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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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Copies of Bureau of Labor Statistics publications and further information may be obtained from the several field offices, a list of which appears on the inside back cover of this issue. The services of the Bureau's Regional Directors and their technical staffs are available to labor organizations, management, and the general public for consultation on matters with which the Bureau deals, as, for example, employment, prices, wages, absenteeism, labor turnover, and industrial accidents.

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

CONTENTS

MAY 1945, Vol. 60, No. 5.

641067—45——1

This Issue in Brief

Fact-finding activities of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics, established more than 60 years ago, has become the Government's principal fact-finding agency in the field of labor economics. The article on page 927 describes the Bureau's activities, the types of data compiled, and the forms in which the materials are made available. Included in the fields of subject matter discussed are employment trends, manpower supplies and problems, labor turnover, productivity, earnings and wages, working conditions, prices and the cost of living, and industrial accidents.

Supplies of food in independent retail stores, March, 1945.

Supplies of meat were very scarce in March 1945, and two-fifths or more of the independent retail dealers were without stocks of the major grades and cuts. Butter, sugar, and shortening were in greater supply, and canned vegetables and the most important other foodstuffs were ample. The article on page 954 shows the proportions of independent dealers without supplies of 23 important foods in March 1945.

Strikes and lockouts in 1944.

During the year 1944, there were 4,956 strikes and lockouts, involving approximately 2,116,000 workers. Idleness resulting from these stoppages amounted to about 8,721,000 man-days, or 0.09 percent of the available working time. About 70 of each 1,000 wage earners employed were involved in a work stoppage at some time during the year, and were idle an average of 4.1 workdays. Sixty-nine strikes followed strike votes conducted by the National Labor Relations Board under the War Labor Disputes Act, but the workers involved in these disputes constituted less than 5 percent of all workers involved in stoppages. The National War Labor Board was directly concerned with 1,629 strikes and lockouts in 1944. An analysis of the strikes and lockouts occurring in 1944 is given in an article on page 957.

Postwar employment prospects for women in the hosiery industry.

Wartime losses of men in the hosiery industry led to the employment of women in substantial numbers. The replacement of men by women occurred not only in occupations in which the services of women had previously been utilized but also in those hitherto closed to women. In some instances, especially in the occupation of knitting, this necessitated a change in work routines and some job simplification. The gains in the employment of women will be carried over into the postwar period except for those occupations in which job simplification and the subdivision of duties were accepted only as temporary expedients. Page 978.

Labor requirements for manufacture of synthetic rubber.

Estimates by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, based on operations of the synthetic-rubber industry during 1943 and the first half of 1944, indicate that the 55 plants in the industry will require almost 20,000 employees to produce at the rated annual capacity of 833,704 long tons of crude rubber, or an average of 23.8 employees per 1,000 long tons of synthetic rubber produced, if all plants operate at designed levels. Operating employees will constitute the largest group in the work force, but plant maintenance will require almost as many workers. Approximately three-fourths of the employees will be wage earners. The number of wage earners required per unit of product decreases markedly as plant size increases; unit labor requirements for the group of smallest plants are approximately three times those for the group of largest plants. Page 990.

Shipyard injuries, 1944.

Shipyard injury records indicate that 19,000 disabling injuries were prevented and that at least 380,000 man-days were saved, to hasten the production of ships during 1944, as a result of the safety program sponsored by the Maritime Commission and the Navy Department. In 1944 the average injury-frequency rate for private shipyards was 23.2—a decrease of 23 percent from the 1943 rate. Poor housekeeping conditions and improper lifting were the leading causes of injuries to shipyard workers. Page 1018.

Sick-leave provisions in union agreements.

Of 5,000 collective agreements examined by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 350 provide paid sick leave, three-fourths of these being found in nonmanufacturing industries. Some of these stipulate full pay for a limited period, others a portion of full pay for a limited period, and a few merely supplement group insurance or workmen's compensation benefits. The maximum leave provided varies from 3 days for all regular employees to 52 weeks per year for employees with long service. Paid-sick-leave provisions are fairly prevalent in agreements covering workers in the electric, water, and gas, and the telephone and telegraph industries; and in those covering office and professional, wholesale and retail trade, and State, county, and municipal workers. Page 1023.

New nonfarm dwelling units, 1943 and 1944.

The 169,000 nonfarm family dwelling units started in 1944 were a little less than half the number started during 1943 and lower than in any year since 1934; the number had dropped by three-fourths from the prewar total of 715,000 units in 1941. Labor and material shortages have been chiefly responsible for the continued decline in 1944, and further decline may be expected in 1945.

Over 80 percent of the new units in 1944 were privately financed as compared to only slightly over half in 1943 and three-fifths in 1942 when the publicly financed war housing program was at its height.

It is estimated that construction of the 169,000 new units started in 1944 will involve expenditures of approximately 530 million dollars. Page 1053.

Annual and hourly earnings in Philadelphia knitted-outerwear industry, 1943.

Comparatively full employment was afforded to workers in the knitted outerwear industry in Philadelphia, in 1943. Of 4,051 workers employed for varying periods of time during that year, 1,380 worked at least 46 weeks and had average gross annual earnings of $1,739. Straight-time hourly earnings averaged 72.8 cents for all workers employed 6 weeks or more. Over a fourth of the workers were paid less than 50 cents an hour and about 16 percent at least $1.00 an hour. Page 1062.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit	1945			1944	1939: average for year
		March	February	January	March	
Employment						
Civilian labor force: Total (BC)	Thousands	51,660	51,430	50,960	51,360	[2] 54,230
Male	do	33,720	33,660	33,650	34,480	[2] 40,950
Female	do	17,940	17,770	17,310	16,880	[2] 13,280
Employed [3]	do	50,830	50,550	50,120	50,490	[2] 46,930
Male	do	33,230	33,170	33,160	34,010	[2] 35,600
Female	do	17,600	17,380	16,960	16,480	[2] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	43,540	43,760	43,430	43,580	[2] 37,430
Agricultural	do	7,290	6,790	6,690	6,910	[2] 9,500
Unemployed, total	do	830	880	840	870	[2] 7,300
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total [3]	do	37,998	37,936	37,934	38,725	30,353
Manufacturing	do	15,401	15,525	15,555	16,559	10,078
Mining	do	796	800	801	852	845
Construction [4]	do	598	564	564	678	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,785	3,769	3,740	3,723	2,912
Trade	do	7,048	6,980	7,030	6,919	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	4,377	4,360	4,350	4,123	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,993	5,938	5,894	5,871	3,988
Military personnel	do	12,000	12,000	11,900	10,800	362
Wage-earner employment:						
Manufacturing	do	12,952	13,083	13,117	14,056	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	335	337	338	366	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,422	1,413	1,394	1,400	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	1,520	1,494	1,434	1,627	[5] 1,875
Hours of labor						
Average hours per week of wage earners:						
Manufacturing	Hours		45.0	45.4	[6] 45.3	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do		45.7	45.4	[6] 45.2	27.1
Retail trade	do		39.7	39.5	[6] 41.0	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	39.6	39.1	38.8	38.5	32.4
Weekly earnings						
Average weekly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			$47.43	$47.52	[6] $45.47	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			$54.08	$54.25	[6] $53.03	$23.88
Retail trade			$27.32	$26.99	[6] $25.98	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$53.85	$52.89	$52.98	$49.85	$30.24
Hourly or daily earnings						
Average hourly earnings of wage earners:						
Manufacturing			$1.043	$1.047	[6] $1.003	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			$1.193	$1.205	[6] $1.179	$0.886
Retail trade			$0.756	$0.751	[6] $0.676	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.361	$1.352	$1.364	$1.296	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			$0.968	$0.971	[6] $0.931	$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1939			$0.891	$0.894	[6] $0.851	$0.622
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)		[7] $4.12		$4.15	[7] $3.58	[7] $1.53
Industrial injuries and labor turnover						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing, per million man-hours worked					[11] 18.7	15.4
Labor turnover in manufacturing:						
Total separations, per 100 employees			6.0	6.2	[6] 6.6	([8])
Quits, per 100 employees			4.3	4.6	[6] 4.6	([8])
Lay-offs, per 100 employees			0.7	0.6	[6] 0.8	([8])
Total accessions, per 100 employees			5.0	7.0	[6] 5.5	([8])
Strikes and lockouts [9]						
Strikes and lockouts beginning in month:						
Number		400	310	240	386	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	210	109	44	135	98
All strikes and lockouts during month—man-days idle:						
Number	do	860	412	228	441	1,484
Percent of available working time		0.11	0.06	0.03	0.05	0.28

See footnotes at end of table.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods—Continued

Item	Unit	1945			1944	1939: average for year
		March	February	January	March	
Cost of living						
Cost-of-living index (wage earners in large cities): All items [10]	1935–39=100	126.8	126.9	127.1	123.8	99.4
Food	1935–39=100	135.9	136.5	137.3	134.1	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	143.7	143.3	143.0	136.7	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100	108.3			108.1	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	110.0	110.0	109.7	109.9	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	144.5	144.0	143.6	129.0	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	123.6	123.4	123.3	119.1	100.7
Retail food prices (large cities)						
Retail price index: All foods	1935–39=100	135.9	136.5	137.3	134.1	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	108.7	108.7	108.7	108.0	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	130.8	130.7	130.2	130.6	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	133.5	133.5	133.5	133.6	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	140.7	153.2	169.6	135.5	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	169.5	168.9	168.9	162.9	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	124.5	124.5	124.4	124.4	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	123.7	123.5	123.4	123.5	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	126.5	126.3	126.4	126.5	100.6
Wholesale prices						
Wholesale price index; all commodities	1926=100	105.3	105.2	104.9	103.8	77.1
All commodities other than farm products.	1926=100	100.4	100.2	100.1	99.3	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods.	1926=100	99.2	99.2	99.1	98.1	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	127.2	127.0	126.2	123.6	65.3
Foods	1926=100	104.6	104.7	104.7	104.6	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments, total (BFDC)	Millions of dollars.	13,725	12,743	13,357	12,979	[5] 5,809
Consumer expenditures for goods and services, total (BFDC).	do	[11] 24,380			[11] 22,440	[11] 14,256
Retail sales, total (BFDC)	do	6,346	5,166	5,462	5,581	[5] 3,379
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total.	1935–39=100	232	232	230	238	109
Manufacturing	1935–39=100	250	250	247	257	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	136	135	134	133	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons.	52,360	46,900	52,760	54,880	32,905
Construction expenditures, all types (excluding maintenance, except in farm construction).	Millions of dollars.	373	349	348	350	[5] 454
Building construction started in urban areas	do	104	79	67	91	([8])
New family-dwelling units in nonfarm areas		13,100	8,500	7,400	18,100	[5] 42,900
Carloadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	136	130	132	132	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.

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

[3] Excludes employees on public emergency work, these being included in unemployed civilian labor force. Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments differs from employment in civilian labor force, 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] March.

[6] February.

[7] April.

[8] Not available.

[9] The same series as those formerly published in this table as "strikes."

[10] For the coverage of this index, see p. 1079.

[11] First quarter.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

MAY 1945

Fact-Finding Activities of the Bureau of Labor Statistics [1]

THE act of Congress under which the Bureau of Labor Statistics operates defines its function as that of acquiring and diffusing information on subjects connected with labor "in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word." During its 60-year history, the Bureau has become the Government's principal fact-finding agency in the field of labor economics, particularly with respect to the collection and analysis of data on employment and manpower developments, wages, working conditions, price trends, and the costs and standards of living. The present war, as did World War I, the depression of the 1930's, and other economic and social crises, necessitated some redirection of the Bureau's work in order to meet the needs of the times. The changes, however, have been in the nature of shifts in emphasis, and there has been no modification in basic approach. The Bureau's activities continue to be geared to provide the kinds of facts required for the solution of present-day and probable future economic problems as they arise or can be predicted with some assurance.

The complex problems which grew out of the present conflict, together with consideration of the postwar adjustments that will have to be made, are reflected in the scope of the Bureau's current operations to a marked degree. Typical of recent developments is the extension of its work in the collection of price and wage data to provide a factual basis for administration of the stabilization programs by the agencies charged with those responsibilities. This and other tasks assigned to the Bureau have resulted in a very great increase in the volume of data available in its files. Simultaneously, shortages in manpower and materials have made it impossible to prepare much of this information for general distribution. The purpose of the present discussion is to provide a brief description of the Bureau's more important activities, together with some notes on the types of data which are published, or can be made available on request, and the purposes which they may serve.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has no enforcement or administrative functions of any sort. Virtually all of the basic data it collects from workers, businessmen, and other governmental agencies are supplied by these individuals through voluntary cooperation based on their interest in and need for the analyses and summaries which result. It follows, therefore, that the research and statistical projects planned by the Bureau grow out of the needs of these same groups for informa-

[1] Prepared by Harold R. Hosea, in cooperation with the Bureau's Branch Chiefs.

tion of one kind or another, and its program is based on these requirements as they are made known by the representatives of labor, management, and other Government agencies. Cooperation is facilitated by the fact that the materials compiled by the Bureau are presented typically as statistical summaries. The confidential data supplied by individuals cooperating in its studies are never released, even to another Government agency, in a form which would disclose information on the operations of an individual firm or organization, unless permission has been obtained in advance from those who furnished the materials.

Space does not permit anything approaching a complete enumeration of the wide variety of statistical and research materials assembled by the Bureau. It is hoped, however, that the following description of the general nature of the Bureau's work in the several broad fields will help to make this large volume of information more readily accessible.

Employment and the Labor Force

One of the Bureau's most important continuing functions is the task of providing current information on the status and characteristics of the employed segment of the Nation's labor force. Basic data on the total working population are compiled by the Bureau of the Census through the decennial censuses and the Monthly Report on the Labor Force. This information is collected from the individuals who constitute the labor force; the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the other hand, is responsible for assembling and presenting the materials on total nonagricultural employment furnished by industrial and commercial establishments, i.e., employers. These activities and, consequently, the data which result fall into two general groups. The first is made up of a series of regular or periodic reports on the trends of employment and the characteristics of the workers in a wide variety of industries. The second type of undertaking is concerned with analyses of special problems relating to the characteristics of the labor force, the outlook for employment in the future, manpower needs, and allied subjects.

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

In order to provide basic information on the trend of employment, more than 115,000 establishments voluntarily supply the Bureau with regular reports on the numbers of workers during a representative pay period in each month. Information on total man-hours worked and aggregate wages paid are also shown on the same questionnaire. The firms which report constitute a carefully selected cross section of some 150 manufacturing industries; consequently, it is possible to estimate the general trend for each of these industries by relating the experience of these sample firms to benchmark data in the form of complete counts made at infrequent intervals. Similar information is made available for the more important nonmanufacturing industries such as retail trade, construction, and utilities. To these data are added the information in reports from Federal, State, and local government agencies. The result is an estimate of the total volume of nonagricultural employment.

This information may be found in a mimeographed monthly report entitled "Employment and Pay Rolls: Detailed Report," which also includes the corresponding pay-roll indexes and State estimates of total nonagricultural employment. War conditions have made it necessary to reduce the numbers and distribution of most of the Bureau's publications. For this reason, the detailed reports are sent only to organizations urgently in need of the data at the earliest possible moment. Much of this information is also published in the Monthly Labor Review approximately 3 to 4 weeks after the appearance of the preliminary release. A brief general summary of the employment situation, providing an over-all estimate and data for broad industry groups, is issued in the form of a release about the middle of the month following that to which the information relates. Another mimeographed monthly release provides indexes of employment in manufacturing industries for about 100 metropolitan areas or cities. Summaries showing the numbers of women employed in manufacturing industries are also prepared from time to time.

Scope of the Data

The types of information outlined in the foregoing paragraphs have evolved over a period of nearly 25 years. Indexes of employment and pay rolls, based on this voluntary reporting system by employers, are available back to 1923; prior to that date, and extending back to 1909, similar but less detailed material was compiled from the several Censuses of Manufactures. For a number of reasons, none of the series can be regarded as completely continuous over the entire period. In the first place, the number of industrial and commercial establishments is so great as to preclude the possibility of a complete monthly census; consequently, sampling procedures must be used. Irrespective of the adequacy of any sample, biases are likely to develop over periods of time, partly as a result of changes in the characteristics of the industry as a whole. It is necessary, therefore, to evaluate the sample from time to time as benchmarks (i.e., data based on complete enumerations) become available. From 1923 to 1939, the Bureau's estimates were revised, as necessary, on the basis of the biennial Census of Manufactures. No such census has been undertaken since 1939, and the revisions have therefore been made largely on the basis of reports to the Bureau of Employment Security in connection with the unemployment-compensation program and to the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance.

One of the most complex problems has been the industrial classification of individual establishments which are, of course, grouped according to principal product or service. This perennial difficulty has been greatly aggravated by the wholesale conversions brought about by the war production program. Because the Bureau's indexes are designed primarily to measure trends, the reporting firms have been retained in the industrial classifications which correspond to their products or services in 1939; the actual employment estimates have been revised on the basis of 1943 data from the Bureau of Employment Security. The monthly employment and pay-roll indexes are available back to January 1939 on the current base. The data for earlier periods have been prepared only in terms of indexes based on the average for 1923–25 as 100.

It is possible in some cases to link the employment and pay-roll trend data for periods prior to January 1939 with the more recent information; the extent to which this can be done depends on the degree of stability of the industry in question, as currently defined. In some cases—apparel manufacturing, for example—individual plants are unlikely to change the nature of their products sufficiently to require shifting them from one industry classification to another. On the other hand, a plant originally producing automobile parts, for instance, may, with comparative ease, shift to radio manufacturing and thus bring about a change in its classification. These problems are complicated further in some cases by the necessity for revising and amplifying the classification system itself in order to keep pace with technological changes and the development of new products and consumption patterns. The Bureau recognizes the genuine need of management, labor, and governmental agencies for long-time trend data on employment and pay rolls, particularly in connection with the planning of future operations, and is glad to consider special requests for data of this type when they are not available in the published series.

EMPLOYMENT IN INDIVIDUAL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

The demands of the war on industry, particularly for munitions, have made it necessary for the Bureau to devote increasing attention to the movement of employment and earnings in plants manufacturing aircraft, ships, arms, ammunition, and similar items. These activities have involved the preparation of data for industries made up of plants classified on the basis of current output rather than peacetime products or services as in the case of the regular trend series. The summaries made available include detailed data on employment, working conditions, and production in the aircraft and shipbuilding industries. Typical are articles entitled "Employment in the Shipbuilding Industry, 1935–43," and "Wartime Development of the Aircraft Industry," which appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for May and November 1944, respectively. In addition to these statistical reports, the Bureau has prepared numerous estimates of manpower requirements in the more important war industries for the use of the Army, the Navy, the War Manpower Commission, and other operating agencies. Some of these materials are available for general use; an article entitled "Current Developments in Manpower Requirements and Labor Supply," which appears in the Monthly Labor Review for December 1944, is illustrative.

EMPLOYMENT IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

As noted earlier, the principal sources of the Bureau's extensive data on employment and pay rolls are employers throughout the United States. The construction industry, however, presents a number of unique problems, three of which are sufficiently important to warrant brief mention here. In the first place, the typical construction contractor does not operate continuously in a fixed location as do factories, wholesale houses, and similar establishments. The contractors' principal operations are at the construction sites and change from month to month or even from week to week. Second, the fluctuations

in employment and pay rolls tend to be frequent and large. Both of these factors detract seriously from the effectiveness of a current reporting system such as that used for industries in which employment is relatively stable and fixed. Finally, it is essential, for numerous reasons which are obvious, to distinguish between private construction and building operations financed wholly or in part from public funds.

The necessity for finding solutions to these technical problems has resulted in the development of numerous series, related to construction activities, which provide a considerable background in addition to the trend of employment and pay rolls. One of the principal sources of primary data on the volume of building construction is found in the files of building permits which are required in the great majority of urban communities; it is estimated that 80 to 85 percent of the Nation's urban population is in municipalities which require such permits. The Bureau receives information from this source from virtually all of these communities. Although the permits do not contain information on employment and pay rolls, the data on type of construction, numbers of structures, and estimated costs provide accurate guides to the volume of employment in this segment of the building-construction industry. Another important source of information is that pertaining to construction financed from Federal funds. Data of this sort, including employment and pay-roll information, are supplied to the Bureau by the governmental agencies involved. Supplementary sources of information at present are available in the files of priorities on materials issued by the War Production Board; employment reports are also obtained by the Bureau from certain groups of individual contractors. Thousands of construction projects of all types have been analyzed by the Bureau, and these experience records, together with the current reports from various sources on construction activities, provide the basis for estimating employment in the construction industry as a whole, public as well as private.

The principal statistical results of these regular compilations are summarized for general use in the special section on Building Construction, in each issue of the Monthly Labor Review. They are also given in more detail in the publication, Construction, a monthly summary which makes available, under a single cover, the various data which formerly appeared only in individual releases. In addition to employment and pay-roll indexes for the construction industry, this latter publication includes current and detailed monthly data on construction expenditures by type of project and source of funds, together with building-construction valuations by State, city, size of community, and source of funds. The statistics show also the numbers of dwelling units started each month, wholesale and retail prices of building materials, and similar types of data.

At least equal in importance to these current statistical reports are special analyses of the construction industry undertaken from time to time. The sharp decline in construction activities during the war has resulted in a backlog of essential building, both residential and nonresidential. It follows that this industry is likely to become vastly more important after the cessation of hostilities and will play a vitally essential role in a postwar full-employment program, irrespective of whether it is necessary to supplement privately financed construction with a program of public works. The Bureau's fund of knowledge on

the volume and nature of the employment furnished by different types of construction activities is invaluable in this connection. Detailed analyses of project operations involved in the public-works program of the 30's have been completed, and, on the basis of these data, it is possible to determine with a high degree of accuracy the numbers and types of workers required for an individual project as well as the amount of employment provided both at the site and in other areas where the necessary construction materials are manufactured. The postwar plans for public works in a number of States and individual communities have been analyzed by the Bureau, and estimates of the amounts and types of on-site and off-site employment involved have been supplied.

Broad summaries of this important industry, for general use, are contained in three recent Bureau publications. The first, entitled "The Construction Industry in the United States," is an exhaustive analysis of the industry's characteristics and trends during the period 1915–43. The probable future of the industry, with particular reference to its importance as a stabilizing factor, is discussed in detail in two recent publications under the titles, "Postwar Capacity and Characteristics of the Construction Industry," and "Probable Volume of Postwar Construction," which are available in Bureau Bulletins Nos. 786 and 825,[1] respectively.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT

The Bureau's regular reports also include information on employment and pay rolls in Federal, State and local governments as well as statistics on military personnel. Special studies undertaken from time to time include such analyses as the geographic distribution of Federal civilian employees, occupations and salaries in the Federal Government, and municipal pay rolls, The trend of public employment in the United States from 1929 to 1939 and some of the possible postwar developments were discussed in the February 1945 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Although considerations of safety make it impossible to release all of the data on military personnel at present, this information will be made available later, to assist in solving the numerous complex problems which are almost certain to arise during the demobilization and postwar periods.

COLLABORATION IN REPORTING IN STATE AND LOCAL AREAS

The companies which now supply the Bureau with regular reports on employment and pay rolls, as noted previously, constitute a large and representative Nation-wide cross section of some 150 manufacturing industries and selected nonmanufacturing industries. With comparatively few exceptions, however, these samples of establishments are not sufficiently large in number to provide an adequate basis for employment estimates in individual industries for States and metropolitan areas. In the postwar readjustment period the emphasis will be upon local and State problems in the solution of which the general Nation-wide data are not particularly useful. Thus, employment-trend data for the machine-tool industry as a whole will not provide the facts necessary for detailed planning in a particular area. A substantial expansion of the Bureau's employment-reporting system,

[1] Bulletin No. 825 in press; not yet available for distribution.

operated principally through its eight regional offices, is now in progress and will make it possible to provide data on employment, pay rolls, and earnings for each State.

It is also important to note that this expanded program is based on a continuation and extension of the Bureau's policy of compiling these data, as far as possible, in collaboration with the several State Departments of Labor.[2] In 19 States, the Bureau and the States collect the employment and pay-roll data on a single form, thus avoiding duplication of reporting by employers. In many cases, the data are analyzed and published by the State agency and reports are sent to the Bureau in Washington for inclusion in the national totals. In return, the Bureau underwrites a part of the expense incurred by the States in collecting the information. This cooperative arrangement has proved to be effective and economical, and further decentralization and extension of these Federal-State programs are now in progress.

EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK

The most effective use of the Nation's labor force, whether under a program of maximum production in wartime or a plan for full employment in peace, is not a mere matter of equating the number of jobs and the total available labor force. During the war the Bureau's activities in this field of analysis have centered around problems of manpower requirements and labor supply. Aside from the special needs arising out of the war, information as to probable changes in employment are required by governmental agencies, by labor and industry, and by individuals. The Bureau has therefore attempted to bring its experience in the measuring and analysis of employment trends to bear on the problems of anticipating future developments.

To meet the needs of vocational counselors and agencies with responsibility for assisting demobilized soldiers and war workers to find the most suitable jobs after the war, the Bureau has been expanding its work in the field of occupational studies. These studies are designed to provide information on employment opportunities in specific occupations, the training and other requirements, wages, and working conditions and, so far as possible, some indication of the kind of a life such an occupation affords. Occupational studies published include "Employment Opportunities for Diesel-Engine Mechanics," in the Monthly Labor Review for February 1945 and a series on "Postwar Employment Outlook in Aviation Occupations," beginning in the April 1945 issue.

Studies of the outlook for employment in each major industry are of value both in themselves and as a necessary step in appraising the outlook for the occupations each industry employs. The Bureau has conducted studies in this field, reviewing historical trends in employment, and analyzing the factors affecting future employment trends. Underlying the industry studies is a broad analysis of major trends in employment. An example of this type of study is the article "Factors Affecting Postwar Job Transfers and Unemployment," in the February 1944 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Examples of the industry studies include an article on "Trend of Employment in the

[2] In Pennsylvania, part of the information is compiled by the Philadelphia Federal Reserve Bank and, in Texas, by the State University.

Aluminum-Products Industry," in the February 1944 issue of the Monthly Labor Review, and the articles on postwar construction activity referred to above.

Manpower Requirements and Labor Supply

Since the beginning of the defense program, a continuous analysis has been carried on with respect to labor requirements for munitions production and the changes in employment in all other components of the economy resulting from the war program. The purpose of these analyses has been to indicate, in the changing phases of the war, the demands for industrial and military manpower in relation to the available sources of labor supply. The work has involved, particularly, the development of techniques of estimating future labor requirements based upon official war production schedules, and has been carried on cooperatively with the War Manpower Commission and with the assistance of the War Production Board and other Government agencies. The joint statements prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Reports and Analysis Service of the War Manpower Commission have been officially submitted to the Chairman and members of the War Manpower Commission and subsequently issued to the public by means of press releases and in articles in the Monthly Labor Review and the Labor Market. The seventh in the series of joint public statements appeared in the February 1945 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

In conjunction with the Bureau's studies of manpower requirements, work in the field of labor-force analysis was initiated early in 1942. Changes in the size and composition of the labor force during the war have been analyzed primarily from two points of view—the availability of additional sources of labor supply to meet wartime industrial and military needs, and the probable size of the labor force after the war. The results of the labor-supply studies have been incorporated in the periodic manpower-requirements statements issued jointly by the Bureau and the War Manpower Commission, and have been presented in detail in articles in the Monthly Labor Review (see, for example, Sources of Wartime Labor Supply in the United States, in the August 1944 issue, and Teen-Age Youth in the Wartime Labor Force, in the January 1945 issue).

In many areas, the war has caused drastic changes in labor requirements and in industrial organization. At the same time, the character of the labor force has undergone marked changes because of migration, the induction of large numbers into the armed forces, and the addition of "extra" workers (estimated at about 6.7 million in 1944) who would normally be outside the labor market. In collaboration with State and local authorities, the War Manpower Commission, and other agencies, the Bureau has studied the impact of the war on more than 175 communities and thus provided the factual basis for implementation of State and local postwar plans.

PRODUCTIVITY AND TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS

The productivity of labor is a significant factor in determining manpower requirements and employment levels, whether the objective be maximum production as in war or full employment under peacetime conditions. Adam Smith's classic description of the effects

of the introduction of machinery in the manufacture of pins is still indicative of the industrial changes that are going on today, with far-reaching implications to labor. New techniques are noted by the Bureau in a monthly Summary of Technological Developments which contains abstracts from a large number of trade and technical journals. An extensive record of such changes in techniques and processes is included in a recapitulation of the materials carried in the monthly reports for 1942 and 1943, arranged by subject and index. This summary, now in press, is designed to supply employers, labor, and Government officials responsible for framing national policy with guidance on trends in productivity and technological innovations.

The Bureau has also prepared indexes of productivity and unit labor cost for the more important manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. Annual indexes are currently available for about 25 manufacturing industries, 6 mining industries, steam-railroad transportation, agriculture, etc. Special studies have been completed or are under way for shipbuilding, alumina and aluminum production, and aircraft. During the war, it has not been possible to continue the preparation of productivity indexes for a number of important manufacturing industries. The Census of Manufactures, the most complete source of production data, has not been taken since 1939. In some industries, which have converted to war production, the industry structure has become exceedingly complex and it has not been possible to obtain the comparable statistics for production and labor which are necessary in the preparation of an index of productivity. The productivity data are published in a series of mimeographed releases. In addition, more detailed reports analyzing the changes in productivity have appeared as articles in the Monthly Labor Review. Among the articles which have been published in recent years are studies on flour milling, cement, meat packing, steam-railroad transportation, copper mining, lead and zinc mining, electric-energy generation, and agriculture.

It is possible, by means of field studies, to obtain more complete and detailed information on productivity than is ordinarily available from secondary sources. Usually the analysis within each plant is made on a departmental basis, and records of labor input, production, equipment in use, and equipment changes are obtained. A field study thus permits a rather complete analysis of the absolute level of output per man-hour, the reasons for productivity changes within an industry, and the effects of productivity changes on employment and on occupations; also, such studies usually provide some basis for anticipating future changes.

Few such field studies have been possible for complete industries during the war period. For those made, the reports have usually been issued in mimeographed or printed form and have almost invariably appeared in shortened form in the Monthly Labor Review.

Both the technological developments in particular industries and the technological relations among industries are analyzed by the Bureau. Data relative to the flow of goods and services among the different industries are compiled and the information so obtained is used to estimate the effect on employment and output in each industry of a given volume and kind of final demand. The output of any one industry is dependent upon the level of activity in those other industries which utilize its products. The output of lumber depends,

for example, upon the volume of construction; freight-car mileage is in turn related to the output of the lumber industry, while bituminous-coal production is partly determined by the fuel demands of freight trains. Insofar as these relations grow out of technological ties or settled customs, they may be expected to remain relatively stable and to provide some basis for anticipating the effects of a major change in one segment of the national economy on the output and employment of all the other segments.

A systematic study of these relations has been completed for 1939 and the results have been published in summary form in a large table which shows for each of 20 main industries both the distribution of its output among the other 19 industries and the distribution of its purchases from them. The relationships shown by the table have been used in several unpublished studies and are now being applied in a study of possible postwar full-employment patterns. In addition to use in studying broad economic questions, the data may be used by an industry to measure the extent of its dependence, both direct and indirect, on the activity of any other industry.

LABOR TURNOVER

One important guide in ascertaining the degree of stability in the employed segment of the labor force is found in the rate of turnover, i. e., the relative frequency with which workers leave or are added to the pay rolls of individual establishments. About 98,000 establishments, which currently employ some 8 million workers, supply turnover data to the Bureau each month. The results are issued in the form of preliminary mimeographed releases and are also published regularly in the Monthly Labor Review. Separate rates, which are in terms of separations and accessions per 100 employees, are shown for about 100 industries; some 90 of them are manufacturing industries. The data on separations provide considerable detail including rates for quits, lay-offs, discharges, and military and miscellaneous separations. Separate figures for men and women are computed for 3 industries important to the war effort. Although the published summaries of these data provide only Nation-wide totals for individual industries, rates for individual areas are compiled from time to time in response to special requests. As in the case of many other types of information prepared by the Bureau, these data on turnover rates have proved highly useful to individual companies and labor organizations because they provide a norm against which the experience of an individual plant may be checked and evaluated.

In the spring of 1943 the Bureau began the compilation of data on absenteeism from a representative sample of individual plants, principally those engaged in the production of war materials. This information, which was made available in monthly mimeographed summaries showing absence rates (in percentages of total scheduled working time) by industry and sex, was used extensively in estimating manpower requirements and in developing measures designed to increase the effectiveness of the war production program. This activity was discontinued at the end of 1944 (except for the aircraft and shipbuilding industries), since, for some time, general absence rates had shown no striking changes from the general patterns suggested by the data compiled over a period of nearly 2 years.

Earnings and Wages

The collection and interpretation of data on the earnings of labor have made up a substantial proportion of the Bureau's work throughout its entire history. During the past 2½ years, the need for information in this field has increased markedly, in part as a result of the wage-stabilization program. Because of its long experience in wage research, the Bureau has been the principal source of such information, and a large part of its program has been devoted to meeting the needs of the National War Labor Board and other agencies responsible for the administration of wage control.

The recurring reports on the trend of earnings and wages provide seven different types of measure, each with certain unique characteristics which reflect the need for a particular kind of yardstick. Five of these measures relate to the actual earnings of workers while the remaining two are concerned more with basic wage rates. The principal characteristics, limitations, and possible uses of each of these measures are described in the following paragraphs. A more extended discussion may be found in an article entitled, "Wartime Wage Movements and Urban Wage Rate Changes" which appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for October 1944.

TREND OF EARNINGS

The principal source of the Bureau's data on the trend of earnings is the voluntary reporting system described above in connection with the estimates of volume of employment. The reports supplied by the 150,000 cooperating companies contain, in addition to the employment data, information on total man-hours worked and total pay rolls for the pay period nearest the 15th of each month. From these reports and certain supplementary information, the five measures of earnings prepared by the Bureau are computed.

Average weekly earnings, the first of these measures, derived merely by dividing total pay rolls by total wage earners, have been summarized in mimeographed releases and in the Monthly Labor Review since 1932 and are prepared currently for the same 200-odd industries referred to above in connection with the employment-trend data. The continuity of the earnings series is subject to the same limitations noted in that discussion, and revised data, based on the industrial classification of individual establishments in terms of their peacetime products and services, are available only from January 1939. As in the case of the employment series for certain individual industries, it is possible to link the current trend-of-earnings data with those for periods prior to 1939; the extent to which this can be done depends on the degree of stability of the particular industry involved.[3] The same is true of gross average hourly earnings, the second type of measure, which is computed by dividing total pay rolls in an industry by the aggregate man-hours worked.

As the need for maximum production of war materials became more urgent and manpower shortages more acute, the workweek was lengthened appreciably and night work increased. This resulted in a marked rise in gross average weekly and hourly earnings because of the added hours and the steadily increasing importance of premium

[3] See p. 930.

payments for overtime and night work. The Bureau's third type of measure, estimated straight-time average hourly earnings, represents an attempt to provide an index which is not affected by overtime premium earnings. The effect of the overtime premiums is eliminated through the use of a formula developed through a detailed analysis of data from earlier studies of earnings; because of the burden of clerical work involved, it has not been practicable during the war for cooperating firms to report these amounts separately.

Even this somewhat more refined index reflects the influence of a number of factors apart from the movement of wage rates themselves. In the case of data for groups of industries, the earnings averages tend to be affected by any net movements of workers from one industry to another whenever the industries involved show, as they frequently do, differences in general wage levels. This factor has been especially important during the development of the war production program, because of the heavy migration of workers into war industries which tend, in general, to show comparatively higher wage levels. Elimination of the effects of this factor is accomplished by weighting the earnings averages for major industry groups on the basis of their importance in terms of employment prior to and during the war. The Bureau prepares three series of adjusted averages of this general (i. e., the fourth) type: One, based on peacetime conditions, reflects the distribution of employment, by industry, in 1939; another, in which the employment weights are those of January 1941, provides a series on the base date used in connection with the wage-stabilization program; the third is based on October 1942.

The several series on the trend of earnings have many important general and specific uses. For example, the data on straight-time earnings form the statistical basis for wage-rate escalator clauses inserted in long-time Government contracts such as those covering the construction of battleships. Through this device, the contractor, the workers, and the Government are protected from losses or other inequities which might otherwise result from general economic changes that ordinarily cannot be predicted so far in advance.

The fifth measure of earnings developed from the Bureau's monthly reports from employers represents an attempt to trace the movement of spendable earnings. Briefly, this device is in the form of an index which, starting with the data on gross average weekly earnings, includes successive adjustments designed to take account of pay-roll deductions for social security and income taxes and bond purchases, and the movement of retail prices. Although this measure still lacks numerous refinements which would be necessary to make it a precise tool, it does nevertheless serve as a rough guide to the trend of real wages. Current trends, as revealed by these measures of earnings, are summarized briefly in the Monthly Labor Review.

WAGES

Index of Wage Rates

The remaining two measures of the pay received by wage earners involve the assembly of material on wage rates as distinguished from earnings. The collection of data on prevailing rates for specific jobs in individual industries and areas is one of the Bureau's oldest activities; studies of this general type have been made for more than 50

years. Currently, however, a general index of urban wage rates, the sixth type of measure of earnings and wages, is prepared at intervals of 6 months; this continuous series represents a new development in the field.

This index of wage rates grew out of the need for a measure which would be unaffected by changes in the length of the workweek, in the amounts of premium payments for overtime and night work, interindustry and interarea shifts in volume of employment, variations in occupational (and skill) distributions within individual plants and industries, and other factors, all of which are reflected in statistics on the levels of earnings as computed from reports on employment, man-hours, and total pay rolls. The desirability of having such a device was accentuated during the war period by the need for a means of determining the effectiveness of the wage-stabilization program in which the principal emphasis has been on control over basic rates rather than total earnings.

The Bureau's considerable experience in collecting occupational wage-rate data provided the necessary mechanics. Prior to the war these activities consisted mainly of Nation-wide studies designed to provide a detailed analysis of the wage structure and characteristics of an individual industry. The data for these studies, which still play a prominent role in the Bureau's wage work, are collected in the course of visits made by Bureau representatives to each plant in the samples selected as representative of the industries. The information is compiled from company pay rolls and other official records. The use of the questionnaire method in the collection of occupational wage-rate data is generally unsatisfactory largely because the wide differences among plants, industries, and areas in the use and meaning of occupational titles and in job content seriously undermine the comparability of the information. The Bureau's representatives are, therefore, provided with standard job descriptions, developed in consultation with employer and employee organizations, which they use in classifying the workers in each plant studied.

The preparation of a wage-rate index from data collected in this fashion necessitated the use of certain short cuts, since it is physically impossible to compile wage information on all the jobs in all industries at frequent intervals. Data available in the Bureau's files tended to substantiate the hypothesis that periodic checks on a balanced selection of the more important industries (in terms of volume of employment) would provide an adequate index. Consequently, the data collected periodically are limited to some 10 standard nonmanufacturing industries and a varying number of manufacturing industries which are important in the individual areas. Further, experience showed that it was unnecessary to assemble rate data for all the occupations in an industry. It is thus possible to restrict the collection of data to a comparatively few jobs which can be defined precisely, are common to most plants in an industry, are numerically important, and represent different levels of skill. The trend of rates established for these key jobs is then applied to the remaining occupations by imputation. Finally, the index is restricted to urban areas and is currently based on the movement of rates in some 6,600 establishments distributed among 69 cities and metropolitan centers.

The effects of period-to-period changes in occupational distribution and the movement of workers between high- and low-wage areas and

industries are eliminated by the use of constant occupational and employment weights developed from the Bureau's previous studies. The influence of variations in the workweek and premium payments is excluded, since the data compiled are basic wage rates for workers paid by the hour, day, week, or other period of time, and the actual straight-time earnings of employees paid under piece-work, production-bonus, or other incentive systems. The latest report on this index of wage rates appeared in the February 1945 issue of the Monthly Labor Review and contained a summary of developments since January 1941.

The movement of wage rates, as measured by this index, is not limited to that which results from general or "across-the-board" increases or decreases, since it also reflects changes resulting from merit raises, increases in the productivity (and, ordinarily, the earnings) of incentive workers, and adjustments made in the cases of individuals or small groups of workers. The Bureau also reports the extent of general wage increases (which are defined as simultaneous adjustments applied to 10 percent or more of the workers in a plant or industry). This measure, which is the seventh type prepared by the Bureau, tends, as might be expected, to show the smallest changes of any of those described.

Data for Wage-Stabilization Program

Administration of the wage-stabilization program by the National War Labor Board has required a volume of occupational wage-rate data far greater than any collected previously. The experience of the Bureau was utilized for this purpose, and its facilities expanded to meet the requirements of the stabilization agencies. Since the inception of the program, occupational wage-rate data have been compiled from the records of more than 100,000 establishments representing virtually every type of industrial and commercial activity. The industries covered varied considerably from area to area, since the studies were geared to the needs of the several Regional War Labor Boards. The results of these studies take two forms. In the majority of cases, they represent summaries of the going or prevailing rates for specific jobs in individual industries and labor-market areas. Some 8,000 such tabulations have been prepared for the use of the War Labor Board in determining its "wage brackets" or approvable rates. In addition, substantial numbers of special studies have been undertaken to provide a factual basis for the settlement of wage disputes or the conduct of wage negotiations. These surveys ordinarily involve specialized plants or companies which present unique problems with respect to occupational or wage-rate characteristics; they are made in response to specific requests from arbitration agencies, management, or trade-union officials.

As time and facilities permit, data from studies of these two types are prepared for general use. Typical is an article entitled "Wage Rates in the Manufacture of Molded Plastics in Chicago," in the February 1945 issue of the Monthly Labor Review; others have been released in mimeographed form. All of these data, including unpublished materials, are, however, on file in the Bureau's several regional offices, a list of which may be found on the inside back cover of this issue of the Review, and summaries are supplied on request to any individual or organization in need of them.

Industry Wage Surveys

As already noted, for more than 50 years the Bureau has made studies of the wage-structure characteristics of individual industries. Because of the extensive field work and analysis involved, it has been possible to study but two to five complete industries each year. Among those recently covered are rayon fiber and lumber. The reports include, in addition to average hourly earnings or rates for all of the important occupations by industry branch, area, and sex, detailed information on shift operations, policies governing the payment of premiums for overtime and night work, incentive-wage systems, provisions for vacations and sick leave, wage guaranties, holiday allowances, and other conditions of employment. Ordinarily, these studies include all or a large and representative Nation-wide sample of the plants in a given industry. The results are usually presented in the form of national summaries, supplemented by special treatment of individual areas in which the industry is concentrated. Extensive descriptions of the findings of these studies are reported in the Monthly Labor Review and in the Bureau's bulletins. The many analyses of occupational patterns and job content, wage-structure characteristics, the labor force, technological processes and developments, and other descriptive data on individual industries resulting from these studies constitute one of the most inclusive sources of information available in this field.

The urgent need for wage data to be used in connection with the operation of the wage-stabilization program, as noted above, required some redirection of the Bureau's work in this field, and there has been less emphasis on industry-wide surveys during the war. Basic information on the wage structure, occupational characteristics, and working conditions of the Nation's more important peacetime industries will, however, be of paramount importance after the war. The development of reemployment policies, determination of wage rates and working conditions, the establishment of effective collective-bargaining procedures, vocational guidance and education programs, and the solution of many other problems which will accompany the shift to a peacetime economy will be effective only if they are based on adequate facts.

The Bureau's plans, therefore, include provision for recurring detailed surveys, similar in general pattern to those conducted in the past, of individual industries such, for example, as steel, machinery, textiles, apparel, and others which are basic in the national economy. Work on the first study of the metalworking industries is now in progress. The national summaries based on these surveys will be supplemented by tabulations for individual areas. In addition to these Nation-wide studies, a limited number of surveys will cover certain industries which are important in individual areas; typical are metal mining and petroleum refining.

Union Wage Rates

The wage levels and characteristics of certain important industries are, in large part, those agreed upon by individual or associations of employers and trade-unions. The Bureau has made annual studies of the rates in certain of these industries for nearly 40 years. Currently, the data are collected from employers and union officials in the more important places and cover all of the key jobs in printing

and publishing, local streetcar and bus operations, the building trades, motor trucking, and bakeries. The information now compiled reflects rates in effect as of July 1 of each year, and summaries, showing rates for individual occupations in each of about 75 cities, appear regularly in the Monthly Labor Review.

Special Studies

The Bureau's program in each of the individual fields of labor economics is built around a nucleus of continuing activities, but special studies designed to provide the answers to other and often unique questions are equally important. An outstanding example is the current study of Work and Wage Experience. Changes in war schedules and military requirements have caused marked shifts of workers from plant to plant and from area to area, as well as considerable retraining for new occupations. In the period following the war, industrial shifts from war to peacetime production will entail even greater dislocations; millions of workers, either by choice or from necessity, will be leaving the war production plants and centers and, along with returning veterans, will be seeking occupational readjustment. Solution of the many problems which will arise requires detailed knowledge of the occupational earnings and the employment experiences that are associated with changes in jobs. The study now in process will cover about 5,000 workers chosen from all parts of the country and a variety of industries. They represent two broad groups: (1) Workers, including veterans, who will be directly affected by shifts in war production and by the change to peacetime activities; and (2) for purposes of comparison, workers who are unlikely to be affected markedly by these factors. The information, to be collected at least twice a year directly from the workers who have agreed to cooperate in the study, includes data on the education, training, experience, wages and income, migration, unemployment, and other economic and social characteristics of each worker and his family. The results of this survey are expected to provide important guidance in the determination of policies on reemployment, unemployment, training and vocational education, and a number of related problems.

Working Conditions and Industrial Relations

Analysis of conditions of employment, other than wages, is also an important part of the Bureau's work and is based on two sources—information collected during the visits to company offices made primarily for the purpose of collecting wage data (already noted), and current union agreements of which over 15,000 are on file in the Bureau. Detailed analyses of these agreements form the basis for reports on the extent and nature of provisions for paid vacations, sick leave, grievance procedures, seniority, reemployment of veterans, dismissal pay, incentive-wage systems, employment and wage guaranties, and many other matters. Such reports are of two types: Analyses of individual problems, each ordinarily covering a number of industries; and discussions of the provisions of collective agreements in a single industry. An example of the first type was the article on dismissal-pay provisions in the Monthly Labor Review for February 1945. Illustrative of the second was the study of agree-

ments in the airframe industry, in the August 1941 issue of the same periodical; that study included data on all of the more important union-agreement provisions governing working conditions and, in addition, furnished data on the extent of unionization in the industry. The Bureau's files of union agreements also serve as a source of information for individual employer and employee groups who are in need of guidance in the preparation of agreements covering working conditions. The text of standard clauses in common use is frequently supplied in response to requests for this type of information. Numerous special analyses of these agreements have also been made at the request of the National War Labor Board for information necessary in dealing with dispute cases. Further, the Bureau has summarized the effects of certain War Labor Board directives; the effect on union membership of "escape periods" in maintenance-of-membership agreements ordered by the Board is the subject of an article in the December 1944 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Closely allied to this field are the statistics on work stoppages resulting from industrial disputes, compiled monthly by the Bureau. These data, supplied by employers and union officials in response to questionnaires, include the numbers of strikes and lockouts, workers involved, and the man-days and proportions of total scheduled working time lost. Brief monthly reports and a detailed yearly analysis are published in the Monthly Labor Review, as well as material on current developments having a direct bearing on labor organizations and welfare. Illustrative of the latter are summaries of the proceedings of the more important trade-union conferences, a chronology of outstanding labor events, and digests of legislation, court decisions, and administrative rulings affecting labor.

HOURS OF WORK

No analysis of labor conditions is complete without extensive information on the length of the working day and week, since time is the basic unit in measuring labor. The relationship between work schedules and volume of employment, earnings, production, and other variables are, of course, obvious. All of the wage surveys undertaken by the Bureau since the 1880's have included detailed data on hours actually worked, as well as the length of operating schedules. The cooperative employment and pay-roll reporting system, referred to above in the discussions of employment and earnings, also provides man-hour statistics. Thus, monthly series, showing average weekly hours for each of the approximately 175 industries summarized by the Bureau, are available beginning in 1932; they appear in the mimeographed report on hours and earnings and in the Monthly Labor Review. The record attained in war production is, in no small measure, a result of the fact that the average factory workweek has increased by more than a full day since the beginning of hostilities. Any changes in working schedules will, naturally, have an important bearing on volume of employment and earnings during and after the shift to peacetime production. The almost certain decrease in weekly hours will be an especially significant factor in postwar earnings, because of the current importance of premium earnings for overtime.

These regular reports on hours, together with numerous special studies, have been put to a wide variety of uses. This information is

important, for example, in framing maximum-hour legislation for general use and for application to special groups such as women and children. Many of the Bureau's special studies in this field are directed toward determining the optimum work schedule under varying conditions. It is known, for instance, that productivity is related to the length of the working day and week, but numerous other variables such as physical strain, accident hazards, mental fatigue, and type of operation must be taken into consideration. The Bureau's investigations of this type are illustrated by an article entitled "Effects of Long Working Hours" which appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for October 1944.

INDUSTRIAL HAZARDS AND ACCIDENTS

One highly significant aspect of the whole field of working conditions has to do with accident, injuries, and the measures employed to prevent them. In order to provide a running account of the facts, the Bureau prepares monthly summaries showing accident-frequency rates for each of more than 80 manufacturing industries together with estimates of working time lost as a direct result of injuries. The data are based on voluntary reports submitted by the officials of more than 14,000 establishments. Estimates of total manpower losses resulting from disabilities caused by industrial injuries are also presented from time to time. Annual summaries of accident data include severity as well as frequency rates, and are based on reports from over 53,000 plants. This information is used extensively by labor and management groups as the basis for evaluating the experience of individual plants, and it also serves as a guide to such agencies as the Committee for the Conservation of Manpower in War Industries in connection with the planning and operation of safety campaigns. In a few cases, the data are compiled by State departments of labor in connection with industrial safety programs and are forwarded to the Bureau for incorporation in the national totals.

As in most of the Bureau's work, these regular reports are supplemented by more detailed special analyses of individual industries. Industry studies recently completed and reported in the Monthly Labor Review include foundries, longshoring operations, and shipyards. The March 1944 issue, for example, contains an article on the work injuries to women employed in shipyards. The data presented cover numbers of accidents as well as detailed information on their types and causes, the hazards commonly encountered, and the safety measures employed. The analysis of actual physical hazards is also supplemented by examination of the relationships between accident frequency, productivity, and health, on the one hand, and working conditions such, for example, as length of the work day and week, shift operations and rotation, wage-incentive systems and speed-up, rest periods, and other factors. These studies are made through actual plant visits by specially trained representatives.

Handicapped Workers

Primarily for the purpose of providing more adequate information essential to programs for the reemployment of veterans, an extensive investigation of handicapped workers has been undertaken. In addition to data on the numbers of such workers, these studies provide information on performance, absence rates, hazards to the handicapped

workers themselves and to other employees, accident frequency, and retraining experience. In each plant studied, the records of disabled workers are compared in detail with those of employees similar with respect to jobs, sex, age, and other characteristics but without physical handicaps. Precise comparisons of experience are thus possible. As a background for these statistical data, information is also being compiled on the activities of public and private agencies concerned with the rehabilitation of the handicapped.

Of special importance is the problem of compensation liability in the case of reemployed workers with disabilities resulting from previous industrial accidents. The provisions of the several State laws governing such situations differ considerably, particularly with respect to the degree of responsibility which the employer of a handicapped worker must assume in the event of a second accident. In some cases, employers are reluctant to hire disabled workers because of provisions which require them to assume all or part of the cost of compensation for a former injury if a second accident occurs. Analyses of statutes covering these situations, as well as the collection of data on the operation of public and private workmen's compensation agencies, are being undertaken to provide information essential to improvement in this field.

Prices and the Cost of Living

Comparatively early in the history of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it became apparent that adequate information for judging the relative state of welfare of the working population must include data on the prices paid for the products of their work, and the costs of various standards of living, as well as analyses of employment conditions and levels of earnings. It is not the purpose of this discussion to trace the historical development of the various attempts to measure the movement of prices and living costs, but it may be noted that much of the emphasis in the initial stages was upon wholesale prices or, as now referred to by the Bureau, prices in primary markets. The systematic compilation of retail-price indexes and their importance has been greatly increased by the economic problems of the present war period.

COST OF LIVING

The cost-of-living index prepared by the Bureau was developed during World War I as an aid to the Government in handling wage negotiations. Data for individual cities were published in 1919 and regular publication of the national index began in February 1921. The price data are currently collected as of the middle of each month and the cost-of-living indexes and food prices are released approximately 30 days later in mimeographed form; published reports appear in the following issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Data are shown for important subdivisions of the index and for individual cities.

An understanding of the purpose, scope, and limitations of the Bureau's cost-of-living index is essential to its proper interpretation and use for any purpose.[4] The index does not measure changes in

[4] For detailed discussion of this subject see Bureau of Labor Statistics reports, Description of the Cost-of-Living Index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics (May 1944), and Changes in Cost of Living in Large Cities in the United States, 1913–41 (its Bulletin No. 699); and What the Cost-of-Living Index Is, by Aryness Joy Wickens, in Journal of Business (University of Chicago), July 1944 (pp. 146–161).

total living costs—that is, in the total amount families spend for living. It is designed primarily to measure changes in the prices paid for goods and services by city families with moderate incomes. It does not show the full wartime effect on the cost of living of such factors as lowered quality, disappearance of low-priced goods, forced changes in housing, and eating away from home.

It is apparent from this statement that, first of all, the national index is based on urban prices. Food prices are collected each month in 56 cities which represent about four-fifths of the total population in cities of 100,000 or more. The prices of other important goods and services are also collected monthly in 21 cities and quarterly in 13 more; individual city indexes are published for these 34 large cities which represent somewhat over 72 percent of the total population of all cities of 100,000 or more population. Data are also compiled in 32 additional cities, and partial reports are obtained in 7 cities for use in connection with special problems which grew out of the war emergency. The resulting city indexes, however, are used locally and are not incorporated in the national average.

The prices which form the basis for the indexes are those for the more important items in the bill of goods and services purchased by the typical moderate-income family; they include food, clothing, rent, fuel, housefurnishings, transportation, personal services, and a variety of miscellaneous goods and services. Since it would obviously be impossible to price every type of article purchased by consumers, about 350 articles, including, in many instances, more than one grade or quality of item, have been selected as representative. Further, the bulk of the purchases of the typical family tends to be concentrated among relatively few items in each commodity group. Thus, for example, the price changes of canned peas, tomatoes, corn, and green beans, which ordinarily represent two-thirds to three-fourths of all canned vegetables sold, are used to represent price changes of other less-important canned items like spinach, asparagus, and carrots.

One of the most important technical problems involved in computing a single index of the price movements of such a varied bill of goods and services has to do with the relative importance or "weights" assigned to the individual priced items. The only reliable source of information on the relative importance of individual items is, of course, the actual experience of consumers. The most extensive data available are those collected in a detailed study of the expenditures of about 14,000 city wage earners' and clerical workers' families, made by the Bureau in 1934–36. Surveys of this type are obviously expensive and time consuming, and it has not been possible to conduct another study on a similar scale since. A less-exhaustive survey, covering the purchases of a smaller group of families in 1941 and the first quarter of 1942, however, indicated that there had been little change in the general pattern of spending since the mid-thirties. The weights used for individual items are, therefore, basically those derived from the large-scale 1934–36 survey which made available detailed information on the amounts and kinds of all types of goods and services bought by these families and the prices they paid for them.

Since the outbreak of the war, however, with the great change in kinds of goods on the market for civilians, it has been necessary to compute the index without many of the articles formerly included. Most important among the omissions during the war period are new

automobiles and tires; some furniture and many types of household equipment such as washing machines and radios; and silk hosiery and other articles made of silk. Wartime substitutes, including rayon hosiery and ice refrigerators, have been added whenever they were generally available. In addition, the relative importance of other items in the index have been revised in the light of the best available information on market conditions and changes in purchasing habits resulting from rationing and wartime supply problems. Part of the weight formerly applied to the purchase of new automobiles, for example, is currently assigned to the cost of repairs, and the relative importance of streetcar fares has been increased to offset in part the decrease in expenditures for gasoline and oil.

It is also important to note that the Bureau's index is based on the purchasing habits and living standards of typical low-salaried or wage-earner families with 1934–36 incomes averaging about $1,500 per year. Currently, of course, incomes are higher, but this index cannot, for numerous reasons, be regarded as a representative measure of the living costs of families with incomes substantially below $1,000 or above $3,000, single persons, households with unusually large numbers of children, or any other group with economic or social characteristics appreciably different from those of the average family as described here. It should be emphasized that the Bureau's cost-of-living index relates to changes in prices paid for goods and services and does not take account of savings and income taxes, although it does include excise and sales taxes. Therefore, in utilizing the index, it should be compared not with gross income from wages or salaries but with income available for spending. To the ordinary family it is the actual content of the pay envelope that is considered. Bond deductions and income taxes are not part of its spendable income, although bonds represent a net addition to the family's savings. In all calculations of the relative importance of goods in the index, the Bureau has based its figures upon expenditures, exclusive of bonds, other savings, and taxes.

The use of the Bureau's index as a basis for wage stabilization in the program to restrain inflation has raised numerous questions of policy, procedure, and technique which are not discussed here at length since the subject has been treated exhaustively elsewhere. Among the various reports issued in the last two years on problems of measuring the cost of living in wartime, the most important is the Report of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living,[5] which was made on November 17, 1944. That report summarized the reports on the Bureau's cost-of-living index of the (Mitchell) Committee of the American Statistical Association and the Technical Committee which advised the President's Committee, and presented separate statements from the labor and employer members on the Committee. The Technical Advisory Committee estimated the extent to which the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been unable to measure completely the rise in the cost of living during the war period. The President's Committee quoted from the Mitchell Report as follows:

> If the BLS had obtained strictly accurate reports of all the prices it tries to collect; if it had caught the change in average prices caused by the reduction in

[5] See Report of President's Committee on Cost of Living, in Monthly Labor Review, January 1945 (pp. 168–174), and bibliographical references there included.

bargain sales; if it had priced the qualities bought by families with very low income and the qualities bought by the most prosperous of wage earners as well as those in the middle groups; and if it had made full allowance for increases in expenditures forced on families by quality deterioration that can be offset by buying more goods, its index would probably not be higher than it is now by more than three to four points.

Since the index is essentially a price index, measuring the average changes in the prices which must be paid for a more or less fixed bill of goods which is normally bought by families with moderate incomes, other types of studies are necessary to measure changes in the total dollar outlay of city families or in their planes of living. Inquiries into actual family expenditures which serve this purpose are also needed to answer certain questions concerning changes in families' well-being which are being continually raised in connection with wage policy.

Another important problem relates to the measurement of intercity differences in living costs. As already noted, the function of the Bureau's cost-of-living index is to provide a measure of time-to-time changes in prices charged to consumers. The index for each city reflects the buying patterns of families of wage earners and clerical workers in that locality. Since average income levels vary from city to city, the level of living on which the cost-of-living index is based also varies from city to city. For other purposes, however, figures are desired on the cost of the same level of living in all the cities covered. The data available at the present time are not adequate as a basis for determining whether it costs more or less for the typical family to live in the same degree of comfort in one community or another. Such a measure was prepared by the Works Progress Administration in 1935 on the basis of the comparative costs of "minimum" and "emergency" budgets.[6] For a period of several years, the Bureau maintained this series by periodic estimates of the costs of these budgets based on its regular reports. Additional information revealed that the basic rent measures were no longer representative in some cities and hence the series was discontinued in June 1943. Further analysis of this problem and experiments in methods of providing measures of intercity differences in living costs are in progress.

RETAIL PRICES

The prices on which the cost-of-living index and other summaries are based are collected for the most part by field representatives in the course of actual field visits to merchants and dealers just as in the case of occupational wage-rate data. The food prices represent those charged in about 10,500 grocery stores and meat markets patronized by moderate-income groups, and the prices for other goods and services are collected from about 3,900 stores and service establishments. Rents are obtained from tenants for about 54,000 dwellings in the 34 large cities. The Bureau's representatives engaged in collecting prices are provided with detailed specifications for each item and obtain the actual, not nominal (or ceiling), prices. In addition to their use in constructing the cost-of-living index, the data are also made available in numerous other forms for a variety of general and special purposes.

[6] Works Progress Administration, Research Monograph XII: Intercity Differences in the Cost of Living.

The average prices of 78 food items in each of 56 cities are issued each month in mimeographed form, and summarized for 56 cities combined, both in the monthly cost-of-living release and in the Monthly Labor Review. These data are widely used by Government agencies, manufacturers, distributors, research agencies, and other organizations and individuals in connection with price determination and control, analysis of manufacturing operations, and marketing problems. Even within specification limits, the foods priced may vary slightly from city to city, because of consumers' buying habits, and do not always permit intercity comparisons for individual food items. Similar summaries of price trends for fuel are presented monthly and for other items such as clothing and housefurnishings from time to time.[7]

The needs of the Office of Price Administration, War Production Board, War Food Administration, and other agencies for data on commodity prices and supplies have required some modification and a considerable extension of the Bureau's work in these fields. The cost-of-living index and price data on individual items and commodity groups have played a major role in measuring the effectiveness of the price-control program as a whole.

In connection with its collection of price data, the Bureau has also undertaken a large volume of special studies, many of which are concerned with information on supplies of individual commodities. Analyses of dealers' supplies of meats, other important foods, specific items of clothing, furniture, and numerous other goods have provided part of the basis for the distribution of supplies including rationing, allocation of raw materials to ease shortages of essential civilian items, and other policies and procedures established by the Office of Price Administration, War Production Board, and other agencies concerned with these problems. Certain of the more extensive investigations have been prepared for general distribution. Illustrative of these is the article, Supplies of Food in Independent Retail Stores, March 1945, on page 954 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Housing problems, accentuated by large-scale migration and the rapid growth of war production centers, have also been the subject of numerous Bureau studies. The periodic-rent-survey program of the Bureau has been extended to include approximately 75,000 dwellings in 73 communities. The data are used to measure changes in rents for wage earners and lower-salaried workers as a component part of the cost-of-living index, and to provide rental-change information for all dwellings in the city. In addition to the regular collection of rents, increasing attention has been paid to changes in rental conditions. Analyses of the decline in rental concessions, decreases in services supplied, and in repairs have been undertaken for the purpose of estimating the importance of such indirect or hidden rental increases. In addition to this program, the Bureau conducts special rent surveys at the request of the Office of Price Administration. These data are used to determine the need for rent control and its effectiveness, and as a check on the trend of rentals in areas where rent control has been removed. Also as an adjunct to its regular activities in this field, the Bureau collects vacancy data for the use of the National Housing Agency and similar agencies in determining the urgency of local housing needs. Special analyses of housing requirements and existing facilities

[7] See, for example, Cost of Clothing for Moderate-Income Families, in Monthly Labor Review, July 1944

have also been made in several war production areas. The data collected in the course of these surveys have been prepared for distribution in mimeographed form.

CONSUMER INCOME AND EXPENDITURE STUDIES

The studies of consumer expenditures undertaken by the Bureau have, as one of their objectives, the function of providing data on the relative importance of the individual commodities and services purchased by families of wage earners and clerical workers. Such figures are, as already pointed out, essential in the construction of any cost-of-living index. Important as this purpose is, however, it is by no means the principal reason for making this type of inquiry.

In the first place, this is the only type of study which provides data on the proportions of families in the country whose purchases of consumers' goods meet American standards of well-being. It also indicates where these families live, on what occupations they depend for a living, and how many children are being brought up in the physical environment which meets American standards. Conversely this type of study points out the danger spots in the country's total consumption pattern, what proportion of families do not have adequate diets, where and how these families live, and how many children they have. It provides data on the economic situation of families with poor housing. As other quantitative measures of the American standards of living are developed, it will be possible to use the data from surveys of consumer expenditures to evaluate the adequacy of other elements of the family budget.

In addition, this type of study is one of the principal sources of information on the purchases of consumers' goods by families at different income levels, and on the distribution of families by income. The necessity for dependable information of this sort is self-evident. The production and marketing of all kinds of goods and services cannot be planned intelligently without some basis for estimating the extent and types of potential and effective demand. Such a factual basis is also needed in making decisions on tax policies and estimates of probable revenues. Equally dependent on knowledge of income levels and distribution are plans for housing facilities, utilities, and community services.

No extensive surveys of consumer incomes and expenditures has been undertaken since the studies of 1934–36 already referred to. The Bureau of Labor Statistics did, however, complete a survey of 1,300 families which provides information on consumer income, expenditure, and savings for the year 1941 and the first quarter of 1942. Unlike most previous studies, the principal objective in this case was to furnish the basis for national estimates rather than detailed information for individual cities. Extensive data, on a national basis, on urban family incomes and savings appear in Bureau Bulletin No. 724: Income and Spending and Saving of City Families in Wartime. In Bulletin 723, the data compiled by the Bureau are combined with those collected by the Bureau of Home Economics in a simultaneous study of 1,700 rural families, to provide general estimates for the country.

These reports also include detailed information on family-expenditure patterns for the various income groups. It is a well-established fact that expenditures for basic essentials, such as food, constitute

progressively smaller proportions of total outlays as income levels rise, but more precise information on the nature of these relationships is essential. In addition to providing the data necessary for compiling the cost-of-living index and other Bureau studies, the results of these surveys are widely used by governmental and private organizations. Manufacturers and distributors of all types of commodities make use of this information in estimating potential demands as a basis for planning their operations. In many cases, it is still necessary for individuals and organizations requiring such information to depend on the results of the 1934–36 study, despite the fact that they are 10 years old. Although the 1941–42 study made it possible to prepare revised national estimates, the comparatively small size of the sample precludes the preparation of local or State reports, or, indeed, of the extensive detailed tabulations based on the earlier study.

For the purpose of estimating the effect of the war on the prices paid by families and on the nature of their purchases, including general family-expenditure patterns in relation to income, the Bureau is currently conducting a small study covering about 1,700 families. Here again, the sample is too small to permit geographical analysis or the amount of detail obtained in the 1934–36 reports, but the results, which will be available shortly, will permit Nation-wide estimates similar to those made in 1941–42 of what city families are buying.

Another phase of this general field has to do with consumers' distributive and service cooperatives in this country which, according to the latest available estimates, number nearly 5,000 and do an annual business of about half a billion dollars. Since 1918 the Bureau has compiled data on the activities of these associations. Detailed studies of the types, membership, and operations of consumers' cooperatives and credit unions are undertaken at intervals of 4 to 5 years.

WHOLESALE (PRIMARY-MARKET) PRICES

The Bureau's series on prices of commodities in primary markets is one of the oldest official economic indexes in the country. Although the comprehensive monthly series dated from 1890, materials from other sources made it possible to prepare an index extending back to 1749 and, on a fragmentary basis, to 1720. Since it is an index of market prices, it includes commodities at various stages of production. The information currently assembled from manufacturers, dealers, trade publications, and Government sources includes more than 10,000 individual price quotations. Data from these extensive files form the basis for the official index as well as for several special series.

The general index has included varying numbers of commodities at different times. The present series is compiled from the primary-market prices of approximately 900 commodities selected on the basis of their importance and representativeness. The quantity weights used in combining the individual quotations are derived from exhaustive data on volume of sales, supplemented by field investigations in principal market centers. In addition to the index for all commodities, indexes are calculated for 10 major groups and 47 subgroups. The general index and the group indexes are released weekly and monthly in mimeographed form and summarized regularly in the Monthly Labor Review. Actual prices and price relatives are also given monthly in mimeographed releases.

The general index includes substantial numbers of fabricated and semifabricated items which are less sensitive than raw materials to short-time changes in market conditions. To meet the temporary wartime need for a more sensitive measure, the Bureau prepares a daily index based on the prices of 28 basic commodities (such as cotton, wool, wheat, steers, etc.) traded on organized exchanges.

The concentration of productive facilities on war materials has, of course, resulted in a reduced civilian market. Consequently, the Bureau has developed an index of the price movements of 125 items representative of commodities generally available to civilian purchasers in primary markets. Publication of this wartime index of civilian goods will begin shortly; it will supplement rather than supplant the official index.

Among the special series already referred to is a weekly index of prices of waste and scrap materials, which covers 44 commodities such as metals, textiles, paper, and rubber; the data are available beginning with 1939. Another provides information on the market prices of standard machine tools; this series is available from January 1937 to date. Indexes of the prices of general and auxiliary machinery and of construction equipment, such as pavers, cranes, tractors, etc., are also compiled. Other series are being developed as the need for them becomes apparent. Indexes of primary-market prices of goods which make up the leading exports and imports of the United States will be issued in the near future.

These various indexes are used extensively by Government agencies and private companies and organizations as a basis for planning price control and determination, raw-material allocation, volume of production, and distribution. In addition, the extensive Bureau files of data on the prices of individual items, which are not ordinarily published, make it possible to supply a large volume of special information in response to requests from individuals and all types of organizations. The Bureau is glad to comply with such requests whenever the necessary data and facilities for processing them are available.

GENERAL SUMMARIES OF PRICE TRENDS

General trends in price movements are the subject of several recurring and special reports issued by the Bureau, particularly during the war period. A summary of price developments is ordinarily issued each quarter and a general review appears at the end of each year. The impact of the war on wholesale and retail prices, markets, and the availability of supplies, together with a detailed analysis of the operation of the price-control program, is described in a report entitled "Wartime Prices." Part I of this study, covering the period from August 1939 to December 1941, was published in the Bureau's Bulletin No. 749, and Part II, which carries the history through 1944, is in preparation.

From its extensive files, the Bureau has prepared a summary of the various methods used in other countries for the calculation of indexes of wholesale and retail prices and the cost of living. In order that information will be available for comparisons of standards and costs of living after the war, plans are now being developed for measuring the cost of comparable levels of living in the several large nations.

Labor Conditions in Other Countries

The analysis of information on developments in the labor field in other countries was included in the Bureau's original program, and through its 60-year history it has become one of the most important sources of such materials. Nearly every issue of the Monthly Labor Review contains one or more discussions of the general labor situation in individual countries throughout the world or summaries of available information on a particular subject in the field of labor economics. The Bureau's Bulletin No. 770, entitled "Cooperative Associations in Europe and Their Possibilities for Postwar Reconstruction," is typical. Since the beginning of our participation in the war the Bureau has carried on, largely for the benefit of the war agencies, extensive research on labor conditions in various countries in the war theater; reports on 19 countries have been published in the Monthly Labor Review. Summaries of current labor developments in Latin-American countries are also carried in that periodical and in a series of special reports, of which 20 have been released to date.

Materials of this sort are made available, not only for general informational purposes, but also as a basis for decisions on policies and procedures which must be made by private industry and the Government. Knowledge of conditions in other countries with respect to labor legislation, the levels of earnings, wage rates, post-war planning, the rehabilitation of veterans, trade-union activities, social-security measures, housing, price movements and control, and other allied subjects is essential for three general purposes. In the first place, decisions on foreign-trade and domestic economic policies, which are in fact hardly separable, must be made in the light of conditions abroad. The Congress and the various other Government agencies charged with the responsibility for such matters make wide use of the Bureau's materials for this purpose. Secondly, the operating plans of private industry, particularly those concerned with foreign markets and trade, as well as the activities of labor organizations, cannot be developed realistically in the absence of extensive and authoritative information of this sort. Finally, the labor problems encountered elsewhere frequently parallel those which arise in the United States, and the experience of other countries in dealing with them is helpful as a guide in the determination of policies and the development of adequate legislation.

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Supplies of Foods in Independent Retail Stores, March 1945

SINCE March 1944, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has collected each month information on supplies of important foods in independent retail stores in 56 large cities. It ascertains the number of independent food stores having no stocks of a selected list of commodities on the day of the survey, and the number of days during the preceding week on which grocers were also without stocks of these foods. Beginning in January 1945, retailers have also estimated how long the supplies on hand would last. In view of the increasing interest in the food-supply situation, the Bureau plans hereafter to publish each month reports on the above points, for independent retail stores (chain stores are not covered).

