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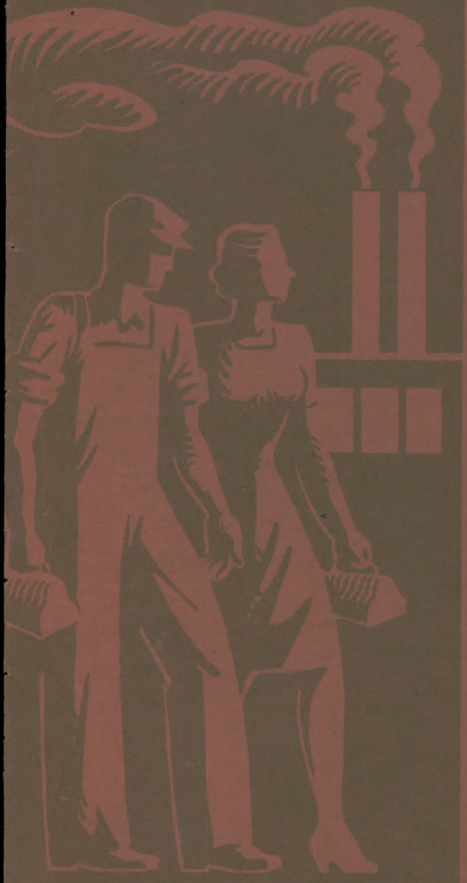

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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This Issue in Brief

Expenditures and savings of city families in 1944

In 1944, it took an income of $1,950 after payment of taxes for the typical city family of 2 or more persons to "break even." Such families, averaging 3 persons in size, lived very modestly, spending barely 22 cents per meal per person, $30 per month for housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration. To buy war bonds and pay on life insurance, they went into debt or drew on previous savings. A fourth of these families depended on more than one earner. For one person to provide an income of $1,950 after taxes, or a total of $2,070, steady work was required, 40 hours a week for 50 weeks, at $1.03½ per hour. Almost a fourth of all city families of two or more received net incomes below $1,950. Thus, although family incomes reached their highest level in history in 1944, this did not mean sizable incomes for all. Savings, including war bonds, averged 10 percent of income only for families receiving $3,000 or more after taxes. Page 1.

Employment situation in foreign countries

Four months after VJ-day, unemployment was lower than might have been anticipated in foreign countries. Germany, Italy, and Japan were notable exceptions, owing to the disorganization resulting from defeat and the ravages of war. However, low unemployment does not imply that wartime employment levels were being maintained, as an indeterminate proportion of war workers withdrew from the labor market and some discharged veterans and civilians were not seeking work. Of those released from imprisonment or forced labor, some were temporarily incapacitated for seeking work. Wartime manpower controls tended to be relaxed more rapidly in countries that did not suffer physical damage than in those that were bombed and invaded and those in which it was considered e xpedient to delay the return of men in the armed forces to civilian life. The employment situation in five United Nations and two neutral countries is described on page 6.

Labor unionism in American agriculture

Hired farm workers in the United States have participated in hundreds of strikes during the past five or six decades. As the family farm has given way before large-scale farming and the insecurity of the workers has increased, the consequent labor unrest has manifested itself in organized protest. The cases of unrest among these workers and possible remedies are discussed in the article on page 25.

Labor-Management Conference on Industrial Relations

The Labor-Management Conference which met, at the call of President Truman, in November 1945 reached unanimous agreement regarding collective agreements and the U. S. Conciliation Service. It also passed resolutions urging "tolerance and equality of economic opportunity" regardless of race, sex, religion, national origin, etc., and favoring the formation of an informal committee to continue the work of the conference. No unanimity could be attained on the subjects of collective bargaining in general, management's right to manage, and representation and jurisdictional questions; on these, reports were submitted by the labor and management groups separately. Page 37.

Results of ILO Conference of 1945

The ILO Conference of 1945 adopted an amendment to its Constitution that (if ratified by the member nations) will permit affiliation with the United Nations Organization, suggested measures for the maintenance of a high level of employment in countries in various stages of industrial development, and adopted reports setting forth recommended measures for the welfare of children and young workers. Page 44.

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Machinery for World Federation of Trade Unions

The machinery for a new World Federation of Trade Unions was created in Paris in September at a meeting at which delegates from 65 national labor organizations were present. The activities of the new body are to be carried out through a biennial congress of member organizations, a general council, an executive committee, and an executive bureau. This machinery and the actions and problems of the conference which created it are discussed on page 47.

State workmen's compensation legislation in 1945

Action in the field of workmen's compensation was taken by 37 of the 44 State legislatures which met in regular session in 1945. Second-injury funds were established in 13 States, 4 States enacted occupational-disease laws, 19 States increased the compensation benefits, and 2 States reorganized the agency administering the workmen's compensation law. Other States amended existing legislation on the above points. Page 61.

Canadian conference on social insurance and taxes

Representatives of the Dominion and Provincial Governments in Canada held meetings in August to explore the possibilities of increased cooperation for achieving full employment, high national income, and greater social security. The Dominion proposed that the Provinces should relinquish the rights to tax incomes, estates, and corporations and that the Dominion Government would, in return, take increased responsibility for social-security payments. In addition, minimum payment in annual subsidies to the Provinces would be not less than $12 per capita annually, based on population in 1941. Page 67.

Wartime labor force of St. Paul propeller plant

The wartime labor force at an aircraft-propeller plant in St. Paul consisted in large part of prewar farmers, white-collar workers, housewives, businessmen, and professionals. Some of the workers had come to St. Paul from over 500 miles away. Most of them had held several jobs during the war, but few had been formally trained for the jobs they filled. Generally, their wartime occupational and industrial shifts had brought improved earnings, but as a result of increased living costs and deductions for taxes and war bonds, their spendable weekly earnings at the propeller plant were equivalent, on the average, to less than $40 in terms of January 1941 purchasing power. After the war relatively few intended to remain in manufacturing industry, and a large proportion of the women workers expected to withdraw from the labor market. Page 93.

Union wages and hours of motortruck drivers, 1945

Wage rates of union motortruck drivers in 75 principal cities averaged $1.007 per hour on July 1, 1945—a 2.1-percent increase over July 1, 1944; drivers' helpers averaged 84.6 cents—a 2.4-percent advance. For union truck drivers, the straight-time workweek averaged 45.9 hours, and for the helpers, 45.4 hours. Page 104.

Union rates of city streetcar and bus operators, 1945

In the year ending July 1, 1945, the wage rates of union streetcar and bus operators increased 1.1 percent to an average of 94.4 cents per hour. Bonus plans in some cities resulted in additional raises of from 2 to 7 cents per hour. Page 112.

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Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit or base period	1945			1944	1939: Average for year
		November	October	September	November	
Employment and unemployment						
Civilian labor force (BC): Total	Thousands	53,440	53,110	52,900	[2] 52,210	[3] 54,230
Male	do	35,280	34,590	34,250	[2] 34,060	[3] 40,950
Female	do	18,160	18,520	18,650	[2] 18,150	[3] 13,280
Employed [4]	do	51,730	51,560	51,250	[2] 51,530	[3] 46,930
Male	do	34,100	33,660	33,320	[2] 33,710	[3] 35,600
Female	do	17,630	17,900	17,930	[2] 17,820	[3] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	43,310	42,770	42,450	[2] 43,390	[3] 37,430
Agricultural	do	8,420	8,790	8,800	[2] 8,140	[3] 9,500
Unemployed	do	1,710	1,550	1,650	[2] 680	[3] 7,300
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total.[4]	do	35,620	35,207	35,334	38,347	30,353
Manufacturing	do	12,015	11,974	12,097	15,607	10,078
Mining	do	794	718	784	812	845
Construction [5]	do	993	990	945	629	1,753
Transportation and public utilities.	do	3,828	3,792	3,834	3,771	2,912
Trade	do	7,560	7,334	7,138	7,299	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.	do	4,863	4,698	4,603	4,315	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction.	do	5,567	5,701	5,933	5,914	3,988
Military personnel	do	10,100	11,500	12,100	11,900	362
Production-worker employment: [6]						
Manufacturing	do	10,017	9,957	10,040	13,350	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	327	262	325	340	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC).	do	1,406	1,397	1,414	1,408	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	2,569	2,494	2,813	2,522	[7] 2,595
Hours and earnings						
Average weekly hours:						
Manufacturing	Hours	----------	41.6	41.4	[8] 45.5	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do	----------	33.0	42.3	[8] 44.1	27.1
Retail trade	do	----------	40.4	40.7	[8] 39.4	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	37.6	38.7	38.2	39.7	32.4
Average weekly earnings:						
Manufacturing		----------	$41.02	$40.88	[8] $46.94	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining		----------	$39.98	$52.73	[8] $52.34	$23.88
Retail trade		----------	$29.17	$28.95	[8] $26.20	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$52.54	$54.05	$53.11	$53.54	$30.24
Average hourly earnings:						
Manufacturing		----------	$0.985	$0.987	[8] $1.031	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining		----------	$1.242	$1.261	[8] $1.191	$0.886
Retail trade		----------	$0.792	$0.780	[8] $0.736	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.399	$1.396	$1.392	$1.349	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry.		----------	----------	----------	[8] $0.956	$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1941.		----------	----------	----------	[8] $0.908	$0.640
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE).		----------	$4.39	----------	[8] $4.08	[8] $1.57
Industrial injuries and labor turn-over						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing, per million man-hours worked.		----------	----------	18.3	[9] 18.2	15.4
Labor turn-over per 100 employees in manufacturing:						
Total separations		7.1	8.6	12.0	6.0	[7] 3.0
Quits		4.6	5.6	6.7	4.6	[7] 0.8
Lay-offs		1.8	2.3	4.5	0.5	[7] 2.0
Total accessions		8.5	8.6	7.4	6.1	[7] 4.1
Strikes and lock-outs						
Strikes and lock-outs beginning in month:						
Number		335	455	550	345	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	405	560	455	201	98
All strikes and lock-outs during month:						
Number of man-days idle	do	6,100	7,800	3,650	789	1,484
Man-days idle as percent of available working time.		1.06	1.27	0.61	0.11	0.28

See footnotes at end of table.

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

Item	Unit or base period	1945			1944	1939: Average for year
		November	October	September	November	
Prices						
Consumers' price index (moderate income families in large cities: All items [10].	1935–39=100	129.2	128.9	128.9	126.6	99.4
Foods	1935–39=100	140.1	139.3	139.4	136.5	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	148.4	148.3	148.2	142.1	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100			108.3		104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	110.5	110.6	110.7	109.9	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	147.1	146.6	146.8	141.7	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	124.4	124.5	124.6	122.9	100.7
Retail food price index (large cities): All foods.	1935–39=100	140.1	139.3	139.4	136.5	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	109.1	109.1	109.1	108.6	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	131.0	131.0	131.6	129.7	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	135.9	133.3	133.4	133.6	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	192.1	185.5	183.9	186.7	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	172.3	172.5	172.5	160.7	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	124.9	124.7	124.7	124.3	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	124.4	124.0	124.1	123.2	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	126.5	126.5	126.5	126.5	100.6
Wholesale price index: All commodities.	1926=100	106.8	105.9	105.2	104.4	77.1
All commodities other than farm products.	1926=100	101.3	101.0	100.9	99.9	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods.	1926=100	100.2	100.1	99.8	98.8	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	131.1	127.3	124.3	124.4	65.3
Foods	1926=100	107.9	105.7	104.9	105.1	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments (BFDC)	Millions	$13,046	$13,531	$13,424	$13,253	[7] $5,949
Consumer expenditures for goods and services (BFDC).	do			[11] $25,335	[11] $24,499	[11] $15,350
Retail sales (BFDC)	do	$7,026	$6,936	$6,202	$6,236	[7] $3,670
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total.	1935–39=100	171	165	174	232	109
Manufactures	1935–39=100	177	174	181	248	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	134	121	136	140	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons.	50,720	38,580	46,890	50,819	32,905
Carloadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	136	128	137	144	101
Electric energy (FPC): Total	Millions of kw.-hours.	21,194	21,469	20,178	23,225	[12]
Utilities (production for public use).	do	17,369	17,671	17,008	18,947	11,433
Industrial establishments	do	3,825	3,798	3,710	4,278	[12]
Construction						
Construction expenditures	Millions	$608	$602	$556	$374	[7] $575
Value of urban building construction started.	do	$260	$267	$192	$92	[12]
New nonfarm family-dwelling units		31,300	29,800	21,500	11,600	[7] 45,100

[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); FPC (Federal Power Commission). Most of the current figures are preliminary.

[2] Not comparable with September, October, and November 1945 figures because of a change adopted by the Bureau of the Census in July 1945 in sampling methods. (See Monthly Report on the Labor Force, September 1945.) Estimates for months prior to July 1945 are being revised.

[3] 10-month average—March to December 1940. (See footnote 2.)

[4] 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 such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

[5] 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.

[6] Reports in manufacturing and mining now relate to "production workers" instead of "wage earners" but with no appreciable effect on the employment estimates.

[7] November.

[8] October.

[9] September.

[10] For the coverage of this index see p. 120. Formerly listed as "cost-of-living index."

[11] Third quarter.

[12] Not available.

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

JANUARY 1946

Expenditures and Savings of City Families in 1944[1]

FAMILY incomes reached their highest level in history in 1944. The great demand for war production made jobs easy to find and it was common for several members of a family to work. In 1944 half the families and single persons in cities throughout the United States had net incomes, after payment of taxes, of less than $2,700 (compared with $1,900 in 1941) and half had net incomes of over $2,700. according to the findings of the Bureau's survey of prices paid by consumers.[2] About 42 percent of these families and single persons had incomes above $3,000 after payment of taxes, whereas in 1941 only 20 percent had incomes in this range. Even in 1944, however, about a fifth of the city families and single persons had incomes below $1,500 after taxes, as compared with nearly two-fifths in the last prewar year.

In 1941, an income of $1,475 was sufficient to cover current living expenditures for the average city family with three members. In 1944, with high wartime costs, it took $1,950 income after taxes for the typical city family of two or more persons to "break even." Such families, averaging 3 persons in size, lived very modestly, spending an average of barely 22 cents per meal per person and $30 per month for housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration. They paid $119 during the year in income, poll, and personal-property taxes.

With a total income of $2,070 in 1944—or $1,950 after taxes—a family was able to make small gifts and contributions during 1944, but nothing was left for buying war bonds or paying life-insurance premiums, which are considered savings. The average family with a net income of $1,950 did buy war bonds, however, and many paid on life insurance; to do so, debts were incurred or previous savings drawn upon to the amount of $168.

The city families of two or more persons which had net incomes below $1,950—these constituted almost a fourth of the total—either went into debt, or if they were able to keep out of debt did so by drawing on savings. Some of these were elderly couples with savings which they could use for current living. Some were wives of servicemen, accustomed to larger earnings, but forced to live on allotments during the war. Others were young families, just getting started, which will try to repay their debts out of their incomes of the next few years.

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[1] Prepared by Dorothy S. Brady, chief of the Bureau's Cost of Living Division.

[2] That survey was conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U. S. Department of Labor among a cross section of all city consumers—families and single persons living as civilians. Some 1,700 consumers in 102 urban communities were interviewed in their homes by trained field agents. The communities covered represent all regions of the United States and cities in every size class from those with a population of 2,500 persons to the largest city in the country. See Bureau's Bulletin No. 838 (Wartime Food Purchases) for brief statement on the sampling procedure used in the survey.

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The three-fourths of the families which had incomes of $2,000 and over after payment of taxes, typically managed to put aside some savings, largely in the form of war bonds. Savings (including bonds) amounted to as much as 10 percent of income during 1944 only for those whose incomes after taxes exceeded $3,000. The $2,000–$2,500 group, for instance, had average net savings of about $122. Even if net savings of these amounts were made in each of the previous 3 or 4 years, the total still would not be large enough to tide most of these families through extended periods of unemployment. Families with lower income accumulated no reserves. War bonds were bought by most families—even by those with incomes below the "break-even" point, which went into debt to buy them. The reports on bond purchases in 1944, however, suggest that the total bond holdings at income levels below $3,000 do not constitute much of a backlog to be used for purchases of goods coming back on the civilian markets.

TABLE 1.—*Average Money Income, Expenditures, and Savings of Families and Single Persons in Cities, by Income Class, 1944*

[Preliminary, subject to slight revision]

Item	Annual money income after personal taxes								
	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 to $5,000	$5,000 and over
Percent of families in each class	4.2	7.7	7.1	11.9	13.9	13.2	19.9	9.6	12.5
Money income after personal taxes [1]	$291	$764	$1,243	$1,769	$2,251	$2,747	$3,481	$4,406	$7,634
Expenditures for current consumption	594	939	1,317	1,690	1,946	2,375	2,816	3,428	4,324
Food [2]	235	368	506	646	747	908	1,034	1,147	1,383
Clothing	41	82	157	231	268	353	456	621	836
Housing, [3] fuel, light and refrigeration	178	231	285	328	379	424	484	546	635
Household operation	33	50	64	81	89	109	140	166	306
Furnishings and equipment	5	24	33	43	52	84	92	131	159
Automobile	6	13	36	42	61	104	122	175	171
Other transportation	6	21	28	47	53	52	63	83	114
Medical care	48	67	78	93	95	119	147	191	260
Personal care	12	20	34	42	46	55	64	84	109
Recreation	5	15	25	45	52	62	82	104	137
Tobacco	7	16	25	40	40	47	58	70	75
Reading	8	11	15	18	21	27	32	38	43
Formal education	1	2	1	8	8	14	13	29	41
Other	9	19	30	26	35	17	29	43	55
Personal taxes [1]	*1*	*23*	*70*	*124*	*198*	*283*	*407*	*564*	*2,357*
Gifts and contributions	17	31	52	82	92	136	127	211	454
Net savings or deficit	−320	−206	−126	−3	213	236	538	767	2,856
War bonds [4]	16	62	40	117	163	230	323	414	1,193
Life and annuity insurance premiums	10	20	43	50	64	80	108	141	269
Other [5]	−346	−288	−209	−170	−14	−74	107	212	1,394
Average number of persons [6]	1.42	1.82	2.11	2.55	2.77	3.00	3.61	3.97	4.02
Average numer of earners [7]	.38	.68	1.07	1.16	1.22	1.28	1.56	1.96	2.08

[1] Personal taxes (income, poll, and personal property) have been deducted from income. Total money income may be obtained by combining the amounts shown on line 2 with those for personal taxes.
Inheritances and large gifts are not considered current income; inheritances and gift taxes are excluded from personal taxes.

[2] Includes expenditures for alcoholic beverages.

[3] Includes rents for tenant-occupied dwellings and for lodging away from home, and current operation expenses of home owners. Excludes principal payments on mortgages on owned homes.

[4] Value of bonds purchased less those cashed.

[5] These figures represent the differences between income and expenditures plus net war bond purchases and insurance premium payments. Included as savings are amounts deducted for social security, retirement plans, etc., not available separately.

[6] Family size is based on equivalent persons, with 52 weeks of family membership considered equivalent to 1 person; 26 weeks equivalent to 0.5 person, etc.

[7] A family member that worked for pay (as wage or salary worker or on his own account) at any time during the year was considered an earner.

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Family Earners

One reason for the high family incomes in 1944 was that several members of the family were working. There were two or more earners in 28 percent of the families with incomes of $2,500–$3,000, in half of those with incomes of $3,000–$4,000, and in two-thirds of those with incomes of $4,000 or more for the year. For the $4,000 and over group this meant an average of two workers per family.

For one person to earn $1,950 after taxes, or a total of $2,070, it would require steady work, 40 hours a week for 50 weeks, at $1.03½ per hour. This income typically allowed no net savings in 1944 for a family of three. At present (late in 1945) living costs are somewhat above the 1944 average.

Average Family Expenditures

High wartime prices and costs meant a fairly simple pattern of living, without extravagances, for most families even with high wartime incomes. For typical families of two or more persons (averaging three persons) who just about broke even at $1,950 after taxes, $73 was given to churches, charities, and individuals, leaving $1,877 for family living. Food amounted to $733 in the year—not more than 22 cents a meal per person. Housing, fuel, light and refrigeration cost $359, about $30 a month, and house operation and housefurnishings together cost another $140. Clothing expenditures amounted to $250 during the year. Medical care took $105.

Many families earning above $2,500 in 1944 were migrants to war centers, whose housing costs were higher than the housing outlays of permanent residents. The group with net incomes between $2,500 and $3,000 paid $430 on the average during 1944 for their wartime homes. Food cost them $913 (about 27 cents per meal per person), and clothing $364, or $116 per person, for the year. Transportation required $156.

As family incomes rose, food expenditures rose, partly because of eating more meals away from home and partly because of being able to choose more expensive foods for the family table and to serve a greater quantity. The families with net incomes of $1,950 spent almost 38 percent of that income on food. Food took, on the average, about half of the income of the 10 percent that had $500 to $1,500 income after taxes in 1944. The more fortunate families, with $4,000 to $5,000 after taxes, used only 26 percent of that income to pay their food bills, despite the relatively large number of meals eaten away from home by working members of the family.

Outlays for food absorbed a consistently larger share of income in 1944 than in 1941, particularly at the lower income levels, even though the average size of family in 1944 was smaller than in 1941. This reflected in large part the 29-percent rise in retail food prices in cities between these two years. Purchases of clothing, which showed a 31-percent price rise from 1941 to 1944, likewise took a somewhat larger share of income at each level in 1944. Housing costs (including fuel, light, and refrigeration), on the other hand, remained the same or slightly lower in relation to income, except for families that had incomes below $1,000 or that migrated to war centers. Although families migrating to war production centers typically paid higher

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rents than before the war, the effective rent-control program kept housing costs the same for many families that did not move and therefore any rise in income for this group meant a smaller proportion spent on housing.

