troops were either members of the Party or aspirants to early admission. Thus, through this network, the governing Party held in its grip the entire gainfully occupied nonagricultural population, including wives and dependents. The petty chiefs, through day-to-day observations, denunciations, and conversations, became thoroughly acquainted with the attitudes, behavior, abilities, weaknesses, loyalties, family relationships, and other characteristics of the men in their units. With this formidable knowledge, they were capable, by the means at their disposal, of preventing the totalitarian German society from disintegrating, even in perilous moments, mostly before having to resort to the Gestapo. Innumerable loyalties, connections, and dependencies have developed in Nazi Germany through this organization. Many of them will survive a formal dissolution of the Labor Front and will arouse problems for many years to come.

FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS

As regards finances of the Labor Front, the Nazi chiefs have always bluntly rejected suggestions, even when made by influential employers and high officials, for financial control other than that exercised by the treasurer of the Nazi Party. Although the Labor Front never published a budget it is nevertheless possible, on the basis of figures occasionally released, to estimate the amount of money available for Labor Front purposes. The monthly dues of the average member rose from 1.21 marks in 1933 to 1.95 marks in 1938. In the latter year, the revenues from membership dues were about 450 million marks. Including the dues of the Austrian and Sudetenland members, dues may have aggregated, in 1939, about 500 or 550 million marks.

This was, however, not the only source of Labor Front income. Labor Front leader, Robert Ley, following the example of other out-

standing Party bosses, built up a powerful holding organization on the "trust" principle. The assets of this trust consisted mostly of property seized from the former trade-union owners—headquarters buildings, resorts, hotels and restaurants, insurance firms, consumers' cooperatives, publishing houses and theaters, house-construction and workers' settlement companies, and the German Labor Bank.

All these enterprises were considerably enlarged and made more profitable, with the political and financial help of governmental and Party agencies. In the sickness-insurance institutions of the Labor Front, for example, 1½ million persons were insured in 1942. By 1938 the German Labor Bank had 34 branches and had become one of the greatest banking organizations in Germany. During the war, like the other Labor Front companies, it extended its activities over the occupied territories; it had its own branches in nearly all of the large towns of Europe and controlled important banks in occupied countries. The Labor Front trust was enlarged in 1937 by an automobile factory, the People's Automobile Works (*Volkswagenwerk*), in Fallersleben, in which the Labor Front invested 200 million marks.[2] This plant has turned out hundreds of thousands of cars for war purposes, delaying indefinitely the claims of 300,000 Labor Front members who, having paid some 200 million marks in advance installment payments, were led to believe they were entitled to the quick acquisition of a car.

A third source of revenue for the Labor Front consisted of contributions by the Reich Government. As the Government refunded to the Nazi Party and its affiliates expenditures required in the execution of a German law or decree, the Labor Front was therefore entitled to refunds of expenses made for auxiliary activities for the Trustees of Labor, the labor courts, the confidential councils, etc.

Altogether, it is probable that the income from business enterprises and refunds approximated that from membership dues. In 1939 and 1940, the total revenues may therefore have amounted to about a billion marks. Expenditures were about 300 million marks in 1935 (of which no less than 40 percent were for salaries of the Labor Front personnel), and may have slightly exceeded 400 millions in 1939. The excess of revenues, averaging several hundred million marks yearly since 1935 and more than half a billion each year from 1939 to 1941, were invested in Reich treasury bonds or Labor Front enterprises such as the People's Automobile Works, thus contributing to the financing of Germany's war preparation and the war.

Position in the Third Reich

A basic statute for the Labor Front was not adopted until October 1934. The statute defined the Labor Front as the organization of all Germans working with brain and brawn and aiming at the formation of a "people's community and a community of performance." This implied propaganda for National Socialist principles and the pursuance of social measures on the basis of a mutual understanding between employers and employees, was designed to secure industrial peace but not to determine conditions of work. The Labor Front also participated in tasks under the national labor statute of 1934, establishing the "leadership" principle in industry. Finally, the Labor Front was

[2] In 1944 the Volkswagenwerk became one of the main assembly plants for the flying (robot) bombs. The factory has now been destroyed.

entrusted with vocational training and the direction of the well-known organization, Strength through Joy.

The vagueness of the Labor Front statute and its failure to define precisely the relationship of the Labor Front to the administration led to a variety of interpretations. This resulted in a struggle for power between Labor Front leaders (backed by Party officialdom) and the Ministry of Labor (encouraged by the Reich bureaucracy and not least by the Ministry's regional agents, the Trustees of Labor, who were reliable Nazis but were only in exceptional cases taken from the ranks of Labor Front Officials). The employers tried to defend themselves against the violent attacks upon them as "capitalists," launched by Labor Front officials, and against the interference in employer-employee relations by shop stewards and by Labor Front officials outside the plants. They stressed their right to the "leadership" of their enterprises. They looked for help, and often found it, in the friendly Ministry of Economics headed by Hjalmar Schacht. They even bribed Nazi and Labor Front functionaries.

The struggle for power among the social forces in the Nazi State, behind the facade of enforced national unity cannot be described here. In the fields of labor relations and social structure the outcome was determined by the needs of pre-war and, later, war production. Such needs could not be met without competent national labor administration and the collaboration of the industrialists. Hitler's proclamations, calling for "collaboration of all social forces in the interest of highest productivity and efficiency," in 1935, and for "social peace," in 1936, enforced a compromise. The Labor Front chiefs had to renounce agitation, ambitions as labor leaders, etc., and be satisfied with the role of auxiliary agents of the Nazi Government. The downward trend of their aspirations is expressed in Robert Ley's resigned statement of 1939, in which he defined the Labor Front as "a great educational institution and a motor; it wants to suggest, advise and push forward, but not itself to execute matters, nor to perform economic or technical tasks."

The war contributed to a further decrease in the influence of the Labor Front, confirmed in 1942 by the appointment of Fritz Sauckel as Commissioner for Manpower. Although ranking high in the Nazi Party, he worked chiefly through the civil servants of the Ministry of Labor and the regional Labor Trustees and their staffs, utilizing the Labor Front only for secondary tasks. As a result, the Commissioner of Manpower and the Ministry of Labor administered, between them, all the vital functions of labor relations, the release of collective rules (replacing the former collective agreements), manpower problems, unemployment insurance, the traditional factory inspectorate, and social legislation in the field of sickness, old-age, invalidity, and accident insurance.

Even in the field of relief to needy members it would be safe not to overrate the importance of the Labor Front. Since the latter had acknowledged, in 1933, the rights acquired by the old trade-union members through payment of premiums, it paid some benefits. The total amount was, however, less than that granted previously by the trade-unions and in the years before the war did not exceed 3 to 4 marks yearly for the average member.

Pre-War Activities of the Labor Front

PRESS AND PROPAGANDA

The German Labor Front was the greatest organization for the domestic interpretation, distribution, and reception of Joseph Goebbel's propaganda. For purposes of organized domestic consumption, the central Labor Front press and propaganda agency performed an important political and organizational task.

Politically, the Labor Front propagandists took into account the fact that, although numerically the workers predominated in the organization, nevertheless the middle-class members were not unimportant. The output of the Governmental and Party propaganda offices was therefore cleared and prepared with both groups in mind. In dealing with labor they were inspired by three guiding principles in as many periods. In the first period the objective was to transform the worker of the "liberalistic" period into a worker of the National Socialist era, blindly obedient to the Führer, thinking politically and doing his job according to German military traditions. The annihilation of the Marxist and shaping of the National Socialist worker was considered accomplished in 1935. In the second period the purpose was to endow the emerging "soldier of labor" with the qualities indispensable for the success of the regime. He was educated for his actual and future task, especially for exemplary political and vocational behavior in his occupational surroundings, in order to improve and speed the total pre-war and war production in the service of the Führer. Since the beginning of the third period, in 1939, all propaganda has been dominated by the basic conception that the military front and the home front are one, in the defense of National Socialist Germany against its foes. The soldier of labor has constantly been reminded of the National Socialist sense of duty, discipline, obedience, comradeship, and readiness to sacrifice, as well as the necessity of supreme performance for rescuing Nazi Germany and the world from their Jewish, capitalist, and Bolshevist enemies.

The Labor Front propagandists relied first of all on the spoken word. At first, big propaganda campaigns were launched, but these became secondary in importance in comparison with the daily efforts of regional, local, and plant press and propaganda agents. These agents transmitted and interpreted the central slogans, appeals, and directives to the functionaries who were in contact with the men and women in the smallest units. The direct influence on the individual "propaganda consumer" was overwhelming, because of the supervisory and controlling position of the propaganda agents. In the zones of the new war industries established since 1936, supposedly safe from bombardment, millions of workers have lived in barracks, separated from their families, under tight Labor Front control. The mobilization of hundreds of thousands for the construction of the West Wall in 1938 and 1939 was a big dress rehearsal for the later adjustment of propaganda activities to life in soldiers' and workers' camps and in camps of foreign labor.

Means of indoctrination utilized by the Labor Front propaganda agents were various. Meetings were organized in the shops. Promising young Labor Front members received long and thorough training in 11 training centers, and employers and Labor Front functionaries

had shorter periods of training in similar centers. Community rooms, rest rooms, and "houses of comradeship" in the plants were provided with radio and abundant reading material.

In 1933 the former trade-union periodicals were transformed into ardent Nazi organs of the Labor Front. The vast Labor Front press consisted, in 1939, of about 700 periodicals with a monthly circulation of more than 35 million copies, operating for the most part under their previous trade-union title. These carried political propaganda, popularized Labor Front activities, and included sections on vocational training. There were, moreover, about 500 employees' magazines, with a circulation of about 4 million, issued in all large plants and edited under the responsibility of the employers under instructions and supervision of the Labor Front press service. These periodicals praised the National Socialist regime and the progress of the "work community" in the individual plants. Strength through Joy monthly programs, with a combined circulation of 4 million, were published in every district and carried Nazi political indoctrination intermingled with announcement of and propaganda for and by Strength through Joy activities. At the beginning of the Nazi regime almost half of the German people boycotted the totalitarian newspapers, and the daily newspaper circulation dropped from 27 million in 1932 to less than 16 million in 1934. The Labor Front organs were thus in most cases the only newspapers which entered the workers' homes and were therefore important in spite of the admittedly low interest of the majority of the workers. Their eagerness to read, indeed, cannot be measured by the circulation figures, since most of the periodicals were delivered free of charge to the members or were paid for, on subscription by Labor Front functionaries, through deduction from the pay checks of the workers.

The war put an end to most of the Labor Front press. By 1942 the press was reduced to about a fourth of its former importance, and became negligible in 1943. Important for the post-war period is the fact that the vocational press always had a large circulation and enjoyed a high reputation among the German masses. Prior to the Hitler regime, many workers who no longer subscribed for a daily paper were still reading their trade-union periodical. Therefore, the reconversion of Labor Front periodicals might offer certain opportunities for political reeducation after the destruction of National Socialism.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

As strikes and lockouts, as well as associations of workers and employers and their activities, have been outlawed, industrial peace in Germany is based upon compulsion. The Minister of Labor and (since 1942) the Commissioner of Manpower and their regional agencies have been regulating dictatorially all details of work, conditions of employment and discharge, wages, hours, and vacations, leaving some less essential questions to be covered by shop rules. The labor courts, inherited from the Weimar Republic but largely deprived of their former importance, rule on individual controversies over the labor contract. The Labor Front is supposed to watch over industrial peace in the enterprises, by maintaining and enforcing the "work community," and to this end cooperate with the Labor Trustees, the Commissioner of Manpower, and other agencies.

The Labor Front chiefs have long insisted upon their pre-eminent authority in the matter of industrial peace in the individual plants. They wanted to restrict the Reich Labor Trustees to decisions of final result only; until all Labor Front attempts to smooth the labor relations in the shops had failed, the Labor Trustees should not step in or even be approached by either employers or workers. They were defeated on this point by the Ministry of Labor in a long fight for centralized control, as against the individual arrangements that would have resulted from varying local Labor Front relationships with individual employers.

In certain fields, nevertheless, the Labor Front officials retained remarkable influence. In the first years of the regime they actively cooperated with the Reich Labor Trustees in the establishment of collective work regulations. After the incorporation of the regional and local offices for Placement and Unemployment Insurance and of Factory Inspection into the agencies of the Labor Trustees, in 1938, the influence of the Labor Front in this field declined considerably.

Labor courts.—Lay judges of the labor courts were selected from lists drawn up by the Labor Front, as were also assessors for social-honor courts which impose warnings and fines and can remove leaders of enterprises and followers from the work community for violations of social honor. Inspired by trade-union examples and enlarging them considerably, the Labor Front created regional and local legal advisory offices which gave advice to workers and employers on all questions concerning labor relations and social insurance, and might represent members, both employers and employees, in the labor and social-insurance courts. The offices tried to bring the conflicting parties to an understanding before going to court, and usually succeeded, in view of the slight prospect of a favorable court decision against the opinion of the Labor Front. As the advisory offices had to be consulted before a complaint was made, the pursuit of all legal claims was under complete Labor Front control. The continuous publication, interpretation, and criticism of labor-court rulings by the Labor Front could not fail to influence court decisions under a regime which had abolished independence of courts.

Confidential councils, established by a law of 1934 in plants and offices employing 20 or more persons, were supposed to be another instrument of securing industrial peace. Acting as a representation of labor (but with rights strongly restricted in comparison to those of the shop councils of the Weimar Republic), and intended to cooperate with the employers under whose chairmanship they met, they soon lost in importance. Nonparticipation of the workers in the votes of approval or open disapproval of the candidates presented by the employer in agreement with the chief steward of the Labor Front frequently compelled the Trustees to step in and appoint the councils. After 1935, new elections of councils were suspended and the Trustees often used their right to unseat and replace such council members as were considered uncooperative or made representations and complaints to employers and Trustees. The work of the councils was taken over progressively by the staffs of the Labor Front stewards in the plants; the members of the councils for the most part became identical with the staffs of the stewards. Since the council activities were too greatly reduced to offer useful items of discussion in their rare meetings, the

topics were routinized by official instruction and the meetings became a mere formality.

Employers' welfare work.—Between 1935 and 1938 the Labor Front launched campaigns urging the employers to translate into deeds the care for the workers with which they were charged by the law for national labor. In addition to such specific performances as were based upon law or decree, the building of dwellings for workers, shop improvements, promotion of Strength through Joy, serving of warm meals at low prices, and payment of compensation to workers and their families for participation at Party or Labor Front meetings or military exercises were urged and frequently agreed upon. In 1938, the cost of "additional social performances" was said to have amounted to 785 million marks, or an average of about 40 marks for each worker or 2½-percent of his pay. The accuracy of this figure, however, is doubtful; moreover, on the average, comparison with similar pre-Hitler figures indicates not much more than the usual advance of social spendings by companies in boom periods. After the beginning of 1939, however, when the last reserves of labor had been swept together to work for the war machine, the Labor Front had to reverse its policy. Voluntary compensation to the workers in the form of pay as well as in general social care and even increases of vacation periods were considered as unfair means of attracting workers from other factories, and were therefore prohibited. The topic of additional social care which for years had dominated Labor Front propaganda and activities suddenly disappeared. Nothing shows more clearly the compliance of the Labor Front alternately with all social and anti-social instructions of the Nazi regime and its complete lack of any moral commitment to social work.

STRENGTH THROUGH JOY

Among the numerous activities of the Labor Front, the Strength through Joy movement was the most popular. After its creation in November 1933 it was at first an affiliate of the Labor Front under Ley's leadership; in 1938 it became a Labor Front department. Strength through Joy had a monopoly on leisure-time organization, offered evening classes in most towns and rural communities, and became the outstanding Nazi agency for adult education. It introduced in all big plants sports for leisure hours; it organized hikes, promoted swimming and boating, and short and long trips in Germany and abroad; it was the largest travel bureau in the world. The organization took over, purchased, or built resort centers in the mountains and at the beaches, rented or built ships for trips to foreign countries, and promoted the small "Strength through Joy car" which was intended to become the workers' automobile in a country in which earnings were too low and car prices too high to allow the worker and lower middle classes to purchase and operate a car of the usual size.

Strength through Joy activities were for years a leading propaganda medium and were themselves permeated by Nazi propaganda: no trip to Italy without praising the Axis and its aims; no lecture omitting indoctrination of Nazism and racism; no performance without paying homage to Nazi principles; no military band concert not designed to arouse militaristic feelings. Although many of the Strength through Joy activities had previously been initiated or performed by trade-

unions, Strength through Joy was presented as a splendid manifestation of Socialism in the Third Reich, breaking the barriers which separated the underprivileged from cultural life and upper-class enjoyments.

However, even from the Nazi point of view the organization had its failures as well as its successes. Thus, although the expanding sport activities in the plants and vacation trips were highly appreciated, adult education suffered a serious setback. The installments on the "Strength through Joy car" were so large and the costs of car operation so high as to be beyond the means of manual workers.

The Strength through Joy accomplishments have been greatly exaggerated by Nazi propaganda. Retrospective Labor Front figures of 1940 invalidate previous distorted releases; they show that even in the best year the average adult German attended only one performance per year at theaters, concerts, cabarets, movies, and similar activities furthered by Strength through Joy. The average manual worker could look forward to participation in a trip exceeding a prolonged week-end excursion only about once in every 30 years, and the salaried employee once in every 8 years. Their prospects for a trip to foreign countries were about once in 200 and 75 years, respectively. Nevertheless, between 1934 and 1939 hundreds of thousands of workers were able for the first time to take a trip during vacation; and the psychological effect of such spectacular accomplishments as trips to Italy, Norway, or Africa on the youth and the majority of workers who had not been organized in free trade-unions and knew nothing of their work for the steady improvement of the conditions can be rated much higher than the above figures suggest.

Although the yearly turnover of Strength through Joy amounted roughly to a billion marks, the organization itself contributed only 15 to 20 millions, exclusive of the salaries of the 6,000 paid officials and the office expenses. The costs of the activities were covered in other ways. Shop improvements were attained in numerous cases by unpaid working hours or the work of shop troops; the employers bore at least the expenses for needed material. Costs for trips were lowered by negotiations with railroad and hotel managers on mass transport, lodging and board—devices which were not new in Germany but were now more successfully applied by wide-scale planning, more elaborate organization, and, above all, powerful governmental and Party backing. For more expensive trips, especially those to foreign countries, the Labor Front and employers gave grants to politically reliable and efficient workers.

Wartime Activities

Although immediately after the outbreak of the war the Labor Front organization and activities were largely transformed, this trend became more obvious in 1942 after the first reverses of the Russian campaign, and led to a comprehensive administrative reform in March 1943. The 59 subdivisions were reduced to 10: Organization, personnel, political training, press, propaganda, youth and social legislation, vocational training, labor research, Strength through Joy, and "enterprise organization." The last named replaced the 17 trade offices. Officers were to concentrate on greater efficiency of labor, conservation of working power, strengthening of readiness to work, and conservation

of industrial peace, while at the same time watching wages and plant discipline. Full concentration on war needs, with a total elimination of activities not related to warfare, was the guiding principle.

The two outstanding wartime tasks of the Labor Front were the work of the Strength through Joy for the army, and the work of the Office for Manpower for all German and foreign workers in camps.

Army activities.—In 1939, the Labor Front took over, by agreement with the German High Command, "the whole cultural care for the army with the exception of motion pictures." In 1940 entertainment for the army amounted to about 80 percent, and in 1941 almost 90 percent, of the total Strength through Joy work. Vacation trips for civilians had to be abandoned in 1940 and leisure-time activities were restricted to sports. Looking back at 1941 the Nazi press had to admit that "care for health in the plants suffers from lack of physicians and drugs. * * * no material is available for shop improvements and * * * construction of workers' dwellings can be considered only if new manpower has to be housed." In January 1942 Ley took the final step, ordering all Strength through Joy activities for civilian purposes to be stopped, except some performances in labor camps.

From 1940 to 1942 impressive figures were released on Strength through Joy performances for soldiers, especially the wounded and sick, intended to maintain or restore their morale. At a meeting of the Labor Front in Paris, in 1942, it was reported that hundreds of thousands of plays, concerts, recitals, etc., had been given before many millions of soldiers. Adult education was restricted to German-language courses for foreign workers in Germany and people of the incorporated western Polish and French territories. In addition, Strength through Joy ships became hospital ships or carried German families returning from the Baltic countries to settle in Germany. After 1942, however, even the work for military purposes rapidly declined. The combing out of all able-bodied men for military service and war work, the military reverses in the Soviet Union, and the air bombardments precluded activities on the former scale. Finally, in August 1944 Goebbels decreed, and in October completed, the dissolution of the Strength through Joy organization, in addition to many other Party institutions.

Camp activities.—The care for workers in camps was singled out by Commissioner for Manpower Fritz Sauckel as an outstanding part of the Labor Front's war effort. He wanted to utilize its experience in mass organization and supervision gained in dealing with the West Wall workers before the war and the labor battalions of the Todt Organization during the war.

For German workers, an activity already tested had thus to be continued on a larger scale and adjusted to new conditions. In the Polish Government General, for example, 118 camps for German labor were established under Labor Front supervision. These German workers had to serve as foremen and supervisors of Polish labor. It appeared advisable to keep them together outside working hours not only because of the difference in housing and food, but also for reasons of discipline.

The handling of foreign labor offered more complicated problems. The Office of Manpower created central and regional divisions for foreign labor. Foreign divisions of the Office were opened in the capitals of occupied territories or the countries allied with or friendly

to Germany; the Foreign Organization of the Labor Front had done a preparatory job, in pre-war times, by establishing solid footholds in every country.[3] The foreign divisions were aided in their work by offices of a Dutch, Belgian, etc., Labor Front, established under German control and run by labor Quislings; the Labor Front subdivisions for foreign labor in Germany were manned by collaborators taken from their ranks.

The Labor Front started the "care" of foreign workers after they had been hired in occupied territory. Between 1940 and 1943, several million workers were conveyed to Germany and more than a thousand camps in "Greater Germany" and several hundreds in German-occupied territory were taken over by the Labor Front. It selected the administrative personnel for the camps and gave them a thorough training. They were advised to iron out difficulties with foreign labor, to promote a "community life" at the workplace and in the camps, and to do everything to strengthen the working readiness and discipline of foreign labor by propaganda, amusements, and, if necessary, compulsion. In 1942, meals for 4.2 million workers daily were provided in the labor camps by 15,000 kitchens. Libraries were created and 78 periodicals were published in 21 languages. Vocational training and retraining, based on tests of skills and aptitudes, were provided. The millions of foreign workers were expected to become propagandists of National Socialism when they returned home; they had to be "convinced of the superiority of German abilities, justice and incorruptibility."

Other wartime activities centered on war needs, too. Labor Front leaders and subleaders for the armament industry were trained to tighten the control and develop productivity there. Boys and girls working away from their homes were given care, lodged, and supervised by the Labor Front and the Hitler Youth. The number of full- and part-time physicians and of female social workers under Labor Front supervision in the enterprises increased. With 40 full-time and 395 part-time physicians and 2,000 newly hired female social workers (between 1941 and 1943), the number was still extremely low and revealed particularly a lack of interest in and care for the working women who had replaced inducted men by millions. Kitchens in the plants increased from 6,000 to 12,000 between 1939 and 1942, and workers getting their meals there rose from 1.2 to 3.5 millions; in 1942 about a third of all German industrial workers had their meals in plants or camps, a far-reaching change in German living habits enforced by Labor Front planning and organization.

Vocational training.—Participation of the Labor Front in vocational training increased in line with the manifold needs of training or retraining. The training organization of industry maintained its leading position; it created the basis for unified training aims and prepared material enabling foremen and other unschooled trainees to perform their tasks according to proven methods. The Labor Front went into training within industry by opening training shops at which 3 million workers have received training. The Labor Front press for vocational training, on the other hand, had to be greatly reduced. The yearly vocational competition, however, which was started in 1934 for youth

[3] The work of the Labor Front in this field has also come to the knowledge of a larger public in the United States through the trial of the German American Vocational League (the American branch of the German Labor Front) before the Federal Court at Newark, N. J., from March to May 1944.

and extended in 1938 to the whole working population, was still held in 1943, whereas the model enterprise contest for the highest economic and social performances was last organized in 1942—a proof of the value attributed to the promotion of vocational improvements and the discovery of skills and talents, not to forget the devotion to the Nazi way of life which is a compulsory subject in all contests.

The Labor Front in the Post-War Period

What should be done with the Labor Front after the victory of the United Nations has been repeatedly discussed: whether it should be dissolved, or transformed and utilized in a new form for leading German labor back from Hitlerism to the pursuit of decent aims and honest methods of national and international labor and social policy. The organization has been suggested as one possible means of reconstituting quickly the trade-union movement (under trusted appointees of the occupying forces, including representatives of the international labor movement). Concern has been expressed with regard to the organizational vacuum that would follow the dissolution of the Labor Front. On the strength of an analysis of the present position and activities of the Labor Front, this anxiety is not shared by others who are opposed to the future utilization of this organ of Nazism with its ramifications throughout German life. They warn that an evolutionary transformation and a change in leadership would not be sufficient to prevent an organizational survival of Nazism in the cells of the Labor Front.[4]

This was also the point of view of one of the rare official utterances dealing with this problem—a resolution proposed by the International Labor Office but not adopted by the International Labor Conference in Philadelphia. The resolution recommended that the Labor Front be liquidated without delay, that any legislation or regulations incompatible with freedom of association and its effective exercise be declared invalid immediately, that under the regime of occupation in consultation with a United Nations Labor Commissioner the continuation of such activities of the Labor Front as are of genuine social value be assured, and that the property and funds of the Labor Front (to be held in trust by the Labor Commissioner) be drawn upon for the purpose of assisting the reconstitution of free workers' organizations and other appropriate purposes.[5]

In that resolution there are debatable points with regard to the immediate restoration of freedom of association and other issues. It is not intended, however, to deal in this study with the details of policy in post-war Germany.[6]

[4] For unofficial proposals in this direction, see American Labor Conference on International Affairs, Studies in Post-War Reconstruction No. 3: Germany in the Transition Period, by Hedwig Wachenheim, June 1944 (p. 14). See also The Revival of the German Labor Movement After the War, by Hedwig Wachenheim (in International Post War Problems, New York, June 1944, pp. 371–386); Plan for Reconstruction of German Trade-Union Movement (in Monthly Labor Review, Washington, August 1944, pp. 337–339); Germany After Hitler, by Paul Hagen, New York, 1943 (pp. 127–135); The Next Germany, New York, Penguin Books, 1943 (pp. 45, 68); and the Trade Union Movement in Germany, Past, Present and Future, by Hans Gottfurcht, London, Centre for German Workers in Great Britain, 1944.

[5] International Labor Conference, 26th Session Recommendations to the United Nations for Present and Post-War Social Policy. Report II, Montreal, 1944 (pp. 49–57; 83–84).

[6] The code for occupied Germany established by the Civil Affairs Division of the Allied Expeditionary Forces includes a law (No. 5) providing for the dissolution of the Nazi Party and all its subdivisions, subsidiaries, offices, and institutions. All further activity of these organizations is made illegal, except as necessary to preserve property, funds, records, and equipment (all of these will be taken into custody by the Military Government). The German Labor Front, as an affiliate of the Nazi Party, is subject to these provisions.

Labor Conditions in Denmark[1]

Summary

DENMARK'S economy is based primarily on agriculture. Prior to the war, agriculture accounted for about 35 percent of all gainfully occupied persons, whereas only 27 percent were in manufacturing, mechanical trades, and handicrafts. Unemployment during the 1930's rose to a high point in 1932 but declined gradually thereafter until the outbreak of the war. Since 1933, placements have been generally made through communal public employment exchanges.

Wages are usually fixed by collective bargaining. Average hourly earnings in 1939 varied from 1.29 kroner (about 35 cents)[2] for unskilled workers in the sugar industry in towns and rural areas to 2.63 kroner (about 70 cents) for bricklayers in Copenhagen. Under the Nazis, real wages declined from an index of 106 in 1939 to 87 in 1941. Previous agreements were cancelled and wages were frozen at a reduced level, but certain wage supplements were granted to compensate for the rise in the cost of living. The 8-hour day, with minimum overtime pay of 25 percent above regular wages, was almost universally observed in trade and industry.

The great majority of industrial wage earners and salaried employees were organized into trade-unions. In 1939 there were 68 national and 11 independent unions, the total membership of which had increased 49 percent since 1931. Before the German occupation, collective disputes were settled before the Permanent Arbitration Court. Three regional conciliators were charged with the settlement of disputes within their respective regions. Following the German occupation, strikes were banned and industrial disputes were brought before a Labor and Mediation Board.

The Danish cooperative movement, which ranked among the foremost in the world, was one of great variety. The importance of cooperatives in the economic life of Denmark may be seen from the fact that about 90 percent of the agricultural population belonged to one or more cooperative associations. Under the German occupation, the cooperative organizations (which in other German-occupied countries had generally been liquidated) continued to function, although numerous restrictions and controls were imposed upon them.

Denmark's comprehensive system of social insurance includes sickness insurance, virtually compulsory for persons between 21 and 60 years of age; invalidity insurance, compulsory for members of sickness funds; old-age insurance, entitling Danish citizens over 65 to a pension; unemployment insurance, providing benefits to virtually all workers between 18 and 60 years of age; and workmen's compensation, covering all types of occupations including domestics. No fundamental changes in the existing social-insurance system were made during the period of occupation.

Industrial Background

Denmark, essentially an agricultural country, lacks the natural resources (such as coal and iron) necessary for a high degree of indus-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by John P. Umbach.
[2] Conversions made at rate of krone=26.8 cents. (See footnote 4, p. 950.)

trial development. In the latter part of the last century, when the low ocean freight rates had rendered grain production unprofitable, it was compelled to intensify its agriculture by changing from the production of grain to processed agricultural products. This shift gradually brought about an increased demand from farmers for agricultural supplies and consumer goods, and stimulated the establishment of manufacturing industries. Since Danish agriculture and industry are both based upon the import of essential raw materials, the interdependence of agriculture, industry, and foreign trade became a significant factor in the economy of the country. Denmark's foreign trade, per capita, exceeded that of any other European country, no less than two-thirds of the total exports going to England.

Denmark's success in solving the problems of agriculture and in establishing a prosperous export industry may be attributed partly to economic planning, in which both the Government and the cooperative movement played an important part. Certain planning measures were applied, through boards and committees, to increase production and exercise controls over industrial activity without violating the principles of democratic freedom. Under that system, during the 50 years preceding the present war, national income increased threefold. Denmark's experience in adjusting its economy successfully under changing conditions, while at the same time maintaining a comparatively high standard of living with a high degree of security and freedom, earned for that country the reputation of being an efficient democracy.

Industrial Distribution of Gainfully Employed Persons

The latest published figures on the industrial distribution of the population as a whole are those contained in the Census of 1930 (table 1). Later figures, however, are available for particular industrial groups.

TABLE 1.—*Industrial Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Persons in Denmark, 1930* [1]

Occupational group	Total	Employers and independent workers	Wage earners (including unpaid family workers)	Salaried employees
All groups	1,588,367	485,608	864,190	217,229
Agriculture, forestry, fishing	559,726	212,640	321,941	25,145
Industry and handicrafts	431,422	97,937	299,628	33,857
Transport and communication	91,503	21,591	38,534	31,378
Commerce, banking, and insurance (including hotels)	195,783	66,490	40,023	89,270
Public administration, liberal professions	96,251	49,145	10,438	36,668
Domestic service, miscellaneous occupations	192,342	37,805	153,626	911

[1] Data are from International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942. A more recent report, published by the Danish Department of Statistics in the spring of 1944, showed that industry and handicrafts at that time accounted for 1,285,300 persons or 33.4 percent of the entire population, and agriculture for 27.7 percent.

Regarding the above table, it should be noted that the group, "wage earners," includes unpaid family workers, who were presumably quite numerous in agriculture but not in industry. Wage earners, including unpaid family workers, totaled more than half of the total gainfully employed; self-employed and independent workers were relatively numerous, constituting some 30 percent of the total.

Of the industrial workers, 48 percent were skilled, 18 percent were semiskilled, and 34 percent were unskilled. Of those reported as skilled workers, 31 percent were apprentices.

Manufacturing and mechanical trades.—Of the total number of wage earners occupied in manufacturing and mechanical trades in 1935, the largest proportion (70,165) was in the metal industry. The second largest number of wage earners (56,741) was employed in building, with the number of those engaged in the food industry (49,743) following closely. The numbers of wage earners and of women workers, as well as the total number of gainfully employed, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Gainfully Occupied Persons in Denmark in Manufacturing and Mechanical Trades, 1935* [1]

Industry or trade	Total number of gainfully occupied persons	Wage earners	Women workers
All manufacturing and mechanical industries or trades	459, 775	318, 188	108, 260
Metal	95, 164	70, 165	7, 039
Lumber and woodworking	31, 390	19, 666	1, 655
Paper	5, 719	4, 605	2, 801
Textile	20, 129	16, 770	12, 687
Food, etc	73, 677	49, 743	19, 022
Building	79, 087	56, 741	681
Stone and glass	22, 445	18, 353	1, 866
Clothing	49, 597	34, 791	35, 817
Leather and leather goods	17, 398	9, 179	4, 054
Chemical	26, 983	17, 238	6, 360
Printing, binding, etc	15, 313	10, 651	3, 797
Personal service trades	22, 873	10, 286	12, 481

[1] Data are from Denmark, Statistisk Aarbog (Copenhagen), 1941.

Agriculture.—In 1937 about 77 percent of the total land area was used agriculturally and 9 percent was under forestry cultivation. The remainder was not cultivable. The farms were largely of medium size.

With the increased flow of grain from overseas into the European market, Danish agriculture had turned to the production of meat and dairy products, was importing fertilizer and feed from abroad, and was utilizing its acreage primarily for the growing of feed. Milk, butter, pork, beef, and eggs became the leading products, and a large proportion was exported.

The total number of persons occupied in agriculture in 1939 was 479,973, of whom 100,175 were women and girls. More than half of the number of occupied persons were farm owners or members of their families. Agricultural wage earners numbered 201,165, including 7,964 female workers employed throughout the year. In addition there were 22,317 seasonal workers.

Fisheries.—Denmark's extended coasts with their many inlets and sounds have since early times offered most favorable conditions for sea fishing. However, only during the past 30 to 40 years have fisheries developed into an important national industry. At the end of 1936 the fishing fleet consisted of 15,700 vessels employing 19,261 men, of whom 13,363 were full-time fishermen.

Manufactures.—Although Denmark lacks the industrially important natural resources, such as coal and iron, a number of

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important industries have developed during the last 70 years. By 1935, almost a third of the entire population derived its livelihood from manufacturing and mechanical trade. From 1897 to 1935 the increase in the number of persons engaged in industry was considerably greater than the increase in the total population. In 1935, the largest number of industrial enterprises (19,000) was found in the building industry and the greatest number of workers (95,164) in the metal industry. The greatest number of establishments operating with motor power was in the food industry, one of the most important in the country. Other industries of significance were textile, leather, cement, and china.

Employment Conditions

Following the depression of the early 1930's there was a period of fairly general recovery. This trend of rising employment was marked in certain trades and manufacturing industries, which absorbed workers previously engaged in agriculture and young persons without previous work experience. On the other hand, certain industries continued to show fairly large numbers of unemployed. This was true for certain skilled trades, particularly in the building industry.

The accompanying statement gives indexes of the number of wage earners in industry (exclusive of the construction industry) on the basis of 1931:

	Index[1] *(1931=100)*		*Index*[1] *(1931=100)*
1931	100. 0	1936	131. 5
1932	91. 7	1937	138. 1
1933	102. 9	1938	138. 4
1934	116. 0	1939	151. 1
1935	125. 8		

[1] Data are from International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942.

Wartime employment conditions.—The loss of Great Britain as a market for Danish products, in addition to other disruptions caused by the war, reacted unfavorably upon employment. Soon after the occupation of the country, the Nazis began their attempts to utilize Denmark's surplus labor to help solve their own manpower problems, but were not very successful. To a large extent their failure can be attributed to the steps taken by the Danish Government to spread employment by processing its own resources, thereby achieving as great a degree of independence as possible, and making the reduction in unemployment one of the most effective defenses against the mobilization of labor by the Nazis.

In May 1940, a work-sharing law was adopted, which encouraged voluntary agreements to shorten working hours in every industry. For the losses in earnings workers received compensation equivalent to the unemployment benefit due them for the number of hours lost. By the end of July 1941, the system of sharing work had affected 72,000 workers, and the reduction of hours was equivalent to the employment of about 19,000 workers for 8 hours per day. A Government committee prepared a plan for increasing employment and production. Among its major features were subsidies for new construction and building-repair work, general exemption from property taxes, and reduction in the rates of interest on subsidized buildings. These measures primarily benefited building workers. An act of

April 1941 increased the amount authorized for loans for land-improvement purposes such as drainage, dike building, liming, and the cultivation of heaths and swamps.

These Government efforts to create employment were supported by the municipalities as well as by private organizations.

Unemployment.—Denmark was not seriously affected by unemployment until the period of depression between World Wars I and II; unemployment figures for trade-union members rose to a peak of 99,508, or 31.7 percent of the total membership. Beginning with 1933, the number of unemployed declined until 1936, when it rose again, reaching 97,136 in 1938. The latter figure, however, represented only 21.4 percent of the total trade-union membership.

Attempts by the Government to bring relief included an emergency act of 1933 granting 3,000,000 kroner for "voluntary labor service" of young persons. In 1934, the Government recommended a fairer distribution of available work. It encouraged older workers to retire, raised the age for leaving school, lowered the maximum daily hours of work, and took measures against extra work being undertaken by public employees.

After the occupation of Denmark by Germany in 1940, unemployment figures show considerable fluctuation, primarily as a result of temporary public-works projects undertaken by the Government to overcome some of the effects of the occupation upon the country's economy. Among trade-union members, there were still 117,420 unemployed in January 1942.

Immigration and emigration of workers.—The employment of foreign workers in Denmark was rather limited; the depression following World War I had caused such widespread unemployment that it was thought desirable to protect the domestic labor market.

After the first World War emigration from Denmark to overseas countries was quite small and remained so throughout the period between the two wars. On the other hand, there was considerable emigration to European countries, and this increased annually to a high of 8,820 in 1939, the last peacetime year. The largest proportion of these emigrants went to Germany, the second largest to Sweden.

Following the occupation of Denmark by Germany in the spring of 1940, emigration figures rose to 12,661 in that year. The increase over previous years was the result of the policy of recruiting workers for employment in Germany. In March 1942, more than 30,000 Danish workers had gone to Germany to work. This number had increased to about 35,000 (of whom 5,000 were women) in May 1943. In addition, there were at that time about 10,000 Danish workers employed in Norway.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

A system of public free employment exchanges was established by an act of 1921. It was based upon a network of communal employment exchanges which were recognized, subsidized, and supervised by the State. The municipal employment exchange at Copenhagen exercised the functions of a central employment office for the entire country. Other communal employment exchanges might serve as regional offices for specified sections of the country. The communal employment exchanges were administered by a bipartite commission of employers and workers chosen by the communal councils.

In 1933 fee-charging employment agencies in general were abolished, but exceptions were allowed where the public-employment services were considered inadequate.

Denmark had 30 public-employment offices in 1939. The activities of this system had increased from 336,632 applicants registered and 64,434 placements made in 1929–30 to 1,622,089 and 140,553, respectively, in 1939–40.

Wages and Earnings

With the development of Denmark's trade-unions and employers' associations into single national organizations of employers and employees, respectively, collective bargaining gradually became the, accepted method of fixing wages and working conditions. Usually, contracts and agreements are made on an industry basis and cover all employees in the industry, whether organized or not.

In most of the Danish industries the majority of the workers are engaged at piece work, the rates for which are stipulated in collective agreements. The rates are not uniform within the same trade, but vary according to local conditions and customs. The wage rates for workers in Copenhagen and vicinity differ invariably from those in the same trades in the towns. In some cases workers are engaged at time rates, minimum rates being stipulated in the collective agreements. These rates differ for men and women, and according to the locality. There are many different rates within each industry for special kinds of work under various conditions.

GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

In 1939, average hourly earnings in Denmark varied from 1.29 kroner (34.57 cents in United States currency)[4] for unskilled workers in the sugar industry in towns and rural areas to 2.63 kroner (70.48 cents) for bricklayers in Copenhagen.

During the period following the first World War, wage rates were adjusted on the basis of the fluctuations in the cost of living as shown in the official price indexes. The drop in prices, caused by the world-wide economic depression resulted in a rise of real wages during 1931 and 1933, since wage rates in most industries were no longer determined on the basis of fluctuations in the cost of living. After 1933, however, real wages fell, as a result of a general rise in prices which was not accompanied by a proportionate increase in money wages. The trend of wages and cost of living from 1929 to 1941 are shown in table 3.

[4] Prior to the general currency devaluation of the early 1930's, the par value of the Danish krone was equivalent to 26.8 cents in United States currency. While currency devaluation caused the krone to drop to a low of 19.07 cents in 1933, domestically the purchasing value of the krone remained relatively unaffected. The original par value of 26.8 cents has been used here, therefore, as the equivalent of the krone.

TABLE 3.—*Trend of Wages and Cost of Living in Denmark, 1929–41* [1]

Year	Hourly money wages (in kroner)	Index numbers (1929=100) of—			Year	Hourly money wages (in kroner)	Index numbers (1929=100) of—		
		Money wages	Real wages	Cost of living			Money wages	Real wages	Cost of living
1929	1.28	100	100	100	1936	1.32	103	103	101
1930	1.31	102	107	96	1937	1.35	105	102	104
1931	1.31	102	114	90	1938	1.42	111	105	106
1932	1.31	102	114	90	1939	1.47	115	106	109
1933	1.31	102	111	92	1940	1.62	127	91	135
1934	1.32	103	107	96	1941	1.75	137	87	157
1935	1.33	104	105	99					

[1] Data are from International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942.

WAGES DURING THE WAR

In the fall of 1939 an agreement was reached between the Danish Federation of Labor and the Danish Employers' Association whereby workers were to be compensated for the increased cost of living. This basic agreement became effective in November 1939, and provided for full coverage of all increases in the cost of living beyond the retail index of 183, which was based on prices in 1914. After the occupation of the country in April 1940, the newly formed coalition Government cancelled previous wage agreements between employers and employees, and in particular, the general agreement of November 1939. It also reduced existing wages by 7 percent.

In January 1941, when the cost-of-living index had risen 42 percent above the 1939 index, the Government agreed to a minor increase in wages in the form of the so-called "bread bonus," to cover the increase in the cost of bread.

In February 1944, an agreement was reached by the Labor and Arbitration Board, granting the following bonus supplements to compensate for further increases in the cost of living: 5 øre [5] per hour for male workers over 18 years of age, 3¼ øre per hour for women workers over 18 years of age, and 2 øre per hour for workers under 18 years of age. The total cost-of-living bonus amounted to 50.15 øre per hour for male workers over 23 years of age, 45.15 øre for male workers over 18, 32.20 øre for women workers over 23, 29.20 øre for women workers over 18, and 18.15 øre for all workers under 18.

The trend in wages and cost of living during the war is given below.

	Index numbers (July 1939=100) of—		
	Money wages	*Real wages*	*Cost-of-living*
July 1939	100	100	100
January 1940	111	100	111
July 1940	111	87	127
January 1941	114	80	142
July 1941	121	81	150
January 1942	124	80	152
July 1942	124	80	155
January 1943	124	79	156
July 1943	128	83	155

[5] An øre is one-hundredth of a krone.

WAGES IN COPENHAGEN, BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION, 1939 AND 1941

Table 4 shows average hourly earnings in various industries and occupations in Copenhagen for 1939 and 1941. During both years earnings were highest for bricklayers and joiners. In all occupations there was a considerable increase in earnings from 1939 to 1941.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings in Copenhagen, by Occupation and Sex, 1939 and 1941* [1]

Industry and occupation	1939	1941	Industry and occupation	1939	1941
Male workers	*Kroner*	*Kroner*	*Female workers*	*Kroner*	*Kroner*
Smiths and engineers	1.88	2.22	Metal industry	0.98	1.22
Electricians	1.84	2.12	Ceramics industry	1.13	1.40
Unskilled laborers	1.51	1.83	Brush industry	.91	1.16
Ceramic industry (unskilled)	1.49	1.85	Paper-box industry	.96	1.17
Bricklayers	2.62	2.78	Printing	.98	1.20
Cement workers	1.89	2.14	Bookbinding	1.04	1.28
Joiners	2.08	2.42	Textiles	1.02	1.32
Cabinetmakers	1.78	2.09	Seamstresses	.85	1.07
Paper industry	1.40	1.72	Shoemaking	1.00	1.23
Typographers	1.83	2.16	Tanneries	1.14	1.43
Textile workers	1.52	1.95	Oil mills	.91	1.08
Shoemakers	1.72	2.07	Breweries	1.16	1.37
Tanneries (unskilled)	1.86	2.27	Chocolate industry	.80	1.03
Paint and varnish industry (unskilled)	1.33	1.68	Cigar industry (skilled)	1.37	1.66
Bakers	1.60	1.92	Cigar industry (unskilled)	1.24	1.44
Breweries (unskilled)	1.56	1.88	Laundries	.81	1.04
Cigar industry (skilled)	1.58	1.96			
Conductors and drivers	1.62	1.83			
Warehousemen	1.34	1.67			

[1] Data are from International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942.

DEDUCTIONS FROM WAGES

No deductions are made directly from wages for taxes or contributions to social insurance, although nearly all incomes are taxed and various contributions have to be paid out of the income of the Danish worker.

Wage earners do not contribute towards workmen's compensation or old-age pensions, the expenditures for which are covered by the employers or by general taxation. Workers are required, however, to insure against sickness, in State-authorized and State-supported sick-benefit societies, at a rate of 3.00 to 7.00 kroner a month, and, against invalidity resulting from sickness at a rate of 6.00 kroner annually. Organized workers also had to contribute toward unemployment insurance.

Hours of Labor, and Overtime

Prior to the invasion of Denmark by Germany, the 8-hour day, with a 48-hour week, was almost universal in trade and industry. There were some industries in which the week ranged from 44½ to 46 hours. The 8-hour day was not observed, however, in agriculture and shipping, with the exception of the marine engine rooms, where it has been in force for some years.

Although hours of work were generally regulated by collective agreements, in some cases overtime was regulated by statute. An act was passed in 1937 prohibiting overtime for all wage earners employed in industrial and commercial establishments, transportation,

and hotels and restaurants. Certain exceptions were authorized and such overtime had to be offset by corresponding rest periods and paid for at the increased rates provided for in the collective agreement.

Where overtime was permitted, the following schedules of payment were required:

	Percent paid above regular rate
First hour	25
Second hour	30–33⅓
Third hour	50
Fourth hour	70–80
Thereafter	100

On Sundays and holidays the rate for overtime was time and a half until noon, and thereafter double time.

Vacations With Pay

In the collective agreements of 1931, 1 week's vacation with pay was granted to the workers in some trades. By later agreements this privilege was extended to most of the trades.

A law providing for paid vacations was adopted in April 1938, covering all persons employed in public or private employment (including agricultural workers and seamen) with certain exceptions. All workers to whom the act applies are entitled to 1 day's vacation with pay for each month of service in the establishment, with proportionate allowances for shorter periods. Every person entitled to a vacation must receive as vacation pay a sum equal to 4 percent of the wages received during the period for which the vacation is due, not including special allowances for overtime.

A statistical survey concerning vacations with pay in Denmark in 1938 showed that prior to the adoption of the national law some two-thirds of 348,000 workers covered were entitled to a paid vacation. The vacation was 6 days for 174,000 of these workers, and 36,000 received longer periods. Salaried employees generally received 12 days' vacation.

Administrative Agencies for Labor

Prior to the German occupation all laws pertaining to labor and social welfare were administered by the Ministry of Social Affairs. Attached to the Ministry was the Office for the Supervision of Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, the Permanent Arbitration Court, and the Government Conciliators for Industrial Disputes. Locally, the public employment exchanges, or certain subsidiary authorities charged with specific functions, had jurisdiction in the administration of labor affairs. The various social-insurance funds were responsible for the administration of their respective insurance systems.

Following the occupation of Denmark by Germany in April 1940, few changes in labor administration occurred prior to 1942, when the functions of the Ministry of Social Affairs were divided and two separate Ministries (one for Labor and one for Social Affairs) were established. The new Ministry of Labor retained jurisdiction over such phases of labor as employment, arbitration, protection, and mi-

gration. The Ministry of Social Affairs was charged with the administration of social insurance and legislation pertaining to the regulation of apprenticeship, vacations, and matters concerning salaried employees and casual workers.

Labor agencies, created since the occupation, included the Board for Piece-Work Rates, which regulated the rates for piece work under public contracts. Another board was charged with spreading employment and otherwise relieving the economic distress of workers caused by the war. A special board dealing with employment of young persons was created in November 1940. A new labor and conciliation board was established in September 1940.

Labor Organizations

Labor organizations prior to German occupation.—In 1939, 525,469 workers were organized in trade-unions, representing approximately a third of all gainfully occupied persons. This group included a comparatively large proportion of unskilled and female workers. In recent years white-collar workers employed in commerce and trade were organized into a large union, and various groups of public and private employees formed their own organizations.

Only a few of the Danish national unions were industrial in scope, the majority being on a craft basis.

There were 68 national unions affiliated with the Confederation of Trade-Unions in 1939, while 11 were unaffiliated. The largest union was the General Workers' Federation with 180,000 members, including unskilled workers in factories, transportation, agriculture, and other occupations.

The Confederation of Trade-Unions was affiliated with the International Federation of Trade-Unions, and practically all of the national unions belonged to their respective trade internationals. The growth of trade-union organization from 1931 to 1939 is shown in the following tabulation.

	Members
1931	353, 752
1935	436, 989
1939	525, 469

The establishment of trade-unions was followed by the organization of employers' associations. The central organization, the Danish Employers' Association (*Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening*), included almost all branches of industry and trade. In 1937, the members of the association employed about 175,000 workers.

The Government and labor unions.—Trade-unions were represented in the Employment Committee, an advisory body dealing with questions of employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, and in the Advisory Labor Committee in the Ministry of Labor, which studied the means of combating unemployment. Other advisory bodies were the Labor Council, which dealt with questions of labor inspection, and the Social Welfare Council, which was responsible in questions of social welfare. Both the Government and the trade-unions were represented in these bodies.

The Workers' Insurance Council, on which the trade-unions were also represented, had power of decision in disputes concerning workmen's compensation for industrial accidents.

Close relations were maintained between the Danish Confederation of Trade-Unions and the Labor Party. Each was represented on the executive council of the other.

Changes under German occupation.—After Denmark's occupation by Germany in April 1940, the labor organizations concentrated on saving what they could within the conditions forced upon them by the occupation. Special importance was attached to the German promise not to interfere in Denmark's internal affairs, and the Government and the trade-unions were on their guard against any kind of encroachment.

Industrial Relations

After a long period of gradual but steady growth, collective bargaining in Denmark, even well before the present war, had become the generally accepted method of determining conditions of employment, and the large majority of Danish workers, including those in agriculture, were covered by collective agreements.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

As a rule, collective disputes arising out of the breach of collective agreements were brought before the Permanent Arbitration Court, while disputes concerning the interpretation of collective agreements were dealt with by the conciliation procedure specified in these agreements.

According to the Conciliation Act of 1934, which is still in force, three regional conciliators were appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs upon the recommendation of the Permanent Arbitration Court. In case of a threat of work stoppage, the Conciliator in whose region the dispute occurs may convene the parties for negotiation and make a proposal for conciliation. If the Conciliator considers it advisable, he may submit a draft settlement, the form and substance of which must be discussed with the representatives of each of the parties. The latter may accept or reject the draft settlement. In case the efforts of the State Conciliator fail to effect conciliation, a compulsory arbitration board for the settlement of the particular dispute may be created through special emergency legislation.

Following the German occupation, a law was passed in September 1940, banning strikes and requiring labor disputes to be settled by a tripartite Labor and Mediation Board consisting of nine members, three of whom are elected from the national organizations of employers and workers, respectively, and three by the Government.

Permanent Arbitration Court.—The Permanent Arbitration Court (also called the Central Labor Court) was composed of 6 members and 16 substitutes, elected in equal numbers by the Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Trade-Unions, respectively, and serving for 2-year terms.

The Court was competent to deal with disputes involving any breach of a collective agreement between a workers' organization and an employers' association or an individual employer. It also passed upon the legality of strikes and lockouts which were in violation of a collective agreement, an arbitration award, or a previous decision of the Labor Court. Other disputes between employers and workers could be submitted to the Court provided it consented to deal with

them. The awards of the Court were binding and their enforcement was subject to the rules which governed the execution of the judgments of regular courts.

From the time of its establishment (in 1910) until 1935, the Court dealt with a total of 2,185 cases, resulting in 1,018 (46.6 percent) awards.

Local conciliation boards.—The greater part of the disputes which arise are settled by local conciliation boards and courts of arbitration, which have acquired great importance throughout the country and have lightened the work of the Permanent Arbitration Court.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

The "September Agreement" of 1899 provided that a strike or lockout had to be decided on by a three-fourths majority in the general meeting of the organization concerned. Sympathetic strikes and lockouts were permitted and recognized. Strikes and lockouts for political purposes were virtually unknown. The penalty for violations of the restrictions on strikes and lockouts, usually decided on by the civil courts, consisted of the payment of damages and fines.

In the decade 1930–39, the largest number of strikes and lockouts (38) and also the largest number of workers involved (10,816) occurred in 1934.

Cooperative Movement

About 90 percent of the population living on Denmark's 206,000 farms belonged to one or more cooperative associations. In the production of seed, artificial manures, feeding stuffs, cement, cattle and poultry for domestic and foreign use, Danish cooperatives were world models. Danish cooperative dairies handled approximately 95 percent of all Danish milk, and about one-third of the butter exports throughout the world came from Danish cooperatives. In 1935, the cooperative associations of that country handled the following proportions of the totals of various Danish goods exported: Eggs, 25.1 percent; cattle 39.1 percent; butter, 47.1 percent; and bacon, 84 percent.

Though the Danish consumers' cooperative associations did not receive as much attention outside Denmark as did the agricultural associations, they had become almost as widely organized. In 1935 the 1,835 consumers' cooperatives with their 319,000 members represented almost 10 percent of the country's population—a proportion exceeded only in Great Britain, Finland, and Switzerland. Including family members, however, one-third of the Danish people were in some way associated with consumers' cooperatives.

Centralized purchasing for the cooperatives was carried on by the Union and Wholesale of Danish Distributive Associations (known from the initials of its name in Danish as "F. D. B."). In 1934 the affiliated associations bought 89 percent of their supplies from the wholesale, and by 1937 the proportion had reached 91 percent.

The Danish cooperative associations formed so integral a part of the national economic life, when the Germans occupied Denmark in April 1940, that their machinery and services appear to have been maintained practically intact.

Social Insurance

Denmark's present system of social insurance is based on three main acts which were passed as part of the "social reform" of 1933, replacing and simplifying more than 50 laws or legislative provisions in existence at that time. These three acts provide benefits in case of sickness, unemployment, and industrial accidents, and pensions in case of invalidity and old age.

SICKNESS INSURANCE

Denmark's earliest legislation for sickness insurance was adopted in 1892, when a general reform of social legislation was undertaken. The scheme in force until 1933, based on an act of 1915 and subsequent amendments, was replaced by the sickness-insurance provisions in the consolidated People's Insurance Act which went into effect October 1, 1933.

The act authorizes membership in a recognized sick fund by Danish citizens between the ages of 14 and 60 years whose income and property do not exceed certain limits fixed every 3 years by the Minister of Social Affairs. Between 1933 and 1936, the income limit was 4,200 kroner for Copenhagen, while the property limit for persons with dependents was 14,000 kroner. Persons whose income or property exceeds these limits may either transfer to the fund's section for persons "with means" or join a State-inspected sick-benefit society. Danish citizens between 21 and 60 years of age who are not full members of a recognized sickness fund or full or contributing members of a sick-benefit society, are required to become contributing members of a recognized sickness fund, provided they satisfy the health requirements; they are thus usually insured against invalidity and acquire the right to a noncontributory old-age pension.

While children under 15 years of age are usually insured if their parents belong to a sickness fund, an insured man's wife must join separately in order to acquire the right to benefit.

The full members of the State-recognized sickness funds, which are the principal insurance institutions, are entitled to a State subsidy. The funds are self-governing institutions, managed by a committee elected by the members. A State Director of Sickness Funds is entrusted with the supervision of the funds. The sick-benefit societies are also self-governing and supervised by the State, but have no State subsidy.

The expenses of recognized sickness funds are met partly out of State and communal subsidies. The contributions of full members serve to cover the remaining expenses. Full members of the sections for persons "with means" pay the regular contribution and a supplementary contribution of not less than the State subsidy received for each member "without means." For each member "without means" the annual State subsidies amount to 2.00 kroner, one-fourth of the medical expenses, and certain daily allowances. The State also refunds three-eighths of the total expenses for members suffering from bodily infirmity or chronic disease. The charges to full members for treatment in State hospitals are greatly reduced.

Communal subsidies include three-eighths of the total expenses for members suffering from bodily infirmity or chronic disease and free conveyance of sick members to and from doctors and hospitals.

Contributing members of sickness funds and sick-benefit societies pay 2.00 kroner a year up to the age of 25 and 2.50 kroner thereafter.

Benefits are paid, in the case of accident, from the date of occurrence; in the case of sickness, after 6 weeks' membership; and in maternity cases, after 10 months' membership. Cash benefit is granted only in case of sickness of not less than 4 days' duration and is limited to a period of 26 weeks in 12 consecutive months.

Insured persons (and their children under 15 years of age) are entitled to free medical attendance, hospital treatment, and attendance by a midwife. In addition, most funds pay for half the cost of medicines and two-thirds of the cost of dressings, spectacles, artificial limbs, etc.

Cash benefits are allowed up to four-fifths of the average daily earnings, but not less than 0.40 krone or more than 6.00 kroner. For persons suffering from physical or mental infirmity, the maximum benefit is 3.00 kroner per day, and for persons receiving an invalidity or old-age pension, 1.00 krone per day. Persons receiving their full pay during sickness are not entitled to cash benefit.

In 1934, there were in Denmark 1,622 sickness funds and 17 sick-benefit societies. The number of full members of sickness funds was about 80 percent of the population over 15 years of age.

INVALIDITY INSURANCE

Insurance against invalidity is provided for in the People's Insurance Act of May 1933 and is compulsory for all full and contributing members of recognized sickness funds and sick-benefit societies, provided that, when admitted to sickness insurance, they are not suffering from an incurable disease or serious infirmity. Persons with such disabilities may be admitted to invalidity insurance only if the Director of Sickness Funds decides that the person in question is able to contribute substantially to his maintenance. The liability to invalidity insurance applies to the whole population between 21 and 60 years of age, provided certain health conditions are satisfied.