Supplies of most important foodstuffs in independent retail stores continued to be ample in mid-March, but fewer stores were supplied with fresh meats than in previous months. Butter, sugar, and shortening were more widely available on March 13 than on February 13. Stocks of canned vegetables were good, but most canned fruits were generally difficult to find.

In mid-March most grades and cuts of meat were again very scarce. More than three-fourths of the retailers interviewed on March 13 had no pork loins and ham; approximately 70 percent had no bacon or veal; more than half were without any cuts of lamb or mutton. Although half of the stores had some beef, a smaller number had supplies than in mid-February. Pork, in particular, was available in fewer stores on March 13 than on February 13, with 78 percent having no loins and ham, as compared with 62 percent in mid-February. In stores having pork, stocks were very small; only a fifth of those having pork loins and ham had more than 1 day's supply on hand. Supplies of frankfurters and bologna were adequate in most large cities.

As in previous months, meat supplies varied widely in different parts of the country. The Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast areas were better supplied than other sections. The New England and Southern regions had the smallest stocks of meats, and supplies in the Mid-West and Southeastern areas were considerably lower than in mid-February. Only 5 percent of the stores in cities in the Rocky Mountain region were out of beef, as contrasted with 70 percent in the Southeastern States. In most parts of the country close to 80 percent of the independent stores had no pork; on the Pacific Coast nearly 60 percent were out of stock, but in the Rocky Mountain area (Denver, Butte, and Salt Lake City), only about 25 percent had none.

Butter was quite generally available. More than 90 percent of the independent grocers had butter on March 13, an increase from 78 percent in mid-February. This represented the best situation since August 1944, when 95 percent of the reporting stores were supplied with butter. Moreover, three-fourths of the grocers regularly stocking butter had some for sale during the entire week preceding the date of the March survey. Shortening was slightly more plentiful in the country as a whole, but half of the independent grocers in New England and more than a third in the New York, Cleveland, Chicago, and San Francisco regions were still unable to supply their customers.

Lard was not available in 15 percent of the stores, as compared with only 6 percent in mid-February.

Grocers' shelves were well stocked with canned vegetables in mid-March. The most popular varieties, such as corn, peas, and tomatoes, were found in over 93 percent of the food stores, although tomatoes were available less often than in mid-February. During the preceding week, 95 percent of the independent stores had canned peas on all 6 days, 97 percent had tomatoes, and 99 percent had corn. Although canned peaches and mixed fruits were found in more than half of the food stores, they were somewhat less plentiful than in midwinter, when they were last surveyed. Canned pears were stocked in only 39 percent of the stores. Supplies of canned applesauce and citrus-fruit juices were ample.

TABLE 1.—*Independent Retail Stores Without Supplies of Specified Foods on February 13 and March 13, 1945, in 56 Large Cities*

Commodity	Percent of stores without supplies of specified foods [1]									
	February 13, 1945	March 13, 1945								
	56 large cities	56 large cities	Region [2]							
			I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Meats:										
Beef, steaks and roasts	37	44	65	37	36	70	64	49	5	18
Beef, all other	38	48	61	36	46	70	66	66	5	19
Veal, steaks, chops, and roasts	71	74	90	73	63	86	74	74	65	66
Veal, all other	74	71	[3] 90	67	64	89	70	68	83	68
Lamb chops and roasts	41	53	67	53	56	83	65	49	1	11
Mutton and all other lamb	47	53	74	50	50	59	65	59	35	35
Pork, loins and hams	62	78	[3] 90	79	72	79	81	81	26	58
Pork, bacon	59	68	78	77	50	78	76	50	37	66
Frankfurters and bologna	6	4	3	4	7	[4] 0	11	[4] 0	[4] 0	8
Fats and oils:										
Butter	22	9	12	9	4	41	23	[4] 0	[4] 0	[4] 0
Margarine	[5] 1	11	5	16	2	7	2	14	24	14
Shortening	37	35	51	35	44	7	17	42	9	38
Lard	6	15	6	20	16	3	10	8	2	27
Cooking and salad oils	([6])	7	5	7	7	5	8	3	[4] 0	20
Processed foods:										
Peaches, canned	[7] 39	47	57	65	61	43	16	35	[4] 0	1
Pears, canned	([6])	61	45	43	61	52	21	66	6	10
Mixed fruits, canned	[8] 38	45	67	73	68	55	57	54	32	15
Applesauce, canned	[9] 7	4	5	2	3	7	3	5	10	15
Citrus fruit juice, canned	2	1	[4] 0	1	2	5	1	[4] 0	[4] 0	[4] 0
Corn, canned	[8] 0	1	1	1	3	3	1	1	1	[4] 0
Peas, canned	7	7	7	15	4	8	1	1	[4] 0	[4] 0
Tomatoes, canned	3	6	2	11	3	3	1	1	[4] 0	12
Sugar, granulated	20	9	1	10	22	1	3	11	[4] 0	4

[1] Data are weighted by the number of independent food stores in each city, to derive regional and all-region percentages.

[2] Regions consist of the following cities: *Region I.*—Boston, Bridgeport, Fall River, Manchester, New Haven. Portland, Me., Providence. *Region II.*—Baltimore, Buffalo, Newark, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Rochester, Scranton, Washington, D. C. *Region III.*—Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Detroit, Indianapolis, Louisville. *Region IV.*—Atlanta, Birmingham, Charleston, S. C., Jackson, Miss., Jacksonville, Knoxville, Memphis, Mobile, Norfolk, Richmond, Savannah, Winston-Salem. *Region V.*—Dallas, Houston, Kansas City, Mo., Little Rock, New Orleans, St. Louis, Wichita. *Region VI.*—Cedar Rapids, Chicago, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Omaha, Peoria, St. Paul, Springfield, Ill. *Region VII.*—Butte, Denver, Salt Lake City. *Region VIII.*—Los Angeles, Portland, Oreg., San Francisco, Seattle.

[3] Over 90 percent out of stock.

[4] Some size, quality, or variety of the commodity was available in all stores surveyed.

[5] July 18, 1944, was last date surveyed.

[6] Not included in the survey this month. List of foods covered is changed from time to time.

[7] November 14, 1944, was last date surveyed.

[8] January 16, 1945, was last date surveyed.

[9] December 12, 1944, was last date surveyed.

There was better distribution of sugar in mid-March, when more than 90 percent of the independent stores were stocked, as compared with 80 percent in February. Of the regions previously reporting a sugar shortage, the Cleveland region alone showed no increase in supplies between February and March.

Table 1 shows the percent of the independent stores in 56 large cities that were without stocks of 23 important foods on February 13 and March 13, 1945, and in each of the eight regions on the latter date.

Table 2 shows the percent of independent stores in 56 large cities without stocks of representative commodities from each group of foods on which supply data have been collected from March 1944 through March 1945.

TABLE 2.—*Independent Retail Stores Without Supplies of Specified Foods in Each Month, March 1944–March 1945, in 56 Large Cities*

Commodity	Percent of stores without supplies												
	1944										1945		
	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
Meats:													
Beef, steaks and roasts	[1] 8	[1] 11	[1] 13	24	29	22	[2] 28	[2] 42	[2] 22	[2] 24	34	37	44
Beef, all other			[1] 11	18	21	14	[3] 23	[3] 20	[3] 27	[3] 28	34	38	48
Veal, steaks, chops, and roasts	[1] 32	[1] 30	[1] 42	[1] 42	[1] 37	[1] 31	[1] 37	[1] 31	[1] 33	[1] 33	[2] 56	[2] 71	[2] 74
Veal, all other											[3] 56	[3] 74	[3] 71
Lamb, chops and roasts	[1] 24	[1] 21	[1] 44	[1] 37	29	25	30	[2] 22	[2] 24	[2] 21	[2] 38	[2] 41	[2] 53
Mutton and all other lamb					[5]	[5]	[5]	[3] 31	[3] 23	[3] 26	[3] 46	[3] 47	[3] 53
Pork loins and hams	[5]	[5]	[4] 4	[4] 11	[4] 18	[4] 32	48	48	40	32	43	62	78
Pork, bacon							14	43	53	54	53	59	68
Dairy products:													
Butter	12	2	1	1	2	5	27	32	28	34	35	22	9
Cheese, American Cheddar	41	49	50	47	45	47	46	49	45	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]
Processed foods:													
Salmon, canned	11	14	22	46	73	80	85	84	80	71	58	[5]	[5]
Peaches, canned	16	15	20	26	38	48	52	43	39	[5]	[5]	[5]	47
Pineapple, canned	20	21	22	31	46	55	54	55	58	58	[5]	72	[5]
Mixed fruits, canned	11	12	14	16	25	40	43	49	40	[5]	38	[5]	45
Corn, canned	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	[5]	1
Peas, canned	1	2	2	2	6	6	3	1	1	1	[5]	7	7
Tomatoes, canned	1	0	1	0	1	3	4	3	3	2	[5]	3	6

[1] Includes all grades and cuts.
[2] Includes only rationed AA, A, and B grades.
[3] Includes all unrationed cuts.
[4] Includes all cuts of pork.
[5] Not included in the survey this month.

Strikes and Lockouts in 1944[1]

Summary

DURING 1944 there were numerous work stoppages, but most of them involved comparatively few workers and were of short duration. Although there were frequent disagreements which caused temporary interruptions of work, union and company officials, assisted by government agencies, were able promptly to arrange settlements or persuade the parties to resume work, while the issues were negotiated further or submitted to government agencies or to arbitration for settlement.

There were 4,956 strikes and lockouts during the year 1944, involving approximately 2,116,000 workers. Idleness during these stoppages amounted to about 8,721,000 man-days, which was equivalent to less than one-tenth of 1 percent (0.09 percent) of the available working time. (See table 1.) The number of strikes and lockouts exceeded that recorded for any previous year, but the time lost per worker involved was less than in any year for which information is available. About 70 wage earners of each 1,000 employed were involved in a work stoppage at some time during the year and were idle an average of 4.1 working days. The idleness during all stoppages in 1944 was equivalent in amount to the time that would be lost if all industry shut down for about 2¼ hours or one-fourth of a working day.

Although the proportion of strikes and lockouts over wage issues was somewhat smaller than in 1943, wage disputes accounted for about a half of all work stoppages in 1944. Disputes over intraplant working conditions and policies increased considerably. Recognition and bargaining rights were issues in a substantial number of disputes, some of them involving large groups of foremen and supervisory workers.

Sixty-nine strikes (slightly more than 1 percent of the total) followed strike votes conducted by the National Labor Relations Board under the War Labor Disputes Act. Workers involved in these disputes constituted less than 5 percent of the total workers involved.

The National War Labor Board was directly concerned with 1,629 strikes and lockouts in 1944—840 of them occurring before the cases went to the Board, 353 while cases were pending before the Board, and 436 after Board decisions were reached, registering dissatisfaction of one party or the other with the decisions.

Method of Collecting Data

The Bureau's statistics include all known strikes and lockouts in continental United States, which involve as many as six workers and last as long as a full day or shift. They include all workers in the plant who were made idle because of a dispute, but do not include workers or idleness in other plants which may have been indirectly affected. For example, if a small number of maintenance workers in an automobile assembly plant strike and thus cause the entire plant to close, all workers in the plant are counted as involved in the stoppage. However, if an automobile assembly plant is forced to curtail produc-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Ruth S. Cole under the general supervision of Don Q. Crowther. Data for March 1945 are given on page 1041 of this issue.

tion because it cannot obtain needed parts from another plant on strike, idleness in the assembly plant is not counted. This is primarily because it is impossible to obtain consistent and accurate information concerning the indirect and secondary effects of stoppages. The present statistics are limited to basic figures which can be obtained uniformly and accurately month after month, so that information in different periods will be comparable and will reflect accurate trends.

Initial information concerning labor disputes is obtained from notices appearing in about 400 daily newspapers from all parts of the country and more than 250 labor and industry papers and journals, as well as records from Federal and State agencies which deal with employer-employee disputes. Upon receipt of the notices, detailed questionnaires are sent to the companies, unions, and impartial agencies involved in each work stoppage to get first-hand and verified information.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes and Lockouts in the United States, 1916 to 1944*

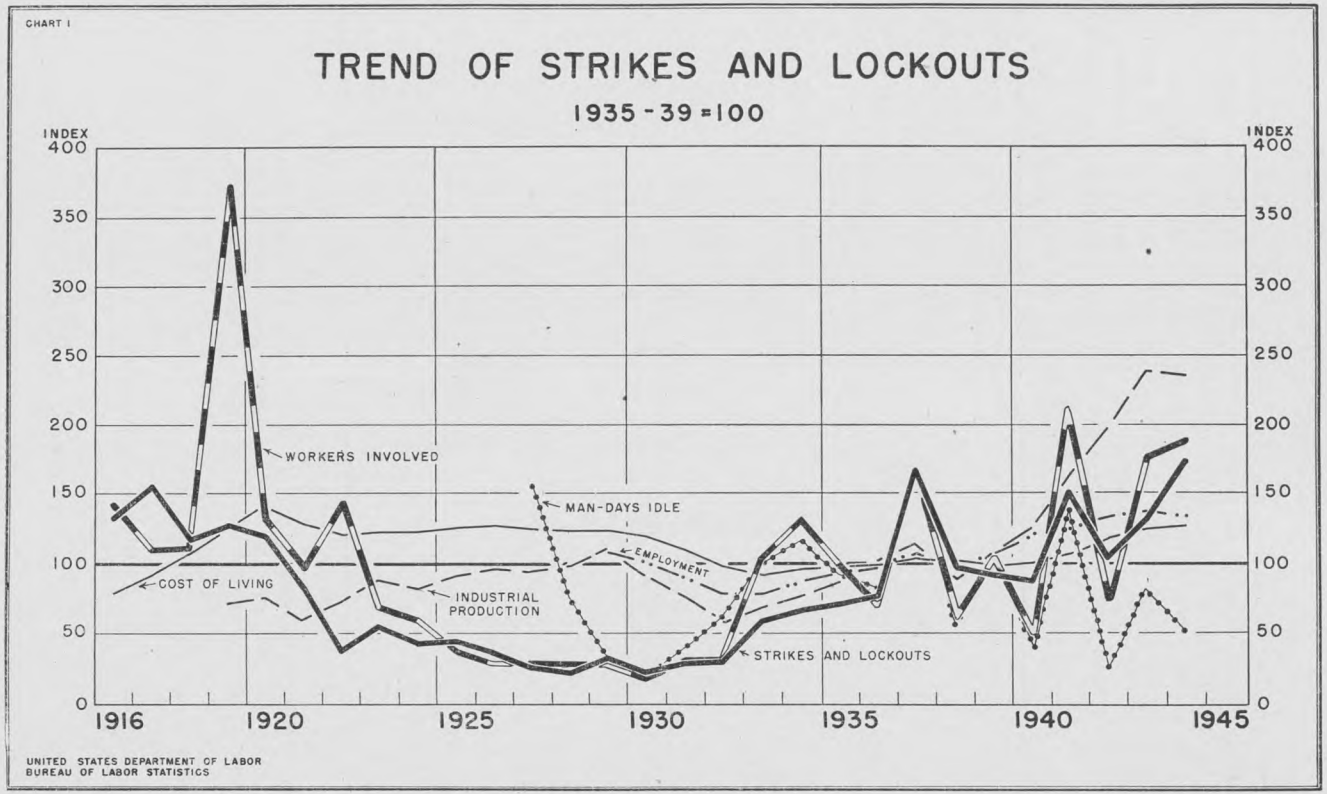
Year	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle			Indexes (1935–39=100)		
	Number	Average duration (calendar days)	Number [1]	Percent of total employed [2]	Number	Percent of available working time [3]	Per worker involved	Strikes and lockouts	Workers involved	Man-days idle
1916 [1]	3,789	(4)	1,599,917	8.4	(4)	(4)	(4)	132	142	(4)
1917	4,450	(4)	1,227,254	6.3	(4)	(4)	(4)	155	109	(4)
1918	3,353	(4)	1,239,989	6.2	(4)	(4)	(4)	117	110	(4)
1919	3,630	(4)	4,160,348	20.8	(4)	(4)	(4)	127	370	(4)
1920	3,411	(4)	1,463,054	7.2	(4)	(4)	(4)	119	130	(4)
1921	2,385	(4)	1,099,247	6.4	(4)	(4)	(4)	83	98	(4)
1922	1,112	(4)	1,612,562	8.7	(4)	(4)	(4)	39	143	(4)
1923	1,553	(4)	756,584	3.5	(4)	(4)	(4)	54	67	(4)
1924	1,249	(4)	654,641	3.1	(4)	(4)	(4)	44	58	(4)
1925	1,301	(4)	428,416	2.0	(4)	(4)	(4)	45	38	(4)
1926	1,035	(4)	329,592	1.5	(4)	(4)	(4)	36	29	(4)
1927	707	26.5	329,939	1.4	26,218,628	0.37	79.5	25	29	155
1928	604	27.6	314,210	1.3	12,631,863	.17	40.2	21	28	75
1929	921	22.6	288,572	1.2	5,351,540	.07	18.5	32	26	32
1930	637	22.3	182,975	.8	3,316,808	.05	18.1	22	16	20
1931	810	18.8	341,817	1.6	6,893,244	.11	20.2	28	30	41
1932	841	19.6	324,210	1.8	10,502,033	.23	32.4	29	29	62
1933	1,695	16.9	1,168,272	6.3	16,872,128	.36	14.4	59	104	100
1934	1,856	19.5	1,466,695	7.2	19,591,949	.38	13.4	65	130	116
1935	2,014	23.8	1,117,213	5.2	15,456,337	.29	13.8	70	99	91
1936	2,172	23.3	788,648	3.1	13,901,956	.21	17.6	76	70	82
1937	4,740	20.3	1,860,621	7.2	28,424,857	.43	15.3	166	165	168
1938	2,772	23.6	688,376	2.8	9,148,273	.15	13.3	97	61	54
1939	2,613	23.4	1,170,962	4.7	17,812,219	.28	15.2	91	104	105
1940	2,508	20.9	576,988	2.3	6,700,872	.10	11.6	88	51	40
1941	4,288	18.3	2,362,620	8.4	23,047,556	.32	9.8	150	210	136
1942	2,968	11.7	839,961	2.8	4,182,557	.05	5.0	104	75	25
1943	3,752	5.0	1,981,279	6.9	13,500,529	.15	6.8	131	176	80
1944	4,956	5.6	2,115,637	7.0	8,721,079	.09	4.1	173	188	51

[1] The number of workers involved in some strikes which occurred from 1916 to 1926 is not known. However, the missing information is for the smaller disputes and it is believed that the totals here given are fairly accurate.

[2] "Total employed workers" as used here refers to all workers except those in occupations and professions in which there is little if any union organization or where strikes rarely if ever occur. In most industries it includes all wage and salary workers except those in executive, managerial, or high supervisory positions or those performing professional work the nature of which makes union organization or group action impracticable. It excludes all self-employed, domestic workers, agricultural wage workers on farms employing less than 6, all Federal and State government employees, and the officials, both elected and appointed, in local governments.

[3] Available working time was computed for purposes of this table by multiplying the average number of employed workers each year by the number of days worked by most employees during the year.

[4] Not available.



Statistical Analysis of Strikes and Lockouts in 1944

MONTHLY TREND

The number of strikes and lockouts in 1944 followed the general monthly trend evident in recent years. The number increased from 330 in January to a peak of 589 in May, then continued at a relatively high level of between 400 and 500 per month through October, after which they declined to 345 in November and an all-year low of 264 in December (table 2). The greatest number of workers involved and the largest amount of idleness during work stoppages were in May,

TABLE 2.—*Strikes and Lockouts in 1943 and 1944, by Months*

Month	Number of strikes and lockouts—		Workers involved in strikes and lockouts—			Man-days idle during month	
	Beginning in month	In progress during month	Beginning in month	In progress during month		Number	Percent of available working time [2]
				Number	Percent of total employed [1]		
1943							
January	192	207	91,214	95,129	0.33	452,192	0.06
February	200	226	38,841	43,540	.15	117,279	.02
March	248	272	73,943	76,805	.27	179,093	.02
April	384	416	219,186	228,209	.79	661,738	.09
May	412	458	557,558	661,617	2.30	1,467,728	.20
June	433	475	186,677	584,615	2.02	4,698,796	.62
July	369	408	121,298	201,451	.70	695,458	.09
August	310	347	105,601	118,416	.41	356,510	.05
September	237	267	66,664	72,049	.25	209,514	.03
October	287	320	121,253	264,453	.92	1,012,534	.14
November	325	348	135,804	537,421	1.86	2,862,607	.38
December	355	395	263,240	274,532	.95	787,080	.11
1944							
January	330	363	113,512	133,555	.44	710,002	.09
February	340	378	146,438	163,231	.54	458,604	.06
March	386	429	134,696	147,845	.49	440,667	.05
April	453	516	165,498	181,218	.60	614,430	.08
May	589	666	319,040	343,281	1.15	1,442,571	.18
June	441	519	144,566	220,503	.73	726,531	.09
July	469	538	171,529	208,110	.69	652,382	.08
August	501	587	197,930	238,861	.79	958,624	.12
September	408	480	207,407	234,755	.78	785,763	.10
October	430	493	221,939	238,096	.80	755,641	.10
November	345	426	201,396	229,264	.77	789,058	.11
December	264	318	91,686	116,628	.39	386,806	.05

[1] See footnote 2 to table 1. [2] See footnote 3 to table 1.

when strikes and lockouts were most numerous and when the largest strike of the year occurred—the foremen's strike in the Detroit area. December had fewer workers involved in stoppages, and less idleness, than any other month. Over 1 percent of the total employed wage earners were involved in stoppages in May as compared with only 0.39 percent in December. Idleness during strikes and lockouts was 0.18 percent of the available working time in May but only 0.05 percent in March and December.

INDUSTRIES AFFECTED

About two-thirds of the strikes and lockouts during the year were in manufacturing industries in which 11.3 percent of the workers employed were involved, and resulting idleness was equivalent to 0.14 percent of the available working time. Stoppages in nonmanufactur-

ing industries involved less than 3 percent of the employed workers, and idleness was 0.05 percent of the available working time.

The automobile industry, now largely converted to production of aircraft and other war products, was affected by stoppages to a greater extent than any other industry, more than 50 percent of its workers being involved, with resulting idleness equivalent to 0.58 percent of the available working time (table 3). However, there were more stoppages in iron and steel than in any other industry group. These involved 20 percent of the workers in these industries and caused idleness amounting to 0.22 percent of the available working time. More than 10 percent of the workers in plants manufacturing rubber products, stone, clay and glass products, nonferrous metals, machinery (except electrical), and transportation equipment (except automobiles) also were involved in stoppages during the year.

In nonmanufacturing industries the greatest number of disputes resulting in stoppages was in mining, with more than 34 percent of the workers involved, and idleness equivalent to 0.56 percent of the available working time. Although there were no very large strikes in the

TABLE 3.—*Strikes and Lockouts Beginning in 1944, by Industry Group* [a]

Industry group [a]	Number of strikes and lockouts beginning in 1944	Workers involved		Man-days idle during 1944	
		Number	Percent of total employed [1]	Number	Percent of available working time [2]
All industries	[3] 4,956	2,115,637	7.0	8,721,079	0.09
Manufacturing	[3] 3,257	1,681,973	11.3	6,148,117	.14
Food and kindred products	160	36,024	3.1	177,759	.05
Tobacco manufactures	19	7,054	7.8	59,546	.21
Textile-mill products	184	55,264	4.6	471,287	.13
Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics and similar materials	100	14,506	1.5	70,476	.02
Lumber and timber basic products	81	43,488	8.4	299,439	.19
Furniture and finished lumber products	86	16,909	4.5	81,316	.07
Paper and allied products	49	16,439	4.8	122,907	.12
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	23	2,399	.7	9,806	.01
Chemicals and allied products	116	26,128	3.9	116,334	.06
Products of petroleum and coal	42	9,340	6.6	25,102	.06
Rubber products	77	39,496	18.5	113,905	.18
Leather and leather products	95	24,009	7.1	116,038	.11
Stone, clay, and glass products	122	37,874	10.4	204,451	.18
Iron and steel and their products	998	369,196	20.3	1,225,660	.22
Nonferrous metals and their products	148	49,544	10.8	142,851	.10
Machinery (except electrical)	311	141,078	10.8	507,917	.13
Electrical machinery	80	35,278	4.4	111,944	.05
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	321	363,159	14.4	897,345	.12
Automobiles and automobile equipment	228	388,763	50.5	1,361,053	.58
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	39	6,025	1.4	32,981	.02
Nonmanufacturing	1,700	433,664	2.8	2,572,962	.05
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	18	9,851	[4]	274,474	[4]
Mining	893	278,051	34.3	1,412,634	.56
Construction	168	22,485	3.5	119,893	.06
Trade	139	31,450	.5	270,401	.01
Finance, insurance, and real estate	15	954	[4]	10,953	[4]
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	335	73,390	2.0	344,956	.03
Services—personal, business, and other	96	11,750	[4]	73,979	[4]
Other nonmanufacturing industries	36	5,733	[4]	65,672	[4]

[1] See footnote 2 to table 1.

[2] See footnote 3 to table 1.

[3] This figure is less than the sum of the figures below. This is because one or more strikes, each affecting more than 1 industry, have been counted as separate strikes in each industry affected, with the proper allocation of workers and man-days idle to each industry.

[4] Not available.

[a] Strikes and lockouts are classified by industry on the basis of the normal or prewar products or services of the firms involved. Many of the firms were manufacturing other products and doing other types of work during 1944 because of war needs.

coal-mining industry comparable with the general coal strikes in 1943, a large proportion of the idleness in mining resulted from the numerous small coal-mining stoppages. In no other nonmanufacturing industry were as many as 10 percent of the workers involved in strikes.

Less than 1 percent of the employees in trade and in the printing and publishing industries were involved in work stoppages during 1944 and the resulting idleness was only 0.01 percent of the available working time.

STATES AFFECTED

Disputes in four States—Pennsylvania (821), Michigan (562), Ohio (549) and Illinois (492)—accounted for almost half of the strikes and lockouts during 1944, about 60 percent of the workers involved, and over half of the idleness. More than one-fourth of the workers involved in labor stoppages were in Michigan; 7 of 16 stoppages involving 10,000 or more workers each were wholly within this State, and another, the strike in February of members of the Mechanics Educational Society of America, involved workers in both Michigan and Ohio. Pennsylvania and Michigan each had considerably more than 1 million man-days of idleness during labor disputes in 1944

TABLE 4.—*Strikes and Lockouts in 1944, by States*

State	Number of strikes and lockouts beginning in 1944	Workers involved		Man-days idle during 1944	
		Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All States	[1] 4,956	2,115,637	100.0	8,721,079	100.0
Alabama	209	56,941	2.7	179,722	2.1
Arizona	5	313	(2)	1,460	(2)
Arkansas	33	4,304	.2	18,526	.2
California	103	26,599	1.3	126,856	1.5
Colorado	21	2,290	.1	13,408	.2
Connecticut	44	24,665	1.2	76,458	.9
Delaware	14	8,460	.4	12,047	.1
District of Columbia	9	1,926	.1	7,092	.1
Florida	39	10,334	.5	176,159	2.0
Georgia	33	6,705	.3	33,935	.4
Idaho	7	1,132	.1	6,885	.1
Illinois	492	152,015	7.2	745,319	8.5
Indiana	195	93,516	4.4	354,468	4.1
Iowa	34	9,360	.4	53,692	.6
Kansas	15	4,515	.2	7,532	.1
Kentucky	147	34,227	1.6	142,640	1.6
Louisiana	29	10,321	.5	60,377	.7
Maine	13	8,830	.4	13,609	.2
Maryland	48	8,844	.4	24,003	.3
Massachusetts	196	48,440	2.3	406,034	4.7
Michigan	562	568,738	27.1	1,836,903	20.9
Minnesota	19	6,768	.3	42,709	.5
Mississippi	14	3,296	.2	58,677	.7
Missouri	157	70,115	3.3	240,184	2.8
Montana	7	684	(2)	3,745	(2)
Nebraska	11	1,149	.1	6,426	.1
Nevada	3	112	(2)	280	(2)
New Hampshire	21	4,611	.2	25,193	.3
New Jersey	202	93,298	4.4	332,714	3.8
New Mexico	6	656	(2)	3,646	(2)
New York	265	50,999	2.4	218,609	2.5
North Carolina	45	11,056	.5	68,057	.8
North Dakota	1	200	(2)	1,800	(2)
Ohio	549	216,360	10.2	705,065	8.1
Oklahoma	24	2,846	.1	16,033	.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Strikes and Lockouts in 1944, by States*—Continued

State	Number of strikes and lockouts beginning in 1944	Workers involved		Man-days idle during 1944	
		Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Oregon	49	20,081	0.9	124,544	1.4
Pennsylvania	821	328,220	15.5	1,379,781	15.8
Rhode Island	43	23,533	1.1	109,612	1.3
South Carolina	10	1,945	.1	28,150	.3
South Dakota	2	144	(2)	1,163	(2)
Tennessee	127	35,223	1.7	200,016	2.3
Texas	65	24,226	1.1	81,044	.9
Utah	10	2,067	.1	7,862	.1
Vermont	5	798	(2)	1,926	(2)
Virginia	99	24,346	1.2	77,648	.9
Washington	46	32,429	1.5	284,978	3.3
West Virginia	121	41,791	2.0	260,139	3.0
Wisconsin	88	36,167	1.7	143,743	1.6
Wyoming	2	42	(2)	210	(2)

[1] The sum of this column is more than 4,956. This is because 56 strikes which extended across State lines have been counted in this table as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper allocation of workers involved and man-days idle.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

In each of 10 other States the total number of stoppages was over 100, and in three of these (Alabama, New Jersey, and New York) there were more than 200 strikes and lockouts.

Twenty-two States had less than 2 percent of their employed workers involved in strikes and lock-outs during 1944, 8 of these having less than 1 percent; 17 States had 2 but less than 10 percent and 9 had over 10 percent of their employed workers involved. There is some duplication in counting, however, since the same worker was counted twice if he was involved in two strikes during the year. In Michigan the workers involved in strikes and lock-outs were equivalent to about 39 percent of the employed wage earners in the State. No other State had nearly as large a proportion of its workers involved in stoppages. Pennsylvania and Alabama had about 13 percent, West Virginia about 12 percent, and Ohio 11½ percent.

WORKERS INVOLVED

The average number of workers involved in the 4,956 strikes and lockouts occurring in 1944 was 427. Half of the stoppages involved less than 126 workers each. About 43 percent involved fewer than 100 workers, 49 percent involved from 100 to 1,000, and 8 percent involved over 1,000 each (table 5). There were 82 stoppages involving 1,000 or more workers each in the iron and steel industries, 76 in plants manufacturing transportation equipment (except automobiles) and 68 in the automobile industry. There were 16 strikes, each involving 10,000 or more workers as compared with 10 such strikes in 1943. These strikes were as follows:

	Month stoppage began	*Approximate number of workers involved*
Cramp Shipbuilding Co., Philadelphia, Pa	January	13,800
Briggs Manufacturing Co., Detroit, Mich	February	11,400
M. E. S. A. strike, 55 plants, Detroit (Mich.) area, Toledo and Cleveland, Ohio	February	18,800
Foremen's strike, Detroit, Mich	May	54,800
Chrysler Corporation, Detroit (Mich.) area	May	11,000

	Month stoppage began	Approximate number of workers involved
Northwest Lumber Workers, Tacoma, and Seattle, Wash., Portland (Oreg.) area, and Missoula, Mont.	May	30,000
Ford Motor Co., Ypsilanti, Mich.	July	25,200
Wright Aeronautical Corporation, Fairlawn, Paterson and East Paterson, N. J.	August	10,400
Electric Boat Co., Groton, Conn.	August	10,000
Bituminous coal mines, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and West Virginia	August	30,300
Ford Motor Co., Ypsilanti, Mich.	September	19,300
Todd-Houston Shipbuilding Corp., Houston, Tex.	September	10,600
Maintenance workers, Detroit (Mich.) area	October	49,500
Pratt & Whitney Corp. of Missouri, Kansas City, Mo.	October	13,000
Packard Motor Car Co., Detroit, Mich.	November	27,600
Wright Aeronautical Corporation, Paterson, Woodridge, Fairlawn, and East Paterson, N. J.	November	23,000

TABLE 5.—*Strikes and Lockouts Beginning in 1944, Classified by Number of Workers Involved and Industry Group*

Industry group	Number of strikes and lockouts	Median number of workers involved	Number of strikes and lockouts in which the number of workers involved was—							
			6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 250	250 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries:										
Number	4,956	126	574	1,570	1,194	761	459	347	35	16
Percent	100.0		11.6	31.6	24.1	15.4	9.3	7.0	0.7	0.3
Manufacturing										
Food and kindred products	160	80	24	60	40	18	11	7		
Tobacco manufactures	19	97	1	9	4	2	1	2		
Textile-mill products	184	143	27	48	44	35	18	12		
Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics and similar materials	100	80	19	33	35	9	3	1		
Lumber and timber basic products	81	65	14	36	17	10	2	1		1
Furniture and finished lumber products	86	75	13	36	20	11	3	3		
Paper and allied products	49	126	4	15	13	7	6	4		
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	23	50	8	8	3	4				
Chemicals and allied products	115	100	18	39	33	11	8	6		
Products of petroleum and coal	42	80	6	19	9	3	3	2		
Rubber products	77	290	6	16	16	18	12	8	1	
Leather and leather products	95	80	20	30	13	16	12	4		
Stone, clay, and glass products	122	108	7	49	28	19	8	11		
Iron and steel and their products	992	149	90	294	250	159	117	79	3	
Nonferrous metals and their products	147	113	17	51	35	19	13	12		
Machinery (except electrical)	302	170	25	88	73	52	31	32	1	
Electrical machinery	78	164	8	23	17	17	8	3	2	
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	318	276	8	76	67	55	36	59	9	8
Automobiles, and automobile equipment	224	399	13	30	40	43	30	53	10	5
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	39	70	6	17	10	3	3			
Nonmanufacturing										
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	18	116	2	7	4	1	2	1	1	
Mining	893	170	33	241	300	196	94	25	3	1
Construction	168	44	47	80	21	8	7	5		
Trade	139	45	40	57	21	10	6	3	2	
Finance, insurance, and real estate	15	27	6	6	2	1				
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	334	60	73	142	62	28	19	7	3	
Services—personal, business, and other	96	42	28	46	11	3	5	3		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	36	40	11	14	6	3	1	1		
Interindustry	4	4,621						3		1

SEX OF WORKERS

Almost 60 percent of the stoppages involved male workers only, while approximately 39 percent involved both men and women. Less than 2 percent involved only women. Of the total number of workers involved in strikes and lockouts, 81 percent were men and 19 percent were women, as compared with 87 and 13 percent in 1943.

NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS INVOLVED

Approximately 86 percent of the work stoppages in 1944, including about two-thirds of the workers involved and one-half of the idleness for the year, were stoppages occurring in single establishments only, for example, one factory or one mine. About 10 percent of the strikes were confined to from 2 to 5 establishments, nearly 2 percent involved 6 to 10 establishments, and slightly more than 2 percent extended into 11 or more establishments.

TABLE 6.—*Strikes and Lockouts Ending in 1944, by Number of Establishments Involved*

Number of establishments involved	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	4,958	100.0	2,127,352	100.0	8,880,078	100.0
1 establishment	4,247	85.7	1,450,494	68.2	4,721,057	53.1
2 to 5 establishments	513	10.3	332,424	15.6	1,794,636	20.2
6 to 10 establishments	82	1.7	59,285	2.8	601,476	6.8
11 establishments and over	116	2.3	285,149	13.4	1,762,909	19.9

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS INVOLVED

Labor unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were involved in 34 percent of the strikes and lockouts, including 22 percent of the total workers and 28 percent of the idleness. Those affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations were involved in 39 percent of the stoppages, involving 52 percent of the workers and 39 percent of the idleness (table 7). Unaffiliated unions (other than the independent railroad brotherhoods) were involved in 20 percent of the total, as compared with 15 percent in 1943; however, the number of workers involved was 19 percent in 1944 as compared with 33 percent in 1943 when there were industry-wide coal strikes, and the idleness was 23 percent compared with 71 percent in 1943.

While members of the United Mine Workers of America were involved in 898 stoppages in 1944, there were no industry-wide strikes in the mining industry and consequently idleness for this group was much less than in 1943. Other unaffiliated unions involved in 5 or more stoppages in 1944 were the Mechanics Educational Society of America, the Foremen's Association of America, the Brewery, Flour and Soft Drink Workers of America, the International Die Sinkers Conference, the United Brotherhood of Weldors, Cutters and Helpers of America, and the International Typographical Union in the period before it formally reaffiliated with the A. F. of L. in August 1944.

Stoppages involving two rival unions constituted only 1 percent of all strikes and lockouts. Most of these involved unions affiliated with both the A. F. of L. and the C. I. O.

In about 200 disputes no unions were involved. Although less than 1 percent of the total strikes and lockouts involved company unions (organizations composed of employees of a single plant or company), the proportion of total workers involved was almost 2½ percent. The higher proportion of workers was due largely to the strike instigated by the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Employees Union in protest against upgrading of Negro workers to operating positions, and two strikes for recognition of the Wright Aircraft Supervisory Association at plants of the Wright Aeronautical Corporation in New Jersey.

The classification of strikes and lockouts according to the union involved indicates only the affiliations of the unions to which the striking workers belonged; it does not mean that these unions authorized or sanctioned the stoppages. A great majority of the stoppages were unauthorized, union officials disclaiming any responsibility for them and exerting their efforts toward quick terminations of the stoppages.

TABLE 7.—*Strikes and Lockouts Ending in 1944, by Affiliations of Labor Organizations Involved*

Labor organizations involved	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	4,958	100.0	2,127,352	100.0	8,880,078	100.0
American Federation of Labor	1,696	34.2	456,877	21.5	2,453,521	27.6
Congress of Industrial Organizations	1,946	39.2	1,112,795	52.2	3,410,597	38.5
Unaffiliated railroad brotherhoods	5	.1	6,880	.3	30,770	.3
Unaffiliated unions (other)	995	20.1	407,504	19.2	2,021,573	22.8
2 rival unions	60	1.2	67,839	3.2	701,640	7.9
Company unions	47	.9	50,714	2.4	196,116	2.2
No organization	206	4.2	24,599	1.2	65,480	.7
Not reported	3	.1	144	(1)	381	(1)

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

DURATION OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

The duration of strikes and lockouts and average man-days of idleness per worker has decreased materially during the war years. Stoppages in 1944 lasted on the average 5.6 days as compared with 5 in 1943, 12 in 1942, 18 in 1941, 21 in 1940, and 23 in 1939. The workers involved in stoppages in 1944 averaged 4.1 days of idleness as compared with 6.8 in 1943, 5 in 1942, 9.8 in 1941, 11.6 in 1940, and 15.2 in 1939.

More than 75 percent of all strikes and lockouts in 1944 lasted less than 1 week and these included more than 70 percent of the workers involved in stoppages during the year. About 20 percent lasted from 1 week to 1 month, and accounted for slightly less than half of the idleness for the year. About 2 percent of the 1944 strikes lasted more than 1 month, accounting for 14 percent of the year's idleness as compared with a little over 2 percent in 1943.

TABLE 8.—*Duration of Strikes and Lockouts Ending in 1944*

Duration	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	4,958	100.0	2,127,352	100.0	8,880,078	100.0
1 day	1,066	21.5	235,170	11.1	235,170	2.6
2 to 3 days	1,714	34.6	767,479	36.1	1,464,597	16.5
4 days and less than 1 week	1,051	21.2	504,586	23.7	1,630,282	18.4
1 week and less than one-half month	759	15.3	398,522	18.7	2,493,977	28.1
½ and less than 1 month	260	5.2	188,145	8.8	1,786,059	20.1
1 and less than 2 months	85	1.7	18,781	.9	662,371	7.5
2 and less than 3 months	23	.5	14,669	.7	607,622	6.8

CAUSES OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

Wages—demands for increases and disputes over the application or operation of incentive systems, overtime rates, etc.—were important issues in nearly half of the strikes and lockouts in 1944. Over two-fifths of the total workers and total idleness involved during the year were connected with disputes over wage questions. Workers generally were concerned with the pinch when the cost of living had increased during the war period to a greater extent than wages had been permitted to advance under the wage-stabilization program. Some strikes occurred to force wages up to the limit permitted under the "Little Steel" formula; [2] others were attempts to gain increases beyond the limits of the formula and had to be denied under the national stabilization policy. The proportion of stoppages in which wages were important issues was a little lower than in 1943.

Second only to wages were disputes over intraplant working conditions and policies, including such matters as supervision, discipline, job security, work load, physical and safety conditions, work schedules, shift arrangements, etc. Disputes over such matters accounted for about 36 percent of the strikes and lockouts during the year, including 38 percent of the total workers involved and accounting for 29 percent of the total idleness (table 9). Questions of job security for individuals or comparatively small groups were important here.

Work stoppages over questions of union recognition and bargaining rights increased in 1944 both numerically and proportionately. This was due in part to strikes over bargaining rights for foremen and supervisory workers. There were at least 30 such strikes in 1944, involving about 130,000 workers (6 percent of the total) and over 650,000 man-days of idleness (7 percent of the total). Three groups were involved in the largest of these strikes: The Foremen's Association of America in the Detroit area strike in May; the United Clerical, Technical and Supervisory Employees, a division of District 50, United Mine Workers of America, at bituminous-coal mines in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Kentucky in August and September; and the Wright Aircraft Supervisory Association at New Jersey plants of the Wright Aeronautical Company in September and November.

Interunion and intraunion matters—union rivalry, jurisdiction, etc.—were major issues in about 4 percent of the work stoppages in

[2] That is 15 percent above rates existing on January 1, 1941.

1944. This was about the same proportion as in 1943, although in 1944 a greater proportion of workers involved and man-days of idleness were connected with such disputes.

Cut-backs on war production were factors in about 35 stoppages during the year, the workers being concerned with effects on wages, hours worked, and on security of employment. A few strikes involved disputes over the reinstatement of veterans. There were 57 stoppages in which racial issues were contributing factors.

TABLE 9.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes and Lockouts Ending in 1944*

Major issue	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	4,958	100.0	2,127,352	100.0	8,880,078	100.0
Wages and hours	2,146	43.3	809,572	38.1	3,376,500	38.0
Wage increase	1,046	21.1	352,752	16.6	1,698,363	19.1
Wage decrease	66	1.3	30,933	1.5	206,895	2.3
Wage increase, hour decrease	10	.2	1,093	.1	4,675	.1
Hour decrease	9	.2	2,684	.1	9,471	.1
Hour increase	10	.2	4,264	.2	6,622	.1
Other [1]	1,005	20.3	417,846	19.6	1,450,474	16.3
Union organization, wages and hours	247	5.0	66,136	3.1	496,233	5.6
Recognition, wages, and/or hours	187	3.7	43,439	2.0	335,577	3.8
Strengthening bargaining position, wages and/or hours	26	.5	12,589	.6	78,692	.9
Closed or union shop, wages, and/or hours	23	.5	4,200	.2	34,336	.4
Discrimination, wages, and/or hours	8	.2	5,638	.3	45,288	.5
Other	3	.1	270	(2)	2,340	(2)
Union organization	561	11.3	329,374	15.5	1,536,472	17.3
Recognition	202	4.1	169,958	8.1	853,118	9.6
Strengthening bargaining position	56	1.1	22,054	1.0	92,787	1.0
Closed or union shop	131	2.6	32,395	1.5	193,599	2.2
Discrimination	128	2.6	76,758	3.6	279,774	3.2
Other	44	.9	28,209	1.3	117,194	1.3
Other working conditions	1,800	36.3	807,231	37.9	2,584,520	29.1
Job security	792	16.0	412,862	19.3	1,212,709	13.7
Shop conditions and policies	801	16.1	311,746	14.7	1,036,228	11.7
Work load	168	3.4	72,508	3.4	305,226	3.4
Other	39	.8	10,115	.5	30,357	.3
Interunion or intraunion matters	204	4.1	115,039	5.4	886,353	10.0
Sympathy	27	.5	13,828	.7	54,759	.6
Union rivalry or factionalism	89	1.9	78,338	3.7	759,189	8.6
Jurisdiction	70	1.4	17,551	.8	56,656	.6
Union regulations	17	.3	4,785	.2	15,212	.2
Other	1	(2)	537	(2)	537	(2)

[1] Includes stoppages involving adjustments of piece rates, incentive rates, wage classifications for new and changed operations, retroactive pay, holiday and vacation pay, payment for travel time, and so forth.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

RESULTS OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

Of the stoppages ended in 1944 the issues in dispute were definitely settled, or the causes were abandoned or lost by workers, in 52 percent of the cases, while in 48 percent the issues were to be negotiated or processed further according to plans agreed upon.

The disputes in which the issues were settled at the termination of the stoppages brought substantial gains to workers involved in 21 percent of all strikes and lockouts during 1944, compromise settlements in another 10 percent of the cases, and little or no gains in 18 percent. (See table 10.) Of the nearly 2,400 cases in which issues were to be processed further after resumption of work, the parties agreed to

negotiate directly on about one-third, often in accordance with established grievance procedures contained in their contracts. In a little less than two-thirds of the cases they agreed to submit the issues to government agencies, and in a few cases (3 percent of all stoppages in 1944) the issues were to be submitted to private arbitrators.

About 37 percent of the total workers involved and the same proportion of the total idleness were connected with the disputes which were settled or determined when the stoppages ended and 63 percent were connected with those in which work was resumed while the issues were to be processed further. About 38 percent of the total workers involved were included in the disputes in which work was resumed and the issues submitted to government agencies for settlement. Many of these cases were wage disputes which were submitted to the National War Labor Board, others were representation cases which went to the National Labor Relations Board, and some were submitted to State mediation and arbitration agencies.

TABLE 10.—*Results of Strikes and Lockouts Ending in 1944*

Result	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	4,958	100.0	2,127,352	100.0	8,880,078	100.0
Issues settled at strike termination	2,585	52.1	793,469	37.3	3,298,504	37.1
Substantial gains to workers	1,030	20.7	236,074	11.1	707,146	8.0
Partial gains or compromises	487	9.8	144,127	6.8	555,731	6.3
Little or no gains	905	18.3	356,313	16.7	1,568,784	17.5
Indeterminate	163	3.3	56,955	2.7	466,843	5.3
Issues to be negotiated	2,373	47.9	1,333,883	62.7	5,581,574	62.9
By parties concerned	822	16.6	427,147	20.1	1,434,422	16.2
By government agencies	1,404	28.3	815,444	38.3	3,868,770	43.6
By private arbitrators	147	3.0	91,292	4.3	278,382	3.1

METHODS OF TERMINATING STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

There are two problems involved in settling any strike or lockout: (1) The problem of terminating the stoppage by an agreement under which the employees will go back to work, and (2) working out a satisfactory settlement of the issues in dispute. During the war period, when immediate and continued production has been of paramount importance, the first has necessarily taken precedence and the efforts of local and international union officials and of government agencies have been expended in obtaining a resumption of work.

In 1944 more than a third of the strikes and lockouts were terminated by agreements worked out by the parties directly concerned. In some of these the disputed issues were settled immediately, and in others there was agreement only on the procedure to be followed in settling the issues while work continued. Government agencies assisted in getting work resumed in 59 percent of the stoppages which included nearly three-fourths of the total workers and idleness involved (table 11). Here again the agreements reached settled the issues in some cases and in others simply provided for further processing of the disputes while work continued.

About 7 percent of the stoppages were terminated when the workers returned without any formal settlement. Most of these were short protest strikes, the workers involved having no intention of staying out until their demands were granted.

TABLE 11.—*Methods of Terminating Strikes and Lockouts Ending in 1944*

Method	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	4,958	100.0	2,127,352	100.0	8,880,078	100.0
Agreement of parties arrived at:						
Directly	1,653	33.3	488,827	23.0	1,796,596	20.2
With assistance of government agencies	2,942	59.4	1,558,224	73.3	6,646,590	74.9
Terminated without formal settlement	347	7.0	78,748	3.7	424,496	4.8
Employers discontinued business	10	.2	874	(1)	10,532	.1
Not reported	6	.1	679	(1)	1,864	(1)

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

There were 17 work stoppages that were followed by Government seizure of the plants or facilities during 1944 to avoid further interruption of war production. Two of the stoppages actually began in 1943, but the Government did not take over the plants until early in 1944. In some of these cases the Government's action was to enforce compliance by companies or unions with National War Labor Board orders, and in others because of a refusal to resume production while the disputed issues were being resolved. In these cases the workers returned to work soon after the Government took over operation of the plants or facilities.

Strikes Under War Labor Disputes Act

During 1944 the National Labor Relations Board conducted 317 strike ballots under the War Labor Disputes Act.[3] In 271 of these a majority of the employees voting cast their ballots in favor of, and in 46 cases a majority voted against, striking. Of the total votes cast, 72 percent were in favor of striking.

There were 69 work stoppages [4] in 1944 which followed strike votes. These comprised slightly more than 1 percent of the total strikes and lockouts occurring during the year and the number of workers involved (98,394) in such stoppages was less than 5 percent of the workers involved in all stoppages. Idleness in these 69 stoppages was slightly over 6 percent of the total idleness during the year.

The average number of workers involved in the 69 strikes was 1,426, as compared with an average of 711 for similar stoppages during the last 6 months of 1943, and with an average of 427 workers for all strikes and lockouts in 1944. The average duration was 12 days, as compared with 5.6 days for all 1944 strikes and lockouts. Strikes ranged in duration from 1 to 69 days. On the average, 11 days elapsed between the time the votes were taken and the strikes occurred.

[3] 57 Stat. 163 (1943).

[4] Includes the large strike for recognition of supervisory workers in the coal-mining industry which followed separate strike votes in about 65 individual mines. In a few of these cases a majority voted against striking, but strikes occurred nevertheless.

Wages were the issue in over half of these strikes, although strikes for union recognition involved almost two-thirds of the workers and accounted for over two-thirds of the idleness in these strikes.

Strikes and Lockouts of Concern [5] to National War Labor Board

The National War Labor Board was directly concerned with 1,629 strikes and lockouts, 33 percent of the total in 1944, including 961,000 or 45 percent of the total workers involved, and 4,867,000 or 56 percent of the total man-days of idleness (table 12). This was an increase of 200 strikes over 1943, but the proportions of stoppages, workers involved, and man-days idle were less than in 1943, when the Board was directly concerned with 39 percent of the total strikes and lockouts, including 65 percent of the total workers and 84 percent of the man-days idle.

TABLE 12.—*Strikes and Lockouts of NWLB Concern Compared With all Stoppages in the United States,[1] 1944*

Month	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of all strikes and lockouts [1]	Number	Percent of all strikes and lockouts [1]	Number	Percent of all strikes and lockouts [1]
All months	1,629	32.9	961,263	45.4	4,867,004	55.8
January	107	32.4	54,233	47.8	476,528	67.1
February	107	31.5	56,198	38.4	232,414	50.7
March	120	31.1	46,364	34.4	213,457	48.4
April	161	35.5	62,170	37.6	285,264	46.4
May	216	36.7	188,264	59.0	970,690	67.3
June	144	32.7	63,192	43.7	399,960	55.1
July	165	35.2	97,337	56.7	347,899	53.3
August	160	31.9	87,237	44.1	534,043	55.7
September	119	29.2	68,322	32.9	404,759	51.5
October	143	33.3	132,393	59.7	466,005	61.7
November	105	30.4	66,052	32.8	347,473	44.0
December	82	31.1	39,501	43.1	188,512	48.7

[1] See table 2 (p. 960) for monthly totals on all strikes and lockouts.

Each month of 1944 the Board was concerned with more than a fourth of all strikes and lockouts occurring. May and October were the months of greatest activity, when stoppages involving over 50 percent of all workers and over 60 percent of all idleness were or had been referred to the Board. Stoppages with which the Board was concerned were large (it handled 9 of the 16 involving 10,000 or more workers) and of long duration. Of all strikes and lockouts lasting less than 1 week, the Board was concerned with about 30 percent, including 38 percent of the workers and 41 percent of the idleness. Of the stoppages lasting longer than 1 week the Board was concerned with over 40 percent, including over 60 percent of the workers and idleness.

Of the 1,629 strikes and lockouts of Board concern, 78 percent, including 86 percent of the workers involved and 79 percent of the idleness, were in manufacturing industries; 22 percent of the stoppages were in nonmanufacturing. More than 20 percent of the stoppages (337) were in the iron and steel industries, 149 in machinery manu-

[5] These were cases which (1) went to the Board for settlement of the issues, (2) occurred while cases were pending before the Board, and (3) took place after Board decisions, indicating dissatisfaction of one of the parties with decisions rendered.

facturing (except electrical), and 158 in transportation, communication, and other public utilities. More than 20 percent of the workers involved in stoppages which were of Board concern were in the automobile and automobile-equipment industry, over 15 percent were in industries manufacturing transportation equipment (except automobiles), and 15 percent were in iron and steel plants. Also of Board concern were the strikes and lockouts including over 80 percent of the workers involved in all stoppages occurring in tobacco manufactures and lumber and timber products industries.

Because of the Board's responsibility for settling all labor disputes which might interrupt war production, the disputes may reach it at various stages of development. In more than half of the cases it handled in 1944 the stoppages occurred before the cases reached the Board. In some cases the issues still in dispute were referred to the Board for settlement; in others, particularly wage cases, the parties often agreed upon settlement terms and submitted them to the Board for approval under the Wage Stabilization Act.

In about 22 percent of the Board cases stoppages took place while cases were pending before the Board, and in more than three-fourths of these, delay in rendering decisions was given as a cause of the strike. This was in contrast to 1943, when almost 40 percent of the WLB strikes occurred while cases were pending, although in about half of these, Board delay was stated to be a contributing factor.

The number and proportion of stoppages occurring after Board decisions more than doubled in 1944, as did the proportion of workers involved in such disputes. In part of these, the workers were protesting decisions of the War Labor Board; in others, they were attempting to force company compliance with Board decisions.

Fifteen disputes involving work stoppages were followed by Government seizure of plants or operations in 1944 after the NWLB referred them to the President upon refusal of one party or the other to comply with Board orders.

TABLE 13.—*Strikes and Lockouts of NWLB Concern, Classified According to Major Issues Involved and Time Stoppages Occurred, 1944*

Major issues involved and time strikes and lockouts occurred	Strikes and lockouts		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	1,629	100.0	961,263	100.0	4,867,004	100.0
Wages	1,275	78.3	546,354	56.9	2,712,688	55.7
All other	354	21.7	414,909	43.1	2,154,316	44.3
Strikes before cases went to the Board	840	51.5	461,723	48.0	2,487,581	51.1
Wages	559	34.3	167,968	17.5	907,437	18.6
All other	281	17.2	293,755	30.5	1,580,144	32.5
Strikes while cases were pending	353	21.7	297,568	31.0	1,275,779	26.2
Wages	311	19.1	198,535	20.7	859,844	17.7
All other	42	2.6	99,033	10.3	415,935	8.5
Strikes after Board decisions	436	26.8	201,972	21.0	1,103,644	22.7
Wages	405	24.9	179,851	18.7	945,407	19.4
All other	31	1.9	22,121	2.3	158,237	3.3

MAJOR ISSUES INVOLVED IN NWLB CASES

Wages, either alone or in connection with other demands, were issues in more than three-fourths of the strikes and lockouts of National War Labor Board concern, involving more than half the workers and man-days of idleness. In half of these the wage issue came to the Board after the strike occurred. Wage issues were involved in most of the stoppages taking place while the cases were pending before the Board as well as in those which were protests against Board decisions. More than 50 percent of all stoppages over wage issues alone, involving 60 percent of the workers and 70 percent of the idleness, were of direct concern to the Board.

The Board was concerned with some of the larger strikes over questions of union organization, particularly the strikes in which the major issue was union recognition for foremen and supervisory workers, because these stoppages interfered drastically with war production. The Board in some cases assumed jurisdiction over all issues in dispute, with the exception of union recognition and discriminatory discharges which were matters to be handled by the National Labor Relations Board.

Prosperity—How Can We Promote It?[1]

CERTAIN common wants of people everywhere determine the goals of any proposals to international action:

Jobs at good wages: Buyers for the products of labor make jobs. Many American workers, like workers in other countries, depend on purchasers abroad.

Good business: Businessmen who organize production and distribution buy raw materials and other goods from all over the world. They also want to sell everywhere, not merely in their home town or nation. To buy and sell abroad they need stable foreign currencies and freedom from excessive trade barriers.

Markets for farm products: Farmers tend to be prosperous when they can sell all they grow at good prices. Many countries depend upon foreign markets to take a part of their agricultural output. The welfare of American agriculture, like American industry, depends in part on foreign markets.

Better things at lower prices: Consumers want to get as much for their money as possible. They want a market place full of attractive choices—goods from the four corners of the earth.

Proposals for a United Nations Organization made at Dumbarton Oaks call for the establishment of an Economic and Social Council functioning under the General Assembly to help nations work toward a healthy and balanced economic life. Proposals for special organizations to work on specific problems were made at Bretton Woods (finance and currency), at Hot Springs (food and agriculture), and at Chicago (aviation). Still others may be developed.

The plans made thus far do not purport to provide complete answers to all the perplexing international economic questions.

Three R's of the Postwar Period

Relief.—This is both an economic and a social problem. National and international organizations as well as private agencies are now working on it. Allied military authorities, national governments, and UNRRA[2] have parts to play in a well-rounded program.

During the first 18 months after liberation of Europe, the Foreign Economic Administration estimates that 100 billion dollars' worth of goods will be needed. Local production in the countries affected is expected to meet more than 90 percent of the need. The liberated nations having foreign exchange or credit indicate that they will *buy* and import about 7½ billions from overseas. Less than 2 billion dollars in supplies is planned as contributions from uninvaded countries.

Rehabilitation.—If self-help in the war-torn countries is to meet most of the needs, transportation systems must be put in working order, public utilities restored, factories repaired and reequipped, farmers provided with tools, seeds, and fertilizers.

Military authorities have begun the job because it is essential to maintain civil order and their lines of communication and supply.

[1] The second of a series of four Foreign Affairs Outlines on "Building the Peace," prepared by the Department of State, the first of which was carried in the Monthly Labor Review, April 1945.

[2] United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, a temporary agency organized in 1943 to administer an emergency program with funds and supplies contributed chiefly by uninvaded member nations. At the invitation of military authorities or governments in invaded nations, it provides limited assistance to help people to help themselves.

UNRRA will help governments needing basic assistance to carry the work forward during the emergency period.

The longer-range task of economic rehabilitation calls for credit and for technical help from national or international agencies such as the ones proposed at Bretton Woods and at Hot Springs.

Reconstruction.—Long-term investments are proposed to finance reconstruction and development programs over the years. Economic experts, representing 44 United Nations, at Bretton Woods recommended that their governments create an International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

How would an international bank work? Most of the capital of this bank would be used to guarantee loans made by private investors. When private capital is not available on reasonable terms, the bank would itself finance productive projects. Loans would be handled so as to bring about a smooth conversion from wartime to peacetime economy. They would also be arranged so that the most useful and urgent projects would be dealt with first.

In addition to reconstruction of devastated countries, the proposed bank would assist in building up productive facilities in less-developed countries. One of its purposes is to promote a steady increase in trade between nations. Investments in undeveloped parts of the world are proposed to open up new opportunities for trade.

World Trade

A variety of proposals have been made to achieve a better world economy by encouraging maximum trade among nations.

PROBLEM OF STABLE MONEY

People engaged in international trade require stable exchange rates. Each country has its own money system, but its money is of no use inside another country.

A government has the power to change the value of its money. While for various reasons such a change might seem a good domestic policy, it might upset world trade. Again, one country might wish to encourage exports by offering its currency at bargain rates to foreigners, but other countries would probably retaliate in a sort of currency "price-cutting" war, which would be fatal to stable exchange rates and, in the long run, to trade and prosperity.

Exchange rates may change greatly from other causes. For example, if many traders want the currency of a particular country, that currency may become scarce and more expensive.

Obviously, bad economic conditions, arising from any cause, will tend to make exchange rates unstable, but this is a vicious circle; unstable exchange rates also make bad economic conditions worse.

The Monetary Fund.—The representatives of the United Nations at Bretton Woods proposed that an International Monetary Fund be created to deal with this problem. This is the nub of that proposal:

Each member nation would subscribe an agreed-upon amount of its own currency and gold to the Fund. This Fund would then be used to help countries when they face temporary difficulty in getting currency of another country.

Member governments would agree on certain exchange rates and not to change them greatly without the approval of the Fund.

They would agree to abolish, where possible, restrictions on the purchase and sale of foreign currencies, and also not to manipulate their currency so as to discriminate against traders of another country.

The Fund would provide machinery to enable member nations to consult with each other and would assist them in making orderly arrangements for exchange stability.

GOVERNMENT-IMPOSED RESTRAINTS ON TRADE

One barrier to trade is a high tariff on imports. There are, however, other barriers to world trade. During the depression, the "pie" of foreign trade became smaller, and each government tried to get a larger slice for its own producers. Each took drastic action to keep out imports and to increase exports. Examples are:

A government decrees that only a certain quantity or "quota" of a given article can be imported from a given country.

Foreigners are prevented from being paid for imported goods purchased from them unless they buy certain quantities of goods produced in the importing country. (Germany used this device to take advantage of countries which had only a few things to sell and sold them largely in Germany.)

A government gives financial support to an industry so that it can undercut foreign competitors.

These devices lower the levels of total trade. They are almost invariably used to discriminate—that is, to give one country's producers advantages over those of another country. Such discrimination causes resentment and hostility in the country which suffers from it. It leads to retaliation and to economic conflict.

It is difficult for any one government to reduce its trade barriers unless one or more other governments do the same thing at the same time. One way of getting action is to make an agreement with one other country at a time (a bilateral agreement). This is what we have been doing since 1934 by making reciprocal trade agreements.

Another way to bring about the same result would be for many countries to make a single agreement among themselves—a multilateral agreement. Some things may be done through the bilateral method—other things by the multilateral method.

It is proposed that various specialized economic agencies and committees affiliated with the United Nations Organization work together to reduce or end trade obstructions and discriminations.

PRIVATELY IMPOSED RESTRAINTS ON TRADE

Business enterprises sometimes form cartels—that is, agree among themselves to adopt certain measures to avoid competition. Although members of an international cartel may do business separately for their own profit, they often act together to divide markets and maintain prices, thus restricting total trade. In some countries, such as Germany, powerful monopolies have worked closely with governments to win both economic and political power over other lands.

The American Government proposes to act by itself and also to cooperate with other nations through international agencies to end the political activities of cartels and to prevent cartel practices which restrict the flow of trade between countries.

SPECIAL AGREEMENTS ON TRADE PROBLEMS

Some products—wheat, cotton, coffee, sugar, for example—may be produced in such quantity that the market cannot absorb the output at reasonable prices. When this occurs whole regions face ruin.

Such commodity problems may be dealt with through international agencies. Nations might work together to expand demand and help high-cost producers to transfer to other products. Such agreements would recognize the interests of both producers and consumers.

Transportation—Key to Trade

International trade and travel must move by land, sea, or air—in the future increasingly by air. According to international law, the air above any country belongs to that country. It could forbid foreign planes even to fly over its territory, as well as to land or pick up passengers or goods. Each nation could obstruct the air transport of others if it chose to make such rules.

This is another area for international discussion and agreement. A beginning was made on this problem in 1944 at the Conference on International Civil Aviation in Chicago. There were some differences of opinion, but proposals were made for the consideration of governments—proposals to make air transportation move more freely in the postwar world.

Some nations rely upon shipping as a major business for their livelihood. The war has created problems for them. In some cases, they have lost most of their merchant ships while other countries have increased their fleets. This unbalanced situation may present another subject for agreements in the interest of world trade.

Opportunities We Face

Expanding business opportunity, full employment, and a high level of agricultural production are American goals. Industry and business, farmers and workers, in all countries, will soon face the problems of reconversion to peacetime production. Our common difficulties are our common opportunities. We can let ourselves drift into economic warfare or plan our welfare with other nations in economic peace.

The proposals outlined here are a part of a program for economic peace.

Additional contributions to such a program can be made by such agencies as the International Labor Organization and the proposed Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.[3] They can provide research and recommendations to help the peoples of all nations improve production methods and world-wide distribution.

In the Economic and Social Council of the proposed United Nations Organization the nations would have an economic general staff through which to plan the economic well-being of their peoples.

The proposals for security from war or threats of war are also a part of the strategy of peaceful economic progress. Nations living in fear of each other, preparing for war, cannot fully use their resources to advance their economic welfare. Nations working together to promote world prosperity help create the conditions for peace and security.

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[3] A conference at Hot Springs, Va., in 1943 made recommendations for a permanent organization to study problems of production, distribution, and consumption of agricultural products and suggest policies and programs to member nations. An Interim Commission has prepared a constitution and submitted it to the various governments.

Occupational Outlook

Postwar Employment Prospects for Women in the Hosiery Industry[1]

Summary

REPLACEMENT of men by women workers during wartime occurred in the important occupations in both the full-fashioned and seamless branches of the hosiery industry. In the seamless-hosiery branch, which before the war employed proportionally more women than did the full-fashioned branch, the gains in number during the war were relatively greater because the principal occupations require less skill. In the manufacture of full-fashioned hosiery, some gains, however, have been made in the employment of women in such skilled occupations as knitting and topping. Analysis made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that wartime gains made in the seamless mills stand a greater chance of persisting after the war. Technological developments in both branches of the industry, not fully effective before the war, will favor the continued trend toward greater use of women in some occupations but may eliminate some jobs in which women have been customarily employed.

The labor force of the hosiery industry consists mainly of women. In addition to the jobs which they have customarily held, women have made significant wartime gains in occupations in which men were formerly employed. The shortage of male workers first confronted the hosiery industry at the time when raw materials such as silk and nylon were no longer obtainable and the industry was attempting simultaneously to convert to the use of rayon and adjust the production levels to rationed supplies. In fact, the occurrence of temporary layoffs and fractional workweeks during this transition period accentuated the drift of workers—women as well as men—away from the hosiery industry. The number of workers in the industry dropped from 159,100 in 1939 to 128,500 in 1942.

By the time an operating balance between labor and raw material was achieved, the hosiery mills had lost many of their men, including some of their best workers. This drain of men continued. Hosiery manufacture was not considered an essential industry, and the men in hosiery mills were comparatively young; most of them were under 38 years of age. In higher-paying war jobs their previous experience and mechanical aptitude were a definite asset. Many of them went into service with the armed forces. Not only was it difficult to find men to replace them, but the mill managers were reluctant to expend the money and time required to train new men for skilled jobs when the likelihood of losing them, under wartime conditions, was so great. Among the expedients adopted by hosiery manufacturers was the

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Arthur W. Frazer and Abraham Ringel.

employment of women, many of whom lacked previous industrial experience.[2] Job simplification and other techniques, aimed at the most efficient utilization of this new supply of labor, were introduced. The wartime experience in the mills and the opinions now generally prevalent as to the success with which women have adapted themselves to these occupations afford some indication of what may be expected after the war as regards relative employment opportunities for men and women in the hosiery industry.

The production of full-fashioned hosiery differs considerably from that of seamless hose, not only in the manufacturing processes and the products, but also in the machinery used and the degrees of skill involved. For these reasons, the two branches of the industry are here treated separately.

Trend of Employment of Women in the Industry

Within the past 20 years the proportion of women employed has increased in both full-fashioned and seamless hosiery manufacture, but the rate of increase began to level off prior to the war. In October 1942 female employment for both branches of the industry was 63 percent of total wage-earner employment—only 2 percent higher than in October 1939. By August 1944, however, women in the industry constituted 69 percent of the total number of workers employed. In the full-fashioned branch of the hosiery industry the proportion of women in the labor force rose from 57 percent of the total in 1939 to 63 percent in August 1944; in the seamless branch the increase was from 67 percent to 75 percent.

Full-Fashioned Hosiery Manufacture

COMPOSITION OF LABOR FORCE

In general, jobs in the full-fashioned branch of the hosiery industry demand a relatively high degree of operating skill. The machinery is complex and therefore requires close attention, manual dexterity, and mechanical aptitude on the part of its operators. A study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1938 [3] indicated that skilled workers accounted for 64 percent of the total labor force, as compared with 23 percent in the semiskilled and only 13 percent in the unskilled groups.

The importance of the major occupations in the total wage-earner employment of the 105 full-fashioned hosiery mills covered in that study is shown in the accompanying tabulation.

	Percent of total wage earners
Boarders	5. 2
Folders, wrappers, and boxers	3. 3
Inspectors and examiners	5. 7
Knitters	27. 7
Loopers	6. 1
Machine fixers	1. 0
Menders and seamers	11. 7
Pairers	3. 7
Toppers	15. 8
All other	19. 8

[2] Women workers who were new entrants into the labor force between December 1941 and March 1944 constituted 43 percent of all women in manufacturing at the latter date; more than half of this group had previously been home housekeepers. (See U. S. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 20: Changes in Women's Employment During the War, Washington, 1944.)

[3] Earnings and Hours in the Hosiery Industry, 1938, by Jacob Perlman and H. E. Riley, in Monthly Labor Review, May and June 1939 (also reprinted as Serial No. R. 955).

SKILLS REQUIRED

The skilled occupations are characterized, for the most part, by distinctly different aptitudes, some of which are most generally associated with men and others with women. Machine fixers must undergo long periods of mechanical training and first-hand experience on the complex knitting machines; men are more likely to possess the mechanical ability and other innate qualities which make for quick progress and highest efficiency. Men also appear to withstand better than women the heat, humidity, and heavy work in the dye house. On the other hand, women are preferred for those occupations which depend primarily on quickness of eye and manual dexterity. These include topping, which involves the transfer of the leg of the stocking, loop by loop, onto the needles of a transfer bar which is set on a "footer"; and the looping or joining together of the openings in the heel and in the toe after they have been set (loop by loop) on the needles of the looping machine. Sewing the seam down the back of the stocking, repairing, inspecting, and pairing all require careful and close attention, and women are customarily preferred for these jobs. Folding and boxing require few special aptitudes; men and women are equally efficient.

Job Requirements in Full-Fashioned Knitting

Knitting entails the operation of complicated and expensive power-driven machinery and the careful handling of easily damaged hose. It has been customary in most mills to employ two types of machines to produce the flat stocking—a "legger," which knits the leg of the stocking down to the ankle, and a "footer," which completes the knitting process. The operation of the machines requires the use of men with considerable mechanical abilities and more strength than women usually possess. "Legger" and "footer" knitters are highly skilled, and learners in the knitting trade at one time served a formal apprenticeship. Even though the apprentice system has been abandoned, a worker has not been considered a skilled knitter, capable of taking full responsibility for the job, until he has worked at least a year. Experienced knitters have been required to be thoroughly familiar with the design and function of the knitting machine and, in addition, to be able to make any necessary minor repairs and adjustments. Occasionally they are called on to make changes involving the patterns and sizes of the stocking. Considerable physical effort is necessary in starting the machine, particularly on older models, if it is stopped at a point of unbalance. Starting the machine is done by a handwheel and may be necessary three or four times during one cycle of operation. In addition, although the machine is automatic, the operator of a 30-section machine must care for and watch the knitting of 30 stockings; and the machine is so complex that a minor breakdown can result in expensive damage.

WOMEN IN FULL-FASHIONED KNITTING

Sources and utilization of labor.—Women were almost never used as knitters until mills were compelled to seek a solution to the problem of a rapidly disappearing force of male employees. Prior to the war, a few mills experimented with the use of women knitters, but there

was no particular need to substitute women for men before the current manpower situation, and the techniques which were later introduced in order to utilize the capabilities of women knitters to best advantage were not attempted. The earlier experience of mills which had used women knitters was valuable later, but the practice did not become widespread so long as male labor was plentiful. In 1938, only 1.4 percent of the knitters in mills in the Bureau's survey were women.