TABLE 2.—*Average Money Income, Expenditures, and Savings of Families of Two or More Persons, in Cities, by Income Class, 1944*

[Preliminary, subject to slight revision]

Item	Annual money income after personal taxes									
	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$1,950: "break even" point	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 to $5,000	$5,000 and over
Percent of families in each class	1.5	5.2	5.3	10.7	-------	14.0	14.7	23.0	11.2	14.4
Money income after personal taxes [1]	$313	$776	$1,243	$1,779	$1,950	$2,259	$2,757	$3,480	$4,408	$7,595
Expenditures for current consumption	887	1,053	1,407	1,788	1,877	2,051	2,410	2,838	3,439	4,305
Food [2]	374	434	555	701	733	797	913	1,043	1,150	1,386
Clothing	42	80	163	234	250	283	364	462	623	848
Housing, [3] fuel, light and refrigeration	257	251	298	341	359	394	430	488	547	616
Household operation	56	47	66	83	87	93	110	140	166	295
Furnishings and equipment	5	25	39	49	53	60	88	95	132	157
Automobile	16	19	29	42	52	69	105	119	177	171
Other transportation	7	20	26	44	46	50	51	63	84	109
Medical care	62	88	94	105	105	104	123	149	190	265
Personal care	21	19	33	41	43	48	56	65	84	110
Recreation	3	15	28	46	49	55	63	82	105	137
Tobacco	16	15	21	41	41	41	48	59	71	76
Reading	14	13	14	18	19	22	27	31	37	43
Formal education	1	2	2	11	10	9	15	13	29	42
Other	13	25	39	32	30	26	17	29	44	50
Personal taxes [1]	*2*	*13*	*32*	*86*	*119*	*180*	*270*	*402*	*559*	*2,385*
Gifts and contributions	26	30	47	66	73	86	119	119	203	454
Net savings or deficit	−600	−307	−211	−75	0	122	228	523	766	2,836
War bonds [4]	15	81	28	82	105	147	233	316	410	1,206
Life and annuity insurance premiums	14	25	40	59	63	70	83	109	140	263
Other [5]	−629	−413	−279	−216	−168	−95	−88	98	216	1,367
Average number of persons [6]	2.45	2.45	2.78	3.03	3.05	3.10	3.13	3.69	4.01	4.13
Average number of earners [7]	.35	.72	1.15	1.22	1.24	1.27	1.31	1.57	1.97	2.12

For footnotes, see table 1 (p. 2).

The wartime disappearance of new automobiles and durable household equipment was reflected in the much smaller share of income devoted to these goods in 1944 than in 1941. On the other hand, expenses for medical care took a larger portion of the total, particularly among low-income families, probably because of higher medical costs and greater need for care as a result of longer hours of work.

In total, expenditures for current consumption represented a smaller share of income in 1944 than in 1941 among families in the income groups above $2,000 after taxes. City families with incomes below $2,000, however, needed a much larger proportion for essential goods and services in 1944 than in 1941.

Single Persons' Spending and Saving

Single individuals living independently and having an income of $1,150 after taxes were able, on the average, to cover current expenditures in 1944, but they made no net savings. Approximately two-fifths of all single men and women in cities had incomes below

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that amount and accumulated deficits during the year. Single persons with net incomes above $1,500 in 1944 managed as a group to save at least 10 percent of their incomes.

Those with incomes between $1,000 and $1,500, after payment of personal taxes, spent $423 for food, $264 for housing, $148 for clothing. Support of relatives, gifts to friends, and contributions to church and charity absorbed $60. Bond purchases averaged $61 and insurance premiums $48, as against net debts or withdrawals from past savings of $95, leaving average net savings of $14.

TABLE 3.—*Average Money Income, Expenditures, and Savings of Single Persons in Cities, by Income Class, 1944*

[Preliminary, subject to slight revision]

Item	Annual money income after personal taxes						
	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$2,000 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 and over
Percent of single persons in each class	18.9	20.8	16.6	17.8	18.9	3.5	3.5
Money income after personal taxes [1]	$282	$750	$1,245	$1,739	$2,312	$3,511	$7,749
Expenditures for current consumption	472	788	1,171	1,376	1,501	2,104	4,374
Food [2]	179	282	423	471	577	750	1,220
Clothing	40	85	148	221	189	259	497
Housing, [3] fuel, light and refrigeration	146	206	264	287	307	370	1,003
Household operation	23	53	61	72	72	116	501
Furnishings and equipment	5	22	21	24	10	5	160
Automobile	1	4	48	42	36	200	138
Other transportation	5	21	32	58	69	71	222
Medical care	42	39	51	55	47	97	145
Personal care	8	20	36	43	34	37	91
Recreation	6	15	21	41	42	81	130
Tobacco	3	17	33	35	33	53	53
Reading	5	10	17	19	18	45	54
Formal education	1	3	0	1	0	0	0
Other	8	11	16	7	67	20	160
Personal taxes [1]	(a)	*35*	*133*	*244*	*343*	*584*	*1,422*
Gifts and contributions	14	32	60	132	200	384	532
Net savings or deficit	−204	−70	14	231	611	1,023	2,843
War bonds [4]	16	38	61	227	235	595	790
Life and annuity insurance premiums	8	13	48	21	33	46	380
Other [5]	−228	−121	−95	−17	343	382	1,673
Percent of single persons with earnings [7]	39	63	93	98	92	100	100

[a] Less than 50 cents.

For other footnotes, see table 1 (p. 2).

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Employment Situation in Foreign Countries[1]

FOUR months after VJ-day, unemployment was lower than might have been anticipated in the United Nations and neutral countries where industrial production was maintained at a high level through the war, and in some liberated areas, such as Belgium, France, and Norway. However, low unemployment in these countries does not necessarily mean continuance of the high level of employment maintained up to the defeat of the Axis powers. An indeterminate proportion of war workers—students, housewives, and retired persons—withdrew from the labor market; some of the released veterans and civilians were not yet actively seeking work; others released from imprisonment or forced labor were temporarily incapacitated for seeking employment. In Denmark, unemployment was partially avoided by work sharing. In Germany, Italy, and Japan, the disorganization resulting from defeat and the ravages of war has caused heavy unemployment.

Wartime manpower controls tend to be relaxed as labor scarcity lessens and unemployment reappears, but in certain fields labor shortages continue. Nations in which the physical damage from warfare was either small or nonexistent have been able to abandon controls more rapidly than those that were bombed and fought over and in those which it has been considered expedient to delay the return of men in the armed forces to civilian life.

Reports from Great Britain, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Soviet Union, Sweden, and Switzerland show that employment on reconstruction and reconversion projects and in the production of consumer goods and, in some of these countries, retention of men in the armed forces have kept the number of unemployed to a small proportion of those who are able and willing to work, and far below prewar levels. However, statistics on the subject thus far received in the United States show some increases in unemployment recently. All these countries have recognized the responsibility of the government for preventing unemployment and have developed plans of quite different types for achieving that end.

National and local plans for resumption of economic activity have been made in Italy, but unemployment has recently been estimated at 1 to 2 million and proposals for controlled and protected emigration were being discussed. The situation in the Balkans and eastern Europe is obscure, but it appears that there are large numbers of unemployed. In France and Belgium, however, in spite of the problem involved in rehabilitating great numbers of displaced persons,

[1] Prepared under the direction of Faith M. Williams by Margaret H. Schoenfeld and other members of the BLS Staff on Foreign Labor Conditions. Subsequent numbers of the Review will include detailed reports on the employment situation in the liberated and enemy countries and in Latin America.

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deportees, and prisoners of war, recorded unemployment had been reduced to a minimum by the autumn of 1945, and there was reported to be need of immigrant labor (for coal mining, building construction, etc.). No record is available of the numbers who were temporarily out of the labor market because of the enfeebled condition in which they returned to France, because of receipt of cash benefits or for other reasons. In both the Netherlands and Finland, proposed Government measures for increasing the number of applicants for jobs indicate a lack of work incentives. A common Nordic labor market was proposed by the Social Ministers of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden at a conference held in September 1945.

In western Germany, industry is practically at a standstill. In the United States Zone, factories were operating at about 7 percent of available capacity in October. The number of men and women seeking jobs at employment offices was relatively small for a variety of reasons, among them the diversion of urban labor to farms, and the weakening of incentives because of disorganization and extreme shortages of anything that wages could buy. Some workers have been busy at repair of dwellings or raising food in gardens. The available labor surpluses, consisting mainly of women, white-collar workers, the old, and the physically handicapped, could not satisfy the demands for skilled or heavy manual labor which were acute in coal mining, building, and transportation. Some prisoners of war have been released to meet these demands. Responsibility for organizing unemployment relief projects rests, not with Military Government, but with the German civilian authorities which are at present functioning only on a local and provincial level.

In Japan, it was estimated in November that there were 4,000,000 unemployed. It is difficult to estimate accurately the existing amount of unemployment or the size of the labor force of Japan, because the repatriation of military and civilian Japanese from Korea, Manchuria, and other parts of the Far East is still in process. The Supreme Allied Commander has given the Japanese Government the responsibility for working out measures for the relief of unemployment and the development of employment in peaceful civilian industries within the general framework of the economic disarmament program.

In Latin America, reports indicate that current demands for food, petroleum products, and minerals have thus far combined to maintain employment at approximately wartime levels, but difficulties in obtaining needed machinery and machine tools have prevented the development of employment in certain new industries which are planned for the immediate postwar period.

Trend of Employment

National and international postwar policy is being directed toward achieving a high and stable level of employment, commonly called "full employment." If this goal is to be realized, the knowledge of the location, occupation, and size of the labor force, that was a wartime

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necessity, must be continued into the peace to provide exact knowledge on which to determine manpower budgets.

Except for a few countries that have thus far issued detailed statistics of the distribution of their labor forces in wartime, the measurement of manpower utilization must be based on statistical series maintained before 1939 which show trend but not total volume of employment.

Data on employment and unemployment in nine countries for the period 1935–45 are shown in table 1 as far as they are available.[2]

The coverage of the unemployment statistics varies considerably. The membership of the trade-unions supplying unemployment statistics was as follows:

	Members unemployed
Australia (1940)	470, 000
Canada (1940–44)	450, 000
Denmark (1945)	567, 000
Sweden (1945)	786, 000

For Great Britain, New Zealand, and Norway, the unemployment statistics are related to comprehensive unemployment-insurance systems. The series for Great Britain and Norway as given here do not cover agriculture, forestry, fishing, and domestic service. The Swiss figures are based on a Cantonal unemployment system which is compulsory for most factory workers and voluntary for others. The Irish unemployment-insurance system is comprehensive, but because of peculiarities in the operation of the law, only the series for urban unemployment is comparable from month to month.

The statistics indicate a gradual decrease in unemployment from 1935 to about the spring and summer of 1938, when there was a slight increase in unemployment. The timing of this increase varied somewhat from country to country, but in general lasted until the following year. After allowances for seasonal fluctuations, it is seen that from the middle of 1939 a steady and marked decline in unemployment took place which continued through the first months of 1945. Between VE-day and VJ-day, Denmark, Great Britain, Norway, and Switzerland experienced some increase in unemployment. This trend continued after VJ-day in Great Britain and Canada, but no marked unemployment has as yet been reported from these nine countries.

The employment series, in the three countries for which they are available, indicate that the peak in employment was reached rather early in the war—September 1941 in Norway, December 1943 in Canada, and March 1943 in Australia. The apparent early peak in Norway and later drop may be due to the fact that many people tended to shun the employment offices in order to avoid compulsory labor instituted by the Germans.

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[2] Noncontinuous series or those without recent data are available for a much larger number of countries, such as Belgium, France, Germany, and Japan, but have not been reprinted here. These series are treated in the sections dealing specifically with the particular countries.

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TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Employment and Unemployment in Nine Foreign Countries, 1935–45*

Period	Australia			Canada			Denmark		Great Britain	
	Wage and salary earners in factory employment, index (1928–29 =100)	Trade-unionists unemployed		Employment, industrial [1]		Percent of trade-unionists unemployed	Trade-union unemployment fund, unemployed		Unemployed registered at employment offices	
		Number	Percent	Index (1926=100)	Number		Number	Percent	Total	Wholly unemployed
1935: March	--------	80,548	18.6	96.4	902,138	16.7	84,342	22.3	2,153,870	1,746,277
June	--------	77,177	17.8	97.6	915,746	15.4	48,855	12.6	2,000,110	1,555,184
September	107	69,575	15.9	102.7	964,977	13.0	57,923	14.9	1,958,610	1,576,425
December	111	59,992	13.7	104.6	985,481	14.6	124,612	31.7	1,868,565	1,585,990
1936: March	113	59,621	13.4	98.9	933,221	14.5	--------	26.2	1,881,531	1,560,574
June	111	57,001	12.8	102.0	963,401	13.9	46,138	11.3	1,702,676	1,326,057
September	113	52,482	12.0	107.1	1,015,639	10.9	53,181	12.9	1,624,339	1,322,934
December	115	46,863	10.7	110.1	1,044,411	14.3	127,478	30.3	1,628,719	1,365,035
1937: March	119	44,004	9.9	102.8	976,535	12.9	122,687	28.6	1,601,201	1,359,556
June	120	43,584	9.7	114.3	1,088,652	10.4	60,199	13.9	1,356,598	1,088,866
September	123	42,145	9.3	123.2	1,174,296	7.7	72,387	16.5	1,339,204	1,090,967
December	127	37,558	8.2	121.6	1,159,759	13.0	153,384	34.6	1,665,407	1,283,604
1938: March	128	36,751	8.0	107.8	1,029,001	12.8	99,658	21.9	1,748,981	1,350,121
June	125	39,464	8.6	111.9	1,072,123	13.5	75,679	16.6	1,802,912	1,268,566
September	124	42,672	9.2	115.1	1,104,865	10.4	77,373	16.7	1,798,618	1,324,151
December	124	41,667	8.9	114.0	1,097,953	16.2	147,152	31.4	1,831,372	1,474,019
1939: March	128	45,545	9.6	106.5	1,031,679	15.7	108,316	22.8	1,726,929	1,429,085
June	125	45,183	9.5	113.1	1,100,098	11.6	53,341	11.1	1,349,579	1,098,793
September	127	48,888	10.2	119.6	1,166,242	9.1	60,805	12.5	1,330,928	[2] 1,103,829
December	133	44,253	9.3	122.7	1,198,541	11.4	159,259	32.2	1,361,525	[2] 1,218,460
1940: March	134	38,307	7.9	113.5	1,109,526	10.8	152,495	30.6	1,121,213	965,667
June	133	49,775	10.5	120.9	1,184,283	7.6	84,636	16.9	766,835	648,314
September	140	36,892	7.4	131.6	1,290,530	4.4	89,936	17.8	[3] 829,846	[3] 613,671
December	146	31,491	6.2	139.1	1,364,601	7.4	179,410	35.6	705,279	541,900
1941: March	151	27,289	5.3	135.3	1,344,138	6.6	140,014	26.8	457,918	364,308
June	154	18,595	3.6	152.9	1,527,920	4.1	[4] 20,251	3.8	301,939	243,656
September	158	17,541	3.2	162.7	1,627,645	2.7	35,081	6.6	230,621	196,594
December	163	16,628	2.9	168.8	1,688,298	5.2	70,375	13.1	188,354	165,224
1942: March	165	10,767	1.8	165.1	1,651,757	4.5	95,737	17.8	[5] 163,444 [6] 135,762	[5] 149,328 [6] 121,646
June	166	10,296	1.7	171.7	1,718,329	2.5	17,402	3.2	[7] 106,170	[7] 99,240
September	168	9,603	1.6	179.3	1,795,411	.8	24,349	4.6	104,108	98,662
December	171	8,350	1.3	186.5	1,867,597	1.2	47,341	8.8	86,824	81,943
1943: March	173	8,021	1.2	181.5	1,818,942	1.3	36,093	6.6	[8] 80,091	[8] 76,769
June	173	7,423	1.1	181.2	1,818,240	.6	13,771	2.5	[8] 73,258	[8] 71,129
September	173	7,356	1.1	186.2	1,870,836	.3	24,204	4.4	[8] 73,936	[8] 72,253
December	173	7,381	1.1	190.6	1,916,688	.8	59,998	10.8	[8] 79,037	[8] 76,674
1944: March	173	6,987	1.0	181.7	1,831,310	.9	--------	5.3	74,690	73,092
June	170	9,433	1.4	180.5	1,821,490	.3	10,532	1.9	63,197	61,905
September	[9] 169	7,947	1.2	185.5	1,882,790	.3	--------	3.4	81,070	79,235
December	167	7,925	1.2	185.7	1,887,752	.6	--------	8.4	----------	----------
1945: January	167	--------	------	180.4	1,834,450	--------	--------	10.3	98,720	95,273
February	167	--------	------	178.9	1,820,842	--------	--------	11.6	----------	----------
March	167	7,616	1.1	178.2	1,813,991	.7	--------	7.7	----------	----------
April	166	--------	------	176.9	1,803,015	--------	--------	9.1	90,479	88,969
May	166	--------	------	175.5	1,789,970	--------	52,851	9.4	----------	----------
June	166	7,795	1.1	175.3	1,790,072	.5	38,845	6.9	----------	----------
July	166	--------	------	175.4	1,792,125	--------	33,591	5.9	113,468	111,825
August	166	--------	------	175.0	1,787,952	--------	35,659	6.3	----------	----------
September	161	7,769	1.2	172.8	1,764,621	--------	38,058	[10] 6.7	----------	----------
October	--------	--------	------	168.7	1,724,549	--------	38,643	6.8	[10] 245,810	----------
November	--------	--------	------	--------	--------	--------	[10] 40,000	[10] 7.0	----------	----------

[1] Includes manufacturing, logging, mining, construction and maintenance, services, and trade.
[2] Includes unemployed casual labor.
[3] Great Britain, after July 1940, excluded from "wholly unemployed" men at Government training centers.
[4] Danish figures for June 1941 and thereafter exclude unemployables and those unemployed less than 7 days.
[5] Excluding unemployables.
[6] Including unemployables.
[7] British figures for this and all following months exclude unemployables.
[8] Beginning with 1943 British unemployment figures have been published quarterly, for January, April, July, and October; in this table the British figure for April has been used for March, July for June, etc.
[9] For this and all following months the Australian employment index is provisional.
[10] Provisional figure.

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TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Employment and Unemployment in Nine Foreign Countries, 1935-45*—Continued

Period	Ireland: Unemployed registered, at urban employment offices	New Zealand: Unemployed insured in receipt of benefits	Norway: Insured persons—		Sweden: Trade-unionists unemployed		Switzerland: Insured persons—			
			Employed	Wholly unemployed	Number	Percent	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
							Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1935: March	45,160	.....	.....	[11] 41,631	90,754	18.8	72,981	13.4	36,495	6.7
June	42,590	.....	.....	29,757	59,572	12.3	45,445	8.3	29,865	5.4
September	42,490	.....	.....	32,548	60,810	12.2	51,045	9.2	30,861	5.6
December	42,190	.....	.....	40,950	114,176	22.5	94,940	17.0	37,217	6.7
1936: March	43,630	.....	.....	39,999	86,888	17.0	85,082	15.6	37,203	6.7
June	37,500	.....	.....	26,139	51,670	10.1	55,826	10.1	29,143	5.3
September	35,500	.....	.....	28,122	49,514	9.5	60,629	11.0	28,336	5.1
December	35,120	.....	.....	36,260	99,776	18.5	78,864	14.3	18,176	3.3
1937: March	37,180	.....	.....	32,951	83,024	14.9	66,985	12.7	14,488	2.7
June	36,050	.....	.....	22,028	49,109	8.6	34,082	6.4	10,217	1.9
September	38,070	.....	.....	25,431	43,474	7.5	36,404	6.8	11,194	2.1
December	39,690	.....	.....	33,906	109,621	18.5	71,613	13.4	18,877	3.5
1938: March	42,110	.....	.....	34,104	84,474	13.7	52,007	9.6	25,074	4.7
June	38,890	.....	.....	22,938	57,285	9.3	34,005	6.3	25,580	4.7
September	38,780	.....	.....	26,105	51,557	8.2	34,264	6.3	23,502	4.3
December	43,880	.....	.....	34,873	122,357	19.1	74,689	13.7	26,178	4.8
1939: March	44,910	.....	.....	33,194	85,994	11.7	56,518	10.4	21,069	3.9
June	41,020	7,036	.....	20,802	44,214	5.6	23,947	4.4	14,717	2.7
September	44,080	6,805	.....	22,672	49,569	6.3	22,912	4.2	15,222	2.8
December	46,750	5,042	.....	29,358	115,163	15.2	33,586	6.2	12,425	2.3
1940: March	49,570	4,053	.....	29,100	114,000	15.8	17,839	3.3	9,603	1.8
June	42,310	6,048	.....	37,200	63,000	8.7	8,607	1.6	10,534	2.0
September	42,760	4,286	.....	22,800	71,000	9.8	11,454	2.2	14,066	2.7
December	41,890	2,405	511,544	[11] 21,800	116,000	16.1	28,095	5.3	12,864	2.4
1941: March	46,810	1,815	511,371	[11] 42,514	114,000	15.1	10,604	2.0	8,345	1.6
June	41,370	2,391	573,809	8,446	70,000	9.3	6,474	1.2	7,862	1.5
September	41,490	2,094	576,582	5,650	55,000	7.3	6,002	1.1	8,183	1.6
December	40.310	1,234	546,610	10,374	97,000	13.0	18,806	3.6	14,877	2.8
1942: March	44,020	841	536,416	13,879	84,000	11.0	12,163	2.3	12,592	2.4
June	41,090	848	558,930	1,424	37,000	4.9	4,863	.9	8,227	1.6
September	41,490	803	561,411	888	33,000	4.3	5,126	1.0	8,374	1.6
December	41,180	549	534,385	1,054	79,000	10.3	15,208	2.9	14,606	2.8
1943: March	38,400	373	549,098	630	49,000	6.4	7,200	1.4	7,943	1.5
June	35,720	390	547,935	198	34,000	4.4	4,837	1.0	7,376	1.5
September	36,090	445	540,289	240	27,000	3.5	3,932	.8	7,017	1.4
December	35,860	322	527,539	321	74,000	9.6	14,527	2.8	11,316	2.2
1944: March	33,890	266	531,799	308	57,000	7.2	11,624	2.2	11,017	2.1
June	33,830	288	533,308	86	25,000	3.2	3,365	.6	6,973	1.3
September	32,790	398	521,811	183	23,000	2.9	[12]	.7	[12]	1.5
December	37,330	368	[13] 494,732	[13] 600	58,000	7.2	18,703	3.6	10,789	2.0
1945: January	34,280	315	[14] 480,855	[14] 1,172	.....	6.5	.....	5.3	.....	1.8
February	34,040	222	[14] 481,344	[14] 1,257	.....	6.2	.....	3.2	.....	1.7
March	32,000	299	.....	.....	.....	5.9	7,155	1.3	8,321	1.6
April	31,300	193	.....	.....	.....	4.5	4,515	.8	6,454	1.2
May	31,320	186	451,575	.....	31,000	3.8	3,387	.6	4,742	.9
June	30,510	242	436,335	14,420	28,000	3.5	3,389	.6	4,364	.8
July	30,650	[10] 254	438,000	10,362	25,000	3.2	3,175	.6	3,807	.7
August	30,280	[10] 270	442,763	10,278	24,042	3.1	3,886	.7	3,735	.7
September	29,847	[10] 297	437,026	11,466	[10] 23,546	3.0	.....	.8	.....	.5
October	31,075	[10] 377	.....	14,480	.....	.....	.....	.8	.....	.5

[10] Provisional figure.
[11] Norwegian figures for 1935 through 1940 are for registered unemployed; figures for 1941 and thereafter are as indicated in column heading above.
[12] No data.
[13] Estimates based on September 1944 data; communications with northern Norway were severed in that month.
[14] Excluding northern Norway.