The financial resources of the invalidity-insurance system are administered by the Invalidity Insurance Fund. The invalidity pensions are disbursed through the communal authorities. The Invalidity Insurance Court decides whether an applicant's earning capacity has been reduced to a degree which entitles him to an invalidity pension.

The annual contribution for persons between 18 and 21 years of age is 6.00 kroner; for those over 21 it is 7.20 kroner. Employers, required to insure their workers against industrial accidents, must pay to the invalidity insurance system 6.00 kroner annually for each of their workers. A certain part of the cost of administration and insurance is met by the State. The communes must contribute one-seventh of the invalidity pensions paid, in addition to providing medical attendance, treatment, and other necessary care.

When an insured person's earning capacity falls below one-third of his customary earning power, he is entitled to an invalidity pension. Upon reaching the age of 65, an invalidity pensioner's benefits are replaced by an old-age pension, calculated at the same rates. Invalidity pensions vary (according to locality and marital status) from 510 to 1,266 kroner per year.

Approximately 2,200,000 persons were insured against invalidity on December 31, 1934. The number of invalidity pensioners at that time was 29,500.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS

The present old-age pension system, based on the People's Insurance Act of May 1933, provides that every Danish citizen is entitled to an old-age pension at the age of 65 years without making special contributions, if certain conditions are fulfilled. In special cases the pension may be granted at the age of 60, if this is considered desirable for reasons of health or other circumstances.

The right to a pension is subject to the condition that the means of a beneficiary do not exceed certain limits. Beyond these limits the deductions from pensions are the same as those made from invalidity pensions.

Decisions as to whether the conditions for obtaining a pension have been fulfilled are rendered by the social committee of the commune of residence, which is also responsible for paying the pensions.

Of the total amount of the pension awarded, one-seventh is paid by the commune of residence, two-sevenths are distributed among the communes of the country, and the remaining four-sevenths are paid by the State.

The annual pensions paid vary from 432 to 1,086 kroner.

These rates vary to a certain extent with the cost-of-living index. Pensioners with children under 15 years of age are entitled to bonuses at the same rate as those fixed for invalidity pensions. Pensioners in need of assistance in case of sickness normally obtain this from the sickness funds.

The number of old-age pensions in March 1935 amounted to 107,500. There were 135,000 beneficiaries, and 7,000 pensioners resided in homes for the aged.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

A system of voluntary unemployment insurance, based on the act of May 1933, was put in operation October 1, 1933. The insurance is open to both manual and nonmanual workers in industry, commerce, transportation, agriculture, and other branches of economic life, who are not disqualified for physical or moral reasons. Admission is limited to workers between 18 and 60 years of age whose property does not exceed 5,000 kroner for single persons or 10,000 kroner for those with dependents.

The central administration is entrusted to the Director of Unemployment Insurance under the Ministry of Social Affairs. Locally, the insurance is administered by State-recognized unemployment funds, generally organized by trade-unions. A fund must have a minimum of 100 members in order to obtain State recognition. The recognized unemployment funds may establish continuation funds for the purpose of paying benefit in periods of depression to members who have exhausted their right to benefit under the rules. A National Unemployment Fund, made up of employers' contributions and State subsidies, grants annual subsidies to the continuation funds and subsidizes relief works and courses of training for the unemployed. It may also grant loans to the unemployment funds in times of severe unemployment.

The contributions of insured persons are fixed on the basis of experience and anticipated needs, and vary considerably from fund to fund. In addition, contributions have to be paid to the continuation funds, generally not less than 20 percent of the contribution paid to the unemployment fund.

Employers contribute to the National Unemployment Fund at the rate of 4.50 kroner annually for each worker employed. For apprentices and agricultural and forestry workers the rate is 2.00 kroner.

The State subsidies to the unemployment funds vary from 15 percent of the insured person's contributions in the highest-paid occupations to 90 percent in the lowest-paid groups. The continuation funds receive a State subsidy at the same rate as the unemployment funds. They also receive a subsidy from the National Unemployment Fund equal to half the total amount paid in benefits. The communes are required to refund to the State one-third of its subsidies to both unemployment and continuation funds.

An insured person is entitled to benefit only after he has belonged to a fund for 12 months. He also must have been employed for at least 10 months a year during the 2 years preceding unemployment. Benefits are granted only in the event of involuntary unemployment. In the case of strikes, lockouts, sickness, or invalidity, no benefits are payable during the first 6 days of unemployment.

The benefits paid by the funds include daily allowances and traveling and removal grants. The cash allowance per day may not exceed two-thirds of the average earnings in the occupation of the insured person, or 4.00 kroner for persons with dependents and 3.00 kroner for single persons. These maximum amounts are adjusted every year to the cost-of-living index. Each fund determines the maximum days of benefit, but they must not be less than 70 in any 12 consecutive months. Most funds grant a special bonus for the Christmas holiday. The rates of benefit paid by the continuation funds are the same as those established for the unemployment funds.

In March 1935, there were 70 unemployment funds and continuation funds, with 3,368 local branches and a total membership of 389,951.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The legal basis for workmen's compensation is the act of May 1933 which covers all occupations, including domestic service, and is compulsory. Temporary domestic service not exceeding 240 hours in a calendar year is excepted. Any employer may insure himself and wife, provided his income does not exceed certain limits.

The workmen's compensation institutions are the State-recognized employers' mutual-insurance societies and Danish or foreign insurance companies. The State, the communes, and, in exceptional cases, private enterprises may carry their own insurance. Persons employed at sea must be insured with the Shipowners' Mutual Insurance Society or the Mutual Insurance Society of the Fishing Industry. The system is administered by the Accident Insurance Directorate under the Ministry of Social Affairs. The Directorate's decisions are open to appeal to the Accident Insurance Council.

The State contributes two-fifths of the insurance premiums payable by an employer for the benefit of his workers and himself, provided his annual earnings do not exceed 2,400 kroner in Copenhagen, 2,100

kroner in towns, and 1,800 kroner in rural communes. The cost of the central administration is also paid for by the State, while all other cost of the insurance proper is borne by employers.

Workmen's compensation covers occupational accidents and diseases not due to serious fault or willful misconduct on the part of the workers.

The insurance institution supplies dressings, artificial limbs, spectacles, invalid chairs, and other aids. In case of temporary incapacity a daily allowance equal to two-thirds of the injured person's daily wage (not to exceed 4.75 kroner) is payable for the time of incapacity. This benefit becomes payable, for full members of sickness funds only, 13 weeks (for contributing members 14 weeks) after the accident. In case of permanent and total incapacity a life annuity equal to three-fifths of the annual wage is payable, and a proportionate fraction if the incapacity is partial. If the loss of working capacity is less than 50 percent, the annuity is converted into a lump sum. No compensation is granted for incapacity of less than 5 percent. The maximum annual wage on which compensation may be based is fixed at 2,100 kroner. In case of death a lump sum is payable to the widow equal to 3.6 times the annual earnings of the deceased. A lump sum amounting to 1.35 times the annual wage is payable to each dependent child. In the case of children who have lost both parents the lump sum is 2.7 times the annual earnings. The total compensation for a fatal accident may not exceed 6.3 times the annual earnings of the deceased. The funeral benefits amount to 180 kroner.

The number of persons covered by compulsory workmen's compensation insurance in 1932 was 621,665. There were 15,955 persons insured under voluntary insurance.

Employment Conditions

Employment and Productivity in Anthracite Mining, 1942–43 [1]

ANTHRACITE production was increased to 60,643,620 tons in 1943 from 60,327,729 tons in 1942, in spite of a reduction in the average labor force to 79,153 men from the 1942 average of 82,121. During the year, the average number of days worked rose to 270, an increase of 31. Man-day output declined to 2.78 tons, from 2.95 tons; however, output per man per year increased to 751 tons, from 705 tons in 1942. Except for a slight rise in machine loading, the tonnage mined by mechanical means declined. Employment, output, and productivity statistics are shown in the accompanying table for 1942 and 1943.

Employment, Output, and Productivity in Anthracite Mines, 1942 and 1943

Item	1942	1943
Production.....net tons	60,327,729	60,643,620
Average number of days worked	239	270
Average number of men employed	82,121	79,153
Average output per man per day.....net tons	2.95	2.78
Average output per man per year.....do	705	751
Quantity cut by machine.....do	2,285,640	1,624,883
Quantity mined by stripping.....do	9,070,933	8,989,387
Quantity loaded by machine underground.....do	14,741,459	14,745,793

Labor Conscription for Road Work in Ecuador [2]

ALL males in Ecuador between the ages of 21 and 50 were made subject to conscription for road work in their respective Cantons by an Executive decree of June 15, 1944, and the Road Conscription Law which became effective August 1, 1944. Of a total population of 3,095,078 persons, 1,183,119 are reported as in the age group affected. The decree exempted from conscription workers in factories and mines and active members of the army and police force, and permitted those not contributing their services on the roads to pay the amount of the prevailing daily wage for 8 days of work. It was apparent that the law would operate as a monetary tax in urban Cantons, such as that of Quito, and that the road work would be done mainly by day laborers, agricultural workers, and mechanics not employed in factories or mines.

[1] United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines. Pennsylvania Anthracite, 1943, Washington, 1944. (Mineral Market Report, M. M. S. No. 1215.)

[2] Data are from decree of June 15, 1944 (No. 76); reports of Howard H. Tewksbury, commercial attaché, United States Embassy, Quito, Ecuador, June 19 (No. 1700) and June 27 (No. 1729), 1944; and report of E. Allen Fidel, economic analyst, United States Embassy, Quito, July 24 (No. 1865), 1944.

In order to expedite the road work, plots of land adjoining the highways were to be provided, for shelters and for cultivation. A decree of July 18, 1944, authorized the Ministry of Public Works to expropriate for this purpose, without compensation to the owners, one-half hectare[3] of land in each 5 kilometers of road.

Recent Labor Developments in Uruguay[4]

RECENT labor developments in Uruguay include (1) the establishment of wage boards, (2) the formation of family-allowance funds, (3) the enactment and proposal of a number of labor laws, and (4) progress in the administration of social security.

Wages and Working Conditions

Wage boards to determine minimum wage rates in the various industries were provided for by a law of November 12, 1943.[5] By the end of the following August, 35 such boards or salary councils had been requested, 18 had been constituted, and wage awards had been made in the cases of streetcar and bus workers in Montevideo and of employees of the brick kilns. An investigation of the financial condition of the streetcar company indicated that no permanent increases could be made above the current rates, which were estimated to average $67.20 monthly. The award provided, however, that the "temporary" wage increase of 5 centésimos per hour, which had been in force since July 1943, was to be continued as long as "present conditions" lasted. Adult workers of the brick-kiln industry were granted a minimum daily wage of 2.80 pesos[6] on August 8, 1944. This was an increase of 50 centésimos per day for many of the workers.

A law of June 6, 1944, provided for wage increases in commercial (as distinct from industrial) firms, and for regulation of the discharge of certain persons employed by them. Pending decisions by the pertinent wage boards, the pay of salaried employees and wage earners as of May 1, 1944, is to be raised in accordance with the following scale:

Monthly wage or salary—	*Amount of increase*
Not over 50.00 pesos	20 percent.
50.01 to 70.00 pesos	10 percent.
70.01 to 150.00 pesos	5 percent.
150.01 to 166.00 pesos	To 166.00 pesos.

In computing the pay upon which the increases are to be based, housing, commissions, tips, meals, and other perquisites are to be included.

The law also stipulates that salaried employees and wage earners hired by commercial houses and subsequently discharged for causes

[3] A hectare=2.471 acres.

[4] Data are from report by John T. Fishburn, senior economic analyst, United States Embassy, Montevideo, Uruguay, September 18, 1944; Diario Oficial de la Republica Oriental del Uruguay, Montevideo, Uruguay, July 24, 1944 (No. 11340).

[5] See Labor Conditions in Latin America, No. 17, January–March 1944 (Serial No. R. 1638); and Monthly Labor Review, February 1944 (p. 406).

[6] Average exchange rate of peso in 1943 and to August 1944=52.9 cents (uncontrolled) or 65.8 cents (controlled).

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other than bad conduct are entitled to dismissal compensation. This indemnity is to equal a month's pay for each year of service up to 3, if the individual is entitled to a retirement benefit, or up to 6, if the person is not eligible for such benefit.

Pay increases provided for in the measure of June 6 were made retroactive to May 1, by a law of June 16; and an act of August 11 extended the increases and dismissal benefits to salaried employees and wage earners of banks and other similar institutions.

Any employer who violates the act is to be fined, for his first offense, 20 pesos for each worker affected, and for subsequent violations 30 pesos.

Another statute of August 11 extended to the workers of bakeries, gas and water companies of Montevideo, and to certain other affiliated activities, 2 weeks' annual vacation with pay.

Legislation proposed by the President during the summer of 1944 included measures to increase the number of apprentices by compelling all employers to admit a certain number to their enterprises, to establish a labor exchange for Montevideo port workers, and to provide marriage and child allowances for the needy.

Social Security

During July, 1944, the Retirement Institute (*Instituto de Jubilaciones*) began registering the workers for the notebooks which are to be used to indicate their eligibility for retirement payments. Stamps to be affixed to the notebooks are to show payments to the fund by both employee and employer. It is hoped that this system will provide the necessary funds for the payment of pensions as they come due.

Family-allowance funds were provided for in the law of November 12, 1943[7]. Nineteen private-company funds had been approved by the end of the summer of 1944, and the National Labor Institute and Associated Services (to which all employers must report at least once a year) anticipated that 5 large funds, each governing 1 entire segment of commercial life, would soon be established.

Nearly all private funds thus far created make provision, pursuant to the requirements of the law, for the monthly payment of 6 pesos per child for all children under 14 (or under 16 if attending school) to families with monthly income of 200 pesos or less. One of the funds will pay 7 pesos monthly per child, one will pay 8 pesos, and another will pay 6 pesos plus an allowance of 40 pesos for each birth. All such funds have been approved since July 21, 1944.

[7] See p. 944 of this issue.

Reconversion Plans to Mitigate Unemployment

GOVERNMENT agencies directly concerned with reconversion problems are synchronizing their programs for a return to civilian production when Germany surrenders. The status of some of those programs, and some recommendations as to future action, were covered in a report to the President from the Director of War Mobilization on September 9, 1944.[1]

Criteria for Selection of Cutbacks

With the defeat of Germany, the requirements of the procurement agencies for material and supplies will be reduced by approximately 40 percent. According to the Director of War Mobilization, however, the need will still remain to give full protection to the necessary war programs for the conduct of hostilities against Japan, but in so doing, every opportunity is to be provided to permit the resumption of maximum civilian production without delay, thus preventing extended unemployment.

Procurement agencies confronted with the necessity for these major readjustments have prepared special procurement programs for the continuing war with Japan, which are ready for implementation immediately upon the defeat of Germany. These agencies are now engaged in notifying prime contractors of their tentative plans under policies prescribed by the War Production Board. Moreover, the proposed contractual changes in major items have been, or are in process of being, submitted to the WPB for review and for the consideration of such changes as in the interests of the national economy may appear desirable.

The Director reported that in the selection of facilities for the second phase of the war—

(*a*) The procuring agency will retain until final victory those contractors which it has found from experience to be capable of producing required items of desirable quality at the desired scheduled rates. The contractors retained in war production until the end of the war must be the best qualified, and all other rules of selection are applicable only among those so qualified. No contractor, however, will be disqualified simply because he is a small contractor.

(*b*) As between qualified contractors, the following factors will be considered in selecting facilities to accomplish the necessary readjustment and curtailment of production:

1. Privately owned plants, not normally engaged in production of a military character, will be given first priority of release from war production in order to facilitate their reconversion to civilian production, due consideration being given to the wishes of the contractors.

[1] Director of War Mobilization, Press release, September 8, 1944.

2. Government-owned plants will be kept in operation or reserve until their production is clearly no longer required for military needs. This is subject to modification in the case of a plant located in an isolated section with no opportunity for displaced workers where the exercise of wise administrative discretion may prompt other action.

3. Insofar as practicable, the release to civilian production of competing units of the same industry should be simultaneous.

4. In scheduling the release of plants and industries, due consideration is to be given to cushioning the shock of unemployment.

5. In scheduling the release of plants or industries, due consideration is to be given to (a) security considerations; (b) considerations affecting public transportation, such as accessibility to the sources of labor, raw materials, components, depots or storage facilities, and ultimate destination; (c) the relative unit cost to the Government; (d) the welfare of smaller business.

6. Where practical considerations make it possible, companies responsible for the development and engineering of specialized products will be retained in their manufacture in preference to those companies which are merely licensed for their manufacture.

Modification of Wartime Controls

The Director of War Mobilization stated that there will be some time lag between the curtailment and cancellation of war contracts and the resumption of large civilian production. The length of that period may be lessened, however, by the promptness with which wartime restraints are removed. Therefore, to insure the utmost speed in reconversion and to permit the prompt resumption of civilian production at least equal to the civilian production of the United States in 1939, controls now in existence will be released or modified to the fullest extent possible, to permit manufacturers freedom in planning for the resumption of civilian production and in ordering materials and components which will assure maximum speed. The Controlled Materials Plan will no longer be required, provided industry as a whole continues to recognize the importance of war and essential civilian production and the necessity for the protection of small business.

Existing controls will be relaxed immediately after the defeat of Germany and the following controls will be substituted:

(*a*) The establishment of a new military-preference rating to be assigned to the war procurement programs of the War Department, Navy Department, Maritime Commission, War Shipping Administration, and military Lend-Lease. Contractors will be required to accept orders in this rating band and to fill these orders in preference to any other orders.

(*b*) The establishment of a new civilian production-preference rating band subordinate to the military rating, but superior to all other ratings, to be used only if necessary to protect the more essential civilian programs. It is not anticipated that this rating band will be necessary and it will be used only in the event programs in this category fail to meet schedules.

(*c*) The new rating structure will be placed in effect immediately following the defeat of Germany. It will automatically assign the new ratings to the prime contractors of the designated programs and these prime contractors will be directed to extend the ratings to their suppliers. After an appropriate period has elapsed to permit a rerating and rescheduling of orders, all other outstanding preference ratings will become void.

(*d*) The Priority Regulations now in effect will be amended to conform to these changes.

(e) The Controlled Materials Plan will be revoked immediately after the defeat of Germany, except that it will remain in effect for steel and copper during the remainder of the quarter in which the revocation is issued. In effect, orders under the Controlled Materials Plan become priority orders; however, suppliers will be permitted to receive and fill all orders placed after the defeat of Germany to the extent made possible by the cancellation of orders which they then hold under the Controlled Materials Plan.

(*f*) L and M Orders [2] will be revoked, except for a few selected orders which must be retained as a mechanism for programming items which will continue in short supply, such as tires, batteries, motors, lumber, and some textiles and chemicals.

(*g*) The War Production Board will retain the authority which it now has to continue or to institute controlled mechanisms to cope with individual production and procurement problems, to include the authority to issue individual directives to manufacturers or suppliers to produce or deliver a product or products to a designated purpose. This will permit the War Production Board to take appropriate action to prevent or to correct hardship cases.

Steps to Aid Employment During Reconversion

In his report to the President, the Director of War Mobilization stated that the effectiveness of any plans for the transition from war production to peace production will depend upon our ability to provide jobs for the workers who will be displaced by the reduction in war production. It is inevitable that in some particular industries and in some communities there should temporarily be reduced employment. This is more likely to occur where the curtailment is in Government-owned plants engaged entirely in war production and having no plans for civilian production.

In order to meet this situation, the Director announced he had appointed a committee consisting of representatives of the War Production Board, the War Manpower Commission, the Defense Plant Corporation, and the Surplus War Property Administration, whose objective is to ascertain whether or not the contractor will exercise his option to buy or lease the plants. If he is not interested, then the Committee, having determined to what uses the plant can be put, will inquire whether local capital or some corporation or individual is interested in purchasing or leasing the plant—subject, of course, to the policies prescribed by law. The primary purpose is to help the manpower situation. The presence of a representative of the War Manpower Commission on this Committee will enable that agency to know what progress is being made in arranging for the operation of these plants. If such operation does not seem probable, the Manpower Commission, in advance, can make plans to secure jobs for the workers when their employment is terminated.

After the defeat of Germany, manpower controls will be abandoned in order to facilitate the transfer of workers from the curtailed war programs to civilian production. If, however, manpower for war production should fall below the needs to meet the schedules established for the war against Japan, that situation would necessitate a prompt restoration of controls.

The Director of War Mobilization made other recommendations with respect to the manpower situation after the defeat of Germany. He recommended unemployment compensation at a stated percentage of the worker's previous wages, or $20, whichever is lower, for a period as long as 26 weeks. He likewise proposed a return to the 40-hour workweek "except to take care of production necessary to the war effort." He also suggested that large public works be undertaken in communities where there is unemployment, and that the Federal Government time its expenditures of funds for road construction and work projects to relieve unemployment.

[2] "L orders" are the limitation orders, and "M orders" are the conservation orders, of the War Production Board. (Ed.)

Germany's Total Mobilization Measures[1]

INFORMATION received from various trustworthy sources concerning Germany's recent combing-out efforts to release additional manpower for service in the armed forces, indicates the desperate position of the Nazi regime. Previous efforts to increase Germany's war manpower resulted in a rise in total industrial employment from 22 million in 1941 to an estimated maximum of 32 million in 1944. It has been estimated that the latter number included 12 to 15 million foreign workers recruited from the occupied countries. The remaining 17 to 20 million German workers included 5,500,000 juveniles of both sexes, 14 and 15 years of age, and a substantial proportion of women and aged and pensioned workers, employees, and officials, recalled in the emergency to resume their former jobs.

Following the attempt on Hitler's life, in July of this year, new and more drastic measures for total mobilization were decreed. In agreement with Goebbels, who was made the Reich Trustee for Total Mobilization, a decree concerning persons in "sham" employment was issued by Fritz Sauckel, Commissioner for Manpower. The decree applies to those persons subject to labor conscription, who complied with the regulations by using relatives or other contacts to obtain merely nominal employment. All such contracts were ordered to be terminated by August 15th and the persons concerned were to report to their labor-exchange office to be placed in essential work.

A further order issued by Sauckel advanced the age limit for the compulsory registration of women for war work from 45 to 50 years. A number of new measures to mobilize German labor, issued by Goebbels, extended considerably the restrictions in various spheres of public life. All theaters, music halls, and cabarets were ordered to be closed by September first. All theatrical schools as well as private lessons in acting, singing, and dancing were ordered suspended. Circus enterprises were to be closed down except for a few needed for the maintenance of valuable animals. Orchestras and schools of music, with the exception of a few leading orchestras required for radio programs, were to discontinue their activities. All enterprises in the field of fine arts, such as art exhibits, contests, and art schools were ordered closed. The publishing of fictional and similar literature was suspended. Only scientific and technical literature, armament, and school books as well as certain political works were retained.

The daily press was further curtailed and many mergers were effected. With the exception of a few leading papers, the size of the daily newspapers was restricted to four pages and their publication to six times weekly. Most of the illustrated weeklies were suspended.

The welfare work carried on by the Strength through Joy organization was discontinued, and the entertainment of the troops at the front was limited to movies and radio programs.

A comprehensive program for the curtailment and partial closing down of many educational institutions was announced by the Reich Minister for Education. Numerous trade schools not serving purposes of importance to the war effort, such as commercial and home-economics schools, were closed. At the universities, far-reaching

[1] Data are from Foreign Broadcast Intelligence Service of the Federal Communications Commission, releases of Foreign News Bureau of Office of War Information, current issues of Voelkischer Beobachter and Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, News Digest (London), and New York Times (all issues of August and September 1944).

restrictions were ordered which were expected to make available for employment in war industries several tens of thousands of male and female students studying subjects not of direct importance to the war.

Working hours in public administration and offices in industry and trade were fixed uniformly at a minimum of 60 hours per week. A general ban on all holidays and vacations was ordered. For the entire State and administrative apparatus, an intensive rationalization program to save manpower, including a substantial curtailment of postal and railway services, was announced. All of these measures were expected to release more workers for employment in armanent production or, if qualified, for service in the armed forces. All foreign domestic servants were to be employed in armament plants. Of the Germans still working as domestic servants, part were to be sent to factories and part to households with many children.

The Nazi Minister of State in the occupied Czechoslovak territories of Bohemia and Moravia announced the application in the so-called "Protectorate" of the same total mobilization measures decreed in Germany to release additional manpower for war production and the armed forces.

Additional measures for total war were announced by Goebbels in September. School-age children not receiving education because of evacuation of their schools were to be called up for war work. Those equivalent to American high-school seniors who were not already in war work because of health or other reasons were to be employed as leaders in evacuated children's camps.

A decree concerning the simplification of the internal revenue organization, issued by the Reich Minister of Finance, aimed to release a large number of revenue employees and to simplify the tasks of the taxpayers by eliminating numerous forms and processes in accounting and related business spheres. The decree provides that taxpayers will be assessed for the income tax for 1944–45 at the same rate as in 1943. Only in the case of incomes over 12,000 reichsmarks a year and substantial changes in income or changes in the number of dependents will new assessments be made. As a result of this measure, 87 percent of all persons liable to taxation were expected to be relieved of the filing of income-tax returns. The same simplification applied to corporation taxes, and assessments for property tax and the national defense contributions were discontinued. Duplication of work involved in the taxation of certain wages and salaries owing to tax withholding and income assessment was eliminated through an adjustment of the withholding-tax schedule. After October 1, 1944, payments for overtime and in lieu of leave were to be calculated on an average basis.

The communal authorities' practice of informing each other of the registration of births and deaths was discontinued. An order of the Reich Minister of Economics divided all commercial firms into two categories—those essential to the war effort (and thus entitled to retain a part of their manpower) and nonessential enterprises which may be "combed out" entirely. To the latter group belong shops dealing in toys, flowers, perfumes, jewelry, stamps, rugs, sports goods, furs, and musical instruments.

The functions of the Reich Commissioner for Price Control were so greatly restricted that price control has virtually come to an end in Germany. Existing prices are to be continued and all requests for

price increases are to be rejected without investigation. Exceptions may be made only in cases of decisive importance to the war effort.

To the list of professional activities ordered banned were added those of architects, painters, sculptors, graphic artists, advertising draftsmen, designers, art dealers, art publishers, and art periodical dealers. With the exception of a small number of creative artists whose activities contribute substantially to the war effort, all persons in the above group were to report to their local labor office for transfer to other employment in the armament industry.

Provision for Flexibility in New Zealand Wage Stabilization[1]

THE New Zealand Court of Arbitration has been granted general power to deal with applications for variations in wages and conditions of employment, while still having regard for the general purpose of wage-stabilization regulations. Under an amendment (No. 4, June 16, 1944) to the Economic Stabilization Emergency Regulations of 1942, the Court is not required to take into account, in future wage adjustments, any fluctuations in the cost of living. However, the provision of the 1942 regulations remains effective, prohibiting a general wage increase unless the wartime price index rises by 5 percent (2½ percent in the first instance).

The purpose of the amendment, according to the Minister in Charge of Stabilization, was to find a more effective means of removing injustices to individual workers or groups of workers under the arrangements previously existing. When the original regulations were promulgated, the Minister explained, although it was not anticipated that they would bear on everyone with equal fairness, prompt action was necessary in the critical situation. The wage structure could not be made rigid without setting up stresses and strains, but an attempt was being made to restore flexibility by the amendment within the limits of the stabilization policy. The Government did not regard the change as a weakening of this policy but rather as a means of making stabilization fit more easily into the country's wartime economy.

In February the Government amended the stabilization regulations to permit the Court of Arbitration to grant wage relief to lower-paid workers [2] by restoring to it the power to deal with applications for weekly increases up to £NZ 5 5s.[3] for adult male workers and up to £NZ 3 for adult female workers. This amendment did not prove satisfactory, the Minister in Charge of Stabilization stated, citing as reasons (1) the difficulties caused by the rigidity of the fixed figures; and (2) the provision that any movement toward those fixed amounts should not be deemed to create an anomaly, although in fact it did so. After considering alternative measures for aiding lower-paid workers, the Government decided that the best solution was to bring the Court of Arbitration more actively into the stabilization process and therefore took the action described above.

[1] Data are from reports by Basil D. Dahl and Carl E. Christopherson, United States Legation, Wellington, 1944 (Nos. 170 and 211).
[2] See Monthly Labor Review, April 1944 (p. 860).
[3] Average exchange rate of New Zealand pound (20 shillings) in 1943=$3.24.

Discharged Soldiers

Plans for Demobilization and Assimilation of Servicemen [1]

AS THE European phase of World War II approaches its end, agencies of the Federal Government are formulating programs covering various aspects of the demobilization of the armed forces. Those announced thus far cover order of demobilization, apprenticeship training, and the industrial assimilation of servicemen.

Order of Demobilization of the Armed Forces

Army plans for the readjustment of military personnel after the defeat of Germany and before the defeat of Japan were announced on September 6, 1944. The program calls for a partial and orderly demobilization of the Army from its present peak strength. According to the announcement, military necessity requires that a sufficient number of men suited to the type of warfare being waged in the Pacific must remain in service as long as they are essential. Certain units of the Army also will have to be retained in the various regions of war where action has ceased in order to fulfill such occupation duties as are necessary. Other elements, no longer needed in the region to which they were assigned, will be transferred to other areas, reorganized, and redesignated to meet current military requirements; or they will be placed on an inactive basis.

The first step of readjustment will be that of transfer to the Pacific war zone of servicemen from the United States or of surplus personnel from war theaters no longer active. All available transportation will be utilized for this.

The plan for the return of nonessential soldiers to civilian life will start with the assembly in the United States of men declared surplus to the needs of each overseas theater and to the major commands in the United States. From among these men a substantial number will be designated as not essential to the new military needs of the Army and will be returned to civilian life according to certain priorities.

This partial demobilization is to be effected through the selection of men as individuals, rather than by units, and the selection will be governed by thoroughly impartial standards. The standards were drawn up on the basis of the views of the soldiers themselves. Thousands of soldiers, both in this country and overseas, were interviewed to learn the kind of selective process they favored for determining the order of return to civilian life.

[1] Data are from War Department, Press release, September 6, 1944, and War Manpower Commission Press releases, September 13, 1944 (PM 4673), September 26, 1944 (PM 4681), and September 27, 1944 (PM 4682).

The plan finally worked out will allow men who have been overseas and men with dependent children to have priority of separation. Ninety percent of the soldiers interviewed expressed the belief that preference should be given to these classes.

An "Adjusted Service Rating Card" will be issued after the defeat of Germany to all enlisted personnel. On this card will be scored the following four factors, which will determine priority of separation: (1) Service credit, based upon the total number of months of Army service since September 16, 1940; (2) overseas credit, based upon the number of months of service overseas; (3) combat credit, based upon the first and each additional award to the individual of the Medal of Honor, Distinguished Service Cross, Legion of Merit, Silver Star, Distinguished Flying Cross, Soldier's Medal, Bronze Star Medal, Air Medal, Purple Heart, and Bronze Service Stars (battle-participation stars); and (4) parenthood credit, which gives credit for each dependent child under 18 years up to a limit of three children. The values of the point credits will be announced after the cessation of hostilities in Europe.

Employment of Veterans

Relaxation of manpower controls for veterans.—On September 27, 1944, all manpower controls were lifted for veterans of the present war, in order to speed their reemployment and to remove all employment obstacles to their return to civilian life.

Veterans of the present war will not be required to present a statement of availability in order to change jobs, and they may be hired by any employer without referral by the U. S. Employment Service or other authorized referral channels and without regard to employment ceilings. However, they will be counted against an established employment ceiling unless the applicable local employment-stabilization program provides for their exemption. Any veteran who seeks employment through the USES will be entitled to a referral to any job of his choice, without regard to its essentiality or priority status.

"Veterans of the present war" are defined as those who have served in the armed forces of the United States subsequent to December 7, 1941, and have other than dishonorable discharges. The term "armed forces" includes the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Coast Guard, Naval Reserve, National Naval Volunteers, Women's Army Corps, Women's Reserve of the U. S. Naval Reserve, Women's Reserve of the Coast Guard Reserve, and the United States Marine Corps Women's Reserve.

Assimilation of disabled veterans into industry.—American industry, in a joint program with the War Manpower Commission, is preparing to assimilate wounded veterans into jobs. The plan is known as WMC's Selective Placement program for the employment of handicapped veterans. At present, 2,000 employers in 4 leading States are analyzing almost 2,000,000 jobs, with a view to measuring their physical demands with the capacities of disabled veterans.

Jobs are to be analyzed in relation to the 27 activities that have been established as covering the whole field of jobs—for example, walking, handling, fingering, lifting, reaching, seeing, hearing, etc. Most jobs actually require only a few of these activities. If the physical appraisal of the man shows that he can perform these, he is considered as fit as

any able-bodied man for the job. The system is very different from the guesswork method used after the last war, being based upon not what the veteran cannot do, but what he can do.

This program was introduced to industry through employer institutes consisting of groups of employers, representatives of personnel and medical departments, and shop foremen meeting in designated plants for training sessions on selective placement. Classes watched job-matching demonstrations at plant machines, often with a disabled veteran giving the demonstration.

Courses were also given, under the tutelage of WMC occupational specialists, at the University of Michigan (with the Automotive Council for War Production cooperating), the Detroit Institute of Technology, Michigan State College, University of Connecticut, University of California, and the University of Southern California.

In California, the movement has been backed by the Merchants and Manufacturers Association. In Connecticut, Selective Service has collaborated. Support has been given by the Veterans Administration, State rehabilitation agencies, the medical profession, churches, schools, businessmen's organizations, and social agencies.

Apprentice-Training Program

Demobilized service men and women will have opportunities to learn trades under a program that will accompany reconversion after the defeat of Germany. The trades that such persons may enter through apprenticeship will be chiefly in the metalworking and construction industries. Approximately 120 apprenticeable occupations are now on the approved list of the Apprentice Training Service of the War Manpower Commission.

In determining the plan to be followed with respect to ex-servicemen, representatives of management and labor in 20 States laid down the following principles that should apply:

1. For the purpose of apprenticeship selection, the veteran's age should be considered to be the same as when he entered the armed forces.
2. Consideration should be given to veterans with physical disability to the extent that the veteran is able to do the work required in a given trade.
3. Credit should be given for previous training or applicable experience, based on practical tests.
4. Consideration should be given to the veteran's maturity in determining credits, since in the training of the veteran there does not usually exist the problem of "maturing" the individual as well as developing craftsmanship ability.
5. If credit is allowed the veteran, upon entering employment as an apprentice he should be paid the wage rate applicable to the level for which he is qualified.

Partial-Demobilization Plan in Great Britain

MEMBERS of Great Britain's armed forces are to be released primarily on the basis of age combined with length of service, in the period after European hostilities end and before the close of the Pacific phase

of the war. In the White Paper issued during September 1944 describing the Government's plan,[1] the scheme is stated to be one of reallocation of manpower; general demobilization, both of the military services and of war industry, will be postponed until completion of the war with the Axis powers. The problem is described as one of reallocating manpower between the armed forces and industry, to provide for the requirements of the changed situation. Compulsory recruitment of men for military service is to continue, in order to permit those with long service to return home. The requisite control over industry and labor is to be maintained during the interim. A substantial movement from the armed forces to civilian employment is foreseen. It will be governed by military requirements and will be contingent on the making of arrangements for release that will be accepted as fair by the forces and that are not too complicated for practical application.

For the purposes of the plan those permitted to leave the services are to be divided into two classes. Class A is to consist of persons having priority in age and length of service, and class B of those needed for certain urgent reconstruction work. Release on "compassionate grounds" will continue under existing arrangements. No man is to be released (class A) or transferred (class B) from the forces if military considerations make it necessary to keep him. Every effort will be made to release servicemen in their turn, in whatever theater of war they may be serving. However, those due for release or transfer will be given an opportunity to volunteer for a further period of service. Arrangements as described will apply to women in the services as well as to men. Married women will have priority over all others, if they so desire.

Releases in Class A

Releases in class A will be by groups based on a combination of age and length of war service. In general, war service consists of the whole time spent in the armed forces subsequent to September 3, 1939, which counts for service pay. Two months' service will be given the same weight as 1 additional year of age. Thus, a man aged 22 years, having 4 years of service (24 two-month periods) would have a total of 46 combination years, and would be in the same release group as a man of 40 having 1 year's service (6 two-month periods). An exception is to be made of men aged 50 years and over, who may be released in advance of others, if they so desire. Release will necessarily proceed at different rates in different services; some services will have to deal separately with several branches, and possibly with the trades and ranks (or ratings) of those branches.

Transfers in Class B

To be transferred from the military to civilian employment, men in class B must belong to particular occupational classes specified by the Minister of Labor and National Service as being required for the performance of certain urgent reconstruction employments. The chief need for their services will be to supplement the labor force in building construction. Class B will also include a limited number of individual specialists, application for whose services may be made through Gov-

[1] Great Britain, British Information Services, Press release I. D. 552.

ernment departments in accordance with existing arrangements. As far as possible, class B transfers will be based on age and length of war service. Transfers in class B will be small in proportion to releases in class A, and will not begin until after class A releases have started. Young men who have been deferred previously, particularly in munitions work, will be called up to compensate for class A and class B men withdrawn from military service. The volume of transference in class B will be determined periodically on the basis of (1) the immediate employment needs for reconstruction; and (2) the extent to which those requirements will be met by releases in class A and by transfer from munitions and other work in Great Britain.

Distinction in Treatment of Classes

Under the Government's scheme, a marked distinction is made between men released in their turn (class A) and those transferred out of turn (class B). On release, class A servicemen are entitled to 8 weeks of leave, with pay and other allowances, as against 3 weeks for class B; men in class A are not subject to direction to reconstruction employments as are those in class B, and they are to be recalled to military duty only in extreme emergency, whereas persons in class B are liable to recall individually if they discontinue their reconstruction employments.

Class A members may exercise their rights to reinstatement in employment when released. If they have no jobs to which to return, they will be assisted by the employment exchanges in finding work.

Class B men will preserve their reinstatement rights through their direction to reconstruction employments. Although they will not be required to transfer to class B against their wishes, once accepting such transfer they may not subsequently become eligible to apply for inclusion in class A.

Men to be discharged on medical grounds will receive the same benefits as men released in class A.

In addition to the service-leave payments made to class A men to assist in their resettlement, or granted to transferees in class B, the Government intends to introduce a system of war gratuities payable to servicemen as a reward for service. Pensions for disablement, when found to be due, begin on the date when service pay and allowances cease. An allotment of civilian clothing is made on release or transfer, to those who have had 6 months' service (a money payment and clothing coupons being substituted in the case of women).

Leave Privileges

Differing provisions have existed in the Army, Navy, and Air Force, as to leave for foreign service. To provide approximate equality, men in the Navy are to continue to have 7 days of leave for each 6 months of foreign service, to be granted at the end of each tour. The Army and Air Force men, who have had little foreign-service leave, are to have all their foreign service totaled, receiving 1 day for each completed month, subject to a minimum of 6 months' foreign service.

Industrial Injuries and Diseases

Lead Poisoning in 1943 and Earlier Years

By FREDERICK L. HOFFMAN

CASES of lead poisoning in industry and elsewhere, in the United States, showed a steady decline from 2.64 per million population in 1916 to 0.52 per million in 1941 and 0.53 in 1942. The number of deaths from lead poising declined from 132 in 1936 to 71 in 1942, and preliminary returns indicate a further drop in 1943.[1] This decrease has occurred in spite of the fact that the use of lead in lead-processing industries has increased considerably in recent years.[2] Unfortunately, it is not possible to state exactly the number of deaths from occupational lead poisoning in American industry since the official returns do not differentiate (as is customary in many foreign countries, particularly in England and Wales) between these and the nonoccupational fatalities from such poisoning.

In table 1 are shown, by years (1901–42), the number of deaths from lead poisoning and the rate per 1,000,000 population. It should be noted that only since 1936 have complete returns for the whole country been available.

TABLE 1.—*Number and Rate of Deaths from Lead Poisoning in Registration States*[1] *of Continental United States, 1910–42*

Year	Number	Rate per million of estimated population	Year	Number	Rate per million of estimated population	Year	Number	Rate per million of estimated population
1901	44	2.17	1915	143	2.31	1929	133	1.15
1902	58	2.81	1916	177	2.64	1930	101	.86
1903	61	2.91	1917	139	1.97	1931	110	.93
1904	50	2.34	1918	122	1.54	1932	75	.63
1905	47	2.15	1919	144	1.73	1933	117	.93
1906	84	2.48	1920	119	1.38	1934	118	.93
1907	65	1.88	1921	138	1.57	1935	130	1.02
1908	77	1.99	1922	136	1.46	1936	132	1.03
1909	79	1.78	1923	138	1.42	1937	77	.59
1910	118	2.48	1924	140	1.40	1938	94	.72
1911	132	2.44	1925	141	1.38	1939	97	.74
1912	131	2.38	1926	143	1.37	1940[2]	100	.75
1913	142	2.44	1927	135	1.26	1941	70	.52
1914	137	2.24	1928	125	1.10	1942	71	.53

[1] Registration States are those requiring the reporting of births and deaths.
[2] Based on enumerated population as of April 1, 1940.

Geographical Distribution of Lead Poisoning

Deaths from lead poisoning occurred in 28 States in 1941 and in 22 States in 1942, the States omitted being those in which no deaths

[1] For data for earlier years, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1938 (p. 420).
[2] The amount of refined lead produced increased from 497,303 short tons in 1937 to 584,421 short tons in 1941, according to figures of the U. S. Bureau of Mines.

occurred in either one of the 2 years (table 2). In 1941 the largest number of deaths from lead poisoning in any State was in Pennsylvania, with 10 deaths; in 1942 the largest number (10) occurred in the State of New York, and there were 7 deaths each in Ohio and Pennsylvania. These small numbers are a clear indication of the fact that lead poisoning in fatal form is now a comparatively rare occurrence, even in the States in which lead processing is done on a large scale.

TABLE 2.—*Deaths From Lead Poisoning, by States, in 1941 and 1942, as Shown by Census Returns*

State	1941	1942	State	1941	1942	State	1941	1942
All States	70	72	Kentucky	0	1	Ohio	5	7
			Louisiana	1	0	Oklahoma	1	3
Alabama	2	0	Maine	1	0	Oregon	1	0
Arkansas	1	0	Maryland	3	6	Pennsylvania	10	7
California	4	4	Massachusetts	2	4	Tennessee	1	0
District of Columbia	1	0	Michigan	1	0	Texas	1	4
Florida	2	2	Minnesota	2	1	Utah	1	0
Georgia	6	0	Mississippi	0	2	Virginia	2	2
Illinois	4	3	Missouri	5	0	Washington	0	4
Indiana	2	2	Nebraska	0	2	West Virginia	1	0
Iowa	1	1	New Jersey	3	3	Wisconsin	0	2
Kansas	1	1	New York	5	10	Wyoming	0	1

Supplementary information for 1942 and 1943, furnished by State Boards of Health, is shown in table 3 for 37 States. From these preliminary returns it appears that the annual number of deaths from lead poisoning declined from 62 in 1942 to 47 in 1943.[3] The most remarkable reduction in deaths took place in the State of New York—from 11 to 4; of these, New York City accounted for 8 in 1942 and 1 in 1943, the latter being the death of an infant 2 months of age.

TABLE 3.—*Deaths from Lead Poisoning, 1942 and 1943, as Shown by Returns from State Boards of Health* [1]

State	1942	1943	State	1942	1943	State	1942	1943
All States reporting	62	47	Maine	0	1	Oregon	0	0
			Massachusetts	4	6	Virginia	2	0
Arkansas	0	0	Minnesota	1	0	Vermont	0	0
California	7	5	Mississippi	2	1	West Virginia	0	1
District of Columbia	0	0	Montana	0	0	Utah	0	0
Delaware	0	0	Nevada	0	0	South Carolina	0	1
Florida	1	0	New Hampshire	0	2	South Dakota	0	0
Georgia	0	0	New Mexico	0	1	Tennessee	0	0
Indiana	3	0	North Dakota	0	0	Texas	4	3
Iowa	0	0	Nebraska	3	1	Washington	1	2
Kansas	2	0	New Jersey	3	0	Wisconsin	1	1
Kentucky	1	2	New York [2]	11	4	Wyoming	1	0
			North Carolina	0	1	Pennsylvania	7	6
			Ohio	8	9			

[1] Subject to slight correction after the Census Office returns of 1943 are available (not before the end of 1944).

[2] Of these, New York City accounted for 8 in 1942 and 1 in 1943.

[3] No satisfactory explanation for the discrepancies in the statistics of deaths from lead poisoning as furnished by the Bureau of the Census and the State divisions of vital statistics is apparent, except that the difference is probably due to the final determination as to the primary cause of death.

Occupational Distribution of Deaths From Lead Poisoning

The available statistics do not make it possible to state with absolute accuracy the number of deaths properly chargeable to lead industries and otherwise. Table 4, compiled from information supplied by the division of vital statistics of the various State boards of health, shows fatalities reported as having been caused by lead poisoning, 1939–42.

TABLE 4.—*Fatalities from Lead Poisoning, 1939–42, by Occupational, etc., Classification*

Class	Number of deaths in—			
	1939	1940	1941	1942
All classes	42	72	46	56
Painters	13	31	15	23
Miscellaneous occupations	15	17	17	23
Persons under 15 years of age	13	22	13	8
Women	1	2	1	2

Of the 216 deaths from lead poisoning reported in the 4-year period, 73 were those of painters. Although nearly all of these were complicated by other diseases (possibly of primary importance), it is almost universally the practice to attribute the death to lead poisoning if there is even slight evidence of connection with lead or lead-using industries.

Tabulations of deaths from lead poisoning in miscellaneous occupations show a surprisingly small number of deaths among workers in the lead-processing industries. The relatively large number of employments in which exposure to lead is only incidental is suggestive of amateur painting and an unrecognized exposure to lead hazards. Confirmation of this is indicated by Census returns showing that in 1940, of 100 deaths from lead poisoning, only 48 were occupational and 52 were nonoccupational—illustrating the immense progress which has been made in industrial hygiene as applied to lead-using industries. All the larger lead-processing plants are equipped with dust-prevention devices and other means of reducing the lead hazard to a minimum. In addition, factory employees in the lead-using industries are subject to medical examination upon entry and at regular intervals thereafter.

Industrial Injuries, June 1944

IN THE first 6 months of 1944 there was an average of 19.3[1] disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked in manufacturing, as compared with an average of 20.6[1] for the corresponding period of 1943. This 6.3-percent reduction in the injury-frequency rate is reflected in the estimates of the total number of injuries experienced by manufacturing workers. In actual numbers it is estimated that approximately 377,000 factory workers were disabled by industrial injuries in the first half of this year. Nearly 1,500 of these workers died as a result of their injuries, and over 15,000 will

[1] Unweighted.

have to contend with some form of physical impairment for the rest of their lives. In comparison, the estimated volume of disabling injuries in manufacturing during the first half of 1943 was 387,000. Disregarding the continuing economic losses arising from the deaths and permanent impairments, it is estimated that the direct loss in manpower because of injuries in manufacturing amounted to 7,540,000 man-days of productive effort in the first 6 months of 1944, as compared with 7,740,000 man-days in the first half of 1943.

Among the 91 manufacturing industries for which data are available, there were 11 which had cumulative injury-frequency rates of less than 10 for the first half of 1944. It is highly significant that this group includes a number of the most important war industries. The low-rate industries and their 6-month frequency rates, arranged in the order of their rates were women's clothing, 5.5; explosives, 5.6; rayon and allied products (chemical), 6.2; small-arms ammunition, 6.3; cement, 8.7; radios and phonographs, 8.8; soap and glycerin, 9.0; sighting and fire-control equipment, 9.1; aircraft, 9.6; iron and steel, 9.6; and petroleum refining, 9.9.

On the other hand there were eight manufacturing industries which had cumulative frequency rates of over 40 for the first half of 1944. These were miscellaneous lumber products, 40.2; foundries, iron and steel, 42.7; planing mills, 45.3; boatbuilding 45.3; sheet-metal work, 49.4; plate fabrication and boiler-shop products, 52.1; wooden containers, 54.1; and sawmills, 55.1.

In terms of frequency rates, the June record for all manufacturing remained unchanged from that of May. In both months the unweighted injury-frequency rate was 19.8 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked. Despite the lack of change in the total frequency rate, however, there were considerably more reductions in the frequency rates of individual industries than there were increases. Seventeen of the industry frequency rates were at least 5 points lower in June than they had been in May, and 25 others were down at least a full frequency-rate point. On the other hand, increases of 5 or more points were recorded for only 7 industries, and only 20 had increases of 1 to 5 points. For 13 industries the June frequency rates were the lowest monthly rates thus far recorded in 1944, and for 13 others the June rates were higher than those of any previous months.

June reports were received from 12,294 manufacturing establishments. The reporting plants employed 6,844,000 workers, or nearly 43 percent of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' estimate of total manufacturing employment during the month. On the basis of these reports, which listed a total of 27,038 disabling injuries for the month, it is estimated that 64,000 employees of manufacturing plants were disabled by work injuries during June. Using an average of 20 days of lost time for each disabling injury, the direct loss to industry because of these injuries may be estimated as 1,280,000 man-days of production, which is equivalent to full-time employment for the month for over 49,000 workers.

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Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates [1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, June 1944, with Cumulative Rates for 1944

Industry	June 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate [3]	1944: January–June cumulative [3]	1943: 12-month cumulative [4]
Agricultural machinery and tractors	53	24.1	22.6	18.9
Aircraft	58	9.9	9.6	9.7
Aircraft parts	277	14.7	12.3	14.6
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over	339	28.0	25.2	24.8
Ammunition, small-arms	17	5.3	6.3	16.0
Baking	8	23.4	17.0	[5]
Boatbuilding	20	28.4	45.3	[5]
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	31	26.5	30.0	[5]
Book and job printing	43	11.1	11.8	[5]
Boots and shoes, other than rubber	300	14.4	15.1	14.0
Canning and preserving	53	25.2	22.6	19.4
Cement	88	9.4	8.7	8.7
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified	73	8.2	12.5	[5]
Chemicals, industrial	344	16.5	15.7	18.3
Clothing, men's	520	9.5	11.2	8.5
Clothing, women's	387	6.6	5.5	5.4
Commercial and household machines	56	17.5	18.8	[5]
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	120	39.1	37.1	[5]
Confectionery	8	17.5	16.6	[5]
Construction and mining machinery	112	27.1	28.5	31.8
Cotton goods	212	15.6	14.8	16.0
Cutlery and edge tools	30	26.8	27.2	24.1
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	82	19.3	19.8	22.2
Dyeing and finishing	54	23.8	24.6	[5]
Electrical equipment and supplies	565	11.0	11.1	11.1
Engines and turbines	57	11.9	12.1	18.3
Explosives	81	6.2	5.6	11.9
Fabricated structural steel	108	36.6	34.9	33.0
Flour, feed, and grain-mill products	8	25.1	24.1	[5]
Food products, not elsewhere classified	32	28.4	23.3	[5]
Food-products machinery	27	28.6	32.2	34.5
Forgings, iron and steel	133	36.3	34.5	39.9
Foundries, iron and steel	542	44.1	42.7	42.1
Furniture, except metal	68	27.7	30.0	28.1
General industrial machinery	653	23.6	23.5	24.3
Glass	46	15.3	18.2	17.9
Guns and related equipment	94	18.8	18.5	17.6
Hardware	40	15.5	19.0	24.3
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	58	24.1	30.5	34.2
Iron and steel	208	9.8	9.6	9.8
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified	317	29.2	26.7	[5]
Knit goods	83	12.9	10.9	[5]
Leather	25	29.1	28.5	[5]
Leather products, not elsewhere classified	27	23.4	23.2	[5]
Machine shops, general	203	27.2	28.1	26.2
Metalworking machinery	660	17.7	17.7	18.9
Miscellaneous lumber products, not elsewhere classified	40	40.6	40.2	[5]
Miscellaneous manufacturing	380	14.3	16.5	[5]
Motor vehicles	106	15.4	12.7	12.4
Motor-vehicle parts	60	31.6	26.7	25.5
Nonferrous-metal products	580	28.2	26.2	23.7
Ordnance and accessories, not elsewhere classified	36	36.9	24.7	[5]
Paints and varnishes	74	16.0	19.6	20.2
Paper	201	32.3	29.6	31.7
Paper boxes and containers	416	25.9	25.4	26.7
Paper products, not elsewhere classified	20	24.8	19.3	[5]
Paper and pulp (integrated)	84	26.7	26.4	26.4
Petroleum refining	123	11.7	9.9	[5]
Planing mills	51	52.5	45.3	53.8
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products	97	48.3	52.1	44.0
Plumber's supplies	24	16.0	16.8	18.2
Pottery	38	16.9	18.4	[5]
Radios and phonographs	181	9.2	8.8	7.6

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates[1] *for Selected Manufacturing Industries, June 1944, with Cumulative Rates for 1944*—Continued

Industry [2]	June 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate [3]	1944: January–June cumulative	1943: 12-month cumulative [4]
Railroad equipment	42	24.8	22.1	20.5
Rayon and allied products (chemical)	23	6.0	6.2	7.8
Rubber boots and shoes	15	9.7	15.5	(5)
Rubber and rubber products, not elsewhere classified	94	19.5	19.2	(5)
Rubber tires	31	17.1	13.6	13.7
Sawmills	46	58.2	55.1	62.4
Screws and screw-machine products	53	28.3	28.4	(5)
Sheet-metal work	42	39.5	49.4	(5)
Shipbuilding	263	25.3	25.0	28.7
Sighting and fire-control equipment	37	11.0	9.1	6.6
Silk and rayon products, not elsewhere classified	51	12.0	14.3	(5)
Slaughtering and meat packing	270	42.7	33.4	35.7
Small arms	52	18.0	13.7	11.5
Smelting and refining (nonferrous)	62	25.2	23.7	28.5
Soap and glycerin	11	11.6	9.0	8.5
Special industry machinery, not elsewhere classified	88	24.2	23.6	22.7
Stamped and pressed metal products	243	32.8	31.1	31.1
Steam fittings and apparatus	52	21.6	25.9	33.6
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified	80	19.4	13.8	(5)
Tanks	10	15.9	12.6	12.6
Tank parts	57	24.9	25.4	18.3
Textile machinery	11	12.1	28.8	(5)
Textile and textile-mill products, not elsewhere classified	182	18.9	19.4	(5)
Tin cans and other tinware	24	15.4	18.4	18.3
Tools, except edge tools	65	19.0	26.7	25.5
Wire and wire products	160	23.3	22.7	21.7
Wooden containers	59	53.1	54.1	(5)
Woolen goods	163	17.8	18.9	(5)

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

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

[3] Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.

[4] Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months. Preliminary rates for the year; subject to revision on basis of the more comprehensive annual survey.

[5] Not available.

Social Security

Mid-War Developments in Civilian Family Allowances[1]

Summary

THE wartime world-wide rise in the cost of living and the measures taken by various individual nations to stabilize wages have forced to the economic forefront the question of family allowances. These supplements to the remuneration of wage earners and salaried workers, to offset variations in family responsibilities, have been granted in one form or another by private employers, States, or municipalities in at least 39 countries.

Among the most recent developments in the family-allowance movement is the passage of new family-allowance acts, in 1944, in Canada and Eire. Mid-war reports on the operation of legislation are available for other parts of the British Empire—Australia and New Zealand. In the fall of 1944 the British Government's social-insurance program, based largely on the Beveridge Report, was released as White Papers on Social Insurance (Cmd. 6550 and 6551). The scheme includes a provision for family allowances, although the cash benefits are not so generous as those proposed in the Beveridge Plan. New laws on family allowances or amending acts extending the coverage of existing schemes have been reported in 1943–44 for several South American countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay), as well as for Portugal and Spain. An edict, issued in 1944 by the Supreme Soviet of the U. S. S. R., granted cash benefits for children.

Reports concerning France and Germany indicate that schemes in behalf of wage earners with family responsibilities are still in existence.

The recommendations of the International Labor Conference held in Philadelphia in April 1944 included proposals for family allowances. In the Report of the Director of the International Office to that conference it was stated that such grants in some form "are widely regarded as a necessary element in any comprehensive program to assure a decent 'national minimum.' "

The family-allowance principle is becoming more widely understood through wartime experience with rationing on an individual basis, through the increasing discussions on nutrition and improved standards of living for the masses in which the sizes of families must be given due consideration, and through the fact that immense sums are now being disbursed to the dependents of the armed forces of the United States.

The present article brings together summary data on very recent developments in the family-allowance movement in 23 countries.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Mary T. Waggaman. For earlier developments, see Bulletin No. 754: Family Allowances in Various Countries, Washington, 1943.

Argentina

Decree No. 2015 (July 3, 1943) authorized family allowances for employees of the National Administration of Argentina whose incomes per month were under 350 pesos, and Decree No. 1065 (November 1943) includes all children under 22 years of age who are under the charge of such employees. The age limit does not apply in the case of disabled children.[2]

Buenos Aires.—In September 1943, a new measure for family allowances became effective for all salaried employees and workers in the permanent service of the municipality of Buenos Aires, whose earnings per month did not exceed 300 pesos and constituted the entire regular family income. The monthly allowance rate ranges from 10 to 12 pesos, according to the worker's wage or salary rate, for each legitimate child under the age of 15, but wages and allowances combined must not exceed 325 pesos per month. It is estimated that 11,000 families having 20,275 children under the specified age will be benefited.[3]

Australia [3a]

The Commonwealth of Australia began payments under its system of child endowment on July 1, 1941. An allowance of 5s. per week is granted for each child (beyond the first) under 16 years of age. The cost is met in part from the Consolidated Revenue and in part by the elimination of tax exemptions for children after the first, but principally from a tax of 2½ percent of pay rolls exceeding £20 per week.

As indicated below, the number of endowed children in Australia in June 1943 was 908,159, including 16,938 children in institutions.

	Fiscal year ended June 30—	
	1943	*1942*
Endowed families:		
Number of families	491, 121	487, 674
Number of endowed children	891, 221	895, 558
Approved institutions:		
Number of institutions	315	246
Number of endowed children	16, 938	14, 289
Total number of endowed children	908, 159	909, 847
Amounts paid to beneficiaries and approved institutions	£11, 659, 626	£11, 302, 863
Annual liability for endowment, end of year	£11, 806, 067	£11, 828, 011
Average annual rate of endowment per endowed family, end of year	£23. 591	£23. 873
Average number of endowed children per endowed family, end of year	1. 815	1. 836
Number of endowed children per 10,000 of population	1, 256	1, 268

Brazil [4]

Pay increases for employees of the Brazilian Federal Government were provided under legislative decree No. 5976 (November 10, 1943), which also improved the existing family-allowance scheme. The amendments are applicable to all workers, permanent and temporary.

[2] Report from United States Embassy at Buenos Aires, February 11, 1944. Exchange rate of peso in 1943=29.8 cents.