The first women to be trained as knitters were taken from among the toppers. Because of their general familiarity with the knitting process, they were able to attain reasonable proficiency in the basic operation of the knitting machine within a few weeks. However, technological advancement, which during a period of 5 to 10 years before the war had brought about single-unit knitting, caused the displacement of large numbers of toppers and their disappearance from the hosiery industry. Topping also became one of the critical occupations in the industry because women who were adept at such work had begun to leave for war industries where their qualifications were especially useful on precision assembly work and jobs of similar character. Loopers, next preferred for training as knitters, were difficult to replace. Thus the industry was forced to rely, for its knitter learners, on women who came from jobs in the plant with no related experience or who were altogether new to hosiery production.

The hosiery manufacturers therefore attempted, by job simplification, to divide the knitting operation in such fashion that the remaining experienced knitters would be used most effectively and the new women knitters would not be pressed beyond their immediate capabilities. In the strictest sense, the latter group consisted of machine operators rather than knitters and normally took care of the thread supply, observed the proper functioning of the machine, removed the finished stockings, and attended to other similar details involved in the knitting process.

In most mills where women replaced men, the remaining experienced male knitters were utilized principally as group leaders, or supervisors, of three or four women operators, each attending one machine. In such cases, the skilled male knitter received either a weekly salary or wages based on the production of the knitters under him. If paid by the latter method, he sometimes operated his own machine, besides supervising others, and received, in addition to the regular piece rate for production on his own machine, a fractional piece rate for production from other machines under his supervision.

In only a few mills were women given complete responsibility for knitting, as the process requires technical supervision as well as some assistance on manual operations which are too strenuous for the average female worker. However, the newer machines installed in some mills reduce these disadvantages of the women workers. Thus the automatic welt turner, which turns the welt on all the stockings at one time in a few seconds, eliminates the time-consuming manual adjustments otherwise necessary on each individual stocking. One employer, operating a mill with modern single-unit machines equipped with automatic welt turners, reports that the satisfactory performance of his all-women knitting department is due primarily to this innovation.

In one group of mills, the male knitters were transferred from one plant to another, leaving only a skeleton crew of 4 male knitters to

supervise the 24 women on knitting machines. Wholesale transfer of workers in all other occupations in the mill resulted in a labor force which was 97 percent women. In another mill equipped with conventional leggers and no automatic welt turners, the majority of the knitters were still male, but the proportion of women on knitting machines was increasing. In still another, where only male knitters were used formerly, 11 girl knitters, comprising about two-thirds of the total knitting force, were employed.

Relative efficiency of women.—In the early months of the war women knitters were generally reported to be satisfactory, but there were some exceptions.[4] In a few mills employment of women was tried but later abandoned; in most of these, however, the knitting equipment was old and not suitable for operation by women. Some early reports indicated that the percentage of successful knitters from a group of learners was lower among women than men and that two women learners had to be recruited to obtain one satisfactory knitter. Although this ratio was higher than the proportion of learners usually needed to train a given number of successful knitters, it did not reflect inability of women to develop into efficient knitters, since many of the learners became dissatisfied with the type of work when the initial appeal diminished, and others, as was common in all industries early in the war, moved on to other jobs.

Reports have indicated generally that productivity was reduced from 10 to 20 percent with the use of female knitters. Such reports, however, should be used cautiously in drawing conclusions regarding the comparative efficiency of male and female knitters. Very few male knitter learners were used, and differences in the productivity of men and women knitters with equal work experience were not determinable. Moreover, with job simplification, the duties were divided and the production and maintenance of a knitting machine therefore did not represent the exclusive time and effort of the operator alone. It is known, however, that the differences in productivity were appreciable.

In one mill, women operators at the end of 2 months were producing about 50 percent as much as male knitters. In another, men produced from 14 to 15 dozen pairs of hose per machine in 8 hours, as against between 8 and 9 dozen pairs for women operators with 5 or 6 months' experience. Still another mill reported that female knitters produced between 10 and 11 dozen pairs of hose in 8 hours on a 24-section machine, as compared to 12 to 13 dozen pairs for male knitters. Local conditions, types of machines, previous experience, and individual aptitudes of women knitters accounted for these large variations. The last-mentioned mill, with the highest comparative efficiency, drew heavily from workers with previous hosiery-mill experience, several of whom were former toppers.

Relative incidence of women workers.—Although it is impossible to make a general estimate of the number of women knitters who came into the industry during the war, it is evident that the proportion of women in this occupation is now substantially higher than the 1.4 percent reported in 1938. Reports from selected areas, based on

[4] Information in this section is based on a field survey of the hosiery industry by the Bureau in 1942, supplemented with information obtained in 1944 from firms in the industry, the National Association of Hosiery Manufacturers, and the American Federation of Hosiery Workers.

surveys by the Bureau's Wage Analysis Division, indicate that in 117 full-fashioned hosiery mills approximately 7 percent of the knitters in 1943 were women. In the South, approximately 13 percent of all knitters were women, which suggests that Southern mills with their newer machines found the use of female knitters more practicable.

Employment outlook.—Even where the use of women knitters has proved satisfactory, mill owners generally continue to indicate a preference for men in this occupation. The trend towards faster and more complicated knitting machines is evident in each new model manufactured. Improved machines are more automatic and hence require fewer manual duties; at the same time, the complexity of such machines necessitates the continual attention of a highly experienced knitter, able to understand the functioning of the machine and make any minor repairs and adjustments that may be necessary. This need for continual attention is likewise essential on the great amount of old and obsolete machinery which can be modernized by the addition of attachments. Job simplification, adopted to facilitate the employment of women, has many operating disadvantages, and the mills naturally prefer workers who can be assigned complete responsibility for the entire process and related duties. Men not only have the mechanical aptitude and greater strength that the process requires, but also are more likely to make it a lifetime trade. Under normal conditions most employers would hesitate to incur the expense of training a young woman knitter and assume the risk of having her quit because of marriage or other reasons just as she attains a high degree of proficiency. Such expense, in addition to wages, includes the cost of raw materials wasted in the manufacture of unsalable hosiery as well as the unproductive use of costly machinery.

Recently, the trend in the substitution of women knitters has slackened for several reasons. The manpower situation has eased somewhat since men over 30 are no longer generally being inducted into the Army and Navy, and in addition, a few of the knitters who left the industry have returned to their former occupations. Many mills still employ women on their knitting machines, but the preference for male knitters is almost universal, and it is indicated that, once ample labor supplies are available, mills will revert to the use of men.

WOMEN IN BOARDING OPERATIONS

Women have proved to be quite efficient in the performance of the boarding operation, which consists of drying and shaping the wet stockings on wooden or metal forms. Indeed, some mills have employed women boarders for several years. In 1938, about half of all boarders in the full-fashioned hosiery mills were women. However, women were not generally attracted to this occupation or encouraged to enter it because of the high temperature and excessive humidity caused by heat and steam from the boarding forms or the drying cabinets. Since the war, mills have used women in greater numbers and many prefer them to men as boarders, because their softer hands and greater manual dexterity cause less damage to hosiery. Rayon hose are comparatively weak when damp, and their manufacture necessitated greater attention to problems in the boarding department. Manicuring service and rules restricting the wearing of hand

and arm jewelry have been introduced in an effort further to reduce the amount of hosiery pulled or snagged during the boarding process.

No substantial increase in the proportion of women in boarding has occurred during the war.[5] Where women have been used, the consensus of opinion is in their favor, and in many cases they have been found more satisfactory than men.

Unlike the situation in knitting, a continuation of the employment of women in boarding is virtually assured. Many mills now indicate a desire to hire only women in their boarding departments. It is likely that boarding will offer the biggest opportunity of any of the occupations in full-fashioned mills for greater proportions of female employment, particularly if the unpleasant conditions resulting from excessive heat and humidity are ameliorated.

WOMEN IN OTHER OCCUPATIONS

The proportion of women employed in most other occupations in full-fashioned hosiery mills was quite high, even before the current labor situation developed. In topping, which before World War I was popularly considered a man's job, 93 percent of the jobs were filled by women in 1938, and by 1943 men had entirely disappeared from this occupation. Loopers, inspectors and examiners, pairers, and menders and seamers are occupations in which women have filled virtually 100 percent of the jobs for many years. In such unskilled jobs as those of folders, wrappers, boxers, stampers, and labelers, women have likewise been used exclusively. Obviously, postwar conditions will not affect the employment of women in these jobs, on which their use has proved an advantage.

On the other hand, despite wartime losses of skilled men difficult to replace under the circumstances, mills have not begun to employ women in such highly technical jobs as machine fixing nor for work in the dye house where conditions are usually unpleasant. Moreover, it is highly improbable that women will replace men in such jobs after the war.

Seamless-Hosiery Manufacture

COMPOSITION OF LABOR FORCE

The Bureau's 1938 study already mentioned revealed that in the seamless-hosiery mills only 6 percent of the workers (as contrasted with 64 percent in full-fashioned hosiery mills) were classified as skilled, 73 percent (as against 23 percent) were semiskilled, and 21 percent (as against 13 percent) were unskilled. These data indicate the substantially lower skill level of the seamless branch.

Of the 6 percent in the skilled class, about 5 percent were machine fixers (an exclusively male occupation); the other 1 percent consisted of foremen and miscellaneous nonproduction workers. Among the semiskilled workers the largest groups were, in order, the knitting occupations and loopers.

[5] Data from the wage report on Full-Fashioned and Seamless Hosiery for Eight Southeastern Labor Market Areas, by the Bureau's Regional Office at Atlanta, July 1943, and from unpublished material in the Wage Analysis Division, indicate that 53 percent of the boarders in full-fashioned mills in 1943 were women.

The relative importance of the major occupations in the 97 seamless-hosiery mills covered in the 1938 study are shown below:

	Percent of total wage earners
Boarders	7. 8
Clippers	2. 7
Folders, wrappers, and boxers	3. 2
Knitters	24. 0
Automatic	4. 0
Rib	1. 5
String	2. 3
Transfer	16. 2
Loopers	19. 0
Machine fixers	4. 8
Menders and seamers	6. 8
Pairers	3. 8
All other	27. 9

SKILLS REQUIRED

The greater prevalence of female workers is directly related to the nature and skill level of the occupations in the seamless mills. In the prewar period the seamless-hosiery mills utilized larger proportions of women workers than did the full-fashioned hosiery mills; differences have been even greater during the war. The employment of women in the seamless branch of the industry rose from 67 percent in 1939 to 75 percent in August 1944, an 8-point increase as compared to a 6-point rise (from 57 to 63 percent) in the full-fashioned branch. In 1938, 79 percent of all unskilled workers in seamless-hosiery mills and 73 percent of the semiskilled, were women; women constituted only a negligible proportion of the workers in the skilled jobs.

In the seamless-hosiery manufacture, the occupational requirements involve not only less mechanical ability, but less technical experience such as is accumulated over a relatively long period. Seamless-hosiery machinery is much simpler in design and function, the jobs are generally more operative in nature, and the operations (even though they may not differ in repetitive character from those in full-fashioned mills) are such that manual dexterity, limited mechanical skill, and the ability to perform a number of relatively simple tasks are of greatest importance.

Job Requirements in Seamless Knitting

The training period required for seamless knitting, in contrast to that in full-fashioned, is comparatively short, and the operators are considered to be semiskilled. The seamless knitting machines are highly automatic in operation, yet simple in design. Seamless hosiery is less complex than full-fashioned hosiery in its construction, and although different kinds of men's socks or women's seamless hose are produced on different types of machines, their knitting requires relatively little skill and on most machines demands only intermittent attention. The duties of the seamless knitter include keeping the set of machines supplied with yarn, tying broken ends, and removing finished hose. If the machines are not completely automatic, the knitter must also transfer the rib tops, by means of a transfer ring, to each of the knitting machines to knit the foot.

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Types of machines used.—Because of some variation in the skills required for operation and because of differences in the kind and quality of hose produced, knitting machines may be classified into three major groups.[6]

The first group consists of hand-transfer machines, usually grouped in sets of four or five machines, called "footers." The ribbed top (or welt) of the hose is knit in tubular form on a separate rib machine and is transferred by the knitter, link by link, onto the needles of a circular ring which is subsequently placed on the "footer" to complete the remainder of the stocking. Once the machine has finished a sock, it stops and remains idle until the sock is removed and another circular ring, to which the rib top has been transferred, is set into place.

The second group consists of automatic machines which run on a continuous-knit principle, making the complete sock, including the rib and toe, and beginning another without interruption. Because of the continuous-knit principle and the minimum attention required, a single operator can handle a larger number of such machines. The number of machines per set and their speed and complexity are determined by the type of hose they are built to knit. The number per set may vary widely, but averages about 20 machines.[7] Automatic machines are of wide variety. Plain colors, spirals, wraps, reverse plaiting, English rib, mock rib, and fancy link patterns all require machines of different construction. The knitter capable of knitting hose on one type of machine may require retraining and experience on another model before he understands the mechanical details and becomes proficient in its operation.

The third group is composed of hand-transfer machines which have been converted to automatic operation by the addition of a so-called "elastic attachment." The conversion is comparatively simple and inexpensive, and the elastic attachment makes unnecessary the separate rib knitting and the hand-transfer process. Machines so converted must use elastic, or rubberized yarn, in the rib of the socks. With this exception, the product and process are similar to those of the conventional automatic machines. Such converted machines are grouped in sets at least as large as those of the conventional automatic machines and may be even larger, because the converted machines were originally designed to knit simple patterns and therefore require less attention.

Use and effect of elastic attachments.—Elastic attachments were adopted principally as an expedient for modernizing obsolescent machinery and reducing labor costs. Unit labor requirements and costs for the production of hand-transfer hose were high. In contrast to the 20 to 30 converted transfer machines usually attended by one operator, one knitter could operate only 4 to 5 hand-transfer knitting machines. On a set of conventional automatic, or converted transfer machines, the operator in 8 hours could produce 80 to 95 dozen pairs of hose; on a set of hand-transfer machines, designed to produce hose of similar pattern, the knitter averaged only 14 to 18 dozen pairs and this did not take into consideration the labor required for rib knitting and pulling.

[6] Such machines are grouped into sets, each set requiring one knitter operator.

[7] The Scott and Williams "H H", Reverse Plait, and "K" and "R I" models may run as high as 25 to 30 machines per operator. The more complicated Komet and Links and Links models generally are placed in sets of 10 machines.

The popularity of men's hose with elastic tops became so great that many of the conventional automatic machines were "converted" to the production of such goods by means of elastic attachments. A survey of 49 mills by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1942 indicated that, of the total 17,000 knitting machines in the seamless-hosiery mills, 3,000 were equipped with elastic attachments and a third of the latter had been conventional automatic machines.

Following the freezing of rubberized yarn in 1942, the conventional automatic machines reverted to the production of the customary automatic (rib-top) hose. Most of the hand-transfer machines with elastic attachments were put back on hand-transfer work or retired from production. A few undertook the production of socks with "victory tops," or simulated rib. A spot survey in 1942 of 22 seamless mills with 6,000 machines showed that they had 3,500 hand-transfer machines in operation before the rubber freeze; of these, 1,800 were producing elastic-top hose and 1,700 were on hand-transfer operations. After the rubber freeze, 2,300 machines were on hand-transfer work, an increase of 600. Of the remainder, 400 had been put on the production of hose with victory tops, and 800 had become at least temporarily idle, because some mills hesitated to engage in the higher-cost production of hand-transferred hose or were unable to recruit transfer knitters to operate the machines.

WOMEN IN SEAMLESS KNITTING

In 1938, women held 67 percent of the jobs on knitting machines in seamless mills, as compared to 1 percent in full-fashioned mills. Women knitters had increased to 74 percent by 1943, but the proportion of women varied considerably from mill to mill, depending on the type of knitting performed or even on the model of the machines in use.

As early as 1938, 88 percent of the knitter operators on hand-transfer machines were women, for their manual dexterity made them particularly adaptable to hand-transfer knitting. Moreover, the job largely involved a short cycle of highly repetitive tasks. The introduction and widespread adoption of cheaper elastic-top knitting, which was doubtless stimulated by the minimum wages under the Fair Labor Standards Act, caused a marked decline in the use of transfer knitters. A comparison between 1938 and 1940 in 87 seamless-hosiery mills shows that the operation of machines on transfer top, string work, and rib knitting decreased 23 percent, and that automatic and converted transfer knitting increased 19 percent. In addition, there were less than half as many transfer-knitter learners in 1940 as in 1938. Further indication of the technological displacement of transfer knitters is shown by the fact that the employment of all knitters declined approximately 15 percent, although total employment in the 87 identical mills in 1940 was only 3.3 percent less than in 1938.[8]

The freezing of rubber encouraged the return of hand-transfer hosiery and, with it, the use of women transfer knitters. The gradual disappearance of men from this occupation has been accelerated by wartime conditions. By 1943, less than 5 percent of such knitters were men.[9]

[8] Data are from the mimeographed report Earnings in the Seamless Hosiery Industry, 1940, prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Division, April 1941.

[9] Significantly, the substitution of women for men in transfer knitting gained its first impetus in World War I. The manpower situation during the current war appears to have completed the shift of the occupation from men to women.

Employment outlook.—It is evident that the proportion of women is quite unlikely to decline in transfer knitting after the war, but the proportion of women in seamless knitting generally may depend on the extent to which hand-transferred hose are produced.

The situation as regards employment of women on converted knitting machines, equipped to produce hose with elastic tops, is less clear. Many mills, as they added elastic attachments to their old machines, retained their women transfer knitters and used them as knitters on the converted machines. With the increase in the size of the set from 5 to 25 (or more) machines, the character of the work changed completely. The knitters were no longer operators with a strict cycle of duties, but became responsible primarily for vigilance in seeing that all machines were knitting properly, in supplying them with yarn, etc. Although the ability to make minor repairs was a desirable attribute, the converted machines were almost universally of comparatively simple design and, despite their age, required only occasional attention.

There has been no wartime experience in the employment of women knitters on elastic-top hose upon which assumptions regarding the character of postwar employment may be predicated. The generally satisfactory experience of mills with the use of women prior to the freezing of rubberized yarns suggests, however, that they may be used more widely. An added advantage stems from the fact that experienced workers will be immediately available from among the transfer knitters when mills reconvert their knitting machines.

Women had been used to some degree on the conventional automatic knitting machines. By 1938, about a fifth of such knitters were women, but their employment was generally restricted to models which were less complex in design and operation. Since this group of automatic machines includes the latest and most complicated models, it is not surprising that their prewar employment included the smallest proportion of women. The loss of male labor resulted in the greater utilization of women on such machines, as on the others, and by 1943 slightly over half of the knitters on automatic machines were women. Nevertheless, although there may be some partial retention of the wartime gains, the employers' preference for male knitters on this type of knitting machines will have noticeable effects on the proportion of women employed.

Finally, another important consideration in the future employment of women in knitting is the postwar promotion of 400-needle, seamless, "bare-leg" stockings. Interest in the manufacture of these stockings was aroused prior to the war because of the form-setting qualities of nylon. The machines on which the bare-leg stockings are knit are automatic and knit the complete stocking in one continuous process, beginning another cycle without interruption or attention. They were tentatively grouped in sets of 20 to 30 machines.

The war and the resultant loss of nylon for civilian use in 1942 cut short the manufacture of nylon bare-leg hosiery almost before it emerged from the experimental stage. Here, also, technical knowledge and the aptitude for mechanics may be the determining factor in the job qualifications for the operation of the new machines, and it is most likely that men will be employed. If seamless nylons meet with the popular acceptance and demand that many expect, a resultant boom in employment in seamless-hosiery mills may be

reasonably expected. Such a development would result in the employment of a greater number of women for other occupations, even if they are not utilized on the 400-needle machines in the knitting department.

WOMEN IN BOARDING OPERATIONS

Boarders constitute about 8 percent of the total workers in seamless-hosiery mills. The hose handled by boarders in these mills are heavier than the sheer full-fashioned hosiery, and thus do not require the same degree of care in handling to avoid damage. Heated metal forms, rather than wooden forms and drying cabinets, are predominantly used in seamless-hosiery mills, and the danger of skin burns is somewhat greater. Otherwise the occupations in seamless and full-fashioned mills are comparable. Nevertheless, before the war, women constituted only 15 percent of the boarders in seamless-hosiery mills, as against about 50 percent in the full-fashioned hosiery mills.

Early in the war some seamless-hosiery mills attempted to replace their losses in the boarding department with 17- and 18-year old boys, but the lowering of the draft age made this plan impracticable. By 1943, the proportion of women boarders was 36 percent, or more than double that in 1938. The wartime gains of women in this occupation suggest that the previous hesitancy to use them stemmed from inertia rather than from proved impracticability. It is believed that boarding will present employment opportunities for women, although postwar increases in the employment of women boarders will not compare with those made during the war. It is possible that some women may be transferred to the boarding department from the knitting occupations, as servicemen return to their former occupations in the knitting department.

WOMEN IN OTHER OCCUPATIONS

Elsewhere in the seamless-hosiery mills, the proportion of women employed has increased to a point which amounts virtually to their exclusive use. Looping, pairing, seaming, mending, and inspecting have long been considered entirely women's jobs, and no change is anticipated. In miscellaneous occupations the wartime increases in women workers are accentuations of earlier trends.

The only jobs in which women have not replaced men to any degree are machine fixers and helpers, and dye-house employees. The possibility of the utilization of women in these occupations is remote.

Labor Requirements for Manufacture of Synthetic Rubber[1]

Summary

THE 55 plants which comprise the synthetic-rubber industry in the United States have a rated annual capacity of 833,704 long tons of crude rubber. Estimates based on operations of the industry during 1943 and the first half of 1944 indicate that these plants at capacity will require almost 20,000 employees, of whom about three-fourths will be wage earners. Copolymer synthesizing plants and butadiene plants will require the largest number of employees, some 7,860 and 6,680, respectively. Personnel engaged in operation of the process units will outnumber those in the other occupational categories, while maintenance workers will constitute the next largest group. The most important jobs in the operating category are those of chief operator (stillman), assistant operator, and helper. Auxiliary duties are performed by compressor operators, pumpers, gaugers, and firemen. The largest job categories in the maintenance group are those of pipe fitter, instrument man, machinist and mechanic, and laborer.

It is estimated that the industry will require 23.8 employees per 1,000 long tons of synthetic rubber produced, if all plants operate at designed capacity levels. The Buna rubbers will require 22.7 employees, while Butyl and Neoprene combined will require 30.8 employees per 1,000 long tons. There is a marked decrease in the number of wage earners required per unit of product as plant size increases; unit labor requirements for the group of smallest plants are approximately three times those for the group of largest plants.

The recruitment and training of personnel to staff the new facilities was accomplished largely during 1943. Trained employees to staff the new plants were transferred from other facilities of the parent companies, or recruited from companies in the petroleum, rubber, and chemicals industries. Unskilled workers were drawn chiefly from industries and farms in the areas surrounding the new plants. All of the companies gave special training to the employees transferred to the new facilities, either at their own plants or in facilities operated by other companies in the same industry.[1a]

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division by George E. Sadler under the supervision of James M. Silberman. This article supplements and revises, on the basis of later information, the study, Labor Requirements for Synthetic Rubber Industry, in the Monthly Labor Review, May 1943.

[1a] A complete discussion of the industry's staffing and training techniques and problems will be included in a reprint of this article.

The Synthetic Rubber Industry

The synthetic rubber industry was created in its entirety during the stress of an emergency period. The critical shortage of rubber resulting from the loss of the natural-rubber producing areas necessitated the rapid planning, engineering, development, and construction of a large and complex new industry from very modest beginnings. Developments which in normal times would have required at least a decade were telescoped into a 2-year period.

An undertaking of almost equal magnitude was that of staffing the new plants and initiating and balancing the actual operations. This had to be done in spite of increasing shortages of workmen and sharp competition for qualified employees from the expanding petroleum and chemicals industries. During the early developmental period the Bureau of Labor Statistics made a study of the labor requirements of the industry,[2] since it was believed that a knowledge of the numbers and types of workmen required to man the new plants would prove helpful in the formulation of recruiting and staffing plans. As construction of the plants neared completion and additional information became available, the present report was prepared, covering more recent and detailed estimates of labor requirements and additional information on the occupational structure of the industry. The estimates here shown are based on reports received from 95 percent of the plants in the industry. The statistics were supplemented by a field survey during which representatives of the Bureau visited 20 plants in all sections of the country.

There are 42 Government-financed plants and 13 privately owned establishments in the synthetic-rubber industry in the United States. These include plants synthetizing Buna S, Buna N, Neoprene, and Butyl types of rubber, and facilities for manufacturing raw materials for these synthetics.[3] There are four plants in Canada, manufacturing butadiene, stryrene, Buna S, and Butyl. The 23 synthesizing plants in this country have together a designed annual productive capacity of 833,704 long tons of synthetic rubber.[4] The 26 butadiene plants, which supply the major component for the Buna-type rubbers, have a combined rated capacity of 675,945 short tons per year, while the 6 styrene plants, which manufacture the other component of Buna S, are designed to produce 191,700 short tons each year.[5]

The synthesizing plants range in size from a semicommercial plant rated at 700 long tons per year to the huge 120,000 long-ton facility at Port Neches, Tex., which is operated jointly by two rubber companies. There are 4 plants of 60,000 tons capacity and 7 designed to produce 30,000 long tons per year. There is a similar wide variation in size among the butadiene plants, which range from a 700-ton pilot plant to one with a rated capacity of 100,000 short tons per year. Five of the butadiene projects are designed to produce over 50,000 short tons per year, while 4 are rated at from 25,000 to 50,000

[2] See Labor Requirements for Synthetic Rubber Industry, in Monthly Labor Review, May 1943.

[3] Facilities making special-purpose rubbers, such as Thiokol, Koroseal, and smaller rubber-like materials are not covered.

[4] This total includes 705,000 tons of Buna S, 11,704 tons of Buna N, 68,000 tons of Butyl, and 49,000 tons of Neoprene.

[5] Throughout the text of this article, production figures for synthetic-rubber components (butadiene and styrene) are expressed in short tons of 2,000 pounds each, while figures for the synthetic rubbers themselves (Buna S, Buna N, Butyl, and Neoprene) are expressed in long tons of 2,240 pounds each. This conforms to industry practice.

tons. Eleven of the butadiene facilities are relatively small, with capacities of less than 10,000 short tons per year. Styrene plants vary in size from a 4,200-ton plant to facilities with capacities of 50,000 short tons per year.

The plants are situated in 22 communities, in three general areas of the country, Northeast, Southwest, and Pacific Coast. The facilities are situated near sources of material supply or adjacent to other establishments of the operating companies. In the Northeast are all of the alcohol-butadiene plants, both of the Neoprene projects, and three styrene plants which constitute about one-third of total styrene capacity. The nine copolymer projects in this area represent about two-fifths of the total capacity for the Buna-type rubbers. In the Southwest area are facilities designed to produce more than half of the butadiene and styrene needed for the manufacture of Buna S rubber, and almost half of all of the copolymer capacity included in the program. Here are also both of the Butyl-rubber projects. Plants on the Pacific Coast represent a significant but much smaller segment of the total industry.

CHANGES DURING 1943 IN GOVERNMENT PRODUCTION PROGRAM

There were several modifications in the Government program which were made necessary by changes in estimated needs for war production and by rapid technological development. The most extensive revisions were made in the butadiene phase of the program, which was expanded to include seven petroleum refinery installations converted to the manufacture of butadiene. These conversions added a combined rated capacity of 68,860 short tons per year. The capacity of a group of facilities on the Pacific Coast, originally designed to produce 85,000 tons of butadiene annually, was adjusted downward to 55,000 tons per year. A 12,000-ton plant and a small pilot plant in Philadelphia, which use the so-called "Polish" alcohol-butadiene process, were included in the Government program. Finally, as a result of technical improvements, there were several minor increases in the rated capacity for small butadiene plants already in operation. The total change in the rated tonnage for all butadiene plants was from 631,981 to 675,945; this included both Government and privately financed plants.

Virtually no changes were announced in construction plans for copolymer facilities. A substantial increase was made in the rated production volume for a private Neoprene plant, but, on the other hand, the program for producing Butyl rubber was scaled down from 132,000 long tons per year to 68,000 tons, principally because of a reduction in estimated requirements. There were no changes in rated capacities for the Canadian facilities.[6]

EARLY PRODUCTION EXPERIENCE

The construction of plants in the synthetic-rubber program progressed rapidly during 1943. All of the alcohol-butadiene plants, a number of the Buna S polymerization facilities, and a minority of the petroleum-butadiene plants were given highest priorities under a special WPB directive to permit early completion. The construction of several plants not included in the directive lagged somewhat, but

[6] Progress Report No. 6, Office of Rubber Director, July 25, 1944.

by mid-March 1944 primary construction of practically all of the Government plants had been completed.

The output of synthetic rubbers and their components during 1943 and the first 6 months of 1944 is shown in table 1.

The production levels attained in most of the completed plants during this period varied considerably from the designed capacity. Several of the projects which were completed during the early months of 1943 were operating far in excess of their rated capacity before the end of the year. However, other facilities which had been finished late in 1943 or early in 1944 were still in their initial operations phase, and were producing at only a fraction of their rated capacity. In addition, production in a number of plants was limited by shortages of raw materials or by technical difficulties.

The production of Buna S and Neoprene during this period was well above the rated capacity of the plants. Difficulties encountered in the synthesis of Butyl, however, prevented any sizable output of that synthetic. These problems are being overcome by intensive research, and it appears that the Butyl plants, which were operating at about 50 percent of designed capacity at the end of 1943, will eventually produce in excess of 75 percent of the rated volume. Plants producing the Buna S rubber components, butadiene and styrene, with a few exceptions produced above rated capacity, the excess ranging upward to 60 percent. Only one small petroleum-butadiene plant failed entirely to produce butadiene. The only product shift planned involves the manufacture of some Buna N in one or more of the Buna S plants to supplement the output of the small private plants and fulfill essential requirements for this special-purpose rubber.

TABLE 1.—*Production of Synthetic Rubbers in the United States and Canada, by Quarters, During 1943 and First Half of 1944* [1]

Year and quarter	Production (in long tons) of synthetic rubber				
	Total	Buna S	Butyl	Neoprene	Buna N
1943:					
First quarter	10,486	3,102	35	4,372	2,977
Second quarter	28,373	18,792	393	5,853	3,335
Third quarter	71,217	56,741	364	10,049	4,063
Fourth quarter	124,168	106,146	581	13,239	4,112
1944:					
First quarter	167,083	145,641	3,081	13,962	4,399
Second quarter	209,004	186,035	3,928	14,991	4,050

[1] Progress Report No. 6, Office of Rubber Director, July 25, 1944. The output of Canadian facilities was relatively small.

Size and Composition of the Work Force

The original estimates of the number and types of employees required to operate all facilities in the synthetic-rubber industry were prepared during 1942 from data obtained from the operating companies in the Government program. The labor requirements were based on the engineering plans for a number of projects and on the initial operating experience of the few plants which were already in production.

As construction continued during 1943 and 1944, numerous plants reached production status and others gained further operating expe-

rience. Since additional information regarding labor requirements became available, the present revised estimates of the labor required to operate the industry at rated capacity were prepared. These were based on company reports received during the latter part of 1943 and early in 1944.

During this period the operation of the plants in the industry was not sufficiently continuous to permit an analysis of labor requirements from actual employment data. The experience of the companies in attaining capacity operation following completion of the new facilities varied widely because of technical difficulties and construction delays. In addition, during 1943 and the early months of 1944 some plants operated at rates well below normal capacity, as the result of shortages of materials or components, whereas others produced at a volume considerably in excess of rated capacity. For these reasons, the labor requirements were estimated from reports of the number of workers necessary to operate the industry at rated capacity levels.

Reports of labor requirements were obtained from 45 of the 55 plants in the Government program. Data from earlier reports were used for 7 establishments, and employment for the remaining 3 plants was estimated from the personnel requirements of plants of similar size and process. Upon the basis of this information, it appears that the industry at capacity operation will require almost 20,000 employees (table 2). The copolymer plants synthesizing Buna S, the major rubber in the program, will require the largest number of employees, 7,860, while facilities manufacturing the components butadiene and styrene will require 6,676 and 1,841 employees, respectively. Butyl and Neoprene plants will employ 3,603 persons at capacity operation.

Almost half of all employees will be required by establishments in the Southwest area; facilities in the State of Texas alone will em-

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Labor Requirements for Synthetic-Rubber Industry Operating at Rated Capacity, by Branch of Industry and Occupational Category* [1]

Occupational category	Total	Branch of industry			
		Butadiene	Styrene	Copolymer [2]	Butyl and Neoprene [3]
Number of establishments	55	26	6	19	4
Total employment	19,978	6,676	1,841	7,858	3,603
Wage earners [4]	15,120	5,020	1,290	5,982	2,828
Salaried [5]	4,858	1,656	551	1,876	775
Operating	6,629	1,784	573	3,193	1,079
Materials handling and warehouse	1,306	213	50	774	269
Supervisory	860	177	68	453	162
Maintenance	5,383	2,244	466	1,457	1,216
Power and utilities	571	378	31	42	120
Engineering and technical	2,094	856	189	680	369
General management	299	80	61	142	16
Office	1,605	543	233	601	228
Plant protection	1,231	401	170	516	144

[1] This information is taken from schedules filed with the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics during the latter part of 1943 and early in 1944. The estimates cover 42 Government-financed plants in this country, and 13 small private plants. The total is made up of 26 plants making butadiene, with a rated annual capacity of 675,945 short tons; 6 plants producing styrene, with an annual capacity of 191,700 short tons; 19 copolymer plants with a combined annual capacity of 716,704 long tons, including 4 small plants producing chiefly Buna N; and 4 plants making the basic components and polymerizing Butyl and Neoprene rubbers, with a total annual capacity of 68,000 long tons of Butyl and 49,000 long tons of Neoprene.

[2] Plants which polymerize purified raw materials into Buna-type rubber.

[3] These plants both prepare the basic components and polymerize them into synthetic rubbers.

[4] Includes personnel in the operating, materials handling, maintenance, power and utilities, and plant protection categories.

[5] Includes supervisory, engineering and technical, general management, and office personnel.

ploy 6,540 workers, or about a third of the total for the country. Plants in the Northeast area will need 8,145 workers, while 2,176 employees will be engaged by plants on the Pacific Coast. Individual communities with large numbers of employees in the new industry are Louisville, Ky., with 3,139; Los Angeles, Calif., with 2,176; Baton Rouge, La., with 2,102; and Port Neches, Tex., with 1,913.

To facilitate the analysis of the occupational requirements of the industry, the employees were classified into functional categories. The groups include operating, materials handling, maintenance, power and utilities, plant protection, supervisory, engineering and technical, general management, and office personnel. Employees in the first five categories have been classed as wage earners; those in the remaining four as salaried personnel. As shown in table 3, 15,120 workers, or about three-fourths of all employees, will be wage earners. This proportion will be highest in the Butyl, Neoprene and copolymer synthesizing plants, slightly lower in butadiene projects, and lowest in styrene-manufacturing facilities.

Operating employees constitute the most numerous category, with 6,629 wage earners, or 33 percent of total employment, engaged in direct production duties. Maintenance workers represent the second largest category, a total of 5,383 workers being required for service of plant and equipment. The engineering and technical, supervisory, and general management categories, which include almost all of the technically trained men in the plant, will total 3,253, or about 16 percent of all employees.

The various industry branches have different ratios of operating and maintenance personnel to total employment, chiefly because of the nature of the facilities and processes. Copolymer plants will require the highest proportion of operating employees and the lowest of maintenance workers—41 and 19 percent, respectively. In Butyl and Neoprene projects and butadiene manufacturing facilities, however, the percentage of maintenance workers will exceed that of operating employees. In the butadiene plants, 34 percent of all employees will be engaged in maintenance and only 27 percent in operations; similar percentages for the integrated Butyl and Neoprene projects are 34 and 30 (table 3).

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Estimated Labor Requirements for Synthetic-Rubber Production, by Branch of Industry and Occupational Category* [1]

Occupational category	Total	Branch of industry			
		Butadiene	Styrene	Copolymer [2]	Butyl and Neoprene [3]
Total employment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wage earners [4]	75.7	75.2	70.1	76.1	78.5
Salaried [5]	24.3	24.8	29.9	23.9	21.5
Operating	33.2	26.7	31.1	40.6	29.9
Materials handling and warehouse	6.5	3.2	2.7	9.9	7.5
Supervisory	4.3	2.7	3.7	5.8	4.5
Maintenance	26.9	33.6	25.3	18.5	33.8
Power and utilities	2.9	5.7	1.7	.5	3.3
Engineering and technical	10.5	12.8	10.3	8.6	10.2
General management	1.5	1.2	3.3	1.8	.5
Office	8.0	8.1	12.7	7.7	6.3
Plant protection	6.2	6.0	9.2	6.6	4.0

For footnotes, see table 2.

An analysis of the occupations required to staff synthetic-rubber facilities was made for 18 butadiene, 6 styrene, and 9 copolymer establishments for which detailed information was available. Personnel in the Neoprene and Butyl plants were not included, since these facilities make up only a minor part of the Government program and the occupations in these plants were not sufficiently related to the remainder of the industry. The varied job terminology of the industry necessitated grouping the jobs reported by the different companies into uniform job classifications.

There is considerable variation between plants in the distribution of personnel by occupation, owing to the different management practices of the operating companies and to dissimilarities in processes, equipment, and control methods. This diversity is reflected not only in the number of men assigned to specific jobs, but also in the types of jobs in similar plants.

The primary considerations governing occupational requirements are the technical characteristics of the plants. The major processing phases in the production of butadiene are dehydrogenation of the feedstock, absorption and fractionation of the crude butadiene, and extraction and purification. Key steps in styrene preparation are propane cracking, alkylation, ethylene dehydrogenation, styrene distillation, and purification. The most responsible operating positions in a butadiene or styrene plant are those of the stillman or chief operators, who direct the functioning of their units under the general supervision of the shift foremen. The stillmen are aided by assistant stillmen, or operators, and by stillman helpers. Specialized duties are handled by compressor operators, pumpers, gaugers, and firemen. Necessary labor and general assistance are provided by the process laborers and utility men. The largest number of employees are required for the jobs of assistant stillman and stillman helper.

In the copolymer plants, the major operating steps are polymerization, component recovery, latex coagulation, filtering, drying, milling, and baling. The most responsible operating jobs are those of the polymerization reactor and coagulation unit operators; they are assisted by helpers. Less-experienced workmen are required to handle the filters, driers, rubber mills, and baling machines. There are various other auxiliary functions in a copolymer plant, and all require specialized or utility employees. Personnel in charge of the reactors constitute the most numerous group.

Because of the complexity of synthetic-rubber plants, maintenance work requires an unusually large proportion of skilled craftsmen. The jobs in which more than two-fifths of the maintenance workmen in butadiene plants were reported are laborer, pipe fitter, instrument man, machinist, and their respective helpers. In styrene plants, the largest number of craftsmen reported are mechanics and helpers, while in copolymer plants over half of the maintenance personnel consists of mechanics, pipe fitters, electricians, helpers, janitors, and sweepers.

Relatively few employees are assigned to the handling of materials. Butadiene and styrene production is similar to oil refining, and materials in process are moved through pipes by pumping. Copolymer facilities are highly mechanized, and pumping and conveyor equipment handle most of the material flow. The copolymer plants employ some men to package, truck, and load the finished rubber.

Unit Labor Requirements

The synthetic-rubber industry, operating at designed capacity levels, will require an average of 23.8 employees per 1,000 long tons of product according to the reports of the plants surveyed.[7] The most important rubbers in the program on a volume basis, the Buna types, will require 22.7 employees per unit, while Butyl and Neoprene combined will need an average of 30.8 employees (table 4).[8] The higher requirement for the latter group is due chiefly to the large labor requirements for the production of Neoprene, which involves more complex manufacturing processes than does the preparation of the other synthetics.

TABLE 4.—*Average Unit Labor Requirements for Synthetic-Rubber Production, by Branch of Industry and Occupational Category* [1]

Occupational category	All plants	Branch of industry				
		Total Buna-type rubber	Butadiene	Styrene	Copolymer	Butyl and Neoprene
Number of plants	51	[2] 47	[3] 23	6	[4] 18	4
Total annual capacity (tons) [5]	833,004	716,004	672,860	191,700	716,004	117,000
	Average number of employees required per 1,000 tons designed capacity					
All categories	[6] 23.81	[6] 22.67	9.76	9.60	10.93	30.80
Operating	7.89	7.67	2.59	2.99	4.43	9.22
Materials handling and warehouse	1.56	1.44	.31	.26	1.08	2.30
Maintenance	6.44	5.79	3.32	2.43	2.03	10.39
Power and utilities	.69	.63	.56	.16	.05	1.03
Supervisory	1.01	.95	.24	.35	.63	1.39
Engineering and technical	2.48	2.38	1.24	.99	.95	3.15
General management	.35	.38	.11	.32	.20	.14
Office	1.92	1.92	.80	1.21	.84	1.95
Plant protection	1.47	1.51	.59	.89	.72	1.23

[1] See table 2, footnote 1.
[2] This category shows labor requirements for both the production of the components and their synthesis into rubber. The few employees required to produce the acrylonitrile needed for Buna N rubber have not been included.
[3] Three small pilot plants have been excluded, since employee requirements for experimental production are not comparable with those for commercial production.
[4] Plants polymerizing butadiene and styrene into Buna-type rubber. One pilot plant is omitted. Three small private plants included in the total produce some Buna-N type synthetic rubber
[5] Butadiene and styrene production is expressed in short tons, synthetic rubber polymerization in long tons.
[6] This ratio is based on the assumption that all component facilities are operating at their designed capacity.

Butyl and Neoprene are made in integrated facilities which both prepare the components and synthesize the rubber. The manufacture of butadiene and styrene, and the synthesis of the Buna-type rubber, however, are performed in separate plants. Unit labor requirements for butadiene and styrene are 9.8 and 9.6 employees, respectively, per 1,000 short tons of each while polymerization requires 10.9 employees per 1,000 long tons of product. The similarity in labor requirements for the three branches of the industry is unusual in view of the fact that the manufacturing processes are entirely differ-

[7] This estimate and the average labor-requirement data for total copolymer production are based on the assumption that the planned program is in balance, and that all plants will perform at rated capacity.
[8] All of the requirements shown include employees necessary for both the preparation of components and their synthesis into crude rubber.

ent. Although each of these processes is highly mechanized and controlled chiefly by instrument, certain phases of the preparation of the finished copolymer involve somewhat more manual labor than is found in the production of the basic components. It was not found practicable to derive separate unit labor requirements for the preparation of the components and the synthesis of Butyl and Neoprene.

Unit labor costs in branches of the industry.—There is a marked decrease in the number of employees required per unit of product as plant size increases. In butadiene manufacture, the eight commercial-scale facilities of less than 10,000 short tons annual capacity require on the average 20.1 employees for each 1,000 short tons of butadiene produced, and the six plants with rated capacity in excess of 10,000 tons, but less than 30,000 tons, require 14.7 employees per unit produced. In contrast, the five plants rated at from 30,000 to 60,000 tons require only 8.8 employees per 1,000 tons of butadiene, and the four largest plants, each built to produce 60,000 short tons per year or more (the largest is 100,000 tons), require only 7.4 employees per unit (table 5).

These estimates of labor requirements per unit of output for butadiene production are not strictly comparable with those for the 1942 survey. The present estimates are based on reports from a larger number of companies, and three small pilot plants which were included in the previous survey have been left out. The exclusion of these plants explains in part the lower unit requirements for butadiene production shown in the group of smallest plants (39.8 in 1942 survey, 20.1 in 1943), since the experimental plants are not designed for volume production and have extremely large employee requirements. The 1943 estimates of employee requirements for butadiene plants of between 10,000 and 30,000 tons capacity are approximately one-third higher than the 1942 figures, while for the groups of plants of 30,000 to 60,000 tons and 60,000 tons and over, the 1943 estimates exceed those of 1942 by 13 and 40 percent, respectively. The earlier estimates of labor requirements were entirely theoretical, based on engineering plans, whereas these later figures incorporate some experience in actual operations.

The estimates of unit labor requirements for styrene plants indicate that, with one exception, plants with capacities of 25,000 tons or less require more employees per 1,000 short tons of styrene produced than do the larger projects. In a similar manner, unit labor requirements for copolymer plants decrease as plant size increases. The 3 smallest copolymer plants, each with less than 25,000 long tons annual capacity, require 23.3 employees per 1,000 long tons of product, approximately twice the requirement for the 8 projects with from 25,000 to 50,000 tons capacity. The 7 facilities rated in excess of 50,000 tons per year show only slightly smaller unit labor requirements than the medium-sized plants, or 10.2 employees per unit. Individual plant data indicate that the reduction in unit labor requirements with increase in copolymer plant size is relatively negligible beyond the 30,000-ton plant level.

Unit labor requirements for Neoprene production vary slightly between the large and small plants. The company operating the larger of the two Butyl projects reports a higher estimate of unit labor requirements than does the management of the smaller plant; however, the processes employed in the two plants vary, and only

full-scale operating experience will reveal the actual relative requirements of the two plants.

Because of differences in classification, the present estimates of labor requirements for styrene, copolymer, and Neoprene and Butyl production are not comparable with the 1942 figures.

TABLE 5.—*Average Unit Labor Requirements for Synthetic-Rubber Production, by Branch of Industry, Occupational Category, and Plant Capacity*

Occupational category	Butadiene					Styrene		
	All plants	Under 10,000 short tons	10,000 to 29,999 short tons	30,000 to 59,999 short tons	60,000 short tons and over	All plants	25,000 short tons or less	Over 25,000 short tons
Number of plants	23	[1] 8	6	5	4	6	3	3
Total annual capacity (tons) [2]	672,860	48,060	94,800	210,000	320,000	191,700	54,200	137,500
	Average number of employees required per 1,000 short tons designed capacity							
All categories	9.76	20.10	14.70	8.80	7.37	9.60	[3] 10.72	9.16
Operating	2.59	5.71	4.39	2.30	1.77	2.99	4.11	2.55
Materials handling and warehouse	.31	.48	.45	.13	.36	.26	.17	.30
Maintenance	3.32	8.47	5.00	2.76	2.40	2.43	2.21	2.51
Power and utilities	.56	.21	.60	.61	.57	.16	----	.22
Supervisory	.24	.49	.47	.29	.11	.35	.55	.28
Engineering and technical	1.24	2.78	2.29	1.20	.72	.99	1.00	.98
General management	.11	.28	.21	.10	.06	.32	.35	.31
Office	.80	.19	.87	.75	.77	1.21	1.46	1.12
Plant protection	.59	.49	.42	.66	.61	.89	.87	.89

Occupational category	Copolymer				Butyl and Neoprene		
	All plants	Under 25,000 long tons	25,000 to 49,999 long tons	50,000 long tons and over	All plants	Under 30,000 long tons	30,000 long tons and over
Number of plants	18	[4] 3	8	7	4	2	2
Total annual capacity (tons) [2]	716,004	11,004	255,000	450,000	117,000	39,000	78,000
	Average number of employees required per 1,000 long tons designed capacity						
All categories	10.93	23.29	11.78	10.15	30.80	23.10	34.64
Operating	4.43	14.13	4.62	4.10	9.22	7.38	10.13
Materials handling and warehouse	1.08	.60	1.03	1.12	2.30	.85	3.03
Maintenance	2.03	3.01	2.15	1.94	10.39	6.51	12.33
Power and utilities	.05	----	----	.09	1.03	1.26	.91
Supervisory	.63	1.80	.63	.60	1.39	1.15	1.51
Engineering and technical	.95	2.43	1.23	.75	3.15	3.39	3.03
General management	.20	.22	.27	.15	.14	.15	.13
Office	.84	.74	1.01	.74	1.95	1.28	2.29
Plant protection	.72	.36	.84	.66	1.23	1.13	1.28

[1] Data for three small pilot plants, with a combined annual capacity of 3,085 short tons per year, have been omitted from this tabulation, since the employment requirements for experimental production are not comparable with those for commercial scale operations.

[2] Expressed in terms of designed capacity for all plants. For a number of facilities already in operation actual plant capacity has proved considerably greater than designed capacity. Average unit labor requirement ratios based on operation of actual capacity cannot be computed until all plants are in full operation.

[3] Includes data for a styrene plant operated in conjunction with a large butadiene plant. The joint operation of these facilities results in unusually low employee requirements for the styrene plant and hence a low figure for this group. If this facility were excluded, requirements for plants of 25,000 tons capacity and under would average 15.79 wage earners per 1,000 short tons annual capacity, while a similar figure for all styrene plants would be 10.32.

[4] Data for one small pilot plant have been omitted from this tabulation, since the employment requirements for experimental production are not comparable with those for commercial operations.

Employment Conditions

Full Industrial Employment in Relation to Farm Prosperity

FULL and profitable industrial employment is a necessary basis of demand for farm products and for adequate and profitable agricultural employment. Rural-urban cooperation is therefore of utmost importance. These views are emphasized in the Annual Report of the Secretary of Agriculture for 1944.

Industrial Basis of Agricultural Production

The report states that it is plain common sense for farmers to produce all that the country can consume and export without injuring the soil and without forcing producers' prices below a fair-profit level.

Large farm production can be continued, however, only if we have all-out industrial production as well. If industrial production falls, agricultural production must decline also. Industry and agriculture furnish a market for each other, the size of which depends on the degree of their activity. Abundant wartime farm production has been facilitated by the support prices that Congress has provided. Funds and authority will be necessary, when the war is over, both to maintain the support prices and to handle surplus-disposal operations, because naturally we shall have surplus stocks of food just as we shall have surplus airplanes, tanks, and guns. Some of these food supplies will be wanted for temporary relief abroad. In addition, this Nation will need authority to sell accumulated stocks abroad at prices that will meet those asked by other food-exporting countries. Mainly, however, the farmers' postwar market will depend on employment and consumer buying power in the United States.

The problems of agriculture during the reconversion and postwar period are discussed in the light of the decline of wartime demand for farm products. It is stated that even full employment under the existing distribution of nonfarm buying power in the United States will not absorb the output of current acreage, because present income patterns will leave millions of families without enough money for their essential needs. With unemployment, the outlook would be even worse. If the national income should fall to 60 billion dollars and if 15 million or more of an estimated 60 million workers were unemployed, "agricultural prices might drop to 60 percent of parity, and cash sales of agricultural commodities to possibly 6.5 billion dollars."

On the basis of a less-extreme assumption, if about 7 million workers were unable to find jobs—about the same proportion of the total labor force as was unemployed in 1940—the general price level would fall considerably below the level assumed for full employment.

With 7 million unemployed and prices generally down to or near those prevailing in 1941, the national income would be only about 105 billion dollars—45 billions, or 30 percent, less than under full employment. Farm prices would be down to

about 90 percent of parity; cash sales of farm commodities would drop to about 12 billion dollars. But net farm income would be only two-thirds of what it would be under full employment, somewhere around 7 billion dollars, as compared with something over 10 billions under full employment. Nevertheless, such a condition would still be one of relative prosperity as compared with a catastrophically severe postwar depression, with above 15 million workers unemployed.

The decisions as to what agriculture and the country should or should not do "are up to the people as a whole; they involve nonfarm as well as farm views and interests." The costs and drawbacks must be balanced against expected gains, "so that we may more surely choose the path that offers the greatest net advantage, under conditions either of full employment or of some degree of unemployment."

Meaning of "Full Employment" Assumption

The term "full employment" is recognized as having different meanings as used in different connections. In the report under review the main assumptions involved are taken to be—

(1) Full employment; (2) a national income maintained at about 150 billion dollars; (3) a general price level about the same as that of 1943; (4) farm prices somewhat below that level; (5) total imports in about the same relation to the national income as imports were to the national income in prewar years; (6) agricultural imports smaller in relation to total imports than before the war; and (7) agricultural exports reduced to about one-sixth of the total exports, as compared with one-fourth in the period 1935–39.

As the Department uses the term, "full employment" means a condition in which there will be a job available for every worker who is able and willing to work. It supposes that the working force will be employed at various tasks in roughly the same proportions as before the war and that similar standards will prevail with respect to hours and working conditions. On any given day, some workers will be temporarily unemployed, either because their work is seasonal, because they are on vacation, or because they are changing from one job to another. This temporary unemployment, the so-called frictional unemployment, may average 2 million workers.

The assumed national income of 150 billion dollars presupposes that 55½ million persons (exclusive of those in the armed services) will be working full time in, say, 1950, by which time reconversions will presumably have been completed—8 million in agriculture and 47½ million in nonagricultural employment. To produce the bill of goods necessary to make up the 150-billion-dollar national income, all of the available laboring force, except the persons "frictionally" unemployed, must be at work. "Excess" farm workers will have been transferred into industrial employment. Not only will jobs be waiting for those individuals in industry, but they will be filling those jobs. Otherwise, the national income will not reach the 150-billion figure.

Problems of Hired Farm Workers

The relations of hired farm workers to farm operators and to industrial workers are discussed in the report in some detail.

It [the farm-labor problem] involves the earnings and living standards of several million unorganized and inarticulate people who live partly within agriculture and partly on its fringes and who shift in large numbers between farm jobs and nonfarm jobs. All evidence points to the fact that they are among the most disadvantaged people in our society. Farm laborers constitute probably the poorest paid large group of essential workers in the United States. They include the workers who are most frequently out of work, families that are frequently without decent or even fixed abodes, and children so poorly schooled as to be almost a social liability. Their plight often gives rise to problems of public health and creates other dislocations in community life.

The traditional hope and incentive of the hired man, the hope of accumulating capital and climbing the ladder through tenancy to farm ownership, has been

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impaired under the intensive development of our commercial economy. Modern farming operations require so large an investment in machinery, land, and buildings that only a small percent of farm laborers are able to become established on economic units of their own. Moreover, the factors which have restricted the hired man's chances of becoming a farmer in his own right have resulted in the displacement of many small farmers. These displaced farmers remained for the most part in agriculture, but as laborers. They were competing, in the years prior to World War II, with others in the hired labor force for a diminishing number of farm jobs.

In short, farm laborers are a group which, although long a familiar part of the American agricultural scene, does not fit into our latter-day social pattern as well as it did a generation ago and whose case might conceivably become as grave a source of unrest as it has in certain other countries.

It is true that wartime demands for their services have enabled farm laborers to improve their position temporarily. Their income has been stepped up. They have better food, better clothing, somewhat better housing, and more stable jobs than they had before the war. Preservation of these gains in postwar years will require much constructive action.

The peculiar dependence of hired farm workers on the general prosperity of the country and on high levels of industrial employment and earnings is reflected in the sharp reductions in farm wages in periods of depression and the lag of farm wages even in periods of business upturn.

Naturally, any slackening off of urban employment reduces the migration from farms. Hence, in times of urban unemployment, the position of farm laborers comes under increased pressure. The record shows that farm-wage rates are highly vulnerable to recurring cycles of mass urban unemployment. Thus, contributing factors to substandard farm wages are to be found in conditions internal and external to agriculture. The importance of full urban employment to the economic welfare of farmers and farm laborers can hardly be overemphasized.

Migration from farms was fairly rapid during the 1920's, but much of the effect was offset by the high rate of natural increase in the farm population. In the 1930 decade migration from farms was completely offset by natural increase. In fact, the number of people of working age on farms increased, though the number of people actually working on farms was smaller at the end than at the beginning of the decade. Wartime has seen an unprecedented migration from farms. The present level of the farm population is approximately that which would have resulted had the 1916–40 trend not been interrupted by the depression of the 1930's.

Should the movement reverse itself after the war to such an extent as to bring the farm population back to its prewar level, farm wages would undoubtedly fall, simply from the pressure of the surplus labor supply. Under such conditions programs for improving or maintaining income of farmers could not greatly ameliorate the condition of farm laborers. The presence on the land of excess population, with large numbers of persons forced into subsistence farming, would tend to depress farm wages.

National Character of Farm-Labor Problems

The national character of the problems of hired farm labor is emphasized, together with the need for the working out of a program of national responsibility for dealing with the problem.

Although various measures can provide some degree of protection to agricultural wages, such measures cannot be looked upon as offering a panacea for all problems affecting the economic well-being of hired farm laborers. The challenging task for postwar agriculture is progressively to raise living standards for millions of low-income farm people—owner-operators, tenants, sharecroppers, and hired farm laborers. Policies to achieve this major objective will necessitate supplementary measures directed toward making agriculture more efficient and better able to provide an adequate level of living to farmers and farm laborers. The measures must necessarily be broad enough to deal with internal and external conditions affecting agriculture.

National agricultural policy after the war may well incorporate the principle that parity for agriculture with other industries also implies a parity of responsi-

bility to pay and maintain adequate wages and working conditions for its wage workers. Provision of wholesome and suitable housing and facilities for medical aid are an important part of these conditions. The farmer should know that his own forward-looking steps are the best guaranties of achieving a pattern of wholesome labor relations.

For farmers as well as for hired farm workers, a major postwar objective will continue to be the extension to them of legislation for social security and unemployment compensation.

A national social-security program is described as a common ground of interest to industrial workers, farmers, and hired farm workers. Efforts to work out a program for the extension of social-security measures to farmers and hired farm workers are described as having great potential value to farmers. Farm people, it is stated, must themselves decide whether or not they want to participate. They may have the benefits of the present social-security program and of an expanded program if they want them.

Progress Toward Fair Employment Practices

ON March 12, 1945, the Governor of New York approved a measure designed to eliminate, throughout that State, job discrimination. Three days previously a less-comprehensive act had been approved in Indiana. A law creating a division against discrimination in employment became effective in New Jersey, April 16, 1945.[1]

The expanding interest in racial justice is also reflected in the multiplication of both Federal and State legislative proposals prohibiting discrimination in employment. Thirteen bills forbidding such discrimination have been introduced in the U. S. House of Representatives—one H. R. 2232 (Norton) being reported out favorably by the House Committee on Labor. On two Senate bills—S. 101 (Chavez) and S. 459 (Taft) hearings have been held by the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. Fair employment practice bills have been introduced in the 1945 legislatures of 17 States in addition to New York, Indiana, and New Jersey, i. e., California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Mexico, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.[2]

Among the other evidences of the Negro's advance in employment opportunities are the rising ratio of satisfactory settlements of discrimination cases made by the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice and the great increase of Negroes in Federal service. Recent publications bearing more or less directly upon Negro employment problems, from which the data in this article are taken,[3]

[1] New York, Chapter 118, Acts of 1945; Indiana, Chapter 325, Acts of 1945; New Jersey, Chapter 169, Laws of 1945.

[2] Information furnished by the U. S. Division of Labor Standards and the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice.

[3] President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, Press releases OWI 3981 (January 31, 1945) and NB 3019 and NB 3019a (February 17 and 21, 1945) and Wartime Employment of Negroes in the Federal Government, pp. 21–25; Labor Press Service (Office of War Information, Washington), March 5, 1945; Weekly News Service (American Federation of Labor, Washington), September 19, 1944; and Journal of Negro Education (Howard University, Washington), Yearbook, No. XIII. Among the contributors to the last-named publication are Margaret C. McCulloch of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America; Rufus E. Clement, president of Atlanta University, Fred L. Brownlee of the Board of Home Missions of the Congregational and Christian Churches, New York City, John A. Davis, Director of the Division of Review and Analysis of the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, Marion Thompson Wright, assistant professor of education of Howard University, Alfred Edgar Smith, Washington correspondent of The Chicago Defender, George L. P. Weaver, director of the National C. I. O. Committee to Abolish Racial Discrimination, and Charles S. Johnson, director of the Department of Social Science of Fisk University.

stress in this connection the efforts of national Negro associations for improvement of the conditions of the race, the growing number of local interracial bodies in various parts of the country under civic, religious, or philanthropic sponsorship, and the grants in the interest of justice for the Negro made by important foundations. Both of the principal labor organizations—the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations—have taken measures to prevent discrimination against Negroes in their affiliated unions.

Organized Labor's Efforts Against Discrimination

In 1934 the American Federation of Labor appointed a committee of 5 members to study the labor conditions of colored workers. Open hearings were held in Washington, D. C. This committee proposed that the Federation should not issue charters to unions which planned to discriminate, and that all internationals consider the question of doing away with discrimination through constitutional provision and practical measures. The final report, however, as presented to the 1935 convention, provided only for education on the subject by internationals.

At the convention of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters in September 1944, the President of the A. F. of L. 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.

Mr. Green 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, it was stated, had over a million Negro members, and all new unions organized by the A. F. of L. explicitly bar racial discrimination.

None of the nationals of the Congress of Industrial Organizations exclude Negroes as members. The C. I. O. believes "that all working people have an important stake in the achievement and protection" of the following rights:

1. Equal rights to union membership and protection.
2. Equal pay for equal work.
3. Equal hours and working conditions.
4. Equal job opportunities based on ability.
5. Equal job security.
6. Equal access to decent housing.
7. Equal health protection.
8. Equal opportunities for education.
9. Equal voting rights in electing public officials.

The C. I. O. Committee to Abolish Racial Discrimination, created in the autumn of 1942, has been instrumental in the establishment

of antidiscrimination committees in 15 States and 35 county and city industrial union councils.

The activities of the United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.) in connection with interracial labor relations are significant. A Negro has recently been appointed to the union's war policy board and its education department. The latter office has published two pamphlets on procedures for eliminating discrimination and recently held an international conference in which the subject of discrimination had an important place. The union has also encouraged the formation of an antidiscrimination committee or a minorities committee in each local.

The National Maritime Union is another organization which is translating its nondiscrimination educational principles into action.

Programs of Employers' Associations

A survey by the National Industrial Conference Board of the attitudes and policies of 402 companies [4] revealed that many of them had "carried out an extremely intelligent program in achieving the integration of the Negro in the face of difficult opposition."

Among the organizations that have undertaken progressive programs on Negro labor are the Western Electric Co., Winchester Arms Co., Wright Aeronautical Co., Curtiss-Wright Corporation, National Smelting Co., Douglas Aircraft Co., Lockheed-Vega Corporation, Breslee Corporation, Twin Cities Ordnance Plant, Board of Transportation of the City of New York, International Harvester Co., Radio Corporation of America, United Fruit Co., Rheem Manufacturing Co., and Higgins Industries.

The Board gives the following principles as characterizing these industrial programs:

1. The decision to hire Negro workers and upgrade them fairly is one for top management.
2. The determination of policy should be followed by education of the supervisory staff.
3. The nondiscrimination policy should be made known by the company.
4. The picking of the right type of Negro as the first worker of his race in the plant is highly important, as is also the choice of the right spot to place him.
5. Negro workers must be integrated into the community life of the corporation and of the production team.
6. Best results have been secured by plants which have counseling services for the workers.
7. Racial epithets and violence must be cut out, the first by orders and education, the second by the dismissal of offenders or "at least of the aggressor."
8. Public display of interracial romances during the work period "should be discouraged." In the Southern States a serious disturbance may arise from such a display and the gradual development of good race relations will be adversely affected even in the North.
9. Circumspect policy relative to the use of household facilities must be worked out. Second to the fair treatment of the Negro with regard to job opportunities, the joint use of toilets, cafeterias, and lockers appears to be the most dynamic factor in industrial race relations.
10. Education for the improvement in race relations within an establishment is always more difficult where there is physical separation.

On the whole, physical separation on the job is seldom practiced in the North and is by no means the rule in the South. * * * If good race relations are to be achieved in a plant, physical segregation should be avoided.

[4] Published in Conference Board Management Record (New York), December 1941.

Other Organizations

One of the oldest and best known of interracial committees was the Commission on Interracial Cooperation with headquarters at Atlanta, Ga. That commission has been succeeded by the Southern Regional Council (organized in February 1944) which is to function through five commissions and four service divisions. This new body has already decided to "develop a strong action program."

Various other newly organized associations are interested in fair employment practices not only in the case of Negroes but for all racial, religious, and national groups. Metropolitan Councils on Fair Employment Practice have been formed in a number of cities, including Buffalo, Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Los Angeles, Newark, New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh." Various Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish agencies are working for justice for the Negro and at least indirectly for the abolition of unfair employment practices.

Among the Negroes themselves are several active organizations. Among these are (1) the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, with 546 branches and approximately 350,000 members, aiming at "equality of opportunity to work in all fields with equal pay for equal work," (2) the National Negro Congress, organized in 1936, and (3) the National Urban League, which has studied various aspects of Negro employment—labor efficiency, the willingness of white persons to work with Negroes, and the postwar problems of Negroes. The League has undertaken to show Negroes how to be acceptable to white members on the labor force and how to avoid display of certain cultural traits which isolate Negroes from white workers.

Important philanthropic agencies—among them the Julius Rosenwald Fund, the General Education Board, and the Carnegie Corporation—through grants in various fields for the progress of the Negro, are influencing, more or less indirectly, racial employment relations. Mention should also be made of the work in the Negro's behalf of Greek letter organizations and other groups in colleges, and of the Association of College Women.

Government Agencies for Prevention of Discrimination

Included among Governmental agencies promoting better industrial racial relations are the War Manpower Commission, the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, and the New York State Committee on Discrimination in Employment.

The New York State organization published and distributed to employers 25,000 copies of a brochure on industrial racial-adjustment techniques.

The Federal War Manpower Commission has issued for the use of its staff booklets concerning the nature of discrimination, the value and need of minority workers, and employer procedure relative to Negro workers and applicants. The Office of War Information has widely circulated a WMC publication entitled "Manpower—One Tenth of a Nation," which is a pictorial presentation and statement of the need of utilizing Negro workers. Since 1943, various interracial committees of official origin have been organized, some of which have been accorded substantial budgets for the carrying out of their programs.

Report of President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice

In 1944 the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice docketed 3,835 cases and closed 3,712, according to an announcement on January 31, 1945, by the Chairman of that Committee. Satisfactory adjustments were reported for approximately 36 percent of the closed cases. At the beginning of 1945, the cases pending totaled 2,054, or an average of 55.5 for each of the Committee's 37 field examiners.

Most of the cases processed in 1944 were handled through the 11 FEPC regional and suboffices. Of the 675 cases closed in 1944 in Region XII (California, Washington, Oregon, Nevada, and Arizona) 38.6 percent were reported as satisfactory adjustments. Of 574 cases closed in Region II (New York) 42.9 percent were so designated. The smallest proportion of satisfactory adjustments among the regions in which there are field offices was that of Region VII (Georgia, South Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi) where 368 cases were docketed during the year, 214 cases were closed, and 25 (11.7 percent) satisfactory adjustments were obtained. The pending load of 2,054 cases as of January 1, 1945, showed an increase of 123 over the case load of 1,931 as of the preceding January 1.

Increased Employment of Negroes by Federal Government [5]

As of March 31, 1944, almost one-eighth of all employees on the Federal pay roll were Negroes, according to a survey of Negro employment in the United States Government Service made by the Division of Review and Analysis of the FEPC. The study included 85 percent of the full-time Federal workers in continental United States, and disclosed that 11.9 percent, or 273,971, of them were Negroes. Of the employees covered in departmental services, the Negroes numbered 41,556 (19.2 percent), and of those in the field services, they numbered 232,415 (11.2 percent).

The wartime gains of Negroes in Federal employment have been enormous. Much of this advancement, however, has been in the Army munition depots, arsenals, and air fields, and in the Navy shipyards.

The great concentration of Negroes in unclassified-service jobs in production, construction, crafts, and service is explained in part by the fact that numerous Government owned or operated arsenals and shipyards are in the southern sections of this country, where as much as 37 percent of the labor force is Negro.

Based on the study for 1938 and that of March 31, 1944, the following findings were presented in the FEPC report.

Negroes have made great occupational gains during the course of the war, especially in departmental service. In the Hayes report previously mentioned, it was shown that in 1938, 90 percent of all Negro Federal workers in the District of Columbia were custodial; 9.5 percent were either clerical, administrative, and fiscal or clerical-mechanical; and [0].5 percent were subprofessional or professional workers. Our study shows that in March 1944, in departmental service (chiefly the District of Columbia), 39.6 percent of all Negro workers were CPC (crafts, protective and custodial); 58.9 percent were either clerical, administrative and fiscal, or clerical-mechanical (49.0 CAF and 9.9 CM); and 1.1 percent were subprofessional or professional. These changes represent a decrease of more than

[5] For an analysis of the general employment trends of Negroes in the United States see Monthly Labor Review, January 1945 (p. 1).

50 points in the less desirable jobs and a corresponding increase of 50 points in the higher paid and more desirable positions.

The most significant gains in Federal employment made by the Negro during the war have been in clerical, administrative, and fiscal work. This is not to deprecate the 416 colored professionals and 4,160 subprofessionals found in this survey. But the 35,601 Negro CAF workers represent the rank and file of the Negro people and they perform work similar in nature to that done by the bulk of all employees.

The war agencies not only are conspicuous in regard to the numerical gains for Negro workers, but also give the best picture of the classification distribution of this racial group. In these agencies 54.8 percent of all Negroes were CAF, as compared with 73.4 percent of all workers; in the executive departments the corresponding percentages were 40.7 and 70.8; and in the independent agencies, 19.7 and 47.8 percent.

When peace is established, however, many of the war agencies will be discontinued, and the personnel of other branches of the Government will also be reduced, which suggests that the classification status of Negro Federal employees on the whole, will be less favorable than under war conditions.

An analysis of the distribution of grades within classifications revealed a larger number of Negroes in the lower-paid groups, "but the number of Negroes in grades 4 and over in each classification was encouraging." In the case of the war agencies, 12 percent of the Negro employees were in grades 4 and over in the CAF classification, as compared with 37.4 percent for all workers in that bracket. On the other hand, in the executive departments the record was less favorable, being 4.9 percent above grade 3 for Negroes in CAF, as compared with 52.3 percent for the total CAF personnel.

It should be recalled that all appointments that have been made after March 16, 1942, are temporary and may be terminated at the discretion of the Civil Service Commission. It is probable, therefore, that many Negroes now on the Federal pay roll will lose their jobs or will be retained in lower positions. Persons with permanent civil-service status are in line for preferential appointment to the reduced number of Federal postwar jobs. Fewer Negroes than whites have permanent civil-service status, and, consequently, the FEPC points out, they "will be at a definite disadvantage in the transition period. The hiring done by Government agencies in that period will doubtless affect the total postwar picture of the employment of Negroes in the Federal Government."

Placement of Handicapped Workers in 1944[1]

NEARLY 300,000 handicapped workers were placed by the U. S. Employment Service in 1944, the War Manpower Commission announced recently. This total represents a gain of almost 50 percent over 1943. Such workers include veterans of World Wars I and II, who have returned to civilian life; what percent of the total were veterans of the present war is not known.

Leading in the number of placements of physically handicapped workers last year was New York State, with more than 57,000 place-

[1] War Manpower Commission, Press release PM-4763, February 22, 1945.

ments, followed by Michigan with 26,000 and Ohio with more than 23,000.

The selective-placement program provides for job-analysis methods which measure physical demands of jobs with the capacities of physically handicapped persons, the WMC stated. In other words, a job analysis is made "on the basis of what the physically handicapped person can do, rather than what he can't do." At the same time, the growing effectiveness of the program, the WMC states, is due in great part to the increasing cooperation and support of the program by employers. Employer institutes have been held in various parts of the country, with employers, representatives of personnel and medical departments, and foremen participating in the training sessions and demonstrations of the selective-placement techniques. In addition, support has been given by other Government agencies, including the Veterans Administration and Selective Service, and by rehabilitation agencies, social agencies, schools and colleges, churches, the medical profession, and business men's organizations.

The War Manpower Commission points out that a handbook was prepared for use by USES personnel in placement of the handicapped by the selective-placement method nearly 2 years ago. Training plans were initiated early in 1944 for the training of at least one person in each local USES office in the techniques of selective placement. As a result, many vital war plants have benefited by the employment of physically handicapped civilians and returning war veterans with war-incurred disabilities. This program of selective placement for the handicapped has been the inspiration of the USES program for the disabled war veterans.