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Part 1.—United Nations and Neutral Industrial Countries Not Devastated by War

Foreign countries with a high level of industrial production throughout World War II, which were able to proceed immediately to reconversion when war ceased in 1945, include five United Nations (Great Britain, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the Soviet Union) and two western neutrals (Sweden and Switzerland). Although the employment outlook differed greatly among these nations in 1939, as the war progressed, manpower resources were strained in all seven in the maintenance of relatively large numbers of men under arms and in the production of war or other goods in quantity. Great Britain and the Soviet Union were the only belligerents in this group that were in the original theater of war and seriously damaged by enemy attack. Britain also had a fairly small population and the authorities realized early that the combination of staffing the military forces and furnishing manpower for industry would be a serious problem. During the early stages of the war, Australia's effort was concentrated on industrial development to build up productive resources, a relatively small proportion of total manpower being diverted to the armed forces. Canada's immediate problem was to absorb some 400,000 unemployed and to supply food and munitions to other allied nations. Before the attack on Pearl Harbor, New Zealand was able to send 86,000 men overseas, without reducing industrial output, and actually raised production in nonluxury lines by absorbing the few unemployed, increasing individual effort, and other means. The Soviet Union had achieved full employment and was developing its industry farther from the European borders and nearer its sources of supply. The two neutrals, Sweden and Switzerland, had practically full employment when hostilities commenced, but prepared for the possibility of unemployment.

Introduction of Labor Controls

The timing in the progressive tightening of labor controls naturally corresponds roughly with the periods when dangers of war became acute in the different areas. All of these countries except the Soviet Union gave their Governments general powers over labor in 1939; in 1940, the fall of France and the Low Countries led to a broadening of compulsory powers over labor. In British countries this action was authorized under amendments, in May and June, to the emergency legislation of 1939; these authorized the Governments to require citizens to place themselves, their services, and their property at the disposal of the respective nations when this appeared necessary for the public safety and national defense. Sweden did not change her general control legislation in 1940 but was obliged to take other steps to facilitate the best use of labor, owing to the adverse effect on her foreign trade resulting from the blockade. In Switzerland, the compulsion on labor to perform urgently needed work, covering males 16 to 65 years of age and females 16 to 60 years of age, with exceptions, was increased by order of May 17, 1940, making the compulsory powers more specific. In the Soviet Union the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet used its decree-making constitutional powers whenever the occasion called for defense measures.

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REGISTRATION OF WORKERS

To exercise the powers thus granted (later extended under the different national orders and regulations), a knowledge of the available labor force was required. This was obtained by means of national registrations. Great Britain began in 1939 by registering males between the ages of 18 and 41 years for military service, and gradually covered the work force of both sexes in registrations under different regulations. Australia carried out a registration early in 1942 covering individuals over 16 years of age (later reduced to 14 years) and attributed the success of the registration program to (1) the fact that the returns were to be the basis for the issuance of identity cards and for civilian rationing, (2) the desire to cooperate, in view of the possibility of invasion, and (3) the growing consciousness of the need for information. The Canadian registration in 1940 covered every person 16 years of age and over. Registration in New Zealand was carried out by age classes as in Britain. By law of December 30, 1939, the Government of Sweden was empowered to register persons for compulsory labor service, but this power was utilized only under statute of November 1942 to mobilize male subjects born in 1923 for work in the forests and peat bogs. A decree of September 1942, effective on November 1, 1942, required labor-recruiting offices in Switzerland to maintain a register of persons liable for compulsory labor service and of those unemployed or not regularly employed.

MEASURES RELATING TO ESSENTIAL WORK

Australia and Great Britain issued lists of so-called "reserved occupations" from which men meeting the occupational and age requirements might not be taken for military duty. During the first 2 years of the war, this was the only labor control of significance in Australia. Great Britain's schedule was used as a basis for deferring men until January 1942, when it was virtually abolished and deferment was granted only if the job itself was essential and the worker was irreplaceable. New Zealand apparently also used such a list in authorizing deferment but without publishing it (as in the foregoing countries) and without blanket reservations for any industry, service, or occupation.

Once Britain's law of mid-1940 authorizing increased manpower control was on the statute books, it was implemented immediately. The widely discussed regulation 58A was adopted, which empowered the Minister of Labor and National Service to direct any person of any age in the United Kingdom (not only in Great Britain) to perform services of which the Minister deemed the individual capable. In the same period, the Undertakings (Restriction on Engagement) Order was promulgated, providing for the engagement of workers in certain vital industries through employment offices.

Another turning point in Great Britain was reached after March 5, 1941, with the adoption of the Essential Work (General Provisions) Order under which a series of essential-work orders was issued for different industries. Regardless of age, persons employed in an industry or enterprise which was declared to be essential were forbidden to leave their employment and might not be dismissed, except for serious cause, without the permission of the local representative of the Minister of Labor. As the war progressed, 7½ million persons in Great

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Britain were subject to the restrictions of the essential-work orders. All of these basic control measures were in force before the attack on Pearl Harbor. They were later supplemented by such orders as those requiring that women between certain ages should be employed only through employment offices (Employment of Women (Control of Engagement) Order of January 1942) and requiring employers to report the termination of employment of all males 18 to 64 years old and females 18 to 59 to employment offices (Control of Employment (Notice of Termination of Employment) Order of 1943).

It was late in 1941 before Australia acted to stop labor pirating, which was assuming serious proportions. Regulation 5 of the National Security (Manpower) Regulations authorized the Government to declare, by order, that any industry or section of an industry, or any enterprise, or part thereof, was "protected." In a protected employment, the employer waived his right to dismiss an employee except for serious misconduct and the employee might not resign without written permission from the Director General of Manpower. The next measure (following the Pearl Harbor attack) was to forbid employers to seek to engage or to engage male labor except through a national service officer unless a permit had been issued. The regulation (No. 13, Statutory Rules 1942, No. 34, January 31, 1942) did not apply to munitions employers or those carrying on protected work.[3]

Direction into employment was confined to unemployed registrants until January 29, 1943, when employed persons were also brought under control. Between that date and July 31, 1944, directions were authorized in 9,629 cases, representing about 1 percent of the number of placements; other workers transferred voluntarily.

In Canada, competition for labor by employers led the Government to issue an order on November 7, 1940 (P. C. 6286), prohibiting employers from enticing workers by advertisement and other means. However, important extension of manpower controls did not start until 1942, following the establishment of the National Employment Service in the previous year. On June 12, 1942, the Control of Employment Regulations specified that the hiring of both males and females should be done through employment offices. By a regulation of September 1942, workers were required to give 7 days' notice of intention to quit their employment, and the same restriction was placed on employers who wished to dismiss workers. A survey was made in order to assign priority ratings to different companies (rating them very high, high, low, or no priority) and on January 19, 1943 (P. C. 246), the compulsory transfer of labor was authorized. A series of compulsory transfer orders followed, providing for the removal of workers to essential jobs. Up to August 31, 1944, a check of 170,000 men had disclosed that approximately 90 percent were already in essential work and 10 percent could be transferred. The manpower policy was rounded out on September 20, 1943 (P. C. 6625), when workers employed in industries of high essentiality were "frozen" on their jobs. This measure had a broad coverage, as about a fourth of the workers 14 years of age and over were employed in high-priority classes on January 30, 1943.

In New Zealand, wartime control of industrial workers followed Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor. Starting in January 1942, the

[3] Coverage was later extended to female workers under 45.

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Industrial Manpower Emergency Regulations provided that in industries and enterprises declared to be essential, workers might not leave their employment without a district manpower officer's consent. Employers were required to obtain consent for the termination of a worker's employment. By March 31, 1944, it was estimated that some 255,000 workers were engaged in essential industries. The object of the declaration of essentiality was twofold—to hold those workers already employed and to prepare for the compulsory direction of others into essential work, as required by the emergency regulations. Up to March 31, 1945, direction of 168,612 persons into employment was authorized. The Employment Restriction Order completed the main controls, by prescribing that, before a worker might be employed in any important urban area, consent must be obtained from the appropriate district manpower officer.

On June 26, 1940, a year before the German attack, Soviet workers were forbidden to quit their jobs without permission from their employers. On October 19, 1940, skilled and technical workers were made subject to compulsory transfer to any part of the country. By the decree of December 26, 1941, all war workers were "frozen" in their jobs. It was not until 1942 that the civilian population was mobilized for war work; the decree of February 13 created a committee for the registration and distribution of able-bodied persons living in cities but not working in State enterprises. Those affected were men 16 to 55 years of age, and women 16 to 45 (later changed to 50). The decree of April 13, 1942, similarly made all able-bodied city and village residents, from ages 14 to 55 for males and 14 to 50 for females, subject to draft for urgent agricultural seasonal work.

On May 7, 1940, the Swedish employment offices were placed under State control, to facilitate transfer of workers. In November 1942 (Statute No. 878) all male Swedish subjects born in 1923 were mobilized to work in the forests or peat bogs, as the fuel shortage was critical. This statute was repealed effective February 1, 1944, and thereafter only voluntary labor was used in these pursuits. In December 1943, the State Labor Market Commission provided for relief work on road building in certain Provinces in which the loss of export markets for forest products had caused unemployment.

Following the adoption of general compulsory powers in the early war period, the Swiss Government found it necessary to apply its compulsory-service powers more specifically to agriculture by action on February 11, 1941, May 28, 1942, and January 26, 1943, and to construction work which the Army Command or the Office for Industry and Labor regarded as of national importance, under the terms of orders of April 17, 1941, and March 31, 1942. In September 1942, the War Industry and Labor Office was empowered to draft both employed and unemployed workers and, if necessary, to transfer them from one working place to another.

To prepare for possible unemployment, the Swiss Federal Council in July 1942 outlined regulations for providing employment in wartime. The Confederation was empowered to grant subsidies and loans and to undertake work projects itself under a program popularly known as the "Zipfel plan." In August 1943, the program for combating unemployment was entrusted to the Employment Commissioner who had been appointed in 1941. The functions of the Commissioner included the coordination of employment measures of

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public agencies and private enterprises; and the proposal of measures for the development of export trade in cooperation with the appropriate Federal offices or departments. Provision was also made for granting Federal subsidies for works having cultural, economic, or military interest. The need for providing work opportunity did not arise, however, and few workers appear to have been employed under these plans.

Disposition of Labor Force

Great Britain, Australia, and New Zealand were able to increase their respective labor forces (armed and civilian) to a peak in 1943. Either some reduction occurred later or the totals remained nearly stable as a result of varied factors, important among them war casualties and, no doubt, the retirement of indeterminate numbers of persons when the acute danger period of the war had passed. In Canada, the official estimates for 1944 show a continuing but slight numerical rise in both the armed forces and gainful workers, the combined advance corresponding with the population growth. For the Soviet Union, Sweden, and Switzerland, information is not available showing the changes in total volume of manpower.

The apportionment of manpower between the armed forces and different forms of civilian work in the four British Commonwealth nations followed an irregular course within individual countries and also between countries, depending on the relative impact of the tide of war and the pressure for increased production. In general, of the belligerents, Great Britain and Canada were still maintaining their fullest military strength in the late months of the war. In Australia, it was decided to shift a part of the military manpower back to civilian production in 1943. New Zealand made such a diversion in 1944.

The accompanying tabulation shows, for the period between the outbreak of war in 1939 and the date of peak employment in each of the four warring countries, the rise in total manpower (including persons bearing arms) and the maximum proportion of manpower in the armed forces (including the auxiliary women's services and full-time civilian defense).

	Percent of increase in total labor force [1]	*Percent of total labor force in military forces*
Canada [2]	32	15
Australia [3]	24	22
Great Britain [4]	13	24
New Zealand [5]	9	17

[1] Allowance must be made for the different methods by which the statistics were collected in the countries concerned and the variation in coverage. No adjustment has been made for population growth.
[2] Includes categories such as homemakers on farms (see table 3).
[3] Based on estimates obtained from different sources.
[4] Includes males 14–64 years and females 14–59 years, in Great Britain only.
[5] Coverage not defined.

GREAT BRITAIN

To meet the manpower requirements of the armed forces and for munitions and supply production, Britain curtailed the number of employees in civilian and export industries sharply. In Great Britain (Northern Ireland excluded) distribution of manpower of working age (i. e., males 14 to 64 years and females 14 to 59 years) was shifted during hostilities, as shown in table 2. When mobilization was at its peak in September 1943, the proportion of persons between the

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ages noted who were at work or under arms, etc., represented 94.3 percent of males and 45.3 percent of females—in all, 69.7 percent of this entire population group. Of the 22 million persons of working age, almost half were in the armed services or employed in "munitions work." Mobilization for war greatly overstrained the British economy. Such occupations as building, textiles, distribution, professional services, etc., had a labor force of just over 5 million in 1944 (excluding those engaged on war orders) as compared with well over 9 million in 1939.[4]

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Manpower in Great Britain, Selected Periods, 1939-45*

Industry and service	Number (in thousands)			
	June 1939	June 1943	June 1944	May 1945
Total labor force (excluding indoor private domestic service)	19,750	22,281	22,004	21,652
Armed forces and women's services	477	4,754	4,963	5,086
Civil defense, national fire service, and police	80	323	282	158
Industry:				
Group I [1]	3,106	5,233	5,011	4,492
Group II [2]	5,540	5,632	5,686	5,688
Group III [3]	9,277	6,279	6,008	6,141
Registered insured unemployed	1,270	60	54	87

[1] Metal and chemical industries.
[2] Agriculture; mining and quarrying; national and local government services; gas, water, and electricity supply; transport, shipping, and fishing; and food, drink, and tobacco.
[3] Building and civil engineering, textiles, clothing, boots and shoes, other manufactures, distributive trades, other services.

AUSTRALIA

Australia started the war with an effort to build up industrial resources, diverting only a small proportion of total manpower to the armed forces. When France fell, and again when Japan entered the war, more labor was shifted to the military services and munitions production. During 1943, it became apparent that the increase in manpower for direct military use was not feasible, owing to arrears in the maintenance of rural and other industries; in October, therefore, priority was placed on "indirect" war industries. The strategic position also having improved, it was possible to shift 40,000 men to other work from the army and munitions industries.

	Estimated number (in thousands)		
	August 1939	*June 1943*	*June 1944*
Total labor force	2,750	3,400	3,300
Employed	2,437	2,636	[1]
Armed forces	13	738	[1]
Unemployed	300	26	[1]

[1] No data.

CANADA

By mid-1942, manpower conditions in Canada had become very difficult and it was estimated that 1,300,000 persons were either in the forces or directly or indirectly engaged in war production; 1,350,000 were agricultural workers and 300,000 were engaged in essential

[4] For more detailed information see Monthly Labor Review, January 1945 (p. 74) and December 1945 (p. 1149).

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utilities and mining. The remaining 2,000,000 persons employed in civilian industries comprised the only large pool of labor, and it was estimated that 500,000 of these might be withdrawn for other purposes by drastically cutting living standards. The subsequent shifts in large groups of the labor force are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Distribution of Manpower in Canada, Selected Periods, 1939–44*

Class	Oct. 1, 1939		Oct. 1, 1943		Oct. 1, 1944	
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Number (in thousands)	Percent
Total population, 14 years of age and over	8,332	100.0	8,797	100.0	8,904	100.0
Total labor force in armed forces or gainfully occupied	3,863	46.3	5,029	57.2	5,095	57.2
Armed forces [1]	70	.8	753	8.6	777	8.7
Gainfully occupied [2]	3,793	45.5	4,276	48.6	4,318	48.5
Nonagricultural	2,568	30.8	3,291	37.4	3,293	37.0
Agriculture—males only	1,225	14.7	985	11.2	1,025	11.5
Farm women, 14–64 [3]	805	9.7	765	8.7	780	8.7
Students	633	7.6	442	5.0	442	5.0
Unemployed	3,031	36.4	66	.7	61	.7
All others [4]			2,495	28.4	2,526	28.4

[1] Includes prisoners of war and persons missing but still "on strength". Excludes persons enlisted but on leave and in civilian occupations.
[2] Excludes women gainfully occupied on farms or in farm homes who are included with farm women.
[3] All women on farms are covered, except students, women 65 years old and over, and those gainfully occupied outside the farm.
[4] Includes homemakers not on farms.

NEW ZEALAND

The wartime movement in the labor force of New Zealand is shown in the statistics for December 1939, 1943, and 1944, as given in the accompanying tabulation. In 1943, the armed forces were apparently expanded, at the expense of industry, but in 1944 the movement was reversed.

	Estimated number (in thousands)		
	December 1939	*December 1943*	*December 1944*
Total population	1,642	1,723	1,742
Total labor force and armed forces	703	763	757
Labor force	700	634	655
Armed forces	3	129	102

SWEDEN

Sweden, although not a participant in the war, felt its effects in a labor shortage. When war broke out in 1939, the Swedish labor force was practically fully employed and remained so until the blockade of April 1940 cut off important foreign trade. The dislocation which followed was increased by military recruitment and also by the shift to the production of defense materials and substitutes for goods previously imported. Unemployment immediately after the blockade was minimized by the availability of raw materials imported prior to that time. By 1944, withdrawals from civilian pursuits for military service had been offset, in part, by refugees.[5]

[5] In mid-November 1943, of 18,000 Norwegian refugees, 12,000 were employed; of 9,000 Danish refugees, some 6,000 were employed. The number of refugees in Sweden totaled 170,000 in November 1944, of whom 45,000 were Finnish children. With the return of refugees to their homelands, labor shortages were noted in parts of Sweden.

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The employment of refugees was encouraged by Royal Proclamation of October 1, 1943, authorizing citizens of the other Scandinavian countries (and Estonian Swedes) to take employment without first obtaining the work permits required by the Swedish Social Board. Other aliens in Sweden were permitted to work in domestic, forest, agricultural, and peat employment without permit.

Indexes of employment (September 1939=100) in certain industries for selected periods are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Employment in Specified Industries in Sweden, Selected Periods, 1941–45*

Group	Indexes (September 1939=100)			Group	Indexes (September 1939=100)		
	September 1941	September 1943	January 1945		September 1941	September 1943	January 1945
All occupations [1]	92	91	95	Shoe factories	89	56	87
				Sawmills and planing mills	75	64	61
Building industry	62	61	63	Iron, steel, and copper works	110	101	105
Explosives	165	114	102	Machine shops	111	119	128
Coal mines	132	104	127	Shipyards	107	114	124
Peat industry	175	192	75	Woodpulp mills	63	65	68
Flour mills	104	98	89	Woolen industry	95	89	101
Packers and canners	124	108	105	Cotton industry	96	87	94
Tanneries	111	95	110				

[1] This series covers a broader range of industries than shown in the table.

SWITZERLAND

After the war started in 1939, Switzerland had 650,000 persons under arms.[6] The size of the military forces was reduced to 250,000, however, after the collapse of France. Lacking information on the total number of persons mobilized for production, the index of wage-earner employment from representative industrial establishments is shown. Employment in this sample of enterprises rose from 1939 through 1942, then dropped, as follows:

	Index of employment (1929=100)		*Index of employment (1929=100)*
1939	76. 8	1944	77. 9
1940	80. 3	June	76. 8
1941	84. 3	September	73. 3
1942	85. 6	December	81. 2
1943	81. 9		

Relaxation of Controls, and Problems of Transition

The sudden end of warfare in the Pacific, sooner than anticipated, involved certain dislocations that might have been avoided had there been time for a gradual shift of personnel from war to civilian production. This, in turn, resulted in a more rapid removal of manpower controls than would have been possible otherwise in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand, as labor became more plentiful; and in some instances unemployment reappeared. Government officials hoped that the major remaining controls might be lifted by the end of 1945 in Australia and New Zealand and very rapidly in Canada, although no date was specified. Among the five United Nations included in this

[6] This number constitutes over a-third of the gainful population of 1,942,626 persons which was reported in the census of 1930; official data are not available showing the gainful population in 1939.

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discussion, Great Britain was an exception; in that country certain essential controls are being retained in the belief that they will be necessary for some time to come. It is still too early to obtain a complete picture of the status of labor controls in the Soviet Union; however, in view of the great problems of reconstruction, these controls are not likely to be relaxed completely for some time. On March 17, 1944, Sweden extended its National Labor Service Act to June 30, 1945; no information has been received to indicate whether it was extended beyond that date. Switzerland narrowed the application of obligatory work service but did not consider it advisable to relax labor controls when active military service was ended in that country on August 20, 1945.