[3] International Labor Review (Montreal), January 1944 (p. 117).

[3a] Data are from report of Director General of Australian Department of Social Services, 1942–43, and Wartime Labor Developments in Australia, by Orwell de R. Foenander (Melbourne, 1943), p. 91. Exchange rate of Australian pound in 1942 and 1943=$3.23.

[4] Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), March 1944 (p. 390); and Report from United States Embassy at Rio de Janeiro, December 7, 1943. Exchange rate of cruzeiro in 1943=6.06 cents.

* * * Family allowances are payable at the rate of 50 cruzeiros for every child under 21 years of age, or beyond that age if incapable of work. Payment of the allowance is dependent on the payment of salary, but not on the employee's output. The allowance is not subject to attachment or deduction; it is taken into account for the purpose of calculating income tax, but is exempted from other taxation and from social-insurance contributions.

As a result of the new decree, Federal employees are now excluded from the family-allowance scheme introduced by legislative decree No. 3200 of 19 April 1941.

Legislative decree No. 6022 (November 23, 1943) gives details of the procedure in making application for the family allowance provided for under the preceding measure, and details concerning its payment, annulment of the benefits if they are not used as intended, and penalties for bad faith in declarations made.

Canada

A law of August 1944 provided for a system of family allowances in Canada. This law is summarized on page 995 of this issue.

Chile [5]

White-collar employees in Chile are paid family allowances under a Government social-security scheme, to which employers contribute pay-roll taxes. The social-security agency paid 90 pesos per month for each dependent in 1943, but this was reduced to 80 pesos at the beginning of 1944.

The social-security laws do not provide family allowances for wage earners, but in many industries they receive such benefits directly from their employers under collective agreements. A study of family allowances recently made by the Dirección General del Trabajo showed that in 1943 family allowances were paid to 126,725 workers' dependents, including 35,098 wives and 91,627 children. The individual monthly allowances ranged from 10 to 80 pesos, most of these grants being between 22 and 30 pesos. It is estimated that the total amount paid by employers in such allowances for the year was 58,925,272 pesos.

Dependency allowances are more characteristic of the mining industry than of any other. More than 50 percent of the allowances paid to wives were made in this industry. Of the total of 35,098 wives of workers receiving allowances in the country, 20,325 were paid by the mining industry, 3,795 by the textile industry, and 2,784 by the transport industry. Of the 91,627 dependent children of workers receiving allowances, 55,478 or approximately 60 percent were paid by the mining industry, 8,330 by the textile industry, 5,816 by the transport industry, and 3,249 by the food industry.

As an outcome of representations by the Railway Men's Federation of Chile, the Director General of the Chilean State Railways promulgated an order on December 10, 1943, doubling the railway men's family allowances on the basis of the increase in cost of living and wages since the allowances were first granted in September 1939. The new order became effective January 1, 1944, and the benefits have been extended to include the whole staff instead of only the lower-paid members of the personnel. The new allowance is 4 pesos a day for a wife or mother and 2 pesos for each child or stepchild under 18 years of age.

[5] Data are from Report from United States Embassy, Santiago, April 29, 1944; and International Transport Workers Federation Press Report (Kempston Beds, England), May 15, 1944. Exchange rate of peso in 1943=5.17 cents.

Eire

A new law in Eire, the Children's Allowance Act, 1944, provides for a weekly allowance at the rate of 2s. 6d. for each qualified child under 16 years of age in excess of two, maintained by an Irish citizen or one who for 2 years preceding the qualifying date has been a resident of the country.

The funds for these allowances are to be provided by the Government, which will also supply such money as the Minister of Finance approves, for administrative expenses.

The children's allowances are to be inalienable and are to be excluded in the reckoning of "means," in connection with the unemployment assistance acts and various pension acts.

A person making a false statement, under specified circumstances, in connection with the payment of these allowances is liable on summary conviction to a fine of not to exceed £25 or to imprisonment for a term not exceeding 3 months.

The Minister for Commerce and Industry may make regulations for carrying this legislation into effect.

Finland

In 1943, legal provision was made for the payment of family allowances (in cash or in kind or both) to the heads of families whose means were not in excess of a maximum to be subsequently specified. Beginning with the fifth child, the grants were to be made for children up to 16 years of age, up to 18 years if a child is being trained, and without age limit for invalid children. The State finances the scheme, which is administered by the Communal Assistance Board.[6]

France [7]

Following the announcement that family allowances would be raised beginning with January 1, 1944, the average monthly departmental salaries in France on the basis of which the family allowances are calculated were readjusted as follows:

	Average monthly pay (in francs [1]*)*	
	Urban	*Rural*
Ain, Allier, Cher, Drôme, Indre-et-Loire, Jura, Loire-et-Cher, Saône-et-Loire, Savoie, Haute-Savoie, Vaucluse	1, 500	1, 250
Basses-Alpes, Hautes-Alpes, Indre	1, 450	1, 250
Ardèche, Aveyron, Charente, Tarn, Haute-Vienne, Vienne	1, 450	1, 150
Ariège, Corrèze, Creuse, Dordogne, Gers, Lot-et-Garonne, Lozère, Hautes-Pyrénées, Tarn-et-Garonne	1, 400	1, 150
Cantal, Haute-Loire	1, 400	1, 200
Isère	1, 600	1, 250
Landes, Basses-Pyrénées	1, 450	1, 200
Puy-de-Dôme, Haute-Garonne (except Toulouse)	1, 500	1, 200
Toulouse	1, 600	-----
Loire, Rhône (except Lyons)	1, 650	1, 300
Lyons	1, 750	-----
Gironde (except Bordeaux)	1, 600	1, 250
Bordeaux	1, 700	-----

[1] Exchange rate of franc in 1940 (latest year for which reported) = 2.08 cents.

[6] International Labor Office. Inter-American Committee on Social Security. Provisional Bulletin No. 4. Montreal, October 1943.

[7] Data are from News Digest (London), March 4, 1944 (p. 38); International Labor Review (Montreal), May 1943 (pp. 646 and 665), July 1943 (p. 107), and February 1944 (p. 245); and International Labor Office, Legislative Series, 1942, Fr. 11 (p. 7).

Liberalization of single-wage allowance.—The French act of March 29, 1941, provided for the payment of a "single-wage allowance" to families of wage earners and public officials whose income is derived from only one source of employment. An amending act, dated July 6, 1943, extended and liberalized the measure.

Under the previous provisions, allowances were payable only to legitimate or adopted children and grandchildren. These grants are now made also to illegitimate children acknowledged by the mother; to brothers, sisters, nephews, or nieces for whose support a brother, sister, uncle, or aunt is responsible; and to wards, and children assigned (under legal or administrative decision) to the custody of any person without payment. In order to be eligible for the allowance, the persons having child dependents should be in remunerative employment and permanently responsible for the maintenance of such children.

The allowance is granted only to families in which the children are of French nationality, and is computed as a percentage of the Departmental average wage used as a basis for calculating family allowances in the particular community in which the beneficiary is a resident. The allowances are as follows:

For one dependent child or for the last remaining dependent child, 20 percent of average wage; for an only child of 5 years or more (unless the mother or other female relative in charge of the child maintains it by her own earnings), 10 percent; for two dependent children, 25 percent; and for more than two dependent children, 30 percent.

When there are several children in the family, the allowance is granted until 1 year after the child attains the school-leaving age, or up to the age of 17 if the young person is apprenticed or is incapable of self-support because of chronic illness or infirmity, or up to the age of 20 if the young person's education is being continued. A mother or female relative maintaining an only child entirely from her own wages or salary may be granted an allowance until the child has reached the age of 15 (or 20).

In no case may the single-wage allowance be paid in addition to the "allowance for mothers in the home" provided for by the act of 29 July 1939 concerning the French family and the birth rate.

In the event of the death of the worker entitled to the allowance, it will continue to be paid to his widow if she has children dependent upon her and is not entitled to the allowance in her own right as a wage earner. In case of an interruption in employment, the right to the allowance continues throughout the period for which benefit is drawn under the social-insurance scheme in the case of insured persons, and otherwise for a period of 6 months from the date of the first medical certificate. A woman worker is entitled to the allowance for the 12 weeks preceding and following childbirth, and a worker who sustains an industrial accident, for any period of temporary or permanent incapacity.

The allowance is paid by the equalization funds, the State, local authorities, and concessionary undertakings operating public services, under the same conditions as apply to family allowances.

Workers releasing prisoners of war.—Act No. 903 (September 26, 1942) included a provision that skilled workers taking part in the program for the release of prisoners of war by volunteering for teamwork in Germany were to be entitled under appropriate conditions to the full allowances for which they were eligible under the Family Code. In the case of a married worker with no children, not less than 50 percent of the allowance was to be allocated to his wife.

Family allowances and the Germans.—German enterprises and nationals in France—except when directly responsible to the authorities of occupation—have been subject to French legislation, especially social legislation and the provisions of collective agreements. Under orders issued in 1942 by the German Military Command, for the purpose of standardizing employment conditions of German workers in France, German nationals transferred from the Reich were in principle entitled, in addition to wages, to a daily allowance varying from 1.50 to 5.50 marks, according to their wage or salary class and family circumstances.

Since November 1, 1942, family-allowance schemes effective in French enterprises have covered non-German workers and salaried employees. Family-allowance funds have been organized in each Department for the payment of these benefits.

Miscellaneous provisions relating to family allowances.—To secure the right to family allowances from public or private funds, expectant mothers were required by an act of December 16, 1942 (Journal Officiel, Paris, December 22, 1942), to undergo at least two medical examinations during pregnancy.

Family allowances for compulsory labor force.—A French decree of November 25, 1942 (containing regulations on the compulsory-labor act of September 4, 1942), provided that workers allocated to a new job were to be entitled to the normal conditions of employment applicable to the job, and that married workers and those with dependents could claim from the employer a family allowance at a rate proportionate to their responsibilities.

Germany [8]

Dependents of transferred Belgian workers.—According to an order of April 24, 1943, the wages of Belgian workers employed in Germany were to be used primarily for the maintenance of their families. Allotments, from wages, to dependents ranged from 750 Belgian francs per month for a wife without children to 1,400 francs for a family with five children. Beyond the fifth child the allowance was 70 francs. Such allotments, being financed entirely by the workers, were not, of course, family allowances in the usual sense.

Provisions for French workers.—An act of September 26, 1942, had provided that trained French workers who volunteered for work in Germany in organized teams should be granted an expatriation allowance in the form of the continued payment of 50 percent of their wages in France plus family allowances, while their contract was in force. An act of May 1, 1943, amending this law, provided that, after June 1, 1943, in lieu of these benefits daily allowances chargeable to the national budget were to be paid to families with a breadwinner of French nationality at work in Germany.

A later act (June 21, 1943) extended the above provision to include also families with a breadwinner of French nationality who had been conscripted for compulsory work in France. The amount of the allowance and the circumstances under which paid were the same as for families of the armed forces. These grants were to be equal to the family allowances provided by the act of July 20, 1942, for families

[8] Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), December 1943 (p. 770), January 1944 (p. 48), and March 1944 (p. 376).

of prisoners of war, and were to be paid under the same conditions. In the Paris area, for example, the allowance was 20 francs for the wife and 15.50 francs, 16 francs, 18 francs, and 25 francs for the first, second, third, and fourth child, respectively; a grant of 7 francs was also made for each dependent relative in the ascending line.

Provisions for families of shifted German workers.—Special arrangements were made for workers involved in cases in which German industries had to transfer all or parts of their plants to other sections of the country. A worker so transferred might be paid in his new place of work a wage or salary substantially below his previous remuneration, whereas his family still had obligations to meet based on the higher rate. In such cases the employer was required to pay, to married workers only, a maintenance allowance for the family.

Great Britain [9]

The Beveridge Plan,[10] submitted to the British Parliament in November 1942, recommended, among other things, children's allowances at an average rate of 8s. per week per child (except for the first, when the parent is earning), financed entirely by taxation. The premises for the proposal were as follows:

> First, it is unreasonable to seek to guarantee an income sufficient for subsistence, while earnings are interrupted by unemployment or disability, without ensuring sufficient income during earning. Social insurance should be part of a policy of a national minimum. But a national minimum for families of every size cannot in practice be secured by a wage system, which must be based on the product of a man's labor and not on the size of his family.
>
> Second, it is dangerous to allow benefit during unemployment or disability to equal or exceed earnings during work. But, without allowances for children, during earning and not-earning alike, this danger cannot be avoided. * * * The gap between income during earning and during interruption of earning should be as large as possible for every man. It cannot be kept large for men with large families, except either by making their benefit in unemployment and disability inadequate, or by giving allowances for children in time of earning and not-earning alike.
>
> In addition to these two arguments, arising directly from considerations of social security, there are arguments arising from consideration of numbers of population and care of children. With its present rate of reproduction, the British race cannot continue; means of reversing the recent course of the birth rate must be found. It is not likely that allowances for children or any other economic incentives will, by themselves, provide that means and lead parents who do not desire children to rear children for gain. But children's allowances can help to restore the birth rate, both by making it possible for parents who desire more children to bring them into the world without damaging the chances of those already born, and as a signal of the national interest in children, setting the tone of public opinion. As regards care of children, whatever possibilities the future may hold of larger families than now, the small families of today make it necessary that every living child should receive the best care that can be given to it. The foundations of a healthy life must be laid in childhood. Children's allowances should be regarded both as a help to parents in meeting their responsibilities, and as an acceptance of new responsibilities by the community.

On December 17, 1942, the labor movement through the National Council of Labor accepted the principles set forth in the Beveridge Plan and asked the Government to introduce the requisite legislation promptly. The trend of the labor speeches in Parliament emphasized

[9] Data are from Labor Press Service (London), March 3, 1943; Newsweek (New York), June 21, 1943 (p. 88); Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), December 1943 (p. 1735); and Labor and Industry in Britain (British Information Services), April 1944 (p. 57).

[10] Report by Sir William Beveridge. Great Britain [Interdepartmental Committee on Social Insurance and Allied Services], London, 1942. (Cmd. 6404.) For summary, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 272).

the advisability of appointing a Minister of Social Security to take charge of the preparations for the proposed plan. Other sections of the House of Commons took a similar position.

The British Trades Union Congress (representing unions with 6,024,000 members) at its 1943 meeting adopted a resolution deploring the "hesitating attitude" of the Government and demanding the immediate preparation of legislation on the subject.

In the fall of 1944 the social-insurance program of the Government, following largely the lines of the Beveridge Report, was released as White Papers on Social Insurance (Cmd. 6550 and 6551). The scheme includes a provision for family allowances, but the benefit is 5s. per week per child (other than the first) under 15 (or 15 and 16 if at school), instead of 8s., as proposed in the Beveridge Plan. However, recommendation is also made for an extension of services in kind, including school meals and milk.

According to The Economist (London) of September 30, 1944, the total estimated cost for 1945 of family allowances under the Beveridge Plan is £113,000,000 and under the Government scheme, £59,000,000.

Italy

On October 28, 1942, at the celebration of the twentieth anniversary of the Fascist revolution, the Italian Government reported on social-security expenditures during the 2 decades 1922–42, which included 12,965 million lire for family allowances.[11]

Luxemburg

It is announced in the International Labor Review of July 1944 (p. 84) that a recent report of the Minister of Labor and Mines of Luxemburg proposes "as a long-term recommendation" the reorganization of the social-insurance system of that country in line with the Beveridge scheme for Great Britain. An outstanding feature of that program, as already noted, is the provision for children's allowances.

New Zealand

Under an act of August 25, 1943, amending the New Zealand Social Security Act of 1938, family allowances were raised from 4s. to 7s. 6d. per week for each dependent child. The lower rate had been increased by 50 percent beginning May 1, 1942, under emergency regulations which were no longer in effect.[12]

The basic act was also amended to provide that allowances payable to aid in the education of a child between 16 and 18 years of age could be granted, whether or not a benefit was paid for such child before he or she reached 16 years of age.

According to the annual reports of the New Zealand Social Security Department payments in family benefits under the New Zealand Social Security Act of 1938, as amended, for the 12 months ended March 31, 1944, totaled £876,858, as compared with £790,719 in 1942–43.

The August 10, 1944, issue of The Standard (the official organ of the labor movement of New Zealand) announced that the Minister of

[11] International Labor Review (Montreal), June 1943 (p. 790). Exchange rate of lira in 1941 (latest year for which reported) = 5.07 cents.

[12] International Labor Review (Montreal), December 1943 (p. 787). Average exchange rate of New Zealand pound (20 shillings) in 1943 = $3.24.

Finance of that country in his recent budget speech proposed that the allowable gross income in relation to family benefits be raised from £5 to £5 10s. and that the weekly benefit for each child be increased from 7s. 6d. to 10s., effective October 1, 1944.

Norway [13]

A decree dated January 26, 1944, issued by the Quisling Minister of Social Affairs, provides that Norwegians conscripted for "national labor contribution" be granted, during the period of such service, a family allowance in the form of "a contribution toward apartment rent of spouse, children, and parents who depend for sustenance on the conscripted person." A person conscripted for work which is for the most part of the same or corresponding character as his or her usual occupation is not eligible for the allowance. The contribution for apartment rent may be all or part of the amount by which the apartment rent exceeds one-fifth of the person's wages during his conscripted labor service.

Salary directives recently issued to the municipalities by the Norwegian Interior Department include one requiring that all municipal civil servants be granted children's allowances, in accordance with State regulations.

In a discussion of reconstruction problems in Norway, the Norwegian Minister of Finance in Exile commented in an article in the June 1944 International Labor Review: "No doubt developments abroad such as the implementation of the Beveridge report in Great Britain will deeply influence public opinion on these matters in Norway." He noted that a report made in 1938 by a Norwegian official committee proposed a State-financed system of children's allowances, while those opposing such a system were in favor of various subsidies in kind, such as wider provision for school meals, reductions in price of foods, rent, etc., for families with children.

Paraguay

In Paraguay, where a legislative decree (No. 620) of October 5, 1943, instituted the principle of the minimum wage,[14] the measure is supplemented by a legislative decree,[15] under which an allowance of 5 percent of wages is granted under specified conditions, for each legitimate child up to the age of 18, of both public and private employees (and manual workers) who have had at least 1 year of service.

Portugal [16]

System for public, etc., employees.—A legislative decree of February 22, 1943 (as amended January 29, 1944), instituted family allowances to civil and military State officials, employees in autonomously administered State services (postal, telegraph, and telephone services,

[13] Data are from Communication from U. S. Interdepartmental Committee for Acquisition of Foreign Publications (Washington), August 10, 1944, and enclosure in letter of March 24, 1944, from United States Legation at Stockholm, Sweden, entitled "Concerning Regulation No. 5 (Family Allowance)" supplementing Law No. 1 in execution of the law concerning general national labor contribution.

[14] International Labor Review (Montreal), July 1944 (p. 43).

[15] Decree of December 9, 1927, amended December 24, 1937.

[16] Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), December 1943 (pp. 775 and 792), and June 1944 (p. 689). Exchange rate of escudo in 1941 (latest year for which reported=4 cents.

arsenals, etc.), employees of local governments and salaried employees of social-welfare, family-allowance, and other associations.

Allowances are granted for dependent legitimate or legitimated children under 14 years of age, dependent grandchildren, and "ascendants who cannot support themselves," whether these dependents are members of the employee's household or not. In the case of dependents continuing their secondary education, allowances may be granted until such children reach 18 years of age; for dependents pursuing their higher education the age limit is 21 years. No age restrictions in regard to family allowances are provided for dependents wholly and permanently incapacitated for work.

If the wife and husband are both public employees, the allowance may be granted only if they reside in different localities. The allocation is made only to the employee with the higher salary, but is computed on "the basis of the number of persons dependent on and living in the household of both husband and wife."

For purposes of the allowance, employees are divided into 5 salary groups, the benefits ranging from 30 escudos per dependent per month for persons with monthly salary of less than 400 escudos to 70 escudos for those with salary of 2,000 escudos and over. Besides marriage, childbirth, and nursing bonuses, and meal and clothing vouchers, family-allowance funds may also pay education, rent, and funeral allowances up to 10 percent of their total receipts.

The financing of this new project is different from that of the general scheme (to which both employers and workers contribute),[17] as, for the time being at least, the State and local Government authorities alone meet the cost of these subsides. The appropriation of 30 million escudos per annum, originally provided in the 1943 budget, was afterward raised to 60 million escudos, representing approximately 9 percent of the salaries of the group concerned.

The decree of February 22, 1943, provides that the right to family allowances cannot be alienated and exempts such grants from all fees and taxation and from seizure. Fraudulent declarations are subject to penalty, as is also failure to fulfill the conditions for the payment of these benefits.

Compulsory contributions authorized.—A legislative decree of April 15, 1943, empowers the Under Secretary for Corporations to "fix compulsory limits for salaries and wages when superior economic interests or social justice so require." In the fixing of salaries and wages "provision may also be made for compulsory contributions by undertakings and employees for the purpose of family allowances and social-welfare allowances."

Soviet Union [18]

A recent edict has been issued by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U. S. S. R. on liberalizing State aid to expectant mothers, mothers of large families, unmarried mothers, etc.

The Government had already been granting substantial assistance to expectant mothers and other workers for their children. As wartime economic hardships and the prospect of post-war difficulties which will confront many families accentuated the need for the further

[17] For summary of general system, see U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 754 (p. 43).

[18] Data are from Information Bulletin of Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Washington, July 25, 1944.

extension of State aid, it was decided that State allowances would be granted to the mother of a large family (whether or not the husband is living) on the birth of the third and each subsequent child.

The allowances range from a single grant of 400 rubles on the birth of a third child and 80 rubles per month (or a single grant of 1,300 rubles) on the birth of a fourth child to 250 rubles per month (or a single grant of 3,500 rubles) on the birth of a tenth child. For each child after the tenth, monthly allowance of 300 rubles (or a single grant of 5,000 rubles) is made.

The monthly allowances for mothers with many children are to begin after the child's first birthday and to continue until he is 5 years of age. Mothers who had three, four, five, or six children at the time the edict was published will be granted allowances under this measure for each child born after the issuance of that edict.

Mothers having seven or more children when the edict was made public, hold the right to large-family allowances in accordance with the provision and in the amounts specified in the decision of the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. of June 27, 1936.

Taxes for the support of the system are to be imposed upon male citizens between 20 and 50 years of age and female citizens between 20 and 45 who have no children, as well as upon families with two children or less. Among those exempted from the taxes are Red Army men and their wives, parents who have lost children on fronts of the war, students under 25 years of age, and invalids.

Increasing privileges are to be extended to expectant and other mothers, and measures are to be taken for broadening the network of institutions (including nurseries and milk kitchens) for the benefit of mothers and children.

Spain [19]

A decree of November 10, 1942, extended the system of family allowances to home workers, who had been provisionally excepted under the decree of October 20, 1938.

Under a decree of July 27, 1943, the previous scale of family allowances, which had been increased by a decree of February 22, 1941, was further liberalized. The new rates rise more rapidly, per child, for the larger families.

Under the 1941 scale the monthly allowances ranged from 30 pesetas for a family with 2 children to 290 for 12 children plus 50 pesetas for each additional child. The range under the 1943 decree is from 40 to 1,080 pesetas, plus 200 pesetas for each child above 12. According to the 1943 decree, family allowances granted on a daily basis in the case of casual laborers are to be similarly increased.

The 1943 measure did not change the other details of the system; thus the allocatees include employed persons, home workers, employers, farmers, and those receiving accident pensions. The allowances are paid for each child under 14 years of age, and without age limit if the child is disabled.

The system is financed by contributions by employers of 5 percent of pay rolls and contributions by employees of 1 percent of their wages.

[19] Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), May 1941 (p. 598), May 1943 (p. 665), and December 1943 (p. 791). Exchange rate of peseta in 1940 (latest year for which reported) = 9.13 cents.

Sweden

In the war crisis the social policy of Swedish public authorities has been concentrated more than ever before on family and child problems. In all cases the aid to the families of men assigned to defense service—food discount cards, removal allowances, sick benefits, and unemployment insurance—has been extended in ways advantageous to persons with family responsibilities, particularly persons with many children.

In the judgment of the Under Secretary of State (Ministry of Social Affairs) of Sweden, "undoubtedly Swedish policy will pay much more attention to the family than it used to do, partly also for demographic reasons." He adds that uneasiness over the low birth rate has stimulated interest in the country's population problems. A new committee is already studying the subject, and will apply wartime experience to social action in the coming years.[20]

Switzerland

In the metal and engineering industries of Switzerland, wages have been regulated in accordance with an agreement of July 19, 1937, which was extended to July 19, 1944. Wage adjustments were made in part through a family-allowance fund which, according to a report published in 1943, granted 8 francs per month for each child after the third. The employers were requested to pay 5 francs per month for the first two children.

In the agitation by the Swiss workers' organizations for wage increases to meet the higher living costs, attention has also been called to the fact that in industries already granting family allowances, the benefits have frequently been substituted for cost-of-living bonuses.[21]

Union of South Africa

The Social Security Committee, appointed by the Government of South Africa in January 1943, published a White Paper in February 1944 proposing a comprehensive social-security scheme with cash benefits. Among these proposed benefits were family allowances (regardless of family means) for the third, fourth, and fifth child under 16 years of age, at an annual rate of £12 for a European child, £6 for a colored or Asiatic child, and £6 for a native child. The adequacy of the rates would be subject to examination every 3 years.

Establishment of a Social Security Fund was also proposed, to which members of the social-security scheme would contribute and for which State appropriations would be made.[22]

[20] International Labor Review (Montreal), March 1943 (p. 311).
[21] International Labor Review (Montreal). May 1943 (p. 653). Average exchange rate of franc in 1941 (latest year for which reported)=23.2 cents.
[22] International Labor Review (Montreal), June 1944 (p. 683). Average exchange rate of South African pound in 1944=$3.98.

United States [23]

Among the very restricted experiments in paying cash supplements to earnings of married men, because of family responsibilities, in this country have been those with teachers in the public-school systems. In the school year 1940–41, such schemes were in effect in 75 cities and towns, according to a report of the National Education Association released in September 1941.

Probably the social service most closely related to family allowances or child endowment is Federal-State aid to dependent children, under the Social Security Act. The principal difference between the grants under this measure and the usual family allowances is the act's stipulation of lack of parental support as a condition of eligibility, and, consequently, a more direct implication of poor relief.

The estimated total amount paid out to recipients under the Social Security Act for assistance to dependent children in the month of April 1944 was $11,339,349 (excluding figures for Nevada and Alaska, which do not participate in the Federal program). The number of children aided was 660,822.

In connection with the advocacy of family allowances in kind, may be noted the Congressional authorization of the War Food Administration to continue its financial aid to school-lunch programs for the fiscal year 1944–45 to an amount not exceeding $50,000,000.

Although this article is not concerned with military allowances, it may be said in passing that in the period July 1942–June 30, 1944, the War Department disbursed $2,865,241,131 (including $1,162,924,305 contributed by the soldiers) in family allowances for the service personnel under its jurisdiction.[24]

Child and family security continue to receive attention from various sources. Family allowances as a post-war objective were recommended by the Most Reverend Karl J. Alter, Bishop of Toledo, at the Catholic Conference on Industrial Problems in March 1944. Research is being undertaken by the Federal Security Agency in collaboration with a few other Federal agencies on the relative possibilities of promoting child security through (1) family income, (2) direct financial aid to families, and (3) public services (such as school lunches, etc.).

Uruguay [25]

Grants for dependent children of workers with monthly wages or salaries not exceeding 200 pesos are provided for in Uruguay by an act of November 12, 1943. The Chief Executive of Uruguay is directed to create tripartite boards representing employers, workers, and the Government. These boards are to administer the "salary funds" through which the system is to be operated.

[23] Data are from Social Security Bulletin (Washington), June 1944 (p. 28); Education for Victory (U. S. Office of Education, Washington), August 3, 1944 (p. 17); Allowance and Allotment Expenditures as of June 30, 1944 (War Department, Office of Dependency Benefits, Army Service Forces, Newark, N. J.); Round Table on Implications of Population Trends for Post-war Policy, held in connection with Twenty-first Annual Conference of Milbank Memorial Fund, New York, April 14–15, 1943; and National Catholic Welfare Conference News Service (Washington), April 3, 1944.

[24] No published data are available on Navy Department expenditures for this purpose.

[25] Diario Official (Montevideo), November 25, 1943; for further details, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1944 (p. 346). Average exchange rate of peso=65.8 cents (controlled) and 52.9 cents (uncontrolled).

Compulsory contributions from employers will support the scheme. Until the boards were created, employer contributions were fixed at 3 percent of pay roll and thereafter at 1½ to 3½ percent, being determined every 3 months on the basis of estimated benefits, expenses of administration, and maintenance of a reserve fund.

Benefits are payable only for dependent children of families in which the salary of the head of the family (or of both husband and wife, if the latter is also employed) does not exceed 200 pesos per month. The allowances are to be paid to the person responsible for support, for each dependent legitimate or legally recognized child up to 14 years of age (16 in cases where the child is still in school). The rate of benefit per child is tentatively set at 6 pesos.

International [26]

Among the recommendations of the Twenty-sixth International Labor Conference held in Philadelphia, April 1944, was one (No. 67) on income security, containing the following:

> Supplements for each of the first two children should be added to all benefits payable for loss of earnings, provision for further children being left to be made by means of children's allowances payable out of public funds or under contributory schemes. * * * Society should normally cooperate with parents through general measures of assistance designed to secure the well-being of dependent children.

As one of the "guiding principles" it is stated that—

> (1) Public subsidies in kind or in cash or in both should be established in order to assure the healthy nurture of children, help to maintain large families, and complete the provision made for children through social insurance.
>
> (2) Where the purpose in view is to assure the healthy nurture of children, subsidies should take the form of such advantages as free or below-cost infants' food and school meals and below-cost dwellings for families with several children.
>
> (3) Where the purpose in view is to help to maintain large families or to complete the provision made for children by subsidies in kind and through social insurance, subsidies should take the form of children's allowances.
>
> (4) Such allowances should be payable, irrespective of the parents' income, according to a prescribed scale, which should represent a substantial contribution to the cost of maintaining a child, should allow for the higher cost of maintaining older children, and should, as a minimum, be granted to all children for whom no provision is made through social insurance.
>
> (5) Society as a whole should accept responsibility for the maintenance of dependent children insofar as parental responsibility for maintaining them cannot be enforced.

The Acting Director of the International Labor Office reported to the Conference that the wartime upward trend in the cost of living has accentuated the utility of family allowances by the imposition of heavy burdens on large families. He added that opinion favoring the introduction of such allowances is obviously growing in certain countries in which no scheme is in operation, and that "family allowances in some form are widely regarded as a necessary element in any comprehensive program to assure a decent national minimum."

[26] Data are from International Labor Office, Official Bulletin (Montreal), June 1, 1944 (pp. 4–24), and Director's Report to International Labor Conference, Twenty-sixth session, 1944 (p. 50).

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Canada's Family Allowances Act, 1944

A LAW was enacted in August 1944 to provide family allowances in Canada. This law, which becomes effective from July 1, 1945, was passed after prolonged consideration in Parliament and much public discussion. Public opinion was divided on the subject, as was also the case among the trade-unions, which have traditionally been opposed to the family-allowance idea. Two Canadian labor organizations (the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress and the Confédération des Travailleurs Catholiques) both looked upon the measure with misgivings, as tending to keep wages down. A third organization, however, the Canadian Federation of Labor, was of the opinion that the question was no longer that of being able to afford children's allowances, "but whether we can afford * * * to do without them." [1]

During the Parliamentary debates it was reported that—

> According to the 1941 census, of the gainfully employed, 48 percent are single; 39 percent of the married or widowed have no children under sixteen and 40 percent of those with children under sixteen have only one child. * * * In other words, the major burden of raising the next generation and perpetuating the Canadian nation falls on less than one-fifth of our working population.[2]

The number of children in Canada under 16 years is estimated at approximately 3,500,000. The number of families with such children is estimated at approximately 1,500,000. Over half of these families benefit in part or in whole from income-tax exemptions for children. The families in the lower-income brackets, however, do not benefit at all from such exemptions.[3]

Provisions of the Law

Benefits.—Under the act and the regulations made by the Governor in Council, there may be paid out of unappropriated moneys in the Consolidated Revenue Fund from July 1, 1945, a monthly allowance, according to the following scale, for each child (up to four per family) resident in Canada and maintained wholly or substantially [4] by the parent: [5]

	Amount per child
Under 6 years of age	$5
6 and under 10 years of age	6
10 and under 13 years of age	7
13 and under 16 years of age	8

For a fifth child maintained by the parent the above rates of allowance are reduced by $1; for the sixth and seventh children, by $2 each; and for the eighth and each subsequent child, by $3 each.

The benefit is payable to the parent or other person authorized under the act to receive it.

The allowance is to be discontinued (1) when the child reaches the age of 16, (2) at any time (after attaining 6 years of age) when the

[1] Labor Review (Canadian Federation of Labor), June 1944.
[2] Canada. House of Commons Debates (Ottawa), July 27, 1944 (p. 5620).
[3] Idem, July 25, 1944 (p. 5450).
[4] The meaning of "substantially" is to be defined in the regulations.
[5] "Parent" means a father, stepfather, adoption father, foster father, mother, stepmother, foster mother, or any other person who maintains or has the custody of a child; the term does not include an institution.

child, though physically able to attend school, fails to do so or fails to receive equivalent training under the provisions of the act, (3) when the child dies or is no longer a resident of Canada, or (4) when a female child marries.

> The allowance shall be applied by the person receiving the same exclusively towards the maintenance, care, training, education, and advancement of the child, and, if the Minister or such officer as is authorized by regulations in that behalf is satisfied that the allowance is not being so applied, payment thereof shall be discontinued or made to some other person or agency.

The allowance provided under the act is not subject to taxation nor to laws relating to bankruptcy or insolvency. The benefits cannot be assigned, charged, attached, anticipated, nor given as security. The deductions allowable for dependent children under the Income War Tax Act may be adjusted to avoid duplication of benefits under the two acts. Further—

> The Governor in Council may by regulation provide for the reduction or withholding of the allowance payable to any person receiving aid from the Government of Canada for the maintenance of a child in respect of whom the allowance is payable under this act, provided that such reduction or withholding shall not be made by reason of a pension under the Pension Act or dependent's allowance payable in respect of a dependent child of a member of the naval, military, or air forces of Canada.

Violations.—Persons who knowingly make false statements, orally or in writing, with the intention of influencing the payment of benefits under this act, or who cash checks for allowances to which they are not entitled, or who are guilty of certain other offenses under the act, are, upon summary conviction, liable to imprisonment for a term of not over 6 months with or without hard labor, or a fine of not over $500, or both such fine and such imprisonment.

Administration.—The Minister of National Health and Welfare is to administer the Family Allowances Act, and with the approval of the Governor in Council, may make arrangements with any Provincial Government to facilitate its effectuation. Regulations may be made by the Governor in Council.

The Minister of National Health and Welfare is required to report annually on expenditures and administration in connection with the act. The necessary expenses for administration, other than the payment of benefits, are to be paid from appropriations by Parliament.

Estimated Cost of System

The Department of Finance estimated that the outlay as a result of the passage of the bill would be $250,000,000 per annum, of which $50,000,000 or $60,000,000 would be recovered by the reduction of exemptions for child dependents under the income-tax act. [6] It is anticipated, however, that the measure will add to the revenue of the country by bringing about a substantial expansion in production and employment, which will be a factor in raising the national income. [7]

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[6] Canada. House of Commons Debates (Ottawa), July 25, 1944 (p. 5457).
[7] Idem, July 28, 1944 (p. 5673).

Labor Organizations

A. F. of L. Program in Behalf of Negroes [1]

AT THE convention of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters in September 1944 William Green, President of the American Federation of Labor, presented a three-part program "to make American democracy a living reality for American Negroes." The plan provides that, without regard to race, color, or creed—

(1) Every American, willing and able to work, should be afforded the opportunity for a good job at good pay so that he can provide a decent living, commensurate with American standards, for himself and his family.
(2) Every qualified American citizen should have the right to vote.
(3) Adequate educational opportunities must be accorded to the children of all American families, with Federal aid supplementing the funds of the few States which cannot bear the burden alone.

He pointed out that the war, more than any other factor since the days of Abraham Lincoln, has served to accelerate the educational process required to eliminate racial discrimination in the United States.

The Federation now has over a million Negro members and all new unions organized by the A. F. of L. explicitly bar racial discrimination.

Canadian Trade-Union Membership, 1944 [2]

MEMBERSHIP in Canadian trade-unions on June 30, 1944, was estimated at 690,000, according to the annual survey of the Research and Statistics Branch of the Canadian Department of Labor. On December 31 of the years 1943 and 1942, the respective membership totals were 664,282 and 578,380. Between the outbreak of the war in 1939 and the date of the 1944 estimate, membership almost doubled—a growth similar to that occurring during the first World War period, 1914–18. Trade-union membership during the last 30 years is indicated below.

	Trade-union membership		*Trade-union membership*
1914	166, 163	1937	383, 492
1918	248, 887	1938	381, 645
1919	378, 047	1939	358, 967
1922	276, 621	1940	362, 223
1924	260, 643	1941	461, 681
1927	290, 282	1942	578, 380
1930	322, 449	1943	664, 282
1931	310, 544	1944 [1]	690, 000
1935	280, 648		

[1] June 30 estimate.

[1] American Federation of Labor, Weekly News Service (Washington), September 19, 1944.
[2] Data are from Canada, Labor Gazette (Ottawa), August 1944.

Trade-Union Membership in India, 1941-42 [1]

THE 455 reporting trade-unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act of 1926 had 573,520 members in 1941–42. The increase over the previous fiscal year was substantial, as the 483 unions reporting in 1940–41 had 513,832 members. Statistics are shown in the following table. Although membership statistics given are useful as indicating the trend in labor organization for a selected group of trade-unions, they do not show the extent of unionization in British India because (1) not all registered unions submit returns to the Government showing their membership, and (2) not all trade-unions register (registration being optional).

Trade-Union Membership in India in Selected Years, 1932–42

Period	Registered trade-unions	Trade-unions making returns			Period	Registered trade-unions	Trade-unions making returns		
		Number	Membership	Average membership			Number	Membership	Average membership
1932–33	170	147	237,369	1,615	1939–40	[1] 667	450	511,138	1,136
1937–38	420	343	390,112	1,137	1940–41	[1] 727	483	513,832	1,064
1938–39	562	394	399,159	1,013	1941–42	747	455	573,520	1,260

[1] Revised figure.

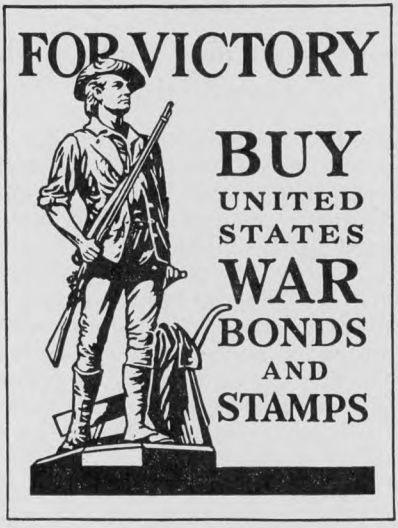
Membership of Mexican Unions under Federal Jurisdiction

UNION workers in industries under Federal jurisdiction in Mexico numbered 416,795 as of June 30, 1944. These workers are organized in 24 confederations, 195 federations, and 1,974 trade-unions, according to the Mexican Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare.[2] Of the union members covered in the following table, the greatest number are found in the transportation industry (principally the railways) which employs 100,030 workers, or approximately 24 percent of the total. Mining stands next, with 90,287 members, or about 22 percent. Third in point of numbers is the textile industry which employs 82,856, or about 20 percent, of the workers covered. Next in importance are the sugar and petroleum industries with 25,288 (6 percent) and 19,701 (5 percent), respectively, of the total membership. Over three-fourths of all workers are found in the foregoing groups. The remainder are divided mainly among the fisheries, electrical energy, and chicle industries, and miscellaneous occupations.

[1] Information is from India, Department of Labor, Labor Gazette, July 1944.
[2] Data are from report by W. K. Ailshie, second secretary, United States Embassy at Mexico City, Special Report No. 3, September 11, 1944.

Distribution of Membership of Unions Under Federal Jurisdiction in Mexico, June 30, 1944

Industry	Unions	Members	Industry	Unions	Members
All industries	1,974	416,795	Textiles		82,856
			Cotton	286	54,335
Transportation		100,030	Wool	57	8,243
Railways	48	73,237	Silk and artificial silk	112	8,215
Streetcars	5	4,415	Millinery	37	7,055
Automobiles, trucks, and busses	60	4,484	Wool-waste	6	312
Aviation	4	666	Hard fibers	18	4,696
Freight handlers	228	17,228	Electrical energy (generation and transmission)	68	8,201
Communications		4,300	Motion pictures	28	3,784
Telephone and telegraph	32	3,747	Mining	334	90,287
Radio	8	553	Petroleum and derivatives	84	19,701
Maritime activities		12,258	Sugar	100	25,288
Fishing	103	11,006	Rubber	6	519
Diving	2	44	Chicle	9	11,512
Carpenters and caulkers	15	1,208	Miscellaneous	324	58,059



Industrial Relations

Arbitration Provisions in Union Agreements[1]

Summary

AT THE time an agreement is adopted, the employer and the union, through collective bargaining, mutually determine the working conditions to be maintained for a specified period. Specific disputes may, however, arise during the term of the agreement, which the parties themselves are unable to settle. To resolve these disputes, the parties, as a last resort, may accept arbitration by an outside party. The inclusion of an arbitration clause in an agreement establishes a fixed policy and procedure for the duration of the agreement, although, of course, the absence of such a clause does not preclude an employer and union from submitting a specific dispute to arbitration.

Three of every four union agreements in 14 important industries provide for arbitration as the terminal point in the grievance machinery. Agreements with large companies tend to have arbitration provisions more frequently than do those covering smaller plants. Although permanent arbitration machinery is provided in only about 5 percent of the agreements, such provisions cover over one-fourth of the workers employed under arbitration agreements. Over 90 percent of the agreements provide for automatic arbitration (at the request of either party), but less than 5 percent require mutual consent.

Temporary, or ad hoc, arbitration arrangements tend to specify tripartite arbitration boards, whereas agreements providing for permanent arbitration machinery are more likely to have provision for single arbitrators. Selection of the arbitrator is usually left to mutual agreement of the parties; about 15 percent of the agreements, however, permit an outside individual or agency to make the selection. Almost half of the agreements which leave the selection of an arbitrator to the parties refer this choice to an outside agency if the employer and union fail to agree.

The scope of arbitration provided for varies widely, ranging from mere interpretation and application of the terms of the agreement to arbitration of any grievance or complaint arising during the term of the agreement. Less than 1 percent of the agreements allow the terms of a new agreement to be arbitrated.

Scope and Method of Study

The present analysis of arbitration provisions is based upon 1,254 agreements, in 14 important industries, all of which were in effect in January 1944. The proportion of all workers under agreement who

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

are represented by the agreements studied varies from 91 percent in basic steel to 30 percent in machinery (other than electrical); for all the industries combined the proportion is about 65 percent.

The agreements are classified into two groups; namely, those for major or large companies, and those for small companies. Since the relative sizes of companies in the several industries vary widely, the line of demarcation differs for each industry. In the automobile industry, for example, companies employing 2,000 or more workers are classified as major, whereas in the cotton-textile industry, those employing 250 or more workers are in this class. The agreements providing for arbitration were analyzed for the following characteristics: Permanency of the arbitration machinery; requirements for initiating arbitration proceedings; composition and method of selecting the arbitration agency; time limits for establishing arbitration machinery; and finality and scope of the decisions.

Table 1 shows the agreements analyzed, by industry and by size of company.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Agreements and of Workers Covered in Study, by Industry and Size of Company*

Industry	All companies		Major companies		Small companies	
	Agreements	Workers	Agreements	Workers	Agreements	Workers
All industries	1,254	2,684,000	342	2,026,000	912	685,000
Aircraft, excluding parts	61	592,000	35	424,000	26	167,000
Aluminum	29	63,000	25	62,000	4	1,000
Automobiles and parts	110	582,000	24	533,000	86	49,000
Chemicals, industrial	66	24,000	21	19,000	45	6,000
Machinery, electrical	122	229,000	24	138,000	98	91,000
Machinery, other	176	227,000	40	145,000	136	82,000
Meat packing	68	91,000	26	86,000	42	5,000
Petroleum production and refining	76	38,000	30	32,000	46	5,000
Rubber	85	92,000	33	79,000	52	13,000
Steel—blast furnaces and rolling mills	53	428,000	17	372,000	36	56,000
Steel products	251	207,000	33	72,000	218	135,000
Textiles:						
Cotton	65	57,000	18	30,000	47	27,000
Silk and rayon	34	11,000	6	7,000	28	5,000
Woolen and worsted	58	43,000	10	27,000	48	16,000

Prevalence of Arbitration Provisions

Three of every four union agreements in 14 important industries, covering about 83 percent of the workers under the agreements analyzed, provide for arbitration as the terminal point in the grievance machinery.

In some industries almost all the agreements provide for the arbitration of disputes arising during the terms of the agreements; in other industries this means of settling grievances is less common. In the petroleum production and refining, steel (blast furnaces and rolling mills), and textile industries, over 90 percent of the agreements provide for arbitration, whereas such provisions are contained in only about 40 percent of the agreements covering automobile and parts plants and in about 60 percent of the agreements covering plants manufacturing machinery (other than electrical). Between 60 and 70 percent of the agreements in the aluminum, rubber, and steel products industries, and between 75 and 85 percent of the agreements

in aircraft, industrial chemicals, electrical machinery, and meat-packing industries, have arbitration provisions.

On the whole, agreements with large companies tend to have arbitration provisions more frequently than do agreements covering smaller plants. This tendency is particularly marked in the aluminum, electrical-machinery, steel, and steel products industries. In the industrial chemicals and the woolen and worsted textile industries the proportion of smaller plants with arbitration provisions is larger than the proportion of major plants. (See table 2.)

TABLE 2.—*Arbitration Provisions in 1,254 Union Agreements in Selected Industries*

Industry	All companies			Major companies			Small companies		
	Total	With arbitration	Without arbitration	Total	With arbitration	Without arbitration	Total	With arbitration	Without arbitration
	Percent of agreements								
All industries	100	73	27	100	79	21	100	71	29
Aircraft, excluding parts	100	77	23	100	77	23	100	77	23
Aluminum	100	66	34	100	68	32	100	50	50
Automobiles and parts	100	42	58	100	46	54	100	41	59
Chemicals, industrial	100	86	14	100	81	19	100	89	11
Machinery, electrical	100	77	23	100	88	12	100	74	26
Machinery, other	100	59	41	100	65	35	100	57	43
Meat packing	100	81	19	100	85	15	100	79	21
Petroleum production and refining	100	95	5	100	97	3	100	93	7
Rubber	100	69	31	100	73	27	100	67	33
Steel—blast furnaces and rolling mills	100	92	8	100	100	-------	100	89	11
Steel products	100	65	35	100	76	24	100	63	37
Textiles:									
Cotton	100	98	2	100	100	-------	100	98	2
Silk and rayon	100	94	6	100	100	-------	100	93	7
Woolen and worsted	100	93	7	100	90	10	100	94	6
	Percent of workers								
All industries	100	83	17	100	85	15	100	76	24
Aircraft, excluding parts	100	79	21	100	75	25	100	89	11
Aluminum	100	80	20	100	81	19	100	24	76
Automobiles and parts	100	83	17	100	87	13	100	36	64
Chemicals, industrial	100	75	25	100	67	33	100	90	10
Machinery, electrical	100	87	13	100	96	4	100	73	27
Machinery, other	100	61	39	100	66	34	100	51	49
Meat packing	100	89	11	100	89	11	100	83	17
Petroleum production and refining	100	94	6	100	95	5	100	84	16
Rubber	100	53	47	100	50	50	100	70	30
Steel—blast furnaces and rolling mills	100	99	1	100	100	-------	100	95	5
Steel products	100	79	21	100	83	17	100	77	23
Textiles:									
Cotton	100	99	1	100	100	-------	100	97	3
Silk and rayon	100	99	1	100	100	-------	100	98	2
Woolen and worsted	100	98	2	100	99	1	100	97	3

As is to be expected from the fact that arbitration is more common in large than in small companies, the proportion of workers under agreement covered by arbitration provisions is larger in most industries than the proportion of agreements with such clauses. For example, although less than half of the agreements with major automobile companies provide arbitration, 87 percent of the workers employed by these companies have recourse to arbitration, owing largely to the presence of arbitration in the multiplant agreements of the Chrys-

ler, Ford, and General Motors companies. In industrial chemicals the reverse is true, reflecting the fact that the small plants have adopted arbitration provisions more frequently than the larger companies. In the rubber industry, although a larger proportion of major plants than small plants provide for arbitration, the proportion of workers covered by arbitration provisions is smaller, because a few of the agreements with larger companies (such as Goodrich and Goodyear Akron plants) do not provide for arbitration.

Permanent Versus Ad Hoc Arbitration

Most arbitration agreements provide that the person or persons who are to serve as arbitrators are to be selected whenever a particular need arises. On the other hand, 5 percent of the agreements provide for permanent arbitration machinery. Of the 915 agreements with arbitration clauses, 43 stipulate permanent arbitration machinery and 872 ad hoc arbitration. The limited number of agreements providing permanent arbitration machinery, however, cover 28 percent of the workers employed under arbitration agreements. (See table 3.)

PERMANENT ARBITRATION

Permanent arbitration provisions occur most frequently in the agreements of the aircraft, automobile, meat-packing, and rubber industries, although they are found in some agreements in each of the other industries considered, except petroleum. In the automobile and meat-packing industries, 88 and 73 percent, respectively, of the workers under arbitration clauses are covered by permanent arbitration. Although agreements with the larger plants in the above-named industries tend to have permanent arbitration clauses more commonly than do agreements with smaller plants, the proportion of workers covered by such clauses in the aircraft and rubber industries is far less than in the automobile and meat-packing industries. In the electrical-machinery, basic-steel, and cotton-textile industries, none of the agreements with major plants provide for permanent arbitration.

The General Motors, Ford, and Chrysler agreements establish permanent arbitration and account for the high proportion of workers in the automobile industry and for most of the workers in the aircraft industry under permanent arbitration machinery. Similarly, the high proportion of meat-packing workers with permanent arbitration is explained by the master agreements of the Armour, Swift, and Wilson companies, which contain such provisions.

The Ford and General Motors agreements contain specific references to the termination of the permanent arbitrator's services. In the former agreement the arbitrator may be dismissed at any time on 30 days' notice by either party to the arbitrator and to the other party. In effect, however, the arbitrator's services may be terminated without notice, since the party requesting his dismissal has the privilege of specifying that the arbitrator shall not render decisions in cases pending at the date of notice. Likewise, while the General Motors umpire is employed on an annual basis, he actually serves only as long as "he continues to be acceptable to both parties."

TABLE 3.—*Ad Hoc and Permanent Arbitration Provisions in 915 Union Agreements in Selected Industries*

Industry	All companies			Major companies			Small companies		
	Total	Ad hoc	Permanent	Total	Ad hoc	Permanent	Total	Ad hoc	Permanent
	Percent of agreements								
All industries	100	95	5	100	90	10	100	98	2
Aircraft, excluding parts	100	89	11	100	85	15	100	95	5
Aluminum	100	95	5	100	94	6	100	100	------
Automobiles and parts	100	91	9	100	64	36	100	100	------
Chemicals, industrial	100	96	4	100	88	12	100	100	------
Machinery, electrical	100	96	4	100	100	------	100	95	5
Machinery, other	100	98	2	100	96	4	100	99	1
Meat packing	100	87	13	100	73	27	100	97	3
Petroleum production and refining	100	100	------	100	100	------	100	100	------
Rubber	100	90	10	100	79	21	100	97	3
Steel—blast furnaces and rolling mills	100	96	4	100	100	------	100	94	6
Steel products	100	96	4	100	92	8	100	97	3
Textiles:									
Cotton	100	98	2	100	100	------	100	98	2
Silk and rayon	100	97	3	100	83	17	100	100	------
Woolen and worsted	100	96	4	100	89	11	100	98	2
	Percent of workers								
All industries	100	72	28	100	65	35	100	97	3
Aircraft, excluding parts	100	78	22	100	67	33	100	99	1
Aluminum	100	99	1	100	99	1	100	100	------
Automobiles and parts	100	12	88	100	9	91	100	100	------
Chemicals, industrial	100	91	9	100	88	12	100	100	------
Machinery, electrical	100	95	5	100	100	------	100	84	16
Machinery, other	100	98	2	100	97	3	100	99	1
Meat packing	100	27	73	100	23	77	100	97	3
Petroleum production and refining	100	100	------	100	100	------	100	100	------
Rubber	100	88	12	100	85	15	100	98	2
Steel—blast furnaces and rolling mills	100	99	1	100	100	------	100	99	1
Steel products	100	98	2	100	98	2	100	98	2
Textiles:									
Cotton	100	97	3	100	100	------	100	94	6
Silk and rayon	100	95	5	100	92	8	100	100	------
Woolen and worsted	100	98	2	100	98	2	100	98	2

AD HOC ARBITRATION

Among the major agreements which provide ad hoc arbitration are those with the following companies: Boeing Aircraft Co., Consolidated-Vultee Aircraft Corporation (San Diego, Calif.), Curtiss-Wright Corporation (Buffalo, N. Y.), Aluminum Co. of America (all agreements),[2] General Electric Co., Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Co., Caterpillar Tractor Co., International Harvester Co. (all agreements), United States Steel Corporation and its subsidiaries, Wheeling Steel Corporation, Richfield Oil Corporation, Shell Oil Co., Sinclair Refining Co., and American Woolen Co.

Initiation of Arbitration Proceedings

An arbitration clause may provide for arbitration at the request of either party, at the request of the union, at the request of the aggrieved employee or his representative, or by mutual consent of both parties.

[2] A directive order of the National War Labor Board on November 28, 1942, rendered after the effective date of the current agreement covering the Cleveland, Ohio, plants of this company, provides a permanent arbitrator to be appointed by the parties "to make final determination of all grievances which are not settled in accordance with the existing grievance procedure."

AUTOMATIC ARBITRATION

Arbitration at the request of either party—sometimes referred to as compulsory or automatic arbitration [3]—is specified in 93 percent of the arbitration agreements, covering a similar proportion of workers. Aluminum is the only industry considered in which a substantial proportion of the agreements do not provide for arbitration at the request of either party. In the basic-steel industry and in the silk- and rayon-textile industry, all arbitration agreements empower employer or union to refer an unresolved dispute to arbitration.

In most industries, provisions allowing either party to request arbitration appear somewhat more frequently in agreements with small than with large companies; but in the automobile, steel-products, and cotton-textile industries a larger proportion of the major agreements have such clauses.

TABLE 4.—*Provisions for Initiating Arbitration in 915 Union Agreements in Selected Industries*

Method of initiating arbitration	All arbitration agreements			Ad hoc arbitration			Permanent arbitration		
	All companies	Major companies	Small companies	All companies	Major companies	Small companies	All companies	Major companies	Small companies
	Percent of agreements								
At request of either party	93	86	96	93	86	96	95	93	100
At request of union	2	6	1	2	5	1	5	7	-------
At request of individual employee or his representative	1	2	-------	1	2	-------	-------	-------	-------
By mutual consent	4	6	3	4	7	3	-------	-------	-------
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Percent of workers								
At request of either party	91	89	96	88	84	96	99	99	100
At request of union	3	3	1	3	3	1	1	1	-------
At request of individual employee or or his representative	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	1	-------	-------	-------	-------
By mutual consent	6	8	3	9	12	3	-------	-------	-------
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

[1] Less than 1 percent.

A few arbitration agreements (2 percent), chiefly with the major plants in the aircraft, rubber, and cotton-textile industries, specify that the union may initiate arbitration; and an additional 1 percent, almost all of which are with major petroleum plants, permit arbitration at the request of "an individual or his representative." Since these agreements fail specifically to state that the employer also has the right to ask for a hearing on grievances against the union, they could be construed to prohibit appeal to arbitration by the employer. In practice, however, the employer's superior strategic position in the positive steps which he can take when he has a grievance against the union or any employees—such as the right to discipline or discharge any employee for alleged violation of the agreement—tends to throw the burden of protest and appeal to arbitration upon the union.

[3] While such arbitration is compulsory in that both parties must be willing to accept arbitration for all unresolved disputes during the life of the agreement, it is not compulsory in the sense that the Government has imposed arbitration. More accurately, it is voluntarily adopted compulsory arbitration.

PERMISSIVE ARBITRATION

About 4 percent of the arbitration agreements, covering a slightly higher proportion of workers, permit arbitration only when both parties mutually agree to arbitrate a dispute. This arrangement, sometimes referred to as permissive arbitration, allows either party to veto a request for arbitration, thus forcing the party desiring adjustment either to accept the other's terms or to resort to economic pressure by way of a strike or lockout. Under a few agreements, specified disputes may be arbitrated at the request of either party, but other disputes require mutual consent.

Requirements for mutual consent to arbitrate are found in about one-third of the arbitration agreements in the aluminum industry—all negotiated by the Aluminum Co. of America and covering about 90 percent of the aluminum workers under arbitration agreements[4]—and in about one-tenth of the agreements in the machinery (other than electrical) industry. The General Motors and the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Co. agreements with the United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers (C. I. O.) and the International Harvester Co. agreements with United Farm Equipment and Metal Workers (C. I. O.), covering three Chicago plants of this company, also require mutual consent for arbitration.

None of the agreements providing for permanent arbitration machinery require the mutual consent of both parties before an issue may be referred to such arbitration; and none of the ad hoc arbitration agreements in the meat-packing, petroleum, basic-steel, and cotton-, silk-, and rayon-textile industries contain such restrictions.

Composition of Arbitration Agency

About half of the union agreements analyzed designate as the arbitration agency a tripartite board consisting of an equal number of employer and union representatives with a neutral member acting as chairman. In most cases the neutral member functions with the committee from the beginning, but in about a fifth of the cases the impartial chairman is added only in the event of a deadlock. In contrast with this tripartite arrangement, some agreements call for committees or boards composed exclusively of outside impartial persons or establish a State agency to serve as arbitrator.

A considerable number of the arbitration agreements (about 36 percent) provide for single arbitrators, and a few additional ad hoc arbitration agreements specify that the agency may be either a board or a single person. The remaining agreements studied, all of the ad hoc type, do not specify the composition of the arbitration agency. Among these are a few which refer the choice of arbitrator to a State or Federal agency but fail to specify whether such agency is itself to act as arbitrator or is merely to appoint an arbitrator.

[4] In a decision issued November 27, 1943, involving the Torrance, Calif., plant of the Aluminum Co. of America, the NWLB disallowed a company request that the agreement covering this plant include arbitration by mutual consent and ordered instead "compulsory arbitration"; i. e., at the request of either party.