The number of placements, by States, was as follows:

Job Placements of Handicapped War Veterans in 1944, by States

Region and State	Number of veterans placed	Region and State	Number of veterans placed	Region and State	Number of veterans placed
Region I:		Region V:		Region IX:	
Connecticut	9,782	Kentucky	5,642	Arkansas	5,334
Maine	1,674	Michigan	26,000	Kansas	967
Massachusetts	6,130	Ohio	23,617	Missouri	5,321
New Hampshire	923	Region VI:		Oklahoma	478
Rhode Island	4,658	Illinois	13,435	Region X:	
Vermont	715	Indiana	2,514	Louisiana	2,762
Region II, New York	57,180	Wisconsin	4,468	New Mexico	377
Region III:		Region VII:		Texas	12,957
Delaware	282	Alabama	6,083	Region XI:	
New Jersey	6,323	Florida	6,649	Colorado	1,567
Pennsylvania	11,263	Georgia	3,423	Idaho	442
Region IV:		Mississippi	3,013	Montana	349
District of Columbia	558	South Carolina	2,054	Utah	1,375
Maryland	5,295	Tennessee	4,335	Wyoming	81
North Carolina	5,598	Region VIII:		Region XII:	
Virginia	2,082	Iowa	7,336	Arizona	1,500
West Virginia	2,373	Minnesota	5,019	California	14,682
		Nebraska	1,096	Nevada	225
		North Dakota	280	Oregon	5,451
		South Dakota	927	Washington	3,904

Trends in Home-Work Industries in New York State, 1942–44

IN New York State the use of home workers has increased enormously since the outbreak of the war, according to reports by the Division of Women, Child Labor and Minimum Wage of the New York State Department of Labor.[1] From November 1942 to June 1944, the number of home-work certificates increased from 16,328 to 30,294, or 86 percent, in the industries in which home work is not limited by Home Work Orders. This increase was analyzed by the Division for the purpose of finding out the causes of this great expansion of a type of production widely regarded "as wasteful and inefficient."

As a matter of fact, the public agencies with the responsibility for maximum war production voiced their disapproval of the use of home workers as a production procedure.[2] The War Manpower Commission, in establishing minimum standards of labor conditions, disapproved of the employment of home workers even in regions and industries in which the demands for labor were acute, and named certain ways by which to eliminate the need for home work. The Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act,[3] applicable to all contracts of the Federal Government that exceed $10,000, prohibits home work of any kind.

Increasing labor shortages in plants making civilian and luxury products induced these establishments to utilize home workers more and more. According to the report of the New York Division of Women, Child Labor, and Minimum Wage, large amounts of "such civilian articles as embroidery on clothes, ribbons, bows and novelties, fancy handbags, chenille dots on veils, hand-knitted sweaters, and costume jewelry are now produced in homes. An increase of nearly 5,000 home-work certificates was found in the embroidery-on-apparel industry alone."

Converting homes into factories for the making of these civilian and luxury commodities is a matter of serious import to the public and to this State agency which has long endeavored to regulate and reduce the evil. This method of production is linked up with long hours, low wages, child labor, dirt, and disease, and is a menace to factory labor standards. The study under review indicates that although home workers generally do the same type of task as factory operatives, their earnings are conspicuously lower. Numerous home workers still receive substandard wages.

Studies have shown that home workers work only intermittently. Only a few work a full week, although some work extremely long. hours.

One-half of the 3,836 home workers reporting earned less than $12.73 a week in 1942–43. One of every 20 earned less than $4 a week, and 22 percent received less than $8; 29 percent made $16 or more, and 9 percent were paid $24 and over for a week's work. For the 3,327 home workers who reported hours worked, the median was 30 hours; 30 percent worked under 24 hours and 17 percent 40 hours or more. Forty-eight home workers worked over 48 hours, 14 worked 60 hours or more, and 5 over 65 hours a week. In some cases, week's earnings were low despite long hours; one home worker, for example, who sewed buttons and buckles on cards, had to work 62½ hours to earn $12.00.

[1] Trends in Home Work Industries in New York State, 1942–44. [Albany?] August 1944.

[2] Office of Emergency Management, War Manpower Commission, The Use of Industrial Home Work, Memorandum, Washington, July 20, 1943.

[3] United States Department of Labor, Division of Public Contracts, Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act, Rulings and Interpretations No. 2, Washington, September 29, 1939 (p. 41).

In the 7-month period from November 1, 1943, to June 1, 1944, the median week's earnings for 1,739 reporting home workers were $14.04 or $1.31 above the 1942–43 figure, the report of average hours worked being the same for both periods.

In May 1944, the average weekly earnings of women factory workers in the women's and misses' dress industry in the State of New York were $41.57, while the average weekly hours for all factory workers in that industry were 36. Home workers in the embroidery-on-dresses industry, whose wages are the highest among home workers, received a median of only $18.20 for an average working week of 30 hours in the period November 1, 1943, to June 1, 1944.

Four industries—men's clothing, men's neckwear, artificial flowers, and gloves—in which home work is allowed only for persons not able to work in factories, present another picture. In these industries State orders have effected a striking reduction in the use of home workers, have been helpful in stabilization, and have benefited the labor force. Before the orders became operative, the number of home workers in these industry groups totaled 11,699. On November 1, 1942, by which date the orders were in effect, the number of certificated home workers was only 2,060. The number of firms having permits to give out home work dropped from 408 to 198. On June 1, 1944, the outstanding certificates numbered 1,913. "Employers in these industries solved their labor problems without the necessity of resorting to home work." [4]

Labor Conditions in Liberated Italy [5]

MEMBERSHIP in the new Italian confederation of free trade-unions, the Italian General Confederation of Labor (*Confederazione Generale Italiana del Lavoro, C. G. I. L.*), reached 1,300,000 early in 1945. In the absence of the Fascist workers' organizations which were abolished by the Allied Military and Italian Governments, this confederation has become the representative labor organization of liberated Italy. It has advocated measures to improve the condition of workers, and the Government has enacted legislation to increase the remuneration of the employed, provide cost-of-living and family allowances, increase the bread ration, and ameliorate the privations of the post-war period.

Italian General Confederation of Labor

The Italian General Confederation of Labor grew out of a realization of the necessity for unity among the workers. A decision to merge the pre-Fascist General Confederation of Labor (Socialist and Communist groups) with the pre-Fascist Italian Confederation of Workers (Christian Democratic group) was made in June 1944. According to the Pact of Rome, agreed upon by the two organizations, the Italian General Confederation of Labor was to consist of a single national federation for each branch of production, a single confederal

[4] For a general discussion of the development and control of industrial home work in the United States, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1944 (p. 1145).

[5] Data are from Gazzetta Ufficiale, November 14, 16, 25, and December 5 and 9, 1944; Report on Trade Union Visit to Italy, August–September, 1944 (International Federation of Trade Unions, London), 1944; various news digests; and certain confidential sources.

labor chamber for each Province, and a single local and Provincial union for each branch or category of production. In the directorate and secretariat general of the Confederation the three political ideologies mentioned above were to have equal representation, and provision was made for inclusion of other groups as other regions of Italy were liberated.

A maximum of freedom of speech and opinion, independence from all political parties, and the "largest internal democracy," including elections for positions and proportional representation for minorities, were the basis of the policy enunciated in the Pact of Rome. These principles were strengthened in a resolution on the democratization and reorganization of the trade-union movement in Italy, which was agreed upon at a preliminary trade-union congress held in Rome on September 15 and 16, 1944.

The first official convention of the Confederation met in Naples from January 28 to February 1, 1945, with 475 delegates, representing some 1,000,000 voting members in 12 regions and 43 Provinces, in attendance. Representatives from the Italian Women's League and from the northern areas occupied by the Germans were also present. Discussion at the convention covered problems of trade-unions, unemployment, social security, economic reconstruction, national unity, cost of living, and agrarian reform. The convention was reported to favor specific principles which required continuity of employment, minimum unemployment benefits for labor, old-age pensions, regulations for the protection of women and children, and professional education for youth. A program of land reform was adopted.

The unity of the labor movement was saved at the convention by the selection of three secretaries representing the Socialist, Communist, and Christian Democratic ideologies, and by the election of a central committee which included also representatives of the Action, the Syndicalist, and the Republican groups, and one woman. Certain regulations for constitutions of federations of trade-unions were drawn up and different groups held meetings. Among federations adhering to the Confederation were those of mechanics, miners, workers in motor transportation, the chemical industry, school teaching, the theater, streetcar transportation, the food trades, tax-collecting agencies, wood and allied trades, State employment, electrical enterprises, and the printing, glass, and textile industries.

From the first, the Confederation urged upon the Government the need for practical reforms to improve the position of the workers. For example, on October 6, 1944, the Government promulgated a decree to provide land for workers from uncultivated private and confiscated Fascist properties. On October 30, the Confederation felt it necessary to present a memorandum requesting better progress in land allocations.

Measures to Improve Conditions for Workers

Wage increases.—In order to enable workers to meet the rising cost of living, a general wage increase (to be effective in Sicily and the southern Provinces and extended to other Provinces on liberation) was granted in December 1943, 3 months after the surrender of the

Italian Government. Eleven months later a legislative decree made the increase obligatory upon all private employers and retroactive to August 16, 1944. The increases, based on earnings in effect on September 1, 1942, were to be as follows:

Earnings per month: [1]	*Percent of increase*
First 1,000 lire	70
Second 1,000 lire	60
Third 1,000 lire	30
Fourth 1,000 lire	20
Fifth 1,000 lire	10

[1] For wages and earnings in Fascist Italy, see Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (pp. 922 and 924).

Cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances.—Further assistance was given to all workers in private establishments in November 1944, by providing daily cost-of-living bonuses scaled from 35 to 15 lire for heads of families with monthly remuneration ranging from 3,600 to 5,000 lire and over, in Rome, Naples, and Palermo, and smaller bonuses in other regions. Bonuses for single women and minors ranged from 15 to 25 lire. Similar assistance for national, provincial, and local Government workers took the form of temporary cost-of-living bonuses of 500, 800, and 1,000 lire per month, with a 30-percent increase in Rome and decreases of 15 and 30 percent in cities under 200,000 and 50,000 population respectively.

In November also, another decree established a scale of family allowances to be paid from a special fund. In industry the rate was to be 24 and 30 lire daily per child for wage earners and salaried employees, respectively, 30 and 42 lire for a wife, and 15 and 24 lire for a parent. Special rates of allowances and employers' contributions were set for agriculture, commerce, banking, insurance, and tax-collecting agencies, and for the professions and arts. Christmas and year-end bonuses were granted by special legislation.

Wages and cost of living.—The increases in remuneration and various allowances, however, did not begin to keep pace with the increasing cost of living. According to one report, in Rome cost of living rose 750 percent from November 1940 to November 1944. Indexes for certain foods at black-market and official prices given below show similar rises.

Indexes of Black-Market and Official Prices of Specified Foods in Italy, May and December 1944

Commodity	Indexes (September 1942=100)			
	May 1944		December 1944	
	Black market	Official	Black market	Official
Bread	1042	100	858	192
Pasta	1150	106	935	225
Flour	880	(1)	392	(1)
Potatoes	1500	(1)	1000	1030
Oil	1286	143	611	287
Butter	1166	170	1333	(1)
Sugar	1600	324	3172	(1)
Beef	416	(1)	661	1563
Mutton	500	266	850	(1)

[1] None for sale at official prices.

The urgent needs of the workers were again brought to the attention of the Government by a memorandum from the Italian General Confederation of Labor, presented on December 12, 1944. Early in February, the secretariat of the Confederation accepted the invitation of the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor to discuss problems of low wages and high cost of living.

Effective March 1, the weekly ration of pasta (macaroni, spaghetti, etc.) was increased to 550 grams; the daily bread ration was continued at 200 grams. The Government, however, ceased to subsidize bread purchases and allowed the price to the public to rise from 5 to 18 lire per kilogram, thus ridding the Treasury of an annual expenditure estimated at 12 billion lire.

These changes were accompanied by legislation for further increases in wages, salaries, and various allowances. For Government workers the increases were to amount to 50 percent on basic earnings; family allowances (to be calculated on the increased earnings) were to be doubled; and a food allowance of 66 lire per day and a 30-percent increase in certain pensions were also granted. Negotiations regarding workers in private industry indicated that for those employed by the Latium Manufacturers' Association (which includes all but the building and some technical industries) the increases would be retroactive to February and would amount to 80 lire daily for men, 50 lire for women, and 30 lire for boys under 18 years of age, provided that present pay did not exceed 150 lire daily.

Cooperative movement.—Some cooperatives have been cleared of Fascist influence by ministerial decree; others have been reorganized or replaced. In Leghorn alone, according to one report, 22 consumers' cooperatives have a membership of 11,000 families—about 40 percent of the civilian population. In the Province of Naples, agricultural cooperatives have agreed with factory workers to exchange farm produce for agricultural implements. Consumers' cooperatives in Rome are reported to number 200, and the Alleanza Cooperativa Romana has been established to coordinate the movement. In the same city, owners of light delivery trucks, who began passenger service when other services collapsed, have organized a transportation cooperative, and a news agency managed as a cooperative has begun operation.

Workers' education.—In order to provide training courses for specialized farm workers, a national training center has been projected under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, with the aid of business and labor. In December 1944, an Institute of Labor Studies was organized to study labor problems and promote cultural activities.

Seniority Rights and Required War-Service Employment[1]

A RECENT directive order of the National War Labor Board set a precedent which may influence collective-bargaining agreements that include seniority and reemployment rights, according to the War Manpower Commission. The order was issued in the case of Bendix Aviation Corporation and the International Union of United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Workers, Local 387 (C. I. O). This order stipulates that whenever any employee of the company is released for employment in another establishment in accordance with the request or order of the War Manpower Commission, he shall be considered to be on leave of absence, and his seniority shall be preserved and shall accumulate as though he had remained in the employ of the company, provided that within 15 days after the termination of the period of his required absence, he notifies the company of his availability for reemployment and presents to the company a statement by the U. S. Employment Service, certifying that his release and transfer were requested or ordered by the War Manpower Commission and that he remained at the establishment to which he was transferred, or at an establishment to which he was retransferred, for the entire period of his absence.

Proceeding upon this order, the War Manpower Commission has established the following procedures to cover situations in which such seniority rights are provided in any collective-bargaining agreement between an employer and a union. When a worker reports to the local office within 15 days preceding or immediately following the date as of which it was estimated that his services would no longer be required in his war-service employment, or upon termination by his employer of his war-service employment, the interviewer who handles his employer's account will consult the employer to determine (1) whether the worker has been continuously employed at the employer's establishment since his transfer to it, (2) whether the worker's services are required in his war-service employment for a further period, and (3) the exact date of termination of the worker's current period of war-service employment, if his services are no longer required. If the worker's services are required for a further period in his current war-service employment, the local office will arrange for him to continue in it.

If the worker's war-service employment has been terminated by the new employer, or if the worker's services are no longer required in urgent war-service employment at the establishment where he has been employed, the interviewer will refer the worker, in accordance with priority-referral procedure, to other war-service employment

[1] War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 505, Part I (Rev.), February 8, 1945.

for which he is qualified, and in which he is more urgently needed than in his old job, if such employment is available.

If the worker is no longer needed in any more urgent war employment, he will be instructed to apply for reinstatement in his old job within 15 days following the termination of his war-service employment.

Payments to Employees Entering Armed Services [1]

THE Commissioner of Internal Revenue has ruled that employers may continue payments of salaries which are under the Commissioner's jurisdiction for salary-stabilization purposes, to employees having to serve in the armed forces of the United States, under the following circumstances:

(1) Employers may follow their established policy in effect prior to October 3 1942, or October 27, 1942, as the case may be.

(2) Employers having no established policy in effect on October 3, 1942, or October 27, 1942, as the case may be, or desiring to change their policy, may pay to any employee in any 1 year an amount not in excess of the annual compensation paid to such employee immediately prior to his induction into the armed forces.

(3) Employers may pay bonuses to employees who have entered the armed forces of the United States, provided the amount of any such bonus does not exceed the amount to which the employee would have been entitled under the Salary Stabilization Regulations, as amended, had he remained in the employer's service.

In addition, the Commissioner has stated that employers may reemploy persons inducted into the armed forces under the Selective Training and Service Act in their old positions without loss of seniority, status, and pay, or in positions of like seniority, status and pay, without the prior approval of the Commissioner, if the salaries of such employees are under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

Liberalization of Australian Wage-Stabilization Regulations [2]

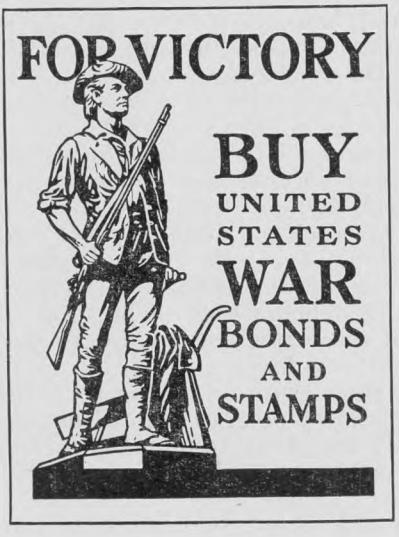
THE Australian National Security (Economic Organization) Regulations were amended early in 1945 to permit alterations in rates of pay that are justified either by changes in the circumstances of employment after February 10, 1942, or by anomalies occurring after that date. Under the regulations previously in effect, the only anomalies or changes in circumstances of employment that could be considered as grounds for adjusting wage rates were those existing prior to February 10, 1942.[3]

Amendments were also made in the procedure for handling applications for wage adjustments. According to the Prime Minister, this action was taken owing to dissatisfaction with the different interpretations given to the regulations by various industrial tribunals. Under the amended procedure, an industrial authority is empowered to hold a preliminary hearing on a claim with the object of forming an

[1] Treasury Department Memorandum, March 5, 1945.
[2] Data are from Australian Worker (Sydney), February 7, 1945.
[3] For information concerning the wage-stabilization measures see Monthly Labor Review, January 1943 (p. 28) and June 1943 (p. 1204).

opinion whether there is prima facie evidence that an alteration is necessary. If the industrial authority concludes that action is justified, he reports the case to the Chief Judge of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, giving his reasons. After considering the evidence, if the Chief Judge determines that it is not contrary to the national interest, he may order, either conditionally or unconditionally, that the industrial authority hear and determine the case. The industrial authority may then make the award independently, as the former requirement that approval should be procured from the Minister of Labor and National Service has been rescinded. Orders affecting members of the Coal Miners' Federation (other than those excepted by the Commonwealth Coal Commissioner under the Coal Production Wartime Act) must be made by the Commonwealth Coal Commissioner.

A procedure similar to that described above was established by the regulations for public employment authorities, such as public service boards and other statutory authorities which have wage- and salary-fixing powers. Private employers have also been authorized to submit cases when they wished to alter the remuneration of employees whose pay is not established by an award, order, or industrial agreement.



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Industrial Injuries

Shipyard Injuries, 1944[1]

THE sustained safety program sponsored by the U. S. Maritime Commission and the U. S. Navy Department led to substantial reductions in the volume of work injuries in shipyards during 1944. In 1943 the entire group of private shipyards working under Federal contracts reported an average of 31.2 disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked. Those which continued their operations into 1944 had an average injury rate of 30.2. In 1944 the average injury-frequency rate for the reporting yards was down to 23.2—a decrease of 23 percent.

It is impossible to compute the total value of this achievement, as many of the most important savings cannot be expressed in monetary terms. Some indication of the great contribution to the war, embodied in this accomplishment, is apparent, however, in the simple totals of the injuries which have been prevented. If the frequency of injuries had been the same in 1944 as it was in 1943, it is estimated that 90,500 shipyard workers would have experienced disabling injuries in 1944. The reports received, however, indicate that the 1944 injury total was about 71,500 injuries. This means that 19,000 disabling injuries were prevented during the year and that at least 380,000 man-days were saved to hasten the production of ships. In addition to this saving in disabling injuries, it is estimated that fully 550,000 nondisabling injuries were prevented. The importance of these minor injuries is frequently overlooked because they seldom involve more than simple first aid. A Bureau of Labor Statistics study has shown, however, that on the average each nondisabling injury results in the loss of 1.2 hours of working time. In the aggregate the elimination of 550,000 nondisabling injuries represents a saving of 660,000 hours or 82,500 man-days of 8 hours each. The total saving of productive time as a result of the better accident record during 1944, therefore, amounts to 462,500 man-days.

A similar comparison with 1942, the year directly preceding the inauguration of the safety program, shows that the improved accident record during 1943 and 1944 resulted in a total saving of 611,000 man-days, which otherwise would have been lost because of disabling and minor injuries.

The 1944 shipyard record becomes even more impressive when compared with the records of earlier years. Bureau of Labor Statistics reports show that in 1939 the average injury-frequency rate for shipyards was 18.6. This was the last year of normal peacetime

[1] Prepared in the Industrial Hazards Division by Frank S. McElroy and George R. McCormack. Detailed tables on disabling injuries, January-December 1944, classified by accident type and agency, by part of body injured and nature of injury, by unsafe working condition and agency, and by unsafe act and agency, will be included in a forthcoming bulletin.

operations. Expansion, crowding, faster operations, and new types of construction developed rapidly and in 1940 the rate rose to 20.6. In 1941 the average rate was 26.4 and in 1942 it rose to 33.1. With the inauguration of the joint Maritime Commission-Navy Department Safety Program in 1943, this steady rise in the frequency rate for shipyards was checked and the rate for that year declined to 31.2. The substantial improvement shown in the average rate for 1944 (23.2) is ample evidence that the safety program has definitely achieved its first objective, which was to reverse the upward trend in work injuries which had been so apparent in the shipyard record for previous years.

The 1944 record, however, shows both improvement and retrogression. In the shipyards engaged primarily in new construction the frequency rate shows a reduction from 30.2 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked in 1943 to 22.7 injuries per million hours in 1944—a most creditable improvement of 24.9 percent. In the repair-yard group, on the other hand, the average frequency rate rose from 28.1 in 1943 to 31.1 in 1944. The need for intensified safety activities in the repair yards is apparent, and as yards currently engaged in new construction are converted into repair yards that need will grow.

Among the new construction yards, the group operating under contracts from the Maritime Commission reduced its average frequency rate from 32.9 in 1943 to 23.4 in 1944, a decrease of 29 percent. Private construction yards operating under contracts from the Navy Department similarly reduced their average frequency rate from 26.3 in 1943 to 21.6 in 1944, while those operating under War Department contracts achieved a reduction from 39.0 in 1943 to 27.6 in 1944.

Among the construction yards holding Maritime Commission contracts, those situated in the Great Lakes region had the lowest average frequency rate in 1944—13.1. The average for the Gulf region—16.5—however, was only slightly higher. The averages for the Atlantic and Pacific regions were practically identical—26.3 and 26.4, respectively. Each of these averages represents a substantial improvement in comparison with the corresponding frequency rate for 1943, the 44-percent reduction achieved in the Gulf region being particularly noteworthy.

Substantial frequency-rate reductions during 1944 were recorded for the yards operating under Navy Department contracts in each of the naval districts except the first, ninth, and thirteenth. In the last two naval districts the 1944 average rates were practically the same as the corresponding rates for 1943. In the first naval district the 1944 rate was nearly 28 percent higher than it had been in 1943. The most pronounced improvement was in the fourth naval district where the average frequency rate was reduced from 20.9 in 1943 to 9.1 in 1944. The following statement gives the industrial injury-frequency rates for the years 1943 and 1944 for shipyards with United States Government contracts, by type of contract and by geographic region.

	Frequency rates	
	1944	*1943*
Primarily new construction	22.7	30.2
United States Maritime Commission contracts	23.4	32.9
Atlantic region	26.3	33.0
Gulf region	16.5	29.6
Pacific region	26.4	35.0
Great Lakes region	13.1	21.1

	Frequency rates 1944	1943
Primarily new construction—Continued.		
United States Navy Department contracts	21. 6	26. 3
Naval District 1	33. 9	26. 5
Naval District 3	20. 8	22. 9
Naval District 4	9. 1	20. 9
Naval District 5	45. 8	62. 9
Naval District 6	25. 6	39. 1
Naval District 7	28. 2	36. 2
Naval District 8	21. 2	28. 2
Naval District 9	19. 1	19. 4
Naval District 11	16. 1	24. 9
Naval District 12	16. 9	31. 0
Naval District 13	33. 7	33. 2
United States War Department contracts	27. 6	39. 0
Primarily repair work	31. 1	28. 1
Government-owned navy yards	12. 7	15. 2

Comparisons based upon the type of construction performed indicate that the improvement achieved in the wood and concrete construction yards was considerably greater than in the yards which built steel vessels. In the yards which specialized in building concrete vessels the injury-frequency rate was reduced from 46.9 in 1943 to 27.1 in 1944 and in the yards constructing wooden vessels, from 45.8 in 1943 to 30.9 in 1944. For the larger group of yards which built steel vessels the reduction was from 29.5 in 1943 to 22.3 in 1944. Industrial injury-frequency rates for shipyards primarily engaged in new construction under United States Government contracts are given below by type of construction for 1943 and 1944.

	Frequency rates 1944	1943
Iron and steel construction	22. 3	29. 5
150 feet and over—powered	21. 9	29. 0
26 feet and under 150 feet—powered	33. 1	46. 1
Non-powered—all lengths	25. 6	31. 3
Wood construction	30. 9	45. 8
150 feet and over—powered	25. 2	48. 1
26 feet and under 150 feet—powered	32. 8	44. 1
Non-powered—all lengths	47. 3	80. 3
Concrete construction	27. 1	46. 9

Kinds of Injuries Experienced

Over a third of the 50,211 disabling shipyard injuries for which full details were reported in 1944, were injuries to the legs and feet. Injuries to the trunk constituted about one-fourth of the total; head injuries, including eye cases, constituted 22 percent of the total, and injuries to fingers, hands, wrists, and arms amounted to 18 percent.

Two-thirds of the toe injuries and one-third of the foot injuries were fractures; most of the other foot and toe cases were cuts and bruises. Practically all of these cases, or fully 12 percent of all the disabling injuries reported, probably would have been avoided had the injured persons been wearing safety shoes.

Nearly two-thirds of the 2,851 ankle injuries were sprains and about one-fourth were bruises or fractures.

Injuries to the back were generally strains or bruises; the rib and shoulder injuries were largely bruises or fractures, while the abdominal injuries were primarily hernia cases. Seventy percent of the head injuries were eye cases, most of which resulted from foreign bodies entering the eye or from exposure to welding arcs. The general use

of safety goggles would probably have prevented most of these eye injuries and thereby would have reduced the shipyard injury-frequency rate by about 10 or 15 percent. The brain and skull injuries, which totaled about 5 percent of all cases reported, were largely the result of falls or of workers' being struck by moving or falling objects. Nearly all of the latter group might have been avoided through the universal use of hard hats.

About one in seven of the 3,783 injuries to fingers resulted in an amputation, and about one in three was a fracture. Most other finger injuries were cuts or bruises.

Accident Types

One-third of all reported disabling injuries resulted from the injured employee's being struck by a moving or flying object. Injuries caused by foreign bodies striking the eyes were by far the most common; this one group alone accounted for about 10 percent of all reported injuries. Metal parts which fell from piles or from the hands of employees caused a considerable number of "struck by" accidents. Cranes and vehicles also accounted for a large number of injuries in this group. Most of these occurred when employees were struck by the moving sling load or by objects dropped from the load.

Falls accounted for approximately one-fourth of the reported injuries, with falls from one level to another slightly exceeding those on the same level. Of the first group, falls from stagings were the most common. In the latter group, falls on decks or floors were most frequent. Poor housekeeping contributed to many injuries in this group. Falls caused by cables or other feed lines on working surfaces were numerous.

Slips on working surfaces and overexertion caused by lifting was the third most common accident type; approximately one-fifth of the reported disabling injuries fell into this group.

Accidents in which the injured employee struck against tools or other objects accounted for 11 percent of the disabling injuries. Contact with temperature extremes, mostly hot metal, slag, or rivets, or contact with welding radiations was responsible for 7 percent of all disabling injuries. Employees who were caught in cranes, vehicles, or machines sustained the largest number of injuries in the "caught in, on, or between" group which accounted for 6 percent of the reported injuries.

Unsafe Working Conditions

Poor housekeeping caused more accidents than any other unsafe working condition. Of the 20,496 disabling injuries for which an unsafe working condition was known to exist, approximately 7,500, or 37 percent, were due to poor housekeeping. Failure to keep working surfaces or walkways clear of equipment or materials was responsible for a majority of these injuries. Welding cables, lumber, and structural parts lying on such surfaces were the most common source of these accidents. A large number of accidents were caused by failure to keep working surfaces free from snow, ice, water, or grease. Poor piling of materials was another frequent source of injury.

Failure to provide personal safety equipment, or providing defective safety equipment, accounted for 5,473 disabling injuries, or 27 percent of those for which an unsafe working condition existed. Over half of these injuries could have been prevented by the use of proper goggles. Approximately 2,750 injuries were caused by foreign bodies originating at the point of operation of a grinder, chipping hammer, or similar machine or tool; another 700 injuries were due to welding radiations. Lack of personal safety equipment to guard against burns from hot metal or slag caused nearly 1,100 disabling injuries.

Defective agencies contributed to 18 percent of the disabling injuries which were associated with unsafe working conditions. Approximately one-third of these accidents involved defective staging or scaffolds. Hand tools, fatigued or worn from excessive use, were a common source of injuries in this group. Insecurely bolted or welded metal parts and defective cranes also caused a considerable number of injuries.

Unguarded working surfaces, machines, and other equipment caused approximately 9 percent of the injuries which resulted from an unsafe working condition.

Unsafe Acts

Two types of unsafe acts were associated with over two-thirds of the disabling injuries in which an unsafe act was known to exist. Incorrect lifting was somewhat the more common of these, although taking an unsafe position or posture caused nearly as many injuries.

Of the group of injuries classified as incorrect lifting, 24 percent were due to lifting or carrying excessive weights, generally structural parts, lumber, and pipe. Taking an insecure hold, or the wrong hold, on hand tools was responsible for almost as many disabling injuries. Poor handling of metal parts, such as brackets, plates, and bars, caused 11 percent of the injuries in this group.

Inattention to footing was the most common specific fault in the group of unsafe acts classified as unsafe position or posture. Most of these accidents were falls, stumbles, or slips on the part of the injured employee. Lifting objects from an awkward position or with a bent back produced many back strains. Working too near objects or other persons caused numerous injuries.

Unsafe operation of, or unnecessary exposure to, cranes, vehicles, or machinery; failure to use provided personal safety equipment; and unsafe use of, or failure to use, scaffolds or ladders, each were involved in approximately 8 percent of the injuries caused by an unsafe act.

Sick-Leave Provisions in Union Agreements[1]

Summary

THE granting of sick leave without pay, but without loss of seniority, is provided for in a large proportion of the current union agreements. A small number of the agreements mention maternity leave and very few of these provide pay.

Of 5,000 agreements examined, 350 provide paid sick leave, three-fourths of these being found in nonmanufacturing industries. Some of these stipulate full pay for a limited period, others a portion of full pay for a limited period, and a few merely supplement group insurance or workmen's compensation benefits. The maximum leave provided varies from 3 days for all regular employees to 52 weeks per year for employees with long service. Paid-sick-leave provisions are fairly prevalent in agreements covering workers in the electric, water, and gas, and the telephone and telegraph industries; as well as office and professional, wholesale and retail trade, and State, county, and municipal workers.

Unpaid-Sick-Leave Provisions

The granting of sick leave without pay, but without loss of seniority or employment rights, has long been the practice in some American industries and is provided for in a great proportion of current union agreements. Many agreements which make no explicit provision for unpaid sick leave specify "leaves of absence for personal reasons" or "leaves of absence upon mutual agreement of the company and the union" which may be assumed, in application, to include sick leave.

Whether seniority accumulates or is frozen during the period of absence is not clear from those agreements which use such general terms as "seniority shall not be affected during illness" or "no one shall be removed from the seniority list." Although some agreements specify a definite time limit, ranging from 6 months to 3 years, others simply provide protection of seniority for a "reasonable period," or "until the employee is able to return to his job." Extension of these designated periods during prolonged illness, with automatic extension for employees injured on the job, is frequently provided.

MATERNITY LEAVE

Only a small proportion of the agreements specifically mention maternity leave, but in cases in which no mention is made it is possible

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Sophia F. McDowell.

that such absence is considered as sick leave. Very few of the agreements in which maternity leave is mentioned make provision for pay. Maternity-leave provisions are common in the rubber and textile industries and are frequently found in the nonferrous-metals and machinery industries and among office and professional occupations. The length of time during which seniority is protected ranges from 8 weeks to 2 years, although again it is frequently not clear whether seniority accumulates or is frozen as of the date of leaving the job.

About a fourth of the American Newspaper Guild agreements have maternity-leave clauses,[2] most of which provide for unpaid leave of 2 months' duration. Some grant double vacation pay at the time of leave, with deduction of this extra pay from the severance pay, if the employee does not return. Certain other office and professional workers' agreements also provide for 6 months' unpaid maternity leave, sometimes with the specification that 3 months be taken before the birth of the baby and 3 months afterward. One of the agreements reviewed stipulated that "vacation and unused sick leave not to exceed 3 weeks may be taken as part of maternity leave."

Paid-Sick-Leave Provisions

EXTENT OF PROVISIONS

To an increasing extent, labor unions are now bargaining to obtain paid sick leave. Although the inclusion of such a provision in a union agreement usually indicates a new concession, in a few instances it represents a contractual arrangement for a policy already established by the management.[3]

Paid sick leave is provided in approximately 350 of 5,000 union agreements examined in the Bureau's files. About 250 of these 350 agreements contain detailed information; the others merely state that existing policies shall be continued, or otherwise fail to specify details. The present report is based on information provided in 50 paid-sick-leave plans, covering production workers in manufacturing industries and over 200 plans covering workers in nonmanufacturing industries.

Only in public utilities, and among radio technicians, and newspaper office and editorial workers are paid-sick-leave provisions in agreements the rule rather than the exception. Such leave is frequently provided, however, in agreements covering retail and wholesale trade, warehousing, and office and professional, and State, county, and municipal workers, as well as those employed in the airframe and petroleum production and refining industries. Though not widely prevalent, paid-sick-leave provisions are also found in some agreements in the apparel, furniture, stone, clay, and glass, nonferrous-metals, machinery, automobile, professional and scientific instruments, laundry and dry-cleaning, trucking, telephone and telegraph, street and railway industries, as well as in agreements covering building-service employees.

[2] I. e., 46 of 182 agreements (Guild report: Wages and Conditions in American Newspaper Guild Contracts, June 10, 1944).

[3] Under the present wage-stabilization policy, all new sick-leave plans must be submitted to the National War Labor Board for approval. The Board, though inclined to approve "reasonable" sick-leave requests made jointly by labor and management, usually denies requests in dispute cases. The Board has also upon occasion ordered companies to incorporate their voluntary sick-leave policies into the union contracts despite management's contention that it should not be bound by current plans "simply because it has been reasonably forward in the development of these welfare policies." (See Tidewater Associated Oil Co. Case No. 111-5206-D.)

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PLANS

The plans providing paid sick leave may be divided into three groups on the basis of the proportion of regular wages provided: (1) Full pay for a limited period; (2) less than full pay for a limited period, i. e., a stipulated portion of regular wages (such as 50 or 70 percent) or a stipulated amount (such as $10 a week or $50 a month); (3) payments to supplement group-insurance or workmen's compensation benefits, as for example, payment of all or a portion of regular wages during the waiting period for workmen's compensation or after insurance benefits have been exhausted.

The paid-sick-leave plans differ not only in their rates of pay, but also with respect to qualifying requirements and length of leave allowances. Some agreements provide uniform arrangements for all eligible employees, while others offer more generous time and wage allowances for employees with longer service. The former are referred to as fixed (or uniform) plans and the latter as graduated (or sliding-scale) plans. Occasionally work requirements are imposed in addition to service requirements.

The maximum period for which the payment is made is almost always stipulated in the agreements. It varies from 3 days per year for all eligible employees (in fixed plans) to as much as 52 weeks per year (in graduated plans for employees with long service). Under some agreements the stipulated periods may be extended through the cumulation of unused leave, and under others by special permission of the management during serious illnesses. The provision, in some agreements, of a waiting period during which payments are not made serves to restrict compensation to illnesses of longer duration. However, if the illness extends beyond the waiting period, payments are usually made retroactive to the beginning of the absence.

In over half of the agreements medical evidence of illness is required, in the form of a certificate from the employee's or company's doctor. In a small proportion sick-leave pay is specifically denied when the absence is due to such causes as negligence, misconduct, immorality, venereal disease, or use of drugs.

Most agreements carefully distinguish between vacation and sick-leave allowances by providing safeguards against using sick-leave time as vacation. For instance, one agreement states: "In order to avoid abuses * * * no sick leave will be granted or compensation paid for any time off immediately prior to or succeeding any vacation period." A few agreements, however, allow combination vacation and sick leaves. Under such arrangements a stipulated period may be used either as paid sick leave or as a vacation, or employees are permitted to add their unused sick leave to their allotted vacation period.[4]

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Rate of Remuneration During Sick Leave

Plans providing full pay.—In over two-thirds of the 50 sick-leave plans covering production workers in manufacturing industries, full pay or "regular wages" during sick leave is either specified or definitely implied. These include 8 of the 18 plans in the agreements analyzed in the petroleum-refining industry. The method of calculating "full

[4] These combination vacation-sick leave plans were included in a recent study of paid-vacation provisions in union agreements and will not be further discussed in this report (see Monthly Labor Review, February 1944, p. 303).

pay" is not always defined in the agreements, although some specify "average weekly wage as computed for the 3 months immediately preceding disability" or "base rate plus night-shift premium where applicable."

Paid sick leave of 5 working days or 1 working week per year after a year's service is the most common allowance for employees in manufacturing industries other than petroleum refining. However, about one-third of the fixed plans do not mention service requirements. This may be interpreted to mean that all regular employees, but not necessarily probationary and part-time employees, are covered by paid-sick-leave provisions. Occasionally the stipulated time allowance applies to an individual illness, with no yearly maximum specified. In a few agreements it is not clear whether the maximum applies to one illness or to the entire year.

In the petroleum-refining industry, two of the three full-pay fixed plans allow 2 weeks' leave after 1 year's service, while four of the five full-pay graduated plans allow 1 week's leave after 1 year's service with varying maxima ranging from 2 weeks for 5-year employees to as high as 13 weeks for 10-year employees.

Plans providing less than full pay.—A large proportion of these plans in manufacturing industries (other than petroleum refining) provide 2 weeks' leave at half pay after a year's service, with a maximum of as high as 52 weeks for 26-year employees in a few graduated plans. Other arrangements include a flat sum of $50 per month for nonoccupational injuries, full pay for a stipulated part of the leave period and half pay for the other part, and a provision that the sick-leave payments "shall be measured by and shall be the same as those granted to its employees insured thereunder by the company's group policy" (i. e., about half pay).

Except for the four agreements limiting 1-year employees to a week's paid sick leave, practically all agreements with paid-sick-leave provisions in the petroleum-refining industry offer one of the following arrangements: 2 weeks at full pay; 3 weeks at two-thirds pay; or 4 weeks at half pay. The total maximum payments are the same, however, under all three plans.

Plans providing supplemental pay.—Sick-leave payment equal to the difference between full wages and workmen's compensation benefits is provided in one agreement which restricts its payments to employees who have sustained occupational disease or injury. Five plans which specifically allow sick-leave pay for nonindustrial disabilities also make separate provision, in the case of compensable injuries, to supplement workmen's compensation by the amount required to bring the total compensation up to the maximum benefits of the plan. For example, two agreements of a large oil company grant sick-leave pay equal to the difference between full pay and workmen's compensation in cases of occupational injury and, in cases of illness not connected with the job, the payments are equal to the difference between full pay and the benefits provided by the Employees Mutual Benefit Association. Another oil-company agreement, which pays only two-thirds of the regular wages during excused absences for nonoccupational illness, provides supplemental payments for time lost because of occupational injury "to the extent necessary to bring such employee's benefit payments up to but not to exceed his regular wage." Another agreement grants full sick leave during the waiting period imposed by the workmen's compensation laws, but none later.

Work Requirements and Other Rules

Several agreements analyzed impose other service requirements in addition to those noted above. One specifies, for example, that the employee must have been on the job at least 13 weeks immediately preceding the absence. Another specifies that he must have worked a total of 1,752 hours or more during the year; however, for fewer hours, he receives proportionate benefits in the ratio that his actual hours worked are of a full year (1,872 hours) of work.

Accumulation of unused sick leave from year to year is permitted under a few plans but is usually limited to a maximum absence of about 12 weeks, although in one plan the maximum is 72 weeks. In one agreement under which leave may not accrue beyond 1 year, unused leave is paid for in cash at the end of the second year.

A few agreements permit the management to extend the specified maximum during serious illness. One of these specifically states that an employee who has exhausted his sick leave may use earned vacation time as additional sick leave.

Less than half the manufacturing agreements providing paid sick leave specify a waiting period during which payments are not made. The period mentioned is most frequently 3 days, occasionally 1 day or 1 week, and is generally waived if illness extends beyond that period.

NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Among salaried employees and some other special groups of workers in nonmanufacturing industries the granting of pay during sickness is a common practice and union agreement provisions for these workers are generally more liberal than those covering production workers in manufacturing industries. Industries in which paid-sick-leave provisions are fairly prevalent are described below.[5]

Public utilities.—About three-fourths of the 110 agreements examined for the electricity, water, and gas industries contain paid-sick-leave provisions. Almost all of these provide full pay, and graduated plans are more usual than fixed plans. Over half of the graduated plans provide at least a week's leave after 1 year's service, the range being from 3 days to 2 weeks; the maximum that may accrue is 12 weeks after 12 years' service. Well over half of the nongraduated plans provide 10 days or more of leave, with a range of from 5 to 90 days. Several agreements contain different sick-leave provisions for monthly and hourly paid employees, granting more liberal terms to the former. Accumulation of unused sick leave from year to year is permitted in about a third of the full-pay fixed plans and in one graduated plan, with maxima ranging from 30 days to an unlimited period.

A small proportion of the agreements require a waiting period ranging from 2 to 7 days. In about half of these agreements the waiting period may be waived; some of these provide retroactive payments to the first day of absence, if the illness exceeds the waiting period by even 1 day, while others waive the waiting period only in cases of prolonged illness.

Most of the less-than-full-pay plans provide full pay during the first portion of the absence and half pay for the remainder. The full-pay periods vary from 1 to 4 weeks for employees with 1 year of

[5] In addition are the workers engaged in the production and transportation of crude petroleum who are covered by the petroleum-refining industry agreements discussed previously.

seniority, and in graduated plans may continue for as long as for employees with 10 years' seniority. The half-pay peri follow are usually 1 additional week for employees with service (1 year) and as much as 42 additional weeks for with 15 years' service. The leave at full pay and half pay combined totals 2 weeks for 1-year employees, with a maximum of 52 weeks for 15-year employees.

Under one plan the sick-leave allowance amounts to the difference between full pay and the benefits received under the company's welfare program. Many of the agreements which provide full pay for absences caused by nonoccupational disabilities specify that payment in cases of occupational accidents shall amount to the difference between full sick-leave pay and workmen's compensation.

Telephone and telegraph industry.—Paid sick-leave provisions are the rule rather than the exception for plant and traffic department employees in the major telephone companies under union agreement. All these plans provide full pay, calculated at either the straight-time rate or at "the employees' basic wage rate plus such differential payments which the employee receives under his regular assignment." The period for which pay is granted is almost always on an illness rather than an annual basis, and benefits are frequently paid from a company welfare fund when the sick-leave allowance has been exhausted.[6] Although the agreements speak in terms of 7 days' l for all employees with at least 2 years of service, who suffer disa ties of at least 7 days' duration, payment for the full 7 days is usu made only to employees with 10 or more years' service. For ployees with 2 but less than 5 years' service there is usually a wai period of 2 days followed by a maximum of 5 days' paid leave, and employees with 5 but less than 10 years' service the waiting peri is 1 day with a maximum of 6 days' paid leave.

The press-telegraph companies have varying sick-leave pl ranging from 1 week at full pay, per year, to an undefined maxim "within reasonable limitations to be determined by the employe

Only one of the two major telegraph-company agreements curre in 1944 contained a sick-leave plan. This provided:

> The company agrees that sick pay shall commence after the second week illness and shall be retroactive to the eighth day of illness. The second week o illness shall be paid for at the employee's full regular weekly rate of pay and sick pay thereafter shall be given at one-half the employee's regular weekly rate of pay on the basis of 4 weeks' sick pay for each year of the employee's term of service, with a maximum of 50 weeks.

Office and professional workers.—Almost half of the agreements covering office and professional workers contain detailed provisions for full-pay sick leave, while many others specify "a reasonable amount of sick leave in line with past practice." Most of the described plans provide 2 weeks' leave per year, regardless of service, which may be prorated on a monthly basis, and in a number of cases, accumulated to a maximum of 1 or 2 months. Some agreements provide graduated plans which grant paid leave ranging from a minimum of 1 week to a maximum of 4 weeks. In agreements covering railway clerks a prerequisite to sick-leave payments is that the work of the absentee must be carried on at no cost to the carrier.

Retail and wholesale trade.—Sick-leave provisions are also commonly found in agreements in wholesale and retail trade, and are in effect in

[6] An additional allowance in the form of board-and-lodging stipend for the sick-leave period is frequently allowed a traveling employee while working away from headquarters.

her companies although not incorporated in the agreements. S[illegible] the agreement provisions allow full pay for 1 or 2 weeks of [illegible]after 1 year of service. Plans providing for half or three-[illegible]ay offer a greater maximum period of leave, one large department store paying "one-half of salary" for 10 weeks to any employee who has been employed for over 2 months.

State, county, and municipal workers.—Full-pay sick-leave provisions are prevalent in agreements covering State, county, and municipal workers. Fixed plans providing 15 days' leave per year are most common, with accumulation of unused leave frequently permitted to a maximum ranging from 28 to 60 days.

Radio technicians.—The agreements covering radio technicians almost invariably call for "at least 2 weeks" of full pay per year for absence caused by illness; service requirements range from 60 days to 6 months.

Newspaper employees.—All the American Newspaper Guild agreements examined, which cover all types of newspaper employees except those engaged in the mechanical operations, contain some mention of paid sick leave. Most of these merely refer to the continuance of past policy or provide that the amount of sick-leave compensation shall be determined by the publisher according to circumstances, length of employment, and dependents. Occasionally the agreement provides that [illegible]n there is compensation insurance, the publisher shall pay the [illegible]erence between the insurance benefits and the regular salary.

The agreements which mention a definite sick-leave allowance per [illegible]ar specify as maximum "at least 1 week," "not more than 4 weeks [illegible]ess in the judgment of the publisher the time should be extended," [illegible]a week for each 6 months of service until the maximum of 30 weeks is [illegible]ached after 15 years. One clause states: "The publisher * * * [illegible]all not be obligated to provide sick leave with full pay to any em[illegible]yee during any calendar year for more than 2 months, nor half pay [illegible]r more than an additional 2 months."

Truck drivers.—A number of agreements for truck drivers contain [illegible]ck-leave clauses providing full pay for 1 week, with no mention of [illegible]ervice prerequisites, and several specify a 3-day maximum for em[illegible]loyees of from 18 to 39 weeks' service, and a 1-week maximum for employees of over 40 weeks' service.

Maritime personnel.—Provisions for sick leave are not included in agreements for seagoing personnel since these workers are covered by the Admiralty Law's doctrine of maintenance, wages, and cure, which guarantees "full rehabilitation and cure" for disabilities and sickness occurring during employment. Union agreements covering employees on inland waterways sometimes contain provision for paid sick leave, and occasionally agreements covering both licensed and unlicensed personnel on river vessels provide some allowance, such as "1¼ days sick leave with pay for every 30 days worked." The following standard clause is included in a small proportion of the agreements of the Great Lakes shipping companies with the National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association and with the Masters, Mates and Pilots:

> All officers with over 1 year's service with the company will be allowed 10 days' sick leave without loss of pay each year. In the event that sick leave is not taken in any 1 year it will accumulate for a period of 3 years or a total of 30 days. Those applying for sick leave in accordance with this rule must furnish proof of sickness from a practicing physician, which if questioned by the management must be certified by the United States Public Health Service.

Labor Organizations

World Trade-Union Conference in London[1]

AT THE World Trade-Union Conference held in London, February 6–17, 1945, the delegates and observers numbered 204—from 40 national labor organizations in the United Nations,[2] 8 trade-union organizations in neutral countries, and 15 international trade-union bodies representing specific trade secretariats. In all, the delegations represented some 50 million trade-unionists. Before the conference closed, invitations to participate were extended to trade-union centers in 4 ex-enemy countries, namely, Bulgaria, Finland, Italy, and Rumania. The main action taken was the granting of support to the principle of establishing a world trade-union federation; and, accordingly, a committee was appointed to work out necessary details and to frame a constitution for such a body. In addition to this decision of the conference, declarations were made with respect to postwar reconstruction and immediate trade-union demands; furtherance of the allied war effort; and the trade-union attitude toward the peace settlement.

Formation of a World Federation

Full agreement was expressed by the organizations represented at the conference on the objectives of obtaining a speedy and enduring peace and eradicating fascism in all its forms. As the conference recognized that the international labor movement cannot act with full effectiveness in attaining the foregoing objectives unless it is organized for that purpose, it was decided to establish a representative conference committee at once to begin work immediately at the conclusion of the conference and to act as the authority until the World Trade-Union Conference was reconvened. The committee, as appointed, consisting of 45 members and 1 nonvoting member, was given broad powers in relation to the future organization of a permanent world body. It was empowered to prepare a draft constitution for the world trade-union federation which it is intended to establish; to circulate the draft among constituent bodies, giving them an opportunity to submit amendments to or to approve the constitution; to reconvene the world conference by the end of 1945 to adopt the constitution in final form; to appoint necessary subcommittees; to convene an emergency world conference, should this course be necessary in the committee's opinion; and to invite attendance and affiliation by bodies, not represented at the February conference, that either

[1] Data are from report by Samuel D. Berger, acting labor attaché, United States Embassy, London, dated February 28, 1945 (Despatch No. 21337); Labor (London), issue of March 1945; the Economist (London), issue of February 24, 1943: and Report of the World Trade-Union Conference, London, 1945.

[2] These labor organizations are in the United States of America, the Soviet Union, Australia, Belgium, Canada, China, Colombia, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, France, India, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Union of South Africa, Yugoslavia, Palestine, Cyprus, British Guiana, Jamaica, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Gold Coast, Northern Rhodesia, United Kingdom, and Uruguay.

the conference or the continuation committee may determine upon. With regard to the peace conference and all preparatory commissions or conferences, the conference committee was authorized to insure trade-union representation. Other duties of the committee will be to collate the conference recommendations and submit them to constituent bodies for ratification; to prepare and submit a report to the reconvened World Trade-Union Conference; and to make necessary collective representations to national governments or international agencies. The resolution provided that the headquarters of the committee should be in Paris. Any money needed should be drawn from voluntary contributions only.

Postwar Reconstruction and Trade-Union Demands

The Governments of the United Nations were called upon to do their utmost to provide relief on an increasing scale to the liberated countries and to populations of other countries which have been victims of Nazi persecution, and to insure the repatriation of displaced populations. All Governments were regarded as having a responsibility for planning for the change-over from war to peace and for the establishment of adequate public control and direction, with the participation of trade-unions, during reconversion. The public obligation for permanent economic reconstruction was stressed, as was the responsibility for insuring jobs at adequate rates of pay for all able-bodied workers needing them. In the field of welfare, the establishment of high standards of housing and nutrition was endorsed. Sufficient control over prices and distribution was suggested to insure that the needs of the people were met, and to this end trade-union and public participation in controls was advocated. In the opinion of the conference, a universal 40-hour week is justified and even made necessary by increasing production. Social security was listed as another essential foundation stone of every society.

To realize the aims given support by the conference, public bodies must be established for the planning, direction, or control of economic life, in which trade-unions must participate as the guardians of the interests of working people. Pursuit of these objectives by the labor movement in each nation is not enough to secure full realization, however, and effective international cooperation is required both in the political and in the economic field.

In conclusion, the following "charter of basic trade-union and worker rights" was adopted: Freedom to organize and to perform trade-union functions; freedom to form cooperatives or any other mutual-aid organizations; freedom of speech, press, assembly, religion, and political association; elimination of all discrimination between races, sexes, etc.; equality of educational and vocational opportunities for all people; suitable employment opportunities at adequate rates of pay for all desiring work; and adequate protection to guarantee social and economic security to every citizen.

Furtherance of War Effort

A pledge was made to work unceasingly to supply the armed forces of the United Nations, to protect the rights of men and women in the services, and to safeguard their interests on their return to civil life.

To speed victory, the conference called for all necessary assistance required to aid and equip the armed forces in liberated countries to participate fully in carrying the war to the enemy. Full mobilization of the workers was stated to be inseparable from defense of their vital economic needs. It was also urged that policies be adopted in liberated areas whereby the people would be mobilized fully in support of the war effort. Recognition was voiced of the need for unity between the United Nations, and the conference pledged every effort to preserve and strengthen it.

Attitude Toward Peace Settlement

The World Trade-Union Conference stated that the declaration by the heads of the three Allied Powers at the Crimea conference gave assurance that the sacrifice and sufferings of the working people were not in vain. It urged the taking of measures to bring all war criminals to justice and to prevent the occurrence of another war. In acting on these and related matters, the conference stated, the trade-unions should be heard and heeded. Support was pledged to the principles of the Atlantic Charter and to the decision by the United States of America, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union to summon a conference at San Francisco to prepare the charter of an international organization in accordance with the general principles formulated at Dumbarton Oaks. The trade-union movement, it was stated, looked to the San Francisco meeting "to set the seal of final agreement upon the policy which the leaders of the three Great Powers have consistently pursued since they framed the Atlantic Charter."

Reconstitution of French Trade-Unions [1]

THREE months after the liberation of France, the General Confederation of Labor of that country announced a membership of 4 million. This represented an increase of a million over the prewar total, and accompanied the restoration of freedom of organization. All labor groups continued to act jointly toward the attainment of specific national reforms, following a practice established during the period of German occupation. French labor's interest in international problems was shown by the revival of the Anglo-French Trade-Union Committee, by the formation of a Franco-Soviet Trade-Union Committee, and by participation in the London World Trade-Union Conference.[2]

Nullification of Vichy Labor Policy

Abolition of the corporative labor charter enacted by the Vichy Government in 1940, re-affirmation of the provisions of the Labor Code of the Third Republic regarding professional associations, and return to the status existing among labor organizations on September 3, 1939, were provided by an ordinance of July 27, 1944, enacted in Algeria. This law also authorized the creation of national and

[1] Data are from France, Journal Officiel, August 30, September 27, and October 10, 1944; Free France, January 15 and February 1, 1945; Le Peuple, September 16, December 2 and 9, 1944; and February 10 and 17, 1945; and U. S. Embassy Report No. 2 (London), November 1944, by Angela Pow.

[2] For summary of the proceedings of this conference, see p. 1030.

Departmental "commissions of syndical reconstitution," in which the General Confederation of Labor (C. G. T.) and the Confederation of Catholic Workers (C. F. T. C.) were closely associated. Trade-union officials who had collaborated with the Vichy labor authorities were to be removed from the reconstituted unions by these commissions, with right of final appeal to a national commission. This decree was made effective by a number of regulations. Penalties for collaborationists varied from life exclusion from all labor organizations to temporary suspension from trade-union office.

Revival and Expansion of Trade-Unions

On September 16, 1944, the General Confederation of Labor announced its return to its Paris headquarters in the first issue since 1940 of its organ, Le Peuple. Pending the return of the Secretary General, detained in Germany, two deputy secretaries general, with equal rights and powers, were selected to represent the central body. Although no national convention is to take place until more normal conditions are restored, a national conference of regional representatives was held in December 1944, and in March 1945 the national committee met in Paris. Reconstitution of the executive bodies of the component federations was announced late in 1944, and in December the C. G. T. reported a total membership of over 4 million.

The program of C. G. T. included (1) punishment of collaborationists, (2) wage increases and price control, (3) improvement and extension of social legislation, (4) nationalization and effective control of the essential sectors of French economy, (5) representation of labor unions on all economic and social bodies dealing with the interests of workers, and (6) participation in the organization of world peace in cooperation with an "active and truly universal trade-union movement."

The French Confederation of Christian Workers held its first national congress since 1940 in Paris, December 4–5, 1944. Announcing its position on current national issues, the confederation declared that it would maintain its "traditional independent position with respect to political parties." On economic issues the C. F. T. C. declared its opposition to trusts and union monopolies and its desire to "establish a regime in which the worker will cease to be an insecure proletarian without social status and without responsibilities, but will * * * through access to property ownership and culture become a living member of the national community, and, through his progressive participation in the management of production, a free citizen of a professional society." As a means of strengthening the position of the family, the C. F. T. C. supported a broad program of reforms including wages adjusted to living costs, substantial family allowances, a public housing policy, proper working hours, social-insurance reforms, adequate old-age pensions, educational opportunities for children according to the convictions of parents, and vocational training for adolescents.

On September 19, 1944, following a meeting of the Inter-Confederation Cooperation Committee,[3] the C. G. T. proposed that the two

[3] This committee, consisting of representatives of the C. G. T. and the C. F. T. C., functioned during the period of underground resistance to the Vichy Government.

confederations enter discussions for the purpose of achieving eventual organic unity. This proposal was rejected by the C. F. T. C., which, however, expressed hope that the practice of close cooperation developed during the years of occupation would become increasingly "institutionalized" and broadened.

International Relations of French Labor

The Anglo-French Trade-Union Committee was revived in the fall of 1944,[4] following the visit to France of British Trades Union Congress representatives. The committee met in London in January 1945, to discuss the allied war effort, postwar reconstruction, and measures to improve relations between the C. G. T. and the T. U. C. It was agreed that meetings would be held alternately in Paris and London.

In December 1944, a similar committee, the Franco-Soviet Trade-Union Committee, was formed between a delegation of Soviet trade-unionists visiting France and representatives of the C. G. T. The aims of the committee were reported to be (1) study of means to intensify the war effort, (2) exchange of information on labor action in the tasks of reconstruction, (3) discussion aimed at a common stand regarding the punishment of Germany and payment of reparations, (4) study of a common position to be taken by labor-union delegates at the Peace Conference, (5) clarification of relations between labor organizations of the USSR and France, and (6) work toward international labor union solidarity.

World Trade-Union Conference.—The C. G. T. was represented at the London World Trade-Union Conference by a large delegation including its 2 deputy secretaries general, one of whom was a vice president of the meeting. The C. F. T. C. sent a delegation of observers. Following the conference the French unions received the American delegation in Paris, which was named the seat of the continuing organization of the conference.

[4] This committee was created in 1939 to deal with wartime labor problems. Its activity was interrupted after 9 months by the fall of France in June 1940.

Industrial Relations

Three Years' Activity of National War Labor Board[1]

THE National War Labor Board was established by Executive order on January 12, 1942, for the purpose of settling by peaceful means labor disputes which threatened to interfere with the successful prosecution of the war. Congress further defined this assignment in the War Labor Disputes Act of June 25, 1943, giving the War Labor Board the power and duty, whenever the U. S. Conciliation Service certifies or the Board is of the opinion that a labor dispute exists which may lead to substantial interference with the war effort, to decide the dispute and to provide by order fair and equitable terms and conditions to govern the relations between the parties. The Board was also given responsibility by Executive order on October 3, 1942, for carrying out the wage-stabilization program called for by Congress in the Economic Stabilization Act of October 2, 1942.

The Board is primarily concerned with two types of cases—dispute cases, and voluntary applications for wage adjustments which are presented sometimes by the employer alone and sometimes jointly with a union.

Dispute Cases Handled

In the 3-year period of its existence the Board has received well over 14,000 dispute cases. As of October 27, 1944, it had disposed of 11,118 and had on its dockets 3,179 cases, representing about 20 weeks' work at current schedules. No formal action was required for 814 cases disposed of, whereas directive orders were issued in 10,304 cases, involving 7,686,000 workers. Of these, 6,900 were issued by the regional boards, 1,191 by industry commissions created by the Board, and 2,213 by the National Board.

During the year 1944 the regional boards and commissions issued 4,603 directive orders. In 2,429, or 53 percent, of these cases, petitions for review were filed with the National Board. Many of these petitions were withdrawn before action was taken on them and the Board found no basis for reviewing many others. Of 1,085 cases reviewed by the National Board, decisions of the regional boards and commissions were upheld in 83 percent, modified in 14 percent, and reversed in 3 percent.

Thirty-one cases were referred to the President when the unions (in 16 cases), employers (in 14 cases), and a company union encouraged by the employer (in 1 case) refused to comply with War Labor Board decisions. Governmental seizure to enforce compliance followed in 25 cases. In the 6 remaining cases the union (in 4) and an employer (in 1) complied with the WLB orders at the President's request, making seizure unnecessary. The sixth case was that of the American

[1] Data are from the Board's press release B-1918, Third Anniversary Report, January 15, 1945.

Federation of Musicians, which refused to lift its ban and allow its members to make transcriptions for certain record-manufacturing companies as ordered by the Board and requested by the President. No further action was taken after the Economic Stabilization Director advised the President that this dispute was not interfering with the war effort.

Voluntary Applications For Wage Adjustments

Of the total cases (305,524) received during the first 2 years' operation of the Wage Stabilization Act, 36,374 were disposed of without formal action or did not require Board approval, and 269,150 were ruled on formally. About 27 percent of the cases handled by the regional boards were joint employer-union applications, and in 73 percent applications were submitted by employers alone.

Of the 269,150 cases ruled on in this period, the wage adjustments requested were granted in whole or in part in 85 percent and denied in 15 percent. Of more than 15,000,000 workers involved in these cases, 88 percent received wage increases and 12 percent were denied any adjustments.

In cases involving wage-rate adjustments, decided from October 3, 1942, to June 30, 1944, wage increases granted amounted to 6.3 cents per hour on the average, or 9.4 percent of the previous straight-time earnings of employees involved. Workers in A. F. of L. unions making joint applications with their employers received increases averaging 5.6 cents per hour, which amounted to a 7.8-percent increase over previous average earnings of 72 cents per hour. Workers in similar C. I. O. cases received increases averaging 5.7 cents, or 7.6 percent of previous average earnings of 75 cents per hour. In cases submitted by employers alone and those submitted jointly with independent unions, increases granted averaged 6.7 cents per hour, or 10.4 percent of the previous straight-time earnings of 64 cents per hour.

During the year 1944 the National Board received 1,309 petitions for review of decisions issued by regional boards and commissions on voluntary applications. Some were not accepted and some were withdrawn without formal action. The Board reviewed 600 cases, however, upholding the decisions in 79 percent, modifying them in 10, and reversing them in 11 percent. Slightly over 300 petitions for review were still pending at the end of the year.

Activities of National Labor Relations Board, 1943–44 [1]

THE National Labor Relations Board has two functions which were established by the National Labor Relations Act passed in 1935, and two additional functions which resulted from legislation passed in 1943. Its two principal duties are (1) to eliminate unfair labor practices which impede the effectuation of sound collective bargaining, and (2) to determine disputes as to the choice of bargaining agents by employees. The War Labor Disputes Act [2] gave to the Board the

[1] Data are from Ninth Annual Report of the National Labor Relations Board, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944.
[2] 57 Stat. 163 (1943).

responsibility for conducting strike ballots as required by the act, and the Telegraph Merger Act [3] assigned to the Board the duty of protecting the rights of employees affected by the merger of the Western Union and Postal Telegraph companies.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944, a large part of the Board's activities and services was concentrated in 8 major industries engaged in the production of vital war equipment and supplies. Cases were received from all of the 48 States, and from the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. The number of unfair-labor-practice cases filed (2,573) was smaller than in any other full year of the Board's operation, but the number of representation cases (6,603) was larger than in any preceding year. Nearly 3,000 workers were reinstated by Board order during the year, to remedy discriminatory discharges, and 350 in addition were reinstated after strikes caused by unfair labor practices. Back pay of $1,916,173 was awarded to 3,734 workers who had been the victims of discriminatory practices. Company-dominated unions were disestablished in 101 cases. Circuit courts of appeals reviewed 88 Board orders during the year, enforcing 74 in full and 8 in part, and setting aside 6. Five Board orders which went to the Supreme Court were enforced in full.

Cases of Unfair Labor Practice

The Board investigates alleged unfair labor practices when charges are filed by individual workers or labor organizations. After preliminary investigation, each case is disposed of by one of the following procedures: Withdrawal of the charge; dismissal of the charge by the Board; informal settlement between the parties with the Board's assistance; or formal action which involves the issuing of a complaint, a formal hearing, and a Board recommendation, decision, or order, sometimes followed by court action to obtain compliance.

The Board, during the year ending June 30, 1944, disposed of 2,687 unfair-labor-practice cases involving nearly 5 million workers; 43 percent of the cases were withdrawn by the complainants, over 17 percent were dismissed by the Board, 24 percent were adjusted informally, and 411 cases or 15.3 percent, required formal action. Court action in connection with compliance followed in 240 cases.

Unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were complainants in 909, or 34 percent, of the 2,687 cases closed during the year; affiliates of the Congress of Industrial Organizations in 1,177 or 44 percent; unaffiliated unions in 327, or 12 percent; and in 275 cases, or 10 percent, the complainants were individuals or employers. The unfair labor practices complained of were principally coercion of and interference with employees in the exercise of their rights, discrimination, and refusal to bargain.

Representation Cases

Board action in settling disputes concerning representation and proper bargaining agents is initiated by the filing of a petition by any person or labor organization acting on behalf of employees, or by an employer when two or more labor organizations claim to represent the same group of employees.

[3] 57 Stat. 5 (1943).

During the year ending June 30, 1944, the Board closed 6,507 representation cases involving 2,113,000 workers—4,353, or 67 percent, without formal action, and 2,154, or 33 percent, after formal action. A. F. of L. affiliates were the petitioners in 39 percent of the representation cases closed during the year, C. I. O. affiliates in 44 percent, and unaffiliated unions in 16 percent. In 47 cases (less than 1 percent) the petitioners were individuals or employers.

The Board conducted 4,712 elections and checks of pay rolls during the year, of which 3,203 were by consent or stipulation and 1,509 were ordered. In 77 percent of these cases only one union was involved, in 22 percent two unions were involved, and in 50 cases (1 percent), 3 or more unions were involved. Results of these elections are shown in the following table.

Results of Elections and Pay-Roll Checks Conducted by National Labor Relations Board for Selection of Bargaining Agents, Year Ended June 30, 1944

Union affiliation	Elections in which union participated			Election won by union		Valid votes cast for union	
	Number	Number of eligible voters	Number of valid votes cast	Number	Percent of elections in which union participated	Number	Percent of total votes in elections in which union participated
A. F. of L	2,197	535,157	427,557	1,500	68.3	199,989	46.8
C. I. O	2,594	961,301	789,138	1,890	72.9	445,528	56.5
Unaffiliated	969	440,318	351,402	593	61.2	183,066	52.0

Strike Ballots Under War Labor Disputes Act

Under the War Labor Disputes Act of 1943 no strike may be called in an establishment connected with war work until a notice of the dispute has been filed with the Secretary of Labor, the National Labor Relations Board, and the National War Labor Board, followed by a waiting period of 30 days and a strike ballot conducted by the NLRB on the question whether the employees will permit an interruption in war work. During the year ending June 30, 1944 (which coincides with the first full year of the act's operation), 974 valid and effective dispute notices were filed. The Board conducted strike ballots in 232 cases, 688 cases were withdrawn, and 54 were pending at the end of the year. The 232 ballots conducted covered 381 separate voting units, in 323 of which the majority of the employees voted in favor of a strike. However, only 64 strikes took place following the strike ballots conducted by the Board; these accounted for 1.4 percent of the total strikes occurring during the year.

Activities Under Telegraph Merger Act

To protect the rights of employees affected by the merger of the Western Union and Postal Telegraph companies, the Telegraph Merger Act provided that the remedies available under the National Labor Relations Act should be applicable and that the Board and the courts should have jurisdiction to enforce rights of employees under the Telegraph Merger Act in the manner in which similar rights are

enforced under the National Labor Relations Act. Only 18 charges of unfair practices were filed under the Telegraph Merger Act during the year. Seven of these were withdrawn or dismissed; in 2 the Board authorized the issuance of complaints; and 9 were pending at the end of the year.

Work of National Mediation Board, 1943–44[1]

THE National Mediation Board completed its tenth year of operation on June 30, 1944. The Board was created under the 1934 amendments to the 1926 Railway Labor Act, and in 1936 its jurisdiction was extended to include commercial air-line carriers and their employees. The functions of the Board are twofold: To settle disputes involving changes in terms of agreements, and to determine the authorized representative for each craft or class of employees. The 1934 amendment also established the National Railroad Adjustment Board, the function of which is to handle disputes involving the application or interpretation of agreements. The Adjustment Board is composed of four divisions, each having jurisdiction over particular classes of railroad employees.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944, the National Mediation Board disposed of 357 cases, of which 217 (60 percent) were disputes involving changes in rates of pay, rules, and working conditions; 139 (40 percent) involved issues of union representation, and 1 concerned interpretation of an agreement. The four divisions of the National Railroad Adjustment Board disposed of 3,280 disputes. Thirteen cases involving changes in wages and working conditions were referred to arbitration boards, which rendered 10 awards during the year.

TABLE 1.—*Cases Disposed of Under Railway Labor Act, 1940–44*

Year	Total	National Mediation Board			National Railroad Adjustment Board—interpretation and application cases
		Representation cases	Mediation cases	Interpretation cases	
Total	1,736	694	1,032	10	11,604
1944	357	139	217	1	3,280
1943	425	190	234	1	2,730
1942	370	141	228	1	2,080
1941	303	129	171	3	1,713
1940	281	95	182	4	1,801

Aside from a few local and unauthorized work stoppages during the year, the vast majority of labor disputes in the railway and air-line industries were settled peacefully under the procedures of the Railway Labor Act. However, there was a Nation-wide strike threat in December 1943, over demands by both operating and nonoperating employees for wage increases, which resulted in assumption by the War Department, under authority of the wartime powers of the

[1] Data are from Tenth Annual Report of the National Mediation Board and the National Railroad Adjustment Board. Washington, 1945.

President, of control of the railroads; this lasted for about 3 weeks—from December 28, 1943, to January 18, 1944.[2]

Of the 139 representation disputes disposed of during the year, 75 were conducted by secret-ballot elections (21 exclusively by mail), 28 were settled by checking employees' signatures on authorization cards against employers' records, 14 were settled through voluntary acceptance by the employers of the applicant unions, 17 were withdrawn either before or after commencement of the mediators' investigations, 3 cases were dismissed by the Board when its investigation showed that no representation dispute existed, and 2 were closed without certification, following elections which did not result in a majority vote for any contestant.

Fifty of the 139 cases, including 31 percent of the employees involved in all representation cases, were rival-union disputes, and 88 cases were contests between national unions and unorganized workers or system associations—organizations of employees confined to single railroads.

TABLE 2.—*Organizations Involved in Representation Cases Before National Mediation Board, Year Ending June 30, 1944*

Type of dispute	Number of—		Employees involved	
	Cases	Crafts	Number	Percent
All types of dispute	139	180	38,192	100
Total national organizations versus system associations or unorganized employees	88	110	26,506	69
National organizations versus system associations	26	35	24,200	63
National organizations versus unorganized employees	62	75	2,306	6
Total interunion	50	69	11,679	31
National versus national	45	63	10,935	29
National versus locals	5	6	744	2
System associations versus unorganized	1	1	7	(1)

[1] Less than a half of 1 percent.

Three of the mediation cases and 8 representation cases disposed of during the year involved air lines. Representation disputes among air-line employees were more frequent than in previous years, as a result of the activity of unions that were seeking to organize air-line navigators, dispatchers, radio operators, and other groups which had not previously been organized.

Of the 217 disputes concerning rates of pay, rules, and working conditions, 137 were settled through mediation, 13 were voluntarily submitted to arbitration, 59 were withdrawn prior to or during mediation, 2 were closed following refusal of either or both parties to arbitrate, 2 were closed by Board action, and 4 were referred to the two Panel Emergency Boards.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, February 1944 (p. 319) and March 1944 (p. 611), for details of events leading up to this threatened strike and the wage adjustments allowed.