Civilian manpower controls that were continued in Great Britain after VJ–day cover smaller numbers than in wartime, owing largely to the narrowing of the age classes affected and the shrinkage in the work force in the industries or enterprises subject to control. Thus, exemption from essential-work orders has been extended to men aged 65 years and over, women of 50 and over, workers who have been away from home for 3 years (and who can find important work near home), and persons who are granted licenses to reopen shops or businesses. The coverage of essential-work orders has also declined as war plants have ceased production. On June 4, 1945, the control of engagement of workers was narrowed to males 18 to 50 years old and females 18 to 40 years old.[7]

Britain's chief problems are (1) to restore the export trade on which the country was largely dependent prior to World War II and of which over two-thirds was deliberately sacrificed to the war effort and (2) to relieve the worst civilian shortages, of which housing is among the gravest. To bring the labor strength of certain industries back to the prewar level, construction, which in the fall of 1945 had 337,000 persons, would require double that number of additional workers; cotton (including rayon staple fiber, carding, spinning, doubling) would require 90,000; and clothing and hosiery 200,000 workers. Other high-priority industries are agriculture, services of different kinds, and printing. Manpower needs in the foregoing pursuits cannot be met fully but are to be given priority.

Notwithstanding the fact that the general outlook in Britain is one of labor scarcity, some transitional unemployment was expected, owing to cutbacks, lack of transportation, and housing shortages. Another complication is the wartime dispersal of industry, which necessitates extensive readjustment. The difficulty of obtaining sufficient labor in the transition period is complicated by the desire of some workers to retire, to take care of their families and homes, or to take vacations. Ex-servicemen are entitled to 8 weeks of paid leave on discharge, with additions for overseas service; of them 260,000 had not yet taken employment in mid-September. The rate of discharge from the armed forces is another factor; according to figures released by the British Government in mid-November 1945, 1¼ million members had been released since D–day. By the end of 1945, the civilian labor force was expected to reach 14½ million persons, or about 2 million less than the prewar level. The armed forces would account for 4 million of these workers, those making supplies for the armed forces for 1½ million, and 300,000 would be unem-

[7] See Monthly Labor Review, September 1945 (p. 437), for further details.

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ployed. A source of some supplementary labor consists of German prisoners, of whom the Government proposed in October 1945 to use 110,000 for reconstruction work.

Australia began to revoke nonessential manpower controls soon after the Japanese surrender, by waiving the requirement that a permit be obtained to leave or change employment. No one was to be directed into employment; young persons under 18, women over 45, and ex-servicemen who were not released on occupational grounds were to be completely free in choosing employment. Any employer might advertise for labor in the above categories but, temporarily, other advertising was to be subject to permit. By the end of October, compulsion to remain in protected enterprises was lifted in its entirety. The only remaining control required certain nonessential businesses to obtain permits to secure additional labor.

The great problem in Australia at the war's end was the redistribution of more than 1,150,000 men and women (including 650,000 in the armed forces, 250,000 in war and related industries, and 250,000 transferees whose peacetime jobs were cut off in wartime). Some delay was expected in transference of war workers. Rapid absorption was contingent on the reconversion of war plants and the availability of raw materials for production. Continuing labor shortages, largely of skilled labor, existed in the Melbourne metropolitan area in early November.

Canada discontinued the compulsory transfer of men to highly essential employment in May 1945, after the war ended in Europe. Women were freed from the necessity of obtaining selective-service permits before taking employment (but had to report employment 3 days after acceptance), and employers were permitted to advertise for their services. The Japanese surrender was followed by the revocation of part of the controls on August 16, 1945, except those requiring that men obtain employment-office permits to accept work other than in agriculture and fishing; that employees give 7 days' notice of intention to quit a job; that employers list vacancies with employment offices, and that those seeking work must register there; and that persons seeking work outside Canada must obtain labor-exit permits.

Recent official employment statistics show that the number of registered unemployed exceeded the number of available jobs. Actual unemployment was greater than that reflected in a comparison of unplaced workers and unfilled jobs since the full effects of the war's end on employment was not immediately apparent, as many ex-servicemen and some ex-war workers were taking vacations before looking for jobs.

By June 1945, the New Zealand Minister of National Service announced the first classes of workers which were to be removed from control. The classes released from control consisted of wives of returned servicemen who wished to establish homes; married women aged 40 years or over; young persons under 18; and widows of servicemen who died in World War II. Early in August, control was also removed from returned servicemen, regardless of their medical grading. Immediately after VJ-day the following classes were exempted from direction into employment: All married women; all other women aged 30 years and over; and all men of 45 and over. The requirement that employers should secure consent to engage manpower was waived, and

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they were required only to notify manpower officers of such action within 7 days. The one control remaining was that whereby certain workers were frozen in their jobs by reason of declarations of essentiality.

In the Soviet Union, manpower controls have been continued. However, effective on July 7, 1945, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U. S. S. R., in celebration of the victory over Germany, granted a general amnesty to all workers who were imprisoned or convicted for deserting their wartime jobs.

Compulsion in directing labor to employment was used in Sweden only in the fuel industry, during 1942–43, and specific legislation on direction within that industry was repealed early in 1944. The removal of 120,000 metalworkers from employment, owing to a strike that lasted from February to July 1945, lessened unemployment during reconversion to peacetime conditions. About 30,000 of these employees worked temporarily in other occupations, notably forestry, for varying periods. Resumption of shipping at the beginning of June 1945 tended to increase employment. Other favorable factors were the return of the metalworkers to their employment, the reopening of markets, and the reconversion of industries. On the whole, the employment situation was very satisfactory throughout the first three quarters of 1945.

By order of August 17, 1945, the Swiss Government provided for the limitation of obligatory work service to those industries which supplied food and fuel—agriculture (including the improvement of land designed to increase the production of food), forestry, mining, and turf cutting. Up to October 1945, employment records were favorable. A noticeable drop occurred in requests for employment, in job vacancies, and in placements recorded at the employment offices for agriculture, the building trades, and among unskilled workers. As the situation was reversed for skilled workers, the explanation may be that the unskilled were absorbed in compulsory service, agriculture, and certain phases of industry under the orders already cited. Apparently, the need for the public-works plan authorized by the decree of July 1942 (the Zipfel plan mentioned above) was not great, for the number of positions procured under that program in July 1945, after the end of the war in Europe, was smaller than in the same month in 1943 and in 1944, as shown by the following tabulation:

	Number of jobs		
	1943	*1944*	*1945*
Relief work, work-service, vocational classes, etc.	1, 393	1, 289	1, 179
Voluntary military service	2, 703	2, 274	2, 202
Work companies for military or civil projects	3, 125	2, 016	2, 443

Long-Term Outlook

In all seven countries, exploratory work has been carried on to determine means of providing a high and stable level of postwar employment. Great Britain avoided the use of the term "full employment" in the White Paper on Employment Policy issued in 1944 (Cmd. 6527) as did Canada in 1945 in a similar paper on Employment and Income, although the Canadian report stated that "in setting as its aim a high and stable level of employment and income, the Government is not selecting a lower target than 'full employment'." Members of the Governments of the four United Nations in the British

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Commonwealth have also indicated that the maintenance of conditions conducive to high employment is a public responsibility.[8] In the Soviet Union, measures to provide full employment are an integral part of the planned economic system and there is no reason to assume that there will be any change in that policy. The same view is inherent in the 1944 report of the Swedish Postwar Economic Planning Commission and the Social Democratic-Labor program for postwar economic policy in that country states as one of its aims that "full employment [is] to be reached under the economic leadership of the Government." [9]

The position of the Swiss Government, as expressed by the Employment Commissioner in September 1942 and in the decree of July 1942, was that the Confederation should cooperate with the Cantons and private enterprise in preventing unemployment, insofar as private enterprise is unable to do so. The conclusion was that full employment has been provided successfully by the State only in countries in which the whole economy was centrally controlled, and such a system is incompatible with the principle of the Swiss Federal structure.

Great Britain omitted reference to public or private ownership in the document on employment, as being outside the scope of the report. Canada stated that the economy would continue to be based on private ownership of industry. The Australian report maintained that the Commonwealth and States are responsible for providing the general framework within which individuals and businesses can operate. The Australian Prime Minister stated, after VJ-day, that the Government did not propose to take over control of industrial enterprise but that it was unwilling to see production potentials unused. For some time (under the Industrial Efficiency Act of 1936) New Zealand has been empowered to achieve a planned economy through rationalization and control of industry (including licensing). As is well known, the Soviet system is based on a planned socialized economy. The Swedish Social Democratic-Labor program calls for socialized insurance and centralized banking, and the Swiss view is explained in the opposition to State control.

All the countries covered, except the Soviet Union, are committed to a program whereby public expenditures will be increased when it seems likely that private expenditures may decline, thereby adversely affecting the volume of employment and reducing purchasing power. In the British Government White Paper of 1944, responsibility was assumed for encouraging privately owned enterprises to plan their own expenditures in conformity with a general stabilization policy, and it was stated that public investment can be used more directly as an instrument of employment policy. The Australian report asserted that to secure the maximum possible stability in private-capital expenditure, it is essential that public expenditure should be sufficiently high at all times to stimulate private spending; public expenditure should be used also to offset declines. Canadian Government effort in stimulating private investment is to be directed toward keep-

[8] For a summary of the British employment report, see Monthly Labor Review, issue of August 1944 (p. 296), for that of Canada, issue of July 1945 (p. 56), and for that of Australia, issue of August 1945 (p. 257). No White Paper has been received from New Zealand; on October 24, 1945, however, an employment act was passed, providing for establishment of an employment service to promote and maintain full employment.

[9] For a summary of above-mentioned documents see Monthly Labor Review, issue of September 1944 (p. 530).

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ing down production costs; the Canadian White Paper did not propose large expenditures for public works, but rather to manage public capital expenditure in such a way as to contribute to the improvement and stabilization of employment and income. The Swedish Postwar Economic Planning Commission unanimously agreed that large public works should be resorted to, if private investment and export trade fall below the level necessary to full employment. Such public works should be planned in connection with long-range policy and should be extended to the production of consumption goods. Switzerland's plans, which have been in operation partially, cover a coordinated and partially subsidized program of foreign trade, public works, and a revival of the tourist trade and of agriculture.

Official as well as other opinion in these countries is that the employment problem is international as well as national and that foreign trade is essential. Although the British White Paper dealt with national problems, it was recognized that the level of employment and the consumption level depend upon international conditions, as imports and exports are basic to the nation's economy. Participation in world trade by Australia was expected to follow the maintenance of full employment at home, which would allow the resultant high level of expenditure to become effective in the country's demand for imports to the limit of available overseas funds. Export trade was named in the Canadian White Paper as the greatest dynamic force in influencing the level of employment and income, and expansion over the prewar level was urged. The Swedish Social Democratic-Labor program proposed that foreign trade should be brought under "Government leadership." On June 20, 1944, the Swiss Federal Assembly adopted an interim report of the Federal Council which pointed out that an effective attack on unemployment could be made only through international cooperation; a commission was appointed to study the possibilities of foreign trade.

Emigration and immigration policy for future years has come up for discussion also. In spite of the prospect of a dwindling population (and existing labor shortages) the British Government favors the encouragement of assisted emigration to the Dominions in the future, i. e., after the Dominions have resettled their ex-servicemen and converted their economies to peacetime conditions. The Australian Government foresees a need for immigration on a selective basis of roughly 70,000 persons annually, to supplement a natural population increase of 70,000 in achieving an annual population growth of 2 percent. The general flow would commence after homes and jobs became available, but immigrants with particular qualifications that are not available in Australia would be desired sooner. New Zealand has taken a similar view as to the timing of entry. In the Soviet Union the urgent need for using labor from other countries is expected to be temporary and for reconstruction only. On June 14, 1945, it was stated that Canada was not yet ready to consider what steps would be taken to facilitate the admittance of persons from other countries. In the Scandinavian countries, to provide for the movement of laborers to the places where their services were most needed, the Ministers of Social Affairs of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden proposed the establishment of a common Nordic labor market, at a conference held in September 1945, and agreed to place a draft of the

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convention before their respective Governments. According to the press, Switzerland's Federal Council has considered the need for immigration of persons having certain skills, notably in textile manufacture.

The interest of the Governments of Australia and New Zealand in adding to their populations from outside sources is the result of an expectation that in coming years the position will be one of labor scarcity and not abundance. In carrying out Australia's plans for a comprehensive program of construction, including hospitals, post offices, and railroad building, the Government anticipates the problem will be to obtain enough labor. From 1936 onward, New Zealand experienced labor shortages in several industries, notably of skilled workers in the building and engineering and certain manufacturing industries, as well as of professional and technical workers of different kinds. War accentuated the shortages and they are not likely to alter. An uncertain factor in determining future labor requirements is the possible extent to which women may work in industry. Their participation was on the increase in New Zealand before World War II.

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Labor Unionism in American Agriculture[1]

By STUART JAMIESON, *Lecturer in Economics, University of British Columbia*

THE very concept of organization among farm workers seems anachronistic to many persons. Farming customarily is regarded as a special type of economic enterprise which remains singularly free from unionism, strikes, class conflict, and other manifestations of the labor troubles that nonagricultural industries have been experiencing for many decades.

As a matter of fact, hired farm workers numbering in the hundreds of thousands have participated in literally hundreds of strikes throughout the Nation in the past five or six decades. Almost every State in the Union has experienced at least one farm-labor strike at one time or another. By far the majority of such outbreaks occurred during the 1930's.

It is questionable whether these occurrences should be considered a "labor movement" in the full sense of the term. Labor unions and strikes in American agriculture for the most part have been small, sporadic, and scattered. They seem insignificant in comparison with the activities of organized labor in other industries, and the more important urban trade-unions during most of their history have had little to do with farm workers. On the other hand, at least three concerted attempts have been made at different times to unionize agricultural labor in the United States on a nation-wide scale. On each occasion there was sufficient continuity in philosophy, tactics, and organizing personnel to constitute a "movement." In any case, the fact that farm workers in many areas did organize, and strike, is itself significant, for it indicates a divergence of actual conditions from the popularly held conceptions regarding the nature of farm work.

The Family and the Farm Hand

Traditionally a "way of life" as well as an economic undertaking, the farm in theory has been operated upon principles quite different from those governing other industrial and commercial enterprises. The conviction has long been prevalent that the farm owner-operator, together with his family, is or should be the one who performs most of the labor involved. The traditional "American dream" envisaged a pattern of land settlement in which the "family farm" would be the basic unit of the Nation's agriculture.

The use of hired laborers evolved as a common adjunct where family farms became less diversified, with the growing of crops for sale in urban markets as well as for use by the operator's family. The number grew as farms themselves multiplied in the process of western expansion.

Farm wage workers did not, however, become a *class*. In their origins they were mainly sons of other farmers, and their social status differed little from that of unpaid family laborers and their employers. Employer-employee relationships were close, personal, and stable. Farmer and farm hand together performed similar jobs the year round, ate at the same table, and had major interests in common. If

[1] A forthcoming bulletin on this subject will contain detailed information on organization of agricultural labor and labor disputes in agriculture in various parts of the United States.

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the farm hand was "exploited," in terms of long hours and low wages, so was his farmer employer. The security and material welfare of both rested almost equally on the continued and successful functioning of the farm as a "going concern," and, in the final analysis, the farm laborer's position was made as secure as the farm employer's by his well-nigh equal social status in the community.

Even more important were the farm workers' opportunities to rise through their own individual efforts from wage earners to owners.

Finally, economic security and fluidity of class lines were maintained by general business expansion. There was always, apparently, the alternative avenue of escape to the city if and when the agricultural ladder became no longer scaleable. As a matter of historical fact, the majority took this road, as evidenced by the continuous migrations to the cities, which in time transformed the United States from a predominantly agricultural to a primarily urban, industrial Nation. Periodic complaints of farm-labor shortages and rural depopulation were met with the argument that the country, to retain its people, must raise its working and living standards to a level of advantage that could compete with the city.

Labor Unrest and Large-Scale Farming

Labor unionism and strikes among agricultural workers were a relatively unimportant aspect of the broader labor movement in America until the 1930's. Collective action among farm workers was limited almost solely to areas characterized by large-scale farms specializing in one or a few crops and hiring laborers in groups rather than as individual workers. Sporadic local movements of many different types developed in widely separated regions during the nineteenth century. Propertyless wage earners frequently joined small farm owners and tenants in the same organizations; in other instances they were organized separately, often in opposing groups.

Agrarian movements in the Southern Cotton Belt during the latter part of the nineteenth century reflected the viewpoints of the small farm operator rather than the laborer. In the Old South the plantation system, with its rigid caste structure based upon clearly defined racial division of labor, inhibited collective action for social betterment on the part of labor and tenant groups. Slave revolts in pre-Civil-War days had been few, small, sporadic, and short-lived. Agrarian movements in opposition to the status quo developed after the Civil War among those elements not under the immediate domination of large planters, i. e., small hill farmers in the mountain regions of Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Tennessee.[2] These movements began, moreover, in the States (Texas and Oklahoma) which had the highest rates of tenancy but which were at the same time relatively free from the plantation system.

The major rural problem in the South and Southwest had long been the steadily growing indebtedness of farmers, as their livelihood became tied more closely to the production of cotton. This trend, punctuated by frequent depressions and conditions of drought, blight, and soil erosion, gave rise to continuous displacement of small

[2] Olive Stone: Agrarian Conflict in Alabama. Ph. D. thesis, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, 1939.

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owners and tenants. Here the problem of the farm operator became inseparable from that of the propertyless farm laborer, and both groups sometimes organized together for mutual self-protection.

Small farmer organizations endeavored to combat indebtedness, displacement, and concentration, partly through a broad program of cooperative buying and selling. At the same time, they attempted to mobilize the disadvantaged small-farm operators and laborers and their allies into mass political pressure groups which could better their condition by agitating for favorable legislation. This program was characteristic of such organizations as the Agricultural Wheel, Farmers Alliance, Farm Labor Union, and Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union. In contrast to most institutions in the South, these bodies usually cooperated with established labor unions and in some instances even made serious efforts to transcend the color line.

Indigenous "tenant unions" developed in Oklahoma as an extension of the radical labor movement in prewar years. Many farm operators in newly settled regions of that State were well-nigh destitute homesteaders who lacked the capital necessary to become independent proprietors. The lines between owners, tenants, and laborers were exceedingly fluid, at a precariously low economic level. Agrarian organizations like the Oklahoma Renters Union and the Working Class Union of the World included elements from all three groups. In some instances, they employed direct-action tactics characteristic of labor unions rather than of farmers' cooperatives. The small farm operator's position in many sections of the South was analogous to that of the town handicraftsman and proprietor during the Industrial Revolution; both waged a losing battle against large-scale production and concentration in ownership and control.

The first stable union of agricultural workers was organized among sheep shearers in the large-scale ranching areas of the Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain regions.

Labor unions did not develop among casual and migratory workers in other large-scale farming regions during the late nineteenth century, and strikes among this element were small and few. Sporadic local outbreaks occurred from time to time among "harvest stiffs" in the Wheat Belt of the Middle West. Most of such incidents were spontaneous protests against the inadequate meals provided by some employers. The few agricultural strikes in California during this period were far overshadowed by anti-Oriental riots, which radiated out to rural areas from San Francisco and other urban centers during periods of depression and unemployment.

Large-scale industrial agricultural enterprises specializing in one or a few crops increased rapidly in scope and importance during the twentieth century. Intensive truck and fruit farming continued to expand in the North Atlantic and Pacific Coast States, and in the Carolinas, Florida, southern Texas, and the Great Lakes States. Rapid progress in irrigation opened up new tracts for growing intensive crops, as in the Imperial Valley of California, the Salt River Valley of Arizona, and the Yakima Valley in Washington. The growth of sugar-beet production in the Rocky Mountain and Great Lakes States and the westward movement of cotton to Oklahoma and the States along the Mexican border also brought new patterns of land operation.

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ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL STATUS OF FARM WORKERS

Seasonal labor supplies for these concentrated crop areas came to be composed of many more or less distinct groups, differentiated by the various demands imposed upon them by each type of farming, their degree of mobility, the distances they traveled to work, and the number and duration of their jobs. The migratory agricultural laborers, defined broadly as those who have no residence and those who leave their residences for certain periods to follow seasonal farm jobs, did not generally constitute a compact and cohesive group moving from one community to another. The Director of Personnel and Labor Relations for the Farm Security Administration, described this migratory group thus:

> * * * In each area new recruits join the movement, and old ones drop out. Many workers mingle with the migratory stream only at one point, and then return to a home base. The influx of migrants into an area, also, usually represents an addition to a backlog of resident labor that is continuously available, but which is only used seasonally in agriculture.[3]

Intermittent employment, small average annual earnings, and depressed standards of living branded the casual and migratory workers with a social status far below that of the farm hand. By the turn of the century, seasonal workers were recognized officially as a distinct occupational group which constituted a special problem in certain farm areas.

Obvious weaknesses in their bargaining position prevented such workers from unionizing effectively. Local organizations began to develop during the prewar decade in California, where the system of large-scale intensive agriculture was most thoroughly entrenched and the demand for seasonal labor was growing rapidly. Racial minorities like the Japanese, who dominated numerous farm occupations, were for a short time successful in establishing an indigenous system of collective bargaining. The attempt of the American Federation of Labor to unionize casual and migratory white farm workers was only slightly successful.

THE INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD

The first concerted program to organize farm workers on a nationwide scale was undertaken by the Industrial Workers of the World. In the beginning this union was most active among unskilled mass-production workers in the industrial Northeast and Middle West, but in later years it became more widely known for the vigorous campaign it carried out in agriculture. The I. W. W. professed a revolutionary doctrine of continuous direct action designed ultimately to overthrow the capitalist system. It condemned the exclusive and conciliatory policies followed by established craft unions and set out to organize unskilled labor in employments hitherto left almost untouched by the A. F. of L.

The I. W. W. attained its greatest strength among agricultural workers in those farming regions which had been experiencing intermittent farm-labor conflict for several decades. Its large following did not necessarily indicate dangerous radical proclivities on the part

[3] The Migration of Farm Labor. Paper presented by Mercer G. Evans before the Committee on Problems in Inter-State Migration at the National Conference of Social Work, Buffalo, N. Y., June 21, 1939 (p. 1). Resident labor employed only for short periods seasonally is defined by some as casual in distinction to migratory.

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of farm laborers. It was, rather, a reflection of the growing divisions in economic interest and social status between employers and employees on farms which had become commercialized and large in scale.

The members of the I. W. W. rural labor organizations for the most part were not farm workers as a distinct and separate category. Rather they were a heterogeneous group of casual and migratory workers recruited during the harvest season from cities and towns. The majority were single men who were employed at a variety of seasonal jobs at different months of the year in mining, lumbering, railway maintenance, and agriculture.