TABLE 5.—*Composition of Ad Hoc and Permanent Arbitration Agencies Provided in 915 Union Agreements in Selected Industries*

Composition of arbitration agency	All arbitration agencies			Ad hoc arbitration agencies			Permanent arbitration agencies		
	All companies	Major companies	Small companies	All companies	Major companies	Small companies	All companies	Major companies	Small companies
	Percent of agreements								
Single arbitrator	36	35	36	35	32	36	60	63	56
Board with impartial chairman [1]	40	36	42	41	38	41	16	11	25
Bipartisan board, with odd man added only if board fails to agree	11	12	11	12	13	12	2	4	-------
Single arbitrator or board	3	6	2	3	7	2	-------	-------	-------
State agency [2]	1	2	(3)	-------	-------	-------	22	22	19
Other	9	9	9	9	10	9	-------	-------	-------
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Percent of workers								
Single arbitrator	61	68	40	51	55	40	89	91	34
Board with impartial chairman [1]	24	17	47	30	22	48	9	8	51
Bipartisan board, with odd man added only if board fails to agree	5	5	6	6	7	5	1	-------	-------
Single arbitrator or board	4	5	1	6	8	1	-------	-------	-------
State agency [2]	(3)	(3)	(3)	-------	-------	-------	1	1	15
Other	6	5	6	7	8	6	-------	-------	-------
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

[1] Includes a few agreements which require the members of the board to have no connection with either party.

[2] Includes only those agreements which specifically state that the State agency itself shall act as arbitrator. Agreements which fail to specify whether this agency or an appointee is to serve as the arbitrator are classified under the subsequent heading.

[3] Less than 1 percent.

Agreements which provide for permanent arbitration tend to designate single persons or a State agency to serve as the arbitrator. About 60 percent of the permanent arbitration agreements refer to single arbitrators; about 22 percent, which cover plants in Massachusetts, establish the Massachusetts State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration [5] as the arbitrator. Ad hoc agreements, on the other hand, provide for the appointment of arbitration boards more frequently than they designate single arbitrators.

Single arbitrators are designated by all the permanent-arbitration agreements in the aircraft and automobile industries, except the agreement with the Chrysler Corporation, and by most of the permanent-arbitration agreements in the meat-packing industry. The agreements of the Chrysler Corporation and the George A. Hormel Co. each establish a tripartite arbitration committee, headed by a permanent chairman.

Among the ad hoc arbitration agreements, boards are established by about 90 percent of the agreements in the meat-packing industry, by over 70 percent in the chemical and petroleum industries, and by over 60 percent in the aircraft, electrical-machinery, and rubber industries. In about half of the petroleum agreements, the impartial member of the board is not appointed until after the bipartisan rep-

[5] This board has functioned (as a part of the Massachusetts Department of Labor) for many years as an arbitrator when requested by employers and unions. Like the U. S. Conciliation Service, labor-mediation activities in most States are concerned mainly with conciliation, or with the appointment of arbitrators at the request of the disputing parties.

resentatives have failed to agree. Single arbitrators are provided in about 80 percent of the ad hoc arbitration agreements in the steel industry (including all the major agreements), and in over half of those in the machinery (other than electrical) and the steel products industries.

The ad hoc agreements with the following companies specify arbitration boards or committees: Curtiss-Wright Corporation (Buffalo, N. Y., and St. Louis, Mo., plants); Texas Co. (Port Arthur, Tex., plant); Union Oil Co. of California (California plants); General Tire and Rubber Co.; United States Rubber Co. (Chicopee Falls, Mass., Detroit, Mich., and Los Angeles, Calif. plants); and Hood Rubber Co. Single arbitrators are provided for in the agreements of the Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation and other United States Steel Corporation subsidiaries, the Caterpillar Tractor Co., several plants of the International Harvester Co., and the Wheeling Steel Corporation.

The choice of either a single arbitrator or a board, which appears in a few ad hoc agreements, is found chiefly in the rubber and cotton-textile industries. Such a provision is also contained in the national agreement of the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Co.

The composition of arbitration agencies established by agreements with large companies does not differ markedly from the composition of those established by agreements with smaller plants.

Selection of Arbitrators

In the case of ad hoc arbitration the problem of selecting an arbitrator or board must be faced each time arbitration is requested, whereas under permanent arbitration the individual or board, once chosen, usually serves continuously throughout the life of the agreement.

According to 70 percent of the permanent arbitration agreements, the arbitrator was selected at the time the agreement was negotiated and is designated by name or title in the agreement. Included in the group are those which designate the Massachusetts State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration as arbitrator. In about 25 percent, including most of the permanent-arbitration agreements with large plants, the arbitrator was to be jointly selected, subsequent to the signing of the agreement, to serve for the duration of the agreement. Most agreements in the latter group—covering over 80 percent of the workers under permanent arbitration—fail to provide for breaking a deadlock in case the parties fail to agree on the arbitrator. A few permanent arbitration agreements state that the arbitrator is to be appointed initially by a designated outside agency or individual.

In 80 percent of the ad hoc arbitration agreements the selection of the arbitrator is left to mutual agreement of the parties. While half of these provide no automatic means for breaking a deadlock, at least half stipulate an outside agency which is to appoint a neutral arbitrator if the employer and union fail to agree upon a selection. Less than 35 percent of the ad hoc agreements in the meat-packing, petroleum, steel, and steel-products industries empower an outside individual or agency to select an impartial arbitrator when the two parties fail to agree. The proportion of agreements with major plants pro-

viding such safeguards against deadlocks in the selection of a neutral arbitrator is slightly larger than the proportion with small plants.

About 16 percent of the ad hoc arbitration agreements specify that a designated governmental or private agency or individual shall appoint the neutral arbitrator whenever the need for arbitration arises, while a few, principally in the aluminum industry, contain no information on how the arbitrators are to be selected.

TABLE 6.—*Method of Selection of Ad Hoc and Permanent Arbitration Agencies in 915 Union Agreements in Selected Industries*

Method of selection	All arbitration agencies			Ad hoc arbitration agencies			Permanent arbitration agencies		
	All companies	Major companies	Small companies	All companies	Major companies	Small companies	All companies	Major companies	Small companies
	Percent of agreements								
Designated in agreement	3	6	2	-------	-------	-------	70	59	88
Selection by mutual agreement; outside agency or individual to make choice if parties fail to agree	40	42	38	41	46	39	4	4	6
Selection by mutual agreement (no reference to outside party should parties fail to agree on choice)	39	33	41	40	33	42	21	33	-------
Appointed initially by outside agency or individual	15	12	17	16	13	17	5	4	6
No mention	3	7	2	3	8	2	-------	-------	-------
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Percent of workers								
Designated in agreement	5	5	3	-------	-------	-------	16	14	92
Selection by mutual agreement; outside agency or individual to make choice if parties fail to agree	30	22	57	42	34	58	1	(1)	7
Selection by mutual agreement (no reference to outside party should they fail to agree)	52	59	29	40	44	30	83	86	-------
Appointed initially by outside agency or individual	5	4	9	7	7	10	(1)	(1)	1
No mention	8	10	2	11	15	2	-------	-------	-------
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

[1] Less than 1 percent.

The agencies most frequently specified to appoint an arbitrator under both permanent and ad hoc arbitration arrangements, either initially or after the parties have failed to agree upon the selection, are the U. S. Conciliation Service, the National War Labor Board, various State labor boards or mediation agencies, and (principally in textile agreements) the American Arbitration Association. The U. S. Conciliation Service most frequently appoints as arbitrators special members of its own staff, although sometimes it appoints arbitrators who are not on its staff.[6] The American Arbitration Association, a private agency, has established a tribunal which offers a panel of arbitrators from which the two parties may make a selection, or from which the Association, when requested, may appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators.

[6] The services of these arbitrators may be invoked in the following ways: By a joint request from the parties, directed to the Washington office of the Service; by a joint stipulation to arbitrate, signed by the parties while a commissioner of conciliation is on the scene; or by a request from labor and management (or either if the agreement so provides), when an agreement exists providing for arbitration by the Service.

Time Limits

In order to avoid the possibility of delay in settling disputes, and to prevent obstruction of arbitration by either party, time limits are specified in over half of the arbitration agreements. Time limits may be established for any one or all of the several stages in the arbitration process—the selection of the arbitrator or arbitrators, the conduct of hearings, and the rendering of decisions. The largest proportion (over 70 percent) of the time limits are confined to the selection of the arbitrators—an indication that unnecessary delays are not anticipated once the arbitration proceedings are under way. When the arbitrator or arbitration agency is designated in the agreement, or when the selection of the arbitrator is initially referred to an outside agency, agreements do not, of course, contain time limits for selecting arbitrators.

Of the total agreements that provide for selection of arbitrators by mutual consent, including those providing for reference to an outside agency for selection of an arbitrator if the parties fail to agree on one, slightly over half fix some time limits on the selection process. The proportion of agreements providing time limits in the joint selection of arbitrators was about the same for ad hoc as for permanent agreements, and was greater for large than for small plants.

Status of Arbitration Decisions

Since it is the purpose of arbitration finally to settle a question in dispute, it follows that the decision or award must be accepted and binding on the parties involved. This concept is affirmed by 90 percent of the agreements studied, which specifically state that a decision rendered after arbitration proceedings shall be "final and binding" on the parties concerned; some, in addition, specifically state that there shall be no appeal from the decision to a court or "labor board".[7]

The omission of the "final and binding" clause occurs principally in agreements which fail to describe the composition of the arbitration agency and/or which require mutual consent of the parties to initiate arbitration. Since arbitration implies final settlement of disputed matters, an award should be considered binding even though there is no express stipulation to that effect.

Scope of Arbitration

Definitions of the precise scope of arbitration vary from agreement to agreement, ranging from brief but general statements to lengthy itemizations of the specific issues which are or are not arbitrable.

The majority of the agreements analyzed not only authorize the arbitration of disputes involving the "interpretation and/or application" of any of their provisions, but also enumerate specific issues which are subject to arbitration. Disputes over discharges are most frequently listed as arbitrable; a few agreements, however, do not include disputes over discharges that result from participation in work stoppages, incompetency, insubordination, and other specified causes, or that involve probationary employees.

[7] The National War Labor Board, on September 10, 1943, issued a statement which in effect stated that it will not review an arbitrator's award except where he has exceeded his authority. Under the wage-stabilization program, however, the Board must review awards involving wage issues. In March 1944, the Board instructed its regional offices and industry commissions not to accept additional evidence or argument from parties when reviewing arbitrator's wage awards, except when specifically requested by the Board.

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Many agreements specify that the arbitrating agency has no power to "add to or subtract from or modify" any terms of the current agreement, or that the arbitrator may not "arbitrate away, in whole or in part, any provisions of this agreement." Such safeguards may be considered as restricting arbitration to interpretation and enforcement of the terms of the agreement.

When arbitration is expressly limited to interpretation, the arbitrator may decide only questions over matters already covered by the agreement and must limit his awards to interpreting its provisions in deciding the respective rights and duties of the parties on particular issues. Under such circumstances the arbitrator's scope is, of course, much broader if the substantive provisions of the agreement cover many subjects than if the coverage is limited. The possible need for utilizing arbitration to interpret an agreement is lessened if the provisions describing the subjects covered are detailed and precise.

The U. A. W.-C. I. O. agreement with General Motors is an example of an agreement which allows the arbitrator to act on issues involving the "interpretation and/or the application of any term of this agreement"; in addition it states that he shall have "no power to add to or to subtract from or modify any of the terms of this agreement or any agreements made supplementary hereto; nor to establish or change any wage * * *." Although some particular issues are listed on which the arbitrator may act (such as claims of union discrimination and alleged violation of the terms of certain sections of the agreement), since all these matters are included elsewhere in the agreement, the arbitrator's function is limited to interpreting and enforcing the terms specified.

Some agreements provide that any dispute over wages, hours, or other conditions of employment may be arbitrated, without clearly indicating whether arbitration is restricted to the interpretation of wage and other clauses in the agreement or whether any dispute involving these subjects may be arbitrated. About three-fourths of the agreements refer to individual wage-rate disputes, such as controversies over rates to be established for a "bona fide new job," rate changes owing to changes in job content, claims of improper classification, alleged violation of negotiated rates, individual wage-rate reviews, etc. Others refer to both general and individual wage disputes during the terms of the agreement or to disputes over general wage revisions only.

Specific references to the arbitration of wage disputes, referring either to requests for general wage changes or to individual wage-rate adjustments, are found in less than half of the arbitration agreements, and these generally allow such disputes to be arbitrated, although the proportion of agreements which permit arbitration of general wage disputes is considerably less than those which allow arbitration of individual wage grievances. Among the major agreements which permit the arbitration of individual wage disputes are those covering subsidiaries of the United States Steel Corporation; United States Rubber Co. (Indianapolis, Ind.); Shell Oil Co. (Calif.); and Wheeling Steel Corporation. Agreements with the following companies specifically permit the arbitration of general wage disputes: American Thread Co., American Woolen Co. (North Vassalboro, Maine), and Marshall Field & Co. (North Carolina plants).

Some agreements specifically exclude from arbitration designated management functions such as "methods of production" and the com-

pany's "operating policy," use of machinery, and "matters pertaining to the financial status of the business"; others specifically exclude "the purpose or the inclusiveness of this agreement," the "enlargement or the extension of the scope or status of the union," and "grievance or dispute which arises out of governmental orders, regulations or contracts," etc.

A few agreements state that "any grievance or complaint" or "any difference" may be arbitrated, but provide no clue as to whether arbitration is limited to the interpretation, application, and/or enforcement of their provisions, or whether grievances over matters not specifically covered by the agreement are included within the scope of arbitration. Occasionally, an agreement appears to permit arbitration of matters not specifically covered in addition to disputes involving interpretation.

A small proportion of the agreements studied (less than 1 percent of those providing arbitration), in addition to authorizing the arbitration of disputes over interpretation and/or disputes over certain working conditions, specifically authorize the arbitration of disputes over the terms and conditions of a new or renewed agreement. However, as the parties themselves attempt to settle disputes arising during the term of the agreement before resorting to arbitration, so also, through collective bargaining, do they first attempt to agree upon the terms and working conditions when reviewing or modifying its provisions. An arbitrator specifically authorized to arbitrate the terms of a new agreement may not assume jurisdiction until after the parties have tried by collective bargaining to agree on these new terms.

Regulation of Employment Contracts in the Dominican Republic [1]

TO IMPROVE the position of workers in the Dominican Republic, the Government of that country has enacted various measures within the last 4 years.[2] One of the recent laws was that promulgated June 16, 1944, to regulate employment contracts and safeguard the rights of workers and employers. The statute forbids employers to interfere with laborers' organizations, to extend the usual working day, or to cancel benefits accruing to workers under existing laws; it also nullifies contractual agreements which require workers to make purchases in certain establishments. Provision is made for maternity leave, the work of minors (under restrictions), and certain dismissal payments. The law does not cover employers of domestics, or subcontractors hiring day laborers; nor does it cover the armed forces, or the office workers of the State, the municipalities, or the District of Santo Domingo.

Obligations of Employers and Employees

Employers are required by the law to treat workers with consideration, to pay wages for the time when the employers suspend work, to provide suitable materials and tools for work (unless the worker

[1] Data are from law No. 637, published in Gaceta Oficial (Ciudad Trujillo), June 20, 1944.

[2] Earlier laws included an act of April 19, 1940, to establish a committee with power to recommend minimum wages, and a measure of March 17, 1941, to legalize paid vacations for salaried employees. For a discussion of these laws, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1940 (p. 162), and June 1941 (p. 1434).

furnishes his own tools, in which case a safe place is to be provided for them), to furnish free the preventive medicines specified by the health authorities, and to install first-aid facilities. The law forbids employers to force workers to resign from labor organizations. It also forbids their influencing the political decisions or the religious opinions of the workers. Employers are not to accept money from employees in return for work or for special privileges; they are not to make compulsory collections from the employees; nor are they to appropriate or keep the workers' tools or property as pledge or penalty. They are also forbidden to supervise work while intoxicated, or to take any action restricting the workers' rights as conferred by this law.

The law stipulates that workers are to do their work carefully, return unused materials to the employer, and care well for tools furnished them. They are to keep faithfully the technical secrets of the employer. They are to be subject to medical examination at any time at the request of the employer, and they must observe safety measures strictly.

Workers are prohibited from leaving their work during regular hours except for justified cause or with the employer's permission, from carrying on political or religious propaganda, and from commenting unfavorably on the democratic institutions of the country. They must not work when intoxicated, and must not use the employer's tools except as he directs. The worker who, after one warning, violates any of these prohibitions thereby becomes subject to termination of his contract.

Termination of Agreements and Dismissal Compensation

In case of the termination of an agreement of indefinite length, verbal or written, notice must be given by the party breaking the contract. Notice of at least 1 week is required if the work has continued for from 3 to 6 months, of 15 days if it has continued for more than 6 months, and of 1 month if it has continued for 1 year. The notice may be omitted on payment of a sum equal to the wages which would have been due for the notice time.

When termination of contract occurs without the consent of the worker or for causes which justify the worker in breaking the contract, a payment in accord with the duration of the worker's service must be made. This dismissal compensation is to be equal to 5 days' wages when the worker was employed for more than 3 and less than 6 months, to 10 days' wages for more than 6 months and less than a year, and, after service of 1 year, to 1 month's wages for each year (and fraction of a year not less than 6 months) up to 2 years.

In calculating the dismissal compensation, continuity of the worker's service is not to be considered as having been broken by illness, vacations, or similar factors which would not break the contract under the law. The dismissal payment may not be attached except for living expenses and then only to the amount of half the sum due. Moreover, the worker's claims for this compensation are given precedence over other claims on the estate of a bankrupt employer.

Legitimate causes given for dismissing a worker include the following: Acts in defiance of the employer during working hours or after, revealing technical secrets, endangering the worker's place of occupa-

tion or his fellow workers, deceiving the employer in order to obtain work, and absence from work for 2 consecutive days or twice in the same month, except with just cause or with the permission of the employer. If a worker is unfairly discharged, he is entitled to certain payments. Causes which justify the worker in breaking his contract include the employer's failure to pay full wages, injury done the worker by the employer or his subordinates during or after working hours, and the employer's failure to guard the worker's safety.

Under the law, a contract may be terminated without responsibility to the worker or loss of rights of his dependents by (1) the death of the worker, (2) legal obligations which render it impossible for the worker to fulfill the terms, and (3) accident or force majeure, or the bankruptcy or death of the employer.

Finally, the law stipulates that, on the expiration of all contracts, the employer must, on request, give the worker a certificate which details the length of his service, the type of work done, the character of conduct and ability, and the reason for ending the contract.

Suspension of Agreements

A labor agreement may be suspended, in whole or in part, under the law, without causing its termination and without loss of the rights and obligations involved. Temporary suspension becomes effective as of the day on which it occurs, provided that within 3 days from that date the cause is duly proved before the Bureau of Labor. If the Bureau finds that the suspension is unjustified or that the alleged cause for it does not exist, the workers may exercise their right to terminate the agreement with responsibility upon the employer.

Legitimate causes for temporary suspension are (1) lack of raw materials, when not the fault of the employer, (2) accident or force majeure, and (3) death or disability of the employer which makes necessary the suspension of work. During the period of suspension for these causes, the employer may terminate the agreement, provided that he pays the compensation for advance notice and dismissal and other indemnities due. Confinement of a worker in prison is also given as a justifiable cause for suspension, and regulations are provided for reinstatement upon the termination of imprisonment.

Sick leave.[3]—The proved illness of the worker which prevents him from performing his duties for no longer than 2 months is also specified as legitimate cause for suspension of the agreement without responsibility for the worker. The employer is obliged to grant the worker leave until his full restoration to health, provided this occurs within the period indicated, and to pay him in accordance with the length of his service—for continuous employment from 3 to 6 months, half pay for 15 days; from 6 months to a year, half pay for a month; and for more than a year, half pay for 2 months. During this type of suspension of contract, the employer is allowed to employ a substitute worker temporarily.

Work of Minors

Minors are prohibited from working (1) in places where their inexperience would expose them to danger, (2) when such work

[3] Workmen's compensation for industrial accidents was provided in law No. 385 of November 11, 1932, translated in International Labor Office Legislative Series, 1932, Dominican Republic.

would interfere with their elementary education, unless they are more than 14 years of age, or must work for their own support, and (3) when the work must be done between 9 o'clock at night and 5 o'clock in the morning, unless the minor is 16 years of age.

Minors over 14 years of age are permitted to enter into contracts, if parents or guardians do not object; those under 14 years may not do so except with the permission of the Bureau of Labor and provided that the work is suitable and does not interfere with their education. Unless parents or guardians have notified employers otherwise, wages may be paid directly to minors over 14 years of age. Wages of minors under 14 are to be paid to parents or guardians, unless the parents or guardians indicate otherwise.

Maternity Leave

The law provides maternity leave with pay for 4 weeks before and 6 weeks after childbirth. Mothers may leave work for 20-minute intervals, three times a day, for the purpose of nursing their infants.

Apprenticeship

Provision is made for apprenticeship agreements, under which one person works for another in return for instruction in a skill or occupation and pay (in cash or in kind) that may be less than the minimum wage. The employer may dismiss without responsibility an apprentice who lacks ability to attain the required skill. Work and instruction in officially recognized institutions and vocational schools are to be regulated by special provisions.

Procedure in Case of Dispute

Controversies arising under labor contracts are to be submitted first to the Bureau of Labor, which will act as arbitrator. If agreement is reached by this means, or if it is not reached, a document to the effect is to be drawn up and signed by both parties. The mayors' offices (*alcaldías*) are given jurisdiction over disputes which develop concerning the execution of employment contracts. Lawyers are not required before the mayors' courts. Appeals from these courts may be carried to courts of the first instance (trial courts), provided the amount under litigation is more than 25 pesos and the appeal is brought within 1 month from the day the decision is reported. Labor contracts are to be free from taxes, and constables' fees are to be reduced by one-half.

Industrial Disputes

Strikes in September 1944

PRELIMINARY estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for September show 390 strikes, involving 185,000 workers and 660,000 man-days of idleness. Strike activity in September was somewhat lower than in August, the idleness being 0.09 percent of available working time as compared with 0.12 percent in August.

All figures in the table below exclude strikes lasting less than 1 day (or shift) and those involving fewer than 6 workers. As in the past, the figures include all the workers in any plant who were made idle because of a strike in that plant, regardless of whether or not they were all directly involved in the dispute.

Strikes in September 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
September 1944 [1]	390	185,000	660,000	0.09
August 1944 [1]	485	190,000	935,000	.12
September 1943	237	66,664	209,514	.03
September 1942	274	87,904	387,150	.06
September 1941	470	295,270	1,952,652	.30
September 1940	253	65,362	780,570	.15
September 1939	197	36,846	892,485	.18

[1] Preliminary estimates.

Larger strikes in September.—The strike of supervisory workers in the bituminous-coal mines, which in August had been confined to Pennsylvania, extended into West Virginia and Kentucky in September. More than 20,000 workers were involved, and idleness in September totaled more than 100,000 man-days. A second strike of supervisory workers, one of nonsalaried foremen and subforemen at the Dravo Corporation in Wilmington (Del.), demanding recognition of their committee for the settlement of grievances, caused considerable idleness.

Members of the United Wallpaper Craftsmen & Workers of North America (A. F. of L.) were idle more than 2 weeks while they were unable to reach agreement on a new contract with the National Wallpaper Institute. This strike affected production of 31 companies in 7 States. Points at issue included union jurisdiction, use of apprentices, check-off, classifications, general wage increases, and a health-benefit program. Workers returned when a compromise agreement was

reached. The wage issues were referred to the National War Labor Board.

A 2-day strike at the Willow Run Bomber plant of the Ford Motor Co. (Ypsilanti, Mich.), in protest against the transfer of employees in alleged violation of seniority provisions of their contract, involved about 20,000 workers. Other strikes, each causing more than 10,000 man-days of idleness, occurred at the Revere Copper and Brass Co. (Chicago, Ill.), the Todd-Houston Shipbuilding Corporation (Houston, Tex.), the Briggs Manufacturing Co. (Detroit, Mich.), and the Sahara Coal Co. (near Harrisburg, Ill.).

Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, July and August 1944

DURING the month of August 1944, the U. S. Conciliation Service disposed of 2,487 situations, as compared with 2,207 situations in July. During August 1943, 2,066 situations on the records were closed.

Of the 312 strikes and lockouts handled in August 1944, 279 were settled successfully; 33 cases were certified to the War Labor Board in which strikes occurred during negotiations, but in 11 cases a Commissioner of Conciliation had effected a return-to-work agreement prior to certification of the case. Altogether, 160 situations were threatened strikes, and 1,734 were controversies in which the assistance of the Conciliation Service was requested by the employer, employees, and other interested parties. During August, 502 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board and in 1 case a Federal agency other than the War Labor Board assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 281 situations included 127 arbitrations, 17 investigations, and 137 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

Cases Closed by U. S. Conciliation Service, July and August 1944, by Type of Situation and Disposition

Method of handling	August 1944					July 1944				
	All situations	Strikes and lockouts	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations	All situations	Strikes and lockouts	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations
All methods	2,487	312	160	1,734	281	2,207	266	160	1,566	215
Settled by conciliation	1,703	279	140	1,284	------	1,400	218	128	1,054	------
Certified to National War Labor Board [1]	[1] 502	33	20	449	------	[2] 564	43	25	496	------
Referred to										
Other Federal agencies	1	------	------	1	------	[3] 24	4	6	14	------
State and local agencies	------	------	------	------	------	2	------	------	2	------
Nongovernmental agencies	------	------	------	------	------	[3] 2	1	1	------	------
Decisions rendered in arbitration	127	------	------	------	127	80	------	------	------	80
Technical services completed	17	------	------	------	17	3	------	------	------	3
Investigations, special services	137	------	------	------	137	132	------	------	------	132

[1] Of these, 11 were settled prior to referral.
[2] Of these, 21 were settled prior to referral.
[3] Settled prior to referral of case to other agencies.

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor[1]

Veterans' Reemployment Rights

REEMPLOYMENT clause of "G. I. Bill of Rights."—The employer's obligation to an honorably discharged veteran under the Selective Service and Training Act was analyzed in a decision of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit in the case of *Kay* v. *General Cable Corporation.*[2] The act provides for restoration of a veteran to the same position, or to one of like seniority status and pay, "unless the employer's circumstances have so changed as to make it impossible or unreasonable to do so." The case involved a physician whom the employer refused to reinstate, and who, before joining the armed forces, had served in a permanent position as a medical director for the employer, treating injuries arising out of the employment, and as a physician employed by the health association composed of the company's employees.

The first ground assigned by the employer for refusal was that the physician had maintained a private office for part-time practice and was therefore not "in the employ" of the company within the meaning of the act. This contention was rejected. The court emphasized that the Congressional purpose must be given weight in deciding the nature of a disputed relationship. The court disregarded the conventional control test of employment as inapplicable here; it found that the manner of payment (salary minus social-security deduction), the demands on the physician's time (he worked a regular week and punched a time clock), and the employer's right to discharge the physician at any time proved that the latter was "employed" and was not an independent contractor. Other acts of the employer before the physician entered the Army, such as the award of a 10-year service button and of Army and Navy "E" certificates, the payment of a bonus for enlistment, and the contents of the employer's application for the physician's draft deferment were considered as supporting the conclusion.

The second issue was in regard to the employer's change of circumstances. The fact that the physician was not reengaged by the Employees' Health Association after his discharge from the Army was not considered as a change in the circumstances making it unreasonable to reemploy him, even though it might be more efficient to have a single individual occupying both positions.

[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] ——Fed.(2d)——(C.C.A. 3).

The court theorized that changes requiring reduction of labor force or discontinuance of a department might suffice to relieve the employer of the obligation to create a job merely to reemploy a soldier. It decided, however, that more than some loss of efficiency or additional expense is needed to justify a refusal to reinstate a veteran. "Unreasonable," as used in the act, means more than inconvenient or undesirable. The protection for the veterans is a shield not only against capricious and arbitrary refusals but also against refusals based on comparisons which the war service makes unfair. Thus, handicapped by absence, the veterans are to be spared as far as possible any competition with those who have replaced them. The right of restoration to the position exists even though the temporary substitute, through greater efficiency or a more acceptable personality, has made his permanent retention seem desirable to the employer.

The district court was instructed to order the physician's reinstatement.

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

Jurisdiction over local work affecting interstate business.—Local house-to-house carriers of newspapers, the National Labor Relations Board decided in the case, *In re Pulitzer Publishing Co.* (57 N. L. R. B. No. 282), are employees of the publisher and are subject to the Board's jurisdiction if the publisher is admittedly engaged in interstate commerce and the carriers deliver a considerable portion of the employer's total distribution. A disturbance in their work would naturally affect the employer's whole business and thereby affect interstate commerce.[1]

A similar decision was made by the Board as to clerks in mercantile stores of a coal-mining company. In that case the merchandise was not, but the coal was, sold and shipped in interstate commerce (*In re West Virginia Coal & Coke Corp.*[3]).

Election void because of union's excessive influence.—The National Labor Relations Board set aside a run-off election (*In re Continental Oil Co.*, 58 N. L. R. B. No. 33, September 11, 1944), because the independent union which participated in the election posted on the bulletin board in the plant and advertised in the newspapers a premature release of the National War Labor Board which approved a joint application of the independent union and employer for a wage increase. The National War Labor Board usually refrains, when informed of the facts, from publishing a decision as to a wage increase during a campaign preceding an election.

The National Labor Relations Board declared as its principle that, in a campaign, elements which in its experienced judgment make an impartial test impossible are grounds for invalidating an election, regardless of the source of those elements and their truth or falsity. In the present situation of wage ceilings which eliminate the normal campaign appeal of a promise to seek better wages, the announcement of approval of the joint application had an effect which could not be measured but which prevented a free selection of union representation.

Strike to obtain agreement on wage increases not unlawful.—The National Labor Relations Board, distinguishing its earlier decision (*In re American News Co.*, 55 N. L. R. B. 1302) which had denied benefits

[3] 57 N. L. R. B. No. ——, August —, 1944.

under the National Labor Relations Act to workers who struck to force an employer to pay agreed wage increases before they were approved by the War Labor Board, decided in a case involving the Indiana Desk Co. (58 N. L. R. B. No. 10, September 4, 1944) that a strike caused by the employer's refusal to agree on a wage increase is within the protection of the act. Any resulting agreement increasing wage rates must have War Labor Board approval to be effective. (See also *In re Union-Buffalo Mills Company*, 58 N. L. R. B. No. 72, September 19, 1944, involving a strike called to compel negotiation of demands for a wage increase.)

Reinstatement after economic strike.—The case of *In re Gardner-Denver Co.* (58 N. L. R. B. No. 15, September 6, 1944) arose from an employer's refusal to reinstate an employee whom he discharged for failing to perform work assigned to her. The operation so assigned was that of another employee who had quit because of a dispute over piece rates and whose reinstatement was being sought by the union. It was in support of this union activity that the work refusal occurred. The National Labor Relations Board ordered reinstatement, considering the situation like that of an "economic strike" (i. e., one not caused by unfair labor practices). In such a case, an employer may require the employee to perform the work or leave the premises, even though the employee's action is a lawful effort to assist a labor union under section 7 of the National Labor Relations Act. In this instance, however, the employee had asked for reinstatement on the employer's terms, before the employer had replaced her. Hence, she should have been rehired. The employer's policy of never rehiring a person discharged for refusing work assigned was discriminatory as applied here.

As to the right to back pay in cases of this type in which reinstatement is ordered, the National Labor Relations Board decided that a delay of 12 days in seeking new employment is not an unreasonable period to await an offer of reemployment, thus avoiding unnecessary job changes (*In re Laredo Daily Times* [4]); but a failure to apply to the U. S. Employment Service for 4 months deprived the employee of back pay for the period before he registered (*In re Union-Buffalo Mills Co.*, 58 N. L. R. B. No. 72, September 11, 1944).

Separation of craft and established labor units.—The National Labor Relations Board, in its decision reported as *In re General Electric Co.* (58 N. L. R. B. No. 12, September 5, 1944), took occasion to outline the conditions under which a craft unit will be severed from an established maintenance unit for the purpose of collective bargaining. The group seeking severance must show (a) that it is not a mere dissident faction but a true craft, which has maintained its identity as a craft group throughout the period in which bargaining was based on a wider unit and that it protested being included in the more comprehensive unit, or (b) that the production and maintenance unit was established without its knowledge, or (c) that there has been no previous consideration of the merits of a separate unit. In such cases, the National Labor Relations Board has directed elections to learn the choice of employees in the proposed craft unit before the Board decides finally what the appropriate bargaining unit shall be.

Bargaining unit for supervisors.—In line with its prior decision (*Allegheny Steel Corp.* v. *Kelley* [5]), that its jurisdiction extends to

[4] 58 N. L. R. B. No. ——, September ——, 1944.
[5] —— N. E. (2d) ——, July 27, 1944, reported in Monthly Labor Review, October 1944 (p. 803).

determining representation for supervisory employees in cases in which the National Labor Relations Board has neither acted nor been requested to act, the New York State Labor Relations Board ordered an election to fix representation of managers and assistant managers employed by a group of corporations engaged in distributing and exhibiting motion pictures. At the same time it excluded from this unit the cashiers and cashier-secretaries supervised by the managers and assistant managers, following its policy of avoiding the inclusion of supervisors and the supervised in a single bargaining unit. (*R. K. O. Service Corporation*, Case S. E.–10327, August 30, 1944.)

Jurisdictional Disputes

Court authority in railroad bankruptcy over jurisdictional dispute of employees.—A United States Circuit Court of Appeals decided, in *Central Railroad Co.* v. *Pitney*,[6] that in exercising bankruptcy powers in reorganizing a railroad,[7] a United States District Court cannot change wages or working conditions of employees except as prescribed by the Railway Labor Act.[8] Since the procedure under that act had not been followed, the court could not deal with a proposed replacement of road conductors who were members of one union by yard conductors belonging to another craft union. Further, since Congress made specific provisions for dealing with railroad labor problems, the courts cannot settle them by any other method, even though, if there were no special provisions, the dispute would be within the scope of the powers of the district court in regard to suits arising under laws regulating commerce.

National Labor Relations Board on jurisdictional disputes.—In a representation proceeding (*In re Arkell Safety Bag Co.*, 57 N. L. R. B. No. 222), an employer raised the question whether an exclusive bargaining agency existed where two unions, affiliated with a single international, had been disputing jurisdiction and where for 6 months neither had asked their common parent organization to resolve the dispute. Similarly, in the *Mountain States Power Co.* case (58 N. L. R. B. No. 20), there had been an interunion dispute of long standing. In both cases the National Labor Relations Board ordered an election, on the ground that resort to administrative processes offered the only effective means of resolving the dispute.

Civil Rights

Ordinance licensing labor organizers unconstitutional.—An ordinance requiring a labor organizer to obtain a license at a cost of $5,000 for a year or any part thereof, and restricting such activities to residents, was held unconstitutional by the Superior Court of Georgia, in *Starnes* v. *Mayor, etc., of Milledgeville*,[9] and a conviction under it was set aside.

The ordinance was held to be an abridgment of freedom of speech, contrary to the first and fourteenth amendments to the Constitution, because it allowed discretion as to granting the license and because the license tax was a flat sum, obviously excessive and un-

[6] —— Fed. (2d) —— (C. C. A. 3), September 25, 1944.
[7] 11 U. S. C., Sec. 205.
[8] 45 U. S. C., Sec. 151.
[9] —— S. E. (2d) ——; see Monthly Labor Review for October 1944 (p. 808).

related to the scope of activity, and was therefore not a legitimate tax measure but a provision restraining free speech. Further, the ordinance deprived organizers of equal protection of the laws by discriminating against nonresidents, and therefore violated the fifth amendment.

Antitrust Law

Labor agreement held violation of Sherman Act.—A Federal Circuit Court of Appeals, in *Lumber Products Association, Inc.* v. *United States*,[10] upheld the conviction of certain employers and unions found guilty of violating the Sherman Antitrust Act. The basis for the verdict was an agreement, and acts of the parties pursuant thereto, which restrained interstate commerce for the purpose of raising prices through a monopoly and of supporting higher wages (agreed upon in the contract) through the high prices collected from the public. Negotiations between employers and unions had resulted in a written agreement which, though characterized by the court as not unlawful on its face, became unlawful under the surrounding circumstances. The employers included nearly all the manufacturers and distributors of millwork and patterned lumber in the San Francisco area. They agreed with the unions that there should be no purchase or processing of materials produced by employers who did not conform to the rates and working conditions defined in the agreement. The chief sources of materials who fell within this ban were producers in Washington and Oregon.

After execution of the agreement, the employers drew up arbitrary, noncompetitive, and excessive price lists for sale of their products to their local customers. The unions supported these prices by work stoppage and picketing, thus preventing any local use of materials from interstate suppliers, since the union employees installed and processed the materials. The stoppages, although in theory occurring because materials were produced under substandard conditions, were intended to and did support a monopoly as well as the excessive prices charged. The court called the stoppages, "squeezing implements to extort what, in effect, is a capital levy on the home builder and other consumers," pursuant to a combination to create a monopoly and divide the gain from the resultant price increase between profits to the employers, on the one hand, and higher wages to the employees, on the other.

In its decision the court considered the agreement in the light of the surrounding facts and subsequent conduct of the parties. It distinguished the facts of this case from an exercise of labor's right to refuse to work on a particular product; from a strike to increase wages, which merely incidentally restrains interstate commerce by reducing the volume of the employer's production (*Apex Hosiery* v. *Leader*, 310 U. S. 469); and from a dispute between unions, in which the effect on interstate commerce is incidental and not the object of the dispute (*United States* v. *Hutcheson*, 312 U. S. 219). The action of the defendants in the present case involved a combination between labor and nonlabor groups, not aimed at attaining labor objectives (cf. *United States* v. *Brims*, 272 U. S. 549). The court decided that neither the Norris-La Guardia Act nor the Clayton Act gives immunity in a case in which no labor dispute exists and in which, at most, future

[10] —— Fed. (2d) ——, (C. C. A. 9), August 23, 1944.

disputes are to be avoided by this combination of labor and nonlabor groups for the unlawful purpose of restraining interstate commerce and establishing a monopoly.

Labor agreement not violative of Sherman Act.—The Circuit Court of Appeals of the Second Circuit, dealing with an application for an injunction in a situation broadly similar to that produced by the agreement in the California lumber products industry, came to a different conclusion, held the agreements not unlawful and reversed the decision of the District Court granting an injunction (*Allen Bradley Co.* v. *Local No. 3* [11]).

The facts were that Local 3 of the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers in the New York City area, in a series of agreements with a large group of manufacturers of switchboards and electrical equipment and with electrical contractors installing equipment in that area had obtained the closed shop and shorter hours and wage increases. The agreements also provided that only the materials produced by these local manufacturers or, if they were not available, materials bearing the union label purchased by the contractors elsewhere, were to be used in any work done by union members. Materials coming from outside the area, under the exception above, had to be in "knocked down" condition and unwired, so that the members of Local 3 might do the assembling in some cases and wiring in others, even though this is uneconomical. The complete domination of the industry by the employer group in the area, which thus resulted from joint employer and union action under the agreement, stifled competition and resulted in higher prices, from which the cost of union labor and higher profits for the employers and manufacturers were achieved at the expense of customers and competitors. The methods used by the union were refusal to work on disfavored goods, peaceful and nonviolent persuasion, picketing and blacklisting, and cooperation with local employers.

The injunction was sought by manufacturers whose plants were outside the area of Local 3's jurisdiction. Their location made it impossible for them to bargain with Local 3. The situation disclosed no concession toward any such employer because he had harmonious labor relations with the appropriate union for his district.

The local employers, parties to the union agreement, were not joined with the union as defendants. In asking for the injunction, the outside employers asked the court to prevent the union from inducing persons not to work upon their products, and the complaint was against such interference and against the restriction in choice of suppliers of electrical equipment which deprived the complaining manufacturers of business because they were outside the area of Local 3's jurisdiction. As to the local employers who made the agreements, the findings of fact were that they were "captives" of the union, at first submissive, later complaisant and actively cooperative.

Certain factors influenced the decision of the court. First, it concluded from the findings of fact that the union and its officers made and acted on the agreements on the basis of self-interest of Local 3 and its members; that it was a make-work campaign for them; that the boycott of products of nonlocal plants existed because the employers at plants outside the area could not supply employment to members of Local 3; and that the union was not interested in the wages or union

[11] — Fed. (2d) —— (C. C. A. 2), October 12, 1944.)

affiliation of employees in factories outside the New York Metropolitan area.

Second, in its analysis of the decisions of the United Supreme Court, the circuit court considered that the decision in *United States* v. *Hutcheson* (312 U. S. 219) laid down the doctrine that permissible activities in any labor dispute are those outlined in section 20 of the Clayton Act, since the Sherman, Clayton, and Norris-LaGuardia Acts are to be read together. It further decided that mere combination of a union with a nonlabor group is not unlawful. It determined that, under the terms of these acts, what the union did was permissible (29 U. S. C. A. 52, 104) in connection with a labor dispute (29 U. S. C. A. 113) and that the fact that the action affected a national and not a purely local market did not bring it within the realm of prohibited activity. Pointing out that a dispute as to conditions of work between a union and an employer is a labor dispute and retains its character as to third persons interested therein or injured thereby, the court refused to consider the situation changed by "a settlement—possibly only an armistice, not a treaty—between the original parties which hurts the third parties more than would the original controversy."

The combination of the union with a nonunion group under the circumstances described, therefore, did not constitute a violation of the antitrust laws. The court (differing from the court in the Ninth Circuit) dealt with *United States* v. *Brims* (272 U. S. 549), by suggesting that the exception there suggested as to combinations with nonlabor groups, was not to be read with "exacting literalness"; that, properly interpreted in the light of latest references and decisions, it is to be taken to mean not that all combinations of labor and nonlabor groups are prohibited but that labor-union activity may not be a cloak to conceal an illegal purpose. Therefore, the circuit court concluded that activities of the union which would be lawful when it was acting by itself could not be enjoined because other groups combined with it to the same end.

National War Labor Board

Escape clause a protection of employees' free choice.—In the case of *California Electric Power Co., successor to Pure Ice Co.* (Case No. 111–3984–D, August 16, 1944), a majority of the National War Labor Board, against union opposition, included a 15-day escape period in the maintenance-of-membership provisions of its directive. The union objected because the employer had at one time contributed money to The Associated Farmers of California, which the LaFollette Committee had found acting against unions in the 1935–39 period, and which the union claimed was still actively antiunion. The National War Labor Board pointed out that Associated Farmers was not a party to the proceedings, and that the employing company was neither proved to have current connections with that group nor accused of intending to coerce its employees in their decision. The escape clause, said the Board, is not a privilege granted the employers and therefore to be denied because of an antiunion record in the past, but is a protection of free choice by the employees and, therefore, to be excluded from maintenance-of-membership provisions only where it becomes clear that its inclusion under the existing circumstances will not insure such free choice.

Antidiscrimination and the National War Labor Board.—Without finding that there had been any past discrimination, the National War Labor Board, at the request of a union, directed the insertion in a contract of a clause binding union and employer to give fair and reasonable consideration to job applicants and employees seeking promotion, regardless of race, color, creed, or nationality. The employer argued unsuccessfully that the existence of the Fair Employment Practices Committee made the clause improper (*In re Montgomery Ward & Co.*, Case No. 111–471–D, August 31, 1944).

In another case (*In re Arizona Copper Co.*, Case No. 111–716–D, etc., July 20, 1944), the National War Labor Board amended a decision of the Nonferrous Metals Commission, dealing with sound and tested rates for "Anglo-American" workers, by requiring a simpler set of job classifications and a better definition of job content. The Board held this to be the best method of avoiding even the suspicion of discrimination and of carrying out the Board's policy of equal pay for equal quality and quantity of work without regard to race, sex, color, or national origin.

Restriction on work schedule.—In the matter of *Douglas Aircraft Co., Inc.* (Cases 11–5303–D, and 111–665–D, August 9, 1944), the National War Labor Board approved the recommendation of the National Airframe Panel that an agreement include the clause, "No employee shall be laid off in order to circumvent the payment of overtime." The Board found that employees are entitled to such protection and that the provision will not interfere with a work schedule which is aimed at the most efficient use of the labor force.

Arbitration

Rules as to work clothing.—In arbitrating a grievance, under a union agreement, involving a reprimand and loss of pay for time taken in discussion of the matter (*In re Arbitration between Ford Motor Co. and U. A. A. W.*, June 30, 1944), an arbitrator decided that a woman worker was improperly reprimanded for wearing red slacks, even though the company claimed that bright colors were a dangerous distraction of attention. The company had neither outlined nor published any clear and enforceable rule, and the matter was left to rumor as to what was approved and to chance and individual reaction as to what was objectionable.

Arbitrator's award not in contravention of stabilization policy.—The National War Labor Board, on the principle that its action would promote voluntary arbitration, vacated a decision of Regional Board X at San Francisco which directed payment of wages greater than those awarded in a consent arbitration because the Regional Board found the stabilization policy would permit a greater increase. The award of such an arbitrator, said the National War Labor Board, must not be disturbed unless it contravenes the stabilization policy (*In re California Association of Employers*, Case No. AR–422, August 23, 1944).

Wage and Hour Law

Wage and Hour Law coverage of transfer of building equipment between States.—In the case of *Clyde* v. *Broderick*,[12] an employee suit under the

[12] —— Fed. (2d) ——. (C. C. A. 10), July 26, 1944.

Fair Labor Standards Act against a contractor erecting an ammunition plant for the Federal Government, it appeared that the employees had loaded and unloaded and handled tools and equipment being shipped by the contractor-owner from State to State. The Circuit Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit reversed the district court which had dismissed the action on the ground that the act did not apply to interstate transfers of his own property by an owner or to shipment of goods for the Government's convenience. The appellate court, conceding that the plant under construction was neither an instrumentality of commerce nor producing for commerce when these employees did their work, nevertheless found that the work they did was itself part of interstate commerce and decided that the Fair Labor Standards Act made no such exceptions as the lower court had inferred.

Employment on salary basis as a requisite for exemption.—The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals in interpreting the executive exemption of the Fair Labor Standards Act in the case of *Smith* v. *Porter* (143 Fed. (2d) 293) decided, in regard to the regulation that makes such exemption depend upon employment "upon a salary basis," that a weekly salary does not become an hourly wage merely because deductions for absences are made on an hourly basis.

Decisions Under State Laws

Reinstatement of worker under Connecticut Anti-Injunction Law.—An award made by an arbitrator, acting under a union agreement, who decides in favor of reinstatement of an employee discharged without cause in violation of the agreement, cannot be enforced by injunction under the Connecticut Anti-Injunction Law (*Mele* v. *High Standard Manufacturing Co.*).[13] That act prevents the court from issuing an injunction, prohibiting a party to a labor dispute from "ceasing or refusing to perform any work or to remain in any relation of employment." Since the dispute arose from a contract of employment, the court could neither enjoin the employee from quitting or striking nor enjoin the employer from firing or refusing to rehire the employee. Apart from this act, the court found that the equity law of Connecticut will not enforce performance of a contract for services if the services are not unique, regardless of who asks for the enforcement. The court suggested that the employee's remedy, if any, is a suit for damages.

Provisional Rent-Control Decree in Ecuador, 1944[14]

URBAN rents in Ecuador were frozen as of May 1, 1944, by a legislative decree of September 2, 1944. This measure is a provisional enactment which is to remain in force until a rent law may be drawn and approved by the National Assembly. Should such a statute not be approved before the close of the present session of the Assembly, this provisional measure will become void and the previously existing law on the subject will again become effective.

[13] —— Atl. (2d) ——, July 14, 1944.

[14] Data are from report of Howard H. Tewksbury, commercial attaché, United States Embassy, Quito, Ecuador, dated October 11, 1944.

It is reported that the previous act has not operated effectively to limit rents on urban property. As a result, numerous lessors and sublessors of urban properties have legally obtained the termination of rent contracts, "by invoking obvious motives which conceal the real reason of increasing inconsiderately property rents." This practice has contributed to accentuation of the disturbed social conditions in the country caused by the high cost of living.

Until the new rent law is passed, the provisional decree prohibits all judicial action on the part of lessors and sublessors of urban property to obtain the termination of rent contracts. Likewise forbidden are all increases in existing rentals above the rates in effect on May 1, 1944. Penalty for violation consists of restitution of the excess charged and the payment of a fine of from 50 to 500 sucres which is to be imposed by the municipal government of the Canton in which the violation occurs.

Other sections of the provisional enactment cover the following points: The rent judgments to which the decree refers, which were pending on the date it went into effect, are to be suspended until the new rent law is passed. Suits entered by house owners, or by lessors, which have as their object the collection of rent due may be carried through. Finally, anyone has the right to file a complaint before a municipal judge against those who, directly or indirectly, violate the provisions of this decree.

Women in Industry

Changes in Women's Employment During the War

AN ANALYSIS of the tremendous shifts in employment of women in this country since the attack on Pearl Harbor is highly important for present and post-war planning. Special Bulletin No. 20 of the U. S. Women's Bureau deals with the extent and character of this wartime movement of women into and out of the labor market between December 1941 and March 1944.[1] Table 1 summarizes certain major findings in this report, which are based on data obtained by the Bureau of the Census.[2]

TABLE 1.—*Women's Employment in Wartime*

Item	Number or percent	Item	Number or percent
Employed in December 1941, as reported March 1944	12,090,000	Women who left labor force—Con.	
Employed in March 1944	16,480,000	Married, husband present—percent	62
Increase over December 1941—percent	36	Returned to home housework—do	93
In labor force before attack on Pearl Harbor—do	61	New entrants to labor force	6,650,000
In the same occupation group as formerly—do	50	20–44 years old—percent	55
In labor force in both periods	10,230,000	Single—do	44
20–44 years of age—percent	69	Married, husband present—do	36
Single—do	42	Home houseworkers—do	56
Married, husband present—do	30	In school—do	34
Women who left labor force	2,180,000	Women not entering labor force	33,260,000
45 years old or over—percent	21	45 years of age or over—percent	43
		Under 20 years of age—do	14
		Married, husband present—do	65

From 1940 to March 1944 the woman population 14 years of age and over expanded 4 percent. The proportion employed in 1940 was 22 percent; in 1944, 31.5 percent.

War shifts in women's employment.—As already noted, the heaviest net increase in women's employment from the Census of 1940 [3] to March 1944 occurred in the manufacturing and clerical groups, which account for an addition of more than 2½ and 2 million women each. Some of them have been engaged previously in other occupational groups or unemployed or not formerly in the labor force. The

[1] Changes in Women's Employment During the War, by Mary Elizabeth Pidgeon. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1944.

[2] The basic data for the bulletin were collected by the Bureau of the Census, at the request of the Women's Bureau, in the course of the regular monthly census of the labor force, which includes a national sample of some 30,000 households.

[3] The 1940 data are used for this one comparison for the following reasons: The available tabulations show March 1944 occupations of women according to employment or activity status before the attack on Pearl Harbor. A complete occupational count of those employed just before Pearl Harbor cannot be had, since the occupational distribution of those in the labor force before that time but having since left the labor force is not available. The nearest approach to occupational data for this latter group is in assuming that their occupational distribution was approximately the same as that of all women in the 1940 labor force.

accompanying table also shows during this period an addition of 460,000 women in the sales group and of 390,000 to the service group other than domestic. The exodus of 400,000 from domestic service is indicative of the unfavorable attitude of women workers towards this particular type of employment.

Neither of the two periods here compared reflects summertime farm employment.

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of Women's Employment in 1940 and March 1944, by Major Occupation Groups*

Occupation group	Employed women in March 1944 (in thousands)	Net changes since 1940 [1]		Percentage distribution in—	
		Number (in thousands)	Percent	1940	March 1944
All occupations [2]	16,480	+5,340	+48.0	100.0	[2] 100.0
Professional and semiprofessional	1,490	+20	+1.2	13.2	9.0
Proprietors, managers, and officials	650	+230	+53.3	3.8	3.9
Clerical and kindred	4,380	+2,010	+84.5	21.3	26.6
Sales	1,240	+460	+58.4	7.0	7.5
Craftsmen, foremen, operatives, and laborers, except farm [3]	4,920	+2,670	+118.7	20.2	29.9
Domestic service	1,570	−400	−20.4	17.7	9.5
Other services	1,650	+390	+30.9	11.3	10.0
Farm workers	560	+90	+18.6	4.2	3.4

[1] Figures used for 1940 comprise the employed and also those seeking work who were experienced in the occupation. See footnote 3, p. 1029, for reason for comparison with 1940 occupational data. The 1940 figures include the experienced unemployed, since they were a part of the labor force needing jobs, though their occupational allocation refers only to the occupation last engaged in and not their usual or normal occupation.

[2] Total exceeds details, since those in occupations not classifiable are not shown separately.

[3] Referred to in preceding text as "manufacturing" but includes a small proportion of those workers in other types of industries.

The manufacturing industries differed greatly as to sources of women workers. In war industries 49 percent came from outside the labor force and 26 percent from other industries; in the essential supply industries only 37 percent came from outside the labor force and 54 percent were in the same industry as before the war. The war industries obtained almost equal numbers of women from home housework and from other industry groups—mainly trade, the domestic and personal services, and the essential supply industries—whereas the supply industries obtained their women workers chiefly from home housework and the schools.

Women's Tendency to Leave the Labor Market

DEPLORING the tendency of women to drop out of the labor market, feeling that their contribution has been made, the War Manpower Commission emphasized [1] the extreme importance of staying on the job until final production goals are reached. As non-working women constitute the only sizable labor reserve in the country, the strain on manpower resources may be too great if this pool must be tapped to fill not only the places of men withdrawn for military service but also the places of other women who leave the labor market.

[1] War Manpower Commission, Press release, August 23, 1944.

Although the first requirement for workers is in war production, especially in critical war jobs, jobs needed to maintain the civilian economy in areas where no war work is available are also important.

It is possible that women's tendency to leave the labor market as they feel their job is done may forecast the pattern after the war is over. In particular the experience in areas where there have been more workers than jobs would seem to indicate that the unobtrusive withdrawal from the labor market of women not usually employed, without pressing for further employment, tends to counterbalance the natural tendency of employers to proffer jobs first to male workers with greater work experience.

A few typical examples of the reemployment experience of communities where cutbacks or lay-offs have occurred, as well as examples of employment trends for women, follow:

Elmira, N. Y.—When a cutback in production of bombsights occurred at a Navy-operated plant at Elmira recently, 500 women laid off were given limited certificates of availability assuring their reemployment at the plant when another management had retooled it for other war work. Of the 500, only 160 reported for work when recalled.

Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn.—When 7,642 workers were laid off in the area because of cutbacks, an estimated 1,500 women left the labor market completely, according to the U. S. Bureau of Employment Security. Most of the lay-offs occurred at the Twin Cities Ordnance Plant, where, of 5,249 workers laid off, 30 percent were women.

Explaining the failure of the women to seek other jobs, the Bureau pointed out that few of the workers discharged were qualified for other types of work available locally. The work at the plant had been largely mechanical and very light; most of the demand for labor outside the plant was for heavy jobs in foundry and forge shops, packing houses, etc. Also, working conditions and wages in most of the jobs open compared unfavorably with the ordnance jobs.

Evansville, Ind.—When munitions production at the Evansville Ordnance Plant and the Sunbeam Electric Co. was cut, 10,000 workers were laid off or quit. Of the total employment of 11,700 at the two plants, 6,700 were women.

Following the cutback "several thousand women undoubtedly retired from the labor force," WMC said. Employment opportunities which opened up in the community went first to men. In February, 2,000 workers were drawing unemployment compensation, of whom 90 percent were women. In March, a representative of the U. S. Employment Service offered employment to a number of those not working, but many refused. In most cases these workers contended that wage rates on the jobs offered were too low.

No unemployment is reported among males in the Evansville area, chiefly because renewed activity at the two plants cut back and job openings in other industries in the area have absorbed all the male workers displaced. Some part of the women displaced also found other jobs. About 1,000 women were still classified as "unemployed" in the area. Many of the women looking for other jobs had had only limited work experience of an unskilled nature—chiefly ammunition packaging or routine work in aircraft—and were therefore less in demand than more-experienced workers.

Rockford, Ill.—When 900 workers were laid off from the J. I. Case aircraft division, many left the area to obtain jobs in aircraft production elsewhere, but some resumed their household duties, in spite of local labor shortages in other lines of work. Night work, the swing shift, and the hazardous work drove many women out of the labor force, or discouraged them from entering. A number of those who declined to take jobs objected to the rotation on the second and third shifts. Some, new to industrial jobs, found it hard to adjust to the work and consequently left.

Eau Claire, Wis.—When the work force at the Eau Claire Ordnance Works was scaled down from 6,208 to 681 because of a cutback, 3,475 of the 5,525 employees let out were women.

By May 1, 2,000 workers (36 percent of the total lay offs) had found new jobs. Of these, 1,750 were men, representing 85 percent of the male lay-offs; 250 were women—7 percent of the female lay-offs.

An estimated 1,225 women retired, at least temporarily, from the labor market. When the lay-offs began, the company encouraged those women who wanted to retire from the labor market to quit first. By the end of May, 2,300 of those laid off were still unemployed. Of these, 90 percent were women.

New contracts for radar equipment and synthetic rubber secured for the ordnance plant by Western Electric and U. S. Rubber Co. once more expanded Eau Claire's employment needs. A labor requirement of 7,000 workers, 3,000 of them women, for radar equipment resulted. For making synthetic rubber, mostly male workers are needed. To assure their being on hand, the U. S. Rubber Co. shifted about 1,000 men to other plants of the company throughout the country, intending to bring them back when the Eau Claire plant begins production.

Los Angeles, Calif.—In Los Angeles, the WMC reports that "thousands" of women released from employment in the aircraft industry have disappeared from the labor market and have apparently returned to their homes. The number of women withdrawing from the labor market each month is larger than the number a year ago, according to WMC.

Though jobs are available in the shipyards, and 1,200 women had been added to employment rolls there, it appeared that few of the women laid off at the aircraft plants were willing to travel the long distances necessary to work in the harbor district. Many of them had difficulty in finding employment nearer home at wages comparable to those which they formerly earned in the aircraft plants. Many were middle-aged women lacking the necessary energy and endurance for very strenuous work or other qualifications specified by employers.

San Francisco, Calif.—With a shortage of 25,000 workers made worse by the migration of workers out of the area, the addition of new workers is reported to be barely sufficient to make up the unfavorable balance between out-migration and in-migration.

Though women not customarily employed constitute the largest potential labor source, much of this reserve may consist of women who have been in the labor market at least once during the war and have been "spoiled" for further recruitment by an unfortunate experience in coping with inadequate community and in-plant facilities. Many women are now shopping for the kinds of jobs they want or must have in order to meet their work and home responsibilities.