Industrial Disputes

Strikes and Lockouts in March 1945

THERE were 400 strikes and lockouts in March 1945, involving 210,000 workers and 860,000 man-days of idleness, according to preliminary estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Idleness in March was 0.11 percent of the available working time.

Of these 400 stoppages, one-half occurred in four States—Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, and Ohio. About one-third of the total idleness resulted from the strikes in the motion-picture industry in Hollywood (Calif.) and at the Briggs Manufacturing Co., Detroit.

Strikes and Lockouts in March 1945, with Comparable Figures for Earlier Periods

Month	Strikes and lockouts beginning in month		Man-days idle in month	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
March 1945 [1]	400	210,000	860,000	0.11
February 1945 [1]	310	109,000	412,000	.06
March 1944	386	134,696	440,667	.05
March 1943	248	73,943	179,093	.02
March 1942	234	67,292	401,739	.06
March 1941	348	118,271	1,558,457	.26

[1] Preliminary estimates.

Strike at the Briggs Manufacturing Co., Detroit (Mich.).—On March 1, approximately 6,000 members of the U. A. W.–C. I. O., at the Mack Avenue plant of Briggs Manufacturing Co., Detroit, struck in protest against the discharge of 7 union committeemen and stewards. The company stated that the discharged workers had instigated previous stoppages in disregard of the grievance procedure provided in their contract. Officers of the international union claimed that management was disregarding the established grievance machinery and was discharging workers to provoke strikes, and suggested to the National War Labor Board that it order management to refer all disciplinary discharges to the grievance machinery for settlement.

By March 5, 7 Briggs plants were affected, approximately 12,000 workers were idle, and 8 additional workers had been discharged allegedly for inciting the current stoppage. On this same date, members of 1 of the 2 local unions involved voted to place their grievances in the hands of their executive board. Two days later the Regional War Labor Board ordered the men back to work. On March 9, after the board had ordered the company to reinstate 8 of the discharged employees and negotiate with the union on the 7 remaining cases, the workers voted to terminate the stoppage. Work was resumed on March 12.

Motion-picture-studio strike, Hollywood (Calif.).—A strike of studio employees, involving at its peak about 17,000 workers, began March 12 because of a jurisdictional dispute between the Conference of Studio Unions and the International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees, both groups affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. The strike was called by the Conference of Studio Unions, composed of 9 unions, including Local 1421 of the Painters' Union, which claimed most of the decorators as its members. Following a similar jurisdictional strike in several studios in October 1944, the dispute had been certified to the National War Labor Board and an arbitrator's interim award, rendered February 17, 1945, had given jurisdiction over set designers to Local 1421 rather than to the rival International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees (Local 44), pending possible final adjudication by the National Labor Relations Board. Motion-picture producers, threatened by a strike of the 12 member unions of the International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees, if they honored the award, petitioned the NWLB for a review of the award; the Board was considering this petition at the time of the strike. Strike votes had been taken under the War Labor Disputes Act during January and February at the various studios, with 274 employees voting in favor of a strike and 42 against striking.

The stoppage occurred after producers had rejected demands for immediate opening of negotiations for a contract with the Set Designers (Painters) Union. While directly involving only about 75 set designers, the strike affected an estimated 17,000 workers in all. The Conference of Studio Unions, called out its 9 unions with a membership of 8,000, the strikers were supported by some other groups in the industry and many workers were idle because of forced shut-downs resulting from the absence of key people. Members of the International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees continued reporting for work. Work was halted completely at some studios and curtailed at others. Early in the dispute, the international officers of the Painters Union and President William Green of the American Federation of Labor denounced the strike and called upon local union officials to order the men back to work. Some groups returned to work after a few days but others continued their support.

On March 21 the National War Labor Board directed the striking employees to resume work, but the Conference of Studio Unions refused to order them back, pointing out that the award of the Board's arbitrator had not been enforced. Early in April some of the major studios sent dismissal notices to employees remaining on strike indicating an attempt to carry on their work on a curtailed basis without a settlement of the dispute.

Strike at Continental Motors Corp., Detroit (Mich.).—A foreman in the grinding department of Continental Motors Corp., Detroit (Mich.), suspended for a 3-day period 3 employees under his jurisdiction who, he said, were sleeping on the job. Fellow employees of the suspended men, members of the United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.), feeling this discipline was too severe, left the plant in protest (March 22) and demanded the dismissal of the foreman. Picket lines were established resulting in a complete shut-down of the plant, which employs over 7,000 workers.

After several conferences between company and union officials, assisted by a Federal conciliator, it was agreed to negotiate the issue further and employees returned to work after a loss of 2 days. The

matter was ultimately settled by transferring the foreman to another department, and returning the men to work after the 3-day suspension.

Strike at A. C. Spark Plug Division of General Motors Corp., Flint (Mich.).—Two plants of the A. C. Spark Plug Division of the General Motors Corp. at Flint (Mich.), employing about 15,000 workers, were affected by a strike of about 3,500 employees on March 26. The next day, nearly 12,000 workers were idle, causing an almost complete stoppage of production.

The strike was in protest against the 5-day suspension of a shop committeeman for alleged physical violence to a foreman and the reprimanding of about 40 women who were in sympathy with the committeeman. The discharge of 10 additional workers and lay-offs of from 30 to 60 days of 5 other employees as a penalty for their participation in the strike were contributing factors to the continuation of the stoppage. On March 28 the workers voted to end the strike and a list of grievances was prepared for consideration, in accordance with established grievance procedure, after all employees were back at work.

Strike at Hudson Motor Car Co., Detroit (Mich.).—A strike in protest against the discharge of a union steward, whom the company alleged had instigated a slow-down, halted production at 3 plants of the Hudson Motor Car Co. in Detroit. The strike started March 28, when about 100 inspectors left their jobs because of the failure of the company and the union to reach an agreement concerning the reinstatement of the discharged steward. The strike spread the next day, and because of the absence of inspectors and the high rate of absenteeism a large number of production workers were sent home. By noon of March 30 about 13,000 employees were idle. Representatives of the company and of the United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.) met with Federal and State mediators, and a show-cause hearing was held by the Regional War Labor Board March 30, at which time the union officials assured the board that they would use every effort to end the strike. The men returned to work Monday, April 2, with the understanding that the union and the company would begin negotiations at once on the question of reinstating the discharged steward.

Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, February 1945

DURING the month of February 1945, the U. S. Conciliation Service disposed of 1,867 situations as compared with 1,957 situations in January. During February of 1943, 1,975 situations were closed.

Of the 200 strikes and lockouts handled, 181 were settled successfully; 19 cases were certified to the National War Labor Board, in which strikes occurred during negotiations, but in 10 cases a commissioner of conciliation had effected a return-to-work agreement prior to certification of the case. The records indicate that 140 situations were threatened strikes and 1,349 were controversies in which the employer, employees or other interested parties asked for the assignment of a conciliator to assist in the adjustment of disputes. During the month 376 disputes were certified to the National War

Labor Board. The remaining 178 situations included 87 arbitrations, 15 technical services, 16 investigations, and 60 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

Cases Closed by U. S. Conciliation Service, February 1945, by Type of Situation and Method of Handling

	Total	Strikes and lockouts	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations
All situations	1,867	200	140	1,349	200
Settled by conciliation	1,313	181	130	1,002	
Certified to National War Labor Board	376	[1] 19	10	347	
Decisions rendered in arbitration	87				87
Technical services completed	15				15
Investigation, special service	76				76

[1] Of these, 10 were settled prior to referral.

Industrial Disputes and Collective Bargaining in Canada, 1944[1]

WORKING time lost because of strikes and lockouts decreased sharply in Canada during the year 1944. Preliminary estimates by the Department of Labor indicate that such idleness was 51.8 percent less in 1944 than in 1943. In the opinion of the Minister of Labor, the decline in time lost by stoppages may be attributed to the administration of the Wartime Labor Relations Regulations of February 17, 1944 (P. C. 1003),[2] which provided for machinery and procedure for the recognition of trade-unions and the establishment of collective bargaining. Statistics of strikes and lockouts are shown below for the years 1943 and 1944.

	1943	*1944*
Strikes and lockouts starting in year	402	189
Workers involved in disputes starting in year	218,404	77,698
Man-days of idleness	1,041,198	501,765

Study of the disputes and of collective agreements in force indicates an increasing emphasis by labor on demands for maintenance-of-membership, union-shop, or check-off clauses in collective agreements. "Union security" controversies were the subject of consideration by the majority of conciliation boards established under P. C. 1003 to settle differences arising in collective-agreement negotiations, and, according to a press statement, disputes during 1944 centered more on union status than on wages. The report of an investigation made by the Department of Industrial Relations of Queen's University stated that, unlike the situation in the United States, the legality of the closed shop had not been in dispute but rather its desirability from the point of view of employer and employee. On the basis of a sample of collective agreements, the investigators estimated that "about one-third of the collective agreements now in effect * * * contain closed-shop, union-shop or maintenance-of-membership clauses."

[1] Data are from Canada, Labor Gazette, December 1944 and January 1945; Public Affairs (Institute of Public Affairs, Halifax), Fall issue, 1944; Globe and Mail (Toronto), December 14, 1944; Gazette (Montreal), February 1, 1945; and Foreign Commerce Weekly (Department of Commerce, Washington), February 24, 1945.

[2] For details of the Regulations see Monthly Labor Review, April 1944 (p. 751).

Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor [1]

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

NEW policy established on unions for foremen.—In the case of the Packard Motor Car Co.[2] the Foremen's Association of America persuaded the National Labor Relations Board to certify it as bargaining agent for foremen [3] of the company. The Board found that a foreman in a modern, mass-production plant is a kind of plant policeman, who must follow policies set by higher management officials and must enforce those policies through procedures which are rigidly fixed by the higher authority. Transfers, wage rates, and grievances are handled through steps set by collective agreement between union and employer. Plant policy and technique, and not the individual man, control the situation.

The Board also found that the interest of the foreman as an employee has changed, and the trend among foremen to seek the opportunity for collective bargaining has been strong and consistent. Unions which include both foremen and rank-and-file workers will not be certified as bargaining units. Unions of foremen alone do not threaten harm merely because the foremen are organized, but their unions may not be integrated with workers' unions. Foremen in mass-production industry correctly consider themselves a middle group between rank and file and the management. They have interests as employees that warrant their binding themselves together for collective bargaining.

Nonprofit association treated as employer because of interference with union organization.—Employees of an ice company had been encouraged to organize an unaffiliated union (which the ice company hurriedly recognized) by the Associated Farmers, described as "a nonprofit corporation composed of farmers, business and professional people of Imperial Valley." The ice company, a member of Associated Farmers, reported that there was "union trouble" at its plant; the secretary-manager of the association then went into action. Upon a complaint by the affiliated union charging unfair labor practices by the Associated Farmers, the National Labor Relations Board ordered the association, as well as the company in whose interest it was currently acting, to cease from such unfair practices and from soliciting or collecting funds from the ice company or others for use in interfering with the employees' rights of self-organization. The court, in enforcing

[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] 60 N. L. R. B. No. ——, Mar. 26, 1945.

[3] This was a reversal of the Board's position in the *Maryland Drydock* case, in which it decided that the establishment of units of foremen would impede collective bargaining and disrupt managerial and production techniques.

the Board's order, in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Holtville Ice Co., et al.*[4] confirmed the Board's action both against the ice company and against the Associated Farmers.

Employer to blame for unionized foremen's anti-union acts.—Though foremen in a plant were union members in an approved bargaining unit, the employer was guilty of an unfair labor practice because he incited them, in foremen's meetings, to an anti-union attitude and encouraged them to display that attitude to other employees (*R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.*, 60 N. L. R. B. No. 118).

Discharge of nonunion forewoman called anti-union act.—An employer was ordered by the National Labor Relations Board to reinstate a forewoman whom the Board found to have been discharged for refusal to make an anti-union speech before a representation election. The fact that the employee was not a union member or that she held a position which made her ineligible to such membership did not remove her discharge from the category of anti-union acts (*Reliance Mfg. Co.*, 60 N. L. R. B. No. 162, Feb. 28, 1945).

Militarized plant guards denied bargaining rights.—Plant guards sworn in as civilian auxiliary police for the purpose of meeting military requirements as to the protection of plants in which certain war materials are manufactured have no enforceable right to collective bargaining with the employer. This was the decision of the Second Circuit Court of Appeals in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Atkins & Co.*,[5] reversing the Board's ruling. The reasons for the court's decision were the domination of the whole relationship by the Army and the unusual characteristics of the employment, such as the pledge of obedience to the President as Commander in Chief of the Army and the control of the details of the work by military authorities. The field for collective bargaining in such a situation is so limited as to leave no room for the concept of "full freedom" to exercise the right of "efficient collective bargaining"; therefore no order which can produce only limited bargaining should be enforced. What is more, the conflict between the men's position as guards and as union members would be against the public interest.

Business still subject to National Labor Relations Act, though no longer in interstate commerce.—Although the business no longer buys or sells across State lines, a cement company which regularly purchases the materials it requires after they have been shipped across State lines by others, is still a business which affects interstate commerce if it has labor disputes. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals so ruled in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Cowell Portland Cement Co.*,[6] sustaining also the conclusion of the Board that an unseasonal shutdown, followed by rehiring of only nonmembers of the union chosen by the employees, and the signing of a new closed-shop agreement with the reemployed group were unfair labor practices.

Union enjoined from interfering with fair competition by self-employed persons.—A union was enjoined by the Supreme Court of California[7] from exerting pressure on producers of milk not to supply certain individual milk "peddlers." The peddlers employed no one, but their work of delivery competed with that of union drivers employed by other distributors. The court stated the basic question involved was

[4] 51 N. L. R. B. No. 103.
[5] —— Fed. (2d) —— Feb. 27, 1945.
[6] —— Fed. (2d) ——.
[7] *Bautista* v. *Jones*, 155 Pac. (2d) 343.

whether the union was entitled to the protection afforded by law to the pursuit of a legitimate labor-union objective. The court gave weight to the fact that these peddlers had been in business for a long time and could not be considered a special means devised to break up a union, and to the fact that the peddlers had asked permission to join the union and had been refused merely because they were peddlers. In the absence of other factors, this history showed that the objective of the labor union was not legitimate.

The court said that the individual businessman-worker is one of a minority group whose interests are not particularly inimical to organized labor or to society. Therefore, his elimination is no more a legitimate object of union activity than would be the elimination of Negroes from competition for jobs. This is so, even though the Federal Constitution has been construed as not guaranteeing the individual an absolute right to work with his hands.[8] The right to work may be subject to lawful restrictions but the propriety of interference with it is a matter of State policy, whether interference is by the State or by a group of private persons. In this case the interference, having no lawful basis, was enjoined.

Advocates of defeated union may lawfully stage protest strike.—In *Yoerg Brewing Co.* v. *Brennan*,[9] an employer was refused by a Federal Court the injunction he requested against a strike which was called by a union in connection with a representation dispute and was continued after certification of its successful rival, based on an election conducted by the National Labor Relations Board. The employer contended that the strike could be enjoined on the ground that it did not grow out of a labor dispute, since the dispute ended upon the Board's certification of the winner. The Court, however, found that there was a labor dispute, that peaceful action might be taken to publicize it, and that the Norris-LaGuardia Act prevented issuance of an injunction, even though the employer had done nothing unlawful and might suffer loss. As to the argument that the continuation of the strike was an effort to force the employer to violate the Labor Relations Act, the Court replied that the Board's certification under the act does not interfere with the right to strike, and that strict compliance with the Norris-LaGuardia Act is required to enjoin even an unlawful strike.

Veteran's rights after reinstatement.—Reinstatement, on application within 90 days after discharge from the armed forces, as well as back pay, was ordered by the National Labor Relations Board in favor of an inductee whose employer had discharged him, and another employee, for union activity. The back pay was to cover the period from discharge to induction (*Federal Engineering Co., Inc.*, 60 N. L. R. B. No. 1112). The Board also decided that a closed-shop agreement does not justify an employer in discharging an employee because of his dealings with a nonsignatory union, even at the request of the union with a closed-shop agreement, if the employee's dues are paid up and he has not been expelled from the closed-shop union. Such a discharge is an unfair labor practice.

Decisions Relating to Fair Labor Standards Act

Central office and warehouse of chain grocery not exempt as retail establishment.—Employees of the central office and warehouse of a

[8] *Senn* v. *Tile Layers Protective Union*, 301 U. S. 468.
[9] —— Fed. Supp. —— (D. C. Minn.), Mar. 6, 1945.

chain of grocery stores, who are engaged in interstate commerce, are not excluded from the Fair Labor Standards Act by the exemption for retail establishments,[10] since the office and warehouse are an establishment apart from the individual establishments which operate as retail outlets. The office and warehouse are not retail in character. The Supreme Court of the United States in *Phillips* v. *Walling*[11] described the work of office and warehouse employees of such a firm as the performance of wholesale functions in the stream of interstate commerce, in that they deal with incoming and outgoing interstate shipments, with goods coming from other States to the warehouse, and goods being distributed from the warehouse in part to the retail stores in other States. Congress intended to use the term "establishment" in the sense which it has in business and government usage, namely a distinct, physical place of business.

The legislative history shows that Congress intended to exempt "business in the several States that is of a purely local nature," and that section 13(a)(2) was included because of the fear that the exemption in section 13(a)(1) for employees engaged in a "local retailing" capacity might not clearly exclude all the employees of such retailers in cases in which occasional interstate dealings occur because of location near a State boundary line.

Roll call and inspection time called hours worked.—Plant patrolmen guarding a plant in which goods are produced for interstate commerce are entitled to claim, as hours worked under the Fair Labor Standards Act, time they spend in roll call, inspection, receiving orders and assignments, moving to their places of duty, and preparing for work (*Edmondson* v. *Yellow Truck & Coach Co.* —— Fed. Supp. ——).

Record keeping by employer held essential.—Under a system of tonnage payment for mining, the Wage and Hour Law is violated if the employer does not keep an accurate record of hours worked. In *Walling* v. *Panther Creek Mines, Inc.*,[12] a United States Circuit Court of Appeals reversed the court below which refused an injunction against an employer who had failed to introduce time records, after a warning by the Wage and Hour Division. Neither the claim that this was a "technical" violation nor that it is not "commercially feasible" to keep time records was held tenable by the appellate court. The duty of keeping accurate records as required by the regulations rests squarely on the employer and his failure in it is cause for an injunction.

Eelctrical installation and repair classed as production of goods.—Employees of an electrical contractor installing, repairing, and reconditioning electrical wiring, motors, and equipment for industrial and commercial customers including plants producing goods for interstate commerce, were held entitled to Fair Labor Standards Act payments in *Walling* v. *Roland Electrical Co.*,[13] by a decision of the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals. The appellate court, reversing the court below, said that these employees were engaged in "production" in the statutory sense of an activity "necessary" to production, and suggested as a test of necessity "whether [the work] constituted a part

[10] 29 U. S. C. sec. 213 (a) (2).
[11] —— U. S. —— Mar. 26, 1945.
[12] —— Fed. (2d) —— (C. C. A. 7), Mar. 1, 1945.
[13] 146 Fed. (2d) 745, Jan. 3, 1945.

of the integrated effort by which the goods were produced." The court rejected the contention that the men worked in an exempt "retail or service establishment,"[14] on the ground that such work, done in commercial and industrial companies, is not the type of "retail or service" activity contemplated by Congress.

Veterans' Rights

Back pay to veteran limited in reemployment action.—An honorably discharged veteran who was ordered reinstated in his former position as plant doctor, obtained from the court, in proceedings brought by him to secure reemployment, his back pay, limited by what the court considered was the intent of Congress.[15]

The company was ordered to pay the physician (who previously maintained, and had returned to, an independent practice) his former wage from the time he started the suit (not from the time of refusal of his request for reemployment) to the time of reinstatement, minus that period during which a judgment of the lower court against his claim stood unreversed. No deduction was made for what the physician, meantime, earned from private practice.

The court reasoned as follows: The intent of Congress was not merely to finance the veteran. For that purpose, a provision for the payment of a year's wages as an alternative to reinstatement would have been proper. The major purposes were to give the veteran an opportunity to revive dormant skills and to give him an equal chance with those who had worked continuously, to work in the field of his special aptitude. The back-pay provision is meant primarily to aid the veteran who cannot find suitable work, until he obtains reinstatement from an employer who has unlawfully refused it. If, in spite of such refusal, he is able to pursue his calling and does so, he remains within the general protection of the act but, the court felt, his compensation should be adapted to the facts.

The act provides for immediate bringing of suit by the veteran if he is refused his job and for especially speedy handling by the court. The court will not expand the period for which back pay may be ordered, because of delays of the veteran or time consumed by him in vain negotiations before he brings suit.

Veterans to receive automatic progression increases.—A veteran, eligible for reinstatement, must be given all increases granted during his absence to which he would have been entitled had he been continuously employed. *In re Marmon-Harrington Co.* (Case No. 111–6585–D) the National War Labor Board stated that its ruling was based on the Selective Service Act, and might require change if that act is changed. The Board rejected the employer's argument that this was a form of merit increase not due the veteran, like a promotion from one job grade to another or advancement in an apprenticeship or trainee program, involving tests of skill and ability. The increases were considered by the Board to be related to seniority.

[14] 29 U. S. C. sec. 213 (a) (2).

[15] *Kay* v. *General Cable Corp.*, —— Fed. Supp. ——, Mar. 5, 1945. For prior Circuit Court decision, see Monthly Labor Review for November, 1944 (p. 1019). In *Hall* v. *Union Light, Heat & Power Co.*, —— Fed. Supp. ——, Feb. 21, 1944, a veteran who was reemployed 3 months after demand, was held entitled to the 3 months' back pay, even though his suit was not for the purpose of reinstatement.

War Labor Board Decisions

Dispute case rejected; procedures suggested.—The National War Labor Board refused to decide a dispute case in which failure to settle even the most trivial issues proved that no bona-fide bargaining had taken place. At the same time the Board appointed a special representative to meet company and union in an effort to reduce the 93 issues by settlement. In its opinion *in re Wright Aeronautical Corp.* (Case No. 111–13076–D, March 5, 1945), the Board said that its effort to expedite cases required the aid of the parties in a complete use of collective bargaining, and use of full information on stabilization policy while negotiating and before presenting a dispute and their cooperation in maintaining the status quo and not seeking delay after the case has gone to the Board. Speed, and economy of effort, in the Board's opinion, might be gained by use of a single hearing officer without departure from the practice of decisions made by a tripartite, representative Board.

Severance-pay clauses favored.—The National War Labor Board will approve severance-pay plans voluntarily submitted by employers or jointly submitted with the union, if the plans are reasonable. This policy was expressed in the case of *American Type Founders, Inc.*[16] as to a plan for salaried employees, graduating severance pay in line with length of service, and limiting the provision to those discharged without fault.

Check-off granted to counteract company's obvious hostility.—The National War Labor Board, *in re General Motors Corporation* (Case No. 111–4503–D, decided Mar. 1, 1945), renewed the maintenance-of-membership provision in the union agreement, although the union protested because the company had delayed for a year to put the maintenance provision into effect; the escape clause was retained. On the other hand, the Board inserted a new and irrevocable provision for a check-off. The union claimed that the check-off was necessary to prevent further discharges for failure to pay dues caused by the company's hostility to the union.

Conditional grant of union security clauses.—The National War Labor Board, in a dispute between the Celanese Corp. of America and District 50 of the United Mine Workers,[17] affirmed a directive order of the New York Regional Board which provided for automatic revocation of the check-off and maintenance-of-membership clauses in case of a strike. The provision was made after the employer insisted the union had not accepted the no-strike pledge, had engaged in a strike in 1943, and was irresponsible. The order also provided that in case the company claims a strike exists, an arbitrator shall decide whether what happened is a strike, work stoppage, or lockout.

Shut-down following refusal to ticket loads not a lockout.—The National War Labor Board rejected a union appeal from an order of a regional board denying back pay for a period during which the union claimed the men were locked out. A group of employees had asked their foreman to transfer out of their department a man whom they considered untrustworthy. The request was refused and the men stopped ticketing their loads. When, after remonstrance, they continued in that refusal, the company shut down the machines. Since the request

[16] Case No. 2–57428, Mar. 3, 1945.
[17] Case No. 111–7043–D, Feb. 16, 1945.

that they continue to ticket the loads was reasonable, the Board held that there was no lockout by the employer. (*Hoover Ball & Bearing Co.*, Case No. 111–8320–D, January 25, 1945.)

Premium ordered as compensation for bad working conditions.—The National War Labor Board ruled [18] that when shipyard employees, in a confined and ill-ventilated space, must do the work of galvanized burning and welding and of spray painting, premium rates must be paid for the work as long as the conditions continue uncorrected by special equipment or otherwise. This was the first directive paralleling voluntary agreements made elsewhere under similar conditions.

Changes of wage rates in reconversion of plants.—Cuts in rate ranges or other alterations in method of payment, effecting a decrease in wage rates, are not allowable under stabilization policy merely because the employer is no longer on a war contract. To permit this when neither the job content nor the character of the employer's business has changed would violate stabilization policy, said the War Labor Board in *Cuneo Press, Inc.*,[19] since the changes could be supported neither as correcting gross inequities nor as aiding the war. Correspondingly, when reconversion has not changed the content of the war jobs, approval of the War Labor Board is not required to continue approved present rate ranges. (*Dunbar Furniture Mfg. Co.*, Case No. 6–39995, Mar. 7, 1945.)

Limited action taken in social-agency dispute with unions.—Chicago social agencies and a union of their employees were directed by the National War Labor Board to create grievance machinery, ending with arbitration.[20] Though the employer argued that it was an intrastate, nonprofit organization, not in industry or in competition with industry, the National Board considered that the facts, including the rating of paid workers as essential by the War Manpower Commission, warranted an order of the type made, even though this case had not been certified as a dispute that "may lead to substantial interference with the war effort." The Board refused, however, to dispose of questions relating to union recognition, maintenance of membership, or check-off, since the union had no recognized status as collective-bargaining agent, though in fact it had bargained for several years.

Decisions on State Labor Laws

Another union-control act viewed by court.—Parts of the Kansas Union Control Act were held unconstitutional by a United States District Court in *Stapleton* v. *Mitchell*,[21] as follows: Section 8 (3) requiring a majority vote for a lawful strike, Section 8 (12) making it unlawful to refuse to work on goods because they are not union produced, and Section 8 (13) prohibiting stoppages or strikes because of jurisdictional disputes. The court held that these activities are within the protection accorded to free speech by the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution.

Section 3 of the Kansas law, which requires a license for a business agent was held constitutional, but only under an interpretation of the State's attorney general restricting its meaning to paid agents. Sections 4, 5, 6 and 10, requiring the filing of union constitution and

[18] *Pullman-Standard Mfg. Co.*, Case No. 111–4898–D, Feb. 19, 1945.
[19] NWLB Release B–1982, Mar. 8, 1945.
[20] Chicgo, Ill., Social Agencies, Case No. 111–3504–D, Feb. 2, 1945.
[21] —— Fed. Supp. —— (U. S. D. C. Kansas), Mar. 5, 1945.

bylaws with the secretary of state, and the filing of annual reports, which become public property, and dealing with suits against unions, were held by the Court to be of the general character of legitimate regulation of the business activities of labor unions. The Court refused to enjoin the enforcement of these sections but emphasized the fact that special applications of them might be improper.

Limitation on use of union funds in political campaigns.—In California there is no law or policy against collection within labor unions and use of labor-union funds to support or oppose candidates or legislation at any election held under State laws. The provisions of the Federal Corrupt Practices Act and Hatch Act make it unlawful for a union to support candidates at an election in which certain Federal officers are being elected, even thoug the assessment has been levied with due observance of the constitution of the union. These provisions do not prohibit use of such funds to oppose a constitutional amendment at an election in which Federal officials are candidates. The Superior Court of California in *Warner* v. *Screen Office Employees' Guild*,[22] held that it was coincidental and not directly intended that money so spent benefited certain candidates and this coincidence created no illegality.

[22] —— Pac. (2d) ——.

Housing Conditions

New Nonfarm Dwelling Units, 1943 and 1944[1]

Summary

LABOR and material shortages were chiefly responsible for the continued decline in residential construction during 1944. The number of new nonfarm family dwelling units involved dropped by over three-fourths, to 169,000 units, from the prewar total of 715,000 units in 1941. A further decline in volume may be expected during 1945.

Over 80 percent of the new units in 1944 were privately financed, as compared to only slightly over half in 1943 and three-fifths in 1942 when the publicly financed war housing program was at its height. Although the number of privately financed units was a fourth less in 1943 (138,800 units as compared to 183,700) the major part of the decline in 1944 was in the volume of publicly financed units.

The number of new units supplied through publicly financed war housing projects totaled only 30,200 in 1944, as compared with 166,300 in 1943.

Of the privately financed units in 1944, 82 percent were 1-family units, 8 percent 2-family units, and 10 percent were in multifamily structures. In 1943, the corresponding distribution was 74 percent 1-family, 10 percent 2-family, and 16 percent multifamily.

Throughout most of the war housing period, publicly financed units have been predominantly in temporary rather than permanent structures. In 1944 almost 90 percent were in temporary structures, as compared with over 95 percent in 1943.

The total valuation of the 169,000 new units started during 1944 is estimated at $467,000,000, somewhat over half the $896,000,000 estimated valuation for 1943. The 1944 total included permit valuations of $391,000,000 for the 138,000 privately financed units and $76,000,000 for construction contracts covering publicly financed housing projects. With allowance for understatement by permit valuations of actual construction costs, it is estimated that the construction of the 169,000 new units started during 1944 will involve expenditures of approximately $530,000,000.

Scope of Report

This report presents estimates of new urban and rural nonfarm family dwelling construction. The urban estimates include all new family dwelling units in incorporated places which had a population of 2,500 or more in 1940, plus a small number of especially significant unincorporated areas. The rural nonfarm estimates include all other new family dwelling units, exclusive of those on farms.

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

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

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

Trends From 1910 Through 1944

During the 35-year period from 1910 to 1945 the construction of new nonfarm family dwelling units has varied over a wide range. From a total of 475,000 units started in 1910, the annual volume dropped off to 120,000 in the war year of 1918, increased to 937,000 in 1925, the highest level recorded to date, declined again to the depression low of only 93,000 units in 1933, and recovered to a total of 715,000 in 1941, just before the United States entered World War II. The 1944 total (169,000 units) amounted to less than a fourth of the 1941 volume, and was only 18 percent of the peak attained in 1925.

As in the first World War, new residential construction has steadily declined throughout the period of our active participation, as strict priority controls have been applied to conserve scarce labor and materials. The greater dislocation of population in this war as compared with the last, however, necessitated by vastly greater production needs, more drastic shifts in industry distribution, and more extensive mushrooming of new war plants in nonindustrial areas, has made necessary the construction of a considerable volume of new housing for war workers. As a result, the expected construction decline has been less marked than many had anticipated.

Table 1 (p. 1055) presents estimates of the volume of new dwelling units started annually from 1910 through 1944.

Changes From 1943 to 1944

The total of 169,000 new nonfarm family dwelling units put under construction during 1944 was a little less than half the number (350,000) started during 1943. Although the volume of both publicly and privately financed units declined sharply, the major part of the decrease occurred in the number of public units, which declined by 82 percent as compared to a 25-percent loss in the number of privately financed units. Whereas almost half of the new units were publicly financed in 1943, in 1944 only 18 percent were to be constructed with public funds.

TABLE 1.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1910–44* [1]

Year	Total nonfarm	Area [2]		Type of dwelling		
		Urban	Rural nonfarm	1-family	2-family [3]	Multifamily [4]
1910	475,000					
1911	480,000					
1912	490,000					
1913	455,000					
1914	445,000					
1915	475,000					
1916	480,000					
1917	230,000					
1918	120,000					
1919	330,000					
1920	247,000	196,000	51,000	202,000	24,000	21,000
1921	449,000	359,000	90,000	316,000	70,000	63,000
1922	716,000	574,000	142,000	437,000	146,000	133,000
1923	871,000	698,000	173,000	513,000	175,000	183,000
1924	893,000	716,000	177,000	534,000	173,000	186,000
1925	937,000	752,000	185,000	572,000	157,000	208,000
1926	849,000	681,000	168,000	491,000	117,000	241,000
1927	810,000	643,000	167,000	454,000	99,000	257,000
1928	753,000	594,000	159,000	436,000	78,000	239,000
1929	509,000	400,000	109,000	316,000	51,000	142,000
1930	330,000	236,000	94,000	227,000	29,000	74,000
1931	254,000	174,000	80,000	187,000	22,000	45,000
1932	134,000	64,000	70,000	118,000	7,000	9,000
1933	93,000	45,000	48,000	76,000	5,000	12,000
1934	126,000	49,000	77,000	109,000	5,000	12,000
1935	221,000	117,000	104,000	183,000	8,000	30,000
1936	319,000	211,000	108,000	244,000	14,000	61,000
1937	336,000	218,000	118,000	267,000	16,000	53,000
1938	406,000	262,000	144,000	317,000	18,000	71,000
1939	515,000	359,000	156,000	399,000	29,000	87,000
1940	603,000	397,000	206,000	486,000	37,000	80,000
1941	715,000	440,000	275,000	613,000	34,000	68,000
1942	497,000	281,000	216,000	391,000	20,000	86,000
1943	350,000	209,000	141,000	286,000	18,000	46,000
1944	169,000	115,000	54,000	145,000	11,000	13,000

[1] Data for 1920–29 are from National Bureau of Economic Research; data for 1910–19 and 1930–44 from Bureau of Labor Statistics. No break-downs are available for 1910–19.
[2] Urban and rural nonfarm classifications for years 1920–29 are based on 1930 Census; for years 1930–44, on 1940 Census.
[3] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[4] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Most of the war housing-construction programs had been completed or were nearing completion by the end of 1943. Consequently, during 1944 relatively larger proportions of the new units were built in small, scattered war housing projects or were nonwar housing units built to relieve cases of individual hardship. This is reflected not only in the small volume of public units but in the increased importance of 1-family as compared to 2-family and multifamily units. The volume of privately financed one-family units declined between 1943 and 1944 by 16 percent as compared to declines of 40 percent in 2-family and 54 percent in multifamily units. One-family units accounted for 82 percent of the 1944 privately financed total, 2-family units for 8 percent, and multifamily units for 10 percent. The corresponding distribution for 1943 was 74, 10, and 16 percent, respectively.

Cities of all sizes as well as rural nonfarm areas shared in the decrease from 1943 to 1944. Losses ranged from 30 percent in cities of 500,000 or more population to 61 percent in cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population and 62 percent in rural nonfarm areas. Both publicly and

privately financed units were more commonly built within larger cities during 1944 than during 1943. In 1943, 22 percent of the publicly financed and 30 percent of the privately financed units were in cities of 100,000 or more population. In 1944, 36 percent of the public and 34 percent of the private units were in these cities.

The trend toward greater concentration of new units in urban areas is another consequence of the decreasing importance of large projects. Large tracts of vacant land ordinarily to be found only outside of cities are necessary for the larger projects such as those erected to house shipyard workers on the West Coast. Furthermore, entire communities such as those serving isolated war facilities were no longer being built in 1944. The majority of the units remaining to be built are to be placed on vacant lots in cities.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of New Urban and Rural Nonfarm Dwelling Units Started, by Month and Source of Funds, 1944* [1]

Month	All units			Privately financed units			Publicly financed units		
	Total nonfarm	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Total nonfarm	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Total nonfarm	Urban	Rural nonfarm
Total	169,000	114,815	54,185	138,775	93,193	45,582	30,225	21,622	8,603
First quarter	48,900	32,427	16,473	37,308	25,104	12,204	11,592	7,323	4,269
January	17,300	11,016	6,284	12,195	8,222	3,973	5,105	2,794	2,311
February	13,500	9,050	4,450	11,678	7,860	3,818	1,822	1,190	632
March	18,100	12,361	5,739	13,435	9,022	4,413	4,665	3,339	1,326
Second quarter	48,300	32,073	16,227	42,540	28,244	14,296	5,760	3,829	1,931
April	14,300	9,592	4,708	12,824	8,528	4,296	1,476	1,064	412
May	16,500	10,923	5,577	14,673	9,743	4,930	1,827	1,180	647
June	17,500	11,558	5,942	15,043	9,973	5,070	2,457	1,585	872
Third quarter	38,600	26,341	12,259	32,927	21,630	11,297	5,673	4,711	962
July	14,500	9,830	4,670	12,392	8,114	4,278	2,108	1,716	392
August	12,800	8,738	4,062	11,097	7,273	3,824	1,703	1,465	238
September	11,300	7,773	3,527	9,438	6,243	3,195	1,862	1,530	332
Fourth quarter	33,200	23,974	9,226	26,000	18,215	7,785	7,200	5,759	1,441
October	10,800	7,469	3,331	9,771	6,884	2,887	1,029	585	444
November	11,600	8,460	3,140	9,097	6,362	2,735	2,503	2,098	405
December	10,800	8,045	2,755	7,132	4,969	2,163	3,668	3,076	592

[1] Preliminary.

The increasing concentration of dwelling units in urban areas is most noticeable in the case of publicly financed units. Almost half of them were located outside of urban areas in 1943 as compared with less than 30 percent in 1944. Urban construction accounted for 67 percent of the new privately financed units in 1944 as compared to 65 percent in 1943. Further details on the distribution of new dwelling units by city-size group are shown in table 3.

Throughout the war period, new nonfarm family dwelling units have been increasingly concentrated in 4 of the 9 geographic divisions, the Pacific, East North Central, South Atlantic, and West South Central States, all areas of great war expansion. In 1940, 63 percent of the new units built were located in these regions. By 1943, 26 percent of the new units were being erected in the Pacific States alone and 49 percent more in the East North Central, South Atlantic and West South Central States. This same trend was even more pronounced in 1944, when 32 percent were in the Pacific States and 50 percent more in the other 3 regions.

TABLE 3.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1943 and 1944, by Population Group, Source of Funds, and Type of Structure*

Area and population group (1940 Census)	Total new dwelling units		New dwelling units financed by—			
			Public funds		Private funds	
					All types	
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All nonfarm areas	169,000	350,000	30,225	166,272	138,775	183,728
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−51.7		−81.8		−24.5	
Urban (cities)	114,800	209,300	21,622	89,536	93,193	119,714
500,000 and over population	27,100	38,500	6,049	14,791	21,029	23,755
100,000 to 500,000 population	30,600	52,800	4,760	21,471	25,837	31,301
50,000 to 100,000 population	9,100	23,600	1,147	12,062	7,934	11,525
25,000 to 50,000 population	9,900	20,300	2,606	9,327	7,322	10,952
10,000 to 25,000 population	17,200	39,400	3,066	19,827	14,164	19,552
5,000 to 10,000 population	11,900	21,700	2,532	8,325	9,366	13,391
2,500 to 5,000 population	9,000	13,000	1,462	3,733	7,541	9,238
Rural nonfarm areas	54,200	140,700	8,603	76,736	45,582	64,014

Area and population group (1940 Census)	New dwelling units financed by—					
	Private funds—Continued					
	1-family		2-family [1]		Multifamily [2]	
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All nonfarm areas	114,611	136,332	10,626	17,766	13,538	29,630
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−15.9		−40.2		−54.3	
Urban (cities)	71,298	78,750	9,908	16,234	11,987	24,730
500,000 and over population	14,688	12,374	2,636	4,251	3,705	7,130
100,000 to 500,000 population	18,457	20,335	3,669	5,220	3,711	5,746
50,000 to 100,000 population	5,884	6,215	1,084	1,371	966	3,939
25,000 to 50,000 population	5,314	7,257	419	1,291	1,589	2,404
10,000 to 25,000 population	11,655	14,088	1,363	2,319	1,146	3,145
5,000 to 10,000 population	8,147	10,078	518	1,315	701	1,998
2,500 to 5,000 population	7,153	8,403	219	467	169	368
Rural nonfarm areas	43,313	57,582	718	1,532	1,551	4,900

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

In contrast to these regions of intense activity, the New England and Middle Atlantic States, which in 1940 accounted for 22 percent of the new dwelling-unit total, accounted for only 12 percent in 1943 and 5 percent in 1944.

Over 40 percent of the new public units in 1944 were in the Pacific States and almost 40 percent more were in 2 regions—the South Atlantic and the East North Central.

The number of new privately financed units declined between 1943 and 1944 in all but two regions—the Pacific States which showed an increase of about a sixth and the West South Central States where the volume increased only slightly. Declines between 1943 and 1944 in the number of privately financed units in other regions varied from 6 percent for the East South Central States to losses of 65 percent for the Middle Atlantic and 70 percent for the New England States. Details on the geographic distribution of new nonfarm family dwelling units in 1943 and 1944 are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1943 and 1944, by Geographic Division, Source of Funds, and Type of Structure*

Geographic division	Total new dwelling units		New dwelling units financed by—			
			Public funds		Private funds	
					All types	
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All divisions	169,000	350,000	30,225	166,272	138,775	183,728
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−51.7		−81.8		−24.5	
New England	2,000	11,000	40	4,297	1,960	6,703
Middle Atlantic	7,100	30,000	841	12,183	6,259	17,817
East North Central	29,800	61,200	5,063	24,365	24,737	36,835
West North Central	5,800	10,400	1,070	5,033	4,730	5,367
South Atlantic	27,900	68,500	5,815	25,500	22,085	43,000
East South Central	9,000	14,000	1,410	5,929	7,590	8,071
West South Central	27,500	42,800	2,566	19,115	24,934	23,685
Mountain	5,900	20,400	1,229	13,667	4,671	6,733
Pacific	54,000	91,700	12,191	56,183	41,809	35,517

Geographic division	New dwelling units financed by—					
	Private funds—Continued					
	1-family		2-family [1]		Multifamily [2]	
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All divisions	114,611	136,332	10,626	17,766	13,538	29,630
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−15.9		−40.2		−54.3	
New England	1,793	4,810	14	264	153	1,629
Middle Atlantic	4,278	12,932	870	2,363	1,111	2,522
East North Central	19,997	28,132	2,684	4,443	2,056	4,260
West North Central	3,722	3,474	183	1,098	825	795
South Atlantic	18,427	26,952	1,266	3,403	2,392	12,645
East South Central	7,265	7,133	228	434	97	504
West South Central	20,606	20,297	2,499	2,041	1,829	1,347
Mountain	4,167	5,939	96	308	408	486
Pacific	34,356	26,663	2,786	3,412	4,667	5,442

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

Privately Financed Housing

Since mid-1941, when shortages in materials and labor first became critical, new privately financed housing placed under construction has been almost steadily declining. During 1941, at the prewar recovery peak in residential construction, 619,000 new units were started by private builders. By 1944, the volume of such units had fallen to 139,000 units, less than a fourth of the 1941 peak and the smallest annual volume in a decade.

Since April 1942, private builders have been generally limited to war housing for which there appeared to be permanent need. Prior to that time, and after July 1940, private builders had provided over a million new units, of which an estimated 400,000 were classified as war housing units, i. e., units costing less then $6,000 and built in designated critical housing areas.[2] Between April 1942 and the end of 1944, over 400,000 additional war housing units were provided by private builders under the war housing (H–1) program of the National

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, September 1943 (p. 513).

Housing Agency. These units have all been built with priority assistance and have been reserved exclusively for occupancy of immigrant war workers for the duration of the need in the community.

The H–1 program was almost completed by the end of 1944. By that time, it included 538,000 units, of which 465,000 had been completed, and 40,000 more were under construction, leaving only 33,000 units yet to be started.

During 1945, a large part if not most of the new private construction will be built with priority approval under the H–2 and H–3 housing programs of the National Housing Agency. The H–2 program, first announced in mid-1944, is to provide housing to relieve severe shortages in communities which are unable to qualify for war housing under the H–1 program. H–2 housing is dependent on approval by the Area Production Urgency Committee and, therefore, upon the military situation. By the end of 1944 less than 5,000 units had been approved and none had been started.

H–3 housing is not specifically programmed but is built as needed to relieve cases of individual hardship, usually to replace structures which have been destroyed by fire, flood, tornado, lightning, etc., and to provide for honorably discharged veterans of World War II who are unable to find other suitable living quarters. Approximately 10,000 units have been built to date under the H–3 program.

During 1944, all but 200 of the 93,900 privately financed units insured by the Federal Housing Administration were insured under Title VI of the National Housing Act, which provides for liberalized FHA insurance terms for mortgages on low-cost war housing in designated areas. The remaining 200 units were insured under Title II, which set forth the plan of mutual mortgage insurance as contained in the original act approved June 27, 1934.

Publicly Financed War Housing

Only 30,000 new family dwelling units were provided in publicly financed projects started during 1944. This is less than a fifth of the number provided in 1943 and fewer than in any year since 1938. Almost all of the 1944 units were built under the supervision of the Federal Public Housing Authority of the National Housing Agency for war-worker occupancy.

Although the first publicly financed war housing was put under construction contract in mid-1940, the public war housing program did not reach its peak until 1942 after the creation of the National Housing Agency.[3] In the second quarter of that year, over 85,000 new family dwellings were placed under contract. Later, in the first quarter of 1943, almost 85,000 more units were started, but since that time the volume has been declining as minimum housing needs in vital war production areas have been met.

When the Federal Government first began to provide housing for defense workers in 1940, all construction was of permanent buildings. Later, as materials became more scarce and it became apparent that such construction would lead to serious overbuilding problems in some localities, increasing emphasis was placed on the construction of temporary units (see table 5). Since the middle of 1942, nearly all

[3] For a discussion of the war housing activities of Federal agencies prior to the creation of the National Housing Agency, see New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1940 and 1941, in the Monthly Labor Review, May 1942, pp. 1139–1148 (reprinted as Serial No. R1461).

public war housing has been temporary, and the construction of permanent units has been largely left to private builders.

In addition to the new family dwelling units started during 1944, work was started on publicly financed dormitory projects to house 6,006 persons and trailer parks for 21,204 trailers. By the end of 1944, new dormitory accommodations had been provided or were being built for 167,000 persons, and 80,000 trailer units had been placed under construction.[4] Over 48,000 additional units were made available through the conversion program of the Home Owners Loan Corporation during 1943 and 1944.

TABLE 5.—*Summary of New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1935–44, by Source of Funds* [1]

Period	Total new dwelling units	Privately financed units	Publicly financed units		
			Total	Permanent	Temporary and demountable
1935	221,000	215,705	5,295	5,295	0
1936	319,000	304,225	14,775	14,775	0
1937	336,000	332,406	3,594	3,594	0
1938	406,000	399,294	6,706	6,706	0
1939	515,000	458,458	56,542	56,542	0
1940	602,600	529,571	73,029	73,029	0
1941	715,200	619,460	95,740	83,586	12,154
1942	496,600	301,193	195,407	54,809	140,598
1943	350,000	183,728	166,272	7,173	159,099
First quarter	118,100	34,143	83,957	2,897	81,060
Second quarter	82,100	51,681	30,419	936	29,483
Third quarter	76,100	52,539	23,561	1,400	22,161
Fourth quarter	73,700	45,365	28,335	1,940	26,395
1944	169,000	138,775	30,225	3,108	27,117
First quarter	48,900	37,308	11,592	732	10,860
Second quarter	48,300	42,540	5,760	1,050	4,710
Third quarter	38,600	32,927	5,673	1,166	4,507
Fourth quarter	33,200	26,000	7,200	160	7,040

[1] Does not include trailer units or dormitory accommodations for single persons.

Estimated Permit Valuations

The permit valuation of the 169,000 new nonfarm family dwelling units started during 1944 is estimated at $467,410,000, of which $391,389,000 was for privately financed units and $76,021,000 for publicly financed projects. In 1943, the 350,000 units were valued at an estimated $895,625,000 of which $539,662,000 was for private units and $355,963,000 was for public units. The average valuation of new public units was slightly higher in 1944 than in 1943, as a result of the somewhat greater proportion of permanent units. Privately financed units, on the other hand, had a somewhat lower average valuation than in 1943, partly because of a substantial increase in the relative number of 1-family dwellings with very low valuations and partly because of the shift in the geographic location of the new units toward areas where lower-cost houses are more common, such as the West South Central States.

[4] National Housing Agency Progress Report, Total H–1 and H–2 Housing Program as of December 31, 1944. These data include units in terminated and stand-by status.

TABLE 6.—*Estimated Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, 1943 and 1944, by Geographic Division and Source of Funds*

Geographic division	Estimated valuation (in thousands of dollars) of new dwelling units					
	Total		Private funds		Public funds	
	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943
All divisions	467,410	895,625	391,389	539,662	76,021	355,963
Percent of change, 1943 to 1944	−47.8		−27.5		−78.6	
New England	7,679	35,394	7,482	25,714	197	9,680
Middle Atlantic	22,984	92,399	20,022	59,476	2,962	32,923
East North Central	118,762	213,985	103,757	149,734	15,005	64,251
West North Central	15,959	23,996	13,551	13,413	2,408	10,583
South Atlantic	64,474	163,218	48,182	107,754	16,292	55,464
East South Central	16,346	23,101	12,314	12,112	4,032	10,989
West South Central	51,531	75,446	45,481	43,804	6,050	31,642
Mountain	15,886	50,649	13,139	19,418	2,747	31,231
Pacific	153,789	217,437	127,461	108,237	26,328	109,200

For a number of reasons the estimates of construction costs which are given by builders when applying for building permits generally understate actual costs. The results of a prewar study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that actual costs [5] average 15.5 percent more than the valuations entered on permit records. In the absence of more current data, permit valuation of privately financed units should be increased by 15.5 percent to yield estimated construction cost. Construction costs for publicly financed units are obtained from contract awards and hence no adjustment of the public totals is necessary. It may be estimated, therefore, that the over-all construction cost (excluding land and improvements) of the 169,000 units started in 1944 was approximately $530,000,000, or a little more than half of the $980,000,000 estimated for the 350,000 units begun in 1943.

[5] Covers the actual cost of construction, i. e., cost of labor, mater al, and the builder's overhead and profit directly chargeable to the construction project.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Annual and Hourly Earnings in Philadelphia Knitted-Outerwear Industry, 1943[1]

Summary

THE knitted-outerwear industry in Philadelphia employed a total of 4,051 individual workers for varying periods of time in 1943. Of these, 1,380 worked at least 46 weeks and had average gross annual earnings of $1,739. The average straight-time hourly earnings for all workers who were employed 6 weeks or more were 72.8 cents; over a fourth received less than 50 cents an hour and about 16 percent at least $1 an hour.

Comparatively full employment was afforded during 1943 to all workers during their varying period of service in the industry. Weekly hours during the year averaged 39 for all workers, indicating a considerable amount of overtime work at premium rates. However, a sizable turnover of workers, especially among the lowest skilled occupations, resulted in an average workyear of only 27.2 weeks among the whole group who worked in the industry at some time during the year.

Characteristics of the Industry

The manufacture of knitted outerwear, although reflecting certain characteristics of the apparel trades, is generally classified among the textile industries. It is a relatively small industry, normally employing about 25,000 workers, of whom the majority are women and girls. Most of the establishments in this industry are in the East.

The segment of the industry that is situated in Philadelphia has had a long history of successful collective bargaining. Forty-seven of the establishments operating in 1943, or all but 1 or 2 of the knitted-outerwear manufacturers in the city, operated under agreements with the Knit Goods Workers' Union, Local 190 of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (A. F. of L.). Of the 47 concerns, 43 were members of the Knitted Outerwear Manufacturers Association operating under a master agreement. The other 4, although not members of the association, worked under identical union agreements. Rather unusual records, maintained under the terms of these agreements, provide significant information regarding the annual earnings of workers in a light manufacturing industry during the war and constitute the basis for the present article.

The product of the Philadelphia industry was valued at somewhat more than $10,000,000 in 1943 and the number of workers employed

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Division, by Kermit B Mohn (Regional Wage Analyst, Philadelphia office).

averaged about 2,700 during the year. Employment in individual plants ranged from 8 to 172 workers; 27 plants had fewer than 50 workers, 10 had from 50 to 100 employees, and 10 had over 100.

All of the establishments operated full-process plants in that they knit their own fabrics and manufactured finished products. A few purchased no yarn on their own account but instead worked on a contract basis, with the yarn furnished. The products were knit primarily from woolen yarns, and in 1943 from 70 to 80 percent of the total product was for civilian use.

The agreements made with the Knit Goods Workers' Union stipulate that employers shall furnish the union with weekly transcripts of pay-roll records for each employee, by occupation.[2] The union posts figures from these pay-roll transcripts to individual members' record cards, so that the hours and total earnings, by weeks, are listed for the entire year. After consultation with the Knitted Outerwear Manufacturers Association, the union made these individual record cards for 1943 available to the Bureau for use in this special study.

It is recognized that there were slight imperfections in the data. It was impossible, for example, to exclude learners and handicapped workers, as is normally done in the Bureau's wage studies. Furthermore, the occupational classifications were not always up to date, and working foremen were probably included in some cases under other occupational titles. It is believed, however, that the results are fairly accurate, and that the slight inaccuracies that may exist do not seriously limit the value of the material.

Employment and Earnings

REGULARITY OF EMPLOYMENT

Altogether 4,051 different wage earners were employed for varying periods during 1943 by the 47 union establishments in the Philadelphia knitted-outerwear industry. However, these workers averaged only 27.2 weeks of employment (see table 1). This low average must be attributed to turnover among employees, since there was relatively little fluctuation in the total working force during the year.

Over 22 percent of those employed worked less than 6 weeks and slightly more than half worked less than 26 weeks. On the other hand, more than a third were employed for at least 46 weeks and about one of every eight worked 52 weeks.

Among the selected occupations shown in table 1, the cutters and menders showed the greatest continuity of employment, on the average. The former had an average work-year of 43 weeks and the latter had one of 41 weeks. Almost three-fourths of the cutters worked 46 weeks or more and not quite half put in 52 weeks. Among the menders, 61 percent worked at least 46 weeks and almost a fourth were employed for a full year.

In contrast, the greatest turnover is indicated for examiners and trimmers and folders and packers, with average work-years of 21.5

[2] Under the arrangement with the union in 1943, the union shops in the knitted-outerwear industry contributed amounts equal to 3 percent of the total weekly wages of the union members for the purpose of financing various benefits to union members. These contributions were paid for 40 weeks during the year, beginning with the sixth calendar week. From this fund the union provided vacation pay to its members, based on total income for a designated period, with a maximum of $35. Persons in military service received $25. In addition, sick benefits of $5 per week were paid for a maximum of 5 weeks during the year after an initial 2 weeks of illness.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Workers in Philadelphia Knitted-Outerwear Industry, by Number of Weeks Worked During 1943*

Number of weeks worked	All workers [1]	Selected occupations							
		Cutters	Examiners and trimmers	Folders and packers	Knitters	Menders	Merrow operators	Pressers	Singer operators
1 to 5 weeks	901	1	208	58	25	1	51	5	54
6 to 10 weeks	443	5	82	44	11	2	36	4	29
11 to 15 weeks	256	2	49	21	2	1	26	3	18
16 to 20 weeks	235	1	50	12	6	4	24	3	22
21 to 25 weeks	198	4	28	8	3	7	15	3	17
26 to 30 weeks	181	5	22	12	7	3	21	3	17
31 to 35 weeks	149	2	33	15	6	2	17	2	10
36 to 40 weeks	144	5	26	6	5	4	18	5	18
41 to 45 weeks	164	4	23	4	7	6	29	5	15
46 to 51 weeks	860	26	82	35	60	29	141	20	124
52 weeks	520	49	54	25	64	18	63	21	35
Total	4,051	104	657	240	196	77	441	74	359
Yearly average (weeks)	27.2	43.0	21.5	22.7	38.7	41.0	34.0	38.4	32.0

[1] Includes occupations not shown separately.

weeks and 22.7 weeks, respectively. Almost 30 percent of their total number were employed in the industry for less than 6 weeks and about 22 percent were employed at least 46 weeks.

The hours worked within these weeks were fairly high, on the average. The tabulation below shows that average weekly hours worked during the year for all employees amounted to 39, with a range among the selected occupations from 37 for singer operators to 46 for knitters. Cutters worked sufficient overtime to give them an average workweek of 44 hours, and pressers had an average workweek of exactly 40 hours.

	Number of workers	*Average weekly hours*
All workers	4,051	39.0
Selected occupations:		
Cutters	104	44.0
Examiners and trimmers	657	38.0
Folders and packers	240	38.5
Knitters	196	46.0
Menders	77	38.5
Merrow operators	441	37.5
Pressers	74	40.0
Singer operators	359	37.0

ANNUAL EARNINGS

Workers who were employed at least 46 weeks in the knitted-outerwear industry in Philadelphia had average gross annual earnings of $1,739 in 1943 (table 2). Actual gross annual earnings ranged from $642 to $5,508, and over three-fourths of the total group had earnings of at least $800, but less than $2,200. Almost all of the others averaged more than the latter figure. Because of pay-roll deductions for various purposes, the net amounts taken home by these workers were, of course, substantially less than the gross earnings.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Workers Employed 46 Weeks or More in Philadelphia Knitted-Outerwear Industry During 1943, by Annual Earnings*

Classified annual earnings	All workers [1]	Selected occupations							
		Cutters	Examiners and trimmers	Folders and packers	Knitters	Menders	Merrow operators	Pressers	Singer operators
$600 to $799	9		4	2					1
$800 to $999	118		33	13		1	1		8
$1,000 to $1,199	196		46	21		11	14		10
$1,200 to $1,399	169		24	9		14	13	1	21
$1,400 to $1,599	199		21	6	1	13	49	2	33
$1,600 to $1,799	165		4	3	8	6	44	2	37
$1,800 to $1,999	123		1	2	7	1	30	1	13
$2,000 to $2,199	104	2	2	1	17	1	25	4	18
$2,200 to $2,399	70	6			17		13	3	10
$2,400 to $2,599	64	11		2	16		9	8	4
$2,600 to $2,799	48	16			17		2	7	
$2,800 to $2,999	35	7	1	1	10		2	8	2
$3,000 to $3,199	25	10			10			2	1
$3,200 to $3,399	21	10			9		1		
$3,400 to $3,599	13	2			5		1	3	1
$3,600 to $3,799	3	1			2				
$3,800 to $3,999	11	6			3				
$4,000 to $4,199	3				2				
$4,200 and over	4	4							
Total	1,380	75	136	60	124	47	204	41	159
Yearly average annual earnings	$1,739	$3,016	$1,206	$1,259	$2,601	$1,381	$1,811	$2,538	$1,678

[1] Includes occupations not shown separately.

Cutters were the highest-paid workers in the industry, with average annual earnings of $3,016. Their hourly rates (table 3) were augmented by considerable amounts of premium overtime pay. Exactly 72 percent of the cutters who worked at least 46 weeks had total earnings between $2,400 and $3,400 for the year. A number of those with earnings over $3,400 supervised the work of other workers in addition to performing their regular duties of cutting.

In contrast, the group having the lowest annual earnings consisted of examiners and trimmers, with an average of $1,206. Nine of every 10 workers in this occupational group averaged between $800 and $1,600 for the year's work, with over 58 percent averaging between $800 and $1,200.

Knitters and pressers ranked second and third in average annual earnings with figures of $2,601 and $2,538, respectively. The former exceeded the latter despite the reverse relationship of their straight-time hourly earnings (table 3), because the knitters, as a group, put in more overtime at premium rates than did the pressers. The same sort of relationship existed between the merrow operators and the singer operators. Almost 69 percent of the combined machine-operating group (merrow and singer) earned between $1,400 and $2,200, on the average.

In considering these annual-earnings figures by occupation, it is well to bear in mind that nearly all cutters, knitters, and pressers are males, while most of the workers in the other selected occupations are females.

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HOURLY EARNINGS

The straight-time hourly earnings of 3,150 workers who were employed for at least 6 weeks in the Philadelphia knitted-outerwear industry in 1943 averaged 72.8 cents (table 3). Individual averages ranged from the legal minimum of 40 cents to over $2.00 per hour. However, slightly more than half of the workers received less than 65 cents, over a third were paid less than 55 cents, and well over a fourth had earnings of less than 50 cents per hour. Comparatively well-paid workers were also numerous; about 16 percent of the 3,150 workers covered in the study had earnings of at least $1.00 per hour, on the average.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Workers Employed 6 Weeks or More in Philadelphia Knitted-Outerwear Industry During 1943, by Straight-time Hourly Earnings*

Classified hourly earnings	All workers [1]	Selected occupations							
		Cutters	Examiners and trimmers	Folders and packers	Knitters	Menders	Merrow operaters	Pressers	Singer operators
$0.400 to $0.449	512		170	47		3	5		6
$0.450 to $0.499	352		84	53		2	9		13
$0.500 to $0.549	271		57	30		7	16		9
$0.550 to $0.590	249		45	14		15	23		21
$0.600 to $0.649	203		28	9		15	25		14
$0.650 to $0.699	178		20	9		8	22		25
$0.700 to $0.749	183		12	6	1	14	38	5	14
$0.750 to $0.799	138	1	13	3		4	35	2	15
$0.800 to $0.849	144		6	3	16	2	35	6	22
$0.850 to $0.899	168		2	2	49	4	31	3	26
$0.900 to $0.949	138	1	1	1	31	1	34		27
$0.950 to $0.999	111	2	2		15		33	4	20
$1.000 to $1.049	99	15	2	1	17		18	5	27
$1.050 to $1.099	101	20	5	1	5	1	16	6	15
$1.100 to $1.149	69	19	1	1	7		12	3	17
$1.150 to $1.199	57	5		1	5		19	3	11
$1.200 to $1.249	48	7	1	1	5		6	8	5
$1.250 to $1.299	24	1			4		5	4	5
$1.300 to $1.349	23	1			4		1	3	3
$1.350 to $1.399	13	4			3		1	3	2
$1.400 to $1.449	17	5			3		2	6	1
$1.450 to $1.499	6	2			1		1	1	1
$1.500 to $1.549	8	5			2		1		
$1.550 to $1.599	6						1	2	2
$1.600 to $1.649	9	6					1	2	
$1.650 to $1.699	8	2			1				4
$1.700 to $1.749	3				1				
$1.750 to $1.799	3	3							
$1.800 to $1.849	2	2							
$1.850 to $1.899									
$1.900 to $1.949	1								
$1.950 to $1.999									
$2.000 and over	6	2						3	
Total	3,150	103	449	182	171	76	390	69	305
Average hourly earnings	$0.728	$1.241	$0.524	$0.531	$1.005	$0.652	$0.846	$1.172	$0.867

[1] Includes occupations not shown separately.

Cutters were generally the highest-paid employees, with an average hourly rate of $1.241. Pressers ranked next, with an average of $1.172, and knitters were third with $1.005. Male workers are employed in these three occupations. Although pressing is not considered as skilled an occupation as knitting, the workers in this classification were able to raise their hourly earnings to a higher level because of favorable piece-work systems of wage payment. Knitters were usually paid on a time basis.

Among the remaining five selected occupations, in all of which females were used almost exclusively, average straight-time hourly earnings ranged from 86.7 cents for singer operators to 52.4 cents for examiners and trimmers. Singer and merrow operators and most of the trimmers were paid on a piece-work basis, but all of the menders, most of the folders and packers, and most of the examiners, were paid hourly rates.

Wages of Railroad Section Men

ON 303 railroads 53 different hourly wage rates are paid to section men, according to a recent study made by the Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees.[1] These railroads[2] account for 91.5 percent of the total miles of road operated by all line-haul carriers and 70.1 percent of the miles of track operated by all switching and terminal companies.

The outstanding importance of section men in railroad employment is indicated by the fact that this group is by far the largest of the 128 groups of railroad employees as classified by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The average number in 1943 was 161,828 on the basis of the count of employees receiving pay during the month, the middle of the month count being 136,197. The next largest group (and the only other group numbering more than 100,000) consisted of clerks, classes B and C, numbering 116,922.

Range of Wage Rates

The number of rate quotations for section men is much larger than the number of railroads, because some roads have different rates for different areas. The Louisville & Nashville Railroad, for example, is included 11 times because it pays 11 different rates. Only 7 rate quotations were below 54 cents; the 54-cent rate was paid by 18 railroads or units of railroads. There were large concentrations of rates at 57 cents (94 quotations), at 59 cents (23), at 60 cents (55), at 62 cents (38), at 63 cents (51), at 64 cents (46), at 65 cents (62), at 66 cents (60), and at 67 cents (33). There was a total of 49 quotations above 67 cents.

The major variations in rates result from regional differences for substantially similar work under roughly similar conditions. Another cause, however, is the difference in types of railroads and in conditions of work. The rates of railroads with more than 250 miles of road ranged from 57 cents to 70 cents, with 6 exceptions, and 2 of these exceptions applied to section men in tunnels. The rates below 57 cents and above 70 cents were paid mainly by roads with special conditions, such as switching and terminal facilities, local line-haul roads, and roads operated in connection with industrial enterprises; on some of these, higher rates, and on others, lower rates than those generally paid have traditionally been recognized. The range from 57 cents to

[1] Wage Report No. 1: Basic Hourly Rates of Pay of Track and Roadway Section Men on Railroads in the United States, by L. E. Keller, Department of Statistics and Research, Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees, January 1945. The sources used include published and unpublished data collected by the Interstate Commerce Commission and collective agreements between the union and the carriers.

[2] These railroads include units with which the Brotherhood has agreements, but which in some instances are classified by the Interstate Commerce Commission as parts or units of railroads. Thus, the Michigan Central, which is a part of the New York Central System, is included in the study here summarized as a separate railroad.

70 cents represents, however, a significant degree of difference in rates for work of substantially similar nature under substantially similar conditions on ordinary line-haul roads.

Uniform hourly rates are paid to section men on 180 of the 303 railroads covered by the study, but these railroads represent only 21 percent of the total line-haul mileage covered by the study and 52 percent of the switching- and terminal-company mileage.

Fifty of the railroads, embracing about 41 percent of the total miles of line-haul railroads covered by the study and about 2 percent of the mileage of switching and terminal companies, paid different rates in different locations. (These differences did not include those arising from the step-rate plans, under which there is a progressive increase in rates from the beginning rate to the maximum.) Of these 50 railroads, 17 paid more than 3 different rates in different locations.

Seventy three companies, operating 38 percent of line-haul mileage and 46 percent of switching- and terminal-company mileage, paid step rates, under as many as 12 plans. The most widely used plan calls for (1) a beginning or entering rate during the first year, (2) a higher rate during the second year, and (3) a third or maximum rate for 2 years' service or more.

Historical Background of Differences in Wage Rates

The section men's wage-rate structure was built up before these workers became extensively organized, and it varied from railroad to railroad and from one section of the country to another. On the basis of this structure, subsequent changes for the most part took the form of general wage adjustments, either in percentage form or as a given number of cents per hour, so that the differentials originally established were in considerable part retained.

Prior to the first World War and the period of Federal control of railroads, maintenance-of-way employees, including section men, were organized and were able to engage in collective bargaining on only a few railroads in the United States, and the extent and the effectiveness of this collective bargaining were very limited. Consequently, on most of the railroads throughout the United States, the wages of section men were fixed in keeping with the views of separate railway managements, the employees having no effective voice in the determination of what their wages should be.

The first general or national adjustment in the wages of section men was that covered by General Order No. 27, issued on May 25, 1918, by the Director General of Railroads. This general order provided for a sliding scale of increases. It was followed shortly thereafter by Supplement No. 8 to General Order No. 27, which fixed a minimum of 28 cents and a maximum of 40, reducing the spread or differential to 12 cents as between the highest and lowest rates. This failed, however, to produce uniform rates on either a regional or a national basis.

The United States Railroad Labor Board, which was established by the Transportation Act of 1920, issued a decision effective May 1, 1920, granting wage increases which ranged from 5 cents to 15 cents an hour for various classes of railroad employees, that of section men being 8.5 cents an hour. A later decision by the Board, effective July 1, 1921, cancelled the increase, reducing the wages of section men

by 8.5 cents per hour. A further reduction of 5 cents, ordered by the Board, became effective July 1, 1922. Later in the year an order, effective October 16, 1922, granted an increase of 2 cents per hour.

During the 9-year period from 1923 to 1931, there were no uniform wage changes affecting section men. Separate wage adjustments, made at different times and in different amounts on various railroads, tended to increase the differentials and widen the range of rates. Most of the wage changes were increases, but in small amounts, so that the general average of section men's wages rose only from 35 cents in 1923 to 36 cents in 1931.

Section men, as well as other railroad workers, were affected by the agreement of February 1, 1932, making a temporary deduction of 10 percent from wages on a national basis. This agreement, originally for 1 year, was extended, but on April 26, 1934, an agreement provided for the gradual termination of the wage deductions, the rates of 1931 being restored completely by April 1, 1935. A national agreement of 1937 provided for an increase of 5 cents per hour for section men, effective on August 1 of that year.

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 and the adoption of the recommendations of a Railroad Industry Committee created under that act raised some rates in the lower wage brackets. The full 40-cent rate, which the Fair Labor Standards Act permitted industry committees to establish, was approved, effective August 31, 1942, as the minimum for railroad employees.

Before the 40-cent minimum under the Fair Labor Standards Act became effective, agreements had been reached between the carriers and their employees for raising the minimum rate, with few exceptions, to 46 cents per hour. These agreements were adopted as a result of recommendations made by an Emergency Board. That Board, acting in a mediatory capacity, brought about an agreement on December 5, 1941, providing for the addition of 10 cents per hour to the basic rates of pay and the establishment of a minimum rate of 46 cents per hour, with certain exceptions, effective December 1, 1941.

On January 17, 1944, nonoperating railroad workers, including section men, were granted a sliding scale of wage increases ranging from 9 to 11 cents per hour. Those with rates of less than 47 cents received an increase of 11 cents per hour; those with rates of 47 cents but less than 57 cents received an increase of 10 cents per hour; those with rates of 57 cents and over received an increase of 9 cents per hour. This sliding scale eliminated or reduced some of the variations or differentials then in effect.

Thus, the establishment of minimum rates, in 1941 and under the Fair Labor Standards Act, and the adoption of the sliding-scale adjustments under the agreement of January 17, 1944, narrowed existing differentials. Most of the historical adjustments of section men's wages, however, were on a piecemeal basis by individual companies or were for blanket increases or decreases. These piecemeal adjustments and blanket changes account primarily for the wide range of section men's rates of pay.

The general policy of the Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees has favored the establishment of standard or uniform wages for section men on the ground that these workers are engaged in the same industry, using the same kinds of tools and devices, handling the same types of materials, and working under the same

general operating or traffic conditions. This policy of the Brotherhood was embodied in its constitution and bylaws as well as in negotiations with the carriers, but the union has been unable to eliminate the major differentials.

Changes in Average Earnings of Section Men

The year 1915 was the first year for which the Interstate Commerce Commission statistics make it possible to determine the average hourly earnings of section men. The figures published by the Interstate Commerce Commission at that time were for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1915. In that fiscal year, the railroads employed an average of 202,928 section men, whose earnings averaged 15 cents an hour. The employment and average hourly earnings of section men from 1915 through the first half of the year 1921, as reported by the Interstate Commerce Commission, are shown below.

	Average number	*Average hourly earnings*
1915 [1]	202, 928	$0. 150
1916 [1]	252, 026	. 155
1916	253, 577	. 164
1917	241, 435	. 192
1918	261, 658	. 228
1919	279, 801	. 383
1920	289, 058	. 451
1921 [2]	195, 173	. 453

[1] Year ended June 30.
[2] 6 months ended June 30.

A sharp reduction of wage rates occurred during the latter part of 1921. The average rate during the first 6 months of 1921 was 45 cents per hour, but during the last 6 months only 37 cents. The accompanying table, derived from Interstate Commerce Commission data, gives the number of section men, their average hourly earnings, and their average hours per month, from 1921 to 1944.