The union's activities among this element on the Pacific Coast during the prewar years were mainly agitational or educational in nature. Preliminary indoctrination of hitherto unorganized workers was considered a prerequisite for effective direct action. Only in a few scattered instances did the I. W. W. lead strikes in agriculture.

A more ambitious organization campaign was carried out among seasonal harvest hands in the great Wheat Belt of the Middle West during the war years, and its members there were involved in many scattered strikes and violent conflicts with growers and law officers. The I. W. W. temporarily abandoned the earlier policy of street agitation and "soap boxing" in cities. It functioned instead as a decentralized union with an army of voluntary organizers or "camp delegates" who were employed at seasonal farm work to agitate and lead "job action" strikes.

The union was suppressed by the Federal Government after America's entrance into the First World War. Its organization of laborers in the Middle West finally disintegrated during the immediate postwar years, when mechanization of grain-harvesting operations in the Wheat Belt eliminated much of the heavy seasonal demand for migratory workers from other areas.

Changing Labor Relations in the Twenties

No extensive attempt to organize agricultural workers was undertaken for more than a decade after the disappearance of the I. W. W. in agriculture. Some sporadic strikes and short-lived local unions developed in a few States during the immediate postwar years, most of them in industries allied to agriculture, such as canning, packing, and shipping of fruits and vegetables. The American Federation of Labor attempted in 1921 to organize skilled packing-shed workers on the Pacific Coast in the newly chartered Fruit and Vegetable Workers Union, but the campaign was abandoned within 2 years.

The decade of the twenties was a period of quiescence in agricultural labor unionism. New labor supplies were made available to large-scale farm enterprises in special crop areas. Vegetable, fruit, and cotton growers in Texas, Arizona, and California relied largely upon importing Mexicans, whose numbers were not restricted by immigration quotas. Sugar-beet growers and refiners in Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana also utilized this labor supply intensively and transported large numbers by rail from Mexico and southern Texas. The Pacific Coast States supplemented the Mexicans with several thousand Filipinos. Other highly commercialized farming areas, such as southern New Jersey, depended upon recruiting unskilled

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and substandard labor (including large numbers of women and children) from nearby cities during the harvest season.[4]

The advent of the automobile served to increase the mobility of marginal and casual workers. Improved transportation facilities during the twenties rendered labor more continuously available to grower-employers, even during a period of industrial prosperity and relative labor scarcity. Migrant groups were composed increasingly of families working as units, in contrast to the single male "stiffs" or "hobos" characteristic of the prewar period.

Rising national income and an expanding export trade during the prosperous twenties increased the demand for intensively grown crops like cotton, luxury vegetables, fruits, and nuts. At the same time large and accessible labor supplies from foreign and domestic sources furnished the means for increasing the output of such products. Certain farming regions, particularly on the southern Atlantic and Pacific Coasts, experienced a rapid expansion in acreage devoted to commercialized crops grown intensively on large-scale farms. The scale of farming grew larger, seasonality in farming operations in those areas was on the whole accentuated, the mobility of farm labor was increased, and class divisions among rural occupational groups were widened.

Causes of Labor Unrest in Agriculture

The conditions which made it difficult for seasonal farm workers to organize were the same conditions that made them vulnerable to agitation and strikes. Their extreme mobility, the high seasonality of their work, and the low wage rates all combined to make unionization among them costly and, at the same time, created chronic problems for the communities in which they lived. The social status of seasonal farm workers was that of a lower caste suffering poverty, depending upon relief, and lacking adequate facilities for education, housing, sanitation, and medical attention. They were, on the whole, politically impotent and, in many States, disfranchised. Public opinion in the communities in which they worked usually sided with employers and sanctioned the use of stern legal and extra-legal measures for suppressing collective bargaining. The public held tenaciously to the traditional view of the family farm that agricultural laborers as compared with industrial workers had more security and benefited from the personal solicitude of their employers. The labor contract continued to be regarded as a personal bargain between equals, even when the employer was an absentee bank or land corporation bound by the rules of a trade association. Most protective labor legislation enforced by Federal and State governments still does not cover agricultural workers. A further reason for their hardships was the continuous competition from marginal labor groups—newly arrived immigrants, women, children, and unemployed from other industries. Surplus workers during the thirties forced farm wages down to levels far below the minima in other industries.

The more obvious hardships which periodically led to conflict were mitigated to some degree by appropriate Government action later in the thirties. Deficiencies in housing, health, and education among migratory workers were partially rectified through public subsidizing

[4] Josiah C. Folsom: Truck Farm Labor in New Jersey. (U. S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin No. 1285, Washington, 1925.)

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of such agencies as the Farm Security Administration. Exploitation from padrones and labor contractors and uncontrolled advertising and other means for recruiting seasonal laborers were reduced through more adequate supervision. Federal and State employment services brought about some improvements in labor allocation and job placement. They served to reduce wasteful transportation, local labor surpluses, and the burdens of underemployment and unnecessarily small annual earnings.

The related problems of surplus rural labor and organized conflict on the land have in the past few years become much less serious as a result of unprecedented war production. During the war period underemployment and acute poverty among wage workers virtually disappeared in many farm areas, and growers with heavy seasonal labor demands faced a scarcity of workers. The large-scale operators specializing in one or a few cash crops were formerly most vulnerable to unrest and strikes in a period of depression, unemployment, and labor surplus. During the wartime prosperity and expanding employment in other industries they were most vulnerable to crop losses arising from chronic labor shortages.

Organized labor and employers agreed that unnecessary loss of time and spoilage of goods from strikes or other causes must be avoided during the war. Indeed, both groups were concerned about recruiting an adequate seasonal labor supply to save farm crops in California and other States. Spokesmen of both the Associated Farmers and the C. I. O. State Industrial Union Council in California appealed to the Federal Government to allow the seasonal importation of several thousand Mexican workers to perform the necessary harvest jobs.

Widespread labor-employer conflict in agriculture, nevertheless, is likely to recur should the war prosperity and full employment prove temporary. Little has been done to bring long-run improvements in wages, living conditions, job security, and opportunities for advancement on the land, and there is no apparent trend toward a permanent reduction of the scale of operations or the degree of specialization of farms in California and other intensive cash-crop regions. The present farm structure in many areas apparently continues to depend upon large supplies of cheap and mobile seasonal laborers. Even with the most efficient methods of allocating jobs, the workers required to harvest special crops without loss to the growers in many intensive large-scale farming areas would be too numerous and intermittently employed to earn adequate yearly incomes.

When two or more workers are employed on a farm, in the opinion of one writer, the labor-employer relationship approaches that characteristic of urban industry rather than of farming.[5] In the United States by the nineteen thirties 56.1 percent of all farm workers were on farms in this category. The proportion of farm workers employed in groups rather than as individuals was particularly high in certain States: 66.1 percent in New Jersey, 78.6 percent in California, 80.1 percent in Florida, and 82.2 percent in Louisiana.[6] An even greater degree of concentration was indicated for farm workers employed in larger groups:

> In January (1935) approximately one-third of hired laborers as reported to the Bureau of the Census were on farms with four or more laborers, and about one-

[5] Louise Howard: Labor in Agriculture, London, Oxford University Press, 1935 (p. 32).
[6] Arthur M. Ross: Agricultural Labor and Social Legislation. Ph. D. thesis in Economics, University of California, Berkeley, Calif., August, 1941 (p. 43).

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sixth were on farms with eight or more laborers. The areas or largest concentration of farms with groups of hired workers, as distinguished from a single hired hand, were the Delta cotton (with 54.5 percent on farms of four or more and 37.4 percent on farms of eight or more workers) and range areas (with 50.3 percent and 33.9 percent, respectively) and in the group of miscellaneous States, Florida and California. In California 59.1 percent of hired workers were on farms employing four or more, and 42.0 percent were on farms employing eight or more. Corresponding figures for Florida are 60.9 percent and 45.6 percent. In Arizona the concentration was even greater. In that State, 68.0 percent of hired workers were employed on farms with eight or more.[7]

The growing numbers and the changing composition of agricultural wage labor in the industrialized farming areas temporarily reduced its militancy. Family laborers and newly arrived immigrants were more difficult to unionize than were single men of the type organized by the I. W. W. The farm workers' bargaining position was further weakened by the strong and comprehensive control which growers exerted over the labor market when they were organized into employer associations. "Labor exchanges" or "labor bureaus" were established in California and Arizona to eliminate competition among individual employers, by standardizing wage rates throughout entire crop areas [8] and recruiting the required labor supplies. County boards of agriculture took the initiative in stabilizing wage rates in some sections of New Jersey by setting a scale before the harvest season began and then influencing growers to adhere to it.[9]

Labor exchanges and employers' associations served to strengthen the position of the grower by releasing him from dependence upon any particular group of laborers. On the other hand, there is little doubt that such institutions tended further to depersonalize labor relations in agriculture and to widen the cleavage of interests and attitudes between farm employers and employees. Hiring of labor by the industry rather than by the individual grower lessened whatever element of personal loyalty still remained in the more-commercialized and large-scale farms. When employers utilized cooperative associations in setting wages and recruiting workers, they ultimately drove their laborers in turn to organize into unions and act collectively for self-protection.

An adequate standard of employment stability and annual income for farm labor, then, would require a drastic readjustment in the structure of agriculture in many regions. The effects of such readjustment would vary according to the technological requirements, land fertility, and market conditions in each special crop area. Higher labor costs would favor small diversified farms which rely upon unpaid family workers, at the expense of large specialized farms which depend upon cheap seasonal labor. Mechanization of farm operations would tend to increase, and farm workers would probably be displaced in growing numbers, a few to become farm proprietors and the majority to transfer to other industries. Marginal land would have to be abandoned in some areas, while in others the intensity of cultivation as well as the size of farms would have to be reduced.

Whatever the means by which the economic welfare of agricultural workers is to be improved and employer-employee conflict lessened, one important result seems almost certain: The direct cost of such

[7] Witt Bowden, Three Decades of Farm Labor, in Monthly Labor Review, June, July, and August 1939 (reprinted as Bureau of Labor Statistics Serial No. R. 976).

[8] A precedent for this practice had been established during periods of labor scarcity in the World War years. Under the initiative of State and county agricultural agents, growers in many regions of the country sought to decrease wasteful labor turn-over on farms by standardizing wage rates for competing units.

[9] Folsom, op. cit. (p. 28).

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improvement will be borne by the large-scale farms and, ultimately, the consuming public. In the past both groups gained from the low costs of production made possible by specialization based upon the use of cheap labor for seasonal operations. In the long run it is highly questionable whether the public in general really has gained from this situation. The social costs of deficiencies in health, education, and morale among seasonal farm workers, as well as the waste of misdirected, unused, or depleted labor power, may well have more than counterbalanced the advantages of low food prices. The real costs were made apparent in the thirties by losses arising from strikes and by the taxation required to pay for extra relief, law enforcement, and other services. Any lasting solution of the farm-labor problem must seek a permanent reduction in the supply of workers.

Possible Measures to Ameliorate Farm-Labor Conditions

The failures of unionism and collective bargaining among farm workers in the past are not necessarily final, nor do they eliminate the possibility of labor conflict in the future. Many of the largest, most violent, and most ruinous strikes during the thirties occurred among nonunion workers. As long as the underlying circumstances which generate labor unrest in agriculture continue, strikes and other manifestations of class conflict are likely to recur, regardless of the temporary strength or weakness of unions. The violence and intensity of struggles in the past and their threat to the security and the civil liberties of other groups give the problem of farm-labor conflict an importance far greater than the numbers directly involved would indicate.

Overt conflict could probably have been reduced in many agricultural areas during the thirties by the judicious intervention of outside agencies. Stricter enforcement of laws and constitutional guaranties could have prevented much of the disorder, the property damage, intimidation and violence, vigilantism, and suppression of civil liberties. The effectiveness of the law, however, was limited when rural communities were strongly conservative and sympathetic to the interests of property owners and employers. It is doubtful whether legal restriction alone could have prevented vigilantism and mob action, any more than the prevailing antagonism of the police and the general public to labor organization could have prevented unionism and strikes.

Strikes and other expressions of class conflict during the thirities might also have been reduced had there been more adequate mediation and arbitration. Strikes in commercial farming have been intense and violent; they subject employers and public to unusual risk and require a special means of settlement before they erupt into open conflict.[10]

Mediation in agriculture during the 1930's was not very successful in settling farm strikes on an amicable basis of mutual compromise. The extreme perishability of crops and the brief duration of seasonal jobs in many cases precluded peaceful, patient, and orderly negotiations once a strike had begun. On the other hand, most of the boards or agencies which attempted to settle disputes before they became overt were unsuccessful because they were not established at the re-

[10] For a fuller discussion of this point, see Paul S. Taylor: American Mediation Experience and California Farm Labor, in The Commonwealth (San Francisco), December 22, 1936 (pp. 223–227).

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quest of the contending groups, had no definite legal status, and lacked adequate means of enforcing rules or agreements.

Adequate arbitration of agricultural labor disputes apparently requires more thorough organization of farm workers and a wider recognition of their unions than have been achieved in most agricultural areas. Only by this means, perhaps, can farm-labor unions function effectively as collective-bargaining agencies. In the opinion of Professors Benedict and Adams, arbitration could be carried on most equitably and efficiently by permanent, legally recognized boards in which representative spokesmen of employers, employees, and the public would have an equal voice.[11] Spokesmen of organized laborers would present demands for adequate wages, housing and perquisites, preferential hiring, job security, and continuity of employment; spokesmen of organized growers would present demands for wage levels which they could pay, assurance against strikes, availability of labor when needed, and the like. The weight of decision would rest upon the neutral public representatives, who would have to be "men of high caliber and judicial in temperament," as well as experts qualified to analyze and investigate accurately marketing and cost conditions. The arbitration board, having legal status, could seek enforcement through courts and other agencies of the wages and employment standards it decided upon.[11]

The ultimate objective of such collective bargaining and arbitration, if labor conflict is to be eliminated, would be the stabilization of employment and residence for workers actually needed in harvest operations, so as to raise the average annual earnings. In the long run this would require seniority or preferential hiring agreements, combined with adequate wages, a thorough study of labor markets, and efficient job allocation. Surplus agricultural labor presumably would have to be absorbed by other industries or be maintained on relief.[11]

Voluntary collective bargaining and arbitration following these principles were used successfully for several years in the Santa Maria Valley of Santa Barbara County, Calif. Practiced in a small locality, however, these methods were limited in their ability to improve wages and working conditions because of competition from other intensive crop areas which were unorganized.

Several experts feel that voluntary arbitration functioning through representative labor and employer associations suffers one fundamental limitation, namely, that a board's decisions are likely to rest on a recognition of the relative strength of each party to an agreement; and in agriculture the bargaining power of labor is usually much weaker than that of the employer. Otis E. Mulliken, then chief of the labor section of the Sugar Division, United States Department of Agriculture, reached the following conclusion:

> Viewing past experience and present trends in this country, it seems to me that the nature of the developments will be governmental rather than voluntary, and will be concerned primarily with social problems of income and status rather than with problems of employer-employee relations.[12]

From this point of view, poverty and discord on the land could be eliminated only through the extension to agricultural workers of such protective labor legislation as the Social Security Act, the National

[11] M. R. Benedict and R. L. Adams: Methods of Wage Determination in Agriculture, in Journal of Farm Economics, February 1941.
[12] Otis E. Mulliken: Discussion of Methods of Wage Determination in Agriculture, in Journal of Farm Economics, February 1941.

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Labor Relations Act, and the Fair Labor Standards Act. Farm laborers in growing numbers during the 1930's became aware of their particularly disadvantaged and unprotected status. This knowledge in itself furnished constant fuel for agitation and unrest. The weakness of their bargaining position, indeed, would seem to warrant their right to even greater legal protection than is provided for the more strongly organized urban industrial workers.

The application of labor legislation and arbitration to agriculture would not present such formidable difficulties as generally supposed. As many writers have pointed out, only a fraction of all farm operators hire laborers at all, and they are concentrated in particular areas, on large farms hiring men in gangs rather than as individual hands. Enforcement of protective labor laws and arbitration awards would in some respects be easier in agriculture than in other industries because farm operators are more dependent upon the Government for protection from ruinous competition. As recommended by Frances Perkins, then Secretary of Labor, crop-benefit payments to all farmers could be made conditional upon their observance of required labor standards.

The establishment of standard wage and employment conditions, whether by arbitration, by legislation, or by a combination of both, would have to be Nation-wide. Wages and working conditions presumably would have to be standardized for competing crops, taking account of differences in costs of living, transportation expenses, and productivity of land and labor. The effectiveness of arbitration or legislation would be neutralized if they brought substantial improvement for labor in only one area at a time. Even if local grower-employers were not placed at a disadvantage with their competitors, less-favored workers would be likely to migrate and create a labor surplus in the more profitable areas.

At this point the question of unionism and labor-employer conflict on the land becomes inseparable from the much broader problems of migratory or casual agricultural labor in general, and the submarginal position of agriculture as a major field of enterprise and employment. Protective labor legislation and Nation-wide arbitration of labor disputes in agriculture would almost necessarily have to be part of a more comprehensive program of general price control and, probably, subsidizing. The power to determine wage levels and conditions of employment, and hence a major part of production cost in agriculture, would seem to be a corollary of the Government's power at present to fix prices, restrict output, and compensate producers for their losses.

The principle of Nation-wide arbitration and legislative protection of agricultural labor in competing crop areas, as part of a subsidizing program by the Federal Government, has already been applied in one form in the sugar industry. The Sugar Division of the Department of Agriculture holds public hearings annually to air the grievances and demands of representative employers and employees, and then sets minimum wages and standard conditions of employment for each factory district before the planting season begins. Logically, it would seem that a similar system could be extended to other farm crops. The Jones-Costigan Act of 1934 and the Sugar Control Act of 1937 established the principle that industries enjoying special protection or financial benefit from the Government should be required to maintain certain minimum standards of wages and working conditions. Almost all branches of agriculture received such special benefits in the 1930's.

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The relative merits of labor legislation and arbitration as means for alleviating poverty, class conflict, and other farm-labor problems are matters of controversy. The conclusions rest upon the conceptions of the control that governments should have over economic affairs. Probably both means would be required for agriculture, as they have been for other industries. In any case, it seems more than likely that seasonal farm laborers in the future will continue to organize and act collectively to improve their situation. As long as wage levels and working conditions remain substantially inferior to those in urban occupations, labor unrest, unionism, and strikes will continue in rural areas. In the last analysis, farm laborers can gain economic security and improve their working conditions only if they can organize in large numbers as an economic and political pressure group. Advocates of labor legislation alone criticize voluntary arbitration and collective bargaining on the ground that farm laborers are unable to unionize effectively;[13] critics of this view, on the other hand, point out that legislation would be difficult to achieve and administer unless farm workers were well organized beforehand.[14]

Farm-labor unionism is likely to revive if the scale of farm operations increases. Agricultural undertakings in many crop areas are as large, commercialized, and efficient as other nonrural industries, and the trend toward large-scale production may continue. It is possible, then, that class divisions in many types of farming will become wider and more clear, and the incentive to organize correspondingly greater.

The rapid growth in membership and wealth of urban labor organizations that has taken place during the war may furnish additional stimulus to farm-labor unionism in the future. As urban unions organize more and more industries and reach a growing number of unskilled workers, they have a greater incentive to support the collective-bargaining efforts of farm workers and, perhaps, small farm operators.

Lower-income groups in the rural population are a threat to the security of industrial workers. Having uncertain employment and substandard incomes and working conditions, they furnish a labor pool that can be drawn upon to depress wages and break strikes in urban areas. Theoretically, however, farm workers and operators and industrial workers all have common economic interests which may impel them to organize and cooperate for purposes of collective bargaining and political pressure. Small-farm operators and industrial workers alike would gain if farm workers could be organized and the wages and working conditions on the land improved. The operators, depending upon family labor, could compete more equally with the large agricultural operators employing wage labor. The industrial workers would also be more secure if the wages of farm labor were increased, since this would lessen the competition for jobs in urban industries. Viewed in this light, there are reasons to expect that workers in agricultural and allied industries may again organize in international unions which will function as an integral part of the broader labor movement in the United States. In the long run, indeed, farm-labor unionism of this kind may be in a strategic position to bring together organized small farmers and industrial labor for unified political action.

[13] Otis E. Mulliken: Discussion of Methods of Wage Determination in Agriculture, in Journal of Farm Economics, February 1941.

[14] M. R. Benedict and R. L. Adams: Methods of Wage Determination in Agriculture, in Journal of Farm Economics, February 1941.

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Labor Organizations and Conferences

Labor-Management Conference on Industrial Relations

ON July 30, 1945, Senator Arthur H. Vandenberg of Michigan suggested in a letter to the Secretary of Labor, Lewis B. Schwellenbach, that a Labor-Management Conference be held to "lay the groundwork for peace with justice on the home front." Senator Vandenberg said in part:

> I am wondering whether there may not be an analogy between the two problems (peace abroad and peace at home) to the extent that the method by which we are solving the one could be the approach which might promise to solve the other. When the delegations of fifty United Nations met at San Francisco, their ideas were miles apart in many instances. After intimate and friendly consultations, in which each frankly faced the problem of the other, we came finally to a unanimous agreement, despite repeated crises which were supposed to be insurmountable. It was a triumph of the council table. Men of good will resolved their differences for their own and the common welfare's sake. We quit warring with each other in order to stop our common enemy—war itself.
>
> Is it impossible to apply this formula at home in respect to these vital industrial relationships? Responsible management knows that free collective bargaining is here to stay and that progressive law must continue to support it and that it must be wholeheartedly accepted. Responsible labor leadership knows that irresponsible strikes and subversive attacks upon essential production are the gravest threats to the permanent success of Labor's Bill of Rights. The American public knows that we cannot rebuild and maintain our national economy at the high levels required by our unavoidable necessities if we cannot have productive peace instead of disruptive war on the industrial front. American Government knows that social statutes are futile except as they largely stem from mutual wisdom and mutual consent.