Many in-migrant women not suitable for industrial jobs are reported to be refusing service occupations and insisting on a type of work for which they are not fitted.

Many of the workers seeking employment have had recent work experience and are looking for specific jobs in which their experience can be utilized, rather than for any opening available.

Portland, Oreg.—WMC officials report that, although women constitute the chief potential labor supply, it is "increasingly difficult to induce women to enter the labor market," and the estimated supply of new workers for the next few months is hardly more than sufficient to offset out-migration.

Des Moines, Iowa.—Employment at the Des Moines Ordnance Plant, making small-arms ammunition, reached a peak of nearly 18,000 in October 1943, but this was later decreased by more than 10,000 as a result of production cutbacks. Actual lay-offs at the plant totaled only about 3,000; a major part of the reduction in force was accomplished through normal turnover and decreasing the number hired.

Many of the employees at the plant were women who had not worked before, and were reported as being "in no hurry to secure other jobs." Of the women who quit voluntarily, many were married women who wished to return home, many were affected by transportation difficulties in reaching the plant (which is about 18 miles out of the city), and some complained of the lack of opportunity for promotion.

All of the people who were actually laid off at the ordnance plant had already been called back. In February 1944 the company started calling back people who had been laid off the previous November; there was about a 10-percent response from both men and women. A number of workers also were laid off in February and were called back within a week, but only 50 percent responded. It was the opinion of officials at the plant that those who were called back and did not respond were either working elsewhere or—particularly in the case of housewives—had left the labor market.

It was estimated that at least 10 percent of the women who stopped working at the ordnance plant left the labor market.

Child Labor

Child-Labor Problems In Wartime

IN 1940–41, high-school enrollment reached its all-time peak of 7,244,000. In the following 3 years there was a decline of 1,000,000, a drop of 400,000 being reported for 1943–44. This shrinkage is due largely to the enormous increase in the number of boys and girls who have taken jobs.[1]

According to an estimate of October 1943, about 2,750,000 boys and girls from 14 through 17 years of age were employed full or part time—triple the number reported in the census of March 1940. In April 1944, young workers numbered close to 3,000,000. Slightly less than a million were 14 or 15 years of age—1 out of every 5 children of these ages in the population. About 2,000,000 were 16 or 17 years of age—2 out of 5 in these age brackets. In addition, thousands of children under 14 years, for whom there is no official count, were known to be at work.

Every summer there has been a great expansion in the number of young people taking jobs. In July 1943 over 50 percent of the group aged 14 through 17 had regular or vacation employment. It is probable that the number at work in the summer of 1944 was slightly above that of 1943. The recruitment for the wartime labor force is stated to have been greater among those of high-school age than in any other age group. The National-Go-to-School Drive, 1944–45, sponsored by the U. S. Children's Bureau and the U. S. Office of Education, is indicative of the Government's concern for the return of teen-age workers to school.

Situation in Various States

Illinois.[2]—The child-labor problem in Illinois, as in other parts of the country, is the result of the extraordinary demand for workers, combined with opportunities for children to earn, in many cases, more money than their fathers were able to earn 10 years ago.

During 1943 the number of children who left school to go to work legally in Illinois rose over 400 percent as compared to the previous year. In addition, the U. S. Children's Bureau has found that Illinois, at least in interstate industry, has the highest percentage of illegal employment of any State in the Union. Violations occur in the down-State cities as well as in Chicago. However, out of a total of 986 violations found in 1943, only 14 cases were prosecuted.

As a consequence of the expansion of children's employment, the number of industrial accidents to minors has risen in Illinois, being

[1] U. S. Children's Bureau and U. S. Office of Education. National-Go-to-School Drive, 1944–1945. A Handbook for Communities. Washington, 1944.

[2] Illinois Education (Wilmette, Ill.), September 1944, (pp. 13–14): Child labor in Illinois, by Charles E. Howell.

100 percent higher in 1943 than in 1942. Furthermore, an increase of the graver types of juvenile delinquency has tended to parallel the growing utilization of child workers.

Michigan.[3]—In 1942 the number of compensable injuries to young persons under 18 years of age in Michigan was 376; in 1943 there were 1,065—a rise of 183 percent.[4] From January 1944 through August, 629 were reported. This striking rise in the number of injuries to minors in 1943 is probably due partly to expansion in the employment of workers under 18 years of age and partly to the illegal employment of more minors in occupations in which accidents are likely to occur, particularly among young and inexperienced wage earners.

During the same period, work permits showed heavy increases. In 1942 first regular work permits to minors numbered 44,883, and in the following year, 81,942—an increase of 83 percent.

In 1942 reissued regular work permits to minors under 18 totaled 9,450 compared to 45,569 in 1943. The first 7 months of 1944 records a total of 30,369, indicating final yearly tabulations will far exceed the total shown in 1943.

Vacation permits increased from 28,578 in 1942 to 61,207 in 1943. A total of 34,431 vacation permits have been issued from January 1, 1944 through July 31, 1944.

New York.—It was reported that 9,000 fewer children were working illegally in New York State as the result of a special drive inaugurated on April 17, 1944, by the New York Department of Labor.[5]

The department's special staff reported that the number of violations in 1944 had risen 100 percent above the number for preceding years and were averaging over 2,000 a month. This was not only because more children were gainfully employed but also because more investigators had been assigned to study the conditions under which children were working.

It was estimated that in August 1944 half a million boys and girls had jobs, and that 1 of every 4 was being employed illegally "either without working papers, or extra hours, or after the time children may be on the job."

During July 1944 there were 2,249 children found illegally at work, including 188 under 14 years of age. These violations involved 657 minors in New York City—130 in factories, 512 in mercantile establishments, and 15 in industrial homework. The majority of the violations, however, occurred up-State, 152 of the children involved being in factories and 1,440 in mercantile establishments.

The Commissioner of Licenses, who has been aiding in clearing up the situation, stated that the mayors of cities throughout the State, employers, and civic groups had been requested to cooperate in the back-to-school campaign.

[3] Michigan Labor and Industry (Lansing), September 1944, p. 4: Work Accidents to Minors.

[4] The figures include only accidents reported as compensable under the Michigan Workmen's Compensation Act.

[5] The New York Times (New York), August 25, 1944, p. 16, section C.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wages in Department and Clothing Stores in Large Cities, Spring and Summer of 1943 [1]

Summary

MEDIAN hourly rates of pay of workers in department, general-merchandise, and clothing stores in selected large cities in the spring and summer of 1943 ranged from 39 cents an hour for women bundle wrappers and stock girls to $1.18 (including commissions) for furniture salesmen. These findings are based on information collected in 60 cities of 100,000 or more population. Rates of pay were appreciably higher for selling than for nonselling workers.

The highest earnings among broad geographic regions were reported for Pacific Coast workers, while rates of pay were lowest in southern cities. Earnings of some workers in the Seattle-Tacoma area exceeded $2 an hour. Many rates below 35 cents an hour were found in the South. Wage rates were also found to differ substantially by size of city. In every occupation, the highest median rates were found in places of 500,000 or more, while the lowest were generally found in communities of 100,000 to 250,000.

Characteristics of Establishments Studied

Retail-trade employees constitute an important group of "white-collar" workers. In recent months more than 6,000,000 persons have been employed in various branches of retailing. A substantial proportion of these perform fairly similar functions—selling and maintaining records in department, general-merchandise, dry-goods, and clothing stores. During the war years, the importance of this branch of the economy as an employer of labor has been eclipsed by the dramatic increase in labor requirements in the industries that are directly involved in the production and transportation of war supplies for our armed forces.

Wage levels in retailing were generally lower than those in manufacturing industries, even before the war. Moreover, because of the relative decline in the demand for retail employees, the small extent of union organization, and the traditional rigidity of white-collar wages, the pre-war difference has probably increased. With interest currently shifting to employment opportunities in peacetime pursuits, however, the role of retail trade as a prospective employer of labor assumes more importance. In evaluating this role, a cross

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Joseph M. Sherman, under the direction of Harry Ober.

section of current wage rates in representative branches of retail trade should be of considerable interest.

TYPES OF STORES

According to the Census of 1939 the branches of retail trade represented in this study—department, general-merchandise, dry-goods, and clothing stores—accounted for about a fifth (about 900,000) of all employees in retail trade, and for an equal proportion of the total retail pay roll. These stores constitute an important segment of the business life of all urban communities, but they are, as a group, particularly important in cities with a population of 100,000 or more. This concentration in the larger cities is most pronounced in the case of the department and clothing stores. The dry-goods and general-merchandise stores, on the other hand, tend to be more important in the smaller urban localities.

There is no clear line of demarcation between department stores and other types of stores engaged in general merchandising. At one extreme, to be sure, it is possible to distinguish the large modern store that is highly departmentalized in selling as well as administration. At the other extreme is the small store that sells a wide variety of merchandise but in which departmental specialization in selling and accounting is nonexistent. Between these extremes there are stores that sell a wide variety of merchandise and tend toward departmental specialization in varying degrees. It is mainly for this reason that the usual dividing line between department and other stores is more or less arbitrary; stores with annual sales of $100,000 or more are often classified as department stores while those with lesser annual sales are considered general-merchandise stores. In view of the general similarity of the functions and the labor force in these different types of stores it was found practicable to group them for study.

The 1939 census of retail trade shows the corporation to be the dominant legal form of organization in all branches of retail trade included in the study, with the exception of dry-goods and general-merchandise stores. The corporate form of business organization, for example, was found in 92 percent of all department stores, and these accounted for 97 percent of total sales. Individual proprietorships and partnerships, on the other hand, were found in 85 percent of the dry-goods and general-merchandise stores and accounted for about three-fifths of the sales of such stores.

In 1939, department stores averaged 111 full-time employees per store, while the other types of stores included in the study were much smaller. As is pointed out below, however, the smallest stores in all lines were excluded from the scope of the study.

THE LABOR FORCE

Typical functions of the employees in the stores studied include selling directly to customers, packing and unpacking goods, maintaining stock records, and performing a variety of clerical office functions relating to management and administration. There are, of course, considerable differences in the duties of sales clerks; the chief differentiating factors seem to be in the costliness of the items

sold and the amount of information that is entailed in presenting various products to customers. Thus, employees engaged in selling such items as furniture, pianos, men's and women's clothing, and precious jewelry generally represent the more experienced and versatile group of the labor force. On the other hand, employees who sell inexpensive, standard items usually require little training or experience.

Department and clothing stores have historically been among the most important employers of women. About 1 of every 25 women gainfully employed in the United States in June 1943 worked in such stores. Several of the branches of retail trade under discussion have had a much higher proportion of women employees than retail trade as a whole. Thus, in 1939, women formed about a third of the labor force in retail trade as a whole, but two-thirds in department and clothing stores, seven-eighths in women's ready-to-wear stores, and five-ninths in family clothing stores. In men's and boys' clothing stores, on the other hand, only a sixth were women. In recent years the growing labor shortage has induced many stores to place women in positions normally filled by men.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Employment in the branches of retail trade studied is highly seasonal. Peak employment is usually reached in December. This is followed by a drop in January and February, and a secondary peak is reached in April. The level of employment is rather low in June, July, and August, but thereafter it rises gradually as the Christmas shopping period is approached. These swings in employment are generally quite violent, and in some years the number of employees in December is twice that in February. Characteristically the peaks of employment are met by augmenting the regular labor force with substantial numbers of part-time workers. In 1939, about 1 of every 5 employees in the branches of retail trade studied was employed part time. The ratio of part-time to full-time employees in department stores at the Christmas peak is generally about 1 to 3.

Unionization in retail trade is not very extensive. Of the stores studied only about 13 percent had union agreements covering substantial proportions of the employees. A higher proportion of unionization was found among the larger stores and in the larger cities. Unionization of department and clothing stores was most common in the far western areas. All department stores studied in Tacoma and Seattle were unionized. In the Northeast, unionization was more common than in the United States as a whole, while in the South few stores were unionized.

Typically, retail clerks in department and clothing stores receive incentive payments in addition to their basic rates. The incentive payments consist of some kind of commission on sales. In some instances the commissions are paid as a flat percentage of total sales, and in others they apply only to sales above a set quota or to sales of particular items. The latter commissions are often referred to as "P. M.'s" (postmortems or push money) or "Reds" (reductions), to denote a reward for special effort in promoting sales of slow-moving or especially profitable items. Some workers are on a "draw commission" basis; that is, they draw a weekly salary related to sales in a previous period. The actual commission earned is calculated from

time to time, and any excess over the amount drawn is credited to the employee. This form of commission is most commonly found in clothing, furniture, and floor-covering departments.

Method and Scope of Survey

Information on earnings of employees in department, general-merchandise, dry-goods, and clothing stores was obtained in connection with the Bureau's Occupational Wage Rate Project covering characteristic industries in selected urban areas. The information for each city covered by the survey is based upon all, or a representative sample of, such stores with 9 or more employees. The limitation on size excluded numerous small dry-goods, general-merchandise, and independent clothing stores.[2] Moreover, in view of the fact that the data presented in this study are limited to cities with a population of 100,000 or more, the wage information is considerably influenced by department and chain clothing stores. Of the cities in this size group, data are presented for 12 of the 14 cities with half a million or more inhabitants, and for three-fifths of the cities with population of 100,000 to 500,000.

The data for most of the selected cities refer to a pay-roll period in the spring or summer of 1943. In examining the cross section of wage rates during this period, it would be well to bear in mind that wage rates in department and clothing stores have increased substantially since that time. A study of the trend in urban wage rates,[3] for example, indicates that from April 1943 to April 1944 wage rates in these stores in the United States as a whole have increased about 13 percent. In general, higher wage increases have been reported in the regions with relatively lower wage levels than in those regions where the highest wage levels typically prevail. Thus, the highest increase (23.5 percent) was found in the Southwest, while the lowest increase (4.6 percent) was in the Pacific Coast area. Wage increases in the Southeast, Great Lakes, and Middle West have also been higher than the average for the country as a whole.

The wage information presented in this article was obtained from pay rolls and other related store records by field representatives of the Bureau. Premium overtime payments and shift differentials were excluded. In instances where employees were receiving commissions based on sales volume, such earnings were included in the data presented. Uniform occupational descriptions were used in all establishments to assure comparability in the classification of workers from store to store.

Of the numerous job classifications found in the stores covered, the few selected occupations for which data are presented in this report accounted for a large majority of the labor force. In all, the employment in these occupations amounted to about 90,000 in the selected cities. Of these, retail clerks accounted for about three-fourths of the employees, and the nonselling occupations for the remainder. Women employed as general clerks and as saleswomen in women's clothing departments were numerically by far the most important retail clerical groups. Among the nonselling occupations studied,

[2] In some areas, however, clothing stores with as few as 5 employees were included in the study.

[3] See Wartime Wage Movements and Urban Wage-Rate Changes in Monthly Labor Review for October 1944 (p. 684). (Reprinted as Serial No. R. 1684.)

cashiers were the most numerous classifications. Salesmen of men's clothing and furniture were among the least numerous retail-clerk classifications. The job classifications included for study are limited to characteristic store occupations; office employees, whose duties in stores do not differ materially from those in other business or industrial establishments, were omitted.

Hourly Earnings

Median city average hourly earnings for selected selling and nonselling job classifications are presented in table 1. These median averages were derived from a simple array of individual city averages for each classification. Although no attempt has been made to assign different weights to individual cities, based on relative employment, the data are useful in this form for purposes of rough comparison. Detailed information on average hourly earnings by city and method of wage payment may be observed in table 2.

Among the retail clerks the type of merchandise sold has a very pronounced influence on straight-time average hourly earnings. The highest median earnings, for example, were received by furniture salesmen and amounted to $1.18. Employees selling men's and women's clothing and shoes also earned appreciably more than other sales clerks. In selling these commodities, however, men generally earned appreciably more than women; thus, men selling men's clothing averaged $1.05 per hour whereas women selling women's clothing averaged 58 cents per hour. Salesmen of men's shoes averaged 24 cents more than the saleswomen of women's shoes. The lowest average earnings (49 cents per hour) of specialized sales clerks were received by women selling cosmetics and toiletries and hosiery. General clerks' earnings also varied considerably by sex; men averaged 83 cents and women 50 cents per hour.

Earnings among the five selected nonselling occupations did not show so much variation as those among the sales personnel; stock girls and bundle wrappers earned on the average 39 cents per hour, and women cashiers grades I and II, 50 and 43 cents per hour, respectively.

A fairly consistent relationship between size of city and average wage rates may be observed in table 1. As would be expected, average earnings were appreciably higher in the largest cities (500,000 or more population) than in the cities with a population of 100,000 to 250,000. Among retail clerks, the differences ranged from 36 cents for men's clothing salesmen to 5 cents in women's hosiery departments. In the nonselling jobs, also, average hourly earnings tended to vary with size of city. Thus, cashiers in the largest cities earned 5 cents more, stockgirls 3 cents more, bundle wrappers 6 cents more, and stockmen 8 cents more, than in cities with 100,000 to 250,000 population.

Although earnings varied appreciably from region to region the contrast between earnings levels of northern and southern localities does not appear to be so pronounced in retail trade as in manufacturing industries. Earnings in cities of the Far West, however, were generally highest, while those in the South were generally lowest. Since none of the southern cities is included in the "500,000 and over" group, it is apparent that the wage variation by size of city, discussed

above, is due in part to regional differences. It will be noted, however, that variation by size of city is also apparent within individual regions.

TABLE 1.—*Median Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by City Size and Region, Spring and Summer of 1943*

Region and size of city	Retail clerks						
	Male				Female		
	Furniture	General clerks	Men's clothing	Shoes	Cosmetics and toiletries	General clerks	Hosiery, women's
All cities	$1.18	$0.83	$1.05	$0.84	$0.49	$0.50	$0.49
Cities with population of—							
500,000 and over	1.30	.92	1.24	.99	.57	.60	.52
250,000 and under 500,000	1.19	.82	1.12	.88	.52	.50	.52
100,000 and under 250,000	1.14	.84	.88	.80	.46	.46	.47
Northeastern cities	1.18	.84	1.04	.86	.46	.51	.47
Border State cities	1.31	.80	1.13	.86	.51	.47	.46
Southern cities	1.06	.78	.88	.77	.50	.46	.48
Middle Western cities	1.25	.85	1.06	.93	.53	.53	.50
Mountain and Pacific Coast cities	1.49	.89	1.39	.99	.60	.64	.61

Region and size of city	Retail clerks—Continued		Nonselling occupations				
	Female—Con.		Male	Female			
	Shoes	Women's clothing	Stockmen	Bundle wrappers	Cashiers, grade I [2]	Cashiers, grade II [2]	Stockgirls
All cities	$0.60	$0.58	$0.48	$0.39	$0.50	$0.43	$0.39
Cities with population of—							
500,000 and over	.71	.62	.54	.44	.53	.48	.42
250,000 and under 500,000	.62	.61	.49	.38	.50	.42	.38
100,000 and under 250,000	.53	.55	.46	.38	.48	.43	.39
Northeastern cities	.62	.57	.49	.40	.48	.43	.41
Border State cities	.52	.58	.47	.38	.48	.48	.37
Southern cities	.49	.54	.40	.35	.46	.38	.33
Middle Western cities	.60	.60	.51	.42	.50	.44	.40
Mountain and Pacific Coast cities	.79	.83	.57	.54	.61	.57	.50

[1] Exclusive of premium pay for overtime or late-shift work.

[2] In general, the cashier, grade I, accepts payments on charge accounts, cashes customers' checks, and sells gift certificates besides assuming, whenever necessary, the duties of the cashier, grade II, who accepts payment for sales slips made out by clerks, makes change, and may also wrap packages.

Significant differences in earnings were found between workers paid on a time basis and those on an incentive basis (table 2). The largest variations between earnings of time and incentive workers occurred among sales clerks in furniture, clothing, and shoe departments. Furniture salesmen receiving commissions earned on the average 40 cents an hour more than the corresponding time workers; men's clothing salesmen and general clerks (male) averaged 27 and 8 cents, respectively, more per hour on an incentive than on a time basis. Women shoe clerks earned 15 cents more per hour on an incentive than on a time basis.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by Method of Wage Payment, Spring and Summer 1943*

Region and city	Retail clerks								
	Male								
	Furniture			General clerks			Men's clothing		
	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers
Northeast									
500,000 population and over:									
Boston							$1.41	$0.99	$1.50
Buffalo	$1.28		$1.28				1.04	(3)	1.04
New York	1.44	$0.95	1.48	$1.11	$0.92	$1.36	1.33	.93	1.39
Philadelphia	1.69						1.15	(3)	(3)
Pittsburgh	1.57		1.57				1.33	(3)	1.34
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Providence							1.27	1.17	1.29
Rochester	.97		.97				.77		.77
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Bridgeport	.96	(3)	(3)				.89	.70	1.07
Fall River	(3)		(3)				1.05	.72	1.10
Hartford	1.22		1.22	.84	.84		.99	.84	1.10
New Bedford	1.01		1.01				.72	.70	.91
New Haven	.95		.95				.80	.75	.83
Lowell	1.75		1.75				.83	.82	.84
Scranton-Wilkes-Barre	1.05	.79	1.22	.81	.53	.99	1.12	1.12	
Springfield	1.11		1.11	.94	(3)	.95	1.13	1.14	1.13
Syracuse	1.24		1.24				.90		.90
Worcester	1.14	.74	1.40	.64	.64		.92	.84	.98
Border States									
500,000 population and over:									
Baltimore	1.00		1.00	.90	.90	.92	1.20	1.12	1.20
Washington	1.42		1.42	.71	.71	(3)	1.07	.93	1.13
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Norfolk	1.46		1.46	.84	.81	.93	1.19		1.19
Richmond	1.20	.70	(3)	.76	.63	.95	.88	.63	1.17
South									
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Atlanta	1.23		1.23	.79	.51	.85	1.16	.82	1.24
Birmingham	1.19		1.19	.79	.64	.94	1.04	.89	1.11
Dallas	.88		.88	.89	.53	.93	1.05	.97	1.06
Houston	.96		.96	.73	.66	.77	1.18	.90	1.28
New Orleans	1.02	(3)	1.07	.69	.62	.76	.84	.57	.89
San Antonio	(3)		(3)	.77	.73	.93	(3)		(3)
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Charlotte	1.02	.86	1.21	.64	.60	.81	.62	.63	.55
Chattanooga	(3)		(3)	.63	.42	.83	.64	.44	.71
Fort Worth	.67	.40	1.22	.92	.85	.96	.88	.57	1.11
Jacksonville	(3)		(3)	.96	.51	1.16	.86		.86
Knoxville	1.09	.65	1.18	.78	.50	1.05	1.18	(3)	1.18
Miami	1.50		1.50	1.11	.98	1.28	.84	.93	.80
Nashville	(3)		(3)	.64	.46	.72	.66	.43	.79
Oklahoma City				.83	.62	1.01			
Tampa	1.09		1.09	.63	.42	.71	1.39		1.39
Tulsa				.72	.71	.79	(3)	(3)	
Middle West									
500,000 population and over:									
Chicago	1.33	(3)	1.33	.80	.77	.83	1.27	.94	1.29
Milwaukee				.95	.82	.96			
St. Louis	1.13		1.13				1.18	.73	1.20
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Indianapolis	1.34	(3)	1.36	.82	.47	.84	1.09	.61	1.16
Kansas City	1.25		1.25	.83		.83	1.04	(3)	1.02
Minneapolis-St. Paul	1.13		1.13	.98	.87	1.00	1.18	.71	1.24

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by Method of Wage Payment, Spring and Summer 1943*—Con.

Region and city	Retail clerks								
	Male								
	Furniture			General clerks			Men's clothing		
	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers
Middle West—Continued									
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Des Moines	------	------	------	$0.77	(3)	$0.87	$0.82	(3)	$0.93
Duluth-Superior	$1.04	------	$1.04	.94	(3)	.95	.83	(3)	.91
Flint	------	------	------	1.24	$1.06	1.65	1.08	------	1.08
Fort Wayne	1.56	------	1.56	1.08	.45	1.59	1.05	$0.74	1.25
Gary	1.25	------	1.25	.85	.74	.94	.88	.64	1.02
Grand Rapids	------	------	------	.74	.54	.78	------	------	------
Peoria	1.34	------	1.34	.89	.58	.97	.74	.41	.81
South Bend	1.18	------	1.18	.59	.57	.78	1.23	.92	1.28
Mountain and Pacific									
500,000 population and over:									
Los Angeles	1.11	$1.06	1.12	.96	.89	1.04	1.24	1.06	1.34
San Francisco	1.14	1.03	1.34	------	------	------	1.49	1.29	1.53
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Denver	------	------	------	.89	.89	------	------	------	------
Portland	1.84	------	1.84	------	------	------	1.51	.90	1.68
Seattle-Tacoma	1.95	1.00	2.02	1.49	.93	1.61	1.39	.96	1.66
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Sacramento	(3)	(3)	------	1.66	------	1.66	1.15	1.14	1.16
Salt Lake City	------	------	------	.88	.88	------	------	------	------
San Diego	(3)	(3)	------	.89	.89	------	(3)	(3)	------
Spokane	------	------	------	.82	.66	1.42	------	------	------

Region and city	Retail clerks—Continued								
	Male—Continued			Female					
	Shoes			Cosmetics and toiletries			General clerks		
	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers
Northeast									
500,000 population and over:									
Boston	$1.03	------	$1.03	(3)	(3)	------	------	------	------
Buffalo	.93	------	.93	$0.46	$0.40	$0.47	------	------	------
New York	1.08	$1.11	1.06	------	------	------	$0.63	$0.56	$0.75
Philadelphia	.94	(3)	(3)	.49	.57	.49	.54	(3)	(3)
Pittsburgh	1.01	(3)	1.02	.58	.44	.59	.69	.68	.69
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Providence	.89	.74	.93	.49	.49	.49	.57	------	.57
Rochester	.78	.69	.86	.47	.42	.56	------	------	------
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Bridgeport	1.10	.73	1.11	.47	.46	(3)	------	------	------
Fall River	.72	(3)	.75	.46	.37	.55	(3)	(3)	------
Hartford	.95	.91	.97	.54	.52	.54	.47	.47	------
New Bedford	.80	(3)	.81	.42	.40	.43	------	------	------
New Haven	.77	.81	.62	.40	.40	------	------	------	------
Lowell	.72	.73	.72	.44	.43	.47	------	------	------
Scranton-Wilkes-Barre	.61	.55	.63	.39	.34	.44	.44	.38	.72
Springfield	.84	.74	.86	.46	.43	.50	.49	.51	.48
Syracuse	------	------	------	.40	.46	.36	------	------	------
Worcester	.72	.60	.79	.47	.47	.47	.44	.42	.49

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by Method of Wage Payment, Spring and Summer 1943*—Con.

Region and city	Retail clerks—Continued								
	Male—Continued			Female					
	Shoes			Cosmetics and toiletries			General clerks		
	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers
Border States									
500,000 population and over:									
Baltimore	$0.82	$0.77	$0.85	$0.51	$0.45	$0.52	$0.49	$0.49	$0.49
Washington	.94	.66	.97	.57	.58	.56	.53	.52	.53
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Norfolk	.90	.91	.88	.43	.43	.44	.45	.43	.49
Richmond	.72	.59	1.01	(3)	------	(3)	.38	.38	-------
Southern									
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Atlanta	.76	------	.76	.51	.46	.53	.45	.36	.49
Birmingham	1.08	.78	1.11	.51	.46	.67	.47	.40	.53
Dallas	.76	.49	.79	.58	.61	.56	.47	.31	.55
Houston	.66	.64	.70	.47	.49	.44	.46	.36	.52
New Orleans	.78	.89	.74	.40	.36	.54	.42	.37	.46
San Antonio	(3)	------	(3)	------	------	------	.46	.47	.46
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Charlotte	.54	.53	(3)	.41	.41	------	.37	.35	.40
Chattanooga	.85	(3)	.85	.55	(3)	.56	.45	.37	.46
Fort Worth	.77	.46	.93	.41	.42	.39	.46	.40	.48
Jacksonville	.83	.48	.95	.44	.52	.39	.51	.45	.52
Knoxville	.69	(3)	.70	.38	.38	------	.42	.33	.45
Miami	.86	.73	1.26	.62	.57	.63	.53	.50	.54
Nashville	.50	.44	.57	.50	.55	.44	.43	.33	.52
Oklahoma City	------	------	------	------	------	------	.46	.40	.58
Tampa	.88	------	.88	(3)	------	(3)	.46	.34	.48
Tulsa	------	------	------	.59	.59	------	.60	.68	.51
Middle West									
500,000 population and over:									
Chicago	1.23	.75	1.27	.68	.52	.69	.53	.48	.59
Milwaukee	------	------	------	(3)	------	(3)	.58	.55	.58
St. Louis	.97	(3)	.98	.54	(3)	.54	.61	------	.61
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Indianapolis	1.26	(3)	1.28	.64	(3)	.62	.53	.41	.55
Kansas City	1.03	.73	1.06	.60	------	.60	.56	.38	.58
Minneapolis–St. Paul	.96	.66	.97	.54	------	.54	.56	.42	.63
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Des Moines	.73	(3)	.75	.43	(3)	.44	------	------	------
Duluth–Superior	.82	.68	.88	.49	.44	.57	.48	.52	.47
Flint	.90	------	.90	.55	.61	(3)	.53	.53	.57
Fort Wayne	.96	(3)	1.01	.48	.46	.49	.50	.49	.59
Gary	.82	.81	.83	.48	.45	.55	.46	.43	.56
Grand Rapids	------	------	------	------	------	------	.56	.38	.59
Peoria	.84	------	.84	.45	(3)	.45	.50	.39	.54
South Bend	.74	.68	(3)	.52	(3)	.54	.47	.42	.49
Mountain and Pacific									
500,000 population and over:									
Los Angeles	.99	.93	1.04	.71	.63	.75	.64	.51	.73
San Francisco	1.09	.92	1.22	.68	.64	.70	1.13	.78	1.23
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Denver	------	------	------	------	------	------	.53	.53	-------
Portland	.88	.83	.96	.58	.50	.61	------	------	------
Seattle–Tacoma	1.21	.70	1.34	.60	.59	.62	.97	.67	1.00
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Sacramento	(3)	------	(3)	(3)	(3)	-------	.78	.77	.80
Salt Lake City	------	------	------	------	------	------	.56	.56	-------
San Diego	.78	.75	(3)	.54	.52	(3)	.54	.54	.65
Spokane	------	------	------	------	------	------	.47	.46	.69

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by Method of Wage Payment, Spring and Summer 1943*—Con.

Region and city	Retail clerks—Continued								
	Female—Continued								
	Hosiery, women's			Shoes			Women's clothing		
	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers
Northeast									
500,000 population and over:									
Boston	$0.49	$0.42	$0.59	------	------	------	$0.62	$0.51	$0.63
Buffalo	.49	------	.49	$0.74	(3)	$0.74	.52	------	.52
New York	.52	.50	.55	.69	$0.64	.72	.66	.64	.73
Philadelphia	.50	(3)	(3)	.66	(3)	(3)	.58	(3)	(3)
Pittsburgh	.54	.43	.55	.73	.51	.75	.66	.57	.67
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Providence	.53	.49	.57	.62	.60	.63	.53	.51	.56
Rochester	.44	.43	.46	.69	.51	.73	.57	.51	.65
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Bridgeport	.47	.43	.52	.61	.48	.81	.64	.52	.80
Fall River	.42	.38	.53	.47	.41	.53	.50	.45	.55
Hartford	.57	.52	.66	.64	.57	.68	.61	.55	.66
New Bedford	.43	.41	.47	.66	.49	.69	.47	.46	.49
New Haven	.44	.44	.42	.43	.43	.43	.59	.49	.65
Lowell	.44	.42	.50	.53	.43	.59	.54	.52	.57
Scranton–Wilkes-Barre	.43	.34	.48	.45	.37	.46	.54	.40	.59
Springfield	.46	.44	.50	.57	.54	.60	.53	.50	.55
Syracuse	.47	.43	.51	.50	.39	.52	.49	------	.49
Worcester	.50	.40	.54	.60	.48	.69	.57	.42	.62
Border States									
500,000 population and over:									
Baltimore	.48	.50	.48	.54	.48	.55	.62	.53	.62
Washington	.58	.54	.62	.69	------	.69	.61	.58	.65
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Norfolk	.43	.39	.47	.49	.37	.51	.55	.46	.58
Richmond	.44	.39	.56	.49	.45	.69	.56	.36	.70
South									
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Atlanta	.49	.42	.49	.61	.52	.61	.67	.47	.68
Birmingham	.49	.39	.51	.53	.41	.57	.66	.52	.68
Dallas	.60	.39	.67	.63	(3)	.63	.60	.42	.61
Houston	.38	.33	.41	.41	.30	.64	.48	.37	.54
New Orleans	.39	.35	.43	.44	.35	.50	.53	.37	.56
San Antonio	(3)	(3)	------	(3)	------	(3)	(3)	(3)	------
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Charlotte	.39	.36	.46	.49	.41	.63	.47	.43	.52
Chattanooga	.65	------	.65	.50	------	.50	.44	.34	.47
Fort Worth	.38	.33	.45	.46	.31	.54	.54	.42	.69
Jacksonville	.47	.47	.47	.60	.47	.64	.53	------	.53
Knoxville	.46	.34	.49	.45	.36	.47	.68	.43	.72
Miami	.55	(3)	.55	.63	.60	.63	.71	.69	.71
Nashville	.54	(3)	.56	.46	.42	.48	.54	.36	.61
Oklahoma City	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Tampa	.41	.40	.41	.44	.37	.47	.47	.34	.50
Tulsa	.52	.55	(3)	------	------	------	.60	.60	.59
Middle West									
500,000 population and over:									
Chicago	.59	.48	.61	.89	.53	.90	.75	.65	.76
Milwaukee	.37	------	.37	------	------	------	.58	.46	.59
St. Louis	.51	(3)	.51	.71	(3)	.76	.55	(3)	.55
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Indianapolis	.67	(3)	.67	.84	(3)	.84	.81	.63	.82
Kansas City	.54	------	.54	.76	------	.76	.60	(3)	.61
Minneapolis-St. Paul	.50	.40	.52	.62	.46	.64	.62	.60	.63

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by Method of Wage Payment, Spring and Summer 1943*—Con.

Region and city	Retail clerks—Continued								
	Female—Continued								
	Hosiery, women's			Shoes			Women's clothing		
	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers	All workers	Time workers	Incentive workers
Middle West—Continued									
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Des Moines	$0.56	(3)	$0.59	$0.69	(3)	$0.72	$0.55	------	$0.55
Duluth-Superior	.46	$0.43	.49	.45	$0.37	.53	.51	$0.45	.57
Flint	.54	.51	.63	.58	.51	.60	.57	.49	.68
Fort Wayne	.50	.46	.51	.57	(3)	.58	.68	.45	.71
Gary	.48	(3)	.47	.59	.48	.62	.68	.56	.70
Grand Rapids	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Peoria	.45	.37	.47	.58	------	.58	.50	.40	.53
South Bend	.48	.43	.54	.56	(3)	.58	.66	.47	.72
Mountain and Pacific									
500,000 population and over:									
Los Angeles	.61	.57	.64	(3)	------	(3)	.73	.64	.75
San Francisco	.78	.77	.78	.81	.76	.87	.80	.66	.87
250,000 and under 500,000 population:									
Denver	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Portland	.68	.64	.71	.67	.57	.75	.85	.61	.88
Seattle-Tacoma	.60	.56	.67	.79	.61	.88	.83	.56	.98
100,000 and under 250,000 population:									
Sacramento	(3)	------	(3)	(3)	------	(3)	.86	.55	.91
Salt Lake City	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
San Diego	.54	.54	------	------	------	------	.83	.62	1.15
Spokane	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

Region and city	Nonselling occupations				
	Male	Female			
	Stockmen	Bundle-wrappers	Cashiers, grade I [2]	Cashiers, grade II [2]	Stock girls
Northeast					
500,000 population and over:					
Boston	$0.50	$0.40	$0.49	$0.43	$0.41
Buffalo	.48	.37	.47	.42	.42
New York	.57	.45	.61	.49	.47
Philadelphia	.49	.43	.52	.46	.40
Pittsburgh	.55	.49	.53	.50	.46
250,000 and under 500,000 population:					
Providence	.45	.42	.41	.41	.38
Rochester	.61	.39	.52	.42	.42
100,000 and under 250,000 population:					
Bridgeport	.50	.41	.48	.46	.39
Fall River	(3)	.38	.44	.41	------
Hartford	.54	.38	.56	.50	.42
New Bedford	.47	------	------	.40	.39
New Haven	(3)	(3)	.53	.43	.39
Lowell	.39	------	.47	.46	.47
Scranton-Wilkes-Barre	.39	.32	.39	.36	(3)
Springfield	.41	.40	.50	.45	(3)
Syracuse	.58	.36	.45	.37	------
Worcester	.42	.36	.41	.42	.34
Border States					
500,000 population and over:					
Baltimore	.48	.39	.48	.43	.33
Washington	.52	.42	.62	.53	.43
100,000 and under 250,000 population:					
Norfolk	.46	.36	.48	.48	.41
Richmond	.40	.36	.47	(3)	.28

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *in Selected Job Classifications in Department and Clothing Stores, by Method of Wage Payment, Spring and Summer 1943*—Con.

Region and city	Nonselling occupations				
	Male	Female			
	Stockmen	Bundle-wrappers	Cashiers, grade I[2]	Cashiers, grade II[2]	Stock girls
South					
250,000 and under 500,000 population:					
Atlanta	$0.40	$0.35	$0.50	$0.39	$0.33
Birmingham	.41	.29	.44	.38	.28
Dallas	.40	.37	.51	.42	.35
Houston	.36	.32	.45	.36	.33
New Orleans	.44	.35	.45	.37	.37
San Antonio	.49	.27	.42	.35	.27
100,000 and under 250,000 population:					
Charlotte	.41	.31	.38	.38	.30
Chattanooga	.31	.26	.45	.34	.28
Forth Worth	.34	.38	.52	.37	.28
Jacksonville	.43	.34	.45	----	(3)
Knoxville	.31	(3)	.54	.34	(3)
Miami	.54	.40	.49	----	.47
Nashville	.33	.30	.41	.37	.31
Oklahoma City	.49	.35	.47	.38	.37
Tampa	.38	.35	.47	.40	----
Tulsa	.48	.54	.57	.52	.37
Middle West					
500,000 population and over:					
Chicago	.55	.44	.55	.51	.45
Milwaukee	.57	.44	.53	.48	.40
St. Louis	.51	.39	.50	.41	.37
250,000 and under 500,000 population:					
Indianapolis	.51	.43	.52	.47	.45
Kansas City	.60	.36	.51	.42	.36
Minneapolis–St. Paul	.56	.41	.49	.43	.40
100,000 and under 250,000 population:					
Des Moines	----	----	----	.43	.39
Duluth–Superior	.47	.43	.47	.44	(3)
Flint	.52	.45	.60	.51	.36
Fort Wayne	.46	.42	.49	.47	.41
Gary	.51	(3)	.50	.47	.41
Grand Rapids	.39	.41	.50	.41	----
Peoria	.43	.33	.46	.40	.34
South Bend	.59	.39	.52	.45	.44
Mountain and Pacific					
500,000 population and over:					
Los Angeles	.65	.54	.70	.56	.50
San Francisco	.81	.62	.71	.61	.55
250,000 and under 500,000 population:					
Denver	.49	.38	.39	(3)	.38
Portland	.67	.50	.54	.45	.48
Seattle–Tacoma	.61	.56	.63	.61	.58
100,000 and under 250,000 population:					
Sacramento	----	.55	.61	.58	.47
Salt Lake City	.53	.44	.50	----	----
San Diego	.52	.55	.68	.57	.50
Spokane	.47	----	.55	.53	----

[1] Exclusive of premium pay for overtime or late-shift work.

[2] In general, the cashier, grade I, accepts payments on charge accounts, cashes customers' checks, and sells gift certificates besides assuming, whenever necessary, the duties of the cashier, grade II, who accepts payment for sales slips made out by clerks, makes change, and may also wrap packages.

[3] Insufficient information to justify presentation.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to August 1944

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to August 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 $45.85 in August 1944—97.7 percent above the average in January 1939, 72.1 percent above January 1941, and 17.9 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 101.6 cents in August 1944—60.8 percent above the average in January 1939, 48.8 percent above January 1941, and 13.8 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 August 1944 was 94.4 cents per hour; this was 51.5 percent higher than in January 1939, 42.2 percent above January 1941, and 12.5 percent above October 1942.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to August 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	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(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
June	46.24	52.14	37.30	1.017	1.113	.861	.944	1.024	.813	.867	.959	.798
July [3]	45.43	51.07	37.04	1.018	1.117	.862	.951	1.037	.815	.874	.973	.799
Aug. [3]	45.85	51.79	37.16	1.016	1.111	.864	.944	1.024	.817	.871	.960	.803

[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, August 1944, table 6 (p. 1103), 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 87.1 cents in August 1944, or 39.8 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 34.4 percent above January 1941, and 11.4 percent above October 1942. Between July 1944 and August 1944 the drop in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to three-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.

Wartime Changes in Wages and Salaries and Per Capita Income in the Various States

PER CAPITA income payments in 1943 ranged from $512 in Arkansas to $1,452 in Connecticut. The increases during the period of the war, from 1939 to 1943, ranged from 26.5 percent in the District of Columbia to 198.8 percent in North Dakota. The increase for the United States as a whole in per capita income payments was 91.3 percent. Average salary-wage payments in the employments covered by State unemployment-compensation laws increased 56.9 percent in the United States as a whole, and the increases ranged from 29.5 percent in South Dakota to 96.2 percent in Maine. These are some of the major facts shown in a recent study of State income payments made by the U. S. Department of Commerce. [1]

Average Annual Salary-Wage

Estimates of the average annual salary-wage, based upon data collected by the Social Security Board for workers covered by State unemployment-compensation laws, range widely from State to State, the differences being caused in considerable part by differences in the composition of employment. Some States, for example, have little employment in manufacturing industries; other States have few factories except in textile industries or other industries with comparatively low wages; and still other States have many heavy-goods industries or other industries paying comparatively high wages. Such factors as changes in the location of industry, in the composition of employment, and in the demand for workers had significant effects on the State differences, both in the levels of the average salary-wage and in the percentages of change. The effects of such factors are illustrated by a comparison of war industries and nonwar industries in the field of manufacturing. (See table 1.)

[1] State Income Payments in 1943, by Charles F. Schwartz (in Survey of Current Business, August 1944, pp. 12–20). The article is available from the Department of Commerce in reprint form.

TABLE 1.—*Average Annual Salary-Wage of Employees Covered by State Unemployment-Compensation Laws, 1939 and 1943* [1]

Region and State	Average annual salary-wage								
	All industries			Manufacturing					
				War industries [2]			Nonwar industries		
	1939	1943	Percent of increase, 1939–43	1939	1943	Percent of increase, 1939–43	1939	1943	Percent of increase, 1939–43
United States	$1,361	$2,135	56.9	$1,524	$2,745	80.1	$1,250	$1,804	44.3
New England	1,328	2,148	61.7	1,504	2,685	78.5	1,147	1,830	59.5
Connecticut	1,426	2,495	75.0	1,460	2,798	91.6	1,220	2,079	70.4
Maine	1,054	2,068	96.2	1,307	3,157	141.5	958	1,633	70.5
Massachusetts	1,378	2,058	49.3	1,591	2,582	62.3	1,210	1,851	53.0
New Hampshire	1,078	1,645	52.6	1,427	2,202	54.3	1,019	1,649	61.8
Rhode Island	1,210	2,060	70.2	1,388	2,474	78.2	1,079	1,813	68.0
Vermont	1,159	1,811	56.3	1,602	2,373	48.1	1,042	1,628	56.2
Middle East	1,446	2,181	50.8	1,356	2,725	101.0	1,433	1,944	35.7
Delaware	1,405	2,228	58.6	1,458	2,919	100.2	1,203	1,672	39.0
District of Columbia	1,338	1,839	37.4	1,803	2,567	42.4	1,731	2,141	23.7
Maryland	1,236	2,174	75.9	1,516	2,738	80.6	1,122	1,753	56.2
New Jersey	1,431	2,394	67.3	1,634	2,736	67.4	1,242	2,075	67.1
New York	1,588	2,248	41.6	1,019	2,765	171.3	1,777	2,063	16.1
Pennsylvania	1,309	2,030	55.1	1,549	2,688	73.5	1,170	1,722	47.2
West Virginia	1,302	2,030	55.9	1,615	2,459	52.3	1,175	1,612	37.2
Southeast	958	1,559	62.7	1,246	2,302	84.8	835	1,276	52.8
Alabama	917	1,568	71.0	1,273	2,204	73.1	732	1,169	59.7
Arkansas	831	1,340	61.3	945	1,874	98.3	764	1,155	51.2
Florida	959	1,702	77.5	869	2,614	200.8	861	1,393	61.8
Georgia	918	1,461	59.2	1,113	2,271	104.0	784	1,213	54.7
Kentucky	1,107	1,726	55.9	1,462	2,322	58.8	1,086	1,558	43.5
Louisiana	1,069	1,781	66.6	1,268	2,624	106.9	965	1,476	53.0
Mississippi	817	1,289	57.8	961	2,041	112.4	699	1,076	53.9
North Carolina	893	1,376	54.1	1,151	2,217	92.6	826	1,266	53.3
South Carolina	796	1,282	61.1	798	1,864	133.6	756	1,255	66.0
Tennessee	1,018	1,644	61.5	1,233	2,044	65.8	903	1,290	42.9
Virginia	1,063	1,747	64.3	1,428	2,544	78.2	893	1,326	48.5
Southwest	1,216	1,875	54.2	1,412	2,469	74.9	1,182	1,687	42.7
Arizona	1,275	1,989	56.0	1,489	2,376	59.6	1,199	1,854	54.6
New Mexico	1,117	1,528	36.8	947	1,399	47.7	1,005	1,336	32.9
Oklahoma	1,288	1,944	50.9	1,415	2,340	65.4	1,320	1,767	33.9
Texas	1,197	1,866	55.9	1,412	2,511	77.8	1,155	1,673	44.8
Central	1,447	2,294	58.5	1,678	2,820	68.1	1,363	1,963	44.0
Illinois	1,522	2,228	46.4	1,635	2,635	61.2	1,446	2,066	42.9
Indiana	1,375	2,272	65.2	1,594	2,676	67.9	1,256	1,887	50.2
Iowa	1,196	1,716	43.5	1,405	2,166	54.2	1,268	1,739	37.1
Michigan	1,575	2,769	75.8	1,775	3,191	79.8	1,376	2,235	62.4
Minnesota	1,263	1,922	52.2	1,571	2,667	69.8	1,421	1,860	30.9
Missouri	1,301	1,868	43.6	1,528	2,355	54.1	1,205	1,679	39.3
Ohio	1,452	2,372	63.4	1,694	2,850	68.2	1,379	2,022	46.6
Wisconsin	1,425	2,158	51.4	1,651	2,732	65.5	1,374	1,869	36.0
Northwest	1,219	1,914	57.0	1,517	2,400	58.2	1,299	1,821	40.2
Colorado	1,289	1,841	42.8	1,506	2,223	47.6	1,316	1,811	37.6
Idaho	1,123	1,780	58.5	1,302	2,577	97.9	1,231	1,887	53.3
Kansas	1,176	2,073	76.3	1,419	2,498	76.0	1,320	1,845	39.8
Montana	1,322	1,840	39.2	1,956	2,746	40.4	1,404	1,873	33.4
Nebraska	1,205	1,875	55.6	1,391	2,359	69.6	1,317	1,847	40.2
North Dakota	1,135	1,488	31.1	1,378	2,026	47.0	1,202	1,575	31.0
South Dakota	1,154	1,494	29.5	1,438	2,166	50.6	1,260	1,711	35.8
Utah	1,244	2,079	67.1	1,506	2,263	50.3	1,164	1,684	44.7
Wyoming	1,218	1,854	52.2	1,222	1,885	54.3	1,457	2,027	39.1
Far West	1,543	2,478	60.6	1,729	2,965	71.5	1,457	2,238	53.6
California	1,581	2,515	59.1	1,734	2,925	68.7	1,479	2,244	51.7
Nevada	1,397	2,492	78.4	1,586	3,376	112.9	1,403	1,869	33.2
Oregon	1,498	2,429	62.1	1,815	3,132	72.6	1,454	2,192	50.8
Washington	1,402	2,355	68.0	1,667	3,041	82.4	1,403	2,260	61.1

[1] For source, see footnote 1, p. 1049. The average annual salary-wage is based on Social Security Board data and is derived by dividing total wages and salaries earned in covered employment during the year by average monthly employment.

[2] Includes chemicals and allied products, rubber products, iron and steel and their products, ordnance and accessories, transportation equipment (except automobiles), nonferrous metals and their products, electrical machinery, machinery (except electrical), and automobiles and automobile equipment.

The average salary-wage in those groups of manufacturing industries which have been particularly important in contributing to war production was much higher in 1939 than was the average in the nonwar industries—$1,524 as compared with $1,250. The rise in the average salary-wage in the war industries between 1939 and 1943 was 80.1 percent, as compared with a rise of only 44.3 percent in the nonwar industries. In States in which new war industries accounted for a large proportion of industrial employment, the effects of the war industries on the general averages were especially important. In Nevada, for example, manufacturing war industries accounted for only 6.3 percent of the State's manufacturing pay rolls in 1939 but for 89.7 percent in 1943. The increase in the average salary-wage in manufacturing war industries in Nevada was 112.9 percent, in contrast to a rise of only 33.2 percent in nonwar industries. The increase in all industries covered by the act was 78.4 percent.

Throughout the country there were increases in rates of wages and salaries, but other factors accounted in considerable part for the increases in the average remuneration. One of these factors was the rise in average hours of work, especially in war industries. Work schedules in these industries rose in most communities from 40 hours or less per week to 48 hours, and in many plants to more than 48 hours. The prevalence in most industries of premium payments for overtime beyond 40 hours per week, either under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act or under collective agreements, added materially to average earnings in 1943. Changes in labor productivity were also important, especially in their direct effects on the earnings of piece-rate workers. The expansion of war production gave to workers opportunities for employment in jobs with comparatively high rates of pay and also with comparatively long hours of work. The increase in the proportion of workers in these employments, particularly in such industries as shipbuilding, aircraft, and the metal-working trades, accounted for a significant part of the rise in the average salary-wage.

Increases in average compensation resulting from such causes as the rise in hours of work and enlarged proportions of jobs in high-wage industries are to be distinguished from increases resulting from changes in rates of compensation. When employees who are paid by the hour or on a piece-rate basis work longer hours or have opportunities to obtain new jobs with higher pay, their average earnings rise automatically and independently of increases in rates of pay, just as a reduction of hours or of opportunities for high-wage jobs automatically reduces the average earnings unless there are counterbalancing factors. Such changes are analogous to increases or reductions in profits resulting from changes in volume and types of sales. (See table 2.)

Per Capita Income Payments

Per capita income payments (the average payment per person of the total population) rose from $539 in 1939 to $1,031 in 1943, an increase of 91.3 percent. Increases in the various regions and States were caused in part by the same factors that accounted for different percentage changes in the average salary-wage. The increases in per capita income payments were greater, however, than the increases in average salary-wage, except in New Hampshire and the District of Columbia, and the range of increases in per capita payments was wider. See table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Total Income Payments, and Per Capita Income Payments, by States and Regions, 1939 and 1943* [1]

Region and State	Percentage distribution of total income payments		Per capita income payments [2]		
	1939	1943	1939	1943	Percent of increase, 1939–43
United States	100.00	100.00	$539	$1,031	91.3
New England	8.12	7.38	680	1,214	78.5
Connecticut	1.84	1.87	764	1,452	90.1
Maine	.57	.61	474	1,036	118.6
Massachusetts	4.40	3.71	719	1,201	67.0
New Hampshire	.38	.28	548	827	50.9
Rhode Island	.68	.70	678	1,292	90.6
Vermont	.25	.21	483	891	84.5
Middle East	32.27	27.51	711	1,198	68.5
Delaware	.29	.28	771	1,361	76.5
District of Columbia	1.15	1.07	1,031	1,304	26.5
Maryland	1.52	1.71	634	1,200	89.3
New Jersey	4.05	3.83	746	1,282	71.8
New York	16.01	12.57	825	1,340	62.4
Pennsylvania	8.24	7.18	589	1,048	77.9
West Virginia	1.01	.87	378	688	82.0
Southeast	11.91	13.82	300	652	117.3
Alabama	.96	1.26	242	603	149.2
Arkansas	.68	.69	246	512	108.1
Florida	1.16	1.51	442	874	97.7
Georgia	1.28	1.52	290	647	123.1
Kentucky	1.19	1.20	297	609	105.1
Louisiana	1.17	1.32	354	714	101.7
Mississippi	.62	.78	201	484	140.8
North Carolina	1.54	1.63	308	619	101.0
South Carolina	.70	.81	261	576	120.7
Tennessee	1.20	1.39	295	649	120.0
Virginia	1.41	1.71	402	820	104.0
Southwest	5.32	5.94	386	790	104.7
Arizona	.32	.41	461	805	74.6
New Mexico	.25	.25	341	656	92.4
Oklahoma	1.13	1.15	340	729	114.4
Texas	3.62	4.13	401	818	104.0
Central States	28.46	28.33	565	1,116	97.5
Illinois	7.49	6.83	671	1,226	82.7
Indiana	2.39	2.69	495	1,092	120.6
Iowa	1.68	1.65	468	983	110.0
Michigan	4.33	4.83	591	1,230	108.1
Minnesota	1.95	1.71	497	916	84.3
Missouri	2.59	2.43	486	896	84.4
Ohio	5.88	6.00	603	1,204	99.7
Wisconsin	2.15	2.19	485	1,003	106.8
Northwest	4.39	5.00	418	965	130.9
Colorado	.80	.80	505	950	88.1
Idaho	.30	.35	411	955	132.4
Kansas	.98	1.29	383	1,003	161.9
Montana	.41	.36	515	1,029	99.8
Nebraska	.74	.83	397	937	136.0
North Dakota	.30	.38	325	971	198.8
South Dakota	.32	.35	351	846	141.0
Utah	.34	.47	443	1,009	127.8
Wyoming	.20	.17	567	938	165.4
Far West	9.53	12.02	692	1,397	101.9
California	7.15	8.76	741	1,429	92.8
Nevada	.12	.15	767	1,397	82.1
Oregon	.83	1.10	544	1,229	125.9
Washington	1.43	2.01	588	1,368	132.7

[1] For source, see footnote 1, p. 1049.

[2] Per capita income payments are derived by dividing total income payments by total population. For 5 States, however, income was transferred from the State of the recipient's employment to the State of residence before per capita income was computed. These States are New York, New Jersey, District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia. Data for armed forces and civilians outside continental United States are excluded.

It is not possible to compute the average income of persons receiving many of the types of income other than wages and salaries, and there is of course much overlapping of income payments. Some wage earners and many salaried employees, for example, receive dividend payments or other income. It is apparent, however, from the available information, that types of income payments other than wages and salaries increased, on a per capita basis, to a much greater extent than did wages and salaries.

The net income of agricultural proprietors rose from 4.3 billion dollars in 1939 to 12.3 billion in 1943. During this period the average number of farm-family workers, according to estimates by the U. S. Department of Agriculture, declined from 8,145,000 to 7,857,000. Almost without exception, the increases in per capita income payments in the States that are mainly agricultural were much greater than the average increase of 91.3 percent for the country as a whole. The income of nonagricultural proprietors rose from 6.9 billion dollars in 1939 to 11.6 billion in 1943. The number of nonagricultural proprietors is not known, but there is evidence that at least in some types of nonagricultural enterprise the number of proprietors declined. Interest and net rents rose from 7.4 billion dollars in 1939 to 9.8 billion in 1943. Dividend payments showed only a slight rise, from 3.8 billion to 4 billion dollars. It should be noted, however, that corporate profits not distributed as dividends rose from 0.4 billion dollars in 1939 to 4.9 billion in 1943. Corporate savings, or undistributed corporate profits, although not a part of income payments, are nevertheless a part of current income belonging to the owners of corporate enterprises. All items classified as supplements to wages and salaries fell from 3.8 billion dollars in 1939 to 3.2 billion in 1943.[2]

During the war an increased proportion of the population has received more than one form of income. The families of members of the armed forces, a large proportion of whom are normally either wage earners or salaried employees, have received wartime allowances. The main factor tending to cause an overlapping of income payments was the increased proportion of the population receiving wages and salaries. It may be assumed that for the most part the overlapping forms of income applied predominantly to classes other than wage earners and that this group continued to depend almost wholly upon wages.[3]

[2] These estimates of income for 1939 and 1943 (subject to revision) are to be found in the April 1944 issue of Survey of Current Business (U. S. Department of Commerce), p. 13.

[3] The article here reviewed gives estimates of per capita income payments for the years 1929, 1933, and 1940–42, as well as for 1939 and 1943. One of the tables gives State income payments by type of payment for the years 1940 to 1943, the four types of payment being salaries and wages (combined), proprietors' income, property income, and other income. There is a detailed analysis of the redistribution of income payments since 1941, with a discussion of the causes and significance of the shifts in the proportions of income payments. The discussion includes such questions as the pre-war versus the wartime trends in the redistribution of income payments and the problems of post-war readjustment as affected by the wartime redistribution of income payments.

Wages and Hours in Canada, 1932–44[1]

THE major series of wage and hour statistics compiled by the Canadian Government consist of an annual survey of wages and hours of factory wage earners prepared in connection with the Census of Manufactures; monthly reports on per capita weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries from June 1, 1941, onward;[2] and annual wage rates and index numbers of wage rates for selected industries and trades.[3] From these records it is possible to trace annual changes in both hours and wages. However, no statistics are issued showing the monthly fluctuations in working time over a period of years, and the average earnings have been compiled only since mid-1941. For reference purposes the most recent wage and hour data that are available, other than for agricultural and mine workers, are assembled in the present summary.[4]

Hours of Labor

Collection of figures on hours of work of wage earners in Canadian manufacturing industries began in 1932. Each firm was required to report on the number of hours worked by its wage-earning employees during the month in which the greatest number had been employed. An exception was made, however, in 1938 and 1939, when hours in a week in a month of normal employment were reported. Beginning in 1940, overtime hours were included in the weekly hours for the first time. Information on working hours has been recorded separately for males and females beginning with 1938. Owing to the changes in method, the average weekly hours shown in the statement below, for the years 1932–41, are not entirely comparable. The averages do not represent weekly hours worked in a particular month of the year, as the month of highest employment differs between firms and industries.

	Hours worked per week in manufacturing		
	Average	*Males*	*Females*
1932	48. 9	(1)	(1)
1933	48. 7	(1)	(1)
1934	49. 2	(1)	(1)
1935	48. 7	(1)	(1)
1936	48. 7	(1)	(1)
1937	48. 8	(1)	(1)
1938	46. 7	47. 3	44. 6
1939	47. 2	48. 1	45. 2
1940	[2] 50. 1	50. 9	47. 3
1941	[2] 50. 5	51. 5	47. 1

[1] Available only beginning with 1938.
[2] Includes overtime.