Average Number, Average Hourly Earnings, and Average Hours per Month of Railroad Section Men, 1921–44 [1]

Year	Number of employees (middle of month)	Average hourly earnings, based on—		Average hours per month	Year	Number of employees (middle of month)	Average hourly earnings, based on—		Average hours per month
		Straight time	Total time				Straight time	Total time	
1921 [2]	217, 741	$0. 37	$0. 37	202	1933	107, 846	$0. 32	$0. 32	163
1922	200, 993	. 34	. 35	205	1934	106, 245	. 33	. 33	175
1923	210, 913	. 35	. 35	210	1935	103, 744	. 35	. 36	179
1924	202, 967	. 35	. 36	204	1936	110, 891	. 36	. 36	191
1925	202, 920	. 35	. 36	205	1937	110, 770	. 37	. 38	193
1926	213, 389	. 35	. 36	207	1938	93, 209	. 40	. 41	189
1927	215, 932	. 35	. 36	205	1939	96, 821	. 41	. 41	191
1928	207, 174	. 35	. 36	204	1940	98, 431	. 41	. 42	194
1929	210, 084	. 36	. 36	204	1941	109, 338	. 45	. 46	201
1930	179, 691	. 36	. 36	195	1942	123, 675	. 52	. 53	209
1931	146, 120	. 36	. 36	171	1943	136, 197	. 60	. 64	222
1932	119, 141	. 32	. 33	159	1944 [3]	145, 019	. 62	. 65	

[1] Computed from Interstate Commerce Commission Wage Statistics, Statement M-300.
[2] Last 6 months.
[3] First 9 months.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to February 1945

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to February 1945.[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.).

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to February 1945

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
July	45.43	51.07	37.05	1.018	1.116	.862	.950	1.035	.815	.874	.973	.799
Oct	46.94	53.18	37.97	1.031	1.129	.878	.956	1.038	.829	.881	.969	.815
Dec	47.44	53.68	38.39	1.040	1.140	.883	.963	1.046	.832	.886	.975	.818
1945: Jan.[3]	47.52	53.58	38.63	1.046	1.145	.891	.971	1.055	.840	.894	.985	.824
Feb.[3]	47.43	53.39	38.71	1.043	1.138	.893	.968	1.047	.842	.891	.977	.827

[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.

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $47.43 in February 1945—104.5 percent above the average in January 1939, 78.0 percent above January 1941, and 22.0 percent above October 1942. Such factors as longer hours of work, merit increases for individual workers, premium pay for overtime worked, changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in earnings.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 104.3 cents in February 1945—65.0 percent above the average in January 1939, 52.7 percent above January 1941, and 16.8 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

[1] Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939–43, in 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, February 1944, table 6 (p. 1126), in this issue.

shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in February 1945 was 96.8 cents per hour; this was 55.4 percent higher than in January 1939, 45.8 percent above January 1941, and 15.4 percent above October 1942.

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 89.1 cents in February 1945, or 43.0 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 37.5 percent above January 1941, and 13.9 percent above October 1942. Between January and February 1945 the decrease in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to 0.3 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.

Earnings and Working Hours in the United Kingdom, July 1944[1]

WAGE earners in manufacturing and the principal nonmanufacturing industries averaged pay of 96s. 8d.[2] weekly and 1s. 11.9d. hourly and worked an average of 48.6 hours weekly in the United Kingdom during the first pay week in July 1944. These statistics are based on a survey made by the British Ministry of Labor and National Service, covering nearly 6 million workers. In order to eliminate any bias in the figures resulting from the sample used, general averages for all the industries combined and for each of the 16 broad groups covered were calculated on the basis of the estimated total numbers of wage earners employed in the individual industries in July 1944.

As compared with January 1944, the level of average earnings and hours showed relative stability in July 1944. Between October 1938 and July 1944, both weekly and hourly earnings advanced sharply, those of females nearly doubling, as shown in table 1. Weekly hours of work were lengthened, especially those of adult males.

[1] Information from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), February 1945. For comparable data, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1944 (p. 153) and November 1944 (p. 1061).

[2] Average exchange rate of pound (20 shillings) in July 1944 = $4.035.

TABLE 1.—*Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours in Manufacturing and Principal Nonmanufacturing[1] Industries, United Kingdom, 1938 and 1944*

Age and sex group	October 1938	January 1944	July [2] 1944
Average weekly earnings: [3]	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
All workers [4]	53 3	95 7	96 8
Men (aged 21 years and over) [5]	69 0	123 8	124 4
Youths and boys	26 1	46 10	47 4
Women (aged 18 years and over) [4]	32 6	63 9	64 3
Girls	18 6	34 3	34 11
Average hourly earnings: [3]			
All workers	1 1.7	1 11.3	1 11.9
Men (aged 21 years and over)	1 5.4	2 4.5	2 5.1
Youths and boys	0 6.8	0 11.9	1 0.2
Women (aged 18 years and over)	0 9.0	1 4.9	1 5.3
Girls	0 5.0	0 9.2	0 9.5
Average weekly hours: [3]	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*
All workers	46.5	49.2	48.6
Men (aged 21 years and over)	47.7	52.0	51.2
Youths and boys	46.2	47.1	46.7
Women (aged 18 years and over)	43.5	45.2	44.6
Girls	44.6	44.6	44.2

[1] Coal mining, railway service, merchant shipping, and agriculture are not covered.
[2] Based on the first pay week in July.
[3] For methods used in calculating averages for both wages and hours, see Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), February 1945.
[4] Part-time women workers are included in the calculation, two such workers representing one full-time worker. The women working part time are those who were employed for not over 30 hours weekly and who entered the employment of the firms concerned after July 1941.
[5] 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 33s. 4d. in the first pay week of July 1944, and the hours worked averaged 17.

For July 1944, earnings and hours are given, by industry, within the major industry groups, in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours in Manufacturing and Principal Nonmanufacturing[1] Industries, United Kingdom, July 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	96 8	124 4	47 4	64 3	34 11
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	93 5	99 1	53 9	(6)	(6)
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mine and quarry products	101 11	112 7	52 9	61 9	34 6
Brick, pottery, and glass	80 7	107 11	44 2	50 8	30 9
Chemical, paint, oil, etc	93 8	120 5	44 5	64 11	32 11
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	110 3	139 1	50 11	71 0	39 5
Textiles	67 10	101 10	44 4	55 7	37 4
Leather, fur, etc	78 10	104 10	42 9	52 11	32 1
Clothing	58 10	105 3	41 4	53 4	31 10
Food, drink, and tobacco	76 8	106 6	42 3	53 11	32 2
Woodworking	83 0	107 4	38 11	58 11	34 6
Paper, printing, stationery, etc	85 7	120 8	34 9	53 9	29 4
Building contracting, etc	99 1	107 11	43 0	61 11	(6)
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	88 11	126 6	48 8	62 5	36 6
Transport, storage, etc. (excluding railways)	104 3	114 3	48 8	79 1	(6)
Public utility services	85 0	94 6	38 9	50 2	29 5
Government industrial establishments	114 8	138 7	51 4	85 2	43 2
Average hourly earnings: [5]					
All groups	1 11.9	2 5.1	1 0.2	1 5.3	0 9.5
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	1 11.5	2 .8	1 1.9	(6)	(c)
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mine and quarry products	2 .4	2 2.4	1 1.5	1 4.5	0 9.5
Brick, pottery, and glass	1 8.4	2 1.9	0 11.7	1 1.8	0 8.3
Chemical, paint, oil, etc	1 11.0	2 3.6	0 11.6	1 5.6	0 9.9
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	2 2.9	2 8.5	1 1.1	1 6.9	0 10.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours in Manufacturing and Principal Nonmanufacturing [1] Industries, United Kingdom, July 1944 [2]*—Con.

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 hourly earnings—Continued.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Textiles	1 5.1	2 0	0 11.3	1 2.6	0 9.8
Leather, fur, etc	1 8.3	2 1.7	0 11.3	1 2.7	0 8.7
Clothing	1 4.1	2 3.0	0 10.9	1 2.8	0 8.8
Food, drink, and tobacco	1 7.2	2 0.9	0 11.1	1 2.5	0 8.8
Woodworking	1 9.2	2 2.2	0 10.3	1 4.6	0 9.6
Paper, printing, stationery, etc	1 10.1	2 5.8	0 9.2	1 2.7	0 8.0
Building contracting, etc	1 11.1	2 0.9	0 10.8	1 5.1	[5]
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	1 10.4	2 5.6	1 .5	1 4.9	0 10.0
Transport, storage, etc. (excluding railways)	2 .5	2 2.2	1 0	1 8.8	[5]
Public utility services	1 8.9	1 10.4	0 10.0	1 2.9	0 8.2
Government industrial establishments	2 3.4	2 7.0	1 .7	1 10.7	0 11.9
Average weekly hours: [5]	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*	*hours*
All groups	48.6	51.2	46.7	44.6	44.2
Iron, stone, etc., mining and quarrying	47.7	47.9	46.4	[5]	[5]
Treatment of nonmetalliferous mine and quarry products	50.1	51.1	46.8	44.9	43.4
Brick, pottery, and glass	47.4	49.9	45.2	43.9	44.4
Chemical, paint, oil, etc	48.9	52.4	46.0	44.3	43.7
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	49.1	51.3	46.7	45.1	44.3
Textiles	47.5	51.0	47.2	45.7	45.5
Leather, fur, etc	46.6	48.9	45.2	43.3	44.3
Clothing	43.9	46.8	45.3	43.1	43.5
Food, drink, and tobacco	48.0	51.3	45.5	44.6	44.1
Woodworking	46.9	49.2	45.3	42.5	43.1
Paper, printing, stationery, etc	46.4	48.6	45.3	43.9	44.0
Building contracting, etc	51.4	52.1	47.9	43.4	[5]
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	47.7	51.2	46.9	44.4	43.7
Transport, storage, etc. (excluding railways)	51.0	52.3	48.5	45.7	[5]
Public utility services	48.7	50.6	46.5	40.5	42.9
Government industrial establishments	50.2	53.6	48.4	45.1	43.4

[1] Coal mining, railway service, merchant shipping, and agriculture are not covered.

[2] Based on the first pay week in July.

[3] Part-time women workers are included in the calculation, two such workers representing one full-time worker. The women working part time 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 33s. 4d. in the first pay week of July 1944, and the hours worked averaged 17.

[5] For methods used in calculating averages for both wages and hours, see Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), February 1945.

[6] The numbers reported were insufficient to provide a satisfactory basis for general averages.

Puerto Rican Wage Orders Under Fair Labor Standards Act[1]

MINIMUM prevailing wage rates established for workers in eight industries in Puerto Rico, effective in April and May 1945, are shown in the accompanying table. These rates were fixed by the Administrator of the Fair Labor Standards Act under the powers conferred upon him by the terms of the legislation. The wage rates are applicable to employees engaged in commerce or in the production of goods for commerce[2] in the respective industries in Puerto Rico.

Wage Orders Under Fair Labor Standards Act, for Puerto Rican Workers, April and May 1945

Industry	Definition	Effective date of order	Minimum hourly wage rate
			Cents
Banking, insurance, and finance.	Business, whether or not for profit, carried on by any banking, insurance, or other financial institution or enterprise.	May 7, 1945	40
Cement	Manufacture of cement	do	40
Hairnet	Manufacture of hairnets from any material, except human hair.	do	27½
Leaf tobacco	Processing of leaf tobacco, including (but not by way of limitation) the grading, fermenting, stemming, packing, storing, drying, and handling of tobacco prior to use in the manufacture of cigars or other finished tobacco products.	Apr. 1, 1945	27
Manufactured coconut	Manufacture of desiccated or prepared coconut	May 7, 1945	28
Paper-box manufacturing	Manufacture of corrugated, folding, and set-up paper boxes.	do	40
Rum and industrial alcohol	Manufacture, including all productive operations, of rum and industrial alcohol, such as ethyl alcohol, butyl alcohol, and acetone; anti-freeze; and any related byproduct.	do	40
Shipping	Transportation of passengers and cargo by water and all activities in connection therewith, including, but without limitation, the operations of common, contract or private carriers; stevedoring (including stevedoring by independent contractors); and storage and lighterage operations.	do	40

[1] Data are from Federal Register, March 7 and 8, 1945, and U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division, Press release No. A-14 and D-91, D-92, D-93, D-94, and D-98, 1945.

[2] In the light of Federal appellate court decisions, the Administrator has expressed the opinion that the coverage of the act is not limited to employees engaged in the production of goods for shipment across State lines. The decisions indicate that goods are produced "for commerce," even though they do not subsequently leave the State, if they are produced in order to supply the needs of interstate commerce, or to serve as an essential part of commerce, or to aid or facilitate the carrying on of interstate commerce by essential instrumentalities or facilities of commerce such as interstate railroads, highways, telegraph or telephone systems, pipe lines, airports, harbors, and the like.

Wage Increases in France After Liberation[1]

A PROVISIONAL increase in minimum wages up to a maximum of 50 percent was granted in the Paris region by a decree of September 14, 1944. The action was taken in accordance with the ordinance of August 24, 1944, as modified by the ordinance of September 14, 1944, empowering the Minister of Labor and Social Security or his regional representatives throughout France to raise wages within 2 months after liberation. Increases in family allowances were also granted (by an ordinance of October 17, 1944). Further wage action by the Government was indicated in a circular issued on November 22, 1944, (by the Minister of Labor and Social Security, to subordinate officials) calling for a comprehensive survey, by the sample method, of minimum-wage standards and actual wage levels before and after the application of these laws.

Wage Increase in Paris Region

All persons engaged in industrial, commercial, and other pursuits (with the exception of agriculture, mining, and public services operated on a concession basis) in the Departments of Seine, Seine-et-Oise, and Seine-et-Marne were affected by the application of the decree to the Paris area. For purposes of the decree the region was divided into three zones. Workers in the first zone, which comprised the Seine Department and a part of the Seine-et-Oise Department, received an hourly increase of 5 francs; in the second zone, including most of the Seine-et-Oise Department and a part of the Seine-et-Marne Department, workers received an hourly increase of 4.40 francs; and in the third zone, consisting of all other localities in the area, the hourly increase was 4 francs. The resulting wage could not exceed 30 francs an hour or 6,000 francs per month. The earnings of young workers and apprentices were fixed at a percentage of the wages of adult workers, as follows: 50 percent for workers aged 14 to 15 years, 60 percent for workers aged 15 to 16 years, and 80 percent for workers aged 16 to 18 years. Piece-work and home-work rates were altered to maintain the relationship with factory and time rates. Handicapped persons whose wages were lower than the average of the industry or of the occupation involved were granted an increase based on the increases granted to young workers whose wages most closely approximated those of the handicapped. By special legislative provisions the wage increase of September 14 was applied to persons employed in organizations having special legal status (*organismes à statut légal spécial*) on November 8, 1944; to persons paid on a tip or percentage basis on November 21, 1944; and to persons paid on a commission basis on December 4, 1944. Smaller increases than those authorized in the Paris region were being applied in other sections of the country. All increases under the decree of September 14 were retroactive to September 1, 1944.

[1] Data are from France, Journal Officiel, August 30 and September 16, 1944, Textes Officiels du Ministère du Travail, November 13 (No. 6), November 27 (No. 8), December 4 (No. 9), and December 11 (No. 10), 1944; and report by Ivan B. White, second secretary, United States Embassy, Paris, February 19, 1945 (Report No. 32).

Basic Ordinance for Provisional Increases

...wage measures were taken under the enabling ordinance issued ... Provisional Government in Algiers on August 24. This basic ...nce confirmed various wage enactments of the Vichy Govern- ...and authorized the Commissioner of Social Affairs (later the ...ter of Labor and Social Security) and the regional commissioners ...raise provisionally the minimum and maximum wage rates of industrial and commercial workers, artisans, and persons engaged in the liberal professions, public and ministerial offices, syndicates, societies, and associations of any nature. Railway and merchant-marine personnel were excluded. The provisions of the ordinance were to be equitably applied to all occupational categories within a period of 2 months after liberation, following consultation with employers' and workers' organizations and with the regional representatives of the commissioners of social affairs, production, supply, and finance. In each establishment, the average wage rate for any skill group could not be increased beyond the existing legal minimum wage rate for that skill by more than 20 percent. Increases in the cost of living and conditions of supply were to be considered in fixing wage increases. Penalties for infractions of the provisions were provided.

National Wage Survey

With a view to further wage adjustments, the Ministry of Labor, ...n November 22, 1944, issued a circular to all regional Directors of ...abor and divisional inspectors requesting the submission of data on ...e levels of departmental and local wages. Five sets of statistics were ...uired, covering (1) legal minimum wages as of September 1, 1939, ... legal minimum wages as of September 1, 1944, previous to the ...plication of the increases provided by the ordinance of August 24, ...44, (3) legal minimum wages as of September 1, 1944, after the appli- ...tion of the increases already cited, (4) actual wages previous to the ...pplication of the August ordinance, and (5) actual wages after the ...pplication of that ordinance. The wages of four classes of workers ...nd four classes of employees were to be included in the survey of legal minimum wages. In the survey of actual wages all important indus- ...tries and occupational categories were to be represented. Industrial establishments were to be divided into five groups according to the number of workers employed, and, by the sampling method to be used, not more than five establishments of each group were to be covered in any one industry. Employers were asked to submit this information within 15 days of receipt of the request.

Increase in Family Allowances

An ordinance of October 17, 1944, supplemented the general wage increase provided by the ordinance of August 24, 1944, with an increase in family allowances, maternity benefits, and single wage or salary allowances, effective for 6 months beginning September 1, 1944. The increase in family allowances was to amount to 80 percent of existing allowances for families of two or three children and 50 percent for larger families. For the other allowances the increase was fixed at 50 percent. The basic wage rates to which the increases were to be added were those established by the Vichy decree of February 16, 1944.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Cost of Living in Large Cities, March 1945

RETAIL prices for the goods and services important in the city family's budget declined slightly (0.1 percent) on the average between mid-February and mid-March. Lower food prices, caused chiefly by the large seasonal decrease in egg prices, more than offset advances for clothing, housefurnishings, and some of the services. The Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index for March 15, 1945, is 126.8 percent of the 1935–39 average, and is 2.4 percent above the level of March 1944.

The average cost for all foods other than eggs rose 0.1 percent; including eggs, average food costs declined 0.4 percent during the month. All of the major groups except eggs were higher in price or remained unchanged. Meats rose 0.1 percent on the average, principally because of increases in prices of lamb and chicken. The scarcity of meats in retail stores, however, was more acute than in preceding months; over 40 percent of the stores surveyed had no beef and n[ot] than 60 percent no pork or veal, when Bureau's field agents vis[ited] stores to collect March prices.

The average cost for fresh fruits and vegetables rose 0.4 perc[ent] during the month, with seasonally higher prices for apples, orang[es] sweetpotatoes, and lettuce. White-potato prices advanced, with t[he] appearance of new potatoes in some cities and as ceilings on t[he] southern Florida crop were adjusted upward late in February to refle[ct] the historic differential on potatoes from that section.

Clothing prices moved upward 0.3 percent on the average, reflectin[g] the continuing shortages of low-cost apparel. Stocks of wool clothi[ng] in retail stores in March were reported to the Bureau's agents to [be] at the lowest level since the beginning of the war, as the major portio[n] of wool yarns was earmarked for military orders. An informal policy o[f] limiting sales of scarce items of clothing has been instituted by man[y] retail stores. Some price decreases were reported for the limited quantities of cotton clothing produced under WPB–OPA programs. Of the goods produced under this program, men's percale dress shirts were lower in price in practically all of the cities surveyed; men's shorts and women's percale housedresses were lower in a few cities.

Housefurnishings costs advanced 0.3 percent between February 15 and March 15. Because of the scarcity of lower-priced coverings, prices of prewar-quality living-room suites and sofa beds, now being produced, were generally higher than when production was suspended in 1942. Shortages of lower-priced bedroom and dining-room furniture, dinnerware, wool rugs, sheets, and towels were reported.

Rents remained stable on the average, but the housing shortage continued to be acute in many cities.

Average fuel, electricity, and ice charges showed no change in the month ending March 15.

ost of miscellaneous goods and services increased 0.2 percent month. Costs of medical care rose in some cities as increases ere reported by doctors, dentists, optometrists, and hospitals. by t r pipe tobacco were higher, and lower-priced cigars became ordin unavailable.

men nection with the data shown in the following tables, it should Minis in mind that the Bureau of Labor Statistics index indicates to hanges in retail prices of selected goods, rents, and services bought by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. The items covered represented 70 percent of the expenditures of families who had incomes ranging from $1,250 to $2,000 in 1934–36. The index does not show the full wartime effect on the cost of living of such factors as lowered quality, disappearance of low-priced goods, and forced changes in housing and eating away from home. It does not measure changes in *total* "living costs"—that is, *in the total amount families spend for living.* Income taxes and bond subscriptions are not included.[1]

TABLE 1.—*Indexes and Percentage Changes in Cost of Living in Large Cities Combined, for Specified Periods, by Groups of Items* [1]

Group	March 1945	February 1945	March 1944	May 1943	May 1942	January 1941 [3]	August 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago	"Hold the line" order [2]	General Maximum Price Regulation	"Little Steel" decision	War in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)						
Items	126.8	[4] 126.9	123.8	125.1	116.0	100.8	98.6
Food [5]	135.9	136.5	134.1	143.0	121.6	97.6	93.5
Clothing [6]	143.7	143.3	136.7	127.9	126.2	101.2	100.3
Rent [7]	108.3	----------	108.1	108.0	109.9	105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity and ice [8]	110.0	110.0	109.9	107.6	104.9	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	95.5	95.5	96.0	96.1	96.6	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	124.1	124.1	123.5	118.7	112.9	104.0	96.3
Housefurnishings [6]	144.5	[4] 144.0	129.0	125.1	122.2	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous [6]	123.6	[4] 123.4	119.1	115.3	110.9	101.8	100.4
	Percent of change to March 1945						
Items	----------	−0.1	+2.4	+1.4	+9.3	+25.8	+28.6
Food	----------	−.4	+1.3	−5.0	+11.8	+39.2	+45.3
Clothing	----------	+.3	+5.1	+12.4	+13.9	+42.0	+43.3
Rent	----------	----------	+.2	+.3	−1.5	+3.1	+3.8
Fuel, electricity and ice	----------	0	+.1	+2.2	+4.9	+9.1	+12.8
Gas and electricity	----------	0	−.5	−.6	−1.1	−2.1	−3.5
Other fuels and ice	----------	0	+.5	+4.5	+9.9	+19.3	+28.9
Housefurnishings	----------	+.3	+12.0	+15.5	+18.2	+44.2	+43.6
Miscellaneous	----------	+.2	+3.8	+7.2	+11.5	+21.4	+23.1

[1] Indexes are based on time-to-time changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not include income taxes or war-bond subscriptions. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than another. Data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941. (See footnote 2.)

[2] The President's "hold the line" order was issued April 8, 1943. The peak of the rise which led to this order was reached in May, which is, therefore, used for this comparison.

[3] Indexes have been estimated for January 1, the date used in the "Little Steel" decision of the National War Labor Board, by assuming an even rate of change from December 15, 1940, to the next pricing date.

[4] Revised.

[5] Food prices are collected monthly in 56 cities on the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.

[6] Prices of clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services are obtained in 34 large cities in March, June, September, and December. In intervening months, prices are collected in 21 of the 34 cities for a shorter list of goods and services.

[7] Rents are surveyed semiannually in most of the 34 cities (in March and September or in June and December). In computing the all-items indexes for individual cities and the rent index for the average of large cities, rental costs are assumed to remain stable in cities not surveyed during the current quarter.

[8] Prices for fuel, electricity, and ice are collected monthly in 34 large cities.

[1] For a description of the methods used in computing the index, see Description of the Cost of Living Index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. An appraisal of the factors enumerated above was given in the report of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living, November 17, 1944.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change*[1] *in Cost of Living for Specified Periods, by Cities*[2]

City	Percent of changes March 1945 from—					
	February 1945	March 1944	May 1943	May 1942	January 1941[3]	August 1939
	Month ago	Year ago	"Hold the line" order	Gen. Max. Price Reg.	"Little Steel" decision	War in Europe
Average	−0.1	+2.4	+1.4	+9.3	+25.8	+28.6
Atlanta, Ga		+4.1	+3.0	+12.2	+29.0	+31.3
Baltimore, Md	−0.2	+3.1	+1.2	+9.8	+28.9	+31.5
Birmingham, Ala	−.2	+2.7	+3.6	+9.8	+28.2	+32.3
Boston, Mass	−.3	+2.0	+.5	+8.4	+24.0	+26.6
Buffalo, N. Y	−.3	+1.9	−1.2	+5.6	+24.8	+29.1
Chicago, Ill	+.2	+2.9	+1.2	+8.2	+24.5	+27.7
Cincinnati, Ohio	−.2	+2.7	+2.2	+9.1	+27.0	+30.0
Cleveland, Ohio	0	+1.5	+1.3	+9.2	+27.2	+29.7
Denver, Colo	+.1	+2.5	+1.3	+9.0	+26.0	+27.8
Detroit, Mich	−.2	+2.2	0	+7.2	+26.0	+29.2
Houston, Tex	0	+1.8	+.3	+7.4	+22.4	+23.9
Indianapolis, Ind		+2.5	+1.4	+7.2	+25.0	+30.1
Jacksonville, Fla		+3.5	+2.8	+12.1	+31.1	+35.6
Kansas City, Mo	0	+2.5	+2.1	+9.6	+27.1	+26.9
Los Angeles, Calif	+.4	+2.4	+2.7	+9.4	+26.0	+28.6
Manchester, N. H		+2.1	+.6	+8.9	+28.6	+31.8
Memphis, Tenn		+2.3	+1.7	+10.9	+30.1	+32.7
Milwaukee, Wis		+2.1	+.2	+8.5	+25.2	+28.0
Minneapolis, Minn	−.1	+1.5	+1.1	+6.2	+20.9	+23.5
Mobile, Ala		+1.6	+.5	+8.2	+27.9	+30.2
New Orleans, La		+2.0	+1.2	+11.2	+29.2	+31.8
New York, N. Y	−.2	+1.9	+2.3	+12.2	+25.8	+28.4
Norfolk, Va		+.9	−.5	+9.6	+30.4	+34.2
Philadelphia, Pa	−.4	+2.7	+1.0	+9.9	+27.0	+28.8
Pittsburgh, Pa	−.3	+2.7	+2.2	+10.2	+26.1	+29.7
Portland, Maine		+2.0	+.9	+8.3	+27.3	+29.1
Portland, Oreg		+2.9	+1.7	+9.4	+30.6	+33.1
Richmond, Va		+2.4	+.7	+8.1	+24.6	+26.6
St. Louis, Mo	−.2	+2.0	+.7	+8.0	+23.7	+27.3
San Francisco, Calif	+.3	+3.3	+2.7	+11.9	+29.3	+32.5
Savannah, Ga	+.1	+2.6	+2.6	+11.9	+33.4	+36.3
Scranton, Pa		+2.8	−.7	+9.5	+25.3	+29.5
Seattle, Wash	+.5	+2.5	+1.5	+8.4	+28.7	+31.0
Washington, D. C	−.1	+2.9	+1.9	+9.9	+26.1	+27.8

[1] Percentages are based on time-to-time changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not include income taxes or war-bond subscriptions. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than another. Data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941.

[2] For explanation of methods, see footnotes 3 to 8, table 1. [3] See footnote 3, table 1.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change*[1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities, by Groups of Items,*[2] *February–March 1945*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnish-ings	Miscel-laneous
Average	−0.1	−0.4	+0.3	0	+0.3	+0.2
Atlanta, Ga		−.7		0		
Baltimore, Md	−.2	−.8	+.2	+.2	+.6	+.5
Birmingham, Ala	−.2	−.6	+.4	0	0	+.1
Boston, Mass	−.3	−1.1	+.4	0	+2.7	+.1
Buffalo, N. Y	−.3	−.8	+.1	+.1	+.4	0
Chicago, Ill	+.2	+.4	+.9	0	[3]−.4	+.2
Cincinnati, Ohio	−.2	−.4	+.2	0	+.1	+.2
Cleveland, Ohio	0	−.4	+.6	+.1	+.2	+.1
Denver, Colo	+.1	0	+.2	−.1	+1.2	+.1
Detroit, Mich	−.2	−.2	−.9	+.3	+1.0	0
Houston, Tex	0	−.4	+.2	0	+2.7	+.1
Indianapolis, Ind		−.5		0		
Jacksonville, Fla		−1.4		−.1		
Kansas City, Mo	0	−.2	+.2	0	+.4	+.3
Los Angeles, Calif	+.4	+.6	+.1	0	0	+.3
Manchester, N. H		−.6		0		
Memphis, Tenn		−.7		0		
Milwaukee, Wis		0		0		
Minneapolis, Minn	−.1	−.3	0	0	+.1	0
Mobile, Ala		+.1		0		

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change*[1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities by Groups of Items*,[2] *February–March 1945*—Continued

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
New Orleans, La		+0.7		0		
New York, N. Y	−0.2	−.7	+0.5	−.2	[3]−2.0	0
Norfolk, Va		−1.8		0		
Philadelphia, Pa	−.4	−1.2	+.1	+.1	+.9	0
Pittsburgh, Pa	−.3	−1.3	+.4	0	+1.7	+.3
Portland, Maine		−.8		0		
Portland, Oreg		−.4		0		
Richmond, Va		−1.1		0		
St. Louis, Mo	−.2	−.7	+.1	0	+.2	+.3
San Francisco, Calif	+.3	+.6	+.2	0	[3]−.1	+.2
Savannah, Ga	+.1	−.1	+.1	0	+3.7	+.1
Scranton, Pa		−.7		0		
Seattle, Wash	+.5	+.6	+1.0	0	+1.3	+.2
Washington, D. C	−.1	−.4	+.1	+.1	+.1	+.1

[1] Percentages are based on time-to-time changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not include income taxes or war-bond subscriptions. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than another. Data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941.

[2] For explanation of methods, see footnotes 3 to 8, table 1.

[3] Revised, as result of downward adjustment for some housefurnishings of prewar quality, based on additional information obtained after reappearance of these goods in retail markets in 1944.

TABLE 4.—*Percent of Change*[1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities, December 1944–March 1945, by Groups of Items*[2]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average	−0.2	−1.1	+0.6	0	+0.5	+1.0	+0.4
Atlanta, Ga	0	−1.4	+.7	[3] 0	+1.6	+5.1	+.7
Baltimore, Md	+.5	+.1	+.8	[3]+.1	+.4	+.7	+1.5
Birmingham, Ala	−.5	−1.8	+.9	[3]−.2	+.3	[4]−.5	+.1
Boston, Mass	−.5	−1.6	+.6	[5]	+.4	+2.5	+.3
Buffalo, N. Y	+.1	+.8	+.1	[5]	+.3	[4]−2.9	−.4
Chicago, Ill	−.2	−1.1	+1.3	[5]	0	[4]−2.4	+.7
Cincinnati, Ohio	−.1	−.4	+1.0	0	0	[4]−2.8	+.6
Cleveland, Ohio	+.5	−.7	+1.0	[5]	+8.1	+1.4	+.2
Denver, Colo	−.1	−.7	+.8	[5]	−.1	+4.4	+.1
Detroit, Mich	−.2	−1.0	−.8	[5]	+1.1	+6.8	+.1
Houston, Tex	+.1	−.8	+.3	[3]−.2	0	+8.6	+.1
Indianapolis, Ind	−.4	−1.3	+.5	[5]	0	+.4	0
Jacksonville, Fla	−.6	−2.7	+.3	[5]	−.3	[4]−3.7	+2.5
Kansas City, Mo	+.2	−.5	+1.4	[5]	0	+.9	+.9
Los Angeles, Calif	+.1	−.8	+.6	[5]	0	+3.8	+.8
Manchester, N. H	−.3	−.7	+.1	[3]−.2	+.1	[4]−.1	+.1
Memphis, Tenn	−.3	−.8	+.5	[3]−.3	+.1	[4]−.6	+.3
Milwaukee, Wis	−.1	−1.0	+1.3	[3]+.5	0	[4]−.1	+.3
Minneapolis, Minn	−.1	−.8	+1.5	[3]−.2	−.5	+2.2	+.2
Mobile, Ala	−.4	−.5	+.3	[5]	−.2	[4]−5.5	+.1
New Orleans, La	+.3	+.5	+.1	[5]	−4.2	[6]	+1.1
New York, N. Y	−.6	−1.7	+.6	[5]	+.1	[4]−1.6	+.1
Norfolk, Va	−.3	−1.3	+.2	[5]	0	[4]−2.1	+1.3
Philadelphia, Pa	+.1	−.5	+.6	[3]+.1	+1.2	+2.1	+.2
Pittsburgh, Pa	−.3	−1.7	+1.0	[5]	0	+4.2	+.3
Portland, Maine	−.2	−1.3	+1.8	[3]−.1	−.1	+2.3	+.2
Portland, Oreg	−.1	−1.6	+.2	[5]	0	+5.1	+1.3
Richmond, Va	−.2	−2.6	+1.5	[3]+.1	0	+1.3	+2.3
St. Louis, Mo	−.3	−1.0	−.1	[3] 0	+.1	[4]−.9	+.5
San Francisco, Calif	−.8	−1.9	+.5	[3] 0	0	[4]−6.0	+.2
Savannah, Ga	+.5	+.1	+.6	[5]	+1.0	+7.4	+.5
Scranton, Pa	−.6	−.9	+.3	[5]	−.1	[4]−2.4	−.2
Seattle, Wash	+.2	−.6	+1.6	[3]−.2	+.4	+1.0	+.8
Washington, D. C	+.2	−.2	+.5	[5]	+.8	+.6	+.3

[1] Percentages are based on time-to-time changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not include income taxes or war-bond subscriptions. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than another. Data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941.

[2] For explanation of methods, see footnotes 3 to 8, table 1.

[3] Change from September 1944.

[4] Revised, as a result of downward adjustment for some housefurnishings of prewar quality, based on additional information obtained after reappearance of these goods in retail markets in 1944.

[5] Rents not surveyed in March.

[6] Not available—insufficient data.

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TABLE 5.—*Indexes* [1] *of Cost of Living in Large Cities, January,*[2] *February,*[2] *and March 1945, by Groups of Items* [3]

City	Indexes (1935–39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average, large cities:							
January	127.1	137.3	143.0	----	109.7	143.6	123.3
February	126.9	136.5	143.3	----	110.0	144.0	123.4
March	126.8	135.9	143.7	108.3	110.0	144.5	123.6
Atlanta, Ga.:							
January	----	139.7	----	----	115.9	----	----
February	----	137.8	----	----	115.9	----	----
March	128.7	136.9	140.7	106.7	115.9	140.5	131.3
Baltimore, Md.:							
January	129.8	145.2	147.2	----	108.7	148.4	121.8
February	130.0	145.2	147.4	----	109.1	148.5	122.7
March	129.8	144.1	147.7	106.5	109.3	149.4	123.3
Birmingham, Ala.:							
January	131.3	142.8	140.9	----	104.7	140.8	125.1
February	130.5	140.6	141.1	----	104.8	[4] 139.9	125.1
March	130.3	139.8	141.6	122.3	104.8	139.9	125.2
Boston, Mass.:							
January	123.6	132.8	140.0	----	120.2	139.5	117.5
February	123.3	132.1	140.2	----	120.7	139.3	117.6
March	122.9	130.6	140.7	----	120.7	143.0	117.7
Buffalo, N. Y.:							
January	127.4	135.5	140.3	----	106.9	142.9	125.7
February	127.6	136.3	140.8	----	107.1	[4] 138.3	125.7
March	127.2	135.2	141.0	----	107.2	138.8	125.7
Chicago, Ill.:							
January	126.0	135.3	137.6	----	105.2	141.9	121.8
February	125.7	134.5	137.8	----	105.2	[4] 138.6	122.0
March	126.0	135.0	139.0	----	105.2	[4] 138.0	122.2
Cincinnati, Ohio:							
January	127.0	135.5	144.0	----	106.2	146.1	125.0
February	126.7	134.6	145.3	----	106.2	[4] 141.5	125.0
March	126.5	134.1	145.6	105.6	106.2	141.7	125.2
Cleveland, Ohio:							
January	129.8	140.8	144.0	----	112.2	141.9	122.5
February	129.7	140.1	144.3	----	112.4	143.6	122.5
March	129.7	139.6	145.1	----	112.5	143.9	122.6
Denver, Colo.:							
January	126.2	137.8	134.9	----	104.2	152.4	122.1
February	125.9	136.9	135.4	----	104.2	153.4	122.1
March	126.0	136.9	135.7	----	104.1	155.3	122.2
Detroit, Mich.:							
January	127.5	132.4	141.1	----	112.4	146.7	129.5
February	127.5	131.7	141.1	----	112.8	154.7	129.5
March	127.3	131.4	139.8	----	113.1	156.3	129.5
Houston, Tex.:							
January	125.2	136.5	138.7	----	91.1	139.2	123.2
February	124.8	135.4	138.8	----	91.1	140.0	123.2
March	124.8	134.8	139.1	109.4	91.1	143.8	123.3
Indianapolis, Ind.:							
January	----	134.0	----	----	112.2	----	----
February	----	132.7	----	----	112.2	----	----
March	127.5	132.1	137.5	----	112.2	150.1	126.7
Jacksonville, Fla.:							
January	----	146.3	----	----	114.1	----	----
February	----	144.9	----	----	114.0	----	----
March	133.6	142.8	141.4	----	113.9	[4] 147.7	137.2
Kansas City, Mo.:							
January	125.1	131.6	142.8	----	110.2	130.4	125.4
February	125.1	130.6	143.9	----	110.2	130.7	126.0
March	125.1	130.3	144.2	----	110.2	131.2	126.4
Los Angeles, Calif.:							
January	129.2	143.4	140.6	----	92.5	139.6	125.8
February	128.7	141.8	140.6	----	92.5	143.2	125.9
March	129.2	142.7	140.8	----	92.5	143.2	126.3
Manchester, N. H.:							
January	----	134.0	----	----	127.4	----	----
February	----	133.5	----	----	127.5	----	----
March	128.9	132.7	146.5	107.8	127.5	[4] 146.2	122.2
Memphis, Tenn.:							
January	----	147.1	----	----	105.4	----	----
February	----	145.4	----	----	105.5	----	----
March	129.8	144.4	147.7	115.7	105.5	[4] 138.1	120.0
Milwaukee, Wis.:							
January	----	135.2	----	----	109.5	----	----
February	----	133.8	----	----	109.5	----	----
March	124.2	133.8	135.7	108.8	109.5	[4] 142.5	119.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes* [1] *of Cost of Living in Large Cities, January,*[2] *February,*[2] *and March 1945, by Groups of Items* [3]—Continued

City	Indexes (1935–39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Minneapolis, Minn.:							
January	123.3	130.7	138.1	----	102.6	135.9	122.5
February	123.2	129.7	140.1	----	102.6	138.6	122.6
March	123.1	129.3	140.1	110.2	102.6	138.7	122.6
Mobile, Ala.:							
January	----	143.8	----	----	102.7	----	----
February	----	143.8	----	----	102.7	----	----
March	128.4	143.9	138.2	----	102.7	[4] 136.9	119.8
New Orleans, La.:							
January	----	150.6	----	----	100.0	----	----
February	----	150.0	----	----	100.0	----	----
March	131.4	151.0	138.7	----	100.0	([5])	120.0
New York, N. Y.:							
January	127.9	138.7	148.7	----	114.0	136.5	125.8
February	127.4	137.3	148.8	----	114.3	136.9	125.8
March	127.1	136.4	149.5	----	114.1	[4] 134.2	125.8
Norfolk, Va.:							
January	----	145.0	----	----	119.7	----	----
February	----	144.0	----	----	119.7	----	----
March	131.2	141.4	141.4	----	119.7	[4] 142.5	131.2
Philadelphia, Pa.:							
January	126.0	135.1	144.1	----	109.3	141.5	120.7
February	126.5	135.9	144.7	----	110.4	142.9	120.7
March	126.0	134.3	144.9	106.9	110.5	144.2	120.7
Pittsburgh, Pa.:							
January	128.1	136.4	164.9	----	112.1	139.8	119.6
February	128.0	135.6	165.6	----	112.0	143.1	119.6
March	127.6	133.8	166.3	----	112.0	145.5	119.9
Portland, Maine:							
January	----	132.4	----	----	119.2	----	----
February	----	132.5	----	----	119.2	----	----
March	125.4	131.4	145.2	106.6	119.2	141.1	122.6
Portland, Oreg.:							
January	----	147.0	----	----	116.6	----	----
February	----	146.4	----	----	116.6	----	----
March	133.2	145.8	142.1	----	116.6	145.1	128.7
Richmond, Va.:							
January	----	136.5	----	----	108.6	----	----
February	----	135.0	----	----	108.6	----	----
March	124.1	133.5	144.5	104.0	108.6	142.7	118.9
St. Louis, Mo.:							
January	125.5	140.0	139.5	----	107.2	126.4	119.4
February	125.1	139.1	139.5	----	107.3	[4] 124.9	119.5
March	124.9	138.1	139.6	106.1	107.3	125.1	119.9
San Francisco, Calif.:							
January	132.0	146.9	141.8	----	92.6	139.3	131.3
February	131.2	145.3	141.8	----	92.6	[4] 130.6	131.3
March	131.6	146.2	142.1	106.3	92.6	130.5	131.5
Savannah, Ga.:							
January	134.9	150.7	143.4	----	113.0	145.9	129.5
February	135.1	150.9	143.7	----	113.0	146.8	129.9
March	135.3	150.7	143.8	----	113.0	152.3	130.0
Scranton, Pa.:							
January	----	137.2	----	----	111.0	----	----
February	----	136.9	----	----	111.0	----	----
March	124.3	135.9	146.8	----	111.0	[4] 140.6	115.3
Seattle, Wash.:							
January	131.2	143.4	141.8	----	103.7	141.2	131.8
February	130.8	142.2	142.3	----	103.9	[4] 140.6	132.0
March	131.4	143.0	143.7	111.1	103.9	142.4	132.3
Washington, D. C.:							
January	126.1	138.0	150.2	----	109.0	139.9	126.8
February	126.1	137.4	150.4	----	109.6	140.4	127.1
March	126.0	136.8	150.6	----	109.7	140.6	127.2

[1] Indexes are based on time-to-time changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not include income taxes or war-bond subscriptions. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than another. Data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941.

[2] Some indexes for January and February revised.

[3] For explanation of methods, see footnotes 3 to 8, table 1.

[4] Revised, as a result of downward adjustment for some housefurnishings of prewar quality, based on additional information obtained after reappearance of these goods in retail markets in 1944.

[5] Not available—insufficient data.

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, 1935 to March 1945*

Year and month	Indexes [1] (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.8
1944	125.5	136.1	138.8	108.2	109.8	136.4	121.3
Jan. 15	124.2	136.1	134.7	108.1	109.5	128.3	118.4
Feb. 15	123.8	134.5	135.2	108.1	110.3	128.7	118.7
Mar. 15	123.8	134.1	136.7	108.1	109.9	129.0	119.1
Apr. 15	124.6	134.6	137.1	108.1	109.9	132.9	120.9
May 15	125.1	135.5	137.4	108.1	109.8	135.0	121.3
June 15	125.4	135.7	138.0	108.1	109.6	138.4	121.7
July 15	126.1	137.4	138.3	108.2	109.7	138.7	122.0
Aug. 15	126.4	137.7	139.4	108.2	109.8	139.3	122.3
Sept. 15	126.5	137.0	141.4	108.2	109.8	140.7	122.4
Oct. 15	126.5	136.4	141.9	[2]	109.8	141.4	122.8
Nov. 15	126.6	136.5	142.1	[2]	109.9	141.7	122.9
Dec. 15	127.0	137.4	142.8	108.3	109.4	143.0	123.1
1945:							
Jan. 15	127.1	137.3	143.0	[2]	109.7	143.6	123.3
Feb. 15	126.9	136.5	143.3	[2]	110.0	144.0	123.4
Mar. 15	126.8	135.9	143.7	108.3	110.0	144.5	123.6

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.
[2] Rents not surveyed in this month.

Retail Prices of Food in February 1945

PERCENTAGE changes in retail food costs on February 13, 1945, as compared with costs in specified previous months are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods*

Commodity group	Jan. 16, 1945, to Feb. 13, 1945	Feb. 15, 1944, to Feb. 13, 1945	May 18, 1943, to Feb. 13, 1945	Jan. 14, 1941, to Feb. 13, 1945	Aug. 15, 1939, to Feb. 13, 1945
All foods	−0.6	+1.5	−4.5	+39.6	+46.0
Cereals and bakery products	0	+.6	+1.0	+14.5	+16.4
Meats	+.2	+.2	−5.5	+29.3	+36.6
Beef and veal	0	−.8	−9.8	+8.2	+18.9
Pork	0	0	−10.4	+30.7	+27.8
Lamb	0	+1.2	−4.3	+37.3	+37.1
Chickens	+.5	+2.0	+3.6	+57.3	+61.6
Fish, fresh and canned	+2.4	−.9	+7.3	+81.3	+116.1
Dairy products	0	0	−2.5	+27.0	+43.4
Eggs	−9.7	+7.4	+7.7	+57.2	+68.8
Fruits and vegetables	0	+3.6	−11.5	+81.0	+82.8
Fresh	−.1	+4.2	−13.6	+90.4	+91.6
Canned	+.1	0	−1.0	+42.0	+41.7
Dried	+.1	+2.4	+5.7	+67.7	+84.9
Beverages	+.1	+.2	0	+37.0	+31.2
Fats and oils	+.1	−.2	−2.2	+53.8	+46.2
Sugar and sweets	0	−.2	−1.0	+32.5	+32.1

[1] The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

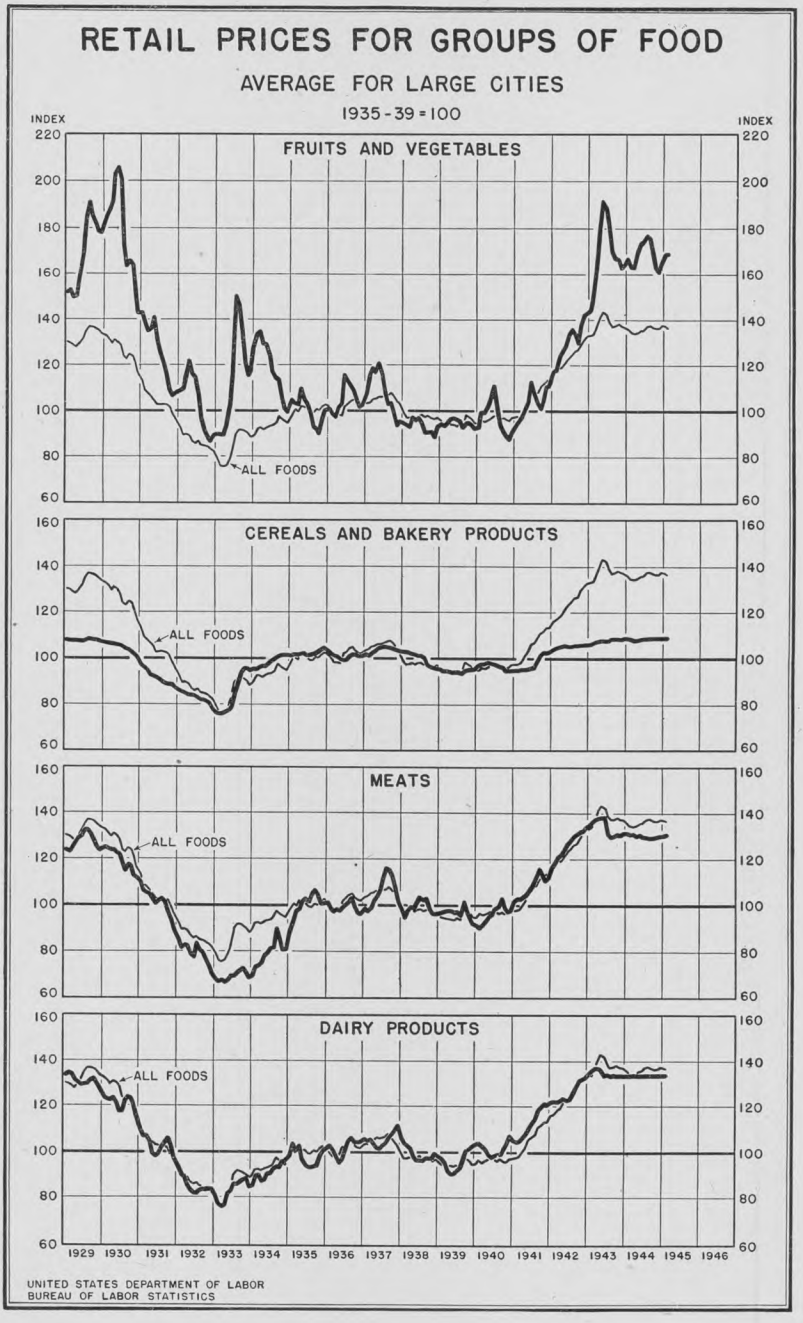


TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56[1] Large Cities Combined,[2] by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1945		1944	1943	1941	1939
	Feb. 13	Jan. 16	Feb. 15	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	136.5	137.3	134.5	143.0	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	108.7	108.7	108.1	107.6	94.9	93.4
Meats	130.7	130.5	130.2	138.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	118.4	118.4	119.3	131.2	109.4	99.6
Pork	112.5	112.5	112.5	125.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	135.5	135.5	133.9	141.6	98.7	98.8
Chickens	152.9	152.2	149.9	147.6	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	215.2	210.1	217.1	200.5	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	133.5	133.5	133.5	136.9	105.1	93.1
Eggs	153.2	169.6	142.5	142.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	168.9	168.9	163.0	190.8	93.3	92.4
Fresh	177.8	177.9	170.7	205.8	93.4	92.8
Canned	129.8	129.7	129.8	131.1	91.4	91.6
Dried	167.0	166.9	163.1	158.0	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.5	124.4	124.3	124.5	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	123.5	123.4	123.8	126.3	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.3	126.3	126.6	127.6	95.3	95.6

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.
[2] Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,[1] February 1945 Compared With Earlier Months*

Article		1945		1944	1941	1939
		Feb. 13	Jan. 16	Feb. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	64.2	64.2	65.1	41.4	35.8
Macaroni	pound	15.7	15.7	15.5	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal [2]	28 ounces	23.1	23.2	23.3	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes	8 ounces	6.5	6.5	6.5	7.1	7.0
Corn meal	pound	6.4	6.4	5.9	4.2	4.0
Rice [2]	do	12.8	12.8	12.8	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats	do	10.2	10.2	8.7	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake [2]	20 ounces	12.3	12.3	11.9	(3)	(3)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	8.8	8.8	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.6	9.6	9.7	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye	do	9.9	9.9	10.0	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies	do	28.8	28.8	28.9	25.1	(4)
Soda crackers	do	18.9	18.9	18.8	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	40.5	40.5	42.0	38.6	36.4
Rib roast	do	32.8	32.8	33.9	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast	do	28.0	28.1	29.3	25.2	22.5
Stew meat [2]	do	29.9	30.1	31.8	(3)	(3)
Liver	do	37.3	37.3	37.5	(4)	(4)
Hamburger	do	27.5	27.4	28.6	(3)	(3)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	44.2	44.5	46.0	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [2]	do	35.3	35.5	35.6	(3)	(3)
Pork:						
Chops	do	37.2	37.3	37.4	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced	do	41.0	40.9	41.2	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced	do	49.9	50.0	51.5	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole	do	35.2	35.3	35.5	26.2	27.4
Salt pork	do	22.3	22.2	22.5	16.7	15.4
Liver [2]	do	22.0	22.1	22.2	(3)	(3)
Sausage [2]	do	38.3	38.2	38.5	(3)	(3)
Bologna, big [2]	do	33.9	33.6	34.5	(3)	(3)
Lamb:						
Leg	do	39.8	39.9	40.1	27.8	27.6
Rib chops	do	45.2	45.4	45.3	35.0	36.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *February 1945 Compared With Earlier Months*—Continued

Article		1945		1944	1941	1939
		Feb. 13	Jan. 16	Feb. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Meats—Continued.		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Poultry: Roasting chickens	pound	45.6	45.5	44.7	31.1	30.9
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	23.5	23.0	24.0	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [2]	do	40.5	40.3	42.6	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:						
Butter	pound	49.9	49.8	50.2	38.0	30.7
Cheese	do	35.5	35.7	35.9	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	15.6	15.6	15.6	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	10.0	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh	dozen	54.4	60.2	50.3	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits:						
Apples	pound	11.2	11.1	11.2	5.2	4.4
Bananas	do	10.3	10.4	11.5	6.6	6.1
Oranges	dozen	43.9	44.5	37.6	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [2]	each	8.8	8.8	6.9	(6)	(6)
Fresh vegetables:						
Beans, green	pound	20.5	23.2	23.4	14.0	7.2
Cabbage	do	6.4	7.4	5.8	3.4	3.9
Carrots	bunch	8.7	8.7	9.0	6.0	4.6
Lettuce	head	10.6	11.8	11.3	8.4	8.4
Onions	pound	5.9	5.3	8.1	3.6	3.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	75.3	72.0	64.9	29.2	34.4
Spinach	pound	12.7	11.6	10.5	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes	do	9.0	8.8	10.8	5.0	5.5
Beets [2]	bunch	9.3	9.7	9.0	(3)	(3)
Canned fruits:						
Peaches	No. 2½ can	27.7	27.6	27.2	16.5	17.1
Pineapple	do	26.4	26.6	27.6	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	14.4	14.3	14.4	(6)	(6)
Canned vegetables:						
Beans, green	do	13.1	13.1	13.8	10.0	10.0
Corn	do	14.8	14.7	14.5	10.7	10.4
Peas	do	13.3	13.3	13.9	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes	do	12.0	12.0	12.1	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [2]	11-oz. can	13.4	13.4	13.3	(3)	(3)
Dried fruits: Prunes	pound	17.2	17.2	16.6	9.6	8.8
Dried vegetables:						
Navy beans	do	11.2	11.2	10.6	6.5	5.8
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle [2]	ounce	3.7	3.7	3.7	(3)	(3)
Beverages:						
Coffee	pound	30.3	30.3	29.8	20.7	22.3
Tea	¼ pound	24.1	24.1	23.6	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [2]	½ pound	10.3	10.3	9.9	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:						
Lard	pound	18.8	18.8	18.8	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard—						
In cartons	do	20.1	20.1	20.1	11.3	11.7
In other containers	do	24.7	24.7	24.8	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing	pint	25.6	25.7	25.5	20.1	(4)
Oleomargarine	pound	24.1	24.1	24.1	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter	do	28.3	28.4	28.8	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [2]	pint	30.7	30.7	30.6	(4)	(4)
Sugar and sweets:						
Sugar	pound	6.7	6.7	6.8	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup	24 ounces	15.8	15.8	15.8	13.6	13.7
Molasses [2]	18 ounces	15.8	15.8	16.0	13.4	13.6
Apple butter [2]	16 ounces	13.5	13.5	12.9	(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.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Costs of all Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

City	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Feb. 13	Jan. 16	Feb. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	136.5	137.3	134.5	97.8	93.5
New England:					
Boston	132.1	132.8	128.7	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport	133.5	134.2	133.4	96.5	93.2
Fall River	131.9	132.5	129.6	97.5	95.4
Manchester	133.5	134.0	131.4	96.6	94.9
New Haven	134.7	135.1	134.7	95.7	93.7
Portland, Maine	132.5	132.4	132.0	95.3	95.9
Providence	134.5	135.6	131.2	96.3	93.7
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	136.3	135.5	134.0	100.2	94.5
Newark	138.3	140.0	138.0	98.8	95.6
New York	137.3	138.7	135.4	99.5	95.8
Philadelphia	135.9	135.1	133.3	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh	135.6	136.4	133.1	98.0	92.5
Rochester	134.0	134.3	129.8	99.9	92.3
Scranton	136.9	137.2	133.1	97.5	92.1
East North Central:					
Chicago	134.5	135.3	131.3	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati	134.6	135.5	133.7	96.5	90.4
Cleveland	140.1	140.8	140.6	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	128.8	129.5	127.3	93.4	88.1
Detroit	131.7	132.4	130.9	97.0	90.6
Indianapolis	132.7	134.0	131.9	98.2	90.7
Milwaukee	133.8	135.2	131.0	95.9	91.1
Peoria	140.1	140.0	137.6	99.0	93.4
Springfield, Ill	141.8	142.7	139.2	96.2	94.1
West North Central:					
Cedar Rapids [2]	139.4	140.7	137.2	95.9	----
Kansas City	130.6	131.6	129.8	92.4	91.5
Minneapolis	129.7	130.7	128.9	99.0	95.0
Omaha	129.7	130.6	131.9	97.9	92.3
St. Louis	139.1	140.0	136.0	99.2	93.8
St. Paul	128.8	129.6	127.6	98.6	94.3
Wichita [2]	147.2	148.0	146.3	97.2	----
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta	137.8	139.7	135.9	94.3	92.5
Baltimore	145.2	145.2	140.2	97.9	94.7
Charleston, S. C	133.9	134.3	133.2	95.9	95.1
Jacksonville	144.9	146.3	143.3	98.8	95.8
Norfolk [3]	144.0	145.0	145.0	95.8	93.6
Richmond	135.0	136.5	133.0	93.7	92.2
Savannah	150.9	150.7	149.5	100.5	96.7
Washington, D. C	137.4	138.0	133.6	97.7	94.1
Winston-Salem [2]	138.1	139.7	134.7	93.7	----
East South Central:					
Birmingham	140.6	142.8	137.8	96.0	90.7
Jackson [2]	150.2	152.9	144.0	105.3	----
Knoxville [2]	158.3	160.2	152.7	97.1	----
Louisville	130.1	131.9	131.2	95.5	92.1
Memphis	145.4	147.1	142.6	94.2	89.7
Mobile	143.8	143.8	144.2	97.9	95.5
West South Central:					
Dallas	132.9	133.7	133.8	92.6	91.7
Houston	135.4	136.5	135.9	102.6	97.8
Little Rock	136.5	137.3	135.3	95.6	94.0
New Orleans	150.0	150.6	148.4	101.9	97.6
Mountain:					
Butte	133.2	134.8	133.4	98.7	94.1
Denver	136.9	137.8	135.7	94.8	92.7
Salt Lake City	139.7	140.4	138.2	97.5	94.6
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	141.8	143.4	140.5	101.8	94.6
Portland, Oreg	146.4	147.0	142.8	101.7	96.1
San Francisco	145.3	146.9	141.6	99.6	93.8
Seattle	142.2	143.4	140.6	101.0	94.5

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), weighted to represent total purchases of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons, rather than place-to-place comparisons.

[2] June 1940=100.

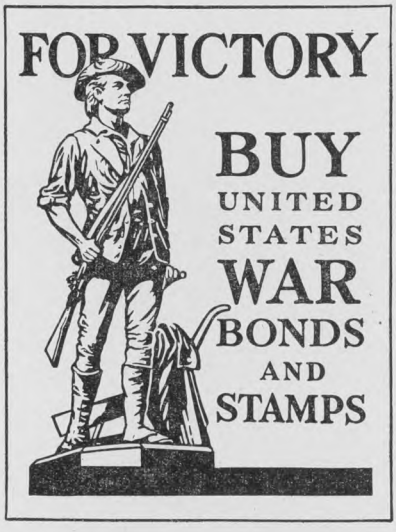
[3] Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *1913 to February 1945*

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1927	132.3	1941	105.5	*1944*	
1914	81.8	1928	130.8	1942	123.9		
1915	80.9	1929	132.5	1943	138.0	September	137.0
1916	90.8	1930	126.0	1944	136.1	October	136.4
1917	116.9	1931	103.9			November	136.5
1918	134.4	1932	86.5	*1944*		December	137.4
1919	149.8	1933	84.1				
				January	136.1	*1945*	
1920	168.8	1934	93.7	February	134.5		
1921	128.3	1935	100.4	March	134.1	January	137.3
1922	119.9	1936	101.3	April	134.6	February	136.5
1923	124.0	1937	105.3	May	135.5		
1924	122.8	1938	97.8	June	135.7		
1925	132.9	1939	95.2	July	137.4		
1926	137.4	1940	96.6	August	137.7		

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.



Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in March 1945

CONTINUED advances in prices for livestock and its products during March were in a large measure responsible for a further gain of 0.1 percent in average prices for commodities at the primary market[1] level. Average prices for the commodities included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics all-commodity index have been moving gradually upward since August 1944. The increase in the past 7 months has amounted to 1.3 percent. During March the all-commodity index rose to 105.3 percent of the 1926 level, the highest point reached since the inflationary period following World War I. In the past 12 months the all-commodity index advanced 1.4 percent and was more than 40 percent higher than in August 1939.

Average prices for 4 of the 10 major commodity groups advanced slightly during the month. Farm products and hides and leather products rose 0.2 percent as a result of higher markets for livestock and for sheepskins. Fuel and lighting materials and building materials advanced 0.1 percent because of higher sales realizations for gas and electricity and increased prices for brick and tile, cement, lime, and clay sewer pipe. Average prices for foods dropped 0.1 percent, led by a decrease of nearly 2 percent in the fresh fruit and vegetable markets. Meats, on the other hand, advanced over 1 percent. The indexes for textile products, metals and metal products, chemicals and allied products, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities remained unchanged at the February level.

Average prices for raw materials advanced 0.1 percent during the month, largely as a result of the increase in prices for agricultural commodities. Finished products prices also rose 0.1 percent in March, reflecting the increased prices for clay product building materials.

Led by an increase of 1.3 percent in the livestock markets, average prices for farm products rose 0.2 percent in March to the highest point reached since October 1920. Sheep advanced 3.5 percent; calves, 5.3 percent; steers, 4.0 percent; cows, 0.2 percent; and live poultry in both the New York and Chicago markets, about 1.5 percent. In addition, prices were higher for cotton, imported wool, apples, lemons, and sweetpotatoes. In the grain markets minor increases were reported for corn, rye, and wheat, while barley declined fractionally. Eggs declined seasonally and prices also were lower for oranges, onions, white potates in eastern markets, fresh milk at Chicago, and hay.

Seasonally lower prices for most fresh fruits and vegetables and for eggs brought average prices for foods down 0.1 percent during March.

[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.

Meats, on the contrary, rose more than 1 percent because of increased prices for pork and for dressed poultry. Average prices for cereal products advanced 0.2 percent, reflecting upward adjustments by OPA in ceiling prices.

A further gain of 3.6 percent in prices for sheepskins accounted for the increase of 0.2 percent in the index for hides and leather products. No changes were reported in prices for shoes or other leather products such as gloves, belting, and harness.

In the textile products group higher prices were reported for cotton rope when OPA granted an increase of 1 cent per pound in ceiling prices. Prices for other textile products were steady, and the index for the group remained unchanged at the February level.

Increased sales realizations for gas and electricity largely accounted for the increase of 0.1 percent in the fuel and lighting materials group index.

The increase of $1 per ton in basing point ceilings for pig iron, effective in mid-February, resulted in a further advance of 0.1 percent in the index for iron and steel products. The mercury market weakened and prices dropped more than 3 percent when supplies of Spanish metal became available in the United States. These changes did not affect the index for the metals and metal products group as a whole, and it remained at 104.2 percent of the 1926 average.

The movement in prices for building materials was mixed. Common building brick, clay sewer pipe, cement, sand, and lime were slightly higher in certain areas. Butyl acetate and turpentine, on the contrary, declined. Average prices for lumber fell 0.1 percent, with slightly lower prices reported for some grades of Western pine. The index for the group as a whole rose 0.1 percent in March over the February level.

In the chemical and allied products group, higher prices for bichromate of soda were offset by lower prices for ergot, with the result that the group index remained unchanged from the average for the preceding month.

The furniture and housefurnishings markets continued steady at prices which have prevailed since the first of the year.

Minor increases in prices for soap products were not large enough to affect the index for the miscellaneous commodities group.

Prices for most commodities have moved gradually upward during the past 12 months. Most of the increases have been the result of Government action. From March 1944 to March 1945, farm products prices advanced 2.9 percent; building materials, 2.5 percent; textile products, 1.9 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 1.2 percent; and hides and leather products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, and housefurnishing goods, less than 1 percent. During the year period, average prices for chemicals and allied products declined 0.1 percent, while average prices of foods in March 1945 were at the same level as in 1944. Outstanding among the increases were 10.4 percent for brick and tile, 8 percent for livestock and poultry, over 6 percent for cement, and about 5 percent for cotton goods and hides and skins. Prices for fruits and vegetables, on the contrary, were 6 percent lower in March 1945 than in March 1944, and minor decreases occurred in prices for rayon yarns, anthracite; and certain chemicals.

The general average of commodity prices at the primary market level was over 40 percent higher than before the war. The price rise was led by agricultural commodities, which were more than 108 percent higher than in August 1939. Grain prices advanced 152 percent; livestock and poultry, over 105 percent; and "other farm products," including important commodities such as cotton and wool and eggs and milk, increased more than 100 percent. Food prices were up nearly 56 percent, led by increases of 98 percent for fruits and vegetables, 63 percent for dairy products, 46 percent for meats, and 32 percent for cereal products. Cattle feed prices advanced 133 percent. The rise in most industrial commodities was less pronounced, although industrial fats and oils were 151 percent higher than in August 1939; cotton goods, 83 percent; and lumber, nearly 71 percent. The smallest group increase was recorded for metals and metal products, nearly 12 percent; as compared to about 15 percent for fuel and lighting materials, 22 percent for housefurnishing goods, 27 percent for hides and leather products, 28 percent for chemicals and allied products, 29 percent for miscellaneous commodities, almost 31 percent for building materials, 47 percent for textile products, nearly 56 percent for foods, and over 108 percent for farm products.

Percentage comparisons of the March 1945 level of wholesale prices with February 1945, March 1944, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers, are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, March 1945, Compared with February 1945, March 1944, and August 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	March 1945	February 1945	Percent of change	March 1944	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	105.3	105.2	+0.1	103.8	+1.4	75.0	+40.4
Farm products	127.2	127.0	+.2	123.6	+2.9	61.0	+108.5
Grains	129.8	129.8	0	129.5	+.2	51.5	+152.0
Livestock and poultry	135.6	133.8	+1.3	125.6	+8.0	66.0	+105.5
Other farm products	120.5	121.4	−.7	119.9	+.5	60.1	+100.5
Foods	104.6	104.7	−.1	104.6	0	67.2	+55.7
Dairy products	110.8	110.8	0	110.5	+.3	67.9	+63.2
Cereal products	95.1	94.9	+.2	95.1	0	71.9	+32.3
Fruits and vegetables	115.9	118.1	−1.9	123.3	−6.0	58.5	+98.1
Meats	107.7	106.5	+1.1	106.0	+1.6	73.7	+46.1
Other foods	94.7	95.1	−.4	92.7	+2.2	60.3	+57.0
Hides and leather products	117.8	117.6	+.2	116.9	+.8	92.7	+27.1
Shoes	126.3	126.3	0	126.3	0	100.8	+25.3
Hides and skins	116.4	115.4	+.9	111.2	+4.7	77.2	+50.8
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	99.7	99.7	0	97.8	+1.9	67.8	+47.1
Clothing	107.4	107.4	0	107.0	+.4	81.5	+31.8
Cotton goods	119.9	119.9	0	113.6	+5.5	65.5	+83.1
Hosiery and underwear	71.5	71.5	0	70.5	+1.4	61.5	+16.3
Rayon	30.2	30.2	0	30.3	−.3	28.5	+6.0
Silk	(1)	(1)	--------	(1)	--------	44.3	--------
Woolen and worsted goods	112.7	112.7	0	112.5	+.2	75.5	+49.3
Other textile products	100.9	100.9	0	100.5	+.4	63.7	+58.4
Fuel and lighting materials	83.4	83.3	+.1	83.0	+.5	72.6	+14.9
Anthracite	95.3	95.3	0	95.6	−.3	72.1	+32.2
Bituminous coal	120.6	120.5	+.1	120.1	+.4	96.0	+25.6
Coke	130.7	130.7	0	130.7	0	104.2	+25.4
Electricity	(1)	(1)	--------	59.0	--------	75.8	--------
Gas	(1)	76.9	--------	76.7	--------	86.7	--------
Petroleum and products	64.3	64.3	0	64.0	+.5	51.7	+24.4

[1] Data not available.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, March 1945, Compared with February 1945, March 1944 and August 1939*—Con.

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	March 1945	February 1945	Percent of change	March 1944	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
Metals and metal products	104.2	104.2	0	103.7	+0.5	93.2	+11.8
Agricultural implements	97.5	97.5	0	97.1	+.4	93.5	+4.3
Farm machinery	98.7	98.7	0	98.2	+.5	94.7	+4.2
Iron and steel	98.1	98.0	+.1	97.1	+1.0	95.1	+3.2
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.9	85.9	0	85.8	+.1	74.6	+15.1
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	91.8	+.7	79.3	+16.5
Building materials	117.1	117.0	+.1	114.2	+2.5	89.6	+30.7
Brick and tile	110.7	110.5	+.2	100.3	+10.4	90.5	+22.3
Cement	99.4	99.0	+.4	93.6	+6.2	91.3	+8.9
Lumber	153.8	153.9	−.1	150.7	+2.1	90.1	+70.7
Paint and paint materials	106.3	106.4	−.1	104.4	+1.8	82.1	+29.5
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	91.8	+.7	79.3	+16.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	103.8	103.6	+.2	102.8	+1.0	89.5	+16.0
Chemicals and allied products	94.9	94.9	0	95.0	−.1	74.2	+27.9
Chemicals	95.8	95.8	0	96.3	−.5	83.8	+14.3
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	106.8	106.9	−.1	106.4	+.4	77.1	+38.5
Fertilizer materials	81.9	81.9	0	81.4	+.6	65.5	+25.0
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.6	0	86.3	+.3	73.1	+18.5
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	0	102.0	0	40.6	+151.2
Housefurnishing goods	104.5	104.5	0	104.3	+.2	85.6	+22.1
Furnishings	107.5	107.5	0	107.2	+.3	90.0	+19.4
Furniture	101.5	101.5	0	101.4	+.1	81.1	+25.2
Miscellaneous	94.6	94.6	0	93.5	+1.2	73.3	+29.1
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	108.0	108.0	0	107.2	+.7	80.0	+35.0
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	98.9	98.9	0	96.7	+2.3	81.3	+21.6
Raw materials	115.7	115.6	+.1	113.4	+2.0	66.5	+74.0
Semimanufactured articles	95.0	95.0	0	93.7	+1.4	74.5	+27.5
Manufactured products	101.6	101.5	+.1	100.5	+1.1	79.1	+28.4
All commodities other than farm products	100.4	100.2	+.2	99.3	+1.1	77.9	+28.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	99.2	99.2	0	98.1	+1.1	80.1	+23.8

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to March 1945

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1944, and by months from March 1944 to March 1945, are shown in table 2.

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 and 11 of Wholesale Prices, July to December and Year 1943 (Bulletin No. 785).