The problem of how to deal with labor-management difficulties in the postwar period had been under discussion between President Truman and the Secretary of Labor for some time, and the message from Senator Vandenberg served to crystallize the decision to go ahead with the conference at the earliest possible moment.

In announcing the conference, President Truman appointed a special committee of representatives of the Government and labor and business organizations to serve as an agenda committee and decide upon the scope of the conference, as well as the manner of handling the many "long-term and short-term problems" that will be faced in the transition and postwar periods. This committee consisted of (1) Maj. Paul H. Douglas of the United States Marine Corps (previously a professor at Chicago University), representing the Secretary of Labor, (2) Charles J. Symington, of Symington-Gould Corporation of New York City, representing the Secretary of Commerce, (3) Boris Shishkin (serving for Robert J. Watt) of the American Federation of Labor, (4) Ted F. Silvey of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, (5) Joyce O'Hara of the United States Chamber of Commerce, and (6) Raymond S. Smethurst of the National Association of Manufacturers.

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On October 23, President Truman issued the official call for the conference to meet in Washington, beginning on November 5, and at the same time released the agenda for the conference as unanimously suggested by the agenda committee.

In his opening address to the conference President Truman stressed the imperative need to avoid industrial strife and his full conviction that if labor and management were to approach each other with the realization that they have a common goal they could arrive at an amicable solution of their difficulties. He stated in part:

> I want to make it clear that this is your conference—a management-labor conference—and not a Government conference * * *. By the very nature of the task before you, you appear here not as representatives merely of the organizations which chose you; but as public-spirited citizens who during the deliberations will consider the interests of all groups of our people * * *. I have tried to lay fairly before the people the position of labor and the position of industry. They both have problems—grave and worrisome problems. But they are not insoluble problems * * *. The important thing is to remember that those problems—and their solution—cannot be allowed to stop us in our struggle to reconvert from war to peace. For until we successfully reconvert our productive capacity, we cannot hope to proceed toward our goal of full employment and an increased standard of living. If labor and management, in an industry or in a company, find that they cannot come to agreement, a way must be found of resolving their differences without stopping production * * *. The American people know the enormous size of your task. But the stakes are enormous too. If the people do not find the answers here, they will find them some place else. For these answers must and will be found.

Composition and Procedure of Conference

As recommended, the Labor-Management Conference was composed of 18 delegates representing organized labor, 18 representing commerce, and 3 nonvoting delegates representing the public. The delegates were as follows:

Public representatives.—Judge Walter Parker Stacy (chairman of the conference), Secretary of Labor L. B. Schwellenbach, and Secretary of Commerce Henry Wallace.

Labor representatives.—A. F. of L: William Green, President of A. F. of L.; George Meany, secretary-treasurer of A. F. of L.; Daniel J. Tobin, president of International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America; William L. Hutcheson, president of United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America; George M. Harrison, president of Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks; Matthew Woll, vice president of A. F. of L.; Harry C. Bates, president of Bricklayers, Masons and Plasterers' International Union of America; and David Dubinsky, president of International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.

CIO: Philip Murray, president of the CIO; R. J. Thomas, president of the United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers of America; Sidney Hillman, president of Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America; Emil Rieve, president of Textile Workers Union of America; Reid Robinson, president of International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers; Albert J. Fitzgerald, president of United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America; John Green, president of Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America; and Lee Pressman, general counsel of Congress of Industrial Organizations.

United Mine Workers: John L. Lewis, president.

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Railroad brotherhoods: T. C. Cashen, chairman of the Railway Labor Executives Association.

Management representatives.—Eric A. Johnston, president of U. S. Chamber of Commerce; Ira Mosher, president of National Association of Manufacturers; Edward N. Allen, president of Sage-Allen & Co., Inc.; M. W. Clement, president of Gaylord Container Corp.; John Holmes, president of Swift & Co.; Charles R. Hook, president of American Rolling Mill Co.; George H. Love, president of Consolidation Coal Co.; T. O. Moore, secretary and general counsel of P. H. Hanes Knitting Co.; Edward P. Palmer, president of Senior & Palmer, Inc.; H. W. Prentis, Jr., president of Armstrong Cork Co.; William M. Rand, president of Monsanto Chemical Co.; Louis Ruthenberg, president of Servel, Inc.; David Sarnoff, president of Radio Corporation of America; Herman W. Steinkraus, president of Bridgeport Brass Co.; E. J. Thomas, president of Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co.; Charles E. Wilson, president of General Motors Corp.; and Harry Woodhead, president of Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corp.

An equal number of alternate delegates was appointed in similar fashion. The Labor-Management Conference was therefore made up of 78 persons, including Dr. George W. Taylor, former Chairman of the War Labor Board, who acted as the nonvoting executive secretary of the conference.

With a few minor exceptions the organization and the work procedure of the conference followed the outline prepared by the agenda committee.[2] After two days of sessions of the conference as a whole the work was distributed among six major committees, each dealing with a specific problem. Two additional committees were appointed—an executive committee to coordinate and integrate the work of the different committees, and a public hearings committee to obtain the views on labor-management problems of other organizations not directly represented in the conference, such as unaffiliated unions, consumers and other groups.

Action by Conference

The Labor-Management Conference adjourned on November 30, having adopted unanimously only three committee reports, namely those on initial collective agreements, on existing collective agreements, and on conciliation services. The other three committees—on collective bargaining, on management's right to manage, and on representation and jurisdictional questions—could not arrive at unanimous decisions, and reports were submitted separately by the labor and management groups. Significantly, however, the labor members of the Committee on Management's Right to Manage concluded their report, as follows:

> It is the opinion of the labor members of this committee that if the representatives of management and labor in each industry would confer on the functions of management and labor in the same friendly spirit as the committee approached the subject assigned, industrial disputes would be minimized, production increased and the public interest well served.

The conference in plenary session adopted unanimously two resolutions, prepared by the executive committee, on fair employment

[2] The two most significant changes were the requirement of a unanimous approval within the committees, and in the plenary session, of any decision to be adopted as the action of the conference and the enlargement of the executive committee from 8 to 16 members to allow for more adequate representation on this committee.

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practices and the formation of a standing committee to continue the work of the conference, as follows:

Resolved, that the Labor-Management Conference urge on all elements of labor and management the broad democratic spirit of tolerance and equality of economic opportunity in respect to race, sex, color, religion, age, national origin or ancestry in determining who are employed and who are admitted to labor-union membership.

Resolved, that this Conference expresses its approval of the formation of an informal committee consisting of eight members:

2 members from the National Association of Manufacturers,
2 members from the Chamber of Commerce,
1 member from the American Federation of Labor,
1 member from the Congress of Industrial Organizations,
1 member from the United Mine Workers,
1 member from the Railway Brotherhoods,

this group to meet at such times as it sees fit for the purpose of creating better understanding between the respective groups, without any stated agenda, without any indication that they carry responsibility for their respective groups, and without any definite program.

REPORTS UNANIMOUSLY ADOPTED [3]

Committee on Initial Collective Agreements

This 12-member, equi-partisan committee was given the task of studying and reporting on "the extent to which industrial disputes can be minimized by recognized and orderly procedure to negotiate first contracts between a union and an employer, and the extent to which provision should be made for the use of conciliation, if negotiations seem to be breaking down." Its report, unanimously adopted first by the committee itself and then by the entire conference was as follows:

The following recommendations grow out of the discussions of the committee. In making these recommendations, the committee has been fully cognizant of the varying circumstances which distinguish the needs and problems of different industries.

1. Collective bargaining undertaken promptly and in good faith, following recognition of a properly established bargaining agent either by acceptance by the employer or by operation of lawfully constituted procedures, is viewed as the first step to avoid strike action by the union or refusal to bargain by the employer.

Observance of the following widely applicable rules will contribute to orderly and peaceful procedures in making the first contract:

(*a*) The employer should not question his obligation to bargain with the union chosen as the bargaining agent for all employees in a properly established bargaining unit.

(*b*) Neither side should delay immediate establishment of bargaining relationships and commencement of contract negotiations.

(*c*) In their negotiations, the parties should look toward the preparation of a signed agreement covering a defined period of time.

(*d*) Before specific bargaining on individual items is undertaken, each party should present to the other a general statement of its position and the parties should then explore them jointly. Areas of agreement should be carefully sought. Precise definition of the issues also should precede specific bargaining. In consummating their first agreement, the parties should carefully define its scope and terms.

(*e*) It is well that respect and consideration be given to proposals presented by either the employer or the union and every reasonable effort made to bring about accord before any unreasonable ultimatum is issued by either side. Both sides should avoid inflammatory statements which question the sincerity or good faith of the other party.

[3] Reports of the other committees will be included in a forthcoming reprint of this article

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(*f*) Both parties should avoid threats or actions which interfere with normal operations while negotiations are still proceeding in good faith and until all other peaceful procedures have been exhausted.

2. Conciliation should be employed by the parties if collective bargaining has not resulted in agreement. Such conciliation may be private or public, and if public, local, State or Federal, as best suited to the circumstances.

Conciliation, however, should not be the first resort of parties, but should be undertaken only after reasonable time and full effort to reach agreement has been made by direct negotiation.

The conciliator should, wherever possible, be invited by both parties to participate. If that is not possible, the best practice is for the party inviting the conciliator to notify the other party of this action.

3. If direct negotiations and conciliation have not been successful, voluntary arbitration may be considered by the parties; however, before voluntary arbitration is agreed upon as a means of settling unsettled issues, the parties themselves should agree on the precise issues, the terms of submission, and the principles or factors by which the arbitrator shall be governed.

Committee on Existing Collective Agreements

This committee of 12 members equally divided between labor and management studied "the extent to which industrial disputes can be minimized by provisions incorporated in collective-bargaining agreements," such as—

(*a*) The procedure to be followed in (1) the adjustment of disputes and grievances during the life of a contract, and (2) the negotiation of a succeeding contract.

(*b*) The policy that once an agreement has been signed, no strikes or lock-outs shall take place while it is in force, but that disputes shall be settled between the parties by other means provided in the contract.

(*c*) When negotiations between the parties concerning the terms of renewal of a contract have failed, provision should be made for the early use of conciliation, mediation, and, where necessary, voluntary arbitration.

(*d*) Provision by management and labor of facilities and personnel to enable grievances to be settled quickly at the level where they occur.

The unanimous report of the committee follows:

I. Collective-bargaining agreements should contain provisions that grievances and disputes involving the interpretation or application of the terms of the agreement are to be settled without resort to strikes, lock-outs or other interruptions to normal operations by an effective grievance procedure with arbitration as its final step.

II. To be effective, the procedure established for the settlement of such grievances and disputes should meet at least the following standards:

(*a*) The successive steps in the procedure, the method of presenting grievances or disputes, and the method of taking an appeal from one step to another should be so clearly stated in the agreement as to be readily understood by all employees, union officials and management representatives.

(*b*) The procedure should be adaptable to the handling of the various types of grievances and disputes which come under the terms of the agreement.

(*c*) The procedure should be designed to facilitate the settlement of grievances and disputes as soon as possible after they arise. To this end—

1. The agreement should provide adequate stated time limits for the presentation of grievances and disputes, the rendering of decisions, and the taking of appeals;

2. Issues should be clearly formulated at the earliest possible moment. In all cases which cannot be settled in the first informal discussions, the positions of both sides should be reduced to writing;

3. Management and union should encourage their representatives to settle at the lower steps grievances which do not involve broad questions of policy or of contract interpretation and should delegate sufficient authority to them to accomplish this end;

4. The agreement should provide adequate opportunity for both parties to investigate grievances under discussion;

5. Provision should be made for priority handling of grievances involving discharge, suspension or other disciplinary action.

(*d*) The procedure should be open to the submission of grievances by all parties to the agreement.

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III. Management and unions should inform and train their representatives in the proper functioning of the grievance procedure and in their responsibilities under it. In such a program it should be emphasized—

(*a*) That the basic objective of the grievance procedure is the achievement of sound and fair settlements and not the "winning" of cases;

(*b*) That the filing of grievances should be considered by foremen or supervisors as aids in discovering and removing causes of discontent in their departments;

(*c*) That any tendency by either party to support the earlier decisions of its representatives when such decisions are wrong should be discouraged;

(*d*) That the willingness of management and union officials to give adequate time and attention to the handling and disposition of grievances and disputes is necessary to the effective functioning of the procedure;

(*e*) That for the sound handling of grievances and disputes both management and union representatives should be thoroughly familiar with the entire collective-bargaining agreement.

IV. The parties should provide by mutual agreement for the final determination of any unsettled grievances or disputes involving the interpretation or application of the agreement by an impartial chairman, umpire, arbitrator, or board. In this connection the agreement should provide—

(*a*) A definite and mutually agreed upon method of selecting the impartial chairman, umpire, arbitrator, or board;

(*b*) That the impartial chairman, umpire, arbitrator, or board should have no power to add to, subtract from, change or modify any provision of the agreement but should be authorized only to interpret the existing provisions of the agreement and apply them to the specific facts of the grievance or dispute;

(*c*) That reference of a grievance or dispute to an impartial chairman, umpire, arbitrator, or board should be reserved as the final step in the procedure and should not be resorted to unless the settlement procedures of the earlier steps have been exhausted.

(*d*) That the decision of the impartial chairman, umpire, arbitrator, or board should be accepted by both parties as final and binding.

(*e*) That the cost of such impartial chairman, umpire, arbitrator, or board should be shared equally by both parties.

V. Any question not involving the application or interpretation of the agreement as then existing but which may properly be raised pursuant to agreement provisions should be subject to negotiation, conciliation, or such other means of settlement as the parties may provide.

VI. Where an agreement contains a renewal clause and a change or modification or reopening of the agreement is requested by either party, or where the existing agreement is about to be terminated, ample time prior to the termination of the agreement should be provided for the negotiation of a new or modified agreement. If such negotiations should fail, the parties should make early use of conciliation, mediation, and, where mutually agreed to, arbitration.

VII. Nothing in this report is intended in any way to recommend compulsory arbitration, that is, arbitration not voluntarily agreed to by the parties.

Committee on Conciliation Services

This committee, composed of 4 labor and 4 management members, was requested to deal with the following question: "To prevent industrial disputes from taking place, should provision be made for improving and strengthening the Conciliation Service of the United States Department of Labor, and should there be additional support for the operation of the Service?" In its report the committee emphasized that "nothing in this report is intended in any way to recommend compulsory arbitration." The report follows:

Conciliation service.—1. A Federal Conciliation Service, which by its impartiality and efficiency wins the respect of the public, management, and labor, will be a strong force in minimizing industrial disputes and preventing strikes.

2. The parties to labor disputes should conscientiously exhaust all possibilities of settlement through collective bargaining before either party requests conciliation or mediation services.

3. As far as possible, and wherever practicable, disputes should be settled at the plant level. Local, State, or Federal conciliation agencies should be used, as best suited to the circumstances. It is desirable to secure close coordination between the activities of the Federal, State, and local conciliation services.

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4. The committee unanimously recommends that every effort be made toward the reorganization of the United States Conciliation Service to the end that it be established as an effective and completely impartial agency within the Department of Labor.

In order to obtain the advice, assistance, support, and confidence of management and labor, a representative advisory committee to the Director of the United States Conciliation Service should be appointed. The advisory committee should consist of equal numbers of representatives of management and labor selected by the Secretary of Labor from a list of nominees submitted by leading organizations of employers and labor.

The advisory committee should be responsible for making recommendations to the Secretary of Labor or to the Director of the Conciliation Service with respect to the policy, procedures, organization, and the development of adequate standards and qualifications for the personnel of this Service.

5. The personnel of the Conciliation Service should be characterized by impartiality, integrity, and a knowledge of labor-management problems. To this end, the committee recommends:

(*a*) Conciliators should be appointed without regard to civil service requirements.

(*b*) The salaries of commissioners and officers in the Service should be sufficient to attract persons possessing the necessary qualifications.

(*c*) Provision should be made for practical training for newly appointed conciliators. During such training, the newly appointed conciliators should be assigned as observers in the course of actual conciliation of a variety of cases. Adequate facilities should be made available to assure thorough knowledge on the part of conciliators of the policies of the Service, techniques of conciliation, labor laws, and industrial relations practice. Current information services should be made available to all conciliators to keep them currently abreast of developments in the Conciliation Service and to provide them with up-to-date information on current labor law and industrial-relations practice. In addition, periodic refresher courses should be conducted in the interest of maintaining high standards of service.

(*d*) The number of conciliators should be adequate to permit the Service to perform conciliation functions adequately and promptly.

(*e*) Congress should immediately make available funds for improving and strengthening the Service.

6. Conciliation must, under all conditions, be maintained as distinct and separate from arbitration. A Commissioner of Conciliation must never be assigned to a case as an arbitrator, except where a written request for his services as arbitrator has been made by both parties to a dispute. All services provided by the United States Conciliation Service should continue to be voluntary.

Arbitration service.—The Division of Arbitation of the United States Conciliation Service should be reorganized. We recommend that the permanent arbitrators now employed, with the exception of the Chief of the Arbitration Service, be transferred or absorbed in some other work where their experience, talents or skill can be utilized. The Chief of the Division should not act as an arbitrator.

The Division of Arbitration should have a pool or list of capable, trained impartial arbitrators. They should be paid on a per diem basis at rates approved by the Director. From this pool, arbitrators may be assigned to cases when requested by both parties.

A complete list of arbitrators, with a summary statement of experience and qualifications of each, should at all times be available to labor and management representatives.

The scope of the arbitration and the method of enforcement of the decision shall be determined by the terms of the contract being arbitrated or by agreement of the parties.

Technical services.—It is recommended that the Technical Service Division be reorganized, that it be manned by a qualified and impartial staff. It should operate with the advice and counsel of a technical advisory committee.

The technical advisory committee should consist of equal numbers of representatives of management and labor, selected by the Secretary of Labor from a list of nominees submitted by leading organizations of employers and labor. The technical advisory committee should have available the services of staff assistants from the staff of the Division of Labor Standards and the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The Technical Service Division should work in close cooperation with the technical advisory committee, the United States Conciliation Service, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, to the end that the data and services of these agencies be available to the Conciliation Service whenever needed.

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Results of International Labor Conference of 1945

THE Conference of the International Labor Organization met in Paris between October 15 and November 5. Fifty-one nations sent representatives; three of these were nonmember nations which sent observers. Iceland, a new nation, became a member during the period of the Conference; Guatemala and Italy renewed their former memberships. Among the great nations, only the Soviet Union was not represented, and the Conference indicated its hope that the U. S. S. R. would soon seek membership.

Italy's rejoining of the ILO attracted much interest. The procedure set a possible pattern for the readmission, after a time, of former enemy States into United Nations organizations. Speaking on this subject before the Conference, one of the American delegates,[1] Senator Thomas of Utah, said:

> The question before us is the readmission of Italy. Our aim is to unite peoples and not to divide them * * *. In this I speak for the Government of the United States of America, but I am sure that I speak also what is in the minds and hearts of the American people * * *. We do not condone the acts of the Fascist Government of Italy * * *. We condone nothing * * *. The Italian people have respaded the soil of their land, and in that renewed soil the ideals of the International Labor Organization will be more able to flourish.

Agenda of Conference

The agenda of the Conference included the following items:

I. The maintenance of high levels of employment during the period of industrial rehabilitation and reconversion.

II. Welfare of children and young workers (first discussion).

III. Matters arising out of the work of the Constitutional Committee.

IV. Minimum standards of social policy in dependent territories (supplementary provisions).

Among the most important of the above subjects was the one on matters arising out of the work of the Constitutional Committee, which normally would not be of particular importance, since the basic work of the ILO concerns the raising of labor standards. Recently, however, questions of considerable significance have arisen, such as whether the ILO should break its ties with the League of Nations, whether it should affiliate with the United Nations Organization, whether it should make use of the opportunity, when so many other matters are open for discussion, to amend its Constitution in fundamental ways.

Action of Conference

AMENDMENT OF ILO CONSTITUTION

The Conference adopted a resolution, confirming a statement of its Governing Body, that the ILO should seek affiliation with the United Nations Organization. It accepted an amendment of the ILO Con-

[1] The United States delegation consisted of the following: The Government delegates were Hon. Frances Perkins, former Secretary of Labor, and Hon. Elbert D. Thomas, Senator from Utah; advisers were Hon. Mary T. Norton (Member of Congress), Carter Goodrich, professor of economics at Columbia University, Katharine F. Lenroot, Clara M. Beyer, Ralph J. Bunche, Walter Kotschnig, and William L. Connolly. The State Department consultant was Otis E. Mulliken. The employers' delegation was headed by James David Zellerbach; advisers were John Meade, M. M. Olander, Carlyle Fraser, and Charles E. Shaw. The workers' delegation was headed by Robert J. Watt; advisers were Arnold S. Zander, John T. Jones, C. L. Darling, John Brophy, and Michael Ross. The secretary of the delegation was John S. Gambs. Ethel Evans was secretary to Senator Thomas.

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stitution which will come into force as soon as ratified by a sufficient number of nations. The amendment, when ratified, will (if the League of Nations has not already been dissolved) sever the ties that still formally bind the ILO to the League.

The amendment will also provide new procedures for amending the ILO Constitution, will alter the present financial structure, will redefine the conditions for membership, and in other ways will strengthen the present basic document. A system of temporary autonomous self-government is created to operate during the period before the ILO is integrated into the structure of the UNO.

Other constitutional amendments were proposed by the delegates but no direct action was taken. They were, instead, referred to a small committee (on which the United States is represented) which will meet in London in January 1946. High on the committee's list for consideration are suggestions relating to national responsibility in regard to Conventions drafted and adopted by the Conference, and changes in the present system of tripartite representation (the suggestion being to retain the tripartite principle, but to change the present numerical representation among the three groups).

MAINTENANCE OF EMPLOYMENT

The Employment Committee addressed itself to a task which is and will remain a concern of the Organization. Hon. Frances Perkins represented the United States Government on this Committee, and took a leading part in its debates. In the "Philadelphia Charter," adopted at the ILO Conference in 1944, the following paragraphs appear:

> All human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity;
>
> The attainment of the conditions in which this shall be possible must constitute the central aim of national and international policy;
>
> All national and international policies and measures, in particular those of an economic and financial character, should be judged in this light and accepted only in so far as they may be held to promote and not to hinder the achievement of this fundamental objective;
>
> It is a responsibility of the International Labor Organization to examine and consider all international economic and financial policies and measures in the light of this fundamental objective.