Weekly hours in 1941 are given in table 1 for the leading male- and female-employing industries. The average working time for males

[1] The data on which this article is based are from Canada Yearbook 1942; The Manufacturing Industries of Canada, 1941; and Annual Review of Employment and Pay Rolls in Canada, 1943—all issued by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa; Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), April and September 1944; and International Labor Review (Montreal), April–May 1944.

[2] The Census of Manufactures covers all establishments, irrespective of number of employees; however, the monthly surveys are limited, in the main, to establishments ordinarily employing 15 persons or over.

[3] For wage-rate data see Monthly Labor Review, January 1943 (p. 138).

[4] For a statement on the wage-stabilization program that prevented extensive wage-rate increases in 1942 and afterwards, see Monthly Labor Review for December 1941 (p. 1392), September 1942 (p. 466), January 1944 (pp. 69–70), and May 1944 (p. 998).

was 50 hours or over per week in three-fourths of the 40 leading man-employing industries as compared with one-tenth of the 40 leading woman-employing industries.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hours Worked per Week in the Leading Male- and Female-Employing Industries in Canada, 1941*

Industry	Average hours per week	Industry	Average hours per week
Males		*Females*	
Average (40 industries)	51.6	Average (40 industries)	47.7
Sawmills	54.7	Clothing, men's factory	46.4
Pulp and paper	53.0	Clothing, women's factory	45.7
Railway rolling stock	45.6	Hosiery and knitted goods	47.5
Primary iron and steel	51.7	Cotton yarn and cloth	48.7
Aircraft	53.4	Boots and shoes, leather	49.2
Shipbuilding and repairs	52.4	Electrical apparatus and supplies	50.0
Automobiles	45.2	Miscellaneous chemical products	48.2
Electrical apparatus and supplies	54.1	Biscuits, confectionery, etc	48.4
Machinery	55.8	Fruit and vegetable preparations	49.2
Miscellaneous chemical products	50.6	Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes	45.8
Bread and other bakery products	52.8	Rubber goods, including rubber footwear	45.4
Cotton yarn and cloth	50.2	Bread and other bakery products	46.4
Nonferrous-metal smelting and refining	48.4	Boxes and bags, paper	48.9
Castings, iron	53.7	Printing and bookbinding	45.8
Automobile supplies	53.8	Silk and artificial silk	46.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	52.2	Woolen cloth	50.8
Furniture	50.6	Hats and caps	45.8
Brass and copper products	52.8	Miscellaneous iron and steel products	48.6
Rubber goods, including rubber footwear	50.1	Miscellaneous leather goods	46.9
Sheet-metal products	51.3	Woolen yarn	48.2
Planing mills, sash and door factories	52.4	Miscellaneous paper products	46.9
Miscellaneous iron and steel products	54.3	Narrow fabrics, laces, etc	52.8
Boots and shoes, leather	49.4	Aircraft	51.4
Hardware and tools	55.4	Sheet-metal products	47.5
Printing and publishing	44.2	Automobile supplies	48.7
Clothing, men's factory	45.7	Corsets	45.6
Hosiery and knitted goods	50.9	Slaughtering and meat packing	47.2
Agricultural implements	50.3	Medicinal and pharmaceutical preparations	44.3
Printing and bookbinding	45.9	Printing and publishing	41.3
Silk and artificial silk	50.9	Hardware and tools	49.9
Bridge and structural steel	52.8	Foods, miscellaneous	44.9
Clothing, women's factory	44.9	Gloves and mittens, leather	47.6
Heating and cooking appliances	52.0	Fur goods	46.3
Acids, alkalies, and salts	49.4	Jewelry and electroplated ware	48.4
Wire and wire goods	52.9	Brass and copper products	48.1
Fruits and vegetable preparations	53.4	Miscellaneous cotton goods	46.4
Biscuits, confectionery, etc	53.0	Clothing contractors, men's	45.5
Aerated and mineral waters	52.2	Machinery	49.2
Woolen cloth	53.8	Glass products	45.8
Petroleum products	42.9	Tobacco processing and packing	45.2

Scheduled weekly hours of skilled and unskilled labor, by occupation, in certain Canadian cities as of October 1942, appear in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Scheduled Weekly Hours of Work, by Occupation, in Selected Canadian Cities, October 1942*

Industry and occupation	Scheduled weekly hours in—					
	Halifax	Montreal	Ottawa	Toronto	Vancouver	Winnipeg
Mechanical engineering:						
Fitters and turners	44	40–60	44–50	40–60	44–48	40–52
Iron molders	44–48	48–60	40–60	40–60	44–48	44–54
Patternmakers	44	48–60	40–60	45–60	44–48	50–54
Laborers	44–54	44–60	40–60	40–60	44–48	44–54
Building:						
Bricklayers and masons	44	44	44	40	40	44
Structural-iron workers	44	44	44	44	40	44
Concrete workers	44	44–50	44–50	44–50	40–48	44–48
Carpenters and joiners	44	44	44	40	40–44	44
Painters	44	44	44	40	40–44	44
Plumbers	44	44	40	40	40–44	44
Electrical fitters	44	44	40	40	40–44	44
Laborers	44–48	44–50	44–50	44–50	40–48	44–48
Furniture making:						
Cabinetmakers		44–55		44–46½	43–48	44–50
Upholsterers		44–49		44	44	42½–50
French polishers		47–55		44	43–48	42½–50
Printing and bookbinding:						
Hand compositors, book and job	44–48	44	48	44–48	40–48	44
Machine compositors, book and job	44–48	44	44–48	44–48	40–48	44
Machine tenders	44–48	44	44–48	44–48	40–48	44
Bookbinders	44–47	44	44–48	44–48	40–48	44
Laborers		44				
Food industry:						
Bakers	54	48–60	56	48–56	48	50–56
Electric-power distribution:						
Electrical fitters	44	48–54	44–48	40–48	44	48
Laborers	44	48	44–48	40	44	48
Transport:						
Streetcars and busses:						
Drivers	44	54	49½	44–48	48	42
Conductors	44	54	49½	44–48	48	42
Cartage:						
Motor drivers	44–54	53–60	53–60	45–60	44–54	48–52
Railways:						
Goods porters	48	48	48	48	48	48
Permanent way laborers	48	48	48	48	48	48
Local authorities:						
Laborers	48–54	44–60	44	44	40	44–49

Wages of Labor

According to the Census of Manufactures, earnings of both male and female workers rose gradually between 1934 and 1941. In the latter year average annual earnings were $1,355 [5] for males and $736 for females; average weekly earnings were $27.72 and $15.05, respectively; and average hourly earnings were 54 cents for males and 32 cents for females.

The Canadian Government has also issued statistics of real wages, computed by dividing the index number of average yearly wages (as ascertained for wage earners in the Census of Manufactures) by the official index of cost of living. According to these statistics real wages dropped appreciably between 1931 and 1933 and then rose irregularly through 1941. However, the advance in real wages was smaller than for annual money wages as the rise in living costs partially offset the increase in money wages. Table 3 shows the average earnings for male and female workers in selected years, 1934–41, and the index numbers of money wages, cost of living, and real wages for the years 1931–41.

[5] All wages are quoted in Canadian currency.

TABLE 3.—*Average Earnings, by Sex, and Index Numbers of Money Wages, Cost of Living, and Real Wages in Manufacturing Industries in Canada, 1931–41*

[Wages are quoted in Canadian currency]

Year	Average earnings of males			Average earnings of females			Index numbers (1935–39=100) of—		
	Per year	Per week	Per hour	Per year	Per week	Per hour	Average yearly earnings	Cost of living	Real value of average yearly earnings
1931	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	101.9	109.1	93.4
1932	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	90.6	99.0	91.5
1933	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	83.4	94.4	88.3
1934	$930	$20.31	$0.41	$539	$11.80	$0.25	89.1	95.7	93.1
1935	966	20.41	.41	570	12.04	.26	93.3	96.2	97.0
1936	995	20.92	.42	577	12.20	.26	96.1	98.1	98.0
1937	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	103.5	101.2	102.3
1938	1,055	21.49	.45	594	12.10	.27	102.6	102.2	100.4
1939	1,076	22.23	.46	619	12.78	.28	104.6	101.5	103.1
1940	1,202	24.83	.49	655	13.52	.29	116.3	105.6	110.1
1941	1,355	27.72	.54	736	15.05	.32	130.9	111.7	117.2

[1] Data not available.

TABLE 4.—*Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings in the Leading Male- and Female-Employing Industries in Canada, 1941*

[Wages are quoted in Canadian currency]

Industry	Average earnings		Industry	Average earnings	
	Per week	Per hour		Per week	Per hour
Males			*Females*		
Average (40 industries)	$28.31	$0.55	Average (40 industries)	$15.04	$0.32
Automobiles	40.57	.90	Aircraft	23.66	.46
Automobile supplies	35.09	.65	Fur goods	19.67	.43
Bridge and structural steel	34.65	.66	Automobile supplies	18.75	.39
Petroleum products	34.27	.80	Slaughtering and meat packing	17.53	.37
Aircraft	33.74	.63	Clothing, women's factory	17.45	.38
Pulp and paper	33.53	.63	Brass and copper products	16.99	.35
Railway rolling stock	33.19	.73	Clothing contractors, men's	16.91	.37
Shipbuilding and repairs	32.09	.61	Sheet-metal products	16.87	.36
Nonferrous-metal smelting and refining	32.01	.66	Electrical apparatus and supplies	16.81	.34
Electrical apparatus and supplies	31.75	.59	Miscellaneous chemical products	16.78	.35
Miscellaneous iron and steel products	31.61	.58	Hats and caps	16.38	.36
Machinery	31.50	.57	Rubber goods, including rubber footwear	16.06	.35
Brass and copper products	31.21	.59	Woolen cloth	15.93	.31
Primary iron and steel	29.80	.58	Machinery	15.70	.32
Castings, iron	29.68	.55	Cotton yarn and cloth	15.62	.32
Miscellaneous chemical products	29.57	.58	Hardware and tools	14.96	.30
Clothing, women's factory	29.53	.66	Narrow fabrics, laces, etc	14.94	.28
Printing and publishing	29.52	.67	Woolen yarn	14.92	.31
Acids, alkalies, and salts	29.10	.59	Tobacco processing and packing	14.92	.33
Wire and wire goods	28.67	.54	Jewelry and electroplated ware	14.88	.31
Rubber goods, including rubber footwear	28.52	.57	Clothing, men's factory	14.73	.32
Slaughtering and meat packing	28.50	.55	Miscellaneous paper products	14.63	.31
Hardware and tools	27.78	.50	Miscellaneous cotton goods	14.47	.31
Printing and bookbinding	27.71	.60	Glass products	14.37	.31
Clothing, men's factory	27.34	.60	Medicinal and pharmaceutical preparations	14.03	.32
Sheet-metal products	27.22	.53	Silk and artificial silk	13.91	.30
Heating and cooking appliances	25.98	.50	Hosiery and knitted goods	13.89	.29
Furniture	23.97	.47	Fruit and vegetable preparations	13.87	.28
Agricultural implements	23.79	.47	Miscellaneous leather goods	13.81	.29
Woolen cloth	23.16	.43	Boxes and bags, paper	13.81	.28
Silk and artificial silk	22.83	.45	Printing and bookbinding	13.47	.29
Hosiery and knitted goods	22.25	.44	Gloves and mittens, leather	13.27	.28
Biscuits, confectionery, etc	22.24	.42	Miscellaneous iron and steel products	13.10	.27
Aerated and mineral waters	22.12	.42	Biscuits, confectionery, etc	13.01	.27
Bread and other bakery products	22.01	.42	Miscellaneous food products	12.93	.29
Cotton yarn and cloth	21.68	.43	Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes	12.87	.28
Fruit and vegetable preparations	21.41	.40	Printing and publishing	12.51	.30
Planing mills, sash and door factories	21.22	.41	Boots and shoes, leather	12.47	.25
Boots and shoes, leather	20.78	.42	Corsets	11.97	.26
Sawmills	19.03	.35	Bread and other bakery products	11.55	.25

For the leading male- and female-employing industries in 1941, average weekly and hourly earnings are given in table 4. For males the only industry in which weekly wages were under $20 was sawmilling (average $19.03); in contrast the only industry in which females averaged over $20 weekly was aircraft (average $23.66).

TABLE 5.—*Hourly Wages of Adult Male Workers, by Occupation, in Selected Canadian Cities, October 1942*

[Wages are quoted in Canadian currency]

Industry and occupation	Hourly wages in—					
	Halifax	Montreal	Ottawa	Toronto	Vancouver	Winnipeg
Mechanical engineering:						
Fitters and turners	[1] $0.72	[1] $0.75	[1] $0.69	[1] $0.73	[1] $0.93	[1] $0.68
Iron molders	1.83	1.73	1.65	1.73	1.85	1.65
Patternmakers	1.83	1.90	1.70	1.78	1.95	1.70
Laborers	1.47	1.43	1.40	1.50	1.50	1.40
Building:						
Bricklayers and masons	[1] 1.10	2.92	[3] 1.10	[4] 1.13	1.23	[2] 1.15
Structural-iron workers	1.75	2.87	.90	.90	1.23	2.90
Concrete workers	1.50	2.58	.55	.65	.65	.55
Carpenters and joiners	1.80	2.81	4.90	[4] 1.00	[5] .90	2.95
Painters	1.73	2.74	.75	.85	.90	2.75
Plumbers	1.95	2.95	[4] 1.05	[4] 1.10	1.13	[2] 1.05
Electrical fitters	[1] 1.00	2.87	.90	[4] 1.10	1.13	.95
Laborers	1.45	2.46	2.45	[6] .55	[5] .50	.48
Furniture making:						
Cabinetmakers	----------	1.60	----------	7.63	8.65	8.55
Upholsterers	----------	1.70	----------	8.85	9.80	8.70
French polishers	----------	1.48	----------	8.70	10.57	8.60
Printing and bookbinding:						
Hand compositors, book and job	11.66	10.82	1.78	10.80	[1] 1.00	12.80
Machine compositors, book and job						
Machine minders	11.66	10.82	1.70	10.77	[1] 1.00	12.75
Bookbinders	11.67	10.82	1.70	10.79	[1] 1.00	12.75
Food industry:						
Bakers	8.46	10.44	9.48	1.48	1.68	1.47
Electric-power distribution:						
Electrical fitters	5.82	5.70	13.73	14.96	[15] 1.06	16.89
Laborers	5.40	5.39	13.38	14.60	15.56	16.43
Transport:						
Streetcars and busses	[17] 65	[18] 60	[17] 54	[19] 68	[20] 69	[21] 59
Cartage:						
Motor drivers	8.43	1.40	8.40	1.50	[22] 59	1.45
Railways:						
Goods porters	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50
Permanent way laborers	5.43	5.43	5.43	5.43	5.43	5.43
Local authorities:						
Laborers	[23] .45	[24] .42	[25] .50	[25] .63	[26] .59	[27] .48

[1] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $4.25 per week.
[2] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 5 cents per hour.
[3] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 2 cents per hour.
[4] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 3 cents per hour.
[5] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $4.25 per week.
[6] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 7 cents per hour.
[7] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $2.85 per week.
[8] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 60 cents per week.
[9] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $2.45 per week.
[10] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $3.10 per week.
[11] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $3.45 per week.
[12] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $3.70 per week.
[13] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $2.17 per week.
[14] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $3.85 to $4.25 per week.
[15] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 2.5 cents per hour.
[16] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $1.85 per week.
[17] One-man tram operators. Plus cost-of-living bonus of $4.25 per week.
[18] One-man tram operators and bus drivers, 65 cents. Plus cost of living bonus of $3 per week.
[19] One-man tram operators and bus drivers, 73 cents. Plus cost-of-living bonus of 60 cents per week.
[20] One-man tram operators and bus drivers, 75 cents. Plus cost-of-living bonus of $1.75 per week.
[21] One-man streetcar operators and bus drivers, 73 cents. Plus cost-of-living allowance of $1.85 per week.
[22] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $0.60 to $1.85 per week.
[23] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $2.40 for married and $1.50 for single workers per week.
[24] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $2 per week.
[25] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $2 for married and $1 for single workers per week.
[26] Plus cost-of-living bonus of $12 for married and $6 for single workers per month.
[27] Plus cost-of-living bonus of 4 cents for married and 2 cents for single workers per hour.

Hourly wages of adult males by occupation in selected cities are shown in table 5 for October 1942. With a few exceptions bonus payments supplemented the hourly wages at the time covered by the figures.

Since June 1, 1941, the Canadian Department of Labor has compiled monthly statistics of per capita weekly earnings in manufacturing and certain nonmanufacturing industries. Previously, no information regarding earnings was published on a monthly basis. The per capita weekly earnings in the eight leading industry groups, including manufacturing, and in manufacturing alone, are shown in table 6, by months, from June 1, 1941, through July 1, 1944. In the period of 3 years during which the statistics have been compiled, weekly earnings increased by more than one-fourth.

TABLE 6.—*Per Capita Weekly Earnings in Canadian Industry, June 1, 1941, to July 1, 1944*

[Wages are quoted in Canadian currency]

Month	Per capita weekly earnings in —		Month	Per capita weekly earnings in —	
	8 leading industries [1]	Manufacturing		8 leading industries [1]	Manufacturing
1941			*1943*		
June	$25.25	$25.57	January	27.92	28.11
July	25.49	25.82	February	29.96	30.65
August	25.69	26.06	March	30.72	31.49
September	26.04	26.22	April	31.14	31.81
October	26.37	26.80	May	30.59	31.09
November	27.02	27.59	June	30.93	31.62
December	27.32	28.15	July	30.97	31.62
1942			August	31.06	31.77
January	26.13	26.32	September	31.30	32.03
February	27.65	28.39	October	31.53	32.37
March	27.92	28.58	November	31.60	32.62
April	28.41	28.94	December	31.61	32.86
May	28.59	29.19	*1944*		
June	28.20	28.73	January	29.69	30.18
July	28.49	29.16	February	31.76	32.76
August	28.62	29.08	March	32.27	33.23
September	29.29	29.72	April	32.37	33.28
October	29.51	30.15	May	32.26	32.92
November	29.81	30.70	June	31.80	32.64
December	30.06	31.17	July	31.71	32.44

[1] Manufacturing, logging, mining, communications, transportation, construction and maintenance services, and trade.

Daily Wage Rates and Earnings in Chile in 1943 [1]

A SAMPLE study covering 75,165 workers in 891 establishments in various industries in Chile in 1943 showed that the average daily wage rate was 29.11 pesos.[2] When overtime and other compensation were added, the total average daily earnings amounted to 34.04 pesos.

The highest average daily wage rates, 36.74 and 33.48 pesos, were paid by the electrical and the textile industries, respectively. Workers in the electrical industry had also the highest daily average earnings, 39.05 pesos; and mining workers with an average of 37.89 pesos ranked

[1] Data are from report of Daniel L. Horowitz, senior economic analyst, United States Embassy at Santiago, August 24, 1944 (No. 400).

[2] Average exchange rate of peso in 1943=3.2 U. S. cents.

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second in earnings. About 65 percent of all the workers received a daily wage rate above 30 pesos. The miscellaneous manufacturing group paid both the lowest average daily wage rates (17.09 pesos) and the lowest average daily earnings (17.23 pesos). The woodworking industry came next with 19.37 and 20.37 pesos, respectively.

The survey included records of additional compensation paid. Twenty-eight percent of the workers received compensation for overtime, amounting to an average of 5.85 pesos per day, and 46 percent of them received an average of 7.19 pesos per day in other types of additional compensation. Thirty-nine percent of the tobacco workers, 38 percent of the mine workers, and 26 percent of the food workers received overtime compensation. Over 68 percent of the mine workers, over 62 percent of the chemical workers, and almost 58 percent of the tobacco workers received other types of additional daily compensation.

The following table gives for each of 16 industries and the miscellaneous manufactures the number of establishments and workers covered in the survey, the number of workers per establishment, and the daily average of the wage rate, additional compensation, and earnings.

Average Daily Wage Rates and Earnings in Various Industries in Chile, 1943

Industry group	Number of establishments studied	Number of workers		Average daily wage rate	Additional compensation [1]		Average total daily earnings
		Total	Average per establishment		Overtime	Other	
				Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
All groups	891	75,165	84	29.11	5.85	7.19	34.04
Mining	58	36,754	634	30.43	5.23	8.02	37.89
Forestry and fishing	14	810	58	33.15	5.51	4.16	33.80
Livestock raising	5	186	37	31.37	3.70	5.60	33.68
Food	207	5,575	27	24.57	6.33	4.54	27.68
Beverage and liquor	56	2,636	47	24.95	7.00	3.87	27.60
Tobacco	3	437	146	19.54	2.18	8.04	25.04
Textiles	82	6,395	78	33.48	5.65	6.99	35.71
Chemical	36	2,685	75	27.24	8.03	4.97	31.73
Metallurgical	74	3,089	42	27.14	8.31	2.72	29.82
Transportation	52	4,129	79	26.92	7.10	5.49	30.81
Stone, clay, and glass	24	2,137	89	28.70	12.05	2.03	30.20
Electrical	47	2,979	63	36.74	7.76	5.46	39.05
Leather and leather goods	53	1,924	36	23.15	3.38	4.42	23.54
Woodworking	98	3,105	32	19.37	6.11	2.25	20.37
Printing, photoengraving, jewelry, and musicians	51	1,506	30	33.18	9.56	.97	36.14
Building and construction	15	513	34	25.41	9.28		25.46
Other manufacturing	16	305	19	17.09	21.67	1.95	17.23

[1] Averages apply only to workers receiving such compensation.

The largest number of workers employed in any one field (48.9 percent of the total) was in mining, though mines constituted only 6.5 percent of the 891 establishments. The average number of workers per mine was 634. The next largest industrial group (8.5 percent of all) was found in the 82 textile plants (9.2 percent of all the establishments surveyed), which had an average of 78 workers each. The 207 establishments in the food industry constituted 23.2 percent of all establishments but employed only 7.4 percent of the workers. Transportation accounted for 5.8 percent of the establishments and the next largest group of workers (5.5 percent).

Earnings and Working Hours in the United Kingdom, January 1944[1]

BETWEEN July 1943 and January 1944, earnings of wage earners in manufacturing and in the chief nonmanufacturing industries in the United Kingdom rose and the workweek declined. Weekly earnings increased 2s.[2] to an average of 95s. 7d., although hourly earnings remained almost stationary. The decline of 0.8 hour in working time, to a 49.2-hour average, was attributed largely to seasonal factors. Average weekly and hourly earnings and average weekly hours of work are shown in the following table, by industry and by sex and age group, for the last pay week in January 1944.

Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours in Manufacturing and Principal Nonmanufacturing [1] Industries, United Kingdom, January 1944 [2]

Industry group	All workers[3]	Males		Females	
		21 years of age and over [4]	Under 21 years of age	18 years of age and over [3]	Under 18 years of age
	Average weekly earnings [5]				
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
All groups	95 7	123 8	46 10	63 9	34 3
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	90 1	96 0	51 1	([6])	([6])
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mine and quarry products	98 5	109 7	51 7	59 2	34 8
Brick, pottery, and glass	79 3	106 0	46 1	49 11	30 3
Chemical, paint, oil, etc	93 0	120 2	43 8	65 3	31 6
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	111 2	141 10	50 8	71 8	39 2
Textiles	64 11	97 8	41 9	53 8	35 8
Leather, fur, etc	76 8	103 6	41 4	51 11	31 1
Clothing	56 0	101 2	40 4	50 10	30 10
Food, drink, and tobacco	74 8	104 0	40 11	53 1	31 7
Woodworking	79 5	102 6	37 7	57 10	34 0
Paper, printing, stationery, etc	84 2	119 2	34 5	53 4	28 11
Building, contracting, etc	93 7	101 6	42 4	60 4	([6])
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	87 5	126 1	48 5	62 1	36 3
Transport, storage, etc. (excluding railways)	98 8	108 3	46 2	74 8	([6])
Public utility services	81 6	90 5	36 10	48 0	28 1
Government industrial establishments	111 1	134 6	50 5	84 0	40 4
	Average hourly earnings [5]				
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
All groups	1 11.3	2 4.5	0 11.9	1 4.9	0 9.2
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	1 11.2	2 0.6	1 1.5	([6])	([6])
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mine and quarry products	1 11.5	2 1.6	1 1.3	1 4.1	0 9.1
Brick, pottery, and glass	1 7.9	2 1.3	1 .1	1 1.6	0 8.2
Chemical, paint, oil, etc	1 10.6	2 3.0	0 11.4	1 5.7	0 8.6
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	2 2.3	2 7.9	1 .7	1 6.6	0 10.4
Textiles	1 4.5	1 11.0	0 10.6	1 2.1	0 9.4
Leather, fur, etc	1 7.5	2 1.0	0 10.9	1 2.2	0 8.4
Clothing	1 3.2	2 1.8	0 10.7	1 2.1	0 8.4
Food, drink, and tobacco	1 6.8	2 .0	0 10.7	1 2.3	0 8.6
Woodworking	1 8.2	2 1.0	0 9.9	1 3.9	0 9.3
Paper, printing, stationery, etc	1 9.6	2 5.4	0 9.0	1 2.4	0 7.8
Building, contracting, etc	1 11.0	2 .7	0 11.0	1 4.9	([6])
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	1 9.7	2 4.9	1 .4	1 4.5	0 9.8
Transport, storage, etc. (excluding railways)	1 11.4	2 1.0	0 11.4	1 7.6	([6])
Public utility services	1 8.3	1 9.9	0 9.5	1 2.3	0 7.9
Government industrial establishments	2 2.1	2 5.6	1 .5	1 10.0	0 11.2

See footnotes at end of table.

[1] Data are from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), February and August 1944. For comparable material, see Monthly Labor Review, May 1944 (p. 107), and July 1944 (p. 153).

[2] Average exchange rate of pound (20 shillings) = $4.035 in 1943 and January 1944.

Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours in Manufacturing and Principal Nonmanufacturing [1] Industries, United Kingdom, January 1944 [2]—Continued

Industry group	All workers [3]	Males		Females	
		21 years of age and over [4]	Under 21 years of age	18 years of age and over [3]	Under 18 years of age
	Average weekly hours [5]				
All groups	49.2	52.0	47.1	45.2	44.6
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	46.6	46.8	45.5	([6])	([6])
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mine and quarry products	50.2	51.4	46.7	44.0	45.5
Brick, pottery, and glass	47.7	50.2	45.8	44.2	44.4
Chemical, paint, oil, etc	49.4	53.4	45.8	44.3	43.9
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	50.7	53.3	47.7	46.3	45.2
Textiles	47.3	50.9	47.1	45.6	45.6
Leather, fur, etc	47.2	49.6	45.6	43.9	44.2
Clothing	44.2	47.0	45.4	43.2	44.0
Food, drink, and tobacco	47.7	51.9	46.0	44.7	44.0
Woodworking	47.1	49.1	45.5	43.6	43.7
Paper, printing, stationery, etc	46.7	48.6	45.7	44.4	44.4
Building, contracting, etc	48.9	49.4	46.3	42.9	([6])
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	48.4	52.4	46.9	45.1	44.2
Transport, storage, etc. (excluding railways)	50.6	51.9	48.5	45.6	([6])
Public utility services	48.1	49.6	46.4	40.2	42.5
Government industrial establishments	51.0	54.6	48.3	45.9	43.4

[1] The inquiry did not include coal mining, railway service, merchant shipping, and agriculture.

[2] Based on the last pay week in January.

[3] Two part-time women workers are included in the calculation as representing one full-time worker. The women referred to are those who were employed for not over 30 hours weekly and who entered the employment of the firms concerned after July 1941.

[4] Men employed as part-time workers (for not over 30 hours weekly) who entered the employment of the firms concerned after July 1941 are excluded. The numbers reported have been insignificant. Earnings of this group averaged 36s. 1d. in the last pay week of January 1944, and the hours worked averaged 18.1.

[5] For method used in calculating averages for both wages and hours, see Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), August 1944.

[6] The numbers reported were insufficient to provide a satisfactory basis for general averages.

Wage and Hour Regulation

Determination of Wage Rates for Mechanical and Laboring Positions in the Federal Service [1]

Summary

ALMOST a million Federal employees have their wage rates set in accordance with rates paid for similar work by private employers in the respective localities. Most of these employees are in mechanical trades and laboring positions, ranging from highly skilled occupations, such as plate-printing at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, ship-fitting and patternmaking at the navy yards, lithographing at the Coast and Geodetic Survey and Weather Bureau (Department of Commerce), Geologic Survey (Department of the Interior), and the Hydrographic Office (Navy Department), to relatively unskilled occupations, such as those common on construction projects and in the custody and maintenance of public buildings. [2] The principle of paying the prevailing wage rate has been recognized by Congress in statutes dating as far back as 1862 when wage rates in the navy yards were required to be so determined.

The level of the prevailing wage rate is usually determined, with varying degrees of employee participation, by administrative procedures, wage-board procedures, or collective bargaining.

Economic-stabilization policies, initiated in the fall of 1942, had the effect of requiring National War Labor Board approval of all new wage rates or changes in rates. Subsequently the Board delegated to several of the Federal agencies authority to make initial wage determinations (subject, however, to Board review). Nevertheless, the agencies have to make fewer wage surveys because of the fact that the National War Labor Board has a schedule of rates for many local areas which it has developed to settle wage-adjustment cases in private firms.

Agencies Using Prevailing-Wage Principle

The principle that the wage rates for mechanical trades and laboring positions shall conform to the rates for similar work prevailing in private industry in the locality can be traced in the statutes back to 1862 when Congress first made it apply to positions in the navy yards. Since then, Congress has applied it to certain positions in the Bureau of the Mint (1874), Bureau of Engraving and Printing (1875), Government Printing Office (1895), Public Buildings Ad-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment by F. Lucile Christman.
[2] Most positions in which the duties are the custody and maintenance of public buildings in the District of Columbia, have their wage rates set by the Classification Act of 1923, as amended.

ministration (1910), Panama Canal (1912), Tennessee Valley Authority (1933), Post Office Department (1940), and the Boulder Dam project of the Interior Department (1940). [3]

Some of the other agencies also have employees in mechanical trades and laboring positions for which compensation rates are not fixed by statute. For example, the War Department has many employees in these categories at its manufacturing arsenals, quartermaster depots, and ordnance plants, and at the Army camps dotted over the country. Likewise, the Department of the Interior has a number in the Grazing Service and on reclamation work, such as the construction, operation, and maintenance of dams; and the Department of Commerce has many employees in its Coast and Geodetic Survey, who operate vessels or are in mechanical trades such as lithographing. Although not specifically required by law to do so, these Departments have also adopted the same principle of paying prevailing wage rates to these employees.

Methods Used to Determine the Prevailing Rates

Except for the act covering the Government Printing Office, the statutes calling for the payment of prevailing wage rates do not specify the method to be used to determine what the prevailing rates are. In general, the agencies have used three methods: Wage-board procedures, administrative procedures, and collective bargaining. For all three methods wage surveys in the local areas must be made. The main difference among them is at the point of determination of the rate, once the survey has been made, and involves the degree of participation by the employees themselves or their representatives in the process of rate determination.

Administrative procedures provide for the smallest degree of employee participation. There is no point at which employees may offer information or protest proposed rates, prior to the promulgation of the rate schedule. However, although formalized procedures may not exist, there usually are some channels through which employees may appeal from the rate schedules.

The situation is quite different under wage-board procedures. Local wage boards are composed of management employees at the establishment to which the rates are to apply; national boards are composed of agency representatives, but may also include a public

[3] For a fuller discussion of the application of the prevailing-wage principle prior to the current period, see Closing Report of Wage and Personnel Survey, Personnel Classification Board, 1931, pp. 309–317. Statutory references are as follows: Navy Department, 12 Stat. 587, July 16, 1862; Bureau of the Mint, 18 Stat. 96, June 20, 1874; Bureau of Engraving and Printing, 18 Stat. 372, March 3, 1875, and annual appropriation acts, the most recent of which is P. L. 293, 78th Cong., April 22, 1944; Government Printing Office, 28 Stat. 608, sec. 49, January 12, 1895, and 43 Stat. 658, June 7, 1924; Public Buildings Administration, 36 Stat. 708–709, June 25, 1910, and annual appropriation acts, the most recent of which is P. L. 358, 78th Cong., June 27, 1944; Panama Canal, 37 Stat. 560, August 24, 1912, and recent appropriation acts, P. L. 352, 78th Cong.; Tennessee Valley Authority, 48 Stat. 59, ch. 32, sec. 3, May 18, 1933; Post Office Department, 54 Stat. 76, March 25, 1940; and the Boulder Dam, 54 Stat. 779, July 19, 1940.

The statutes applying to the Navy Department, Tennessee Valley Authority, and Boulder Dam project clearly call for payment of the rates paid for similar work in the locality. The statute applying to the Bureau of the Mint calls for payment to workmen of "such wages as may be customary and reasonable according to their respective stations and occupations," while the statute covering the Government Printing Office provides for the compensation of employees "at such rates of wages and salaries * * * as [the Public Printer] may deem for the interest of the Government and just to the persons employed." The other statutes provide for payment at rates not *exceeding* those paid for similar work in the locality. In the case of The Panama Canal, for citizens of the United States up to 25 percent additional pay is permitted over rates prevailing in the 48 States and District of Columbia.

The act covering the Post Office Department applies to the mechanical labor force including telephone and switchboard operators employed in connection with the operation of public buildings under the jurisdiction of the Post Office Department and is to be used in emergency situations only; thus far no such situation has arisen.

member or union representative.[4] Furthermore, public hearings are usually held (1) prior to rate determination, in order to afford the employees an opportunity to introduce additional wage data or other factual material to be taken into consideration in the rate-determination process, and (2) after a schedule has been determined, in order to hear appeals from proposed rates.

The collective-bargaining process goes even farther in the matter of employeee participation, consisting as it does of employee and agency representatives determining together mutually satisfactory rates.

Changes Resulting from Economic Stabilization Policies

The initiation of the national economic stabilization policy in the fall of 1942 had the effect of limiting the range of wage-rate fluctuation and entrusting the responsibility of wage-rate adjustments to the National War Labor Board. Federal agencies wishing to add employees in new types of positions or to open an establishment in a new locality could (1) make a survey of wage rates paid for the proposed occupations in private establishments in the locality and submit the proposed rates or rate schedule based on these rates to the National War Labor Board for approval, or (2) request a rate or rate schedule for the locality from the National War Labor Board. For many local areas the National War Labor Board already had a rate or schedule (based in numerous cases on comprehensive surveys by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics) which had been developed to settle wage-adjustment cases for private companies. It was more efficient, therefore, for the Federal agencies first to request a rate or schedule from the Board, and then, if none was available, to make a wage survey for the area and submit the resulting rate or schedule to the Board for approval. The result in any event was to reduce the number of wage surveys which any given agency was required to make.

Soon after the national economic stabilization policy was initiated, the National War Labor Board at various times delegated to certain Federal agencies the authority to determine wage rates for their unclassified[5] positions, subject to national policy and general orders of the National War Labor Board, and to ultimate review by the Board on its own initiative.[6] This delegation of authority did not change existing procedures. In effect, it merely limited the responsibility of the National War Labor Board to that of reviewing wage determinations instead of making them originally in areas where a rate or schedule had not yet been established.

[4] In addition to the purely local and purely national wage boards, there are boards with agency representatives from both the local establishment and the national headquarters.

[5] The term "unclassified" is used throughout the article to indicate mechanical and laboring positions for which wage rates are not established by statute or executive order.

[6] The General Orders of the National War Labor Board delegating such authority to Federal agencies were as follows: Nos. 14 and 37, War Department; No. 18, Navy Department; No. 19, Board of Governors, of the Federal Reserve System; No. 20, U. S. Employment Service; No. 21, Department of the Interior; No. 24, Department of Agriculture; No. 25A, Tennessee Valley Authority; No. 27, National Housing Agency; No. 28, Government Printing Office; No. 32, Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation; No. 33, War Relocation Authority; No. 34, Department of Commerce, and No. 35, Federal Security Agency.

Development of Procedures in Individual Agencies

WAGE-BOARD METHOD

Although the first statute calling for the payment of prevailing wage rates to Federal employees covered only the navy yards, the determination of wage rates in accordance with the locally prevailing rates for comparable work was applied by the Navy Department to all positions for which rates were not set by statute. Local wage boards, composed of naval officers and civilian officials of the local naval establishment, were created and data were collected from private employers by letter or by personal interview. A national wage board, composed of naval officers, civilian officials of the Navy Department, and public members (sometimes including union representatives), sat as a review board to hear appeals from the rate schedules determined by the various local boards.

The Navy Department now determines wage rates for unclassified positions, administratively, using, wherever available, wage schedules of the National War Labor Board and wage data collected by the War Department. If data are not available from these sources, the Navy makes its own surveys. Almost half a million employees in the Navy Department have their wage rates determined in this way. Most of them work in the navy yards, but some manufacture clothing, work in laundries, or at other mechanical or laboring jobs.

On July 28, 1868, borrowing from the experience of the Navy Department, the Chief of Ordnance of the War Department, with the approval of the Secretary of War, applied to his division the principle of the determination of wage rates in accordance with the locally prevailing rates in private establishments, and established wage boards to carry out the principle. From time to time wage-board procedures were applied to other divisions of the War Department—quartermaster, chemical warfare, medical, and one installation of the Coast Guard Artillery. Each of these divisions had its own local boards making surveys of wage rates in local areas. On September 23, 1942, however. wage-rate determination was centralized for the Army Service Forces; in November 1943, except for certain types of operations, it was centralized for the entire War Department,[7] and is used for well over a third of a million positions.

The method now used is a combination of wage-board and administrative procedures. Local wage boards, composed of representatives of each War Department establishment in the area,[8] collect wage information on approximately 50 occupations which are common in the area but which are not necessarily the ones for which rates are to be determined by the War Department. The purpose of the survey is to ascertain the wage *level* for the area. On the basis of this level, pay rates are set for each "grade" of work, jointly for the Army Service, Ground and Air Forces. The job content for work at each grade then is determined independently by the three Forces. However, uniformity of rates for similar jobs is obtained through administrative procedures.

[7] Prior to November 1943, wage rates for unclassified positions in the Army Air Forces were determined administratively. A national pay schedule was drawn up, showing seven different levels of skill, pay ranges for each level, and a list of job titles included under each. An attempt was made to maintain comparability between the ranges so established and those established for similar work by the Classification Act of 1923, as amended.

[8] Representatives of Navy Department establishments in the area are also invited to participate. Because of the different nature of its jobs, the Army Transport Service has its own wage boards.

The two main[9] Bureaus of the Department of the Treasury having unclassified positions—the Bureau of Engraving and Printing and Bureau of the Mint [10]—utilize the wage-board method of determining prevailing wage rates. Formerly a wage board of three persons was composed of two Departmental representatives, the Director of Personnel and one other person, plus a member of the staff of either the Bureau of Engraving and Printing or the Bureau of the Mint, depending upon which Bureau had rates under consideration. Now, membership in the wage board is made up entirely of Departmental representatives. Employees, unions, and Bureau representatives are given an opportunity to present information to the board, and the board solicits other wage data from private employers and other Government agencies in the respective local areas. Because of the similarity of many of the jobs at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing to those at the Government Printing Office, the wage rates at the latter agency (see p. 1069 for method of determination) are in large part used by the former Bureau. As a matter of fact, Congress recognized the advisability of having identical rates for similar work at the two establishments [11] by providing the Bureau of Engraving and Printing with funds to bring its wage rates up to the level at the Government Printing Office.

Wage-board procedures are utilized also by The Panama Canal to determine the wage rates of its 20,000 employees. Wage boards on the Isthmus make surveys of local wage rates for the purpose of determining the wage rates of employees who are natives of the Canal Zone, but for positions filled by persons from the 48 States or District of Columbia, wage boards base the rates upon those prevailing for comparable jobs in the States, plus not more than 25 percent, as provided originally in the Panama Canal Act (37 Stat. 560, approved August 24, 1912), and in the most recent appropriation act (P. L. 352, 78th Cong.).[12]

Until recently, the wage rates of vessel employees of the Commerce Department were established by a wage board, known as the Manning Scale Board, in accordance with rates paid by private steamship companies in the respective localities where vessel operations took place. However, with the transfer of the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation and the Bureau of Lighthouses to the Coast Guard (formerly under the Treasury, now under the Navy Department), and the transfer of the Bureau of Fisheries to the Department of the Interior, the Manning Scale Board was dissolved. The wage rates of the approximately 425 vessel employees remaining in the Commerce Department under the Coast and Geodetic Survey, as well as of the vessel employees transferred to the Coast Guard, are now determined administratively.

Joint wage determination.—An attempt at joint wage determination was made recently by the War, Navy, Commerce, and Interior Departments when in December 1943 the Civil Service Commission rendered a decision exempting lithographic trades from the provisions

[9] The Procurement Division has approximately 100 unclassified positions, but is not discussed here.
[10] The two Bureaus have a total of over 3,500 unclassified positions.
[11] Hearings, Treasury Department, 1927, 69th Congress, 1st session, November 27-December 27, 1925, p. 561 et seq.
[12] The wage board serving The Panama Canal also serves all other Federal agencies having mechanical and laboring positions on the Isthmus, including the Panama Railroad Company, a Government corporation with 5,800 employees.

of the Classification Act of 1923 as amended. A subcommittee of the joint wage board, composed of representatives of the various agencies and bureaus concerned, collected wage data for lithographie occupations in the Washington, D. C., area; the suggested wage schedule was approved and put into effect by the various agencies.

The use of joint wage boards by all agencies operating in a given area is common outside the continental limits of the United States, and since the war, these boards also serve other countries in the United Nations group in some areas.

WAGE-BOARD OR ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION

Wage rates for the more than 3,000 unclassified positions in the Department of the Interior are determined in a number of instances by wage boards (with administrative approval), and in other instances by administrative action. The wage boards (which have been formed for the Boulder Dam, Columbia Basin, Central Valley, Parker Dam Power, Boulder City Experiment Station, and certain other projects) usually have both local and Washington representation and are composed of persons familiar with the jobs to be performed, such as engineers and personnel classification specialists, who are appointed by the Secretary on the advice of the special adviser on labor relations. The wage boards collect wage data in the local areas and submit the suggested schedules to the Washington office for review and approval by the Secretary. Because most of the projects having unclassified positions are construction projects, extensive use is made, at the review stage, of wage rates determined by the Secretary of Labor under the Davis-Bacon Act (46 Stat. 1494, as amended), which requires payment of prevailing wage rates by contractors on Federal construction and repair projects in excess of $2,000. Consideration is also given to these wage rates in making rate determinations by administrative action. No formalized administrative procedures exist for appeal from any given rate or schedule of rates determined either administratively or by the local wage boards, but appeals are heard by the special adviser on labor problems.

ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION

The Public Buildings Administration of the Federal Works Agency is required, under the provisions of each appropriation act since the one approved August 24, 1912 (37 Stat. 432), to pay its operating force for public buildings outside the District of Columbia wage rates not "in excess of the rates current at the time and in the place where such services are employed." The Public Buildings Administration determines these rates administratively and in so doing follows the principle of matching as closely as possible the per annum rates established by statute for comparable work in the District of Columbia. The PBA positions for which rates are determined in this way now number about 900 and include assistant custodians, janitors, watchmen, laborers, and charwomen; engineers, firemen, elevator conductors, coal passers, electricians, dynamo tenders, lampists, and wiremen; carpenters, plumbers, steamfitters, machinists, and painters.

COLLECTIVE-BARGAINING METHOD

The collective-bargaining process is used to determine wage rates of unclassified positions in only two Federal agencies:[13] the Government Printing Office and the Tennessee Valley Authority. For the Government Printing Office, rates in occupations having 10 or more employees (printers, pressmen, bookbinders, electrotypers, photoengravers, stereotypers, carpenters, and electricians) are determined by a conference between the Public Printer and committees representing the employees in the trades affected, subject to approval by the Joint Committee on Printing. If agreement cannot be reached in the conference, the rates are determined by the Joint Committee on Printing. Approximately 2,500 employees have their wage rates determined in this way.

Collective bargaining has been most fully developed in the determination of wage rates for the 14,000 employees of the Tennessee Valley Authority.[14] Representatives of the Authority meet once a year with representatives of the various employee unions, operating through a Tennessee Valley Trades and Labor Council, and agree on wage rates or changes in wage rates in accordance with those prevailing for comparable work in the area, which shall be effective for the following year. In case agreement cannot be reached, the law requires that the question be submitted to the Secretary of Labor for decision.

[13] The Inland Waterways Corporation, whose capital stock was provided by the Federal Government but whose employees are paid from operating revenues and are not regular Federal employees, also utilizes collective bargaining to determine wage rates.

[14] Collective bargaining is also used in the annual conference to settle other problems of mutual concern to labor and management, such as hours, working conditions, and procedures for handling grievances and jurisdictional disputes.

Retail Prices of Food in August 1944

THE average retail prices of foods in 56 large cities combined, on August 15, 1944, compared with earlier dates, are shown in the following table. Effective with this issue, the Bureau is discontinuing the former practice of publishing preliminary data on foods and revising the figures in the following issue. A detailed report will contain final figures for the third month preceding the publication date. As the food indexes for August were published in the October issue of the Monthly Labor Review, they are not repeated here. The December issue will include complete data for September and important preceding periods.

Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,[1] August 1944, Compared with Earlier Months

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Aug. 15	July 18	Aug. 17	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:					
Cereals:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat, 10 pounds	64.6	64.8	61.7	41.4	35.8
Macaroni, pound	15.8	15.7	15.6	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal [2], 28 ounces	23.2	23.0	23.4	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes, 8 ounces	6.5	6.6	6.7	7.1	7.0
Corn meal, pound	6.3	6.3	5.8	4.2	4.0
Rice [2], do	12.9	12.8	12.8	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats, do	9.9	9.8	8.6	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake [2], 20 ounces	12.2	12.1	10.5	(3)	(3)
Bakery products:					
Bread, white, pound	8.8	8.8	8.9	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat, do	9.6	9.7	9.8	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye, do	9.9	9.9	10.1	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies, do	28.1	28.4	28.1	25.1	(4)
Soda crackers, do	19.0	18.9	18.4	15.0	14.8
Meats:					
Beef:					
Round steak, do	41.2	41.6	41.6	38.6	36.4
Rib roast, do	33.1	33.4	33.7	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast, do	28.7	28.8	29.1	25.2	22.5
Stew meat [2], do	31.0	31.3	30.8	(3)	(3)
Liver, do	37.2	37.3	36.1	(4)	(4)
Hamburger, do	27.7	27.9	28.3	(3)	(3)
Veal:					
Cutlets, do	45.2	45.1	45.5	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [2], do	35.0	35.0	34.6	(3)	(3)
Pork:					
Chops, do	37.3	37.3	38.0	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced, do	40.9	41.1	42.2	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced, do	50.4	50.9	52.6	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole, do	35.3	35.5	36.1	26.2	27.4
Salt pork, do	22.1	22.2	23.0	16.7	15.4
Liver [2], do	21.9	22.0	22.2	(3)	(3)
Sausage [2], do	38.1	38.0	38.4	(3)	(3)
Bologna, big [2], do	34.1	34.1	34.4	(3)	(3)

See footnotes at end of table.

Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,[1] *August 1944, Compared with Earlier Months*—Continued

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	Aug. 15	July 18	Aug. 17	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Meats—Continued.	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Lamb:					
Leg—do	40.0	40.1	40.0	27.8	27.6
Rib chops—do	45.3	45.4	46.0	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens—pound	44.6	45.1	44.3	31.1	30.9
Fish:					
Fish (fresh, frozen)—do	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Salmon, pink—16-oz. can	23.6	23.7	23.7	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [2]—do	40.4	41.9	41.4	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:					
Butter—pound	50.0	50.0	50.5	38.0	30.7
Cheese—do	36.1	36.1	37.4	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)—quart	15.6	15.6	15.5	13.0	12.0
Milk, fresh (store)—do	14.5	14.5	14.4	11.9	11.0
Milk, evaporated—14½-oz. can	10.0	10.0	10.1	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh—dozen	56.5	52.7	59.2	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh fruits:					
Apples—pound	11.0	13.6	11.3	5.2	4.4
Bananas—do	11.2	11.2	12.0	6.6	6.1
Oranges—dozen	50.9	50.8	50.3	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [2]—each	10.4	10.1	9.6	(6)	(6)
Fresh vegetables:					
Beans, green—pound	14.1	13.4	13.7	14.0	7.2
Cabbage—do	4.9	4.8	4.9	3.4	3.9
Carrots—bunch	8.7	8.6	8.1	6.0	4.6
Lettuce—head	10.8	10.2	12.6	8.4	8.4
Onions—pound	6.5	7.2	7.9	3.6	3.6
Potatoes—15 pounds	80.1	79.5	64.5	29.2	34.4
Spinach—pound	11.6	10.3	13.4	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes—do	12.3	13.5	14.2	5.0	5.5
Beets [2]—bunch	7.3	7.5	8.2	(3)	(3)
Canned fruits:					
Peaches—No. 2½ can	27.7	27.7	26.8	16.5	17.1
Pineapple—do	27.3	27.3	28.0	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice—No. 2 can	14.4	14.4	14.3	(6)	(6)
Canned vegetables:					
Beans, green—do	13.2	13.1	14.6	10.0	10.0
Corn—do	14.5	14.4	14.0	10.7	10.4
Peas—do	13.1	13.1	14.6	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes—do	12.0	11.9	12.5	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [2]—11-oz. can	13.4	13.4	12.8	(3)	(3)
Dried fruits: Prunes—pound	17.3	17.1	16.7	9.6	8.8
Dried vegetables:					
Navy beans—do	10.8	10.7	10.3	6.5	5.8
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle [2]—ounce	3.6	3.7	3.7	(3)	(3)
Beverages:					
Coffee—pound	30.1	30.0	30.0	20.7	22.3
Tea—¼ pound	23.9	23.9	22.9	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [2]—½ pound	10.3	10.2	8.9	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:					
Lard—pound	18.6	18.6	18.9	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard—					
In cartons—do	20.2	20.2	19.9	11.3	11.7
In other containers—do	24.8	24.7	24.9	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing—pint	25.6	25.6	25.1	20.1	(4)
Oleomargarine—pound	24.0	24.2	24.0	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter—do	28.4	28.4	33.3	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [2]—pint	30.7	30.6	30.5	(4)	(4)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar—pound	6.7	6.8	6.8	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup—24 ounces	15.8	15.8	15.7	13.6	13.7
Molasses [2]—18 ounces	15.8	15.8	15.7	13.4	13.6
Apple butter [2]—16 ounces	13.3	[7] 13.2	13.4	(3)	(3)

[1] Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.
[2] Not included in index.
[3] First priced, February 1943.
[4] Not priced.
[5] Composite price not computed.
[6] First priced, October 1941.
[7] Revised.

Cost of Living of Worker's Family in Bogotá, Colombia, 1939–44[1]

THE monthly cost of living of a worker's family of 5 in Bogotá, Colombia, increased from 44.15 pesos[2] in February 1939 to 56.93 pesos in February 1944, and to 64.48 pesos by July 1944. In the 5½-year period, from February 1939 to July 1944, the increase amounted to 46.1 percent. Taking prices of February 1937 as a base, the index rose from 119.3 in February 1939 to 153.9 in February 1944 and to 175.3 in June. A slight drop in prices, characteristic of July in the years 1938–42, occurred in July 1944; the index at the latter date stood at 174.2.

The monthly cost of living in each February and June from 1939 to 1944 inclusive and in July 1944 is given in the following table, for five main categories—foods, housing, fuel, clothing, and other articles. Prices for the study were taken monthly by employees of the Office of the Comptroller General of the Republic (*Contraloría General de la República*) on 36 items. Twenty-five of these items were foods, 4 were clothing, 3 were fuels, 1 was housing, and the remaining 3 were soap, newspapers, and transportation. The basis for this system was worked out in 1936 by employees of the Comptroller's Office who made a detailed study of the living and buying habits, first of 85 families and later of 750 families, in various labor districts of Bogotá. Eventually 225 records were selected, and from these the quality and quantity of the 36 articles were established. The index was based on prices taken daily in February 1937, on all the items in the districts in which the studies were first made. Half of the laborers canvassed received in 1936 less than 1.00 peso per day. The average family had 5.2 members and lived in a single room.

Total cost of living declined 6.5 percent between February 1939 and February 1941; in the same period, cost of food declined 10.5 percent. Between June 1939 and June 1941, the declines in price were less—2.0 percent for total cost and 5.5 percent for food. In June 1944, total cost was 52.8 percent higher than in June 1941, and food prices were 66.2 percent higher. By July 1944, total cost had risen 46.1 percent above cost in February 1939, and food had risen 54.2 percent. Both housing and fuel costs dropped in 1940, rose in 1941, dropped again in 1942 and rose, with slight variations, thereafter. Clothing, on the other hand, rose in price steadily until June 1944, except for one drop in June 1939. In July 1944, clothing costs were 45.3 percent higher than in February 1939.

[1] Data are from reports of H. Theodore Hoffman, junior economic analyst, United States Embassy at Bogotá, September 7, 1944 (No. 367), April 24, 1944 (No. 146), April 3, 1944 (No. 125), May 19, 1943 (No. 233), and August 12, 1942 (No. 1056), and September 14, 1942 (No. 1095); El Costo de la Vida Obrera en America, Unión Panamericana, Oficina de Información Obrera y Social, Washington, 1943; Anales de Economía y Estadística, Revista de la Contraloría de la República Colombia, [Bogotá?], June 20, 1942.

[2] Average exchange rate of peso in 1939=57.06 cents; in 1941=57.0 cents; in 1942=57.05 cents; and in 1943–44=57.3 cents.

Money Cost, and Indexes of Cost of Living of Worker's Family of Five, in Bogotá, Colombia, February 1939–July 1944

[February 1937=100]

Group	1939		1940		1941		1942		1943		1944		
	February	June	February	June	February	June	February	June	February	June	February	June	July
Total cost:													
Price (in pesos)	44.15	43.33	42.94	43.32	41.30	42.46	42.87	45.34	49.65	52.28	56.93	64.87	64.48
Index	119.3	117.1	116.1	117.1	111.6	114.8	115.9	122.5	134.2	141.3	153.9	175.3	174.2
Food, drink, and tobacco:													
Price (in pesos)	29.42	28.91	28.31	28.62	26.32	27.32	27.78	29.59	32.38	34.22	38.63	45.41	45.37
Index	121.0	118.9	116.5	117.7	108.3	112.4	114.3	121.7	133.2	140.8	158.9	186.8	186.6
Housing:													
Price (in pesos)	7.87	7.76	7.73	7.80	8.02	8.01	8.00	8.07	8.32	8.81	9.05	9.25	9.31
Index	131.2	127.7	128.7	129.9	133.7	133.4	133.4	134.6	138.7	146.8	150.9	154.2	155.1
Fuel:													
Price (in pesos)	2.03	2.13	1.97	1.93	2.07	2.13	2.03	2.29	3.15	3.77	3.25	4.05	3.65
Index	94.4	99.1	91.6	89.8	96.3	99.1	94.4	106.5	146.5	147.4	151.2	188.3	169.8
Clothing:													
Price (in pesos)	2.03	1.88	2.05	2.09	2.09	2.12	2.18	2.43	2.60	2.80	2.80	2.96	2.95
Index	101.6	94.1	102.3	104.4	104.3	106.1	109.0	121.6	129.8	139.8	140.2	148.1	147.3
Other articles:													
Price (in pesos)	2.80	2.75	2.88	2.88	2.80	2.88	2.88	2.96	3.20	3.28	3.20	3.20	3.20
Index	110.2	108.3	113.4	113.4	110.2	113.4	113.4	116.5	126.0	129.1	126.0	125.9	126.0

Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in September 1944

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics index of commodity prices at the primary market [1] level rose 0.1 percent in September 1944 to 104.0 percent of the 1926 average. Substantial increases in prices for livestock and eggs, and for cotton goods under the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944, accounted for most of the advance. During the 12 months ended in September 1944 the index rose nearly 1 percent to a point 38.7 percent over the relatively low pre-war level of August 1939.

The fluctuations in the group indexes were slight during September. Two increases were recorded, 0.8 percent for textile products and 0.1 percent for farm products. Foods led the declines with a drop of 0.6 percent, chemicals and allied products decreased 0.4 percent, and fuel and lighting materials fell 0.2 percent. The indexes for the hides and leather products, metals and metal products, building materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities groups remained unchanged at the August level.

Average prices for raw materials rose 0.1 percent during the month, reflecting the increase in livestock, and poultry and egg markets. Semimanufactured commodities rose 0.6 percent largely as a result of higher prices for cotton yarns. Prices for manufactured products averaged the same as in August.

Led by an increase of 1.8 percent in quotations for livestock and poultry, average prices for farm products at the primary market level rose 0.1 percent during the month. Prices for steers increased about 2 percent; for cows, over 5 percent; and for calves, more than 6 percent. In addition, live poultry prices in New York rose nearly 9 percent. A seasonal increase of more than 8 percent was reported for eggs. Wheat, hay, tobacco, flaxseed, fresh milk in the Chicago market, dried beans, and oranges also increased. Average prices for grains declined 0.7 percent in September with lower prices for oats, rye and corn more than offsetting the higher quotations for wheat and barley. Quotations for most fresh fruits and vegetables, such as apples, lemons, onions, and potatoes were lower than in August, and a decrease of over 2 percent occurred in South American wool prices.

A decline of 5.6 percent in average prices for fruits and vegetables in wholesale markets caused average prices for foods to drop 0.6 percent during September. Rye flour and oatmeal declined more than 9 percent. Granulated sugar in the New York market dropped 1.8 percent as a result of the adjustment by OPA in the ceiling order

[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.

which lowered the price 10 points in 10 Northeastern States and raised the price 5 points in the remainder of the country. A few important foods, in addition to eggs, advanced during the month. Quotations for flour were up nearly 1 percent and higher prices were also reported for canned peaches and pears, raisins, cured pork, and raw sugar.

In the hides and leather products group a further decline occurred in prices for goatskins, while an increase of over 3 percent reversed the previous downward movement in prices of sheepskins.

Prices for cotton textiles at the primary market level continued to rise, reflecting the influence of the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944. An increase of 2.4 percent for cotton goods resulted in an 0.8 percent increase in the index for the textile products group—the highest level since the summer of 1926. Prices for cotton knitting yarns ranged from 6 to 10 percent higher, and for weaving yarns about 8 to 14 percent higher than in August. Cotton twine, men's and boys' underwear, drillings, and sheetings also advanced.