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	84.4	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	95.5	102.4	89.7	98.8
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	94.9	102.7	92.2	103.1
1944	123.3	104.9	116.7	98.4	83.0	103.8	115.5	95.2	104.3	93.6	104.0
1944											
March	123.6	104.6	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	114.2	95.0	104.3	93.5	103.8
April	123.2	104.9	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	115.2	95.5	104.3	93.5	103.9
May	122.9	105.0	117.0	97.8	83.2	103.7	115.7	95.5	104.3	93.5	104.0
June	125.0	106.5	116.4	97.8	83.3	103.7	115.9	95.3	104.3	93.5	104.3
July	124.1	105.8	116.2	98.0	83.2	103.7	115.9	95.5	104.3	93.6	104.1
August	122.6	104.8	116.0	98.4	83.2	103.8	116.0	95.5	104.4	93.6	103.9
September	122.7	104.2	116.0	99.2	83.0	103.8	116.0	94.9	104.4	93.6	104.0
October	123.4	104.2	116.2	99.4	82.9	103.7	116.3	95.0	104.4	93.6	104.1
November	124.4	105.1	116.2	99.4	83.1	103.7	116.4	94.8	104.4	94.0	104.4
December	125.5	105.5	117.4	99.5	83.1	103.8	116.4	94.8	104.4	94.2	104.7
1945											
January	126.2	104.7	117.5	99.6	83.3	104.0	116.8	94.9	104.5	94.2	104.9
February	127.0	104.7	117.6	99.7	83.3	104.2	117.0	94.9	104.5	94.6	105.2
March	127.2	104.6	117.8	99.7	83.4	104.2	117.1	94.9	104.5	94.6	105.3

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
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
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1944					
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
October	113.2	94.8	101.0	99.8	98.7
November	113.8	94.8	101.1	99.9	98.8
December	114.6	94.8	101.1	100.0	98.9
1945					
January	115.1	94.9	101.3	100.1	99.1
February	115.6	95.0	101.5	100.2	99.2
March	115.7	95.0	101.6	100.4	99.2

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during February and March 1945 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, February and March 1945*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Mar. 31	Mar. 24	Mar. 17	Mar. 10	Mar. 3	Feb. 24	Feb. 17	Feb. 10	Feb. 3
All commodities	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.0	104.8	105.0	104.9	104.7
Farm products	127.3	127.0	127.4	127.1	127.2	126.4	127.2	126.8	125.7
Foods	104.8	104.5	104.6	104.5	104.5	104.1	104.8	104.9	104.3
Hides and leather products	118.3	118.2	118.2	118.1	118.1	118.0	118.0	118.0	117.9
Textile products	99.2	99.2	99.2	99.2	99.2	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.1
Fuel and lighting materials	83.9	83.9	83.9	83.8	83.8	83.8	83.8	84.0	84.0
Metals and metal products	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.2	104.2
Building materials	116.9	116.9	116.9	116.9	116.9	116.9	116.9	116.7	116.7
Chemicals and allied products	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9
Housefurnishing goods	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2	106.2
Miscellaneous	94.4	94.4	94.4	94.4	94.3	94.1	94.1	94.1	94.1
Raw materials	116.2	116.0	116.3	116.2	116.2	115.7	116.2	116.0	115.3
Semimanufactured articles	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.8	94.8	94.8	94.8
Manufactured products	101.9	101.8	101.8	101.8	101.6	101.6	101.6	101.6	101.6
All commodities other than farm product	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.3	99.3	99.3	99.3

Revision of Wholesale Price Indexes for Drugs and Chemicals

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics has revised its index numbers of wholesale prices for drugs and pharmaceuticals and for chemicals and allied products for the period from October 1941 to December 1944. By changing the method of computing the net tax applicable to undenatured ethyl alcohol as well as by sizably reducing the quantity weight for index calculations, the influence of tax changes for this commodity on the subgroup and group indexes has been reduced drastically. For December 1944 the Bureau's revised index number for drugs and pharmaceuticals is 106.9 (1926=100) compared with the previously published figure of 217.2. For chemicals and allied products, the revised figure is 94.8 instead of 104.8.

The price for nonbeverage undenatured ethyl alcohol now used for index computations is the fully tax-paid price less the "drawback" or rebate, which first became effective on November 1, 1942. This procedure has been adopted because the tax refund is now being paid on a very large and increasing proportion of nonbeverage undenatured ethyl alcohol. Also, the quantity weight for ethyl alcohol, used in computing the subgroup index for drugs and pharmaceuticals, is reduced to about one-fourth of its former amount and now represents

only that portion of the total which was consumed by the drug industry alone in 1929 and 1931, the years on which the weights for the wholesale price index are based. From October 1941, until the drawback became effective on November 1, 1942, the revisions in the indexes are due solely to the reduction in the quantity weight. From November 1942 through December 1944, the revisions result from reductions in both the quantity weight and the net tax.

The current revision, made on the basis of recently available tax data and after consultation with representatives of the industry, has been confined to adjustments in the prices and quantity weight for ethyl alcohol and their effect on the indexes for drugs and pharmaceuticals and chemicals and allied products. Since adjustments in the ethyl alcohol series would have changed the level of the comprehensive wholesale price index by a small fractional amount—0.2 percent at the maximum—and would not have changed the trend,[1] the revisions have not been incorporated into the Bureau's indexes of wholesale prices of all commodities, all commodities less farm products, all commodities less farm products and foods, and manufactured products.

Both the revised and previously published monthly index numbers for drugs and pharmaceuticals and for chemicals and allied products are shown in the accompanying table. A detailed explanation of the nature of the revision, the technical considerations involved, and tables showing the revised prices for ethyl alcohol and a comparison of the revised and previously published indexes by weeks and months from October 1941, are incorporated in a special report which is available upon request.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices of Drugs and Pharmaceuticals and of All Chemicals and Allied Products, Years 1941–44, Months October 1941–December 1944

[1926=100]

Year and month	Drugs and pharmaceuticals		All chemicals and allied products	
	Revised series	Former series	Revised series	Former series
1941	102.6	105.1	84.4	84.6
1942	116.0	133.8	95.5	97.1
1943	106.2	165.2	94.9	100.3
1944	108.8	205.4	95.2	102.0
1941: October	114.3	124.1	88.8	89.7
November	112.7	123.2	88.8	89.8
December	112.5	123.0	90.4	91.3
1942: January	114.9	126.3	94.9	96.0
February	115.1	126.5	95.9	97.0
March	115.1	126.5	96.1	97.1
April	115.5	126.7	96.1	97.1
May	119.7	129.1	96.5	97.3
June	119.8	129.1	96.4	97.2
July	119.8	129.1	95.8	96.7
August	119.5	129.0	95.4	96.2
September	119.4	128.9	95.3	96.2
October	119.2	128.8	95.3	96.2
November	106.0	165.4	94.1	99.5
December	106.0	165.4	94.1	99.5
1943: January	106.0	165.4	94.8	100.2
February	106.2	165.5	94.9	100.3
1943—Con.				
March	106.0	165.0	94.6	100.0
April	106.1	165.1	94.7	100.1
May	106.1	165.1	94.8	100.2
June	106.2	165.2	94.7	100.0
July	106.2	165.2	94.8	100.1
August	106.2	165.2	94.9	100.2
September	106.2	165.2	94.9	100.3
October	106.2	165.2	95.0	100.4
November	106.3	165.2	95.0	100.3
December	106.3	165.2	95.0	100.4
1944: January	106.3	165.2	95.0	100.4
February	106.4	165.2	95.0	100.4
March	106.4	165.2	95.0	100.4
April	112.0	220.1	95.5	105.4
May	112.0	220.1	95.5	105.4
June	112.0	220.1	95.3	105.2
July	112.0	220.1	95.5	105.3
August	112.0	220.1	95.5	105.3
September	106.9	217.2	94.9	104.9
October	106.9	217.2	95.0	105.0
November	106.9	217.2	94.8	104.8
December	106.9	217.2	94.8	104.8

[1] For many months the revision caused no difference at all in the published figure for the all-commodities index.

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, February 1945

FOR every 1,000 workers on factory pay rolls in February, 43 quit, 7 were discharged, 7 were laid off, and 3 left to enter the armed service. The accession rate, 49 per 1,000, was considerably below that of January 1945 and of February 1944.

While each February shows a definite decline in the total accession rate because of fewer hiring days in the month, the hiring rate reported for this particular month was the lowest since February 1941. All 20 major manufacturing groups showed a considerable decline in their accession rates between January and February. The food group reduced its hiring rate from 98 to 65 per 1,000 employees, reflecting seasonal declines in production in both the meat products and grain-mill products industries. In the automobile group, the accession rate dropped from 75 to 43 per 1,000, with separations outweighing accessions.

The lay-off rate for all manufacturing increased slightly over the month, from 6 to 7 per 1,000 workers. While the rate of lay-offs remained the same in the munitions group, that for the nonmunitions increased from 4 to 6 for each 1,000 employees. In some instances employers in nonessential industries were required to lay off workers in excess of employment ceilings set by the War Manpower Commission.* However, the food and tobacco groups were almost wholly responsible for the increased lay-offs. The lay-off rates of 14 and 12, respectively, were induced by seasonal declines in production.

The highest lay-off rate for any of the major groups, 16 per 1,000, was reported by the transportation-equipment group. In the shipbuilding industry, lay-offs increased from 20 in January to 28 in February. Reporting firms commented that labor forces were reduced because of cancellation or completion of contracts on new ship construction.

The total quit rate for February 1945 declined somewhat from the previous month, to the December 1944 level of 43 per 1,000. All but three major groups reported a downward trend. "Shifting to other industries," "returning to the farm," and "poor health" were frequently given as reasons for workers' voluntarily leaving their jobs in February.

With the exception of anthracite mining, total accessions in February were offset by total separations in all mining industries. A noticeable falling off in the rate of lay-offs and quits was found in the miscellaneous metal-mining industry, which includes aluminum-ore mining. Because of a current need for aluminum, there were fewer workers laid off in February and also fewer people who voluntarily left the aluminum-ore mining industry.

The total separation rate for women still exceeded that for men in manufacturing as a whole. Whereas separations other than quits were exactly the same for both men and women, the quit rate for women was about 45 percent higher than that for men. At the same time, men were being hired at a lower rate than women.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turnover and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation:												
1945	6.2	[2] 6.0										
1944	6.7	6.6	7.4	6.8	7.1	7.1	6.6	7.8	7.6	6.4	6.0	5.7
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:												
1945	4.6	[2] 4.3										
1944	4.6	4.6	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.4	5.0	6.2	6.1	5.0	4.6	4.3
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:												
1945	.7	[2] .7										
1944	.7	.6	.7	.6	.6	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
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]												
1945	.6	2.7										
1944	.8	.8	.9	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.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]												
1945	.3	2.3										
1944	.6	.6	.8	.7	.7	.5	.4	.4	.3	.3	.3	.3
1943	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1945	7.0	[2] 4.9										
1944	6.5	5.5	5.8	5.5	6.4	7.6	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.1	4.9
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, February 1945* [1] [2]

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.
Manufacturing												
Munitions [3]	5.4	5.6	3.6	3.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.3	4.6	6.5
Nonmunitions [3]	6.7	6.9	5.4	5.8	.4	.4	.6	.4	.3	.3	5.5	7.7
Ordnance	7.1	7.5	5.1	5.3	1.2	1.2	.5	.7	.3	.3	7.1	9.8
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	5.0	5.6	3.2	3.6	.7	.7	.8	1.0	.3	.3	5.1	7.6
Ammunition, except for small arms	7.7	8.2	5.8	6.1	1.3	1.4	.3	.4	.3	.3	7.8	11.2
Tanks	6.7	8.5	4.4	4.6	1.3	1.1	.7	2.5	.3	.3	7.1	8.2
Sighting and fire-control equipment	3.0	3.6	1.9	2.2	.3	.5	.6	.7	.2	.2	3.4	4.3
Iron and steel and their products	4.1	4.4	3.0	3.1	.5	.5	.3	.4	.3	.4	3.8	5.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	2.8	2.8	2.1	2.1	.3	.2	.1	.2	.3	.3	2.7	3.6
Gray-iron castings	6.9	7.2	5.4	5.4	.9	1.2	.3	.2	.3	.4	6.8	9.8
Malleable-iron castings	5.2	5.1	4.0	4.1	.6	.6	.1	.1	.5	.3	4.0	7.2
Steel castings	5.7	6.5	4.3	5.0	.8	.8	.2	.2	.4	.5	5.2	9.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *February 1945*[2]—Continued

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.
Manufacturing—Continued												
Iron and steel, etc.—Continued.												
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	4.3	5.1	3.1	3.7	0.4	1.0	0.5	(4)	0.3	0.4	4.1	7.8
Tin cans and other tinware	7.6	9.0	5.5	6.8	1.7	1.4	.2	0.4	.2	.4	10.5	12.7
Wire products	2.7	2.8	2.1	2.1	.3	.4	.1	(4)	.2	.3	2.1	4.7
Cutlery and edge tools	3.8	4.1	2.8	2.9	.8	1.0	.1	(4)	.1	.2	5.3	6.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.1	4.7	3.7	3.4	.6	.7	.4	.1	.4	.5	4.7	7.2
Hardware	4.0	4.7	3.3	3.6	.3	.5	.1	.3	.3	.3	4.2	4.9
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	6.7	9.6	4.3	4.8	1.6	1.9	.2	2.3	.6	.6	5.8	10.8
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	3.8	4.6	2.9	3.7	.5	.3	(4)	.1	.4	.5	5.0	4.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	6.7	8.4	5.5	6.7	.8	.6	.1	.5	.3	.6	6.2	8.1
Fabricated structural-metal products	6.6	8.5	3.6	4.5	.7	.8	1.9	2.8	.4	.4	5.0	7.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	3.8	5.1	2.8	3.4	.4	.7	.4	.7	.2	.3	3.0	3.9
Forgings, iron and steel	3.7	3.9	2.8	2.9	.4	.4	.2	.3	.3	.3	3.6	4.6
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	5.0	4.7	2.9	3.0	.7	.6	1.2	.9	.2	.2	3.3	5.5
Electrical machinery	4.0	4.4	3.0	3.2	.5	.6	.3	.3	.2	.3	3.9	4.9
Electrical equipment for industrial use	3.3	3.5	2.5	2.8	.4	.3	.2	.1	.2	.3	3.3	4.0
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs [5]	4.5	4.5	3.3	3.2	.6	.6	.4	.4	.2	.3	4.2	5.2
Communication equipment, except radios [5]	3.7	4.2	2.9	3.1	.4	.6	.2	.2	.2	.3	4.1	5.1
Machinery, except electrical	3.9	3.9	2.8	2.7	.5	.6	.3	.3	.3	.3	3.7	4.8
Engines and turbines	4.4	4.5	3.0	2.9	.7	.7	.3	.5	.4	.4	3.4	5.2
Agricultural machinery and tractors	4.4	3.9	3.5	3.0	.4	.4	.1	.1	.4	.4	3.7	4.5
Machine tools	2.9	2.7	1.8	1.8	.5	.5	.3	.2	.3	.2	2.8	4.5
Machine-tool accessories	4.4	4.0	2.5	2.4	.7	.6	.9	.7	.3	.3	3.6	3.8
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.1	3.3	2.1	2.2	.6	.6	.1	.1	.3	.4	3.4	5.3
General industrial machinery, except pumps	4.1	4.0	2.9	2.8	.6	.6	.3	.2	.3	.4	4.2	5.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	3.9	3.8	2.8	2.8	.7	.7	.1	(4)	.3	.3	3.7	5.0
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.2	7.3	4.1	4.3	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.3	.3	.3	4.5	7.1
Aircraft	4.8	4.9	3.5	3.7	.6	.6	.4	.3	.3	.3	4.3	6.8
Aircraft parts	4.4	4.9	2.4	2.7	.6	.7	1.2	1.3	.2	.2	3.9	5.6
Shipbuilding and repairs	10.8	10.4	5.6	5.7	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.0	.4	.4	5.1	8.3
Automobiles	4.8	5.7	3.2	3.9	.9	1.3	.4	.3	.3	.2	4.3	7.5
Motor vehicles, bodies, trailers	4.2	5.2	2.7	3.2	.7	1.3	.5	.4	.3	.3	4.0	7.0
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	5.8	6.2	4.1	4.4	1.0	1.3	.4	.3	.3	.2	3.2	7.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	5.0	5.5	3.8	3.9	.6	.6	.3	.6	.3	.4	6.3	7.7
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	3.0	3.4	2.1	2.7	.2	.2	.3	.1	.4	.4	2.3	3.6
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	7.3	7.9	5.9	5.9	.6	.5	.4	.9	.4	.6	8.0	8.1
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	3.7	4.3	2.9	3.4	.5	.4	.1	.2	.2	.3	4.7	7.3
Aluminum and magnesium products	5.4	6.0	4.1	3.9	.6	.7	.3	.9	.4	.5	7.7	9.5
Lighting equipment	(6)	7.1	(6)	5.2	(6)	1.0	(6)	.3	(6)	.6	(6)	8.6
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	5.1	5.3	3.8	4.2	.6	.6	.4	.1	.3	.4	5.4	6.3
Lumber and timber basic products	8.3	9.3	6.8	7.3	.3	.4	.8	1.2	.4	.4	7.5	9.9
Sawmills	8.3	9.5	6.8	7.5	.3	.3	.8	1.3	.4	.4	7.7	9.4
Planing and plywood mills	5.8	7.3	4.5	5.4	.4	.5	.5	1.1	.4	.3	5.3	7.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	7.9	8.2	6.9	6.9	.5	.5	.2	.4	.3	.4	7.3	9.9
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.3	8.5	7.3	7.3	.5	.6	.2	.2	.3	.4	7.6	10.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	4.5	5.2	3.4	3.9	.3	.4	.3	.5	.5	.4	4.1	5.5
Glass and glass products	4.5	5.2	3.2	3.6	.4	.4	.4	.6	.5	.6	4.2	6.1
Cement	4.8	5.1	3.3	3.5	.3	.2	.9	1.1	.3	.3	3.0	3.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	5.1	6.5	3.9	5.0	.4	.6	.4	.5	.4	.5	4.5	6.9
Pottery and related products	5.2	5.9	4.4	4.6	.3	.4	(4)	.5	.5	.4	5.0	5.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,* [1] *February 1945* [2]—Continued

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Jan.
Manufacturing—Continued												
Textile-mill products	5.7	5.9	4.8	4.9	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	5.1	7.0
Cotton	6.8	7.2	5.9	6.1	.4	.5	.2	.3	.3	.3	6.3	8.5
Silk and rayon goods	5.9	6.0	4.8	4.9	.5	.6	.3	.1	.3	.4	5.3	6.7
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	3.1	3.5	2.4	2.6	.2	.3	.3	.4	.2	.2	2.7	4.0
Hosiery, full-fashioned	4.9	4.7	4.3	4.1	.2	.2	.1	.2	.3	.2	3.3	4.9
Hosiery, seamless	5.7	4.9	5.1	4.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	5.3	6.2
Knitted underwear	5.2	5.0	4.7	4.6	.3	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	4.7	6.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	3.8	4.0	2.8	3.0	.5	.5	.1	.1	.4	.4	3.4	4.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	5.1	5.3	4.5	4.8	.2	.2	.3	.2	.1	.1	4.7	6.1
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	3.4	4.0	3.2	3.7	.1	.1	.1	.1	(4)	.1	3.2	5.1
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	5.4	5.5	4.9	4.9	.2	.2	.2	.3	.1	.1	5.2	5.8
Leather and leather products	4.9	5.4	4.2	4.7	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2	.3	4.4	5.7
Leather	3.7	3.7	2.9	2.9	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	.3	3.2	4.5
Boots and shoes	5.2	5.7	4.5	5.0	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2	.3	4.6	6.0
Food and kindred products	10.2	9.8	7.8	8.3	.6	.6	1.4	.5	.4	.4	6.5	9.8
Meat products	11.7	10.6	8.5	8.7	.7	.7	1.9	.7	.6	.5	5.8	10.1
Grain-mill products	7.7	8.2	6.8	7.0	.5	.5	.2	.3	.2	.4	7.8	10.1
Tobacco manufactures	8.3	8.1	6.7	7.2	.3	.4	1.2	.3	.1	.2	6.6	8.3
Paper and allied products	5.0	6.6	3.9	5.5	.4	.5	.3	.2	.4	.4	4.7	7.6
Paper and pulp	4.2	6.1	3.2	5.1	.4	.3	.2	.2	.4	.5	4.0	7.1
Paper boxes	6.9	7.7	5.7	6.5	.7	.7	.2	.1	.3	.4	6.6	9.1
Chemicals and allied products	4.4	4.7	3.3	3.6	.6	.7	.2	.1	.3	.3	4.9	7.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors	3.3	3.6	2.5	2.7	.4	.5	.1	.1	.3	.3	2.6	3.7
Rayon and allied products	3.6	4.0	2.6	3.3	.2	.3	.4	.1	.4	.3	3.4	5.0
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	3.4	4.0	2.5	2.9	.5	.6	.1	.2	.3	.3	3.3	4.6
Explosives	5.7	6.0	4.3	4.6	.8	1.0	.1	(4)	.5	.4	6.2	10.3
Small-arms ammunition	5.1	5.1	3.8	3.9	.9	.9	.2	.1	.2	.2	7.2	12.7
Products of petroleum and coal	2.4	2.6	1.4	1.8	.4	.2	.2	.3	.4	.3	2.8	3.5
Petroleum refining	2.1	2.6	1.3	1.8	.3	.2	.2	.3	.3	.3	2.8	3.6
Rubber products	5.5	5.5	4.2	4.4	.6	.6	.4	.2	.3	.3	5.5	7.3
Rubber tires and inner tubes	5.3	5.2	4.0	4.0	.8	.7	.1	.2	.4	.3	5.7	7.6
Rubber footwear and related products	5.5	6.7	4.8	6.2	.4	.3	(4)	(4)	.3	.2	6.6	8.3
Miscellaneous rubber industries	5.7	5.8	4.2	4.7	.5	.5	.7	.3	.3	.3	5.1	6.8
Miscellaneous industries	4.4	3.9	3.0	2.8	.6	.5	.6	.3	.2	.3	4.0	5.1
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining	3.6	4.5	2.6	3.2	.3	.4	.2	.4	.5	.5	3.4	4.7
Iron ore	2.1	2.8	1.1	1.9	.1	.2	.4	.4	.5	.3	1.9	2.1
Copper ore	4.1	5.2	3.0	3.9	.4	.5	.2	.2	.5	.6	3.6	5.7
Lead and zinc ore	4.8	4.9	3.8	3.6	.3	.5	.2	.2	.5	.6	4.3	6.7
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum ore	4.2	7.2	2.7	4.1	.7	.9	.3	1.6	.5	.6	3.9	5.7
Coal mining:												
Anthracite	1.5	1.6	1.0	1.2	(4)	(4)	.3	.2	.2	.2	1.8	1.3
Bituminous coal	3.4	3.3	2.8	2.7	.2	.2	.1	.1	.3	.3	2.8	3.6
Public utilities:												
Telephone	2.5	3.0	2.2	2.6	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	3.0	3.2
Telegraph	3.3	3.3	2.9	3.0	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	2.4	2.9

[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-roll sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major products.

[2] Preliminary figures.

[3] The munitions division which replaces the Selected War Industries Group, includes the following major industry groups: ordnance; iron and steel; electrical machinery; machinery, except electrical; automobiles; transportation equipment, except automobiles; nonferrous metals; chemicals; products of petroleum and coal; rubber. The nonmunitions division includes lumber; furniture and finished lumber products; stone, clay, and glass; textile-mill products; apparel and finished textile products; leather; food and kindred products; tobacco; paper and pulp; miscellaneous industries. Comparable data for 1943 and 1944 will appear in a forthcoming issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[4] Less than 0.05.

[5] Revised monthly figures for 1944 for radios and communication equipment are available upon request.

[6] Data not available.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees)* [1] *for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, February 1945* [2]

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All manufacturing	5.4	7.1	3.8	5.5	4.4	5.9
Ordnance	6.1	8.5	4.1	6.7	6.3	8.4
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	4.3	7.8	2.4	6.2	4.6	6.9
Ammunition, except for small arms	7.1	8.8	4.9	7.0	7.1	8.7
Tanks	6.6	11.2	3.8	7.8	7.0	11.5
Sighting and fire-control equipment	1.8	5.1	1.2	3.0	2.3	5.3
Iron and steel and their products	4.0	6.7	2.8	5.2	3.7	6.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	2.8	5.5	1.9	4.4	2.7	5.6
Gray-iron castings	6.8	10.8	5.4	6.3	6.6	8.6
Malleable-iron castings	5.1	5.1	3.9	4.4	4.0	4.6
Steel castings	5.6	5.7	4.3	4.4	5.2	5.3
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	3.9	9.4	2.9	5.0	4.1	4.7
Firearms, 60 caliber and under	4.4	8.8	2.3	5.2	2.5	5.3
Electrical machinery	3.0	5.3	1.9	4.3	2.8	5.2
Electrical equipment for industrial use	2.2	5.1	1.5	4.3	2.1	5.3
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs [3]	3.2	5.4	1.9	4.3	3.1	5.1
Communication equipment, except radios [3]	3.1	4.2	2.1	3.7	3.0	5.3
Machinery, except electrical	3.4	5.7	2.3	4.4	3.3	5.2
Engines and turbines	3.7	6.2	2.5	4.4	2.7	5.2
Machine tools	2.6	5.0	1.5	3.6	2.5	4.5
Machine-tool accessories	3.9	5.8	2.1	3.9	3.2	5.1
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	2.7	5.3	1.8	3.7	3.2	4.2
General industrial machinery, except pumps	3.4	5.9	2.3	4.6	3.5	6.0
Pumps and pumping equipment	3.7	4.8	2.5	3.8	3.0	6.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.0	8.3	3.6	5.5	4.2	5.5
Aircraft	3.8	6.3	2.5	5.1	3.6	5.3
Aircraft parts	3.4	6.7	1.8	3.8	3.2	5.7
Shipbuilding and repairs	11.0	15.0	5.4	8.7	5.2	5.7
Nonferrous metals and their products	4.8	5.6	3.6	4.6	6.0	7.5
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	2.8	4.5	1.9	3.7	2.1	4.3
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	7.3	5.7	6.0	3.8	8.1	6.0
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	3.5	5.2	2.7	4.4	4.5	6.2
Aluminum and magnesium products	5.2	5.9	3.9	4.9	7.3	9.5
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	4.8	5.7	3.4	4.9	4.9	6.4
Chemicals and allied products	3.9	5.4	2.6	4.6	4.1	6.5
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	3.3	4.6	2.2	3.7	3.1	4.5
Explosives	5.3	6.9	3.7	5.9	5.2	8.5
Small-arms ammunition	4.8	5.6	3.0	4.7	6.5	8.0

[1] These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates and should not be used to estimate employment.

[2] These figures are based on a slightly smaller sample than that for all employees, inasmuch as some firms do not report separate data for women.

[3] Revised monthly figures for 1944 and January 1945 for radios and communication equipment are available on request.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, March 1945

BUILDING construction started in urban areas in March 1945 was nearly a third more than during the previous month. The value of Federal contracts awarded, over 31½ million dollars, was 11 percent above February and permit valuations for private work, nearly 72 million dollars, were 44 percent higher. New nonresidential building, almost two-thirds of which was Federally financed, made up 45 percent of the building construction begun in March. New residential construction financed almost entirely from private funds accounted for 26 percent of the total, and additions, alterations, and repairs constituted the remaining 29 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, March 1945*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	March 1945	Percent of change from—		March 1945 (in thousands of dollars)	Percent of change from—	
		February 1945	March 1944		February 1945	March 1944
All building construction	55,152	+55.8	+9.9	103,525	+31.9	+13.4
New residential	6,976	+27.6	−37.5	27,250	+33.4	−26.5
New nonresidential	8,505	+80.8	+56.6	46,511	+26.7	+55.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs	39,671	+57.2	+18.1	29,764	+39.3	+22.4

During March, work was begun on 8,039 new dwelling units, representing a gain of 30 percent over the number started in February and a decline of 35 percent from the March 1944 total. Nearly all of the construction in this category, 7,967 units, was privately financed.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, March 1945*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	March 1945	Percent of change from—		March 1945 (in thousands of dollars)	Percent of change from—	
		February 1945	March 1944		February 1945	March 1944
All dwellings	8,039	+30.3	−35.0	26,350	+31.7	−28.1
Privately financed	7,967	+49.5	−11.7	26,165	+55.0	−9.9
1-family	6,350	+46.7	−8.2	21,541	+58.3	−2.6
2-family [1]	899	+144.3	−22.8	2,496	+148.1	−41.4
Multifamily [2]	718	+13.6	−23.2	2,128	−6.3	−20.5
Federally financed	72	−91.4	−97.8	185	−94.1	−97.6

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

This was an increase of approximately 50 percent over the number of units financed from private funds in February, but a decline of 12 percent from the private building started in March 1944. The volume of Federal construction decreased steadily, contracts having been let for 3,339 new family dwelling units in March 1944, 840 in February 1945, and 72 in March of this year.

Comparison of First 3 Months of 1944 and 1945

Valuations of all work started during the first quarter of 1945 totaled $249,065,000, only slightly less than the total of $251,716,000 reported for the same 3 months of 1944. On the other hand, new residential construction declined 36 percent, owing to the virtual completion of Federal war housing programs and to the wartime restrictions on nonessential building, while new nonresidential building increased 24 percent. The dollar volume of additions, alterations, and repair work rose 18 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 3 Months of 1945 and 1944*

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total construction			Federal construction		
	First 3 months—		Percent of change	First 3 months—		Percent of change
	1945	1944		1945	1944	
All construction	249,065	251,716	−1.1	79,612	81,324	−2.1
New residential	62,334	97,542	−36.1	4,330	16,969	−74.5
New nonresidential	111,377	90,068	+23.7	67,058	60,068	+11.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	75,354	64,106	+17.5	8,224	4,287	+91.8

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 3 Months of 1945 and 1944*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 3 months of—		Percent of change	First 3 months of—		Percent of change
	1945	1944		1945	1944	
All dwellings	19,253	32,425	−40.6	60,538	96,820	−37.5
Privately financed	18,341	25,102	−26.9	57,233	80,197	−28.6
1-family	14,773	19,338	−23.6	46,708	61,718	−24.3
2-family [1]	1,480	2,551	−42.0	4,082	8,616	−52.6
Multifamily [2]	2,088	3,213	−35.0	6,443	9,863	−34.7
Federal	912	7,323	−87.5	3,305	16,623	−80.1

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

Comparison of March 1945 and March 1944

Total building construction started in March 1945 was valued at approximately 104 million dollars, 13 percent above the aggregate for the same month in 1944. Privately financed new residential construc-

tion decreased around 10 percent, but the volume of Federal new residential building was only about one-tenth of that for March 1944. To meet a fresh demand for additional industrial capacity, new nonresidential construction increased 55 percent, Federal work gaining 51 percent and non-Federal work 63 percent. There was an increase also (over 22 percent) in the value of additions, alterations, and repairs, the greater proportion of which was non-Federally financed.

Construction From Public Funds, March 1945

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during February and March 1945 and March 1944 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.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects* [1] *Financed from Federal Funds, March 1945*

Source of funds	Value (in thousands of dollars) of contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	March 1945 [2]	February 1945 [3]	March 1944 [3]
All Federal sources	51,225	58,928	104,664
War public works [4]	1,841	3,146	3,097
Regular Federal appropriations [1]	46,424	52,305	91,241
Federal Public Housing Authority	2,960	3,477	10,326

[1] Excludes the following amounts (in thousands of dollars) for ship construction: March 1945, 136,687; February 1945, 287,411; March 1944, 10,971.
[2] Preliminary; subject to revision. [3] Revised.
[4] Public works financed under the Lanham Act, to provide facilities in crowded war districts.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States which by Census definition includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning value, are derived from estimates of construction cost made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits which were received in March 1945 for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the value of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

The contracts awarded and force-account work started on Federally financed building construction inside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas were valued at $31,606,000 in March 1945, $28,393,000 in February 1945, and $27,824,000 in March 1944.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Aircraft Employment Under Standard and "Total Industry" Classifications [1]

IMPORTANT differences exist between the two sets of data on employment in the aircraft industry, issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. As the reasons for these differences are not readily apparent to the general reader and may cause some confusion, it seems desirable to explain the coverage and the basic factors underlying these series and to show why and how they differ. The two series deal, respectively, with (*a*) wage-earner employment, hours, and earnings, published each month for "aircraft and parts excluding aircraft engines" and "aircraft engines," publication of which was restricted (because of military considerations) in 1942, and (*b*) occasional studies [2] showing total employment arising from aircraft production.

Purposes of Data

The differences in the two sets of figures, here discussed, result from the different purposes for which they are compiled. Thus, the wage-earner employment series for any industry is intended to measure employment changes in that industry in relation to changes in other industries over a series of years. Each such segment of our industrial economy is carefully distinguished by the Bureau, statistically, so that it does not overlap any other segments and so that when the data for all segments are assembled, an integrated set of employment measures for all industry is possible. In this series the picture of the aircraft industry, for example, is shown not for itself alone, but rather to indicate the industry's place in the whole industrial organization. The principal purpose of the aircraft total-employment series, on the other hand, is to measure employment in all plants contributing to the manufacture of aircraft, even though such plants may be part of another industry.

Major Differences

Because of the difference in the purpose of the two sets of figures, therefore, the emphasis in the wage-earner employment series is on comparability and continuity both from one date to another and from one industry to another, whereas in the total-employment series emphasis is on the completeness or inclusiveness of the data.

This difference in purpose gives rise, in turn, to certain major differences in procedure, as follows:

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics by Alexander Sturges.
[2] See, for example, Monthly Labor Review, November 1944 (p. 909).

1. The use of two different industrial classifications. These two classifications are shown below:

(*a*) "Standard BLS" aircraft-industry classification: [3]
- Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines:
  - Airframes
  - Gliders.
  - Parachutes, etc.
  - Aircraft parts.
  - Propellers.
- Aircraft engines:

(*b*) "Total aircraft" industry classification:
- Prime contractors, except parts suppliers:
  - Airframes.
  - Propellers.
  - Engines.
  - Other (gliders, special-purpose aircraft, modification centers).
- Subcontractors and parts suppliers.

A fundamental difference is evident from the above. The "Standard BLS" classification, according to product—used for the wage-earner employment series—insures comparability and avoids confusion resulting from the use of industry names and definitions different from those used by other statistical agencies. The "total industry" classification, based primarily on type of contractor, insures completeness by including suppliers of all parts of the aircraft regardless of the industry in which they would normally be classified. Prime contractors can be enumerated rather easily, making possible a complete coverage. Parts suppliers and subcontractors are too numerous for complete enumeration, but may be estimated satisfactorily in total, without such enumeration.

2. The different concepts used to determine to what industry a given plant should be assigned.

The normal practice of the Bureau is to classify an establishment on the basis of its principal product and, for statistical purposes, to assume that the entire labor force of the plant is engaged on the manufacture of that product. This is necessary in order to present a comprehensive and comparable analysis of the whole industrial economy. The purpose of the "total aircraft" estimates, however, is to indicate the entire number of persons employed in connection with the manufacture of aircraft. In this case, the purpose or ultimate use of the product is therefore of prime importance, in making the classification of a given plant. For this reason the "total aircraft" estimates include (*a*) in plants making products which, even though relatively unimportant in the plants' total output, are an element in the making of aircraft, that part of the labor force engaged on such products, and (*b*) in plants all or a large part of whose manufactures are intended for aircraft use, the workers engaged on such manufactures. Thus, illustrating (*b*), in a plant making generators—which, if classified according to product alone, would fall into the electrical-equipment industry—the number of wage earners estimated as required for the production of that part of the output used in aircraft would be counted as being in the aircraft industry.

[3] This represents a slight modification of the Standard Industrial Classification Code.

This procedure is applied mainly to the group of "subcontractors and parts suppliers," the estimates for which are based largely on a study of the ratio between their employment and that in plants of prime contractors, and not on a complete compilation of data from individual plants.

3. The variance in dates at which industry classification is made. In the series on wage-earner employment, hours, and earnings, a plant is classified according to its product in 1939. Plants coming into operation since then are classified according to their major product at the time when they began full-scale operation. In the total-aircraft estimates the date varies, the classification being always based upon the current product; this group therefore includes plants converted to aircraft from other products, such as automobiles.

There are other differences between the two series of figures, but they are neither basic nor important as regards final results.

It is evident from the above that the two sets of data are not comparable, and that they are not intended to be, as they are designed to serve two entirely different ends, one broad and the other highly specialized. Persons using the employment data for particular purposes should exercise care in selecting the proper series.

Wage-Earner Employment and Earnings in the Aircraft Industry, 1939–44

Data for the wage-earner series are given in tables 1 and 2, which follow. Table 1 presents the estimated number of wage earners, indexes of wage-earner employment and pay rolls, as well as averages of weekly earnings, weekly hours, and hourly earnings, by months from January 1939 through November 1944, for the manufacture of aircraft and parts (except engines). Included in this table are establishments engaged primarily in the manufacture of complete aircraft, both heavier-than-air and lighter-than-air craft, including gliders, balloons, and parachutes, also parts designed for aircraft (such as propellers, propeller blades, and pontoons).

TABLE 1.—*Wage-Earner Employment and Earnings in the Manufacture of Aircraft Parts, Excluding Aircraft Engines, 1939–44*

Year and month	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)	Indexes (1939 average=100) of—		Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
		Wage-earner employment	Wage-earner pay rolls			
						Cents
1939	39.7	100.0	100.0	$30.34	41.5	74.5
1940	90.1	227.1	242.3	31.40	43.2	74.3
1941	209.7	528.5	689.4	37.75	45.3	84.0
1942	496.3	1,250.9	2,013.1	46.21	47.0	98.7
1943	794.9	2,003.5	3,496.3	49.76	46.4	107.2
1939: January	25.2	63.5	64.9	31.61	41.7	76.8
February	27.3	68.8	69.7	31.18	41.8	75.8
March	28.2	71.1	72.6	31.38	42.1	76.1
April	31.9	80.4	78.9	30.09	40.8	74.6
May	35.3	89.0	87.5	30.04	41.2	73.7
June	38.6	97.3	99.6	31.17	42.0	73.6
July	41.8	105.4	103.8	29.94	40.7	73.7

TABLE 1.—*Wage-Earner Employment and Earnings in the Manufacture of Aircraft Parts, Excluding Aircraft Engines, 1939–44*—Continued

Year and month	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)	Indexes (1939 average=100) of—		Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
		Wage-earner employment	Wage-earner pay rolls			
						Cents
1939: August	42.6	107.4	108.4	$30.59	42.0	73.8
September	44.6	112.4	108.0	29.07	40.0	74.2
October	47.7	120.2	121.3	30.30	41.8	74.8
November	54.1	136.4	139.4	30.65	41.8	74.8
December	58.8	148.2	145.9	29.39	42.3	73.5
1940: January	63.7	160.6	156.7	29.21	41.5	74.1
February	64.5	162.6	155.6	28.73	41.1	73.0
March	66.6	167.9	167.1	29.96	42.1	73.4
April	69.3	174.7	172.2	29.75	41.4	73.3
May	74.9	188.8	185.4	29.69	41.2	73.2
June	81.6	205.7	211.6	31.18	42.7	74.2
July	88.1	222.1	222.8	30.48	42.0	73.8
August	97.4	245.5	265.7	31.79	43.8	73.9
September	105.4	265.7	300.2	32.37	44.6	73.8
October	115.2	290.4	330.7	32.62	44.3	75.0
November	123.3	310.8	357.3	32.93	44.3	75.5
December	131.2	330.7	382.8	33.25	44.6	75.7
1941: January	141.1	355.6	422.0	34.13	44.7	77.6
February	150.1	378.3	460.7	35.14	45.5	78.4
March	156.9	395.5	479.4	35.02	45.2	78.3
April	167.8	422.9	514.0	35.15	45.1	78.8
May	179.0	451.2	559.9	35.84	45.4	79.4
June	191.4	482.4	594.4	35.63	45.0	79.7
July	206.8	521.2	658.5	36.57	44.8	81.2
August	226.6	571.1	752.7	38.08	45.6	84.5
September	246.3	620.8	821.7	38.23	45.5	84.7
October	266.3	671.2	911.7	39.29	45.2	87.2
November	283.0	713.3	982.4	39.85	44.4	90.3
December	301.0	758.7	1,115.8	42.42	46.3	91.8
1942: January	331.6	835.8	1,355.1	46.72	48.7	96.3
February	364.6	919.0	1,437.3	44.99	47.7	95.1
March	384.1	968.1	1,520.6	45.18	47.6	95.6
April	406.9	1,025.6	1,636.9	45.90	47.3	97.1
May	433.0	1,091.4	1,753.0	46.22	47.7	98.3
June	461.4	1,162.9	1,885.6	46.67	47.2	99.3
July	500.2	1,260.7	2,018.4	46.01	46.6	99.1
August	539.6	1,360.0	2,188.4	46.24	46.7	99.3
September	571.5	1,440.5	2,337.9	46.55	46.3	101.1
October	619.2	1,560.7	2,487.5	45.75	46.3	99.1
November	651.9	1,643.1	2,664.7	46.53	46.6	99.7
December	691.9	1,743.9	2,872.1	47.08	46.9	100.2
1943: January	721.5	1,818.5	3,002.2	46.94	46.5	101.0
February	747.8	1,884.8	3,110.8	47.12	46.2	101.9
March	767.4	1,934.2	3,210.4	47.29	46.2	102.5
April	776.3	1,956.6	3,407.0	49.69	47.3	105.2
May	782.3	1,971.8	3,440.4	49.67	46.8	106.3
June	800.6	2,017.9	3,531.5	49.78	46.5	107.0
July	813.5	2,050.4	3,518.2	48.82	45.5	107.3
August	820.5	2,068.1	3,566.3	49.26	46.1	107.0
September	814.4	2,052.7	3,739.6	51.98	46.6	111.5
October	830.1	2,092.2	3,795.2	51.74	46.8	110.6
November	837.4	2,110.6	3,871.7	52.30	46.8	111.7
December	827.1	2,084.7	3,762.0	51.45	45.8	112.4
1944: January	814.4	2,052.7	3,892.5	54.05	47.5	113.8
February	801.9	2,021.2	3,827.1	53.93	47.4	113.8
March	783.7	1,975.3	3,728.4	53.70	47.0	114.3
April	763.8	1,925.1	3,627.0	53.55	46.7	114.8
May	741.9	1,869.9	3,557.3	54.10	46.8	115.8
June	709.9	1,789.3	3,433.2	54.61	47.1	115.9
July	692.2	1,744.7	3,337.8	54.43	47.2	115.5
August	687.6	1,733.1	3,334.4	54.73	47.1	116.1
September	660.0	1,663.4	3,175.4	54.32	46.2	117.7
October	647.7	1,632.5	3,185.8	55.39	47.1	117.7
November	632.7	1,594.8	3,135.8	55.64	47.2	117.8
December	636.2	1,603.5	3,197.6	56.45	47.6	118.7

Similar data for plants manufacturing primarily aircraft engines are given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Wage-Earner Employment and Earnings in the Manufacture of Aircraft Engines, 1939–44* [1]

Year and month	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)	Indexes (1939 average=100) of—		Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
		Wage-earner employment	Wage-earner pay rolls			
						Cents
1939	8.9	100.0	100.0	$36.58	44.1	83.5
1940	24.7	277.2	296.2	38.50	45.8	84.0
1941	58.7	660.3	910.3	47.04	46.9	103.3
1942	148.7	1,672.0	2,814.1	59.03	48.7	121.2
1943	233.5	2,625.7	4,528.7	59.81	47.4	126.2
1939: January	6.9	77.0	75.8	36.16	42.8	84.4
February	7.3	81.8	82.3	37.04	43.6	85.0
March	7.7	86.8	86.6	36.71	43.5	84.3
April	8.0	90.1	90.3	36.86	43.6	84.5
May	8.2	92.6	89.4	35.50	42.6	83.3
June	8.5	96.0	91.4	35.04	42.5	82.4
July	8.7	97.3	90.5	34.20	42.1	81.2
August	8.8	98.5	91.6	34.19	42.9	79.7
September	9.0	101.7	100.2	36.23	43.7	82.8
October	10.0	112.9	117.1	38.16	45.3	84.2
November	11.2	125.8	132.8	38.82	46.1	84.1
December	12.4	139.5	152.1	40.10	47.2	84.9
1940: January	13.6	153.3	167.0	40.06	47.0	85.3
February	15.7	176.1	186.7	38.93	44.9	86.7
March	17.4	195.9	204.4	38.31	45.5	84.2
April	18.9	212.6	221.9	38.33	46.0	83.4
May	21.2	237.9	243.5	37.58	45.9	81.9
June	23.6	264.9	280.5	38.64	46.9	82.4
July	26.1	293.3	306.9	37.95	46.1	82.4
August	28.1	315.5	337.8	38.59	46.0	83.9
September	29.7	334.3	359.9	38.42	46.8	82.2
October	32.0	359.7	393.1	38.70	45.8	84.5
November	33.8	380.4	403.7	37.36	43.4	86.1
December	35.8	402.5	449.4	39.07	46.0	84.9
1941: January	37.8	425.5	512.2	42.16	47.2	89.2
February	40.4	454.9	514.0	39.59	45.4	87.1
March	43.1	484.7	569.9	41.19	46.0	89.6
April	45.8	515.4	573.8	38.76	42.2	91.8
May	49.7	559.0	726.2	45.42	46.9	96.9
June	53.9	606.3	815.5	47.12	47.0	100.2
July	58.1	653.6	891.2	48.06	46.8	102.6
August	63.9	718.8	1,014.5	49.92	47.0	106.1
September	68.4	768.7	1,088.1	50.17	47.8	105.0
October	74.4	837.1	1,277.7	51.55	47.2	109.2
November	80.1	900.3	1,415.7	55.04	48.0	114.7
December	88.8	999.1	1,575.2	55.48	48.5	114.5
1942: January	98.2	1,104.6	1,932.3	61.66	50.8	,121.4
February	108.6	1,221.1	2,018.0	58.02	49.4	117.5
March	119.1	1,339.7	2,295.3	60.13	50.1	120.0
April	132.5	1,490.0	2,488.6	58.34	48.7	119.8
May	141.5	1,591.5	2,631.2	57.51	48.2	119.3
June	150.1	1,687.9	2,758.3	57.35	48.4	118.5
July	156.0	1,754.8	2,916.4	58.57	48.2	121.6
August	162.9	1,832.4	3,081.5	59.22	48.6	121.7
September	168.9	1,899.3	3,243.9	60.23	48.2	125.0
October	174.4	1,960.8	3,303.9	60.10	49.0	122.6
November	181.1	2,036.1	3,482.3	58.79	47.6	123.4
December	190.8	2,145.9	3,617.4	58.45	47.5	123.0
1943: January	200.3	2,252.3	3,910.0	60.19	48.2	125.0
February	208.6	2,346.2	4,068.8	60.07	48.3	.124.3
March	215.8	2,426.7	4,261.2	60.82	48.8	124.7
April	224.3	2,522.0	4,370.3	60.02	48.3	124.3
May	229.5	2,580.8	4,549.1	61.16	48.8	125.2
June	234.1	2,632.2	4,450.8	58.66	46.3	126.6
July	237.7	2,673.0	4,477.5	58.05	46.3	125.5
August	235.6	2,649.2	4,483.8	58.41	46.5	125.6
September	246.6	2,773.4	4,895.8	61.28	47.2	129.7
October	252.4	2,838.6	4,962.4	60.68	47.6	127.5
November	258.7	2,909.6	5,083.0	60.64	47.4	128.0
December	258.3	2,904.3	4,814.6	57.74	45.4	127.2

[1] Prior to January 1939 aircraft engines were included with "engines, turbines, and water wheels".

TABLE 2.—*Wage-Earner Employment and Earnings in the Manufacture of Aircraft Engines, 1939–44*—Continued

Year and month	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)	Indexes (1939 average=100) of—		Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
		Wage-earner employment	Wage-earner pay rolls			
						Cents
1944: January	260.8	2,932.8	5,286.1	$62.55	48.2	129.8
February	261.3	2,938.7	5,239.6	61.87	47.6	130.1
March	259.2	2,915.5	5,194.0	61.93	47.6	130.2
April	259.0	2,912.5	5,239.2	62.53	47.7	131.0
May	255.4	2,872.3	4,946.3	59.73	46.1	129.6
June	250.9	2,822.1	4,993.3	61.35	46.8	131.2
July	247.9	2,787.9	4,761.1	59.21	44.9	131.8
August	240.8	2,708.5	4,819.7	61.51	46.8	131.7
September	233.5	2,626.4	4,628.3	60.92	45.8	133.0
October	226.4	2,545.8	4,460.3	60.64	46.1	131.5
November	219.3	2,466.1	4,278.4	59.90	45.2	132.6
December	215.4	2,422.0	4,294.6	61.18	46.0	133.0

Detailed data on total employment in the aircraft industry were given in the Monthly Labor Review, November 1944 (p. 909).

Summary of Employment Reports for March 1945

BETWEEN March 1944 and March 1945, employment in nonagricultural establishments declined by 727,000, while the armed forces had a net increase of 1¼ million. Nonagricultural employment stood at 37,998,000 in March 1945, about 62,000 more than in February.

With the exception of manufacturing and mining, each of the industry divisions reported employment increases over the month. The largest increase, 68,000, was in trade, brought about by large retail buying for Easter.

Industrial and Business Employment

Manufacturing wage-earner employment declined by 131,000. Most of this was localized in the munitions group. The transportation-equipment group, including shipbuilding and the aircraft and aircraft-engine industries, employed 1,980,000—62,000 less than in February and 506,000 less than in March 1944.

Of the nine major groups which comprise the munitions total, only nonferrous and chemicals reported gains in employment. The increase in the nonferrous group was in aluminum plants, to meet increased production needs. The slight increase in the chemicals group reflects further expansion in the production of small-arms ammunition which was offset, in part, by the seasonal declines in the cottonseed-oil industry.

Although 8 of the 11 nonmunitions groups reported declines, only 2 were significantly large. That of 19,000 in the food group was due, in part, to seasonal lay-offs, and to continued shortage of hogs. The drop of 10,000 in the textile-mill products group was partly the result

of transient labor returning to the farms, and to the difficulty in recruiting manpower for these relatively low-paying industries.

Bituminous-coal mines employed 2,000 fewer miners, who numbered 335,000—a drop of 31,000 since March 1944.

While employment in retail stores increased, that in wholesale trade establishments declined. Merchandise was increasingly difficult to obtain and many re-orders went unfilled. Inventories were said to be very low.

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)	
	March 1945 [2]	February 1945	January 1945	March 1944	March 1945 [2]	February 1945
All manufacturing	12,952	13,083	13,117	14,056	158.1	159.7
Durable goods	7,672	7,770	7,797	8,570	212.5	215.2
Nondurable goods	5,280	5,313	5,320	5,486	115.3	116.0
Iron and steel and their products	1,654	1,666	1,657	1,704	166.8	168.0
Electrical machinery	692	696	698	767	266.9	268.6
Machinery, except electrical	1,153	1,165	1,163	1,251	218.2	220.4
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1,980	2,042	2,082	2,486	1247.2	1286.6
Automobiles	670	680	682	739	166.6	169.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	409	403	398	444	178.4	176.0
Lumber and timber basic products	447	450	450	482	106.3	107.0
Furniture and finished lumber products	339	341	339	354	103.3	103.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	328	327	328	343	111.9	111.3
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,065	1,075	1,083	1,151	93.1	94.0
Apparel and other finished textile products	836	838	837	906	105.9	106.1
Leather and leather products	309	310	311	318	89.0	89.2
Food	978	997	1,013	1,002	114.5	116.7
Tobacco manufacturers	82	82	82	83	87.6	88.1
Paper and allied products	307	310	309	318	115.9	116.7
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	329	330	331	336	100.3	100.5
Chemicals and allied products	640	638	628	624	222.2	221.3
Products of petroleum and coal	134	134	133	127	126.6	126.1
Rubber products	197	198	197	202	162.9	163.4
Miscellaneous industries	403	401	396	419	164.7	164.0

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1942 and preliminary 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. These data are not comparable with data published in mimeographed releases dated prior to February 1945 or in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1945. Comparable data from January 1939 are available upon request.

[2] Preliminary.

Public Employment

Federal employment, which totaled 3,558,000 in March 1945, showed a gain of 57,000 over the previous month and of 300,000 over the previous year. Although war agencies accounted for 251,000 of the year's increase, their expansion within continental United States was only 40,000, as compared with 51,000 in other agencies. The major gains in the latter group of agencies were in the Post Office Department (24,000), Commerce Department (20,000), Treasury Department (9,000), and Veterans Administration (9,000). The Post Office Department, Treasury Department, and Veterans Administration increases were gradual throughout the year, whereas the Commerce Department increase occurred for the most part in March 1945 in connection with the new Census of Agriculture. The TVA showed the greatest numerical and relative decline over the year—9,000, or 41 percent.

The total war-agency gain of 251,000 during the year was distributed as follows: War Department +205,000, Navy Department +50,000, and other war agencies −4,000. The decline in other war agencies was the result of many largely offsetting upward and downward movements in individual agencies—OPA +5,000, OWI +4,000, Maritime Commission +2,000, WMC +2,000, WPB −5,000, Selective Service System −4,000, Central Administrative Services −4,000, Office of Censorship −3,000, and The Panama Canal −3,000, to mention only the agencies showing the larger changes.

Employment in banks of the Farm Credit Administration dropped 700 during the year. The remaining drop of 1,700 in employment of Government corporations was the result of a shift in reporting the Inland Waterways Corporation, which has been included under the executive service, beginning August 1944.

TABLE 2.—*Employment in Regular Federal Services and in Government Corporations in Selected Months*

Year and month	Total	Executive [1]	Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations [2]
March 1939	925,938	893,714	5,284	2,210	24,730
March 1940	993,157	958,607	5,883	2,379	26,288
March 1941	1,254,085	1,217,420	5,921	2,505	28,239
March 1942	1,875,464	1,835,545	6,343	2,601	30,975
March 1943	3,125,991	3,082,713	6,154	2,597	34,527
March 1944	3,257,765	3,212,740	6,152	2,672	36,201
January 1945	3,449,802	3,406,672	6,160	2,638	34,332
February 1945 [3]	3,500,519	3,457,249	6,561	2,643	34,066
March 1945 [3]	3,557,534	3,514,820	6,281	2,640	33,793

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards who are also included under shipbuilding (table 4) and employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5). Includes employees stationed outside continental United States.

[2] Data are for employees of the Panama Railroad Co., the Federal Reserve Banks, and banks of the Farm Credit Administration, who are paid out of operating revenues and not out of Federal appropriations. Data for other Government corporations are included under the executive service.

[3] Preliminary.

TABLE 3.—*Employment in the Executive Branch of the Federal Government by War and Other Agencies, in Selected Months* [1]

Year and month	Total	War agencies [2]			Other agencies		
		All areas	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [3]	All areas	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [3]
March 1939	893,714	188,261	161,220	27,041	705,453	697,022	8,431
March 1940	958,607	240,933	202,204	38,729	717,674	706,511	11,163
March 1941	1,217,420	453,893	387,228	66,665	763,527	750,744	12,783
March 1942	1,835,545	997,369	850,874	146,495	838,176	824,230	13,946
March 1943	3,082,713	2,275,904	2,023,641	252,263	806,809	791,915	14,894
March 1944	3,212,740	2,393,506	2,024,355	369,151	819,234	803,427	15,807
January 1945	3,406,672	2,561,118	2,030,351	530,767	845,554	829,327	16,227
February 1945 [4]	3,457,249	2,609,505	2,057,409	552,096	847,744	831,432	16,312
March 1945 [4]	3,514,820	2,644,184	2,064,778	579,406	870,636	854,090	16,546

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards who are also included under shipbuilding (table 4) and employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5).

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

[3] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

[4] Preliminary.

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Source of data.—Data for the Federal executive service are reported through the Civil Service Commission, whereas data for the legislative and judicial services and Government corporations are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Force-account employment is also included in construction employment (table 5), and navy yard employment is also included in employment on shipbuilding and repair projects (table 4). Data for pay rolls are now being revised and the revised series will be available shortly.

Employment on Shipbuilding and Repair

The decline of employment on the Federal shipbuilding and repair program occurred at a rate of approximately 21,300 a month from January 1944 through January 1945. This rate more than doubled in February and March 1945. The decline amounted to 45,200 in February and to 56,700 in March.

In spite of the employment declines in 1944, pay rolls fluctuated within very narrow limits, their level being maintained partially by new zone agreements in May and September in the Great Lakes and Gulf regions, respectively. In February and March 1945, however, pay rolls dropped $37,000,000 and $30,000,000.

The gradual completion of shipbuilding contracts and the letting of few new ones are responsible for the employment and pay-roll declines in the private shipyards. Employment and pay rolls of the navy yards have been maintained at approximately the same level since mid-1943 by the substitution of repair work for new construction.

Data on employment and pay rolls on shipbuilding and repair projects are received monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics directly from all shipyards within continental United States. Employees in the navy yards are also included in data for the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3).

TABLE 4.—*Total Employment and Pay Rolls in United States Navy Yards and Private Shipyards Within Continental United States, by Shipbuilding Region, March 1945*

Shipbuilding region	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands of dollars)		
	March 1945 [1]	February 1945	March 1944	March 1945 [1]	February 1945	March 1944
All regions	1,344.1	1,400.8	1,649.4	363,506	393,044	448,607
United States navy yards [2]	327.1	327.4	331.7	88,068	88,138	94,146
Private shipyards	1,017.0	1,073.4	1,317.7	275,438	304,906	354,461
North Atlantic	506.0	512.6	600.0	143,323	151,905	([3])
South Atlantic	120.0	123.8	150.5	30,698	32,828	([3])
Gulf	165.1	177.5	222.0	43,503	50,583	([3])
Pacific	466.4	491.5	553.9	122,722	132,088	([3])
Great Lakes	48.3	50.2	63.5	12,768	13,894	([3])
Inland	38.3	45.2	59.5	10,492	11,746	([3])

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Md.) Coast Guard yard.
[3] Break-down not available.

Construction Employment

In March 1945 site employment on construction projects increased 38,300, of which 15,300 was on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, and 23,000 was on non-Federally financed projects.

Of the non-Federal increase, 18,900 represented seasonal activity on the construction of farm dwellings and service buildings; 8,000 of the increase was on public utilities and 2,800 on the construction of State, county, and municipal streets and roads. Although employment on nonresidential buildings increased slightly in March 1945, this increase was more than offset by a decline of 7,900 in residential buildings.

Increases on Federally financed projects were confined to nonresidential buildings and to river, harbor, and flood control projects. The latter represented a seasonal movement, whereas the former was the result of the construction of new plant facilities for the manufacture of rockets and other types of ordnance.

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 are also included in tables 2 and 3 under Federal executive service.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction Within Continental United States, March 1945*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands of dollars)		
	March 1945 [1]	February 1945	March 1944	March 1945 [1]	February 1945	March 1944
New construction, total [2]	720.5	684.3	746.1	([3])	([3])	([3])
At the construction site	609.1	570.8	587.0	([3])	([3])	([3])
Federal projects [4]	201.4	186.1	262.0	43,098	40,704	51,476
Airports	6.4	7.0	19.8	980	1,215	3,176
Buildings	150.1	132.6	177.7	33,079	30,024	36,160
Residential	10.9	11.3	32.5	2,465	2,536	6,825
Nonresidential [5]	139.2	121.3	145.2	30,614	27,488	29,335
Electrification	.3	.3	.3	30	82	59
Reclamation	6.7	6.8	14.6	1,542	1,580	3,211
River, harbor, and flood control	15.4	15.1	20.2	2,972	2,988	3,895
Streets and highways	6.1	6.8	9.6	1,074	1,181	1,566
Water and sewer systems	3.7	3.8	7.0	584	577	1,064
Miscellaneous	12.7	13.7	12.8	2,837	3,057	2,346
Non-Federal projects	407.7	384.7	325.0	([3])	([3])	([3])
Buildings	215.3	222.4	174.7	50,596	47,594	38,085
Residential	63.9	71.8	108.8	([3])	([3])	([3])
Nonresidential	151.4	150.6	65.9	([3])	([3])	([3])
Farm dwellings and service buildings	62.1	43.2	40.9	([3])	([3])	([3])
Public utilities	100.8	92.8	83.4	([3])	([3])	([3])
Streets and highways	15.6	12.8	14.3	([3])	([3])	([3])
State	6.0	5.0	6.4	([3])	([3])	([3])
County and municipal	9.6	7.8	7.9	([3])	([3])	([3])
Miscellaneous	13.9	13.5	11.7	([3])	([3])	([3])
Other [6]	111.4	113.5	159.1	([3])	([3])	([3])
Maintenance of State roads [7]	85.0	84.2	80.8	([3])	([3])	([3])

[1] Preliminary.

[2] 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.

[3] Data not available.

[4] Includes the following force-account employees, hired directly by the Federal Government, and their pay rolls: March 1944, 28,070, $5,700,900; February 1945, 19,355, $3,729,400; March 1945, 18,768, $3,678,100. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3); all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.

[5] Includes the following employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation (RFC) projects: March 1944, 64,975, $14,789,300; February 1945, 10,064, $2,443,300; March 1945, 13,215, $2,824,800.

[6] 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.

[7] Data for other types of maintenance not available.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, February 1945

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)				
	February 1945	January 1945	December 1944	February 1944	Average 1944
Total estimated employment [1]	37,931	37,940	38,889	38,840	38,698
Manufacturing [2]	15,525	15,555	15,632	16,735	16,121
Mining	800	801	806	858	835
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	564	564	594	715	679
Transportation and public utilities	3,768	3,740	3,770	3,704	3,761
Trade	6,980	7,030	7,611	6,867	7,044
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,356	4,356	4,304	4,131	4,348
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,938	5,894	6,172	5,830	5,911

[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.

[2] Estimates for manufacturing have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1942 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Since the estimated number of wage earners in manufacturing industries have been further adjusted to preliminary 1943 data, the two sets of estimates are not comparable subsequent to December 1942.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 27 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 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 December 1944 and January and February 1945, and for February 1944, 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 levels indicated by final data for 1942 and preliminary data for 1943 made available 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. 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*

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	February 1945	January 1945	December 1944	February 1944
All manufacturing [1]	13,083	13,117	13,191	14,254
Durable goods [1]	7,770	7,797	7,804	8,698
Nondurable goods [1]	5,313	5,320	5,387	5,556
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products [1]	1,666	1,657	1,651	1,730
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	478.4	474.8	474.7	495.5
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	75.3	75.7	74.6	77.1
Malleable-iron castings	26.0	25.9	25.6	25.8
Steel castings	72.4	72.1	71.6	80.0
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.6	15.7	15.7	15.5
Tin cans and other tinware	41.1	39.8	39.4	35.1
Wire drawn from purchased rods	32.6	32.8	32.4	34.7
Wirework	35.2	34.6	34.6	33.9
Cutlery and edge tools	24.2	24.3	24.3	23.0
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	27.4	27.6	27.1	28.6
Hardware	46.7	46.2	46.4	47.8
Plumbers' supplies	22.7	22.5	22.1	23.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	63.9	63.1	63.9	62.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	55.6	55.6	55.3	58.9
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	87.9	87.3	87.0	90.3
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	73.2	73.2	72.8	76.2
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	11.1	10.7	10.8	13.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	24.0	23.9	24.2	28.8
Forgings, iron and steel	35.7	35.6	35.3	40.4
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	23.6	23.8	24.4	26.9
Screw-machine products and wood screws	43.0	42.7	42.9	48.3
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	8.4	8.2	8.0	7.7
Firearms	32.3	35.0	36.8	56.2
Electrical machinery [1]	696	698	702	769
Electrical equipment	429.0	429.3	431.8	466.3
Radio and phonographs	117.5	118.0	119.2	133.7
Communication equipment	104.5	104.9	105.8	119.8
Machinery, except electrical [1]	1,165	1,163	1,159	1,272
Machinery and machine-shop products	454.2	451.8	449.6	493.1
Engines and turbines	67.5	68.1	67.8	72.2
Tractors	57.2	57.5	57.3	59.9
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	44.8	44.6	44.6	45.0
Machine tools	74.8	74.3	74.3	85.8
Machine-tool accessories	65.2	65.0	65.0	75.8
Textile machinery	26.4	26.7	27.3	28.4
Pumps and pumping equipment	72.6	73.8	73.9	84.2
Typewriters	13.0	12.8	12.6	12.4
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	30.6	30.6	30.8	34.9
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	12.6	12.0	11.7	14.7
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	11.2	11.1	10.8	9.5
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	52.4	52.5	52.6	54.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles [1]	2,042	2,082	2,096	2,533
Locomotives	34.1	33.9	35.5	35.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	59.4	58.0	57.6	60.3
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines [2]	644.6	638,2	636.2	801.9
Aircraft engines [2]	215.9	214.7	215.4	261.3
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	973.0	1,020.8	1,037.3	1,236.8
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.6	9.4	9.4	10.1
Automobiles [1]	680	682	677	753
Nonferrous metals and their products [1]	403	398	397	453
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	39.7	39.5	39.8	57.3
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	71.8	70.6	69.6	74.0
Clocks and watches	26.1	25.6	26.0	25.2
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	13.2	13.3	13.5	14.5
Silverware and plated ware	10.9	11.0	11.1	11.1
Lighting equipment	25.9	26.0	26.5	26.3
Aluminum manufactures	68.8	66.8	64.5	83.8
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	32.2	31.8	32.4	31.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries*—Con.

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	February 1945	January 1945	December 1944	February 1944
Durable goods—Continued				
Lumber and timber basic products [1]	450	450	452	484
Sawmills and logging camps	218.9	218.5	220.9	235.3
Planing and plywood mills	70.5	70.5	70.6	76.5
Furniture and finished lumber products [1]	341	339	340	358
Mattresses and bedsprings	17.8	17.7	17.9	17.0
Furniture	154.1	153.0	153.6	165.8
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	27.2	27.5	27.5	27.9
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.3	11.9	11.8	12.5
Wood preserving	9.9	9.9	9.9	9.9
Wood, turned and shaped	21.5	21.6	21.6	21.9
Stone, clay, and glass products [1]	327	328	330	346
Glass and glassware	87.6	88.0	87.8	92.1
Glass products made from purchased glass	11.0	10.7	10.7	10.7
Cement	16.1	16.5	17.2	17.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	41.2	41.3	41.7	45.2
Pottery and related products	39.3	39.5	40.0	41.9
Gypsum	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.6
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.6	9.6	9.7	9.9
Lime	7.7	7.7	7.6	8.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13.9	13.8	14.0	12.6
Abrasives	21.5	21.3	21.2	22.6
Asbestos products	20.0	20.3	20.4	22.1
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures [1]	1,075	1,083	1,092	1,163
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	428.5	432.7	433.7	460.6
Cotton smallwares	13.3	13.5	13.6	14.6
Silk and rayon goods	88.8	88.8	89.8	93.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	146.	146.6	148.3	158.9
Hosiery	99.6	100.7	102.4	110.8
Knitted cloth	10.3	10.3	10.4	11.5
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	28.7	28.5	29.4	30.8
Knitted underwear	34.3	34.4	34.6	38.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	59.0	59.9	60.3	64.5
Carpets and rugs, wool	20.1	20.3	20.4	20.9
Hats, fur-felt	9.3	9.4	9.5	9.9
Jute goods, except felts	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.5
Cordage and twine	15.0	15.1	15.4	16.7
Apparel and other finished textile products [1]	838	837	851	909
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	202.3	201.2	204.5	217.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	49.6	49.6	51.0	54.8
Underwear and neckwear, men's	11.9	11.9	12.1	12.7
Work shirts	14.4	14.1	14.3	17.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	213.6	214.6	216.7	228.7
Corsets and allied garments	14.6	14.6	15.1	15.9
Millinery	20.1	19.4	19.0	20.9
Handkerchiefs	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	10.2	10.9	12.8	14.2
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	11.5	11.5	11.9	12.0
Textile bags	14.4	14.0	14.0	15.8
Leather and leather products [1]	310	311	312	317
Leather	39.5	39.5	39.6	41.2
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	16.0	16.1	16.2	16.3
Boots and shoes	172.6	173.1	173.4	176.0
Leather gloves and mittens	11.9	12.3	12.6	13.6
Trunks and suitcases	12.9	12.9	12.9	11.9
Food [1]	997	1,013	1,054	1,013
Slaughtering and meat packing	144.9	154.7	155.4	168.2
Butter	21.5	20.7	20.8	20.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	13.5	13.1	12.8	12.5
Ice cream	13.5	13.3	13.7	13.3
Flour	29.6	29.5	29.3	29.6
Feeds, prepared	21.5	21.3	20.6	21.6
Cereal preparations	9.3	8.9	8.6	9.6
Baking	257.2	257.0	264.8	257.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries*—Con.