A year later, the Charter of the United Nations was adopted. It includes the following:

> With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, the United Nations shall promote: (*a*) Higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and development; (*b*) solutions of international economic, social, health, and related problems and international cultural and educational cooperation; and (*c*) universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.

In the period between the adoption of these two statements, progress was made towards the establishment of a Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), an International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, an International Monetary Fund, and a number of highly specialized agencies, each of which, it may be assumed, will play a role in the establishment of conditions permitting the mainte-

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nance of high levels of employment with high or rising standards of living.

The Employment Committee made note of the fact that the ILO, in 1944, was the only international organization in existence which fully appreciated the significance of employment and high levels of consumption as a basis for the maintenance of peace, and it welcomed the statement contained in the United Nations Charter as well as the constructive role to be played by such organizations as the Bank, the Fund, and the FAO.

The resolution on employment, adopted by the Conference, suggested both contra-cyclical taxation policies to stimulate industry and to employ labor, and anti-inflationary measures. It distinguished among policies appropriate to devastated countries, those appropriate to the less-developed agricultural countries, and those appropriate to advanced industrial nations undamaged by actual military operations.

WELFARE OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG WORKERS

The problems of children and youth and the measures required to assure adequate protection of young persons were considered in a tripartite committee of representatives of Government, employers, and workers, which presented two reports to the Conference, both of which were adopted unanimously.

The first report dealt with medical examinations for fitness for employment, and restriction of night work for children and young persons, looking toward the development of draft conventions at next year's Conference. The second report was devoted to resolutions on the protection of children and young workers and on the youth of liberated countries. Both reports emphasized the importance of doing everything possible to promote the health, educational opportunity, and welfare of youth, and to raise standards of protection against child labor. Miss Katharine Lenroot of the United States delegation served with Mrs. Alva Myrdal of Sweden as reporter for the Children and Youth Committee.

WORKERS IN DEPENDENT TERRITORIES

The fourth item on the agenda related to the improvement in the economic and social conditions of many millions of workers in dependent territories. A recommendation was adopted dealing with such matters as freedom of organization, minimum wage rates, workmen's compensation and other forms of social security, conciliation, health, and labor inspection for workers in dependent territories. The Charter of the United Nations, in Chapter 11, clearly recognizes a special obligation on the part of the international community toward these dependent peoples. The Conference decided to carry forward the work of the Organization in this area at its next session in 1946.

OTHER ACTION

The Conference, in addition to taking action on the special agenda items discussed above, addressed itself to certain recurrent topics concerned mostly with the internal administration of the Organization. The usual committees on the application of conventions, on resolu-

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tions, on credentials, standing orders, etc., performed their tasks and presented their reports.

Several challenges came before the credentials committee. The only one sustained (by a vote of 119–0) charged that the workers' delegate and adviser designated from the Argentine Republic had not been appointed in accordance with the ILO Constitution. They were not seated, because they "were not appointed under those conditions of liberty which are presumed by the agreement referred to by paragraph 3 of Article 3 of the Constitution and, consequently, they cannot be considered as representatives chosen without any compulsion by workers' organizations enjoying freedom of association as laid down by the Constitution of the Organization." This is the first time in the history of the ILO that credentials have been rejected.

Mr. Phelan, Acting Director of the Secretariat, presented his annual report to the Conference, setting forth the role of the ILO in a world only beginning to recover from warshock.

The electoral colleges met to select new representatives to the Governing Body of the ILO Office. Although changes were made, many of the former experienced members will continue to serve. As in the past, the United States will be represented by members of each of the three constitutent groups—government, workers, employers. James David Zellerbach replaces Henry I. Harriman as the American employer member. Mr. Robert Watt is the worker representative.

The Conference was followed by a meeting of the Governing Body of the ILO Office. The term of the United States Chairman, Carter Goodrich, having expired, the Governing Body elected as its head Guildhaume Myrddin-Evans, C. B., Undersecretary of the British Ministry of Labor and National Service.

Machinery for World Federation of Trade Unions[1]

ONE hundred and eighty-seven accredited delegates from 65 national labor organizations, claiming a membership of 66⅔ million workers in 56 countries, met in Paris, September 25 to October 8, 1945, adopted a constitution, and created the machinery for the new World Federation of Trade Unions.

The meeting was convened as the Second World Trade Union Conference and was called by the administrative committee [2] appointed by the first such conference, held in London, February 5–17, 1945. During the first week, therefore, the delegates acted as representatives of the conference; thereafter they were delegates to the First Congress of the World Federation of Trade Unions.

Action of the Paris Conference

ORGANIZATION OF WORLD FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS

The delegates were well-nigh unanimous in favor of the formation of a new international organization. The number of proposed amend-

[1] Prepared by Boris Stern, chief of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

[2] The committee consisted of the following: Sir Walter Citrine, Great Britain; Sidney Hillman, United States; M. P. Tarasov, Soviet Union; Walter Schevenels, Belgium (IFTU); H. T. Liu, China; and Louis Saillant, France. The committee met in Paris in March 1945, in Washington in April, and in San Francisco in April and May. It agreed on a draft constitution to be submitted to all trade-union organizations represented at the London conference as well as to those invited but unable to attend.

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ments to the draft constitution, as well as the heated debates on the constitution, soon made it clear that there was no such unanimity as to the objectives, structure, and activities of the proposed new body. As to objectives, Sir Walter Citrine of the British Trades Union Congress noted that some of the speakers appeared to be under the impression that the job of the conference was to "build a political international," and warned that the new organization would perish if it became drawn into "the maze of politics."

> Let us always remember that our job here is to build a trade-union international, an international to carry on practical day-to-day trade-union work, to guide the activities of our different trade-union centers and to secure practical results for the individual members of our unions.

On the composition of the new international organization he said:

> Our World Trade Union International must be composed of bona-fide trade-unions, and we want the executive committee to have power to require an organization to submit to it such balance sheets, reports, particulars of membership, and such other information as the executive committee may consider necessary. The executive committee, in our judgment, must also have authority to investigate the activities of any of the affiliated organizations if they consider this necessary to ensure the bona-fide trade-union character of such organizations.

Regarding the IFTU and international trade secretariats affiliated with it, he proceeded:

> As we have already got an International Federation of Trade Unions, we say the common-sense thing is to negotiate between the executive committee of the World Federation and representatives of the IFTU in order to see how best and how quickly the staff and the officers of the IFTU may be brought in to play their full part in the new federation * * *. Equally the British trade-unions which are attached to the IFTU through the various trade secretariats have no intention of deserting those bodies and sacrificing their staffs * * *. Those organizations are ready to join the World Federation; they are ready to liquidate themselves under proper conditions, and we shall support them in their negotiations and in their desire to secure those conditions.

The above excerpts not only illustrate the problems that confronted the conference but also represent the basis on which the constitution committee, and later the conference itself, adopted unanimously the amended draft constitution of the WFTU.

AIMS AND METHODS OF WFTU

As outlined in the preamble to the constitution the major objective of the world trade-union movement—to improve the living and working conditions of the people of all lands—is to be accomplished through the following principal functions assigned to the WFTU:

(1) To organize and unite the trade-unions of the whole world, irrespective of race, nationality, religion or political opinion.

(2) Wherever necessary, to assist the workers in countries socially or industrially less developed in forming their trade-unions.

(3) To carry on the struggle for the extermination of all Fascist forms of government and every manifestation of Fascism under any form or name.

(4) To combat war and the causes of war and to work for a stable and enduring peace.

(5) To represent the interest of world labor in all international agencies whose responsibility will be to solve the problems of world organization, resting upon agreements or conventions concluded between the United Nations and in such other international bodies as may be decided upon by the WFTU.

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(6) To organize the struggle (*a*) against all encroachments on the economic and social rights of the workers and on democratic liberties; (*b*) for the satisfaction of the need of the workers for security of full employment; (*c*) for the progressive improvement of wages, hours and working and living conditions of the workers; (*d*) for full and adequate protection of workers and their families against the hazards of unemployment, sickness, accidents and old age; and (*e*) for the adoption of all other measures furthering the social and economic well-being of the workers.

(7) To plan and organize the education of trade-union members on the question of international labor unity and to awaken them to a consciousness of their individual responsibility for the realization of trade-union purposes and aims.

OPERATIONAL MECHANISM OF WFTU

The functions and the activities of the World Federation of Trade Unions are to be carried out through a number of distinct but closely integrated bodies, namely, the World Trade Union Congress, the general council, the executive committee, the executive bureau, and the general secretary.

World Trade-Union Congress

The congress, consisting of delegates of the affiliated trade-union organizations, will be the sovereign authority of the WFTU. It will convene regularly every other year; extraordinary sessions may be called by the general council and the executive committee or at the request of half of the affiliated trade-union organizations.

The number of delegates which each trade-union affiliate will be permitted to send to the Congress will be determined on the following basis:

	Number of delegates
Up to 250,000 members	1.
For members *in excess of* 250,000 and up to 5,000,000.	1 for every 200,000 members or majority thereof.
For members *in excess of* 5,000,000 and up to 10,000,000.	1 for every 500,000 members or majority thereof.
For members *in excess of* 10,000,000 and up to 15,000,000.	1 for every million members or majority thereof.
For members *in excess of* 15,000,000	1 for every 2 million members or majority thereof.

Any two or more affiliated organizations have the right to demand a roll-call vote of the congress, and the voting strength of each affiliated trade-union organization will be determined as follows:

	Number of votes
Up to 50,000 members	1.
For membership *in excess* of 50,000 and up to 5 million.	1 for each 50,000 members or majority thereof.
For membership *in excess* of 5 million and up to 10 million.	1 for each 100,000 members or majority thereof.
For membership *in excess* of 10 million and up to 15 million.	1 for each 200,000 members or majority thereof.
For membership *in excess* of 15 million	1 for each 400,000 members or majority thereof.

Each affiliated organization is required to cast its votes as a unit, and all decisions of the Congress are to be made by majority vote unless otherwise provided in the constitution.

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The World Trade Union Congress has the authority to modify or amend the constitution (by a two-thirds majority), to deal with questions concerning the admission or expulsion of any affiliate, to elect the general council, the executive committee, and the auditors of the WFTU, and to consider and act upon matters brought before it by affiliated trade-union organizations.

The WFTU constitution specifically guarantees the autonomy of the trade-union movement in each country. Section V of Article IV reads as follows:

> The autonomy of the trade-union movement of each country is guaranteed. Decisions of the World Congress, its general council and its executive committee calling for action by affiliated bodies shall be immediately submitted to the governing body of each affiliated organization and shall be carried into effect by it, unless within 3 months it shall have notified the general secretary that in its opinion a particular decision cannot be applied by it and shall present to the general secretary a full statement of the reasons for its inability to give effect to such decision.

General Council

Between sessions of the congress the governing powers of the WFTU are lodged with the general council, which in essence is a smaller replica of the congress itself. However, its smaller size and the more thorough screening of its composition should enable it to function as a working body more effectively than the more or less unwieldy congress.

The general council is required to meet at least once a year and will be presided over by the chairman of the executive committee. Special meetings of the general council may be called by the executive committee or at the request of one-third of its members. Its specific functions are (*a*) to receive and act upon the reports of the executive committee, (*b*) to approve the annual budget of the WFTU, (*c*) to formulate plans and to take action for carrying out the decisions of the congress, and (*d*) to elect the general secretary.

Each affiliated organization, irrespective of size, is entitled to have at least one representative and one substitute on the general council. The affiliates also have the right to nominate their members and substitutes who are then to be elected as such by the congress for a 2-year period on the following basis: 1 member and 1 substitute for each organization with a million members or less; 2 members and 2 substitutes for over 1 million and up to 4 million members; 3 members and 3 substitutes for over 4 million and up to 10 million members; 4 members and 3 substitutes for over 10 million and up to 15 million members; and 5 members and 3 substitutes for over 15 million members.

The reduction in size of the general council as compared with the congress is thus brought about largely by restrictions of representation of the trade-union organizations with very large memberships. The maximum representation on the general council that any one affiliate may have is 5 delegates. At present, Soviet Russia is the only nation which has the maximum. For the other countries the number of delegates is as follows: United States (CIO), France, Great Britain, and Italy, 3 each; Sweden and Czechoslovakia, 2 each; all other countries, 1 each.

The voting procedure of the general council is the same as that for the congress, and in the event of a roll call each organization represented in the council is entitled to cast the same number of votes as in the congress.

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Executive Committee

The functions of the executive committee are to direct the activities of the WFTU between meetings of the general council and to give effect to the decisions and resolutions adopted by the general council and the congress. The executive committee is required to meet regularly not less than twice a year and in special sessions called by the general secretary with the approval of the executive bureau.

In addition to the general secretary, the executive committee is to have 25 members elected by the general congress; of these, 22 are to be elected from candidates nominated by affiliated trade-unions on the following geographic basis: Soviet Union, 3; United States and Canada, 3; Great Britain, 2; France, 2; Latin America and West Indies, 2; Near East and Middle East (Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Iran), 1; China, 1; Australasia (Australia, New Zealand), 1; India and Ceylon, 1; Africa, 1; Scandinavia (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Iceland), 1; Western Europe (Belgium, Holland, Luxemburg, Switzerland, Ireland), 1; Southern Europe (Italy, Spain), 1; Central Europe (Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Austria, Poland), 1; and Southeastern Europe (Rumania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Albania), 1. The other 3 members are to be elected from among candidates nominated by the International Trade Departments, each department being entitled to propose the name of one candidate.

All members of the executive committee are to be elected by general vote of the congress. Although elected on a distinctly geographic basis, the Committee is specifically instructed by the constitution to represent the congress as a whole and not any particular geographic or trade-union division.

Executive Bureau

Between sessions of the executive committee of 26, the affairs of the WFTU are to be governed by an executive bureau of 9, consisting of a president, 7 vice presidents (all elected by the executive committee from among its members at its first meeting following the regular meeting of the World Trade Union Congress), and the general secretary of the WFTU. The constitution does not indicate the frequency of bureau meetings nor assign any specific powers except that, subject to confirmation by the executive committee, it is to appoint two assistant general secretaries to serve under the direction of the general secretary.[3]

The members of the executive bureau elected for the next 2 years are Sir Walter Citrine (Great Britain), president; and Louis Saillant (France), general secretary; and the following vice presidents: V. V. Kuznetsov (USSR), Sidney Hillman (USA), L. Jouhaux (France), V. Lombardo Toledano (Latin America), M. F. Chu (China), G. DiVittorio (Italy), and E. Kupers (Holland).

The executive bureau is to arrange for the collection of statistical and other information on social legislation and other matters of interest to the trade-union movement, and to disseminate this information to the affiliated organizations. It will also plan and conduct educational programs for the benefit of the affiliates.

[3] Apparently at a later meeting of the Executive Committee this number was increased to three, the third being given charge of the work of the International Trade Secretariat. The three assistant general secretaries appointed were John Brophy (CIO), M. Faline (USSR), and W. Schevenels (former general secretary of the IFTU) to be in charge of trade departments.

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General Secretary

The general secretary is the principal administrative officer of the World Federation of Trade Unions. He will be in general charge of the staff and administration of its affairs. He will be responsible to the executive committee, but may be removed from office only upon action of the general council. The general secretary is instructed by the constitution to edit in several languages a monthly bulletin designed to maintain the connections of the WFTU with its affiliates.

MEMBERSHIP OF WFTU

The WFTU is to be composed of the bona-fide national trade-union organizations which affiliated with it at the time of the adoption of the constitution or are admitted later. As a general rule, affiliation is to be confined to a single national body from each country, but more than one may be admitted if deemed justifiable.

The executive committee has authority to require any affiliate to submit to it such information as it may consider necessary, and to investigate the activities of any affiliate in order to determine its bona-fide trade-union character.

FINANCES OF WFTU

Income.—The funds of the WFTU are to be derived from annual dues paid on the following basis:

	Annual dues per 1,000 members or part thereof
Up to 5 million members	£4 ($16.12).
Members in excess of 5 million and up to 10 million	£2 ($8.06).
Members in excess of 10 million and up to 15 million	£1 ($4.03).
Members in excess of 15 million	10s. ($2.02).

The executive committee is given the authority, subject to ratification by the general council, to permit affiliated organizations to pay reduced fees without any loss of representation or voting rights. The constitution committee recommended that reductions be allowed only after examination of the affiliate's circumstances, and urged two categories of reduced fees, of not over 50 percent and not over 75 percent, respectively.

Expenditures.—The executive committee is given the authority to submit to the general council an annual budget covering all activities of the WFTU. The only items mentioned in the constitution are expenses of members of the executive bureau and auditors, incurred in the performance of their duty, and transportation costs of members of the executive committee.

Special Problems

INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS

What to do with these secretariats and how to incorporate them into the structure of the WFTU were major difficulties of the World Trade Union Conference. Speaking on behalf of the secretariats, Mr. Oldenbrook of the International Transport Workers Federation took the position that, although they desire to become part of the new World Federation of Trade Unions they could not affiliate until the conditions of their affiliation and status in the new international body

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had been clarified. Other delegates, including Sir Walter Citrine of the British Trades Union Congress and Pat Conroy of the Canadian Congress of Labor, agreed.

At the suggestion of the constitution committee, the conference amended Section II of Article XIII of the draft constitution, to read as follows: "Subject to the provisions of Paragraph I, Article XIII, the aims, methods of work, duties, rights and finances of the trade departments shall be governed by a special regulation to be adopted by the executive committee and approved by the general council."

As special problems may arise in the interval before the next regular congress, which may require the exercise by either the general council or the executive committee of the powers which normally reside in congress, the following annex to the constitution, recommended by the constitution committee, was adopted:

> In the period between the holding of the first constitutional congress in 1945 and the second regular congress, the executive committee of the general council shall have authority to exercise any of the functions of the congress which, in the judgment of either, is essential for the effective carrying on of the work of the World Federation of Trade Unions, including the power to amend the constitution as circumstances may necessitate. Any action taken by the executive committee under this paragraph shall become effective on such date as it may determine and shall remain in force subject to confirmation by the next meeting of the general council. Any action taken by the general council under this paragraph, including action confirming the action of the executive committee, shall become effective on such date as it may determine and shall remain in force subject to confirmation by the next congress. No action under this paragraph shall be taken unless supported by a two-thirds vote of the general council or executive committe as the case may be. In the case of a vote under this paragraph by the executive committee, each country or group of countries represented on the executive committee shall cast the same number of votes which it would be entitled to cast in the congress in the case of a card roll-call vote. Nothing in this paragraph shall permit the alteration of the fundamental rules or principles of the World Federation of Trade Unions as laid down by the congress or contained in the constitution.

STATUS OF INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS

Neither the draft constitution nor the adopted revision make any reference to the existing International Federation of Trade Unions (IFTU). However, both major officers of the IFTU (President Citrine and General Secretary Walter Schevenels) are now officers of the WFTU; the former is president of the executive bureau and the latter is a special assistant to General Secretary Saillant, in charge of the International Trade Secretariats. It was, therefore, generally accepted that when the problems of the International Trade Secretariats have been solved and they become an integral part of the WFTU, the IFTU will automatically cease to exist.[4]

Trade-Union Representation at the Conference

The accompanying table shows the labor organizations represented at the conference and the membership reported for each.

[4] "The International Federation of Trade-Unions ended its 40-year history on December 15, 1945, when the general council, under its chairman, Sir Walter Citrine, voted for its dissolution. Six members of the executive committee, representatives of unions in Britain, France, Denmark, Sweden, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, China, and India and 10 trade secretariat representatives were present."

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Organizations Represented at Second World Trade-Union Conference and Their Reported Membership [1]

[In descending order of size of membership claimed]

Country	Organization	Membership reported [2]
Union of Socialist Soviet Republics.	Central Council of Trade Unions	27,124,000
United Kingdom	Trades Union Congress	6,600,000
United States of America	Congress of Industrial Organizations	6,000,000
Italy	General Confederation of Labor	5,200,000
France	General Confederation of Labor	5,100,000
	Christian Confederation of Workers	750,000
Czechoslovakia	Central Council of Trade Unions	1,500,000
Rumania	General Confederation of Workers	1,267,000
Sweden	Trade Union Confederation	1,087,000
Poland	Central Committee of Trade Unions	1,011,000
Hungary	Trade Union Council	888,000
China	Association of Labor	800,000
Australia	Council of Trade Unions	625,000
Cuba	Confederation of Workers	558,000
Yugoslavia	United Trade Union of Workers	622,000
Uruguay	General Union of Workers	540,000
Belgium	Federation of Labor	500,000
Denmark	General Confederation of Labor	500,000
Nigeria	Trade Union Congress	500,000
India	Trade Union Congress	456,000
	Federation of Labor	408,000
Norway	Federation of Trade Unions	400,000
Austria	Trade Union Federation	350,000
Canada	Congress of Labor	300,000
Finland	Trade Union Federation	260,000
Switzerland	Federation of Trade Unions	250,000
	Association of Protestant Trade Unions	10,000
Colombia	Confederation of Workers	200,000
Netherlands	United Trade Union Movement	170,000
New Zealand	Federation of Labor	168,000
Brazil	United Workers Movement	150,000
Palestine	Federation of Jewish Labor	150,000
	Palestine Labor League	5,000
	Federation of Arab Trade Unions	3,000
Ireland	Trade Union Congress	145,000
Spain	Basque Workers Solidarity	100,000
	General Union of Workers	31,000
	General Union of Spanish Workers in France	20,000
	General Union of Spanish Workers in Mexico	12,000
Egypt	Trade Union Congress	78,000
	Congress of Industrial and Commercial Unions	60,000
Union of South Africa	Trades and Labor Council	70,000
Guatemala	Confederation of Workers	50,000
Puerto Rico	General Confederation of Workers	30,000
Lebanon	Trade Union Federation	25,600
Panama	Trade Union Federation	25,000
Luxemburg	Central Confederation of Labor	22,500
	Free Trade Union Federation	10,000
Iceland	Federation of Trade Unions	22,000
Ceylon	Trade Union Federation	20,200
Albania	Trade Union Federation	20,000
Syria	Workers Congress	17,600
Cyprus	Trade Union Committee	13,200
Jamaica	Trade Union Congress	10,000
Sierra Leone	Trade Union Congress	10,000
Trinidad	Trade Union Council	10,000
British Guiana	Trade Union Council	6,200
Gambia	Labor Union	5,000
Gold Coast	Railway African Employees	3,000
Northern Rhodesia	Mine Workers Union	3,000

[1] In addition, the International Federation of Trade Unions and Confederation of Latin American Trade Unions were represented by delegates, as were also the following trade-union secretariats: International Federation of Bookbinders and Kindred Trades; International Boot and Shoe Operatives and Leather Workers; International Federation of Building and Woodworkers; International Union of Federations of Workers in Food and Drink Trades; Miners International Federation; Postal, Telegraph and Telephone International; International Federation of Employees in Public and Civil Services; International Federation of Textile Workers; International Transport Workers' Federation; International Typographers' Secretariat; International Federation of Tobacco Workers; International Union of Hatmakers; International Federation of Teachers; International Federation of Factoryworkers; International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees.