Lower prices for gasoline at mid-continent and Pennsylvania refineries, together with decreased realizations for gas, brought the index for fuel and lighting materials down 0.2 percent. Slight increases were reported for bituminous coal prices in some areas, and for realized prices on electricity.

There were a few changes in metals and metal product markets during September, although the index remained unchanged from the level of the preceding month. Scrap steel declined as mills were reluctant to accumulate inventories and buying became very selective. Mercury prices continued to rise as demand increased and production dropped off. Minor price increases were reported for gray iron castings and for a few agricultural machines.

In the building materials group, lower prices for most types of West Coast lumber offset fractionally higher prices for yellow pine lumber, common building brick, cement, prepared roofing, rosin, and turpentine, and the group index remained steady at the August level.

The decrease of 0.4 percent in average prices for chemicals and allied products resulted from lower quotations for ground bone and for nitrocellulose, glycerine and formaldehyde, reflecting increased efficiency of production. Prices were higher for stearic acid and for mixed fertilizer in some sections of the South.

No changes were reported in prices for furniture or furnishings and the group index remained unchanged at 104.4 percent of the 1926 average.

Prices for most agricultural products, except grains and dairy products, were lower than a year ago, while prices for many industrial commodities, except hides and leather products, were slightly higher than for September 1943. The increases in industrial commodity prices were largely the result of Government action in raising ceiling prices to stimulate production or to allow for increased costs of manufacture and higher taxes. During the year ended in September average prices for foods declined 0.8 percent and for farm products 0.3 percent. Hides and leather products decreased 1.5 percent. Since September 1943, metals and metal products increased 0.1 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.6 percent; textile products, 1.7 percent; housefurnishing goods, 1.8 percent; fuel and lighting mate-

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rials, 2.5 percent; building materials, 3.1 percent; and chemicals and allied products, 4.6 percent.

When grouped into the broad classifications of raw materials, semi-manufactured articles, and manufactured products, the nearly 900 price series included in the Bureau's index showed increases of 0.4 percent, 1.9 percent, and 1 percent, respectively, over the 12-month period ended in September.

Prices for nearly all commodities were higher than at the outbreak of the war in September 1939. Among the outstanding increases were 101 percent for farm products, the result of advances of more than 136 percent for grains, and more than 90 percent for livestock and other farm products, including cotton, tobacco, eggs, fresh fruits, and vegetables. Average prices for foods were 55 percent higher than before the war, led by increases of almost 100 percent for fruits and vegetables, 63 percent for dairy products, 44 percent for meats, and 31 percent for cereal products. Except in a few instances, the increases in industrial commodity markets have been less severe. Largely because of greatly increased excise taxes on alochol, prices for drugs and pharmaceuticals rose about 182 percent. Industrial fats and oils in September were 151 percent higher than in the late summer of 1939. Cattle feed prices advanced 133 percent, cotton goods 81 percent, and lumber about 71 percent.

Percentage comparisons of the September 1944 level of wholesale prices with August 1944, September 1943, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, September 1944, Compared with August 1944, September 1943 and August 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Percent of change	Sept. 1943	Percent of change	Aug. 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	104.0	103.9	+0.1	103.1	+0.9	75.0	+38.7
Farm products	122.7	122.6	+.1	123.1	−.3	61.0	+101.1
Grains	121.7	122.5	−.7	119.7	+1.7	51.5	+136.3
Livestock and poultry	127.6	125.4	+1.8	130.2	−2.0	66.0	+93.3
Other farm products	119.2	120.0	−.7	118.8	+.3	60.1	+98.3
Foods	104.2	104.8	−.6	105.0	−.8	67.2	+55.1
Dairy products	110.7	110.5	+.2	108.9	+1.7	67.9	+63.0
Cereal products	94.4	94.3	+.1	94.4	0	71.9	+31.3
Fruits and vegetables	115.9	122.8	−5.6	116.7	−.7	58.5	+98.1
Meats	106.0	105.9	+.1	106.0	0	73.7	+43.8
Other foods	95.5	94.1	+1.5	99.0	−3.5	60.3	+58.4
Hides and leather products	116.0	116.0	0	117.8	−1.5	92.7	+25.1
Shoes	126.3	126.3	0	126.4	−.1	100.8	+25.3
Hides and skins	106.1	105.7	+.4	116.0	−8.5	77.2	+37.4
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	99.2	98.4	+.8	97.5	+1.7	67.8	+46.3
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.0	0	81.5	+31.3
Cotton goods	118.7	115.9	+2.4	112.9	+5.1	65.5	+81.2
Hoisery and underwear	70.8	70.6	+.3	70.5	+.4	61.5	+15.1
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	100.9	100.5	+.4	98.7	+2.2	63.7	+58.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, September 1944, Compared with August 1944, September 1943 and August 1939*—Con.

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	Sept. 1944	Aug. 1944	Percent of change	Sept. 1943	Percent of change	Aug. 1939	Percent of change
Fuel and lighting materials	83.0	83.2	−0.2	81.0	+2.5	72.6	+14.3
Anthracite	95.4	95.4	0	89.9	+6.1	72.1	+32.3
Bituminous coal	120.6	120.5	+.1	116.4	+3.6	96.0	+25.6
Coke	130.7	130.7	0	122.4	+6.8	104.2	+25.4
Electricity	(1)	(1)	-------	58.1	-------	75.8	-------
Gas	(1)	76.0	-------	77.1	-------	86.7	-------
Petroleum and products	63.8	63.9	−.2	63.2	+.9	51.7	+23.4
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.8	0	103.7	+.1	93.2	+11.4
Agricultural implements	97.5	97.5	0	96.9	+.6	93.5	+4.3
Farm machinery	98.6	98.6	0	98.1	+.5	94.7	+4.1
Iron and steel	97.2	97.1	+.1	97.1	+.1	95.1	+2.2
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.8	0	86.0	−.2	74.6	+15.0
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	90.2	+2.4	79.3	+16.5
Building materials	116.0	116.0	0	112.5	+3.1	89.6	+29.5
Brick and tile	101.5	100.7	+.8	99.0	+2.5	90.5	+12.2
Cement	96.9	96.4	+.5	93.6	+3.5	91.3	+6.1
Lumber	154.0	154.4	−.3	146.1	+5.4	90.1	+70.9
Paint and paint materials	105.5	105.5	0	102.6	+2.8	82.1	+28.5
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	90.2	+2.4	79.3	+16.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	103.3	103.2	+.1	102.0	+1.3	89.5	+15.4
Chemicals and allied products	104.9	105.3	−.4	100.3	+4.6	74.2	+41.4
Chemicals	96.0	96.2	−.2	96.5	−.5	83.8	+14.6
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	217.2	220.1	−1.3	165.2	+31.5	77.1	+181.7
Fertilizer materials	81.2	81.2	0	80.6	+.7	65.5	+24.0
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.6	0	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	104.4	0	102.6	+1.8	85.6	+22.0
Furnishings	107.4	107.4	0	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	93.0	+.6	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	159.6	0	68.4	+133.3
Paper and pulp	107.2	107.2	0	105.6	+1.5	80.0	+34.0
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	97.0	96.9	+.1	96.3	+.7	81.3	+19.3
Raw materials	112.8	112.7	+.1	112.4	+.4	66.5	+69.6
Semimanufactured articles	94.7	94.1	+.6	92.9	+1.9	74.5	+27.1
Manufactured products	100.9	100.9	0	99.9	+1.0	79.1	+27.6
All commodities other than farm products	99.7	99.7	0	98.6	+1.1	77.9	+28.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.6	98.6	0	97.2	+1.4	80.1	+23.1

[1] Data not yet available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to September 1944

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1943, and by months from September 1943 to September 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											
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
September	122.7	104.2	116.0	99.2	83.0	103.8	116.0	104.9	104.4	93.6	104.0

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 8 and 9 of Bulletin No. 736—Wholesale Prices, July to December 1942.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9
1943					
September	112.4	92.9	99.9	98.6	97.2
October	111.9	92.9	100.0	98.7	97.3
November	111.3	92.9	100.2	98.8	97.4
December	112.1	93.1	100.2	99.0	97.6
1944					
January	112.2	93.2	100.2	99.1	97.8
February	112.8	93.4	100.4	99.3	98.0
March	113.4	93.7	100.5	99.3	98.1
April	113.2	93.6	100.8	99.6	98.4
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
September	112.8	94.7	100.9	99.7	98.6

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during August and September 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, August and September 1944*
[1926=100]

Commodity group	Sept. 30	Sept. 23	Sept. 16	Sept. 9	Sept. 2	Aug. 26	Aug. 19	Aug. 12	Aug. 5
All commodities	103.8	103.7	103.6	103.6	103.6	103.5	103.6	104.0	103.6
Farm products	122.8	122.8	122.1	122.2	122.0	121.8	122.3	124.8	122.5
Foods	103.9	104.3	103.8	103.9	104.1	104.0	104.5	106.1	104.6
Hides and leather products	116.5	116.5	116.6	116.5	116.5	116.6	116.4	116.8	116.8
Textile products	98.5	98.3	98.3	98.2	98.1	97.6	97.5	97.5	97.5
Fuel and lighting materials	83.7	83.7	83.7	83.8	83.7	83.7	83.8	83.8	83.8
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.9	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8
Building materials	115.9	115.9	116.1	116.0	116.0	116.0	116.0	116.0	116.0
Chemicals and allied products	104.9	104.9	104.9	104.9	104.9	105.3	105.3	105.2	105.2
Housefurnishing goods	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.1	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0
Miscellaneous	93.4	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3
Raw materials	113.2	113.3	112.8	112.8	112.7	112.5	112.8	114.3	112.9
Semimanufactured articles	94.3	94.1	94.1	94.1	94.1	93.9	93.8	93.8	93.8
Manufactured products	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.1	101.1	101.0
All commodities other than farm products	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, August 1944

FOR every 1,000 workers on factory pay rolls in August, 62 quit, 7 were discharged, 5 were laid off, and 4 left to enter the armed forces. This separation rate of 78 per 1,000 was not fully compensated for by hires, since the accession rate was 62 per 1,000, just enough to replace the quits.

The quit rate, while considerably above the July rate of 50 per 1,000 employees, was nevertheless at approximately the same level as in August 1943. As then, the high rate of quits was due in no small part to the return to school of teachers and students. These people accepted employment for the summer to help the war effort with the understanding it would end as schools reopened.

Although the over-all lay-off rate for all manufacturing industries combined amounts to 5 per 1,000, the same as in the preceding 3 months, about a third of the manufacturing groups reported increases. The largest was reported by the transportation-equipment group and reflected further cutbacks in the aircraft and shipbuilding industries. The rate for this group was 11 per 1,000 compared with 6 per 1,000 in July.

Unlike the trend evidenced by each of the major manufacturing groups, the separation rates in the metal- and anthracite-mining industries declined. The rate for bituminous-coal mining, however, increased from 41 to 44 per 1,000. The rate in metal mining and in anthracite mining declined, while that in bituminous-coal mining increased from 1 to 4 per 1,000.

The total separation rate for women in all manufacturing was 95 per 1,000 as against 67 for men. The quit rate for women was 80 per 1,000 while that for men was 50. The accession rates for both women and men closely paralleled the quit rates.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Total separation:												
1944	6.7	6.6	7.4	6.8	7.1	7.1	6.6	[2] 7.8				
1943	7.1	7.1	7.7	7.5	6.7	7.1	7.6	8.3	8.1	7.0	6.4	6.6
1939	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
Quit:												
1944	4.6	4.6	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.4	5.0	[2] 6.2				
1943	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.4	4.8	5.2	5.6	6.3	6.3	5.2	4.5	4.4
1939	.9	.6	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.1	.9	.8	.7
Discharge:												
1944	.7	.6	.7	.6	.6	.7	.7	[2] .7				
1943	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1939	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: [3]												
1944	.8	.8	.9	.6	.5	.5	.5	[2] .5				
1943	.7	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.7	1.0
1939	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.7
Military and miscellaneous: [4]												
1944	.6	.6	.8	.7	.7	.5	.4	[2] .4				
1943	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1944	6.5	5.5	5.8	5.5	6.4	7.6	6.3	[2] 6.2				
1943	8.3	7.9	8.3	7.4	7.2	8.4	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.2	6.6	5.2
1939	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8

[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] Preliminary.

[3] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

[4] Miscellaneous separations comprise not more than 0.1 in these figures. In 1939 these data were included with quits.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,* [1] *August 1944*

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944 [2]	July 1944
Manufacturing												
Ordnance	9.0	6.8	7.0	5.0	1.1	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	7.8	7.7
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment [3]	6.9	5.4	5.2	3.9	.8	.7	.6	.4	.3	.4	-----	-----
Ammunition, except for small arms [3]	10.7	7.8	8.5	5.9	1.3	1.0	.5	.5	.4	.4	-----	-----
Tanks [3]	8.5	7.2	6.5	5.6	1.1	.9	.6	.3	.3	.4	-----	-----
Sighting and fire-control equipment [3]	4.5	3.1	3.2	1.8	.7	.4	.3	.5	.3	.4	-----	-----
Iron and steel and their products	6.0	5.0	4.7	3.6	.5	.5	.4	.5	.4	.4	5.0	5.0
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	4.1	3.4	3.5	2.7	.2	.2	.1	.1	.3	.4	3.5	3.6
Gray-iron castings	8.9	7.0	7.1	5.6	1.0	.8	.4	.2	.4	.4	8.8	8.1
Malleable-iron castings	7.0	5.4	6.0	4.7	.4	.4	.3	(4)	.3	.3	6.0	5.7
Steel castings	8.0	6.5	6.5	5.2	.9	.7	.2	.1	.4	.5	6.5	6.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	7.3	5.8	5.5	4.4	.4	.5	.5	.1	.9	.8	5.5	6.5
Tin cans and other tinware	16.3	11.3	13.9	9.1	1.7	1.5	.2	.1	.5	.6	15.8	14.7
Wire products	3.2	2.9	2.4	2.1	.3	.3	.2	.1	.3	.4	4.2	4.5
Cutlery and edge tools	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	6.6	5.8	5.4	4.6	.8	.7	.1	.2	.3	.3	5.9	5.9
Hardware	5.6	3.5	4.5	2.9	.3	.2	.4	.2	.4	.2	3.1	4.1
Plumber's supplies	7.5	5.1	5.6	3.9	1.2	.5	.3	.3	.4	.4	7.9	5.9
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	9.7	9.1	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	9.2	9.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *August 1944*—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944
Manufacturing—Continued												
Iron and steel and their products—Continued.												
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	7.7	6.3	5.9	4.7	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.4	5.9	5.8
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	9.3	7.1	8.0	5.8	.7	.6	.2	.3	.4	.4	9.6	9.1
Fabricated structural-metal products	9.8	9.7	7.2	5.6	1.1	1.7	1.0	1.9	.5	.5	6.8	7.8
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	5.5	4.8	4.4	3.6	.7	.7	.1	.1	.3	.4	3.8	4.6
Forgings, iron and steel	6.0	4.4	4.2	3.4	.4	.3	1.0	.3	.4	.4	3.1	3.4
Firearms (60 caliber and under)[3]	7.9	10.9	4.3	3.6	.8	.8	2.4	5.7	.4	.8	----	----
Electrical machinery	6.0	5.3	4.7	4.1	.6	.6	.3	.2	.4	.4	4.3	4.9
Electrical equipment for industrial use	4.7	4.1	3.5	3.1	.5	.4	.4	.2	.3	.4	3.2	3.8
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	7.7	6.5	6.5	5.2	.8	.8	.2	.2	.2	.3	5.7	6.5
Communication equipment, except radios	4.8	4.1	3.7	3.1	.4	.4	.3	.2	.4	.4	3.7	4.3
Machinery, except electrical	5.8	4.6	4.4	3.3	.6	.6	.4	.3	.4	.4	4.0	4.2
Engines and turbines[3]	7.0	5.0	4.7	3.0	.8	.7	1.0	.8	.5	.5	----	----
Agricultural machinery and tractors	7.0	5.4	5.8	4.2	.5	.5	.3	.2	.4	.5	5.7	6.1
Machine tools	4.0	3.4	2.9	2.3	.6	.5	.2	.2	.3	.4	2.9	2.9
Machine-tool accessories	5.2	4.4	3.7	2.7	.7	.6	.4	.6	.4	.5	3.6	3.6
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	4.4	3.6	3.3	2.5	.5	.5	.3	.1	.3	.5	3.4	3.4
Textile machinery	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
General industrial machinery, except pumps	6.3	5.0	4.9	3.7	.7	.6	.3	.3	.4	.4	3.8	4.2
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.8	4.0	4.0	3.0	.4	.5	(4)	.1	.4	.4	3.6	4.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	8.8	7.5	6.0	5.1	1.3	1.3	1.1	.6	.4	.5	6.1	6.2
Aircraft	8.5	6.5	6.1	4.8	.7	.7	1.2	.4	.5	.6	4.9	5.3
Aircraft parts	6.3	5.7	4.4	3.9	.8	.8	.8	.7	.3	.3	4.4	5.3
Shipbuilding and repairs	10.7	9.3	6.9	5.9	2.1	2.0	1.2	.8	.5	.6	8.1	7.3
Automobiles	6.6	5.5	4.8	3.8	1.1	.7	.4	.6	.3	.4	6.7	6.5
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	5.6	5.1	3.7	3.1	1.0	.5	.5	1.1	.4	.4	6.9	6.4
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	7.2	5.8	5.5	4.3	1.1	.8	.3	.3	.3	.4	6.6	6.6
Nonferrous metals and their products	8.2	7.3	6.1	5.1	.8	.7	.9	1.0	.4	.5	5.5	5.9
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	5.1	4.3	4.0	3.1	.4	.4	.4	.2	.3	.6	3.1	3.4
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	15.6	12.1	11.5	9.2	.6	.7	2.6	1.5	.9	.7	6.7	13.0
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	5.2	4.4	4.5	3.5	.4	.3	.1	.1	.2	.5	5.7	4.3
Aluminum and magnesium products	8.6	8.8	5.9	5.4	1.0	.9	1.2	1.9	.5	.6	5.0	5.1
Lighting equipment	7.7	5.8	6.1	4.6	.7	.6	.5	.3	.4	.3	8.4	6.8
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	8.2	5.8	6.4	4.7	.8	.6	.7	.2	.3	.3	6.4	5.8
Lumber and timber basic products	10.4	8.5	9.0	7.1	.5	.4	.5	.5	.4	.5	8.9	9.5
Sawmills	10.3	8.4	8.9	7.1	.4	.3	.6	.5	.4	.5	8.9	9.9
Planing and plywood mills	9.2	7.5	7.4	5.7	.8	.7	.6	.5	.4	.6	7.4	7.1
Furniture and finished lumber products	10.3	8.6	8.7	7.4	.7	.6	.6	.3	.3	.3	8.4	8.9
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	10.2	8.7	8.6	7.6	.7	.5	.6	.3	.3	.3	8.6	8.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	6.8	5.1	5.4	4.1	.4	.3	.6	.3	.4	.4	5.2	5.5
Glass and glass products	7.6	5.1	5.6	3.6	.5	.5	1.0	.5	.5	.5	5.2	5.8
Cement	3.4	3.4	2.8	2.9	.2	.1	.2	.1	.2	.3	3.9	5.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	8.5	6.4	7.0	5.4	.6	.4	.5	.2	.4	.4	6.5	6.3
Pottery and related products	7.2	6.6	6.1	5.8	.3	.2	.5	.2	.3	.4	5.7	6.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *August 1944*—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944	Aug. 1944[2]	July 1944
Manufacturing—Continued												
Textile-mill products	6.9	6.3	6.0	5.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	5.6	5.9
Cotton	7.6	6.9	6.7	6.0	.5	.5	.2	.2	.2	.2	6.4	7.0
Silk and rayon goods	7.4	6.2	6.2	5.2	.6	.5	.3	.2	.3	.3	6.8	6.3
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	4.9	4.2	3.9	3.4	.3	.2	.4	.3	.3	.3	3.2	3.1
Hosiery, full-fashioned	5.7	4.5	5.1	4.0	.3	.2	.2	2.	.1	.1	3.8	4.9
Hosiery, seamless	6.8	6.1	6.0	5.6	.3	.3	.3	.1	.2	.1	5.8	5.5
Knitted underwear	7.5	7.6	6.0	6.4	.2	.3	1.2	.8	.1	.1	4.5	5.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	5.7	4.3	4.2	3.0	.7	.6	.4	.3	.4	.4	3.8	3.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	7.1	6.4	6.5	5.5	.2	.2	.3	.6	.1	.1	5.5	5.7
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	5.1	4.5	4.7	4.1	.1	.2	.3	.2	(4)	(4)	4.3	4.3
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	7.4	6.4	6.8	6.0	.3	.3	.2	.1	.1	(4)	5.6	5.5
Leather and leather products	7.6	5.9	6.7	5.0	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	6.3	5.9
Leather	6.4	4.6	5.3	3.7	.4	.4	.5	.2	.2	.3	4.7	4.8
Boots and shoes	7.9	6.0	7.1	5.3	.3	.2	.2	.3	.3	.2	6.7	6.0
Food and kindred products	12.5	10.0	10.8	8.5	.7	.6	.6	.5	.4	.4	10.6	10.2
Meat products	13.5	9.4	11.6	7.8	.7	.7	.7	.4	.5	.5	10.5	9.6
Grain-mill products	12.3	11.7	10.2	9.3	.8	1.2	.9	.6	.4	.6	9.2	14.1
Tobacco manufactures	8.1	7.8	7.5	7.2	.4	.3	.1	.2	.1	.1	8.6	7.3
Paper and allied products	7.6	6.3	6.5	5.2	.5	.5	.2	.2	.4	.4	6.3	7.0
Paper and pulp	7.2	5.6	6.1	4.4	.5	.4	.2	.3	.4	.5	6.2	6.3
Paper boxes	10.0	8.8	9.0	7.5	.6	.7	.2	.2	.2	.4	8.7	8.9
Chemicals and allied products	5.7	5.3	4.4	3.5	.6	.6	.3	.7	.4	.5	6.3	5.7
Paints, varnishes, and colors	5.3	4.4	4.3	3.4	.6	.6	.1	.1	.3	.3	4.7	5.0
Rayon and allied products	4.8	4.2	4.0	3.3	.3	.3	.2	.1	.3	.5	4.6	4.6
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	5.3	4.8	4.1	3.2	.7	.6	.1	.5	.4	.5	4.8	4.5
Explosives[3]	6.4	5.2	4.8	3.7	.9	.8	.2	.1	.5	.6	-----	-----
Small-arms ammunition[3]	6.6	7.3	4.9	4.3	.8	.6	.7	2.1	.2	.3	-----	-----
Products of petroleum and coal	3.5	3.1	2.8	2.3	.3	.3	.1	.2	.3	.3	3.4	3.6
Petroleum refining	3.3	2.9	2.7	2.3	.2	.2	.1	.1	.3	.3	3.2	3.5
Rubber products	7.9	6.2	6.6	5.2	.5	.5	.4	.1	.4	.4	6.6	6.4
Rubber tires and inner tubes	7.2	5.7	5.9	4.7	.5	.5	.5	.1	.3	.4	7.1	5.8
Rubber footwear and related products	9.3	6.7	8.2	6.0	.5	.2	.2	.3	.4	.2	6.7	6.1
Miscellaneous rubber industries	8.5	6.8	7.2	5.6	.6	.6	.2	.2	.5	.4	6.2	7.0
Miscellaneous industries	5.2	4.1	4.1	2.9	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.4	3.9	4.6
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining	6.2	6.4	4.8	4.6	.4	.4	.3	.4	.7	1.0	3.8	4.0
Iron-ore	3.4	3.3	2.6	2.3	.2	.2	.1	.1	.5	.7	2.0	2.0
Copper-ore	7.7	8.8	5.7	6.4	.5	.4	.5	.5	1.0	1.5	4.4	4.6
Lead- and zinc-ore	7.1	6.9	5.7	5.0	.4	.3	.3	.9	.7	.7	4.9	4.7
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum-ore	9.2	8.7	7.2	6.4	.8	1.0	.8	.3	.4	1.0	5.9	6.5
Coal mining:												
Anthracite	1.4	2.0	1.1	1.6	(4)	(4)	.1	.2	.2	.2	1.4	1.5
Bituminous	4.4	4.1	3.5	3.5	.2	.2	.4	.1	.3	.3	3.4	3.2
Public utilities:												
Telephone	3.8	3.6	3.3	3.1	.2	.2	.1	.1	.2	.2	3.0	4.9
Telegraph	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.2	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	3.6	4.5

[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 products.

[2] Data are preliminary.

[3] Publication of accession rates is restricted in these specific war industries. Data for tanks and explosives are not strictly comparable with those previously published.

[4] Less than 0.05.

[5] Data not available.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees)* [1] *for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, August 1944* [2]

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All manufacturing	6.7	9.5	5.0	8.0	5.2	8.0
Ordnance	7.1	11.7	5.2	9.6	6.1	10.0
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	5.7	10.6	4.1	8.4	4.3	7.7
Ammunition, except for small arms	9.0	12.7	6.6	10.6	8.2	11.4
Tanks [3]	6.0	11.0	4.4	7.6	5.3	6.8
Sighting and fire-control equipment	3.4	6.8	2.3	5.0	1.3	4.2
Iron and steel and their products	5.5	10.2	4.2	8.3	4.3	9.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.9	7.9	3.2	7.1	3.2	8.0
Gray-iron castings	8.6	11.0	6.9	7.4	8.5	10.6
Malleable-iron castings	6.5	11.0	5.5	9.7	5.7	8.6
Steel castings	7.8	10.9	6.4	8.2	6.3	8.3
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	6.9	9.2	5.4	6.0	5.4	6.7
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	6.3	13.2	3.4	7.3	3.6	10.6
Electrical machinery	4.4	7.7	3.2	6.4	3.0	5.6
Electrical equipment for industrial use	3.5	6.8	2.4	5.3	2.2	4.9
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	5.9	9.3	4.8	7.8	4.2	6.8
Communication equipment, except radios	3.5	5.7	2.3	4.8	2.5	4.6
Machinery, except electrical	5.1	8.6	3.7	7.1	3.5	6.2
Engines and turbines	6.2	9.2	4.2	6.4	4.0	7.1
Machine tools	3.4	7.2	2.3	5.9	2.4	5.9
Machine-tool accessories	4.7	6.9	3.2	5.2	3.1	5.3
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.9	7.3	2.6	6.6	3.1	4.8
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.4	9.3	4.0	7.9	3.3	5.4
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.1	7.8	3.1	7.3	2.7	7.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	8.3	10.5	5.3	8.0	5.5	7.8
Aircraft	7.5	10.1	4.8	8.0	3.8	6.5
Aircraft parts	5.0	9.0	3.3	6.7	3.3	5.9
Shipbuilding repairs	10.3	13.4	6.5	9.7	7.4	12.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	7.7	10.3	5.7	7.8	4.7	8.5
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.8	8.9	3.8	6.9	2.7	8.4
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	15.7	15.2	11.6	10.4	6.5	7.9
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	4.4	7.5	3.6	6.8	4.1	10.5
Aluminum and magnesium products	8.0	11.1	5.6	7.4	4.4	7.0
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	7.0	10.8	5.5	8.3	5.4	8.7
Chemicals and allied products	4.7	7.3	3.4	6.2	4.8	9.4
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.8	7.2	3.6	6.0	4.4	6.5
Explosives [3]	5.3	9.2	3.8	7.5	7.6	14.5
Small-arms ammunition	5.8	7.4	3.6	5.9	6.6	14.1

[1] These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates only and should not be used to estimate employment.
[2] Data are preliminary.
[3] Data are not strictly comparable with those previously published.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, September 1944

Comparison of First 9 Months of 1943 and 1944

BUILDING construction other than that Federally financed was 15 percent higher during the first 9 months of 1944 than during the comparable period of the preceding year. A decline of 47 percent in the value of Federally financed construction, however, brought about a decline in the total value of all types of building construction. Building started in the urban areas of the United States during the first 9 months of 1944 was valued at 825 million dollars. This was 14 percent less than the 961 million dollars for the same period of 1943. New residential and new nonresidential building values were respectively 37 and 9 percent lower the first 9 months of 1944 as compared with the same period of 1943, but addition, alteration, and repair values were 34 percent higher. All three classes of Federal construction showed substantial declines, but the only class of non-Federal construction that declined in value was the new residential. The new nonresidential building and addition, alteration, and repair values for non-Federal work were 82 and 40 percent greater by September 1944 than by the same time last year.

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which building permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded, and their valuation over the first 9 months of 1943 and 1944 are presented in tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 1.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 9 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total construction			Federal construction		
	First 9 months of—		Percent of change	First 9 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All construction	825,429	961,101	−14.1	244,079	455,955	−46.5
New residential	275,697	439,714	−37.3	39,094	160,234	−75.6
New nonresidential	320,371	350,669	−8.6	195,885	282,203	−30.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	229,361	170,718	+34.4	9,100	13,518	−32.7

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 9 Months of 1943 and 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 9 months of—		Percent of change	First 9 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All dwellings	88,489	159,917	−44.7	272,032	427,872	−36.4
Privately financed	74,510	90,000	−17.2	234,926	278,723	−15.7
1-family	57,177	58,585	−2.4	180,108	192,269	−6.3
2-family [1]	7,525	12,130	−38.0	26,002	33,674	−22.8
Multifamily [2]	9,808	19,285	−49.1	28,816	52,780	−45.4
Federal	13,979	69,917	−80.0	37,106	149,149	−75.1

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

Comparison of September 1944 With August 1944 and September 1943

The dollar valuation of building construction started in September 1944 was 7 percent lower than in August 1944. An increase in Federal construction values of 5 percent was more than offset by a decrease of 10 percent in non-Federal construction. New residential building valuations were more than one-fifth less while those for new nonresidential construction decreased 8 percent. Addition, alteration, and repair values rose 9 percent. These data are presented in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, September 1943, August and September 1944*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	September 1944	Percent of change from—		September 1944 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		August 1944	September 1943		August 1944	September 1943
All building construction	50,837	−8.8	−16.1	$79,772	−6.6	−23.0
New residential	5,539	−20.8	−49.5	21,209	−20.7	−48.9
New nonresidential	6,528	+5.8	−22.4	29,515	−7.7	−16.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs	38,770	−8.9	−5.9	29,048	+8.9	+9.4

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which building permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded during September 1944, and their valuation, are presented in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, September 1943, August and September 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	September 1944	Percent of change from—		September 1944 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		August 1944	September 1943		August 1944	September 1943
All dwellings	6,393	8,238	14,016	$20,429	26,431	40,842
Privately financed	6,243	7,273	10,906	19,780	22,854	34,209
1-family	4,963	5,443	6,685	15,500	17,073	22,350
2-family [1]	575	655	1,535	2,031	2,427	4,309
Multifamily [2]	705	1,175	2,686	2,249	3,354	7,550
Federally financed	150	965	3,110	649	3,577	6,633

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

Construction from Public Funds, September 1944

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during August and September 1944 and August 1943 on all construction projects, excluding 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 [1] Financed from Federal Funds, September 1944*

Source of funds	Value (in thousands) of contracts awarded and force-account work started in—		
	September 1944 [2]	August 1944 [3]	September 1943 [3]
All Federal funds	$84,057	$95,214	$155,821
War public works	5,263	7,054	4,260
Regular Federal appropriations [1]	76,869	83,911	135,552
Federal Public Housing Authority	1,925	4,249	16,009

[1] Excludes shipbuilding values amounting (in thousands) to $35,412 in September 1944, $352,768 in August 1944, and $400,794 in September 1943.
[2] Preliminary; subject to revision.
[3] Revised.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Reports for September 1944

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was 38,559,000 in September, or 181,000 less than in August.

In the year beginning September 1943 the armed forces increased by about two millions, without a corresponding increase in the total labor force. Thus unemployment, as well as employment was lower in September 1944 than it was in the previous year. The decrease in the total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was about 1,119,000. Despite this decline and some decrease in agricultural employment, never (since records have been compiled) have fewer people been looking for work than in September 1944.

Fortunately, increases in productivity have made it possible generally to maintain munitions production at needed levels with a smaller work force. Had this not been the case, additional labor-market controls would have been necessary to overcome losses entailed by withdrawals for the armed forces.

Part of the decrease in nonagricultural employment from August to September was due to the fact that young people returned to school and could not be replaced. In part it reflects continued reductions in employment in munitions industries. The largest decline during the month was in manufacturing which had almost 200,000 fewer employees than in August and about a million and a quarter less than in September 1934.

Industrial and Business Employment

There were 12,777,000 wage earners in manufacturing in September 1944 as compared with 12,940,000 in August. The durable-goods group reported a decline of 145,000, while the decline in the non-durable group amounted to only 18,000.

Each of the major durable-goods groups of manufacturing industries contributed to the general decline. One-third of the decline was brought about by further cutbacks in aircraft and shipbuilding. The number of wage earners in the transportation-equipment group as a whole was about 50,000 less than in August, and 350,000 less than in September 1943. Employment in this group declined steadily after November 1943 when a peak of 2,337,000 wage earners was reached.

Declines of more than 10,000 wage earners were also reported by the machinery, iron and steel, and lumber groups. The declines in the first two groups—machinery and iron and steel—reflect further cutbacks, while the decline in the lumber group was seasonal.

Of the 11 nondurable-goods groups, 7 reported declines in employment ranging from 1,000 to 6,000 wage earners. Comments from firms indicate that shortages of labor and materials were primarily responsible for these declines. Return of workers to farms and of students to schools were additional reasons for drops in employment.

Employment in bituminous-coal mining was 350,000 in September—2,000 less than in August and 24,000 less than in September 1943. Scattered strikes continued in this industry in September. The number of metal miners declined 2,000 between August and September. Each of the metal-mining industries shared in the decline.

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)	
	September 1944 [2]	August 1944	July 1944	September 1943	September 1944 [2]	August 1944
All manufacturing	12,777	12,940	12,924	13,935	156.0	158.0
Durable goods	7,543	7,688	7,726	8,319	208.9	212.9
Nondurable goods	5,234	5,252	5,198	5,616	114.3	114.6
Iron and steel and their products	1,644	1,662	1,657	1,721	165.9	167.6
Electrical machinery	707	716	720	725	273.0	276.2
Machinery, except electrical	1,129	1,151	1,161	1,248	213.7	217.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1,943	1,992	2,027	2,299	1,224.1	1,255.3
Automobiles	675	682	678	734	167.8	169.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	370	378	379	417	161.2	164.8
Lumber and timber basic products	418	434	431	467	99.5	103.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	333	342	340	356	101.6	104.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	324	331	333	352	110.5	112.9
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,078	1,084	1,089	1,185	94.2	94.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	763	765	747	822	96.7	96.9
Leather and leather products	303	307	307	315	87.3	88.3
Food	1,096	1,092	1,052	1,102	128.3	127.8
Tobacco manufactures	82	82	83	88	88.2	88.3
Paper and allied products	296	302	304	311	111.4	113.9
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	328	332	333	330	100.0	101.1
Chemicals and allied products	593	590	584	738	205.7	204.7
Products of petroleum and coal	134	135	134	126	126.2	127.3
Rubber products	193	191	190	195	159.2	158.1
Miscellaneous industries	368	372	375	404	150.6	152.0

[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

Regular Federal.—Employment of the Federal Government, which had shown a gradual increase from March to August 1944, dropped sharply in September 1944 with a decline of 35,000. The drop was entirely in war agencies—28,000 in the War Department, 8,000 in the Navy, and 2,000 in the other war agencies. All other agencies combined showed a net rise of 3,000, reflecting increases mainly in the Post Office Department and Veterans Administration which were partially offset by small decreases in a number of the agencies. Employment outside continental United States remained practically level at a total of 382,000 for the executive branch and 5,500 for Government corporations.

Total Federal employees, including 36,000 for Government corporations who are paid out of operating revenue and not out of Federal funds, numbered 3,335,000 in September 1944, or 100,000 more than in September 1943.

Shipbuilding and repair.—Employment on shipbuilding and repair projects financed by Federal funds declined 27,400 in September 1944 and 215,000 over the year period. The Pacific region was the only region showing a rise in September 1944 (500) and the Inland region was the only one showing a rise over the year (11,100). Employment on shipbuilding and repair projects financed from Federal funds totaled 1,502,000 in September 1944 and 1,717,000 in September 1943. The employment drop during the year amounted to 15 percent for private shipyards and 2 percent for the navy yards.

Sources of data.—Data for the Federal executive service are reported to the Civil Service Commission, whereas data for the legislative and judicial services and Government corportations are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (table 2). Employment and pay rolls on shipbuilding and repair projects (table 3) are received directly from all shipyards within continental United States. Employees in the United States navy yards are included both in the data for the Federal executive service and in those for shipbuilding and repair.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services, and in Government Corporations, September 1944*

[Subject to revision]

Service	Employment			Pay rolls		
	September 1944	August 1944	September 1943	September 1944	August 1944	September 1943
Total	3,334,972	3,370,141	3,235,256	(1)	(1)	(1)
Executive [2]	3,290,496	3,325,694	3,189,451	$704,439,000	$712,767,000	$683,656,000
War agencies [3]	2,443,022	2,481,136	2,371,695	535,297,000	543,944,000	520,016,000
Continental United States	2,076,973	2,112,426	2,048,034	(1)	(1)	(1)
Outside continental United States [4]	366,049	368,710	323,661	(1)	(1)	(1)
Other agencies	847,474	844,558	817,756	169,142,000	168,823,000	163,640,000
Continental United States	831,525	828,723	800,841	(1)	(1)	(1)
Outside continental United States [4]	15,949	15,835	16,915	(1)	(1)	(1)
Judicial	2,644	2,655	2,651	667,123	784,351	777,245
Legislative	6,252	6,212	6,221	1,540,060	1,528,319	1,520,270
Government corporations [5]	35,580	35,580	36,933	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Data not available.

[2] Includes employees in United States navy yards who are also included under shipbuilding (table 3), and employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 4). Payrolls are estimated.

[3] 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, the Petroleum Administration for War, War Refugee Board, and Committee for Congested Production Areas.

[4] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

[5] Employees of Government corporations are paid out of operating revenues and not out of Treasury funds.

TABLE 3.—*Total Employment and Pay Rolls in United States Navy Yards and Private Shipyards Within Continental United States, by Shipbuilding Region, September 1944*

[In thousands]

Shipbuilding region	Employment			Pay rolls		
	September 1944 [1]	August 1944	September 1943	September 1944 [1]	August 1944	September 1943
All regions	1,502.1	1,529.5	1,717.1	$438,881	$446,996	$458,942
United States navy yards [2]	322.0	324.0	329.2	90,815	91,430	87,137
Private shipyards	1,180.1	1,205.5	1,387.9	348,066	355,566	371,805
North Atlantic	540.3	552.5	634.3	158,753	162,351	(3)
South Atlantic	132.0	135.0	152.1	36,221	37,013	(3)
Gulf	198.3	207.7	232.0	61,062	63,949	(3)
Pacific	513.7	513.2	582.7	150,710	150,657	(3)
Great Lakes	57.1	58.9	66.4	16,606	17,124	(3)
Inland	60.7	62.2	49.6	15,529	15,902	(3)

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Includes all navy yards within continental United States constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Md.) Coast Guard yard. Data are also included in table 2 under executive service.
[3] Break-down not available.

Construction Employment

Employment on new construction in continental United States declined in September 1944 to a total of 757,000. Employment a year ago had been 1,177,000. Employment at the construction site for projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds declined 14,000 in September 1944 and 370,000 in the past year. Streets and highways showed slight seasonal increases but all other types of projects showed declines owing to completions. Of the non-Federal projects, nonresidential building construction showed the greatest movement, an increase of 9,000.

Source of data.—For construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls at the construction site, directly from the contractors or from the Federal agency sponsoring the project. Force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government (28,574 in September 1944, 29,557 in August 1944, and 47,265 in September 1943) are also included in table 2 under Federal executive service.

Estimates of employment on non-Federal construction projects (except State roads) are secured by converting the value of work started (compiled from reports on building permits issued, priorities granted, and from certain special reports) into monthly expenditures and employment by means of factors which have been developed from special studies and adjusted to current conditions. For State road projects, data represent estimates of the Public Roads Administration.

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TABLE 4.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction Within Continental United States, September 1944* [a]

[In thousands]

Type of project	Employment			Pay rolls		
	September 1944	August 1944	September 1943	September 1944	August 1944	September 1943
New construction, total [1]	769.3	789.7	1,176.9	(2)	(2)	(2)
At the construction site	626.1	639.6	1,001.1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Federal projects [3]	218.2	232.4	576.0	$44,045	$47,076	$111,735
Airports	15.0	18.8	65.4	2,994	3,737	10,831
Buildings	133.7	142.7	398.3	27,579	29,590	80,327
Residential	17.3	20.6	64.8	3,997	4,627	14,058
Nonresidential [4]	116.4	122.1	333.5	23,582	24,963	66,269
Electrification	.6	.7	.6	98	98	91
Reclamation	12.6	13.9	19.9	2,675	2,953	3,928
River, harbor, and flood control	19.3	21.0	29.2	3,681	3,987	5,716
Streets and highways	17.8	17.0	33.2	3,563	3,414	5,805
Water and sewer systems	5.9	6.0	8.0	941	958	1,759
Miscellaneous	13.3	12.3	21.4	2,514	2,339	3,278
Non-Federal projects	407.9	407.2	425.1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Buildings	204.4	202.3	216.2	46,808	46,529	46,699
Residential	99.8	107.1	147.2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Nonresidential	104.6	95.2	69.0	(2)	(2)	(2)
Farm	54.4	56.5	56.4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Public utilities	92.9	95.4	94.1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Streets and highways	39.6	38.1	49.5	(2)	(2)	(2)
State	21.0	19.5	26.3	(2)	(2)	(2)
County and municipal	18.6	18.6	23.2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous	16.6	14.9	8.9	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other [5]	142.2	149.1	175.8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Maintenance of State roads [6]	97.0	95.8	92.4	(2)	(2)	(2)

[a] Data for September 1944 are preliminary.

[1] Data are for all construction workers (contract and force-account) engaged on new construction, additions and alterations, and on repair work of the type usually covered by building permits. (Force-account employees are workers hired directly by the owner and utilized as a separate work force to perform construction work of the type usually chargeable to capital account.) The construction figure included in the Bureau's nonagricultural employment series covers only employees of construction contractors and on Federal force-account, and excludes force-account workers of State and local governments, public utilities, and private firms.

[2] Data not available.

[3] Includes the following force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government: September 1943, 47,265; August 1944, 29,557; September 1944, 28,574. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service; all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.

[4] Includes the following employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation (RFC) projects:

	Employment	*Pay rolls*
1944: September	25,200	$5,994,600
August	31,700	7,536,000
1943: September	138,100	30,522,000

[5] Includes central office force of construction contractors, shop employees of special trades contractors, such as bench sheet-metal workers, etc., and site employees engaged on projects which, for security reasons, cannot be shown above.

[6] Data for other types of maintenance not available.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, August 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)			
	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943
Total estimated employment [1]	38,740	38,730	38,846	39,860
Manufacturing	16,039	16,012	16,093	17,182
Mining	834	833	844	882
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	691	686	691	1,169
Transportation and public utilities	3,817	3,809	3,803	3,694
Trade	6,908	6,942	6,977	6,875
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,582	4,618	4,542	4,172
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,869	5,830	5,896	5,886

[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 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and 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 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 dyeing, 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 June, July, and August 1944, and for August 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)			
	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943
All manufacturing	12,940	12,924	12,985	13,990
Durable goods	7,688	7,726	7,819	8,321
Nondurable goods	5,252	5,198	5,166	5,669
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,662	1,657	1,660	1,718
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	482.0	481.0	481.8	514.9
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	73.1	72.6	73.1	79.9
Malleable-iron castings	24.7	24.3	24.6	26.0
Steel castings	73.5	73.5	74.6	83.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.3
Tin cans and other tinware	42.0	41.2	39.8	37.0
Wire drawn from purchased rods	32.5	32.9	33.5	35.6
Wirework	35.1	35.2	35.0	32.6
Cutlery and edge tools	22.7	22.8	23.0	21.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	27.2	27.1	27.7	27.4
Hardware	46.2	45.8	45.6	45.8
Plumbers' supplies	23.0	22.7	22.9	23.2
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	64.0	63.7	63.0	56.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	55.5	55.5	56.3	59.5
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	89.6	89.0	88.8	92.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	73.7	75.3	76.2	71.9
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	13.5	13.2	13.1	13.3
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets [3]	26.2	26.3	27.0	29.7
Forgings, iron and steel	34.9	35.0	36.5	39.8
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	25.8	26.2	26.4	26.7
Screw-machine products and wood screws	44.2	45.0	45.9	49.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	7.4	6.9	6.5	8.4
Electrical machinery	716	720	729	717
Electrical equipment	449.6	449.8	456.0	464.9
Radios and phonographs [4]	124.3	126.8	129.0	116.0
Communication equipment [4]	110.3	112.3	112.9	112.0
Machinery, except electrical	1,151	1,161	1,177	1,251
Machinery and machine-shop products	460.3	462.2	468.0	496.9
Tractors	58.7	60.0	60.0	54.1
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	44.5	45.4	45.9	39.4
Machine tools	76.0	77.0	78.5	106.0
Machine-tool accessories	66.5	67.8	68.7	86.8
Textile machinery	26.6	26.8	27.2	28.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	76.8	79.0	80.9	77.9
Typewriters	11.4	11.3	11.1	11.6
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	32.2	32.2	33.4	34.8
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	13.2	13.6	13.7	14.2
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	9.5	9.4	9.3	10.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	52.2	52.2	52.9	55.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1,992	2,027	2,079	2,304
Locomotives	35.8	35.6	36.1	33.7
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	58.1	58.7	58.4	62.8
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.3	9.4	9.5	9.9
Automobiles	682	678	689	714
Nonferrous metals and their products	378	379	385	415
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	47.2	48.3	49.1	58.3
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	69.5	68.1	70.3	74.9
Clocks and watches	26.0	25.6	25.4	25.4
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	13.8	13.7	14.1	15.7
Silverware and plated ware	10.7	10.6	10.6	11.8
Lighting equipment	27.2	26.5	26.2	24.6
Aluminum manufactures	69.6	72.7	74.6	82.1
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	32.8	32.3	32.4	29.1
Lumber and timber basic products	434	431	427	482
Sawmills and logging camps	240.1	237.5	235.4	264.2
Planing and plywood mills	71.0	71.3	71.0	81.3

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)			
	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943
Durable goods—Continued				
Furniture and finished lumber products	342	340	339	362
Mattresses and bedsprings	17.4	16.9	16.7	18.8
Furniture	157.2	156.5	157.7	169.6
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	28.2	28.2	28.2	29.9
Caskets and other mortician's goods	12.6	12.5	12.7	11.7
Wood preserving	10.4	10.2	10.0	10.5
Wood, turned and shaped	22.0	21.9	21.0	22.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	331	333	334	358
Glass and glassware	90.0	91.3	92.7	89.4
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.1	10.3	10.3	11.1
Cement	17.5	17.4	17.1	23.8
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	43.0	42.8	42.7	50.1
Pottery and related products	41.1	41.4	41.6	42.6
Gypsum	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.5
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.9	9.7	9.4	11.0
Lime	8.3	8.2	8.2	9.2
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13.5	13.1	12.7	12.9
Abrasives	21.1	21.3	21.7	24.6
Asbestos products	20.5	20.6	20.5	22.0
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,084	1,089	1,105	1,204
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	431.4	434.2	435.8	478.2
Cotton smallwares	13.0	13.1	13.4	16.2
Silk and rayon goods	88.7	88.5	89.5	94.7
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	144.8	145.9	151.3	161.6
Hosiery	104.4	104.7	106.2	115.2
Knitted cloth	10.3	10.4	10.6	11.6
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	28.5	28.8	29.6	32.9
Knitted underwear	35.2	35.2	36.1	40.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	59.5	60.1	60.8	66.1
Carpets and rugs, wool	20.2	19.9	20.3	21.9
Hats, fur-felt	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.9
Jute goods, except felts	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.7
Cordage and twine	15.1	15.3	15.4	16.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	765	747	773	834
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	210.5	208.2	213.8	224.5
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	52.3	53.2	53.8	57.9
Underwear and neckwear, men's	12.1	11.9	12.2	13.0
Work shirts	15.0	15.1	15.3	18.1
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	214.6	205.0	216.6	234.0
Corsets and allied garments	14.4	14.4	15.2	16.1
Millinery	19.0	17.4	16.9	19.8
Handkerchiefs	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	13.3	13.3	13.3	16.0
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	10.6	10.4	10.2	14.1
Textile bags	14.0	14.0	14.3	14.4
Leather and leather products	307	307	308	325
Leather	40.0	40.0	40.3	43.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	16.1	16.2	16.3	16.8
Boots and shoes	173.8	174.0	174.9	183.2
Leather gloves and mittens	12.6	12.6	12.8	13.8
Trunks and suitcases	12.3	12.1	11.7	13.0
Food	1,092	1,052	975	1,097
Slaughtering and meat packing	156.3	158.7	157.7	162.7
Butter	24.0	24.8	25.2	23.7
Condensed and evaporated milk	15.1	15.8	16.1	14.2
Ice cream	17.3	18.0	17.5	17.3
Flour	28.1	29.0	28.0	28.6
Feeds, prepared	20.3	19.9	19.8	21.6
Cereal preparations	9.1	9.3	9.3	10.0
Baking	258.5	258.4	257.4	251.4
Sugar refining, cane	15.3	15.1	14.6	14.5
Sugar, beet	4.6	4.0	4.2	5.3
Confectionery	56.6	54.2	56.4	52.9
Beverages, nonalcoholic	31.6	32.2	30.5	30.6
Malt liquors	53.5	53.3	50.8	48.8
Canning and preserving	219.7	177.2	110.5	235.2

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)			
	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Tobacco manufactures	82	83	84	88
Cigarettes	34.9	35.0	34.3	34.4
Cigars	34.4	34.7	36.2	40.3
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	7.9	7.8	7.7	8.2
Paper and allied products	302	304	303	315
Paper and pulp	146.8	146.3	145.9	150.4
Paper goods, other	44.8	45.9	46.1	47.9
Envelopes	9.4	9.5	9.6	10.4
Paper bags	13.6	13.5	13.4	12.7
Paper boxes	78.5	79.3	79.0	84.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	332	333	331	337
Newspapers and periodicals	110.2	109.7	110.4	112.0
Printing, book and job	133.3	135.0	132.1	134.0
Lithographing	24.8	25.1	25.0	25.4
Bookbinding	27.9	28.2	28.2	30.2
Chemicals and allied products	590	584	585	741
Paints, varnishes, and colors	30.0	30.0	29.9	30.0
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	49.5	50.0	50.6	46.5
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.2	11.9	11.5	11.5
Soap	13.5	13.5	13.5	13.0
Rayon and allied products	53.1	52.7	52.3	52.7
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	118.3	118.9	119.5	117.8
Compressed and liquefied gases	6.1	6.1	6.2	6.4
Cottonseed oil	12.3	11.3	11.8	13.2
Fertilizers	19.1	18.6	19.5	18.8
Products of petroleum and coal	135	134	132	127
Petroleum refining	91.2	90.5	88.7	82.6
Coke and byproducts	23.2	23.1	23.0	24.4
Paving materials[3]	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.6
Roofing materials	9.6	9.7	9.6	9.8
Rubber products	191	190	191	194
Rubber tires and inner tubes	91.2	89.6	89.2	89.4
Rubber boots and shoes	19.5	19.6	20.0	22.2
Rubber goods, other	71.2	71.9	72.3	72.7
Miscellaneous industries	372	375	379	407
Photographic apparatus	28.8	29.6	29.2	30.7
Pianos, organs, and parts	6.3	6.1	6.8	10.4
Games, toys, and dolls	17.0	16.4	15.9	16.1
Buttons	9.1	9.2	9.6	10.5
Fire extinguishers	5.6	5.6	5.8	7.6

[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] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.—January through May 1944 wage earners to 29.4, 28.8, 28.5, 27.9, and 27.3.

Paving materials.—April and May 1944 wage earners to 1.5 and 1.6.

[4] Comparable data for earlier months available upon request.