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	February 1945	January 1945	December 1944	February 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Food—Continued.				
Sugar refining, cane [3]	15.3	14.8	14.7	14.5
Sugar, beet	4.2	5.2	15.6	3.8
Confectionery	58.5	59.1	62.4	59.1
Beverages, nonalcoholic	25.6	25.8	26.1	26.1
Malt liquors	50.1	49.6	51.1	47.1
Canning and preserving	101.2	105.3	113.8	93.9
Tobacco manufactures [1]	82	82	85	87
Cigarettes	35.2	35.2	36.4	35.2
Cigars	33.2	33.3	34.4	38.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.2
Paper and allied products [1]	310	309	312	320
Paper and pulp	147.5	147.3	147.2	148.4
Paper goods, other	44.9	44.7	45.6	47.7
Envelopes	9.5	9.5	9.7	10.2
Paper bags	13.4	13.2	13.3	13.7
Paper boxes	77.9	77.7	79.1	83.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries [1]	330	331	335	338
Newspapers and periodicals	108.8	109.6	111.3	109.9
Printing, book and job	133.6	133.8	135.5	137.0
Lithographing	24.3	24.4	24.7	24.8
Bookbinding	28.0	27.9	28.3	30.3
Chemicals and allied products [1]	638	628	621	655
Paints, varnishes, and colors	29.5	29.7	30.1	29.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	49.4	49.2	49.8	51.1
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.2	12.3	12.7	11.9
Soap	13.5	13.6	13.6	13.6
Rayon and allied products	54.5	54.1	54.2	52.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	115.3	115.2	115.5	121.4
Explosives and safety fuses	97.9	95.1	93.5	74.5
Compressed and liquefied gases	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.2
Ammunition, small-arms	66.3	61.0	55.1	91.7
Fireworks	25.0	25.9	26.9	29.6
Cottonseed oil	18.1	19.7	20.4	19.0
Fertilizers	25.1	23.1	21.5	26.5
Products of petroleum and coal [1]	134	133	133	127
Petroleum refining	91.5	91.5	90.8	84.0
Coke and byproducts	22.1	22.2	22.0	23.2
Paving materials [3]	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.3
Roofing materials	9.5	9.5	9.6	9.9
Rubber products [1]	198	197	195	204
Rubber tires and inner tubes	96.4	96.7	94.3	94.1
Rubber boots and shoes	17.5	17.8	18.3	21.4
Rubber goods, other	72.5	71.5	71.6	76.7
Miscellaneous industries [1]	401	396	397	423
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire-control equipment	59.6	58.8	59.0	65.4
Photographic apparatus	28.0	28.0	28.0	29.7
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	23.5	23.6	23.5	26.1
Pianos, organs, and parts	7.3	7.3	7.1	9.7
Games, toys, and dolls	16.3	16.5	16.8	16.0
Buttons	9.6	9.2	8.8	10.5
Fire extinguishers	4.7	4.8	5.0	6.9

[1] Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1942 and preliminary 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. These data are not comparable with data published in mimeographed releases dated prior to February1945 or the March 1945 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable data from January 1939 are available upon request. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

[2] Comparable data from January 1939 available upon request.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:
Sugar refining, cane.—October and November 1944 wage earners to 14.7 and 14.5.
Paving materials.—October 1943 through February 1944 wage earners to 1.8, 1.9, 1.5, 1.4, and 1.3.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944
All manufacturing [1]	159.7	160.1	161.0	174.0	329.1	330.4	331.8	344.7
Durable goods [1]	215.2	215.9	216.1	240.9	451.4	454.3	455.9	487.3
Nondurable goods [1]	116.0	116.1	117.6	121.3	209.5	209.4	210.5	205.3
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products [1]	168.0	167.1	166.5	174.5	318.0	316.3	316.7	321.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	123.1	122.2	122.2	127.6	223.6	224.4	225.5	225.2
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	128.8	129.5	127.6	132.0	267.5	267.0	261.7	259.1
Malleable-iron castings	144.0	143.6	142.1	143.3	305.8	305.1	305.6	292.5
Steel castings	240.5	239.7	238.1	266.0	453.5	457.3	454.9	487.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	94.5	95.3	95.3	93.6	193.1	193.5	192.1	170.2
Tin cans and other tinware	129.3	125.2	123.9	110.6	227.4	219.3	215.6	185.5
Wire drawn from purchased rods	148.6	149.4	147.6	158.0	255.7	260.8	257.1	260.9
Wirework	115.8	113.9	113.7	111.5	237.4	236.4	235.8	222.4
Cutlery and edge tools	157.0	157.4	157.3	149.2	333.3	336.6	333.0	304.8
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	179.1	180.5	177.2	186.9	352.0	353.7	347.1	355.9
Hardware	131.0	129.5	130.3	134.0	277.7	273.6	275.9	266.2
Plumbers' supplies	92.1	91.4	89.8	96.3	176.6	173.4	168.0	172.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	138.6	136.8	138.6	135.6	274.0	267.2	269.4	252.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	183.5	183.4	182.6	194.3	355.3	358.0	353.6	366.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	158.2	157.2	156.6	162.6	338.1	336.7	332.3	328.9
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	206.1	206.1	205.0	214.6	396.0	395.1	401.7	418.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	143.9	138.2	139.2	177.3	285.1	266.0	274.5	325.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	167.5	167.4	169.5	201.0	335.3	331.0	333.0	393.3
Forgings, iron and steel	232.1	231.5	229.5	262.7	479.8	477.0	467.3	535.0
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	281.6	284.5	292.1	320.9	566.5	571.7	583.4	606.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws	253.8	252.2	253.5	285.3	514.6	509.2	498.7	561.7
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	138.3	135.5	132.5	126.2	274.7	261.6	270.4	244.8
Firearms	645.2	699.7	736.2	1123.0	1457.7	1538.1	1659.2	2655.8
Electrical machinery [1]	268.6	269.2	271.1	296.9	505.0	504.8	504.3	524.2
Electrical equipment	237.3	237.5	238.9	257.9	451.9	454.4	452.0	465.7
Radios and phonographs	270.0	271.2	274.1	307.2	535.1	539.9	537.3	576.1
Communication equipment	325.4	326.5	329.5	373.0	555.5	541.3	548.1	578.0
Machinery, except electrical [1]	220.4	220.0	219.2	240.6	424.6	421.9	422.9	449.2
Machinery and machine-shop products	224.5	223.3	222.2	243.7	423.7	421.3	419.4	447.4
Engines and turbines	361.8	365.0	363.2	387.2	790.8	790.2	807.6	824.1
Tractors	182.8	183.7	183.3	191.4	290.8	295.0	294.4	299.8
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	161.0	160.4	160.4	161.7	328.3	322.1	322.4	320.9
Machine tools	204.3	202.8	202.8	234.2	381.9	378.6	381.0	405.0
Machine-tool accessories	259.1	258.3	258.3	301.1	465.8	458.3	452.3	520.2
Textile machinery	120.6	122.0	124.8	129.7	233.6	235.1	240.9	236.5
Pumps and pumping equipment	299.7	304.5	304.7	347.4	645.9	648.7	650.2	741.5
Typewriters	79.9	79.1	77.9	76.5	164.5	162.0	153.8	154.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	155.4	155.6	156.3	177.4	301.3	305.1	298.4	351.2
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	168.3	160.9	156.3	196.2	314.5	290.7	298.0	345.5
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	142.5	141.1	137.9	121.0	305.6	302.6	291.6	260.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	149.0	149.3	149.6	156.3	276.6	271.1	287.3	282.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles [1]	1286.6	1311.7	1320.7	1596.1	2757.3	2852.5	2893.7	3213.9
Locomotives	526.6	523.3	548.7	552.7	1218.0	1168.3	1321.8	1253.9
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	242.2	236.6	234.7	246.0	504.4	486.1	510.7	488.7
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines [2]	1624.8	1608.5	1603.5	2021.2	3229.2	3252.0	3197.6	3827.1
Aircraft engines [2]	2428.5	2414.7	2422.0	2938.7	4377.9	4379.6	4294.6	5239.6
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	1405.2	1474.2	1498.0	1786.2	3107.6	3313.4	3446.4	3629.6
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	138.4	135.4	134.7	144.6	268.8	258.2	254.7	249.4
Automobiles [1]	169.1	169.4	168.3	187.3	320.9	319.3	312.6	347.8
Nonferrous metals and their products [1]	176.0	173.6	173.1	197.6	343.0	337.7	336.2	370.9
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	143.5	142.9	143.9	207.3	263.7	264.2	263.5	371.0
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	185.1	181.9	179.2	190.6	363.1	354.5	347.8	355.2
Clocks and watches	128.8	126.4	128.1	124.2	281.3	270.3	276.9	252.5
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	91.4	92.1	93.5	100.3	162.5	160.5	168.7	160.2
Silverware and plated ware	89.9	90.8	91.7	91.2	165.6	163.0	168.9	161.1
Lighting equipment	126.6	127.2	129.6	128.4	231.0	235.9	238.6	229.3
Aluminum manufactures	292.3	283.9	274.1	355.9	542.2	529.6	512.4	639.0
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	171.5	169.5	172.8	169.9	335.2	334.0	341.0	328.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944
Durable goods—Continued								
Lumber and timber basic products [1]	107.0	107.1	107.6	115.2	196.5	192.9	193.7	202.9
Sawmills and logging camps	76.0	75.9	76.7	81.7	140.4	137.9	138.8	146.1
Planing and plywood mills [3]	97.1	97.1	97.2	105.3	170.0	167.2	166.7	172.8
Furniture and finished lumber products [1]	103.9	103.3	103.6	109.3	196.9	194.0	194.0	191.3
Mattresses and bedsprings	97.2	96.4	97.8	92.6	176.1	178.0	180.2	145.8
Furniture	96.8	96.1	96.5	104.1	184.0	180.4	179.7	184.1
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	107.2	108.3	108.4	110.1	211.4	211.3	219.6	203.9
Caskets and other morticians' goods	98.5	95.6	94.7	100.1	180.4	172.0	169.6	169.0
Wood preserving	88.2	87.9	87.8	88.2	187.6	187.5	185.6	169.6
Wood, turned and shaped	97.9	98.1	98.4	99.7	180.0	178.9	178.2	170.7
Stone, clay, and glass products [1]	111.3	111.6	112.3	117.9	189.6	188.6	192.2	191.0
Glass and glassware	125.5	126.1	125.8	131.9	202.0	201.8	203.8	208.0
Glass products made from purchased glass	109.6	106.7	106.9	107.3	188.4	185.4	186.5	171.9
Cement	67.6	69.1	72.1	74.1	106.0	107.3	114.1	106.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	72.5	72.8	73.4	79.7	119.4	117.2	118.3	123.6
Pottery and related products	118.7	119.3	120.9	126.7	186.7	184.5	193.6	187.8
Gypsum	81.8	81.2	80.0	93.2	141.2	142.6	140.4	157.1
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	117.9	118.5	119.3	121.5	222.1	218.6	217.8	218.8
Lime	81.1	81.0	80.9	91.9	158.1	153.4	156.0	169.3
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	75.2	74.4	75.4	64.8	112.4	109.0	114.2	90.1
Abrasives	277.8	275.2	273.6	292.8	486.6	482.8	490.6	475.4
Asbestos products	126.0	127.7	128.4	138.9	262.7	264.9	266.0	267.1
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures [1]	94.0	94.7	95.5	101.7	173.1	173.9	176.6	174.1
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	108.2	109.3	109.5	116.3	207.3	210.3	212.3	202.2
Cotton smallwares	100.1	101.1	102.4	109.3	195.1	193.7	190.4	187.9
Silk and rayon goods	74.1	74.1	75.0	78.3	140.0	138.4	142.3	138.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	97.8	98.3	99.4	106.5	193.1	193.5	194.9	199.4
Hosiery	62.6	63.3	64.4	69.7	102.4	102.9	105.9	109.7
Knitted cloth	93.9	94.2	95.0	105.2	164.6	169.4	170.6	177.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	102.0	101.4	104.4	109.4	191.8	185.9	193.0	194.4
Knitted underwear	89.1	89.2	89.9	99.1	167.8	164.7	166.8	175.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	88.3	89.6	90.1	96.5	151.3	152.2	156.5	153.9
Carpets and rugs, wool	78.7	79.4	79.7	81.5	138.3	138.6	140.6	137.0
Hats, fur-felt	64.0	64.4	65.1	67.9	126.8	125.3	127.6	123.4
Jute goods, except felts	90.3	90.4	92.5	97.1	178.6	179.3	184.2	180.9
Cordage and twine	123.8	125.1	127.4	137.7	234.7	235.3	244.1	246.0
Apparel and other finished textile products [1]	106.1	106.0	107.8	115.1	202.6	195.2	191.8	196.8
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	92.5	92.0	93.5	99.5	170.7	165.3	164.5	163.2
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	70.4	70.4	72.3	77.8	131.8	126.1	128.0	133.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	74.0	73.9	75.1	78.9	154.6	146.7	150.1	152.0
Work shirts	106.8	104.6	106.3	126.5	213.2	204.1	204.4	226.6
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	78.6	79.0	79.8	84.2	154.3	149.1	143.5	148.3
Corsets and allied garments	77.5	77.8	80.4	84.6	137.2	135.5	138.9	144.9
Millinery	82.8	79.6	78.0	86.0	154.5	131.0	113.2	141.0
Handkerchiefs	53.5	54.5	57.7	67.5	101.1	100.6	107.0	119.0
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	60.3	64.5	75.7	83.7	120.2	129.2	150.7	155.1
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	108.1	108.7	111.9	113.3	209.1	204.0	215.2	203.3
Textile bags	120.1	117.1	116.6	132.2	208.3	206.2	202.0	207.4
Leather and leather products [1]	89.2	89.5	89.8	91.4	164.3	162.5	160.8	154.2
Leather	83.7	83.7	83.8	87.2	148.7	147.0	145.5	144.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	84.8	85.2	85.8	86.6	145.1	147.3	146.1	138.9
Boots and shoes	79.2	79.4	79.5	80.7	149.9	147.9	145.7	137.8
Leather gloves and mittens	119.4	122.8	125.6	135.7	205.7	211.6	209.0	227.6
Trunks and suitcases	155.4	154.7	154.7	142.9	257.8	252.4	261.8	230.7
Food [1]	116.7	118.6	123.3	118.6	189.1	195.8	205.0	188.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	120.3	128.4	129.0	139.6	188.1	221.9	227.6	226.6
Butter	119.8	115.5	116.0	113.9	187.7	181.0	181.4	171.3
Condensed and evaporated milk	139.5	135.4	132.1	129.3	229.3	220.3	213.1	198.4
Ice cream	86.1	84.5	87.1	85.0	125.7	122.0	125.8	116.1
Flour	119.4	119.2	118.3	119.5	204.3	206.0	198.8	191.1
Feeds, prepared	139.8	138.1	133.7	140.4	243.7	231.3	229.4	228.8
Cereal preparations	124.6	119.6	115.9	128.8	227.3	215.9	210.3	217.8
Baking	111.5	111.4	114.8	111.8	168.6	168.2	176.5	161.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food [1]—Continued.								
Sugar refining, cane [3]	107.8	104.4	103.6	102.5	175.6	176.1	179.9	156.2
Sugar, beet	40.2	49.6	149.5	36.3	60.4	66.6	189.4	56.9
Confectionery	117.6	118.7	125.5	118.8	199.2	198.6	210.8	187.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic	120.2	121.2	122.7	122.9	157.0	157.3	162.7	151.7
Malt liquors	138.7	137.4	141.5	130.6	200.6	194.9	204.8	181.8
Canning and preserving	75.2	78.3	84.6	69.9	149.0	153.9	162.9	133.0
Tobacco manufactures [1]	88.1	88.1	90.7	93.5	164.2	166.4	177.8	154.7
Cigarettes	128.3	128.3	132.7	128.5	207.6	211.1	222.8	179.6
Cigars	65.3	65.3	67.5	75.4	133.1	134.2	147.2	142.1
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	94.0	93.9	94.1	89.6	155.9	159.0	162.7	128.4
Paper and allied products [1]	116.7	116.5	117.4	120.6	195.3	194.9	197.0	190.0
Paper and pulp	107.3	107.2	107.1	108.0	182.8	183.3	185.0	176.3
Paper goods, other	119.2	118.9	121.1	126.7	198.4	197.6	197.8	194.9
Envelopes	109.3	109.7	111.4	117.1	174.2	175.5	178.0	176.5
Paper bags	120.9	118.8	120.3	123.3	210.2	206.3	211.6	200.0
Paper boxes	112.6	112.4	114.3	120.1	183.7	181.9	185.0	183.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries [1]	100.5	100.8	102.3	103.0	141.1	142.8	144.1	134.6
Newspapers and periodicals	91.7	92.3	93.8	92.6	118.3	118.4	121.5	113.0
Printing, book and job	105.8	105.9	107.2	108.4	156.7	160.3	159.6	147.0
Lithographing	93.6	93.7	95.1	95.4	134.1	135.5	136.2	130.3
Bookbinding	108.6	108.1	109.7	117.6	186.4	187.7	189.0	189.3
Chemicals and allied products [1]	221.3	217.8	215.4	227.4	389.9	384.2	377.8	389.0
Paints, varnishes, and colors	105.0	105.4	106.8	106.2	170.1	169.4	170.7	162.2
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	180.2	179.6	181.6	186.6	275.4	271.8	272.1	273.9
Perfumes and cosmetics	117.9	118.5	122.2	114.7	169.1	163.8	172.3	150.5
Soap	99.7	99.9	100.3	99.8	172.1	170.5	172.9	162.3
Rayon and allied products	112.8	112.1	112.3	108.1	182.4	182.0	180.1	169.3
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	165.7	165.5	166.0	174.5	295.3	293.2	291.1	296.1
Explosives and safety fuses	1349.1	1311.3	1288.5	1027.3	2019.9	1999.1	1969.5	1562.5
Compressed and liquefied gases	151.3	149.4	149.4	155.3	273.2	267.4	266.2	273.7
Ammunition, small-arms	1554.9	1431.4	1291.8	2149.7	3091.3	2914.7	2632.5	4199.5
Fireworks	2156.6	2234.6	2319.0	2559.8	6093.5	6280.7	6444.3	7295.2
Cottonseed oil	119.5	129.6	134.0	125.4	254.0	274.9	289.3	241.3
Fertilizers	133.6	122.9	114.4	141.3	301.9	269.1	249.8	274.1
Products of petroleum and coal [1]	126.1	126.0	125.3	119.7	221.5	220.1	220.4	201.4
Petroleum refining	125.7	125.6	124.7	115.3	215.6	213.4	214.9	192.2
Coke and byproducts	102.0	102.4	101.2	106.9	185.8	189.0	182.0	181.9
Paving materials [3]	67.5	63.8	66.8	54.2	134.4	131.6	141.5	94.5
Roofing materials	118.2	117.8	119.5	123.2	216.2	211.5	217.5	208.9
Rubber products [1]	163.4	163.2	161.6	168.6	320.2	319.8	305.2	295.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	178.0	178.5	174.1	173.8	339.8	342.4	319.4	295.6
Rubber boots and shoes	117.8	120.2	123.8	144.3	223.0	220.1	228.5	252.9
Rubber goods, other	140.0	138.2	138.4	148.2	265.5	261.2	255.7	260.6
Miscellaneous industries [1]	164.0	161.8	162.2	172.9	324.6	322.4	319.7	325.6
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire-control equipment	539.3	531.6	533.5	591.8	1068.5	1057.1	1058.2	1116.1
Photographic apparatus	162.1	162.1	161.9	172.0	276.1	277.5	258.9	278.5
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	202.6	203.2	202.5	224.4	350.5	353.5	346.0	372.0
Pianos, organs, and parts	95.8	95.5	92.7	127.5	182.4	187.3	170.1	244.5
Games, toys, and dolls	87.4	88.4	90.1	85.6	183.7	182.7	188.6	161.2
Buttons	87.2	84.0	80.6	95.5	175.9	173.4	161.6	180.5
Fire extinguishers	468.1	478.1	503.6	698.1	1061.1	1017.8	1045.9	1423.7

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1942 and preliminary 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. These indexes are not comparable with those published in mimeographed releases dated prior to February 1945 or the March 1945 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes from January 1939 are available upon request. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

[2] Comparable indexes from January 1939 available upon request.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes for earlier months:

Planing and plywood mills.—August through November 1944 pay-roll indexes to 165.2, 164.8, 167.9 and 166.0.

Sugar refining, cane.—October and November 1944 employment indexes to 103.6 and 102.6; pay-roll indexes to 172.9 and 162.2.

Paving material.—October 1943 through February 1944 employment indexes to 74.0, 76.0, 63.4, 55.5, and 54.2.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	February 1945	January 1945	December 1944	February 1944
Mining:				
Anthracite	65.6	65.4	65.6	69.8
Bituminous coal	337	338	338	370
Metal	68.6	69.0	69.2	88.6
Iron	23.1	23.3	23.8	28.8
Copper	22.2	22.3	22.2	30.1
Lead and zinc	14.9	15.0	14.8	18.7
Gold and silver	5.6	5.5	5.5	6.4
Miscellaneous	2.8	2.9	2.9	4.6
Telephone [1]	403	401	403	407
Telegraph [2]	44.9	45.2	45.8	47.1
Electric light and power [1]	201	200	200	204
Street railways and busses [1]	229	227	228	232
Hotels (year-round) [1]	353	355	356	352
Power laundries	238	240	243	250
Cleaning and dyeing	76.1	75.6	77.3	77.1
Class I steam railroads [3]	1,413	1,394	1,400	1,387
Water transportation [4]	148	143	144	108

[1] Data include salaried personnel.
[2] Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies. Data include salaried personnel.
[3] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.
[4] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to, or owned by, the Army or Navy.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1944
Mining:								
Anthracite	79.2	79.0	79.2	84.2	150.2	137.7	148.8	190.2
Bituminous coal	91.0	91.3	91.3	99.8	213.7	215.5	199.8	231.0
Metal	77.8	78.2	78.5	100.5	128.7	125.1	127.7	157.0
Iron	115.2	115.6	118.3	143.0	197.1	177.1	183.4	222.4
Copper	93.1	93.4	93.2	125.9	155.3	156.6	163.8	206.7
Lead and zinc	95.7	96.6	95.2	120.6	182.4	183.3	179.7	215.8
Gold and silver	22.7	22.3	22.4	26.0	30.1	30.3	29.9	33.0
Miscellaneous	69.5	73.2	73.5	115.5	118.1	122.8	122.1	177.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic	75.4	75.6	79.6	82.9	137.9	135.8	144.3	139.7
Crude-petroleum production [1]	82.4	82.1	82.1	81.2	133.7	132.2	131.7	126.9
Public utilities:								
Telephone	127.0	126.1	126.7	128.2	158.8	157.8	158.6	152.5
Telegraph	119.2	120.2	121.7	125.2	171.4	172.3	174.0	172.6
Electric light and power	82.2	82.0	82.0	83.6	117.3	115.2	114.6	112.3
Street railways and busses	118.4	117.3	117.7	119.8	178.9	175.1	173.5	166.7
Wholesale trade	95.7	95.7	97.1	95.7	141.4	139.1	142.3	132.7
Retail trade	97.2	98.3	111.9	96.0	130.5	130.7	146.8	121.4
Food	106.7	107.2	110.2	106.6	141.6	141.4	145.0	133.0
General merchandise	111.4	114.2	152.2	106.5	141.8	144.3	190.7	128.3
Apparel	102.8	106.1	131.3	102.6	140.6	145.5	178.9	130.4
Furniture and housefurnishings	61.7	62.4	67.5	64.0	86.7	87.4	97.0	85.0
Automotive	67.6	67.7	68.9	65.8	103.9	100.9	102.8	93.2
Lumber and building material	88.6	88.9	91.4	88.7	130.4	129.9	132.4	123.0
Hotels (year-round) [2]	109.6	110.2	110.5	109.3	167.9	166.8	169.5	152.7
Power laundries	105.4	106.3	107.8	110.5	159.4	161.5	162.3	154.4
Cleaning and dyeing	112.8	112.0	114.5	114.2	175.6	175.3	176.7	165.3
Class I steam railroads [3]	143.1	141.1	141.8	140.4	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Water transportation [5]	281.6	272.6	274.5	205.7	708.5	685.2	672.9	472.6

[1] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[2] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.
[3] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[4] Not available.
[5] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to, or owned by, the Army or Navy.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for December 1944, and January and February 1945, 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 this 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.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

Industry group or industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$47.43	$47.52	$47.44	45.5	45.4	45.6	104.3	104.6	104.0
Durable goods	53.39	53.58	53.68	46.9	46.8	47.1	113.8	114.5	114.0
Nondurable goods	38.71	38.63	38.39	43.4	43.4	43.5	89.3	89.1	88.3
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	51.62	51.66	51.84	47.0	46.9	47.4	109.8	110.1	109.5
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	54.58	55.04	55.33	46.3	46.2	47.0	118.1	119.1	117.9
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	53.16	52.71	52.65	48.1	47.9	47.7	111.3	111.0	110.6
Malleable-iron castings	52.79	52.76	53.31	48.5	48.8	48.9	108.8	108.2	109.3
Steel castings	52.84	53.25	53.33	46.5	46.6	46.9	113.6	114.7	113.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	43.09	42.80	42.48	48.0	47.4	47.2	89.0	89.7	89.4
Tin cans and other tinware	41.83	41.50	41.03	45.5	45.2	45.3	91.3	91.4	90.5
Wirework	51.00	52.07	51.82	47.7	48.4	48.5	107.8	107.7	107.0
Cutlery and edge tools	45.35	45.69	44.92	46.3	46.6	46.4	97.4	97.5	96.7
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	47.58	47.67	47.42	47.4	47.8	47.8	100.3	99.8	99.3
Hardware	47.24	47.22	47.23	47.6	47.6	47.7	99.1	99.1	99.1
Plumbers' supplies	50.06	49.55	48.87	47.2	46.9	46.6	106.1	105.7	104.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	49.42	48.78	48.67	47.0	46.6	47.2	105.1	104.3	103.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	49.70	50.10	50.06	47.7	47.7	48.1	104.3	105.0	104.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	49.10	49.12	48.98	46.6	46.8	46.8	105.3	105.7	104.6
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	53.71	53.44	54.63	47.7	47.1	48.1	112.3	113.4	113.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	53.74	52.20	53.47	48.9	48.1	48.6	109.9	108.5	110.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets [2]	50.49	49.89	49.45	47.7	46.9	47.5	105.9	106.5	104.2
Forgings, iron and steel	62.02	61.69	61.16	48.6	48.2	47.8	128.2	129.1	128.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group or industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944
Durable Goods—Continued									
Iron and steel and their products—Con.							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Screw-machine products and wood screws	$52.46	$52.20	$50.74	49.1	49.0	48.0	106.4	106.6	105.7
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	43.16	41.96	44.23	43.2	42.6	45.1	99.5	98.2	98.0
Firearms	59.35	57.67	59.14	46.4	45.4	46.6	128.0	127.1	126.8
Electrical machinery	49.78	49.81	49.37	46.7	46.6	46.6	106.5	106.9	105.9
Electrical equipment	52.31	52.45	52.06	47.0	47.1	47.0	111.1	111.8	110.7
Radios and phonographs	43.10	43.14	42.43	46.3	46.2	45.9	92.9	93.5	92.4
Communication equipment	47.26	45.90	46.35	46.1	45.2	45.9	102.6	101.2	100.7
Machinery, except electrical	56.23	55.94	56.05	48.9	48.6	48.9	115.0	115.1	114.6
Machinery and machine-shop products	55.02	54.92	54.76	48.7	48.5	48.7	112.9	113.2	112.4
Engines and turbines	61.77	61.18	62.82	49.5	48.5	49.7	125.1	126.3	126.4
Tractors	53.71	54.23	54.24	46.8	47.1	47.3	114.9	115.1	114.7
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	54.12	53.40	53.35	47.3	46.9	46.9	114.4	113.7	113.8
Machine tools	60.08	60.21	60.81	51.5	51.6	51.8	117.3	117.2	117.3
Machine-tool accessories	61.82	61.14	60.35	50.5	49.5	49.4	123.2	123.5	122.3
Textile machinery	50.68	50.33	50.20	49.4	49.6	49.6	102.7	101.6	101.3
Typewriters	49.52	49.27	47.53	49.1	49.3	48.0	100.8	100.0	99.1
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	58.66	59.32	57.77	48.3	48.7	47.8	122.8	123.1	121.6
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	49.59	47.94	50.58	47.2	46.3	47.2	105.1	103.4	107.2
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	57.89	58.01	57.18	51.6	51.7	51.5	113.2	113.3	112.2
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	52.76	51.58	54.42	46.6	45.7	48.0	113.3	112.9	113.4
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	61.76	62.76	63.33	47.4	48.0	48.4	130.2	130.7	130.9
Locomotives	65.65	63.36	68.36	48.7	47.1	49.6	134.9	134.6	137.7
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	55.08	54.44	57.37	45.7	45.6	47.7	120.4	119.4	120.2
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	56.21	57.35	56.45	47.1	47.7	47.6	119.3	120.3	118.7
Aircraft engines	61.92	62.28	61.18	47.0	46.6	46.0	133.0	135.0	133.0
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	65.03	66.19	68.22	47.7	48.7	49.3	137.3	136.8	138.4
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	53.73	52.83	52.31	49.2	49.0	48.5	109.3	107.9	107.9
Automobiles	59.63	59.38	58.41	46.5	45.2	45.7	128.3	131.4	127.9
Nonferrous metals and their products	50.90	50.85	50.86	47.4	47.2	47.6	107.4	107.7	106.9
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	49.10	49.20	48.74	45.9	45.8	46.0	106.7	107.4	105.9
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	56.50	56.14	55.92	49.0	48.7	49.0	115.1	115.0	114.1
Clocks and watches	45.57	44.64	45.05	47.3	46.3	47.1	96.4	96.3	95.6
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	46.26	45.36	46.94	45.0	45.4	46.4	100.6	98.3	99.7
Silverware and plated ware	48.65	47.42	48.56	46.7	46.4	47.4	104.2	102.4	102.5
Lighting equipment	47.62	48.41	48.08	45.5	45.1	45.8	105.2	107.9	105.0
Aluminum manufactures	51.32	51.37	51.47	47.4	47.5	47.4	107.9	108.2	108.7
Lumber and timber basic products	34.31	33.72	33.62	43.2	42.6	42.3	79.3	79.1	79.4
Sawmills and logging camps	32.96	32.43	32.28	42.5	42.0	41.4	77.5	77.3	77.9
Planing and plywood mills [2]	38.63	37.75	37.54	45.5	44.7	44.9	84.6	84.5	83.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	38.07	37.55	37.40	44.8	44.4	44.3	85.0	84.6	84.4
Furniture	38.70	38.16	37.87	44.8	44.2	44.0	87.5	86.8	86.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	42.39	41.65	41.38	46.6	46.5	46.4	91.0	89.9	89.6
Wood preserving	33.81	33.94	33.60	43.6	43.8	42.5	77.6	77.5	79.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	40.19	39.81	40.30	43.9	43.5	44.1	91.5	91.6	91.3
Glass and glassware	40.70	40.32	40.73	42.6	42.0	42.8	95.6	96.3	95.5
Glass products made from purchased glass	35.55	36.20	36.38	43.4	44.0	44.4	82.0	82.3	82.1
Cement	41.93	41.64	42.66	45.5	44.6	45.9	92.8	93.4	92.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	34.08	33.33	33.37	41.9	41.1	41.2	81.2	80.9	80.3
Pottery and related products	36.56	35.92	37.27	41.1	40.7	42.2	90.1	89.5	89.5
Gypsum	44.74	45.47	45.53	47.7	48.5	49.1	93.3	93.8	92.7
Lime	38.25	37.17	37.87	48.1	47.0	47.2	80.0	79.5	80.6
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	39.14	38.35	39.63	43.2	42.6	44.0	89.0	88.4	88.9
Abrasives	49.08	49.15	50.33	48.4	48.2	49.0	101.4	102.1	102.7
Asbestos products	49.75	49.50	49.43	49.5	49.7	49.2	100.5	99.7	100.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group or industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944
Nondurable goods									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	$30.87	$30.77	$30.99	42.3	42.3	42.8	73.0	72.8	72.5
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	27.63	27.78	27.91	42.4	42.6	43.1	65.2	65.2	64.8
Cotton smallwares	36.22	35.68	34.73	44.9	44.4	43.8	80.9	80.5	79.5
Silk and rayon goods	30.16	29.76	30.41	42.4	41.9	42.9	71.1	70.9	70.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	36.79	36.73	36.63	42.9	42.9	43.1	85.8	85.6	85.2
Hosiery	29.97	29.78	30.06	38.6	38.4	39.0	77.7	77.7	77.0
Knitted cloth	32.54	33.38	33.32	43.7	44.6	44.7	74.1	74.4	73.8
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.77	30.83	31.05	40.1	39.3	40.0	78.1	77.3	77.0
Knitted underwear	27.78	27.20	27.42	41.0	40.4	41.0	67.5	67.0	66.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	35.73	35.32	36.05	45.6	45.3	46.3	77.8	77.6	77.9
Carpets and rugs, wool	40.54	40.26	40.66	43.7	43.7	44.3	93.1	92.3	92.0
Hats, fur-felt	46.18	45.35	45.38	41.8	41.7	42.0	110.3	108.7	108.1
Jute goods, except felts	35.23	35.33	35.48	45.1	45.7	45.4	78.3	77.6	78.1
Cordage and twine	33.79	33.34	33.97	45.5	45.1	45.6	74.2	73.8	74.4
Apparel and other finished textile products	33.46	32.42	31.35	38.9	38.2	37.7	86.0	84.9	83.1
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	34.78	33.90	33.25	39.7	38.9	38.3	87.1	86.7	86.1
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	26.27	24.94	24.64	38.0	37.0	36.7	68.8	67.4	67.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's	28.18	26.54	26.79	37.6	36.3	37.2	74.6	73.1	72.0
Work shirts	21.57	21.17	21.21	37.4	36.8	36.6	56.3	56.3	56.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	41.96	40.35	38.45	37.5	37.0	36.7	107.5	105.4	101.7
Corsets and allied garments	30.56	30.31	30.02	40.6	40.1	40.5	75.4	75.7	74.3
Millinery	45.41	40.01	35.29	35.5	34.0	31.2	103.2	97.5	92.9
Handkerchiefs	24.84	24.27	24.19	38.2	37.6	38.3	64.9	64.5	63.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	26.64	26.94	26.83	36.7	36.7	37.0	72.7	73.3	71.5
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	33.89	32.91	33.47	42.1	41.1	42.2	79.7	79.2	79.2
Textile bags	30.37	30.77	30.26	42.2	42.4	42.2	72.0	72.7	71.7
Leather and leather products	35.25	34.75	34.27	42.2	41.9	41.6	83.6	82.9	82.4
Leather	44.44	43.93	43.42	45.9	45.5	45.3	96.9	96.5	95.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	34.85	35.01	34.41	42.6	42.9	42.8	82.6	82.6	81.4
Boots and shoes	33.66	33.12	32.55	41.6	41.3	40.9	80.8	79.9	79.4
Leather gloves and mittens	29.68	29.62	28.89	37.1	37.7	37.0	80.7	79.5	78.1
Trunks and suitcases	34.71	34.13	35.28	42.7	41.5	42.6	80.7	81.1	82.3
Food	38.84	39.50	39.80	44.9	45.6	46.0	86.5	86.6	86.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	42.80	47.18	48.16	46.8	51.1	51.9	91.7	92.7	93.3
Butter	34.99	35.06	34.96	46.1	46.8	47.1	74.6	73.9	73.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	37.40	37.22	36.83	49.3	49.0	48.9	76.1	75.9	75.3
Ice cream	40.22	39.85	39.70	46.4	46.2	46.4	82.5	82.2	81.8
Flour	42.91	43.30	42.18	49.8	50.0	49.1	86.2	86.7	85.9
Cereal preparations	46.35	45.85	46.07	47.4	47.5	47.2	97.7	96.6	97.6
Baking	38.65	38.57	39.24	45.2	45.2	46.0	85.3	84.8	85.4
Sugar refining, cane [2]	38.94	40.32	41.55	46.0	47.2	48.5	84.7	85.5	85.6
Sugar, beet	37.65	33.70	31.83	38.2	34.5	37.6	98.6	97.7	84.7
Confectionery	31.10	30.81	31.03	41.7	41.3	41.9	74.6	75.1	74.1
Beverages, nonalcoholic	34.56	34.12	34.75	42.4	42.2	43.3	80.7	80.3	80.4
Malt liquors	51.27	50.42	51.26	44.8	44.4	45.4	114.2	112.9	112.8
Canning and preserving	32.05	31.73	31.10	40.7	40.3	40.0	79.4	79.5	78.6
Tobacco manufactures	31.77	31.93	33.20	43.1	43.4	45.0	73.7	73.6	73.8
Cigarettes	34.50	35.07	35.77	44.2	44.8	46.0	78.1	78.2	77.8
Cigars	29.58	29.33	31.13	42.2	41.9	44.1	70.0	69.7	70.7
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	29.05	29.68	30.41	41.7	42.9	44.3	69.6	69.2	68.6
Paper and allied products	40.05	40.09	40.22	46.3	46.3	46.6	86.4	86.7	86.4
Paper and pulp	43.03	43.19	43.72	48.2	48.1	48.7	89.1	89.8	89.7
Envelopes	38.36	38.54	38.49	45.0	45.3	45.5	84.5	84.3	83.8
Paper bags	35.36	35.30	35.76	44.0	44.4	45.5	80.6	79.7	79.3
Paper boxes	36.06	35.74	35.72	44.0	43.9	44.0	82.0	81.6	81.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	45.67	46.01	45.84	41.0	41.5	41.4	111.3	111.0	110.8
Newspapers and periodicals	49.39	49.20	49.85	38.2	38.3	38.6	127.1	126.4	126.8
Printing, book and job	44.19	45.14	44.75	42.5	43.2	42.8	104.9	104.9	104.2
Lithographing	46.76	47.18	46.74	44.4	44.7	44.3	106.5	106.5	106.0
Chemicals and allied products	44.31	44.33	44.06	45.6	45.6	45.7	97.3	97.1	96.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	47.29	46.86	46.59	47.6	47.4	47.4	99.5	99.2	98.6
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	36.32	36.23	35.72	43.3	43.1	43.6	84.3	83.6	82.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group or industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944	Feb. 1945	Jan. 1945	Dec. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued									
Chemicals and allied products—Continued.							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Soap	$49.15	$48.63	$49.11	48.7	48.0	48.7	100.9	101.3	100.9
Rayon and allied products	39.36	39.51	39.08	43.0	43.1	42.7	91.8	91.7	91.6
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	53.63	53.31	52.64	47.3	46.9	46.8	113.4	113.3	112.5
Explosives and safety fuses	46.41	47.25	46.79	44.1	44.9	45.0	104.6	104.7	104.0
Ammunition, small-arms	44.82	46.01	46.04	45.9	46.8	46.6	97.6	98.2	98.8
Cottonseed oil	29.00	28.94	29.40	52.4	53.7	54.8	55.1	53.9	53.7
Fertilizers	31.12	30.57	30.48	46.1	44.8	44.2	67.5	68.3	69.0
Products of petroleum and coal	56.58	56.20	56.52	47.3	46.6	47.1	119.6	120.6	120.0
Petroleum refining	59.14	58.55	59.28	47.1	46.2	46.8	126.1	127.1	127.0
Coke and byproducts	49.92	50.59	49.31	47.7	47.7	47.5	104.8	106.4	104.0
Roofing materials	47.04	46.19	46.87	49.1	48.5	49.5	95.7	95.2	94.7
Rubber products	54.38	54.50	52.64	47.3	47.3	46.6	114.9	115.2	113.0
Rubber tires and inner tubes	64.04	64.29	61.62	48.7	49.0	47.9	131.5	131.7	129.0
Rubber boots and shoes	42.60	41.22	41.57	45.5	44.3	44.9	93.4	92.8	92.5
Rubber goods, other	44.42	44.25	43.32	45.9	45.8	45.3	96.7	96.6	95.8
Miscellaneous industries	45.37	45.53	45.03	45.8	45.9	45.7	99.1	99.3	98.5
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire-control equipment	57.35	57.56	57.42	49.9	50.0	49.8	115.7	115.9	115.3
Pianos, organs, and parts	46.11	47.53	44.47	45.0	46.4	44.0	102.9	103.0	101.6

NONMANUFACTURING

Mining:									
Anthracite	$48.68	$44.81	$48.39	41.7	38.9	41.5	116.4	115.4	117.6
Bituminous coal	54.08	54.25	50.39	45.7	45.4	43.1	119.3	120.5	118.7
Metal	46.78	45.07	45.89	45.2	44.2	44.8	102.8	101.8	102.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic	39.17	38.78	39.39	45.5	44.6	44.9	86.9	87.3	88.4
Crude-petroleum production	55.32	54.34	53.97	45.8	45.5	45.4	116.8	116.6	116.2
Public utilities:									
Telephone	39.17	39.49	39.74	42.4	42.4	42.7	93.5	93.4	93.5
Telegraph [3]	37.23	37.14	37.02	44.7	45.0	45.4	83.2	82.6	81.5
Electric light and power	49.76	48.90	48.84	44.0	43.4	43.3	112.2	111.6	111.9
Street railways and busses	50.83	50.04	49.71	51.9	51.6	51.8	96.5	96.2	95.5
Wholesale trade	43.85	43.15	43.55	42.8	42.7	43.3	101.3	100.6	100.2
Retail	27.32	26.99	26.41	39.7	39.5	39.8	75.6	75.1	72.8
Food	31.44	31.49	31.50	39.9	39.9	40.3	75.2	74.6	73.9
General merchandise	22.52	22.31	22.07	35.1	35.1	36.3	63.5	63.2	59.2
Apparel	29.01	29.07	28.78	36.5	36.2	36.7	79.0	79.7	78.4
Furniture and housefurnishings	38.31	38.20	39.11	44.2	44.0	43.9	86.8	87.7	88.5
Automotive	43.23	42.05	42.31	46.9	46.3	46.8	93.5	92.6	92.3
Lumber and building materials [2]	37.98	37.86	37.40	43.3	42.8	42.9	88.9	89.4	88.7
Hotels (year-round) [4]	24.07	23.71	24.04	44.5	44.2	44.4	53.9	53.2	53.5
Power laundries	28.31	28.32	27.83	43.4	43.5	43.5	65.3	64.9	64.4
Cleaning and dyeing	31.53	31.68	31.38	43.3	43.7	43.4	74.9	74.9	74.6
Brokerage	62.84	60.33	59.85	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Insurance	45.18	46.81	46.23	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Private building construction	52.89	52.98	53.48	39.1	38.8	39.4	135.2	136.4	135.9

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a slightly 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 the data for earlier months:

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.—November 1944 average weekly earnings to $48.55; average hourly earnings to 103.1 cents.

Planing and plywood mills.—August through November 1944 average weekly earnings to $37.01, $37.58, $38.39, and $38.00; average weekly hours to 44.9, 45.2, 46.0 and 45.4.

Sugar refining, cane.—October and November 1944 average weekly earnings to $39.97 and $37.85; average weekly hours to 46.6 and 45.3; October average hourly earnings to 85.7 cents.

Retail trade, Lumber group.—October 1944, average weekly hours to 43.8, average hourly earnings to 88.3.

[3] Excludes messengers and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters and of cable companies.

[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

[5] Not available.

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Civilian Labor Force, March 1945

THE civilian labor force increased by 230,000 persons between February and March 1945 to a total of 51,660,000 persons, according to the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Employment increased by 280,000, while the volume of unemployment declined by 50,000 to a level of 830,000.

The increase in employment between February and March was the result of divergent movements in agricultural and nonagricultural employment. A seasonal gain of 500,000 in farm employment more than offset a decline of 220,000 in nonfarm employment.

Farm operations early in March were ahead of schedule, as exceptionally favorable weather conditions prevailed in many agricultural areas. For this reason, the seasonal increase in agricultural employment between February and March 1945 was unusually large—about double the largest previous increase between these months (260,000 in 1944). The relatively large recruitment of women farm workers between February and March this year was particularly important in this connection. In March 1945 the level of agricultural employment exceeded that in March 1944 by 380,000—a gain of 540,000 among women being partially offset by a decline of 160,000 among men.

The decline in nonagricultural employment during the month largely reflected inductions into the armed forces and the return to farms of men who had been employed in nonagricultural industry for the winter months. The level of nonagricultural employment in March 1945 was approximately the same as it was a year previous—the gain among women during the year being about equal to the loss among men (600,000). Between March 1944 and March 1945, however, the size of the armed forces increased by 1,200,000.

Civilian Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status and by Sex, February and March, 1941–45 [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]									
	1945		1944		1943		1942		1941	
	March	February	March	February	March	February	March	February	March	February
Total civilian labor force	51,660	51,430	51,360	51,150	52,290	52,540	53,460	53,210	51,950	52,200
Unemployment [3]	830	880	870	890	1,060	1,330	3,230	3,650	5,950	6,370
Employment	50,830	50,550	50,490	50,260	51,230	51,210	50,230	49,560	46,000	45,830
Nonagricultural	43,540	43,760	43,580	43,610	44,000	44,130	42,540	42,060	38,380	38,360
Agricultural	7,290	6,790	6,910	6,650	7,230	7,080	7,690	7,500	7,620	7,470
Males										
Civilian labor force	33,720	33,660	34,480	34,520	36,020	36,410	39,890	39,860	39,660	39,840
Unemployment [3]	490	490	470	510	610	770	2,320	2,680	4,540	4,790
Employment	33,230	33,170	34,010	34,010	35,410	35,640	37,570	37,180	35,120	35,050
Nonagricultural	27,060	27,270	27,680	27,880	28,910	29,240	30,400	30,140	27,760	27,850
Agricultural	6,170	5,900	6,330	6,130	6,500	6,400	7,170	7,040	7,360	7,200
Females										
Civilian labor force	17,940	17,770	16,880	16,630	16,270	16,130	13,570	13,350	12,290	12,360
Unemployment [3]	340	390	400	380	450	560	910	970	1,410	1,580
Employment	17,600	17,380	16,480	16,250	15,820	15,570	12,660	12,380	10,880	10,780
Nonagricultural	16,480	16,490	15,900	15,730	15,090	14,890	12,140	11,920	10,620	10,510
Agricultural	1,120	890	580	520	730	680	520	460	260	270

[1] Estimates for period prior to November 1943 revised April 24, 1944.
[2] All data exclude persons in institutions.
[3] Includes persons on public emergency projects prior to July 1943.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

May 1945

Agriculture

Fuller annual employment of farm labor. By Roy J. Smith. (In Journal of Farm Economics, Menasha, Wis., August 1944, pp. 514–528. $1.25.)

A study of what is described as one of the most difficult problems in agricultural employment, namely, the seasonality of crop labor requirements. The proposed method of dealing with the problem is the organized extension of employment periods through the cooperation of farm operators.

Replacement rates for rural-farm males aged 25-69 years, by counties, 1940–50. By Conrad Taeuber. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1944. 30 pp.; mimeographed.

Replacement rates are described as a means of showing how rapidly a population group is replacing itself. The study contains tables giving estimated replacement rates for the age group which includes most farm operators. The analysis has interest in connection with study of the rural sources of industrial labor.

Small farm and big farm. By Carey McWilliams. New York 20, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1945. 31 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 100.) 10 cents.

The thesis of this study is that small farmers in the United States are to a great extent unorganized and that most of the farm organizations are representative of industrial and other interests rather than the working farmer himself. The author advocates inclusion of agriculture under the social-security system, reorganization of the Extension Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, and the overhauling of the agricultural program to insure that "all groups engaged in agricultural production, including farm labor, have an opportunity to participate" in the formulation and operation of that program.

Wage stabilization in agriculture. By William T. Ham. (In Journal of Farm Economics, Menasha, Wis., February 1945, pp. 104–120. $1.25.)

The author states that the effects of the Stabilization Act of 1942 on farm labor have received little attention, and he therefore analyzes the wage-stabilization program in application to farm labor. The act itself and the regulations issued under it are described in some detail, and accounts are given of the nature and operations of State War Food Administration wage boards. There is a discussion of the difficulties of carrying out a wage-ceiling program in agriculture. It is stated that although the farm wage-stabilization program has had little effect in stabilizing farm wages, significant results have been achieved in limited areas, and the hope is expressed that the system of wartime wage boards and local advisory committees may prove to have been of assistance in working out methods of improving the unsatisfactory labor relations of the past.

Economic and Social Problems

America's role in the world economy. By Alvin H. Hansen. New York, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1945. 197 pp. $2.50.

It is held that the two basic requirements of an effective role by the United States in world economy, for attaining world prosperity and peace, are the achievement in the United States of full employment and the full cooperation of this

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

country in the formation of world economic organizations. There is a discussion of the International Labor Organization as an example of world economic organizations. One of the three main sections of the book deals with trade in relation to full employment.

Industry-Government cooperation: A study of the participation of advisory committees in public administration. By Carl Henry Monsees. Washington 8, Public Affairs Press (for American Council on Public Affairs), 1944. 78 pp. $1.

The study deals mainly with business representation, but contains references to joint labor-management representation, as in the U. S. War Manpower Commission. There is a chapter on the background and development of industry-Government cooperation, and one on the administrative significance of industry representation in Government agencies.

"A new era:" The Philadelphia conference and the future of the I. L. O. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1944. 145 pp. $1. (Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

Pioneers in world order: An American appraisal of the League of Nations. Edited by Harriet Eager Davis. New York, Columbia University Press, 1944. 272 pp. $2.75.

A symposium, including sections on the International Labor Organization, international civil service, international health work, social problems, and the standardization of world statistics. The work of the League of Nations is viewed as pioneer, upon the basis of which future international cooperation can be built.

Education and Training

Guidance and personnel services in education. By Anna Y. Reed. Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1944. 496 pp., bibliographies. $4.75.

Traces the origin and evolution of the vocational-guidance movement, and gives information on agencies promoting vocational guidance and on various subjects connected with counseling activities. One section is on guidance services for older persons.

Vocational-technical training for industrial occupations. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1944. xxii, 306 pp., bibliography, charts. (Vocational division bull. No. 228; Vocational-technical training series, No. 1.) 40 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Forms of training covered include full-time preemployment programs, supplementary training in evening and other part-time classes, cooperative part-time programs, on-the-job training, and home study courses. In a chapter on the nature of industry's need for vocational-technical training, occupations requiring such training are listed for each of 22 major industry groups.

Training programs in the nonferrous metal mining industry. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Training, Apprentice-Training Service, 1944. 62 pp.; processed. (Technical bull. No. T–118.)

Apprenticeship program of the Canadian National Railways. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Training, Apprentice-Training Service, 1944. 16 pp., illus.

The organization and integration of apprentice training in 10 railroad trades are described.

Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Apprenticeship and Related Matters, [New Zealand]. Wellington, 1945. 20 pp.

Describes the background of the commission and the present apprenticeship system in New Zealand, presents recommendations for improvement of the system, and gives statistics of the number of apprentices employed in skilled trades from 1928 to 1944.

Adult education in the Soviet Union. By N. A. Zinevich. (In Bulletin of the World Association for Adult Education, second series, No. XXXIX, London, November 1944, pp. 21–26. 1s.)

Discusses State measures to end illiteracy and to promote general education of workers in industry.

Employment and Unemployment (General)

Full employment: I, A British plan—what Beveridge proposes. By Maxwell S. Stewart. *II, American bill—from patchwork to purpose.* By Leon H. Keyserling. (In Survey Graphic, New York 3, March 1945, pp. 93–98 et seq. 30 cents.)

A summary of Sir William Beveridge's book, "Full employment in a free society," and a study of the full employment bill introduced in the United States Senate in January 1945 by Senator Murray.

*Legislation for reconversion and full employment: Year-end report of the War Contracts Subcommittee to the Committee on Military Affairs, [U. S. Senate], pursuant to S. Res. 198, * * *.* Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 23 pp.

The report summarizes the subcommittee's activities during the 78th Congress and presents recommendations on industrial demobilization and on the need for additional legislation to assure full employment.

The price of full employment. By B. Seebohm Rowntree. London, S. W. 1, Liberal Publication Department, 1944. 12 pp. 3d.

Describes the responsibilities that government must assume, the cooperation that must exist between employers and employees, and the necessary increase in efficiency to attain full employment.

The proposed full employment act. By Charles I. Gragg and Stanley F. Teele. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XXIII, No. 3, New York 18, spring 1945, pp. 323–337. $1.50.)

Analysis of the bill (S. 380) introduced in the United States Senate on January 22, 1945, by Senator Murray, chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor, to establish a national policy and program for assuring continuing full employment. The text of the bill is reproduced.

Steadier jobs. By Eric A. Johnston. Washington 6, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1944. 13 pp.

Employment opportunities for Diesel-engine mechanics. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 10 pp. (Bull. No. 813; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1945.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Unemployment in wartime Britain. By Beatrice G. Reubens. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., February 1945, pp. 206–236. $1.25.)

Traces the trend in unemployment and evaluates the wartime record in its relation to postwar means of controlling the labor market.

Employment and Readjustment of Veterans

Employment of veterans. Washington 6, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Department of Manufacture, 1945. 35 pp.

Summary of salient features of company policies with respect to employment of veterans.

Post-war jobs for veterans. Edited by Paul Webbink. (In The Annals, American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 238, Philadelphia 4, March 1945, pp. 1–187. To nonmembers, $2 in paper, $2.50 in cloth.)

Symposium of articles dealing with the human side of demobilization. The articles take up the dimensions of the problem, Government measures to assist the veteran, special problems in the reabsorption of veterans, and the need for a positive policy.

Reemployment and readjustment rights of veterans. By Charles R. Jonas. (In North Carolina Law Review, Chapel Hill, February 1945, pp. 107–128.)

Discussion of the veteran's reemployment rights under the Selective Service Act, and his readjustment rights under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, popularly known as the "GI Bill of Rights."

Reemployment of ex-servicemen in the iron and steel industry. New York 1, American Iron and Steel Institute, 1944. 163 pp., charts, forms.

Calls attention to problems which may be involved in the reemployment of ex-servicemen, and presents selected material which may point the way to possible solution of some of these problems, together with information concerning effects of the draft on employment.

Soldier to civilian—problems of readjustment. By George K. Pratt, M.D. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1944. 233 pp. $2.50.

Considers some of the problems the returning veteran faces in adjusting himself to family and community life.

Veterans. (In Building America, New York 19, January 1945, pp. 98–127; bibliography. 30 cents.)

Describes the transition of the veteran from soldier to civilian after each major war in which the United States has engaged, and the present preparation for that process after World War II.

Veterans' information program. Washington 25, U. S. Office of War Information and the Retraining and Reemployment Administration, 1945. vi, 18 pp.

Designed to create understanding on questions relating to veterans' rights and benefits and their readjustment to civilian pursuits.

When the veteran returns—a reemployment digest. Hartford, Conn., Manufacturers Association of Connecticut, Inc., 1944. 56 pp. 3d ed.

Suggests policies and procedures to be used by management in planning the reemployment of men and women from the armed forces, and gives permanent-reference background material.

Industrial Hygiene

Industrial medicine. Edited by Sir Humphry Rolleston and Alan A. Moncrieff. London, Eyre & Spottiswoode, Ltd., 1944. 202 pp., illus. 16s.

Deals with industrial diseases, industrial hygiene, and related subjects, including British legislation for protection of the health of factory workers. Rehabilitation is touched upon in a chapter on the treatment of injured workers.

Industrial solvents—health hazards and prevention. By May R. Mayers, M. D. (In Industrial Bulletin and Employment Review, New York State Department of Labor, Albany 1, November–December 1944, pp. 346–350. 10 cents.)

The national industrial eye health program and its relation to vocational rehabilitation. By Jack Masur, M.D. (In Sight-Saving Review, Vol. XIX, No. 3, New York 19, winter 1944, pp. 151–160. 50 cents.)

Describes the activities of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness (New York) in stimulating the extension of sight-saving programs in industry, and presents an outline of a complete program, which includes job analyses for visual requirements in the plant and placement of employees accordingly, taking into account the needs of the visually handicapped.

Las enfermedades profesionales. By Exequiel Figueroa Araya. Santiago, Chile, Imp. y Lito, "Leblanc," 1943. 255 pp., bibliography.

Study of Chilean legislation on compensation for occupational diseases, enacted through June 17, 1941, with an introduction giving an account of medical investigations of occupational diseases from ancient times to the present.

Medicina do trabalho (clinica de doenças profissionais). By Décio Parreiras and others. Rio de Janeiro, Editora Henrique Velho, December 1943. 144 pp.

A course of lectures on industrial medicine, said to be the first such course in Brazil. Topics covered include diseases due to toxic substances and those caused by heat, cold, humidity, etc.; organic occupational diseases; prevention of industrial accidents and diseases; and safety and health legislation in force in Brazil.

Report of the Miners' Phthisis Acts Commission, [Union of South Africa], 1941–43. Pretoria, 1943. 57 pp. 4s. 6d.

Industrial Relations

Administering the union agreement. By Benjamin M. Selekman. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XXIII, No. 3, New York 18, spring 1945, pp. 299–313. $1.50.)

A discussion of techniques for securing more effective observance of labor-management agreements.

Dismissal pay provisions in union agreements, December 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 14 pp. (Bull. No. 808; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1945, with additional data.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Management and men: A study of the theory and practice of joint consultation at all levels. By G. S. Walpole. London, Jonathan Cape, 1944. 200 pp. 7s. 6d.

Management at the bargaining table. By Lee H. Hill and Charles R. Hook, Jr. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945. 300 pp., bibliography. $3.

Analysis of the content of the collective-bargaining agreement and a discussion of the techniques involved in the collective-bargaining process, "frankly presented from management's point of view" and "designed to assist management in safeguarding its rights so that those rights may be used to make collective bargaining work as an instrument toward better employer-employee relations."

Practical techniques of collective bargaining. New York 18, American Management Association, 1944. 48 pp. (Personnel series No. 86.)

Contains panel discussions at an industrial relations conference held by the American Management Association in September 1944. The panel was devoted to specific clauses of union contracts currently or recently in force, and was designed to illustrate principles which could be utilized in all collective bargaining. Other subjects dealt with in the pamphlet include wartime labor relations, management before the National War Labor Board, wage controls, and wage outlook.

The case of the American coal miner. Washington 4, Labor's Nonpartisan League, 1945. 19 pp.

States the position of coal-mine labor in relation to the negotiation of an agreement with the mine operators in the spring of 1945.

Labor-management relations in cooperative food-processing plants. By Harry C. Hensley and Anne L. Gessner. Kansas City 8, Mo., U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1944. 49 pp. (Cooperative Research and Service Division, miscellaneous report No. 78.)

Covers use of collective bargaining in labor-management relations (growth and extent, types of union recognition, and settlement of grievances), functions of each of the Government agencies concerned with such relations, collective bargaining in the food industry, etc. An appendix lists the regional offices of the Government agencies mentioned above.

Typical labor contract provisions prevailing in the plastics industry. New York 17, Society of the Plastics Industry, Inc., 1944. 68 pp.

The [U. S.] National War Labor Board policies and decisions, 1942–45. (In N. A. M. Law Digest, National Association of Manufacturers, Washington 5, March 1945, pp. 33–56.)

An examination of the National War Labor Board with respect to organization, jurisdiction, procedure, policies in dispute cases, wage and salary stabilization policies, and compliance with the Board's orders.

Union recognition and collective bargaining. By Dora Laskin. (In Public Affairs, Vol. 8, No. 1, Halifax, Nova Scotia, fall 1944, pp. 48–54. 30 cents.)

Describes the historical development and present-day status of governmental regulation of collective bargaining in Canada.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

Organized labor. By Harry A. Millis and Royal E. Montgomery. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945. 930 pp. $3.75.

Third volume in a series of three dealing with the economics of labor, by the same authors. About half of the book is devoted to a review of American trade-union history, and an exposition of union structure, institutions, policies, and practices. The remaining chapters discuss legislation relating to trade unions; settlement of industrial disputes; and employee-representation plans.

Bread upon the waters. By Rose Pesotta. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1944. 435 pp. $3.

A veteran union organizer recounts in this book her experiences, from 1933 to Pearl Harbor, in various trade-union organizing campaigns in the mass-production industries, including the automobile and steel industries.

Directory of labor organizations in the Territory of Hawaii, revised March 1, 1945. Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1945. 12 pp.; mimeographed. (No. 6.)

Forty-third annual directory of labor organizations in Massachusetts, 1944 (with statistics of membership, 1940–44). Boston, Department of Labor and Industries, [1944?]. 120 pp. (Labor bull. No. 190; Public doc. No. 15.)

Twenty-fifth biennial report of the [New Hampshire] Bureau of Labor, for the fiscal periods ending June 30, 1944 [July 1, 1942, to June 30, 1944.] Concord, [1945?]. 87 pp.

Includes a directory of central and local unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, Congress of Industrial Organizations, and Railroad Brotherhoods, and of unaffiliated unions, in the State.

Police unions and other police organizations. Washington 4, International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1944. 30 pp. (Bull. No. 4.) 50 cents.

Medical Care and Sickness Insurance

Annual report of the United States Public Health Service for the fiscal year 1944. Washington 25, 1944. xvi, 120 pp. (Section 4 of annual report of Federal Security Agency.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

On the basis of material gathered during the last two years, the Surgeon General outlines broad objectives in a national health program: (1) A sanitary environment for everyone; (2) a hospital system adequate for the provision of complete medical services for all; (3) expanded public-health services in every part of the country; (4) augmented research in the health and medical sciences; (5) adequate numbers of trained health and medical personnel; (6) a national medical-care program. Senate bill 191, introduced in January 1945, incorporates provisions for the construction of hospitals and health centers. Meanwhile, the Public Health Service is making a study of nonprofit hospital-insurance plans for the purpose of appraising the usefulness of existing methods for distributing medical and hospital care, as well as other studies bearing on the above program.

Nation's health. By C. H. Woodring. Washington 5 (1013 Thirteenth Street NW.), Editorial Research Reports, 1945. 17 pp. (Vol. I, 1945, No. 10.) $1.

Discusses the state of the Nation's health and measures enacted and proposed for its betterment. Seven bills dealing with specific health problems have been introduced in the 79th Congress. One of these measures, known as the Wagner-Murray-Dingell bill (H. R. 395), provides for medical-care and disability insurance as an extension of the Social Security Act; another, the Hill-Burton bill (S. 191, amending the Public Health Service Act), provides for the construction of hospitals and other health facilities.

Wartime health and education. Interim report from the Subcommittee on Wartime Health and Education to the Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate, pursuant to S. Res. 74 * * *. Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 22 pp. (Subcommittee report No. 3, 78th Cong., 2d sess.)

Considers the Nation's health, including that of selective-service rejectees, and existing facilities for medical care, especially in rural areas. Advocates complete medical care for the whole population but points out that the fee-for-service method of payment is not adaptable to this end. Recommendations include Federal aid in the following fields: Building hospitals and other health centers; providing milk pasteurization plants and sewerage, water, and other facilities; increased grants to State health departments; and grants to the States for medical care of all recipients of public assistance.

State enabling legislation for nonprofit hospital and medical plans, 1944. By Odin W. Anderson. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, School of Public Health, 1944. 56 pp., bibliography, map. (Public health economics, Research series No. 1.)

Analysis of State laws (most of them passed since enactment of the Federal Social Security Act) governing the organization and operation of nonprofit hospital and medical-service plans, as well as of laws proposed and rejected, and their implications for an extension of voluntary vs. compulsory health insurance.

Survey of medical care in a war industry area. By Malcolm H. Merrill, M.D., and Martin Mills, M.D. (In Journal of the American Medical Association, Chicago 10, December 2, 1944, pp. 887–892. 25 cents.)

Based on a survey made by the California State Department of Health of the medical care available to an estimated 140,000 population in an area comprising three cities (Richmond, El Cerrito, San Pablo) in Contra Costa County, Calif. The article shows the ratio of physicians to population, volume of services rendered, adequacy of hospital facilities, and other pertinent data. A comparison is made of the medical care available to the general population of the region with that received through the prepayment medical-care plan of the Permanente Foundation.

Medical care in the counties of Maryland: Report of the Committee on Medical Care of the Maryland State Planning Commission. Baltimore, Maryland State Planning Commission, 1944. 80 pp., maps. (Publication No. 40.) 50 cents.

Report on existing medical-care and hospital facilities, with recommendations. Basic considerations in a State medical-care program for Maryland are analyzed under the following heads: Number of beneficiaries, frequency of illness and volume of medical care, character of medical services needed, and costs of operation. In its approach to the problem the committee studied certain population characteristics, and the report includes data on distribution and economic status of the population of the State.

Report on sickness benefits by the State Advisory Council of the Division of Employment Security, [Massachusetts]. Boston, 1944. 76 pp., charts. (Senate No. 10.)

A report on the desirability of establishing a State system of sickness benefits for the workers of Massachusetts, in connection with the employment-security law. It discusses recent legislative trends in health insurance on national and State levels, and the feasibility of joint administration of unemployment compensation and sickness benefits in Massachusetts. Also gives the results of a survey of the extent of existing voluntary protection of Massachusetts workers against sickness in establishments coming under the employment-security law.

The dental profession in Canada and health insurance. Toronto, Canadian Dental Association, 1944. 29 pp.

Summary of presentations to Canadian Government authorities and of other preparations of the Canadian Dental Association with reference to dental participation in any national health or social-security plan that may be adopted, including a set of principles for dental health services.

National health insurance—a critical study. By Hermann Levy. Cambridge, England, University Press, 1944. 366 pp., bibliography. (National Institute of Economic and Social Research, Economic and social studies, IV.) 18s.

Analysis of the British national health-insurance system. Recommendations are made for extensive reform with respect to administration.

Selected bibliography on medical economics. By Helen Hollingsworth and Margaret C. Klem. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, November 1944. 33 pp.; mimeographed. (Bureau memorandum No. 60.)

Includes sections on medical facilities, expenditures for medical care, health insurance and prepayment hospital and medical-care, and industrial medical care, in the United States, and health insurance in foreign countries.

Negro in Industry

The employment of Negroes in United States war industries. By Robert C. Weaver. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, August 1944, pp. 141–159. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of the I. L. O.)

War and postwar trends in employment of Negroes. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 1723; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1945.) Free.

Wartime changes in the occupational status of Negro workers. By Julius A. Thomas. (In Occupations, the Vocational Guidance Journal, New York 27, April 1945, pp. 402–405. 50 cents.)

The author points out that at no other period in the history of the United States have Negroes enjoyed such a favorable labor market. In this connection he raises many vital questions.

The United States Employment Service and the Negro work applicant—instructor's guide. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Placement, 1944. 30 pp.; mimeographed. (Employment Office training program, Unit 10, A–B.)

The Negro population of North Carolina, social and economic. By John R. Larkins. Raleigh, North Carolina State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, [1944?]. 79 pp., charts. (Special bull. No. 23.)

Contains data on the labor force, rents, size of families, education, health, and various other subjects.

Personnel Management

Basics of supervision, with special emphasis on safe and efficient production. By H. W. Heinrich. New York, Alfred M. Best Co., Inc., 1944. 180 pp. $3.

A manual designed for use by foremen.

Counseling in personnel work, 1940–44—a bibliography. Compiled by Paul S. Burnham. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1944. 38 pp. (Publication No. 89.) $1.

The foreman's basic reading kit: The best management literature published by the American Management Association for foremen and supervisors. New York 18, American Management Association, 1944. 213 pp.

Reproductions of articles on various phases of the management problem.

The industrial supervisor: A training guide for improvement of skill and leadership. By John M. Amiss and Traver C. Sutton. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1944. 243 pp. $3.

Select list of references on employment management. (In Labor Gazette, Department of Labor of Canada, Ottawa, February 1945, pp. 242–246.)

Prices

Retail prices of food, [United States], 1942 and 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 43 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 799.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Prices and price indexes, [Canada], 1913–43: Wholesale prices, cost of living, security prices. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1945. 87 pp., charts. 25 cents.

Housewives' guide: Food prices and food rationing [in New Zealand]. Wellington, Economic Information Service, August 1944. 32 pp.

This pamphlet is intended to guide housewives in ascertaining their rights and obligations under price control and rationing in New Zealand. Price ceilings are listed by commodities.

Social Security (General)

Social security legislation in a changing world. By Ewan Clague, director, Bureau of Employment Security, U. S. Social Security Board. (In Conference Bulletin, California Conference of Social Welfare, San Francisco 8, February 1945, pp. 27–31. 25 cents.)

The subject is treated under three main heads: Wartime prosperity; Post-war readjustment; Present developments and future prospects in social-security legislation.

Social security for farmers. By Arthur J. Altmeyer. (In Land Policy Review, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington 25, spring 1945, pp. 3–8. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.)

The chairman of the U. S. Social Security Board describes the social-security system as it now operates and proposed changes for the inclusion of farmers and hired farm workers. He states that the Board has estimated that the cost of protection for farmers themselves against old age, premature death, permanent disability, and temporary disability, and the cost of adequate medical and hospital care, would not exceed 7 percent of farmers' annual incomes, and that this cost would be largely offset by reduced expenditures for medical care and hospitalization and by reduced taxes for local relief of all kinds.

Foreign experience in social-insurance contributions for agricultural and domestic workers. By Wilbur J. Cohen. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington 25, February 1945, pp. 5–10. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.)

Describes various methods used in collecting contributions and recording wage data for agricultural and domestic workers in certain European and Latin-American social-insurance systems. (The U. S. Social Security Board has recommended that agricultural and domestic workers be included under the Federal Social Security Act.)

Problemas atuais de seguro social. By Rudolf Aladár Métall. Rio de Janeiro, A. Coelho Branco F, 1944. 336 pp.

General treatment of social insurance, illustrated by the experience of various countries of the world. One chapter is devoted to maternity insurance and one to sickness insurance, in Latin America.

Manual of national security legislation, [Australia], as in force on August 1, 1944. Canberra, Commonwealth Government Printer, [1944]. 2 vols., 1533 pp.

Texts of the National Security Act, Women's Employment Act, Black Marketing Act, and regulations, orders, etc., under these acts, with a detailed index.

Final report of Select Special Committee on Social Security and Health Services, [Legislative Assembly, Saskatchewan], 1944. Regina, 1944. 48 pp.

Includes recommendations for improvement of health and social services in Saskatchewan; discussion of proposed Dominion scheme and the question of Dominion-Provincial jurisdiction in the field; and a list of social-welfare legislation in Saskatchewan.

Unemployment Insurance and Relief

Compensating transitional unemployment. By Clarence H. Danhof. (In Survey of Current Business, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington 25, December 1944, pp. 12–17; charts. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.)

Analysis of State unemployment-compensation systems as to coverage, position of funds, and recent trends in benefits. The author suggests that benefits be liberalized now against unemployment and decrease of purchasing power in the postwar reconversion period.

Providing for unemployed workers in the transition. By Richard A. Lester. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1945. 152 pp. (Committee for Economic Development research study.) $1.50.

Estimates are made of the probable amount and duration of unemployment during the transitional period. The recommendations emphasize the role of private industry, but include changes in unemployment compensation and the development of a public-works program. Estimates are given as to the probable cost of the recommendations if carried into effect. The study is a research staff report, not a statement of policy by the Committee for Economic Development.

Unemployment compensation in the postwar period: Suggestions for expanding and perfecting State unemployment-compensation systems, and a digest of State and Federal provisions. Chicago 37, Council of State Governments, 1944. 77 pp. (BX–246.) $1.

Third report of the Unemployment Insurance Commissioner, [Canada], for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1944. Ottawa, 1944. 33 pp.

Gives a history of Canadian unemployment-insurance legislation, descriptions of administrative machinery and of activities of the employment service, and statistics of operation of the unemployment-insurance system during the year ended March 31, 1944.

Wages and Salaries

Trends in urban wage rates, April-October 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 8 pp. (Bull. No. 809; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1945.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Wages in petroleum drilling and production in the Southwest, April 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 14 pp. (Bull. No. 810; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1945.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Wartime wages and railroad labor: A report on the 1942–43 wage movement of the transportation brotherhoods. By A. F. Whitney. Cleveland, Ohio, Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, 1944. 228 pp.

Wages in the rayon industry, May 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 17 pp. (Bull. No. 806; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, December 1944.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Union wage rates of city streetcar and bus operators, July 1, 1944. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 10 pp., chart. (Bull No. 814; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1945.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

1945 New York City manual of clerical salary rates and practices, including annual clerical salary survey, 1944. New York 7, Commerce and Industry Association of New York, Inc., Industrial Relations Bureau, 1945. 44 pp., charts.

Current salary quotations for child welfare positions. By Ralph G. Hurlin. (In Child Welfare League of America Bulletin, New York 10, January 1945, pp. 4–7; reprints of article are available from Department of Statistics, Russell Sage Foundation, New York 10.)

New York social work salaries. By Ralph G. Hurlin. (In Better Times, New York 10, February 2, 1945, pp. 10–12. Reprints of the article are available at 10 cents each from Department of Statistics, Russell Sage Foundation, New York 10.)

Salaries in personnel departments of plants with over 1,000 workers. (In Industrial Relations, Chicago, October 1944, pp. 13, 14.)

General Reports

Yearbook of American labor: Volume I, War labor policies. By Colston E. Warne and others. New York, Philosophical Library, 1945. 655 pp., charts. $7. 50.

This first volume in a series of labor yearbooks is divided into seven major sections dealing with (1) the current status of labor, (2) labor in relation to Government policy, (3) organized labor in six key industries, (4) special labor groups, (5) labor views on wartime union policies, (6) international relations of American labor, and (7) a balance sheet of labor in 1944. Appendixes include a summary of labor events and a roster of labor unions.

Basic data on the other American republics. Washington 25, U. S. Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, [1944?]. 172 pp. 30 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Includes information for each of the 20 Latin American Republics concerning level of living and labor matters, relating, for most of the Republics, to cost of living, labor organizations, and labor legislation.

"I lived with Latin Americans." By John L. Strohm. Danville, Ill., The Interstate, 1943. 377 pp., illus.

Account of travel by a United States journalist in each of the 20 Latin American Republics, giving interesting details on conditions affecting labor in the various countries.

To assist in relieving economic distress in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. Hearings, October 1943, before the Committee on Insular Affairs, House of Representatives, 78th Congress, 1st session, on S. 981 * * *, Part 2, with appendix. Washington 25, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 184 pp.

A report prepared by an official of the Federal Works Agency, included as an appendix to this volume of hearings, gives data on economic and social conditions in Puerto Rico; employment and expenditures on projects, in Puerto Rico and

the Virgin Islands, of the Federal Work Projects Administration and other Federal agencies for various periods ending in 1943; and the results of an unemployment survey made in Puerto Rico by the Federal Works Agency in July and August 1943.

Labor conditions in China. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 23 pp. (Serial No. R. 1727; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1945.) Free.

Labor conditions in Germany. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 27 pp. (Serial No. R. 1735; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, March 1945.) Free.

New Zealand official yearbook, 1944. Wellington, Census and Statistics Department, 1944. 744 pp., map. 7s. 6d.

Contains data on wage rates and hours of labor, labor laws and allied legislation, trade-unions, employment and unemployment, industrial disputes, industrial accidents, factory production, prices, and consumption of food and other commodities, in different years down to 1944 (prices and legislation for 1944 only).

Social progress in New Zealand. By Walter Nash. London, Labor Party, 1944. 19 pp. 2d.

Presents information on social-security benefits in New Zealand, provisions for the rehabilitation of ex-servicemen, housing plans, and other specified achievements of the New Zealand Labor Government.

Statistical abstract of Palestine, 1943. Jerusalem, Department of Statistics, 1944. 189 pp. (No. 11.) 500 mils, or 10s. net.

Covers a broad range including population, price, and labor statistics, the latter dealing with employment, wages and hours of labor, industrial accidents, and industrial disputes. The data on wages are brought down to September 1943 but statistics on the other labor topics are for 1942 and earlier years.

Meet the Soviet Russians: A study guide to the Soviet Union for teachers in secondary schools. By Dora A. Ames and others. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, 1944. 89 pp., bibliography, map, charts. (Harvard workshop series, No. 6.) 75 cents.

An extensive annotated bibliography and a directory of various agencies capable of furnishing information about the U. S. S. R. are included.

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