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			
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943
All manufacturing	158.0	157.8	158.5	170.8	313.9	310.7	318.1	322.2
Durable goods	212.9	214.0	216.5	230.4	432.4	428.5	442.8	448.2
Nondurable goods	114.6	113.5	112.8	123.8	198.0	195.6	196.1	199.0
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	167.6	167.1	167.4	173.3	309.2	306.2	311.0	308.1
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	124.1	123.8	124.0	132.6	222.7	224.9	224.5	229.9
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	125.2	124.2	125.2	136.7	244.2	243.6	248.9	253.0
Malleable-iron castings	136.7	134.8	136.6	144.0	279.7	273.5	280.5	267.0
Steel castings	244.4	244.4	248.0	278.2	455.9	434.4	452.5	484.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	93.7	93.6	92.4	92.3	178.4	177.0	175.3	162.5
Tin cans and other tinware	132.1	129.7	125.3	116.5	221.5	212.1	206.6	186.9
Wire drawn from purchased rods	148.1	149.9	152.4	161.8	243.5	240.3	251.4	249.0
Wirework	115.4	116.0	115.3	107.2	228.2	233.2	227.7	200.9
Cutlery and edge tools	147.5	148.0	149.5	140.2	304.6	304.2	310.8	277.4
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	177.4	177.2	180.7	178.7	331.4	327.8	338.9	328.8
Hardware	129.7	128.4	128.1	128.4	261.8	257.6	263.3	250.9
Plumber's supplies	93.4	92.3	92.9	94.0	169.9	164.2	170.6	160.3
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	138.7	138.1	136.6	121.4	256.2	252.3	258.8	211.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	183.2	183.1	185.8	196.5	344.9	338.4	346.1	350.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	161.3	160.2	159.9	165.7	324.4	319.8	322.7	306.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	207.4	212.1	214.4	202.4	406.5	415.5	420.7	372.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	173.9	171.0	169.0	171.7	319.6	315.4	313.3	302.4
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets [3]	182.8	184.0	188.4	207.9	354.3	340.5	366.7	385.9
Forgings, iron and steel	226.8	227.7	237.5	259.1	433.5	434.2	466.0	483.2
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	308.3	313.3	314.9	319.5	604.1	600.6	614.7	586.1
Screw-machine products and wood screws	261.4	265.7	271.2	292.0	514.1	507.7	529.8	550.9
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	121.2	113.8	106.3	139.0	241.6	214.7	209.5	270.3
Electrical machinery	276.2	277.8	281.4	276.7	493.1	494.2	507.5	475.3
Electrical equipment	248.7	248.8	252.3	257.2	451.9	450.6	464.6	451.9
Radios and phonographs [4]	285.6	291.5	296.4	266.6	534.0	542.4	559.5	469.7
Communication equipment [4]	343.6	349.5	351.4	348.7	550.4	556.9	559.2	511.4
Machinery, except electrical	217.8	219.8	222.8	236.8	406.2	403.5	422.3	423.9
Machinery and machine-shop products	227.5	228.4	231.3	245.6	416.5	408.6	429.1	429.9
Tractors	187.5	191.7	191.9	172.9	291.6	293.4	304.0	263.0
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	160.1	163.2	165.2	141.7	319.1	334.0	335.6	267.4
Machine tools	207.4	210.2	214.4	289.5	369.2	370.6	383.8	470.2
Machine-tool accessories	264.2	269.5	273.0	344.9	449.8	457.9	474.6	565.3
Textile machinery	121.3	122.3	124.1	128.4	220.6	225.7	230.2	226.7
Pumps and pumping equipment	316.7	326.0	333.8	321.3	667.0	676.1	711.7	657.1
Typewriters	70.5	69.4	68.7	71.4	140.1	140.2	141.0	137.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	163.4	163.6	169.5	177.0	319.6	315.2	334.3	338.9
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	177.4	182.1	184.2	190.0	310.7	326.9	331.4	320.7
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	120.8	120.2	119.0	133.3	249.4	246.9	259.8	278.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	148.3	148.5	150.5	159.1	267.8	248.8	269.7	273.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1255.3	1277.0	1309.6	1451.7	2606.1	2602.4	2691.0	2805.5
Locomotives	552.8	550.7	558.6	520.6	1279.0	1183.3	1265.9	1079.6
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	236.9	239.4	238.0	256.0	462.0	465.5	476.4	496.8
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	133.8	134.5	136.0	142.1	242.7	249.4	249.7	254.4
Automobiles	169.5	168.4	171.2	177.5	306.8	302.8	319.0	324.2
Nonferrous metals and their products	164.8	165.2	168.1	180.9	306.0	304.7	315.9	325.4
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	170.8	174.7	177.5	211.0	315.1	324.8	334.2	380.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	179.0	175.5	181.1	193.0	336.6	320.1	340.3	350.7
Clocks and watches	127.9	126.1	125.1	125.0	267.5	257.0	260.9	236.4
Jewelry (precious metals) and jeweler's findings	95.2	94.9	97.4	108.8	149.0	149.4	160.0	156.9
Silverware and plated ware	88.3	87.6	87.3	97.7	157.1	158.2	159.8	169.0
Lighting equipment	132.6	129.4	127.9	119.9	237.5	218.9	231.3	209.7
Aluminum manufactures	295.6	308.9	316.7	348.5	521.9	550.5	566.5	608.9
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	175.2	172.1	172.6	155.4	321.7	322.5	319.6	268.0
Lumber and timber basic products	103.2	102.4	101.6	114.6	197.8	185.1	193.5	206.0
Sawmills and logging camps	83.4	82.5	81.7	91.7	164.8	151.5	159.3	169.0
Planing and plywood mills	97.7	98.2	97.7	111.9	167.4	165.5	170.1	182.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued [1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry [2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943
Durable goods—Continued								
Furniture and finished lumber products	104.1	103.5	103.4	110.4	191.4	183.8	187.5	185.5
Mattresses and bedsprings	94.8	92.0	90.9	102.5	161.3	155.2	156.7	163.0
Furniture	98.8	98.3	99.0	106.5	181.0	173.9	177.9	179.2
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	111.3	111.2	111.2	117.9	219.7	214.4	220.4	210.8
Caskets and other mortician's goods	100.9	100.8	102.4	94.3	179.5	163.6	173.7	145.5
Wood preserving	92.8	90.3	88.9	93.1	201.0	193.0	191.0	178.4
Wood, turned and shaped	99.8	99.7	95.4	100.8	180.6	176.2	172.7	167.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	112.9	113.4	113.7	121.8	189.0	184.1	189.8	192.3
Glass and glassware	129.0	130.7	132.8	128.1	204.3	197.1	209.7	193.9
Glass products made from purchased glass	101.3	103.4	103.2	111.3	169.8	165.5	168.1	166.9
Cement	73.4	73.2	71.7	100.0	117.8	112.8	110.6	148.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	75.7	75.5	75.2	88.2	124.1	121.5	122.8	136.7
Pottery and related products	124.1	125.0	125.5	128.6	193.0	187.0	196.3	190.2
Gypsum	80.0	82.7	82.9	92.2	140.7	140.9	145.4	160.6
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	121.9	119.1	116.1	136.0	218.8	217.6	211.5	226.9
Lime	87.2	86.4	86.2	97.7	171.1	167.3	170.4	181.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	72.9	70.7	68.7	69.6	112.6	105.8	104.5	97.9
Abrasives	273.0	275.3	280.5	317.4	453.4	452.6	459.3	498.4
Asbestos products	128.7	129.4	129.3	138.4	253.1	253.2	257.1	257.0
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	94.8	95.2	96.6	105.2	168.2	168.5	172.5	173.2
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	108.9	109.6	110.0	120.8	203.7	206.6	204.7	203.6
Cotton smallwares	97.3	98.1	100.3	121.4	173.9	174.7	180.7	207.8
Silk and rayon goods	74.1	73.9	74.7	79.1	133.7	130.7	135.8	133.6
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	97.0	97.8	101.4	108.3	181.1	184.3	194.8	198.3
Hosiery	65.7	65.8	66.8	72.4	105.9	101.9	105.7	106.5
Knitted cloth	94.1	95.2	97.0	106.7	160.0	160.9	165.6	172.4
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	101.5	102.4	105.2	116.9	181.9	180.9	189.1	192.4
Knitted underwear	91.3	91.4	93.7	106.2	163.3	159.4	168.9	176.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	88.9	89.9	90.9	98.9	146.2	147.0	150.7	151.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	78.9	77.9	79.3	85.5	134.5	132.1	135.5	135.0
Hats, fur-felt	62.9	63.4	64.7	68.0	112.6	109.3	120.7	114.2
Jute goods, except felts	92.5	89.3	92.3	104.1	173.7	167.7	177.5	187.7
Cordage and twine	124.9	126.1	127.0	138.7	229.3	231.2	232.6	232.7
Apparel and other finished textile products	96.9	94.6	97.9	105.7	167.1	156.6	166.2	164.1
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	96.3	95.2	97.8	102.7	160.6	154.6	166.5	153.8
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	74.2	75.5	76.4	82.2	127.8	133.4	135.0	131.3
Underwear and neckwear, men's	74.6	73.7	75.7	80.7	143.3	142.3	148.4	142.6
Work shirts	111.8	112.1	113.9	134.7	208.5	183.2	204.4	225.2
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	79.0	75.5	79.7	86.1	139.6	125.6	134.8	137.5
Corsets and allied garments	76.7	76.5	80.9	85.7	128.7	126.4	141.0	131.9
Millinery	78.1	71.6	69.7	81.5	129.3	103.2	90.7	122.3
Handkerchiefs	58.8	59.4	61.8	73.8	103.8	104.1	109.6	122.9
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	78.5	78.4	78.7	94.8	142.3	149.4	157.0	150.1
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	100.1	98.3	96.1	132.5	183.5	178.3	174.9	219.6
Textile bags	117.2	116.7	119.3	120.1	192.3	190.1	192.1	180.4
Leather and leather products	88.3	88.5	88.8	93.6	153.4	153.1	155.9	147.8
Leather	84.6	84.6	85.3	91.8	146.2	146.5	148.2	137.9
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	85.5	85.7	86.4	89.4	139.0	139.7	144.3	133.6
Boots and shoes	79.7	79.8	80.2	84.0	140.2	139.8	142.8	135.4
Leather gloves and mittens	125.7	126.2	128.6	138.5	221.8	214.5	215.2	223.8
Trunks and suitcases [3]	147.7	145.7	140.2	156.3	230.6	228.2	226.1	232.5
Food	127.8	123.1	114.1	128.4	200.1	196.5	185.6	187.8
Slaughtering and meat packing	129.7	131.7	130.9	135.0	210.7	219.6	217.5	202.6
Butter	133.5	137.9	140.2	132.2	205.2	215.7	216.8	191.7
Condensed and evaporated milk	155.7	162.7	165.6	146.5	255.3	271.0	280.1	222.2
Ice cream	110.1	114.4	111.4	110.0	157.9	163.5	153.6	149.3
Flour	113.6	116.9	113.0	115.4	190.2	195.3	187.5	183.7
Feeds, prepared	132.0	129.5	128.4	140.3	221.5	224.3	221.0	222.5
Cereal preparations	122.0	125.2	125.0	133.4	208.3	216.2	219.4	230.3
Baking	112.0	112.0	111.6	109.0	167.5	168.0	166.8	152.5
Sugar refining, cane	108.4	107.0	103.3	102.3	172.4	167.9	166.3	154.7
Sugar, beet	44.6	38.7	40.1	51.1	64.2	55.7	62.2	73.7
Confectionery	113.8	108.9	113.5	106.3	188.3	178.2	185.8	154.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry [2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food—Continued.								
Beverages, nonalcoholic	148.8	151.6	143.5	143.8	206.4	213.0	193.8	182.0
Malt liquors	148.2	147.8	140.8	135.3	223.9	225.5	210.0	192.8
Canning and preserving	163.4	131.8	82.2	174.9	306.2	242.8	156.7	316.3
Tobacco manufactures	88.3	88.6	89.5	94.8	157.6	157.1	157.5	151.1
Cigarettes	127.2	127.7	125.2	125.3	195.9	196.9	189.2	186.6
Cigars	67.6	68.2	71.2	79.1	133.4	132.3	141.0	128.5
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	86.0	84.6	83.8	89.6	135.6	132.7	124.6	131.8
Paper and allied products	113.9	114.4	114.2	118.8	186.0	184.9	186.6	181.9
Paper and pulp	106.8	106.4	106.2	109.4	180.6	178.6	179.8	175.2
Paper goods, other	119.0	122.0	122.5	127.3	187.3	194.1	194.1	187.3
Envelopes	107.7	109.6	110.6	120.1	165.4	167.2	171.0	170.8
Paper bags	123.1	122.1	121.0	114.5	200.6	193.9	200.0	176.7
Paper boxes	113.5	114.6	114.2	122.0	178.8	175.8	178.7	180.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	101.1	101.6	100.8	102.9	137.9	138.0	137.4	128.8
Newspapers and periodicals	92.9	92.5	93.1	94.4	118.4	117.1	117.1	112.7
Printing, book and job	105.5	106.9	104.6	106.1	149.4	151.9	149.5	134.8
Lithographing	95.2	96.5	96.1	97.8	132.3	132.4	137.3	127.4
Bookbinding	108.4	109.3	109.5	117.1	182.9	181.3	180.5	179.4
Chemicals and allied products	204.7	202.7	202.9	257.0	357.7	355.5	355.4	435.8
Paints, varnishes, and colors	106.4	106.8	106.4	106.5	169.1	167.1	169.1	159.7
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	180.5	182.4	184.6	169.5	261.5	263.4	266.7	236.1
Perfumes and cosmetics	117.5	115.1	111.1	111.2	159.2	160.9	156.0	148.4
Soap	99.5	99.5	99.2	95.8	165.8	162.9	168.3	149.1
Rayon and allied products	110.0	109.2	108.3	109.1	175.7	174.0	174.1	168.4
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	170.0	170.9	171.8	169.3	295.1	297.6	296.5	281.0
Compressed and liquefied gases	153.8	154.0	157.6	162.2	271.7	270.4	275.8	274.2
Cottonseed oil	81.0	74.6	77.9	87.1	154.2	143.6	148.8	144.6
Fertilizers	101.5	99.1	103.7	100.3	226.6	224.7	227.7	198.2
Products of petroleum and coal	127.3	126.7	124.4	119.7	220.7	223.0	215.7	197.1
Petroleum refining	125.2	124.3	121.8	113.4	213.5	215.6	207.5	184.8
Coke and byproducts	107.0	106.5	106.1	112.4	186.8	191.7	187.5	185.4
Paving materials [3]	74.3	75.5	72.7	67.0	152.5	156.0	147.7	116.2
Roofing materials	119.7	120.6	118.7	122.3	218.0	218.6	216.4	212.7
Rubber products	158.1	157.4	157.8	160.3	285.4	277.2	279.0	258.4
Rubber tires and inner tubes	168.5	165.6	164.8	165.2	294.3	280.9	278.5	253.8
Rubber boots and shoes	131.4	132.1	134.6	150.0	233.4	237.0	245.9	250.0
Rubber goods, other	137.5	138.9	139.8	140.5	247.1	245.2	251.2	232.0
Miscellaneous industries	152.0	153.5	154.8	166.4	286.0	288.9	297.3	294.5
Photographic apparatus	166.6	171.7	168.8	178.0	270.8	271.9	273.0	268.9
Pianos, organs, and parts	83.4	79.8	89.1	136.0	158.5	144.3	170.9	258.0
Games, toys, and dolls	91.2	88.0	85.1	86.1	181.5	169.8	167.2	145.3
Buttons	82.7	84.2	87.7	95.4	153.8	159.6	172.2	171.2
Fire extinguishers	560.0	561.3	580.3	759.8	1076.2	1126.2	1167.0	1446.4

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. 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] Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes published for earlier months:

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.—January through May 1944 employment indexes to 205.6, 201.0, 198.9, 195.1, and 190.9.

Trunks and suitcases.—May 1944 pay-roll index to 226.9.

Paving materials.—April and May 1944 employment indexes to 60.2 and 66.8; pay-roll indexes to 111.2 and 133.3.

[4] Comparable indexes for earlier months available upon request.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943
Coal mining:				
Anthracite	64.5	64.5	68.8	70.3
Bituminous	352	351	356	376
Metal mining	75.4	77.3	80.3	93.1
Iron	27.1	27.4	28.1	33.0
Copper	23.8	25.2	26.7	29.0
Lead and zinc	15.4	15.5	16.1	18.2
Gold and silver	5.6	5.7	5.7	6.4
Miscellaneous	3.5	3.5	3.7	6.5
Electric light and power [1]	203	203	203	210
Street railways and busses [1]	230	230	231	228
Hotels (year-round) [1]	353	352	353	348
Power laundries	246	253	254	257
Cleaning and dyeing	79.9	82.6	85.7	80.6
Class I steam railroads [2]	1,449	1,443	1,447	1,379

[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			
	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943	August 1944	July 1944	June 1944	August 1943
Coal mining:								
Anthracite	77.9	77.9	83.0	84.9	145.8	130.6	151.8	150.6
Bituminous	95.0	94.7	96.1	101.4	215.6	194.4	217.9	203.8
Metal mining	85.5	87.6	91.1	105.5	136.5	135.1	145.7	169.2
Iron	134.6	136.2	139.4	163.9	219.9	211.9	226.2	273.0
Copper	100.0	105.6	112.1	121.8	161.5	168.4	183.1	204.8
Lead and zinc	98.9	99.8	103.7	116.8	182.8	177.0	191.5	204.0
Gold and silver	22.7	23.0	23.1	25.9	29.9	28.2	30.7	34.5
Miscellaneous	87.6	88.3	93.9	164.2	147.0	144.7	159.3	268.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	86.7	86.4	85.8	98.1	165.3	160.7	162.2	174.8
Crude-petroleum production [1]	84.1	84.1	83.6	82.4	132.7	136.5	131.1	119.7
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Electric light and power	83.1	83.2	83.1	86.1	115.3	114.6	114.8	111.9
Street railways and busses	118.9	118.8	119.1	117.6	171.5	170.3	170.4	162.1
Wholesale trade	95.5	95.1	95.0	95.3	136.3	135.9	135.4	129.5
Retail trade	94.1	95.5	96.6	94.9	126.8	128.3	127.4	119.7
Food	104.6	106.4	106.3	102.8	141.7	142.4	139.6	132.0
General merchandise	102.8	104.5	107.7	105.4	132.8	136.7	136 6	127.8
Apparel	97.6	101.8	108.8	96.6	133.3	139.4	145.8	121.4
Furniture and housefurnishings	62.8	63.4	63.6	66.0	86.9	88.4	88.4	86.7
Automotive	66.9	66.6	66.0	63.5	98.2	97.5	96.7	87.8
Lumber and building materials [3]	92.6	92.1	91.4	92.8	133.9	131.8	128.7	125.0
Hotels (year-round) [4]	109.4	109.2	109.4	107.8	158.8	157.4	157.2	140.8
Power laundries	109.0	112.1	112.4	113.8	159.8	165.1	163.6	147.3
Cleaning and dyeing	118.4	122.3	126.9	119.4	178.6	187.3	195.7	164.3
Class I steam railroads [5]	146.6	146.0	146.5	139.6	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Water transportation [6]	255.3	249.1	238.9	162.1	585.2	585.6	571.7	363.2

[1] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[2] Data are not available.
[3] Revisions have been made as follows in indexes previously published: *Retail trade, lumber and building materials group.*—January through May 1944, employment indexes to 89.1, 88.7, 89.7, 89.4, 90.4; pay-roll indexes to 123.4, 123.0, 124.7, 124.6, 128.3.
[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.
[5] Source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[6] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for June, July, and August 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]		
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$45.85	$45.43	$46.24	45.1	44.6	45.4	101.6	101.8	101.7
Durable goods	51.79	51.07	52.14	46.6	45.7	46.8	111.1	111.7	111.3
Nondurable goods	37.16	37.04	37.30	43.0	43.0	43.3	86.4	86.2	86.1
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	50.28	49.98	50.65	46.7	46.0	46.8	107.6	108.7	108.1
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	53.80	54.58	54.32	46.3	45.9	46.4	116.3	118.9	117.0
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	50.23	50.77	51.37	47.3	47.4	48.0	106.9	107.1	107.0
Malleable-iron castings	50.62	50.44	51.39	48.4	48.1	48.6	105.2	104.9	105.3
Steel castings	52.16	49.54	50.89	46.7	44.1	45.6	111.7	112.4	111.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	40.44	40.07	40.19	46.3	45.8	46.5	87.3	87.4	86.3
Tin cans and other tinware	39.54	38.51	38.88	45.0	44.1	44.5	87.9	87.3	87.4
Wirework	49.89	50.72	49.65	47.6	48.1	47.6	104.8	105.5	104.5
Cutlery and edge tools	43.64	43.59	43.99	46.1	46.2	46.3	94.6	94.3	95.0
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	45.36	44.83	45.51	47.0	46.6	47.0	96.6	96.3	96.9
Hardware	44.85	44.64	45.63	46.8	46.5	47.5	95.7	95.9	96.0
Plumber's supplies	47.67	46.59	47.75	46.2	45.4	45.9	102.5	102.1	104.0
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	45.93	45.66	47.43	46.2	45.9	47.2	99.8	99.5	100.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	48.41	47.52	48.00	48.1	46.8	47.5	100.7	101.6	101.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	46.60	46.20	46.96	45.6	45.0	46.1	102.2	102.7	101.9
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	54.99	54.98	55.05	48.9	48.6	48.6	112.1	112.6	112.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	49.68	49.86	50.10	47.1	47.3	47.5	105.4	105.6	105.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	48.61	46.57	49.09	47.2	44.4	47.6	103.0	104.9	103.0
Forgings, iron and steel	57.28	56.79	58.64	47.1	46.2	47.6	121.7	123.5	123.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws	50.50	49.05	50.23	48.5	47.5	48.8	104.2	103.2	102.9
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	43.27	40.95	42.85	45.6	42.7	43.6	94.9	95.9	98.2
Firearms	60.10	59.00	60.80	46.7	45.6	47.7	128.6	129.4	127.5

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]		
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944
Durable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Electrical machinery	$47.74	$47.22	$47.88	46.2	45.7	46.6	103.3	103.3	102.6
Electrical equipment	50.40	49.76	50.66	46.7	46.0	47.3	108.0	108.2	107.2
Radios and phonographs	40.86	40.66	41.20	45.5	45.3	45.7	89.7	89.7	90.1
Communication equipment	44.86	44.61	44.55	45.1	44.9	45.2	98.6	98.6	97.6
Machinery, except electrical	54.16	53.34	55.06	48.4	47.5	49.1	112.0	112.3	112.2
Machinery and machine-shop products	53.05	51.85	53.70	48.2	46.8	48.7	110.0	110.5	110.3
Engines and turbines	58.96	58.84	61.60	48.0	47.3	49.8	123.1	124.9	124.4
Tractors	52.45	51.65	53.47	46.7	46.0	47.4	112.4	112.4	112.9
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	52.71	54.09	53.61	47.0	47.6	48.0	112.1	113.6	111.6
Machine tools	57.33	56.80	57.77	50.4	50.2	51.0	113.8	113.1	113.1
Machine-tool accessories	58.55	58.44	59.80	49.0	49.3	50.2	119.2	118.8	119.2
Textile machinery	47.37	48.10	48.33	48.4	48.6	49.3	97.9	99.0	98.1
Typewriters	47.87	48.64	49.38	48.9	49.5	49.8	98.0	98.3	99.1
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	59.23	58.34	59.71	49.3	49.1	49.6	121.0	119.7	121.3
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	46.45	47.53	47.63	45.3	45.4	46.0	102.4	104.6	103.6
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	55.81	55.59	59.09	50.1	50.6	52.7	112.2	110.8	112.8
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	51.26	47.56	50.89	47.3	44.4	47.4	108.3	107.1	107.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	60.22	59.16	59.66	47.4	46.8	47.3	126.9	126.5	126.2
Locomotives	65.66	60.97	64.29	49.3	45.7	49.1	133.2	133.4	131.0
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	51.44	51.30	52.77	46.0	45.1	46.4	111.9	113.8	113.8
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	54.73	54.43	54.61	47.2	47.2	47.1	115.7	115.5	115.9
Aircraft engines	61.51	59.21	61.35	46.8	44.9	46.8	131.7	131.8	131.2
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	63.97	62.70	62.80	47.8	47.1	47.4	133.9	133.0	132.4
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	50.31	51.30	50.83	47.4	47.8	47.6	106.2	107.4	106.7
Automobiles	56.84	56.43	58.48	45.0	43.7	45.9	126.2	129.1	127.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	48.77	48.35	49.33	46.6	46.0	47.1	104.7	105.2	104.9
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	48.96	49.22	50.05	46.0	45.8	46.9	106.4	107.4	106.8
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	54.18	52.55	54.15	48.1	47.1	48.4	112.6	111.6	111.8
Clocks and watches	43.63	42.91	43.71	46.7	46.2	46.7	94.2	93.0	93.7
Jewelry (precious metals) and jeweler's findings	40.71	40.97	42.76	43.0	43.3	44.9	93.1	93.2	93.5
Silverware and plated ware	46.94	47.55	48.20	46.6	47.0	47.4	100.8	101.4	101.9
Lighting equipment	46.14	44.23	47.37	45.3	43.1	46.0	101.9	102.7	103.0
Aluminum manufactures	48.54	48.92	49.25	46.0	46.0	46.4	105.6	106.6	106.1
Lumber and timber basic products	35.80	33.75	35.56	44.6	42.4	44.5	80.3	79.6	79.9
Sawmills and logging camps	35.23	32.74	34.72	44.3	41.5	43.9	79.5	78.9	79.2
Planing and plywood mills	37.53	37.05	38.36	45.6	45.3	46.7	82.7	81.9	82.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	36.76	35.54	36.26	44.8	43.6	44.6	82.0	81.6	81.3
Furniture	37.44	36.13	36.71	44.6	43.3	44.3	84.2	83.7	83.3
Caskets and other mortician's goods	41.38	37.78	39.20	46.4	43.8	45.6	89.6	86.4	86.3
Wood preserving	34.62	34.15	34.35	44.9	43.9	44.9	77.1	77.8	76.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	39.32	38.14	39.19	43.9	42.4	43.8	89.5	89.9	89.4
Glass and glassware	39.60	37.66	39.42	42.2	39.7	42.2	93.8	94.9	93.7
Glass products made from purchased glass	34.84	33.48	34.09	44.5	43.1	43.7	78.7	77.8	78.0
Cement	42.98	41.28	41.34	46.2	44.2	44.8	93.0	93.3	92.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	33.42	33.06	33.62	42.6	41.7	42.7	78.4	78.9	78.1
Pottery and related products	36.06	34.58	36.13	41.4	39.4	41.9	88.1	88.7	87.5
Gypsum	45.49	44.13	45.44	48.5	48.3	48.8	93.8	91.4	93.2
Lime	38.49	38.02	38.83	49.6	48.7	49.9	77.7	78.4	78.2
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	40.48	39.21	39.88	45.1	44.2	44.4	90.7	89.6	90.0
Abrasives	46.64	46.26	46.08	47.3	46.8	46.5	98.7	98.9	99.2
Asbestos products	47.05	46.85	47.76	48.2	48.2	48.7	97.6	97.3	98.0

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]		
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944
Nondurable goods									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	$29.74	$29.63	$29.87	41.8	41.7	42.0	71.1	71.0	71.2
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	26.90	27.12	26.76	42.2	42.4	42.0	63.7	63.9	63.7
Cotton smallwares	33.30	33.18	33.79	43.0	43.3	43.8	77.5	77.0	77.3
Silk and rayon goods	28.93	28.33	29.07	41.9	40.9	42.0	69.0	69.3	69.1
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	35.02	35.35	36.04	41.6	42.1	42.7	84.2	84.0	84.5
Hosiery	29.35	28.27	28.84	38.8	37.4	38.5	76.0	75.8	75.1
Knitted cloth	31.87	31.60	32.01	43.2	43.6	43.9	72.9	72.4	72.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	29.88	29.51	30.01	40.2	40.0	40.5	74.1	73.2	73.5
Knitted underwear	26.36	25.68	26.62	40.6	40.0	40.7	64.8	63.9	64.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	34.08	33.83	34.33	44.7	44.4	45.0	76.1	76.1	76.2
Carpets and rugs, wool	39.31	39.13	39.44	43.3	43.4	43.6	91.1	90.4	90.8
Hats, fur-felt	42.84	41.34	43.33	40.7	40.0	41.7	106.0	104.2	104.7
Jute goods, except felts	33.45	33.44	34.26	43.7	44.6	44.9	76.5	75.0	76.3
Cordage and twine	32.65	32.57	32.58	45.1	45.3	45.2	72.2	71.7	72.0
Apparel and other finished textile products	30.43	29.28	29.95	37.7	37.3	38.2	80.7	78.5	78.4
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	31.70	30.86	32.29	38.3	38.0	39.1	82.3	81.1	82.1
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	23.79	24.42	24.31	36.7	37.2	37.3	65.1	65.5	65.4
Underwear and neckwear, men's	25.88	25.98	26.37	36.6	36.7	37.7	70.6	70.9	70.0
Work shirts	20.55	18.01	19.78	36.8	32.8	36.6	54.1	53.4	52.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	37.67	35.46	35.89	36.7	36.2	37.0	100.2	96.3	94.6
Corsets and allied garments	29.12	28.75	30.43	40.0	39.8	41.8	72.9	72.4	73.0
Millinery	40.26	35.10	31.66	33.7	32.4	29.1	96.2	89.8	89.1
Handkerchiefs	23.12	22.91	23.18	37.0	36.9	37.6	62.6	62.1	61.7
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	24.24	25.63	26.78	36.1	37.4	38.8	66.9	68.3	68.3
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	32.23	31.80	31.82	41.6	41.5	42.0	77.4	76.6	75.9
Textile bags	28.54	28.29	27.95	41.7	42.0	41.5	68.8	67.7	67.7
Leather and leather products	33.13	32.97	33.35	41.1	41.2	41.6	80.5	80.1	80.2
Leather	43.02	43.09	43.15	45.5	45.6	45.8	94.6	94.6	94.2
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	32.88	32.98	33.82	42.3	42.2	43.1	78.6	79.0	79.5
Boots and shoes	31.18	30.99	31.43	40.3	40.3	40.8	77.1	76.5	76.7
Leather gloves and mittens	30.76	29.65	28.97	38.6	37.6	37.8	80.4	79.4	77.8
Trunks and suitcases	32.52	32.69	33.64	40.2	40.5	40.9	80.1	79.8	81.3
Food	37.94	38.53	39.09	44.9	45.6	45.9	84.4	84.5	85.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	44.69	45.87	45.73	48.6	49.9	49.6	92.2	92.1	92.4
Butter	34.06	34.54	34.24	47.8	48.3	48.2	70.9	70.7	69.9
Condensed and evaporated milk	37.28	38.06	38.68	50.6	50.7	51.8	74.0	75.1	74.6
Ice cream	39.42	39.27	37.84	47.8	47.9	46.3	79.3	79.1	78.1
Flour	42.08	41.96	41.69	49.7	49.6	49.6	84.8	84.8	84.1
Cereal preparations	43.58	44.05	44.78	46.0	46.7	47.1	94.7	94.3	95.2
Baking	38.31	38.42	38.21	45.7	45.8	45.5	83.9	83.9	84.1
Sugar refining, cane	38.06	37.55	38.53	44.5	43.7	45.0	85.6	86.0	85.6
Sugar, beet	36.06	36.05	39.07	37.5	35.8	40.5	96.2	100.6	96.4
Confectionery	30.49	30.08	30.13	42.2	41.6	42.0	72.4	72.5	71.9
Beverages, nonalcoholic	36.50	37.09	35.69	45.7	46.2	44.7	79.8	80.7	80.1
Malt liquors	53.56	53.96	52.83	47.3	47.3	47.6	113.5	114.2	111.3
Canning and preserving	30.27	29.75	30.84	39.9	40.3	40.4	76.5	74.3	77.0
Tobacco manufactures	30.27	30.04	29.82	42.3	42.4	42.3	71.5	70.9	70.6
Cigarettes	32.79	32.84	32.19	43.1	43.2	42.4	76.0	76.0	75.9
Cigars	28.20	27.67	28.26	41.7	41.9	42.6	67.7	66.2	66.6
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	27.86	27.71	26.22	41.2	41.0	39.8	67.6	67.6	65.8
Paper and allied products	39.09	38.72	39.17	46.2	45.7	46.3	84.7	84.7	84.5
Paper and pulp	42.67	42.42	42.83	48.2	47.9	48.4	88.4	88.6	88.4
Envelopes	36.58	36.66	37.20	44.5	44.9	45.7	81.8	81.7	81.4
Paper bags	33.12	32.27	33.62	43.4	43.0	44.3	76.4	75.4	76.1
Paper boxes	34.71	33.76	34.68	43.9	42.9	43.8	79.3	79.1	79.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	44.41	44.14	44.37	41.1	41.2	41.3	108.0	107.2	107.5
Newspapers and periodicals	48.98	48.63	48.45	38.6	38.3	38.3	125.7	125.3	124.8
Printing, book and job	42.67	42.70	42.97	42.3	42.5	42.7	100.1	99.7	100.1
Lithographing	45.31	44.76	46.61	44.3	44.2	45.0	102.7	101.4	103.6

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]		
	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1914	Aug. 1944	July 1944	June 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Chemicals and allied products	$43.84	$44.01	$43.86	45.6	45.6	45.8	96.1	96.5	95.8
Paints, varnishes, and colors	46.44	45.66	46.57	47.9	47.2	47.9	97.2	96.9	97.0
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	34.54	34.43	34.44	43.1	42.6	42.8	80.7	81.2	80.8
Soap	47.47	46.65	48.33	47.8	47.6	48.6	99.3	97.9	99.5
Rayon and allied products	38.85	38.78	39.12	43.1	43.0	43.2	90.2	90.2	90.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	51.88	52.15	51.65	46.9	46.8	46.9	110.6	111.4	110.1
Explosives and safety fuses	47.25	48.13	47.72	46.5	46.7	46.7	101.7	103.0	102.1
Ammunition, small-arms	45.31	45.55	45.64	46.6	46.8	46.7	97.3	97.3	97.8
Cottonseed oil	25.88	26.18	25.97	47.9	48.1	48.2	53.9	54.3	53.8
Fertilizers	31.72	32.11	30.49	44.8	45.7	44.7	70.7	70.2	68.2
Products of petroleum and coal	55.28	56.28	55.30	46.9	46.9	46.8	117.9	120.0	118.1
Petroleum refining	58.05	59.08	57.98	46.7	46.8	46.6	124.4	126.5	124.8
Coke and byproducts	47.80	49.24	48.37	46.3	46.4	46.5	103.3	106.2	103.8
Roofing materials	46.83	46.65	47.00	49.5	48.9	49.6	94.6	95.3	94.8
Rubber products	50.30	49.17	49.30	45.6	45.0	45.2	110.2	109.4	109.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes	58.93	57.01	56.78	46.5	45.5	45.3	126.4	125.6	125.4
Rubber boots and shoes	39.99	40.40	41.11	43.9	44.4	44.6	91.0	91.0	92.2
Rubber goods, other	42.28	41.48	42.21	45.0	44.5	45.1	94.0	93.6	93.7
Miscellaneous industries	43.24	43.23	44.17	45.3	45.2	46.1	95.5	95.6	95.8
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment	53.79	55.74	56.22	48.4	49.9	50.6	111.5	112.1	111.3
Photographic apparatus	46.93	47.23	48.21	44.2	44.7	45.4	106.3	105.7	106.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	46.11	43.85	46.45	46.9	44.2	45.9	98.8	99.6	101.8

NONMANUFACTURING

Coal mining:							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Anthracite	$48.21	$43.22	$47.10	40.8	35.8	40.9	117.9	119.4	114.4
Bituminous	52.28	47.20	52.10	44.1	39.5	44.0	118.9	119.9	118.2
Metal mining	44.96	43.46	45.12	44.8	42.9	44.6	100.3	101.0	100.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	41.16	40.33	40.85	47.9	46.3	47.7	86.1	87.1	85.7
Crude-petroleum production	53.35	54.85	52.99	46.1	45.3	45.6	113.0	118.7	113.8
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Electric light and power[2]	48.91	48.12	48.42	44.0	42.8	43.8	110.4	111.9	109.7
Street railways and busses	48.53	48.12	47.99	51.0	50.7	50.9	93.9	93.5	93.3
Wholesale trade	42.34	42.36	42.40	43.1	42.8	43.0	98.1	98.9	98.6
Retail trade[2]	27.64	27.83	27.05	43.3	43.2	42.4	70.6	70.6	70.1
Food	32.57	32.15	31.37	42.7	42.4	41.5	71.2	71.2	71.2
General merchandise[2]	22.81	23.09	22.26	38.2	38.4	37.1	60.5	60.4	60.5
Apparel	28.56	28.77	28.15	39.0	38.6	38.2	80.3	81.0	79.9
Furniture and housefurnishings	37.68	37.93	38.11	44.2	44.1	44.2	87.0	87.4	86.7
Automotive	41.36	41.73	41.57	46.8	46.5	46.8	90.9	90.8	90.2
Lumber and building materials[2]	37.50	37.15	36.42	43.7	43.8	43.2	87.9	87.1	86.3
Hotels (year-round)[4]	22.72	22.51	22.62	44.9	44.8	44.6	50.3	50.2	50.2
Power laundries	27.17	27.19	26.84	43.7	44.1	43.6	62.4	62.1	61.7
Cleaning and dyeing	30.62	31.08	31.37	43.9	44.4	44.3	71.9	72.2	72.4
Brokerage	54.39	55.89	53.48	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Insurance	44.51	45.01	44.56	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Private building construction	52.90	52.81	52.21	40.0	40.6	40.2	132.3	130.2	130.0

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of 1 pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish 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] Revisions have been made as follows in data published for earlier months:

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.—January, February, and March 1944 average weekly earnings to $48.22, $49.14, and $49.28; May to $48.79; January through May 1944 average weekly hours to 47.3, 48.1, 47.7, 46.9, and 47.4.

Trunks and suitcases.—May 1944 average weekly earnings to $34.01; average weekly hours to 41.3.

Electric light and power.—May average weekly hours to 43.5; average hourly earnings to 109.4 cents.

Retail trade total.—March average weekly hours to 40.2; average hourly earnings to 71.1 cents.

General merchandise group.—April and May average weekly hours to 36.2 and 36.0.

Lumber and building materials group.—January through May, average weekly earnings to $35.59, $35.58, $35.66, $35.78, $36.85; March, April, and May average hours per week to 42.4, 42.6, 43.1; February through May, average hourly earnings to 84.7 cents, 85.3 cents, 85.5 cents, 86.8 cents.

[3] Data are not available.

[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.

Civilian Labor Force, September 1944

SEASONAL declines of 920,000 in employment and 60,000 in unemployment combined to reduce the civilian labor force by 980,000 between August and September 1944, according to the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force (see table). The decline in civilian labor-market participation largely reflects the return of teen-age workers to school at the close of summer vacation.

Employment in September 1944—52,250,000—was approximately 700,000 below the September 1943 total. The decline was about evenly divided between agricultural and nonagricultural industries. During the year, however, approximately 2,000,000 persons were added to the armed forces.

Unemployment, at 780,000, closely approximated the April 1944 record low point of the unemployment series.

The female civilian labor force showed no net change from the August 1944 level of 18,440,000, as a decline of about 300,000 in nonagricultural employment was offset by an increase of about 300,000 in agriculture. The number of women in the civilian labor force in September exceeded the total for September 1943 by 200,000—a gain of 500,000 in nonagricultural employment, more than offsetting decreases of 200,000 in agriculture and 100,000 in unemployment. On the other hand, the male civilian labor force, reflecting the growth in the armed forces over the year, was 1,100,000 lower than the level in the same month of the previous year.

Civilian Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status and by Sex, August and September 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	
	September	August	September	August	September	August	September	August	September	August
Total civilian labor force	53,030	54,010	53,910	55,440	54,410	56,340	54,990	56,500	54,390	56,050
Unemployment [3]	780	840	960	1,070	1,490	1,950	4,170	4,950	6,200	7,980
Employment	52,250	53,170	52,950	54,370	52,920	54,390	50,820	51,550	48,190	48,070
Nonagricultural	43,580	44,600	43,900	44,730	44,060	44,690	41,520	42,140	37,900	38,070
Agricultural	8,670	8,570	9,050	9,640	8,860	9,700	9,300	9,410	10,290	10,000
Males										
Civilian labor force	34,590	35,570	35,700	36,990	38,970	40,790	40,650	42,020	40,820	42,300
Unemployment [3]	400	430	490	550	940	1,280	2,880	3,410	4,440	5,530
Employment	34,190	35,140	35,210	36,440	38,030	39,510	37,770	38,610	36,380	36,770
Nonagricultural	27,430	28,170	28,270	28,890	30,750	31,470	30,060	30,560	27,590	27,850
Agricultural	6,760	6,970	6,940	7,550	7,280	8,040	7,710	8,050	8,790	8,920
Females										
Civilian labor force	18,440	18,440	18,210	18,450	15,440	15,550	14,340	14,480	13,570	13,750
Unemployment [3]	380	410	470	520	550	670	1,290	1,540	1,760	2,450
Employment	18,060	18,030	17,740	17,930	14,890	14,880	13,050	12,940	11,810	11,300
Nonagricultural	16,150	16,430	15,630	15,840	13,310	13,220	11,460	11,580	10,310	10,220
Agricultural	1,910	1,600	2,110	2,090	1,580	1,660	1,590	1,360	1,500	1,080

[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.

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Recent Publications of Labor Interest

November 1944

Agriculture

Agriculture census: Cash rent paid, or payable, by cash tenants and by part owners renting on a cash basis. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of the Census and U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1944. 135 pp., maps. 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Prices paid by Vermont farmers for goods and services and received by them for farm products, 1790–1940; Wages of Vermont farm labor, 1780–1940. By Thurston M. Adams. Burlington, Vermont Agricultural Experiment Station, 1944. 176 pp., charts; 71 pp. (statistical supplement). (Bull. No. 507.)

The author, with the aid of the National Youth Administration, sorted and transcribed a large amount of historical data, mostly from account books, and from the data computed the averages and indexes of this study. The farm wage figures cover 161 years. The retail price data include, in addition to various commodity prices, extensive figures on medical-service rates, transportation, farm fire insurance, and taxes.

The war and American agriculture. By John D. Black and Charles A. Gibbons. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1944. 55 pp. (Review of Economic Statistics, Volume XXVI, No. 1.) $1.25.

Changes in farm prices are compared with changes in nonagricultural wages and changes in farm income are compared with changes in wage income. Various periods since 1910–14 are covered, including the period since January 1941, under the Little Steel formula. Farm prices are compared not with changes in labor cost or in the amount of wages per unit of output, but with changes in average hourly earnings. One of the 12 chapters deals with wages of hired farm workers. There is some discussion of measures taken to control prices, wages, and profits.

Farming in wartime Britain. New York 20 (30 Rockefeller Plaza), British Information Services, August 1944. 29 pp. (I. D. 316.)

Deals with the wartime agricultural policy in practice, the wage and labor-supply situation, and conditions in different branches of production.

Cooperative Movement

A century of cooperation: An epitome of the birth and growth of the national movements. London, S. W. 1, International Cooperative Alliance, 1944. 69 pp.; mimeographed.

Contains a short history and statistics of cooperation in various countries of the world; issued in connection with the celebration of the twenty-second International Cooperative Day, July 1, 1944.

Dictionary of cooperation. By Emory S. Bogardus. New York 11, Cooperative League of the United States of America, 1943. 60 pp. 75 cents.

This is more than a dictionary of the terms used in the cooperative movement. It contains also short accounts of numerous cooperative organizations in the United States and abroad.

EDITORS' 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.

I see a new China. By George Hogg. Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1944. 211 pp. $2.50.

Account of the development, problems, and accomplishments of the industrial cooperatives in China, told in terms of the day-to-day life of the participants, with war conditions as the background.

Report of the Irish Agricultural Organization Society, Ltd., for the year ending December 31, 1943. Dublin, 1944. 84 pp. 2s. net.

Contains summary statistics of the various types of cooperatives in Ireland (Eire) in 1942.

Education and Training

Frontiers of American culture: A study of adult education in a democracy. By James Truslow Adams. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1944. 364 pp., bibliography. $2.50.

The writer believes that adult education is so much a national problem, and so vast, that it must be financed to a large extent by the Federal Government, but that the work of planning and administration should be decentralized as much as possible. One chapter of the book is devoted to education for workers.

High lights in the development of Federal policies and activities in education. By Charles A. Quattlebaum. Washington 25, Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service, 1944. 57 pp.; mimeographed.

Account of the educational activities carried out by Federal agencies, including vocational training, placement, and rehabilitation; educational activities originating as relief measures; the work of the U. S. Office of Education; and education for national defense and war.

Methods of vocational guidance. By Gertrude Forrester. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1944. 455 pp., bibliography. $3.

Deals especially with specific methods of applying the theory of vocational guidance by teachers in high schools which do not employ vocational counselors or do not have well-developed programs in vocational guidance.

Post-war education—a labor view. By J. P. M. Millar. Tillicoultry, Scotland, National Council of Labor Colleges, 1943. 16 pp. 3d.

This pamphlet, written by the general secretary of the National Council of Labor Colleges, deals with the functions of education and labor's relation to educational problems. A memorandum on education after the war, submitted by the Council to the education committee of the British Trades Union Congress, is included.

Supplementary trainees and war production. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, 1944. 54 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 226, Defense training series No. 3.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Report of a follow-up survey of persons receiving instruction in supplementary vocational training courses for war production workers.

The training of vocational counselors. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Training, 1944. 77 pp.

Prepared as a guide for establishing appropriate training programs for vocational counselors. Gives an occupational description, which is a composite of several related vocational counselor positions, and brief descriptions of selected Federal agencies involved in vocational-counseling programs. Lists of selected references and a directory of Federal agencies and national organizations interested in vocational guidance are included.

Employment

Employment and wages of workers covered by State unemployment compensation laws—1942 summary. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Employment Security, [1944]. 35 pp., chart; processed.

Employment stabilization speaks for itself. (In Modern Industry, New York 17 (347 Madison Avenue), September 15, 1944, pp. 37–41; charts, illus. 35 cents.)

A study of the experiences of various companies.

FEPC—how it operates. Washington 25, U. S. Office for Emergency Management, Committee on Fair Employment Practice, 1944. 19 pp.

Outlines the background of the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice and gives a brief résumé of its duties, jurisdiction, and procedure. Includes Executive orders concerning the Committee and a directory of its offices.

The outlook for construction employment in the post-war transition period. New York 20 (14 West 49th Street), National Association of Manufacturers, Post-War Committee, 1943. 29 pp.

A post-war Federal tax plan for high employment. New York 17 (285 Madison Avenue), Committee for Economic Development, 1944. 47 pp., charts.

The Committee proposes that the Federal Government depend mainly on personal income taxes, with reductions of excise and sales taxes and of taxes described as applying "directly against business operations." It is stated that Federal taxation should be heavy enough to make possible substantial debt reduction when a satisfactorily high level of production and employment has been reached.

Family Allowances

First annual report of the Office of Dependency Benefits, [U. S. War Department], fiscal year ending June 30, 1943. Newark 2, N. J., [1944?]. 76 pp., charts, illus.

No family allowances were paid for the first two months of the year covered, but the amounts of these grants for the remaining period aggregated $797,287,649.70, of which the Government contributed $446,822,777.22 and the soldiers, $350,464,872.48.

El plus de cargas familiares, [Spain]. By J. Toharia Cátedra. (In Revista de Trabajo, Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, October 1943, pp. 811–816.)

Comparative study of the 13 regulations on family bonuses adopted in Spain from April 28, 1942, to August 6, 1943, as to amount of bonus, the income on which it is based, method and periodicity of payment, beneficiaries, and conditions affecting payment of the bonuses.

Food and Nutrition

Industrial feeding in manufacturing establishments. Washington 25, U. S. War Food Administration, Office of Distribution, 1944. 23 pp., charts.

Shows the prevalence and types of existing and planned food-service facilities among 2,037 plants, employment in the reporting plants, extent to which workers use existing facilities, length of lunch period, and proportion of plants which stagger lunch periods.

Food rationing and supply, 1943–44. Geneva, League of Nations, Economic, Financial, and Transit Department, 1944. 101 pp., charts. $1.

Presents a picture of the amount, composition, and nutritive value of food rations in Europe and elsewhere last year.

The [British] Nation's food. By Sir John Orr. London, Labor Party, 1943. 13 pp.

Largely a review of material already published by the writer. The pamphlet was written for the British Labor Party and has been adopted as a statement of the party's policy.

Hunger and health in the colonies. London, S. W. 1, Fabian Publications, Ltd., 1944. 33 pp. (Research series No. 80.) 1s.

The report discusses malnutrition in the British colonies, the food situation, and deficiency diseases in the tropics, and makes recommendations regarding improvement of diets and administrative action toward securing adequate nutrition for colonial peoples.

Health Insurance and Medical Care

Medical care for citizens. (In Planning, No. 222, PEP (Political and Economic Planning), London, June 30, 1944; 55 pp. Reprinted by New Republic, New York; 50 cents.)

Discussion of the British White Paper proposing a national health service for the country. While agreeing in the main with the proposed plan, the report points out certain omissions and unsatisfactory features.

The medical profession and health insurance. A submission to the Special Committee on Social Security of the House of Commons by the Canadian Medical Association. [Toronto], 1943. 31 pp.

The report emphasizes the need for more adequate and better distribution of medical services in Canada and outlines features which should be included in any plan of health insurance.

Team work for better health. By Arthur H. Carhart. (In Nation's Business, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington 6, August 1944, p. 60 et seq.)

The writer describes the Blue Cross hospital plan under which 14 million employed persons and their families in the United States and Canada are said to be insured under hospitalization contracts. As an example of the way the plan works among a largely rural population, the Colorado Hospital Service is described.

Housing

Housing for the United States after the war. Chicago 37 (1313 East 60th Street), National Association of Housing Officials, 1944. 64 pp. (Publication No. N193.) 50 cents.

Outlines the major elements which the National Association of Housing Officials believes should be considered in post-war housing for the United States.

Proceedings of the National Conference on Post-War Housing, Chicago, March 8–10, 1944. New York 18 (512 Fifth Avenue), National Committee on Housing, Inc., 1944. 229 pp. $1.75.

Technical phases of future housing effort were given prominence.

Recommendations for a housing program and policy. New York 18 (512 Fifth Avenue), National Committee on Housing, Inc., 1944. 15 pp. 25 cents.

The Committee urges a post-war house-building industry and program based on market study and analysis, technological advances, and improved finance.

Cities of Latin America: Housing and planning to the south. By Francis Violich. New York, Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1944. 241 pp., bibliography, maps, illus. $3.50.

Describes the development of cities in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay and modern work in urban planning, architecture, and low-cost housing. The arrangement is by subject—new plans for old cities, new houses for old, etc.—rather than by country.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Industrial safety manual. Chicago, National Safety Council, 1944. 40 pp., charts, illus.

Paper and pulp: The control of accidents. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 42 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

Slaughtering and meat packing: The control of accidents. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 25 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

Summary and analysis of accidents on steam railways in the United States subject to the Interstate Commerce Act, calendar year 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics, 1944. 116 pp. (Accident bull. No. 112.) 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Injury and death under workmen's compensation laws. By Samuel B. Horovitz. Boston, Mass., Wright & Potter Printing Co., 1944. 486 pp., bibliography. $6.

A comprehensive discussion, in simple, nonlegal language, of the various phases of workmen's compensation. The book begins with a short treatment of the historical development of this type of legislation and the common law it superseded, briefly covers the fields in which Federal legislation controls, and then considers the manifold, and frequently technical, concepts and prevailing rulings on the various phases of workmen's compensation law and administration.

Industrial Relations

Collective bargaining—does it conflict with engineering ethics? By Zola G. Deutsch. (In Chemical & Metallurgical Engineering, New York 18 (330 West 42d Street), August 1944, pp. 96-99; bibliography. 35 cents.)

A discussion of the laws and the ethical concepts relating to collective bargaining, attitudes of engineering societies toward it, and types and aims of unions.

How to bargain with a labor union. New York 1 (350 Fifth Avenue), International Statistical Bureau, Inc., 1944. 39 pp. $2.50.

Detailed, topical summaries of the legal provisions, principles, and precedents governing the procedures of the National Labor Relations Board and the War Labor Board, and the rights of employers and employees under the laws which established these agencies.

Union agreements in the airframe industry, 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 17 pp. (Bull. No. 792; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1944.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

National War Labor Board rules of organization and procedure for the national and regional boards. Washington 25, U. S. National War Labor Board, Division of Public Information, 1944. 49 pp.; processed. Free.

Seniority in the Akron rubber industry. By Philomena Marquardt and Sophia F. McDowell. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Industrial Relations Division, 1944. 19 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Seniority problems during demobilization and reconversion. By Frederick H. Harbison. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1944. 29 pp., bibliography. (Research report series, No. 70.)

Deals with the seniority status of veterans and of industrial war workers as affected by provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 and by collective agreements. The author believes that the application of seniority provisions after the war will probably give rise to grave problems, and he offers suggestions regarding the handling of these problems.

Telling employees about their company. New York 10, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, [1944?]. 39 pp., illus.

Describes various methods used by industrial firms to tell employees about the companies they work for, including interim reports, letters, employee publications, moving pictures, radio broadcasts, etc.

Labor Legislation

Managerial adjustments to labor law: An outline and bibliography. By Gertrude Mettel. (In Journal of Business of the University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Ill., July 1944, part 1, pp. 186–193. $1.25.)

State legislation forbidding discriminatory employment practices. Washington 25, U. S. Office for Emergency Management, Committee on Fair Employment Practice, Division of Field Operations, September 19, 1944. 4 pp.; mimeographed. Revised.

State wage and hour restrictions affecting retailers. New York 18 (25 West 43d Street), Institute of Distribution, Inc., July 1, 1944. 30 pp.; processed.

Tabulations of legal provisions, by State, concerning employment of women over 18 and persons under 18 in mercantile establishments; working hours of adult men in mercantile establishments; and minimum-wages in mercantile establishments, including offices, restaurants, and beauty shops.

Sobre la obligación de entregar el "certificado de trabajo," [Argentina]. (In Argentina Fabril, Unión Industrial Argentina, Buenos Aires, July 1943, pp. 30–32.)

Discussion of Argentine legislation (enacted in 1934) concerning the work certificate that an employer is required to furnish an employee upon his dismissal, with pertinent legal decisions and opinions. Some comparisons are made with French, German, and Italian legislation on dismissal.

El trabajo doméstico en la legislación comparada y la ley Dominicana del 4 de agosto de 1942. By Juan Bernaldo de Quirós. (In Derecho del Trabajo, Buenos Aires, February 1944, pp. 55–64.)

Brief account with background of the 1942 law of the Dominican Republic covering conditions of work in domestic service, with references to similar legislation of other countries.

Occupations

The big store: Opportunities in department store work. By Mrs. Chase Going Woodhouse. New York, Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1943. 196 pp. (Kitson career series.) $1.50.

Organization of department stores, qualifications of personnel, education and training required for success in store jobs, opportunities for promotion, and operation of different store divisions are described. Salaries in some executive positions and trends in executive openings for women are shown in an appendix.

You and your future job. By William G. Campbell and James H. Bedford. Los Angeles, Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., 1944. 368 pp., illus. $3.50.

The writers discuss the question of choosing a career from the standpoint not only of the demands of individual jobs but also of choosing an occupation that will contribute to the happiness and success of the individual.

Young men and machines: Career guidance for the machine tool and mass production industries. By Raymond F. Yates. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1944. 196 pp., illus. $2.

Older Workers in Industry

Discrimination against older workers in industry. By Otto Pollak. (In American Journal of Sociology, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Ill., September 1944, pp. 99–106. $1.)

Older workers in wartime. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 1668; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1944.) Free.

Senescence and industrial efficiency. By Edward J. Stieglitz. (In Scientific Monthly, Washington, June 1944, pp. 410–414; July 1944, pp. 9–15. 50 cents each.)

The first installment of the study deals with the general problem under discussion, and the second, with specific problems, including selection, placement, and accident and emotional hazards of older workers.

Post-War Reconstruction

The economics of demobilization. By E. Jay Howenstine, Jr. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. 336 pp., bibliography. $3.75.

The first five chapters deal with the problems of demobilization after the present war. The major part of the book is devoted to a study of experiences following the first World War. A concluding chapter sets forth the author's views as to the aims to be achieved by a planned demobilization, and discusses certain basic problems of demobilization in the light of these aims.

Homefront planning for the post-war period: A symposium on post-war problems of Tennessee and the Nation. Knoxville, Tenn., University of Tennessee, Governmental Reference Service, 1944. 95 pp. (University of Tennessee Record, extension series, Vol. XX, No. 2.)

Postwar planning for peace and full employment. Symposium by Walter Nash, president, International Labor Conference, and others. New York 3 (112 East 19th Street), League for Industrial Democracy, 1944. 64 pp. 25 cents.

Includes discussions of the more general problems of national and international planning for peace and full employment, and of particular problems such as the relationship of Government to business, public housing, and international cartels. The Philadelphia Charter (adopted at International Labor Conference, Philadelphia, May 1944) and the Atlantic Charter are reproduced and summaries of other international declarations are given.

The rest of your life. By Leo Cherne. New York, Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1944. 298 pp. $2.75.

Some of the topics considered are demobilization, reconversion, unemployment, and the status of labor unions.

A statistical summary of the Houston area, Harris County, Texas. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 18 pp.; mimeographed. (Industrial area statistical summary No. 23.) Free.

Statistical data on war and pre-war employment and industry for use by local groups formulating plans for the post-war period.

A plan for town and country, [Great Britain]. By Flora Stephenson and Phoebe Pool. London, Pilot Press, Ltd., 1944. 60 pp., diagrams, illus. (Target for tomorrow No. 2.) 4s. 6d.

Traces the development of planning, discusses the policies of the Government and the Labor Party, and outlines a practical target.

World War II—national defense, post-war planning. Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 54 pp. (Price list 77—1st ed.)

Price list of publications of the United States Government for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. Many reports on labor subjects are listed.

Social Security

Employee retirement and unemployment insurance as affecting railway finances. Washington 25, U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics, November 1943. 58 pp.; mimeographed. (Statement No. 4374.)

Includes discussions of benefits to retired employees, benefits to employees under unemployment insurance, and a summary of the laws covering retirement and unemployment insurance.

Federal grants-in-aid—boon or menace to the States? Washington 5 (1498 L Street NW.), Citizens National Committee, Inc., 1943. 39 pp.

History of the origin and growth of Federal payments to the States for vocational education, public-health work, aid to the needy, etc., showing the extent to which such payments have increased in recent years and the effect on Federal-State relationships.

Social service in wartime. Edited by Helen R. Wright. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1944. 201 pp. $2.

A series of lectures given at Chicago University during the fall of 1943. The effects of the war on various phases of social work, such as public-assistance programs, work with children, and travelers aid, were among the subjects discussed as well as social work after the war.

Danish social policy in wartime. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, August 1944, pp. 185–206. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

This survey of wartime social legislation in Denmark was prepared by the Danish Ministry of Social Affairs in March 1944.

Tennessee Valley Authority

TVA: Democracy on the march. By David E. Lilienthal. New York, Harper & Bros., 1944. 248 pp., bibliography, illus. $2.50.

A stirring account of the circumstances surrounding the creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority, its purposes, and its accomplishments in terms of contribution to the war effort and especially in the lives of the people of the valley and in its industrial development. Lays particular stress on the success of the TVA in obtaining the heartfelt cooperation of the people and on their participation in its program. The book points out that similar programs are feasible in many other regions throughout the world and could be developed with benefit to the inhabitants.

The TVA—lessons for international application. By Herman Finer. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1944. 289 pp. $1.50. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Components of wartime wage changes. By Elmer C. Bratt and Clarence H. Danhof. (In Survey of Current Business, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington 25, September 1944, pp. 17–20; charts. 15 cents.)

The composition of manufacturing pay rolls is discussed, together with the causes of the increase in pay rolls between January 1939 and January 1944. The factors analyzed are changes in employment, hours, premium overtime payments, distribution of employees among the several industries, and other factors, including changes in rates.

Wartime wage movements and urban wage-rate changes. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 21 pp. (Serial No. R. 1684; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1944.) Free.

Earnings of full-fashioned hosiery workers in union mills, 1943. Philadelphia, Pa., 1943. 148 pp.; mimeographed.

Issued by the office of the impartial chairman, full-fashioned hosiery industry, in cooperation with the American Federation of Hosiery Workers and the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Manufacturers of America, Inc., Philadelphia, Pa.

Union wages and hours in the printing trades, July 1, 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 63 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 781; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1944, with additional data.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Hourly remuneration rates by occupations in the transportation industry. A report by the U. S. Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation. Washington 25, Government Printing Office, 1944. 127 pp., pasters, charts. (House doc. No. 623, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Detailed analysis of average hourly earnings and rates of pay of workers in the railroad, motor-carrier, and water-carrier industries. An effort is made to compare wages in the several types of transportation and in the various occupations and regions. The subject is approached from the point of view of wages as costs affecting the relative economy and fitness of carriers in the various types of transportation.

Salary trends in Washington cities: A study of salary fluctuations in Washington cities from 1929 to 1943. Seattle, University of Washington, Bureau of Governmental Research, 1943. 94 pp.; mimeographed. (Report No. 58.).

Wage incentives. By J. K. Louden. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1944. 174 pp. $2.50.

A textbook giving accounts of five fundamental types of wage-incentive plans, with discussions of problems of wage policy and administration. There is a chapter on union participation as a phase of what the author describes as a major turn in the course of industrial progress.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

The employment of prisoners of war in the United States. By Maxwell S. McKnight. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, July 1944, pp. 47–64. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

Impact of the [present] war on the Wichita, Kansas, area, Sedgwick County. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 62 pp.; mimeographed. (Industrial area study No. 17.) Free.

Working notebook for use by local groups studying recent economic development and formulating plans for the post-war period.

Impact of World War I on the Hampton Roads area. By Caroline Buck Reeves. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Post-War Division, 1944. 71 pp.; mimeographed. (Historical study No. 69.) Free.

Increased financial provision for members of His Majesty's forces and their families with certain changes in war pensions. London, [Ministry of Pensions?], 1944. 8 pp. (Cmd. 6521.) 2d. net.

Women in Industry

Attack turnover—you, in the plant, in the union, in the community: Help her stay on the job! Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1944. 12 pp. Free.

Includes various suggestions for reducing quit rates for women.

One hundred and one annotated pamphlets on the woman worker in industry. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, April 1944. 22 pp.; mimeographed.

Summary of State labor laws for women. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, August 1944. 8 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

General Reports

A source list of selected labor statistics. New York 3 (31 East 10th Street), Special Libraries Association, 1944. 37 pp. Preliminary edition.

Sources of statistics for the United States published by Federal, State, and nongovernmental agencies, as of December 1943, currently available and issued more frequently than once a year.

Report of the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions. Albany, 1944. 184 pp., charts. (Legislative document, 1944, No. 50.)

Gives results of the committee's investigations in the fields of industrial and labor relations, unemployment insurance, education, business, commerce, industry, and planning for post-war reconstruction, with pertinent appendixes.

Economic report on industries operating in the municipality of St. Thomas and St. John, Virgin Islands, and in the municipality of St. Croix, Virgin Islands. New York 19 (165 West 46th Street), U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, 1944. 30 pp.; mineographed.

Report of a governmental investigation made in the Virgin Islands with respect to industries covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act, including data on number of workers, prevailing minimum wages, and average hourly earnings.

China enters the machine age: A study of labor in Chinese war industry. By Kuo-heng Shih; edited and translated by Hsiao-tung Fei and Francis L. K. Hsu. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1944. xxiv, 206 pp. $2.50.

A study of labor problems in Yunnan, based primarily on experience in a particular factory and on individual case histories.

Économie et finances de la France—passé et avenir. By Robert Wolff. New York, Brentano's, Inc., 1943. 320 pp. $2.25.

Includes information on the population, aptitudes of the people, and social legislation. The first part of the volume deals with past experience and the second with reconstruction reforms.

Industrial problems in the Middle East. By A. Michael Critchley, M. D., and I. Harvey Flack, M. D. (In British Medical Journal, London, September 9, 1944, pp. 334–337. 1s. 6d.)

Deals with the adaptability of natives to industrial employment, occupational and climatic hazards, and the effects of long hours on the health of workers.

Labor in India. By B. Shivo Rao. (In The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 233, Philadelphia, Pa., May 1944, pp. 127–133. $2 (paper) and $2.50 (cloth).

Points to the enormous industrial development of the past quarter century in India and the relative slowness in improving the situation of labor. Industrial hygiene, malnutrition, lack of skilled workers, workers' indebtedness, labor legislation, trade-unions, and labor unrest are discussed.

Memorándum: Elementos generales sobre las condiciones de trabajo, de legislación y de otros problemas sociales de la República de Bolivia. By Víctor Andrade. La Paz, Editorial Trabajo, 1943. Various paging.

Report on labor and social conditions in Bolivia, with summaries of pertinent laws and statistics of wages and social-security operations.

Anuario de estadísticas del trabajo. México, D. F., Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, 1943. 169 pp.

Contains statistics on labor organizations, employment and unemployment, industrial accidents and occupational diseases, industrial disputes, wages, hours, and cost of living in Mexico in 1942 or earlier years, with a brief historical summary covering each of these subjects.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1944