[2] In submitting these figures to the conference, the credentials committee stated that it "only had the task of verifying credentials" and that it was "reasonably satisfied that the figures of membership quoted were those figures on which the organization intends to affiliate."

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Convention of International Association of Machinists, 1945[1]

THE first major union convention since the end of the war was held by the International Association of Machinists in New York City from October 29 to November 7. This 21st convention of the 57-year-old machinists' union was attended by nearly 1,000 delegates.[2]

Gains in Membership and in Collective Bargaining

Spectacular gains in membership since 1940, exceeding those of "any other period in the life of the organization," were disclosed in the officers' report. From 1940 to 1945 the number of members rose from about 200,000 to nearly 750,000, including 70,000 in the armed forces, as indicated below:[3]

	Members		*Members*		*Members*
1889	1, 000	1917	112, 500	1940	190, 100
1899	13, 600	1918	143, 600	1941	221, 800
1900	22, 500	1919	254, 600	1942	328, 500
1905	48, 500	1920	330, 800	1943	458, 400
1910	56, 900	1921	273, 600	1944	665, 900
1914	75, 400	1925	71, 400	1945	680, 000
1915	71, 900	1930	78, 000		
1916	100, 900	1935	92, 500		

Largely because of the nature of the work, the number of women members prior to the war was very small, in spite of the fact that the union has always admitted women. With the onset of war and intensified IAM organizing effort in the aircraft and other mass-production industries employing large numbers of women, the number of women members began to increase. At the peak of war production, between 70,000 and 100,000 women were members of the IAM.

The number of agreements signed with employers increased from 5,000 to 8,000 in the period 1940–45. Because of the diversity of industries in which members of the IAM are employed, the number of workers covered per agreement varies from as few as two or three machinists (in an auto repair shop) to tens of thousands (in an aircraft plant).

Problems of Reconversion

The two most important matters before the 1945 convention were (1) the charting of the union's program of reconversion from a war to a peacetime economy and (2) the difficulties of the IAM with the American Federation of Labor because of jurisdictional disputes with other AFL unions.

In his opening address to the convention, the president, Harvey W. Brown called for united labor action to combat any attempts to launch another open-shop drive similar to the one following the First World War. He endorsed a 36-hour workweek, without reduction in pay, and asked for bold action by the union against all the forces and conditions which might contribute to mass unemployment.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Peter B. Liveright.

[2] The International Association of Machinists was founded in 1888 by a group of machinists working for the Atlanta shop of the Wilmington, Columbia & Augusta Railroad, under the name of United Machinists and Mechanical Engineers of America. By 1889 the union had 22 lodges with a membership of about 1,000. That year, at the first convention, the name was changed to the National Association of Machinists. The third convention, held in 1891, adopted the present name, The International Association of Machinists.

[3] Membership figures except for 1945 and 1889 are based on the AFL reports showing the number of union members for which per capita tax had been paid to the AFL. The 1945 figure is based on the union's claim of 750,000 members less 70,000 in the armed forces. The figure for 1889 is taken from estimates of the machinists.

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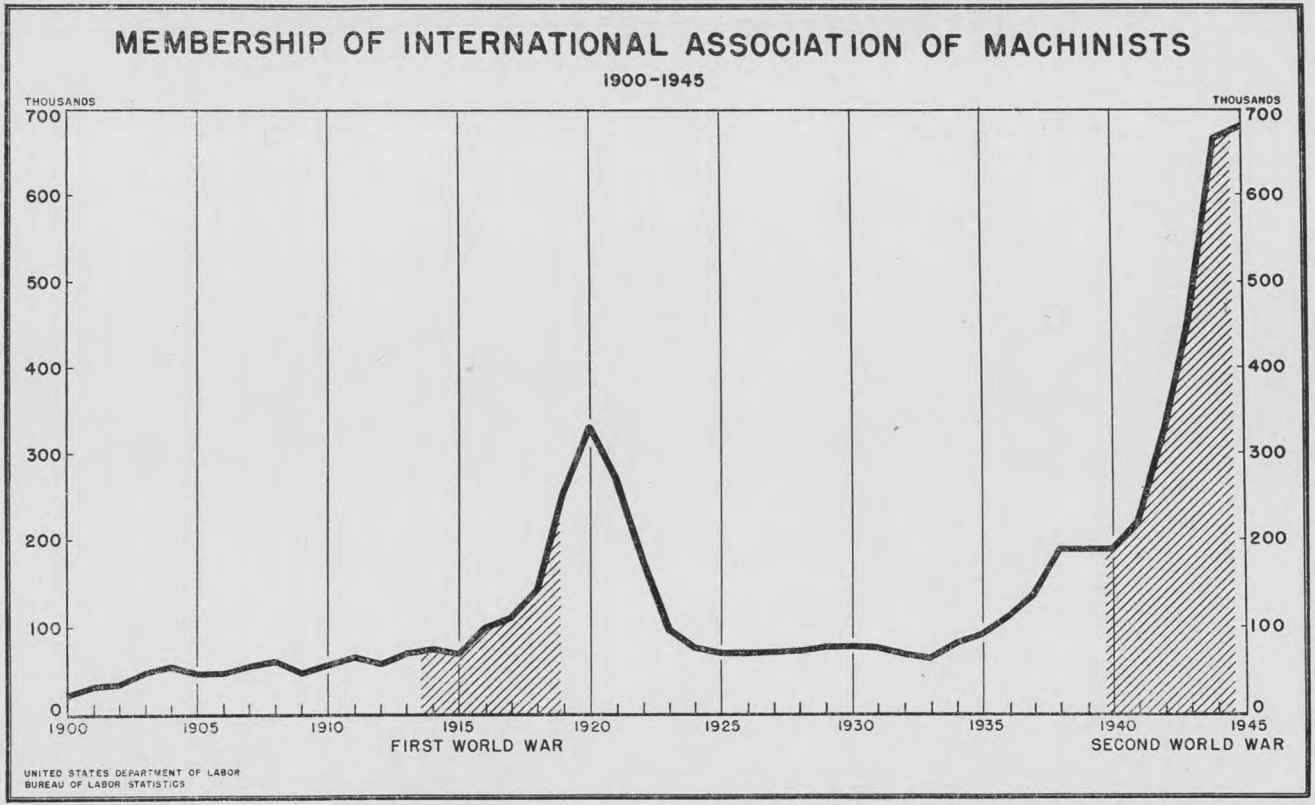

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The problems of the IAM have been greatly increased because of the wide range of industries in which members of the association are employed. The IAM has substantial membership in the aircraft, shipbuilding, railroad, machinery, and automotive-repair industries, each of which presents serious postwar problems.

RECONVERSION PROBLEMS OF SPECIFIC INDUSTRIES

Aircraft industry.—The greatest growth in the IAM membership during the war took place in the aircraft industry. In 1940 the machinists had about 20,000 members in 17 aircraft lodges; by April 1945 they had 131 lodges with about 160,000 members (not including machinists working for subcontractors of aircraft parts), or nearly 25 percent of the total IAM membership.

In order to organize the thousands of unskilled and semiskilled workers in the large mass-production aircraft plants more effectively and also to meet the competition of other unions, the aircraft lodges of the IAM have been organized on an industrial rather than craft basis. A resolution introduced by six large Boeing aircraft lodges of the IAM endorsed the industrial type of organization in mass-production industries and was overwhelmingly adopted by the delegates.

The aircraft committee's report, which was also adopted, advocated the following program intended to help maintain employment in the aircraft industry:

(1) Maintenance of an adequate military air force with full consideration of possible need for rapid expansion.
(2) Maximum development of commercial air transportation with possible Federal aid.
(3) Promotion of civil noncommercial flying, including Federal subsidization of flying instruction for the national youth.
(4) Orderly disposal of surplus aeronautical materials.
(5) Legislation to promote scientific research and scientific education through a Government-supported National Research Foundation.
(6) Promotion of foreign markets for aircraft aided by a liberal governmental policy consistent with national security.

An immediate drive for the establishment of 52 hours' take-home pay for a 40-hour week in the airframe industry was voted by the delegates in a resolution introduced by two West Coast aircraft lodges. The executive council was given authority to take any necessary actions on an industry-wide basis to enforce this demand, including (but not limited to) the full use of "economic strength" if negotiations fail.

The interest of the machinists' union in finding new ways of maintaining full employment for the membership was indicated by the announcement that the IAM international president had become a member of the board of directors of a development and engineering organization engaged in promoting the manufacture of dwelling units in plants formerly used in the aircraft industry. The president of the corporation told the convention that the company had developed an emergency barrack for overseas housing relief and a circular factory-built and inexpensive permanent home well suited for mass production in aircraft plants, using the same fabrication methods as are used in building airframes. In his opinion construction of such dwelling units could easily absorb unused facilities of the aircraft industry, provide thousands of jobs, and make available for the first time large numbers of low- and medium-price homes to meet some of the urgent postwar housing needs.

Railroad industry.—The employees of the railroad machine shops are the oldest groups in the IAM. The IAM officers' report noted

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that "the work of organizing the machinists on railroads is almost completed," and the IAM now "holds agreements on all class I railroads except the Pennsylvania Railroad and on all short-line railroads except some very small and scattered properties." For the most part these are joint agreements with other crafts affiliated with the Railway Employees Department of the AFL.

The convention endorsed the following program for the railroad industry: (1) A national working-rules agreement to standardize conditions throughout the railroad industry; (2) a 36-hour week, with time and a half for Saturday and double time for Sundays; (3) weekly paydays; (4) extra pay for night work; (5) 15 days' sick leave annually; (6) enactment of a Federal railroad workmen's compensation law to protect workers in the several States where they are not covered by a workmen's compensation act; (7) liberalized vacation agreements; and (8) amendment of the Railroad Retirement Act, to increase the monthly annuities.

Government employees.—District No. 44 of the IAM is composed of lodges whose membership is employed in navy yards, naval stations, arsenals, the Panama Canal, and other Federal service. The following program particularly applicable to these Government employees was adopted by the convention: (1) Time and a half for work on Saturday and double time for work on Sunday, (2) action to secure an adequate increase in wages for all Government employees coming under the jurisdiction of the IAM, to offset loss in take-home pay caused by shorter hours and increased cost of living, and (3) the adoption of the Magnuson-De Lacy bill, which would establish a seniority system similar to the type generally established by the machinists through collective bargaining. Another resolution adopted by the delegates advocated the enactment of legislation to permit employees to retire after 30 years of Government service, regardless of age.

OTHER IMPORTANT RESOLUTIONS

General legislative program.—The convention went on record as favoring the enactment by Congress of (1) the Murray Full Employment Bill, (2) emergency unemployment compensation of $25 for 26 weeks, (3) severance pay to war workers and extra bonuses for war veterans, (4) a 65-cent hourly minimum wage, (5) the Wagner-Murray Health and Social Security program, (6) reduction of taxes on lower incomes, (7) a national program of low-cost housing and public works, (8) establishment of a Missouri Valley Authority, and (9) maintenance and more rigid enforcement of price and rent control.

Wages and hours.—The machinists favored an intensive campaign for immediate pay increases to offset reduction in income caused by loss of overtime pay and a 35-hour workweek, with the objectives of securing agreements "which will provide a cultural standard of living guaranteed by an adequate annual income."

Veterans and seniority.—The machinists' union was one of the initiators of the policy of admitting veterans to membership without payment of initiation fees. At the convention the delegates voted to limit, to 1 year after discharge, the time during which returning veterans could benefit by this arrangement. In another resolution the convention rejected General Hershey's interpretation of the Selective Service Act as providing "super-seniority" to returning veterans. The union's policy, according to a statement made at the convention, would be to grant veterans credit toward their old job

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for the time spent in the service; in the event of a lay-off, veterans would have the same standing for rehiring as other workers.

Jurisdictional Difficulties With Other AFL Unions

The jurisdictional problems of the IAM with respect to other AFL unions are of long standing. The jurisdictional difficulties with the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners and the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees have existed for many years; those with the International Union of Operating Engineers are of more recent origin. As background for the action of the 1945 convention in this matter, a brief review of the problems is given below.

As early as 1914, in response to a protest by the machinists against the carpenters, the AFL convention unanimously (1) reaffirmed the jurisdiction of the machinists over the building, assembling, erecting, dismantling, and repairing of machinery wherever used, (2) directed the carpenters to discontinue infringement upon this field, and (3) instructed the president and executive council of the AFL to "render every possible assistance in enforcing the intent of this resolution." Nevertheless the differences continued, leading to frequent protests by the machinists. In February 1938, President Green was authorized by the executive council to telegraph (upon request) confirmation of the machinists' jurisdiction regarding machinery to employers concerned. This led to a threat by the president of the carpenters' organization to cease payment of the per capita tax, unless such telegrams were discontinued. The executive council revoked the authorization in April 1938, and the jurisdictional conflict remained unsettled.

The 1915 AFL convention directed the street-railway workers' organization to desist from trespassing on the machinists' jurisdiction as regards machinery in shops or garages operated by the transportation companies. In 1928 the two unions reached an agreement whereby the streetcar men's union relinquished its claims to machinists on such work, and any disputes over the interpretation of the agreement were to be arbitrated by the president of the AFL. One dispute—in Boston—was so arbitrated, the arbitrator deciding in favor of the machinists. The streetcar men's organization has, however, continued to claim jurisdiction in other cities.

A 1926 agreement with the operating engineers recognized the jurisdiction of the machinists over installation, repair, etc., of machinery and of the engineers over operation of all kinds of engines; in temporary emergencies the engineers were authorized to make such repairs as would keep engines in operation. In April 1941 the Building and Construction Trades Department of the American Federation of Labor by letter informed the engineers that it recognized the engineers' jurisdiction over the repair of rigs and machinery operated by them on building and construction jobs. Although the AFL convention of that year decided that the department was not competent to decide on the matter, the engineers claimed the new jurisdiction and in January 1942 abrogated the agreement of 1926.

The situation was further complicated when in April 1943 President Green informed the operating engineers that the operation of ships in trial runs came under their jurisdiction. The machinists claimed that this was contrary to long-time practice in the shipbuilding industry, under which such runs were conducted by machinists.

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In May 1943 the IAM voted to withdraw from the AFL, but upon promises that the Federation would do everything possible to settle the jurisdictional problems, returned in October of the same year. However, further difficulties developed when, in August 1944 and January 1945, the AFL executive council gave the operating engineers control over the repair of machinery used on the job by operating engineers. In November 1944 the IAM executive council decided to withhold the per capita tax to the AFL.

Action of 1945 convention.—At the 1945 convention of the machinists, President Green of the AFL appealed to the delegates for immediate payment of their per capita tax to the Federation, amounting to about $100,000 a year, and urged that the jurisdictional troubles be fought out within the Federation and not outside.

After hearings by a special committee and 10 hours of deliberation, the convention adopted the following recommendation of the IAM executive council:

> If we are to hold the highly valued respect of our real friends we must, without wavering, continually show evidence we respect ourselves. It is the recommendation of the executive council that, pending fair treatment from the AFL executive council, payment of AFL per capita tax be deferred. It is our further position to overcome the activities of the unions herein mentioned which are raiding the membership and trespassing on the jurisdiction of the International Association of Machinists, that the officers of the AFL, if and when called upon by interested parties, must be required to officially confirm, by written notice, the jurisdiction of our union, particularly relating to—
>
> (1) Erecting and repairing of machinery of all description on construction projects, in buildings (during course of construction or when completed) or elsewhere;
>
> (2) Maintenance and repair of automobiles, trucks, busses, tractors and other automotive equipment and machinery of all description operated by or for local, interurban or long-distance transportation companies, individuals, or business establishments of any kind.

The IAM executive council was authorized to take any action deemed necessary to bring about a settlement with the American Federation of Labor.[4]

Constitutional Changes

The constitution was amended to provide the following increases in the salaries of officers: International president, $12,000 (from $8,540); secretary-treasurer, $10,000 (from $7,540); vice presidents, $8,000 (from $5,540); general vice president assigned to grand lodge headquarters $9,000 (from $6,580); and grand lodge representatives and auditors, $5,000 per annum for the first 6 months, $5,500 for the next 6 months, and $6,000 thereafter (increased from $4,120).

Another amendment provided that, in electing a grand lodge vice president from Canada, voting should be confined to the Canadian membership.

Other amendments provided for (1) a cut in the mandatory retirement age of grand lodge officers and employees from 70 to 65 years with an increase in the maximum pension from $200 to $320, (2) an age limit of 23 years (instead of 21) for apprentices, and (3) a 5-cent increase in dues to help finance a weekly newspaper.

In accordance with the constitution of the IAM, all decisions of the convention must be submitted by a referendum to the rank and file membership for ratification.

[4] A few weeks after the convention, the IAM was informed by President Green that since the per capita tax had not been paid in accordance with the AFL constitution, the machinists had suspended themselves from the Federation.

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Social Security

State Workmen's Compensation Legislation in 1945[1]

IN 1945, 37 of the 44 States which met in regular legislative session enacted legislation affecting their workmen's compensation laws. Notable progress was made in establishing second-injury funds to aid the employment of handicapped workers and war veterans, in extending the coverage of employments and also of occupational diseases, and in increasing benefits. In 2 States the administrative agency was reorganized. In the field of occupational-disease legislation 4 States provided protection against such diseases for the first time, and existing legislation was improved in several States.

Second-Injury Funds

Second-injury funds or equivalent arrangements were established in the following 13 States: Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Washington, and Wyoming. As a result of this legislation, 32 States now have second-injury funds.[2]

Occupational Diseases

New occupational-disease laws were enacted in Colorado, Florida, Maine, and New Mexico, bringing to 32 the number of States providing compensation for industrial diseases. The Florida law covers all occupational diseases, but the other 3 laws are the schedule type and are restrictive in many respects. In addition to this new legislation, changes in existing laws were made in a number of States.

Increased Benefits

Nineteen States raised the level of benefit payments. In some of these States both the maximum and minimum weekly benefits were increased, and in others the maximum number of weeks during which compensation is paid was raised. The aggregate amount payable was also increased in some States. Most of the changes resulted in improvements of existing legislation, but in Utah aggregate payments for total disability were limited to $8,500 in place of the life benefits previously allowed.

Disability benefits.—In view of increases in wages and living costs, the raising of the maximum limitations upon weekly payments was

[1] Prepared in the Division of Labor Standards of the Department of Labor by Alfred Acee.

[2] A discussion of the general problem and the legislative enactments on second-injury funds was given in the Monthly Labor Review, August 1945 (p. 284).

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of paramount importance. Such increases were made in 15 States for all types of disability, and in 5 other States for certain types of disability. In addition, California continued the maximum compensation of $30 per week for temporary total disability until 91 days after the end of the 1947 session of the legislature or until the official termination of World War II. The provisions of the New York law permitting maximum compensation of $28 per week for total disability were extended until June 1, 1946.

TABLE 1.—*Benefit Increases in Disability Cases Under State Workmen's Compensation Laws, 1945*

State and kind of disability	Weekly maximum		Weekly minimum		Aggregate amounts		Periods (in weeks)	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
Delaware:								
Temporary total	$18	$21					450	500
Permanent total	18	21					450	500
Permanent partial	18	21						
Idaho:								
Temporary total	16	20	$6	$8				
Permanent total	16	[1] 20	6	8				
Illinois:								
Temporary total	23.50	24						
Permanent total	23.50	24						
Permanent partial	23.50	24						
Indiana:								
Temporary total	18.70	20.08	10.01	11				
Permanent total	18.70	20.08	10.01	11				
Permanent partial	18.70	20.08	10.01	11				
Iowa:								
Temporary total	15	18	6	8				
Permanent total	15	18	6	8				
Permanent partial	15	18	6	8				
Maryland:								
Permanent partial	18	20	8	[2] 10	$3,816	[3]$4,240		
Massachusetts:								
Temporary total	20	[4] 22	11	15	4,500	7,500	500	(14)
Permanent total	20	[4] 22	11	15		(5)	500	(14)
Permanent partial	20	[4] 22			4,500	7,500		
Minnesota:								
Temporary total	20	24	8	10				
Permanent total	20	24	8	10				
Permanent partial	20	24	8	[2] 10				
Nebraska:								
Temporary total	15	18						
Permanent total	15	[6] 18						
Permanent partial	15	18						
New Jersey:								
Temporary total	20	25		(7)				
Permanent total	20	25		(7)			400	450
Permanent partial	20	25		(7)				(8)
North Dakota:								
Temporary total	25	30		(7)				
Permanent total				(7)				
Ohio:								
Temporary total	21	[9] 24.50	8	10				
Permanent total	21	[9] 24.50	8	10				
Permanent partial	21	[9] 24.50						
Oklahoma:								
Temporary total	18	21	8	10				
Permanent total	18	21	8	10				
Permanent partial	18	21	8	10				
Oregon:								
Temporary total	22.38	26.54						(10)
Permanent total								(10)
Permanent partial								(10)
Pennsylvania:								
Temporary total	18	20	9	10	7,500	10,000		
Permanent total	18	20	9	10	7,500	10,000		
Permanent partial	18	[11] 20	9	[2] 10	7,500	10,000		
Puerto Rico:								
Temporary total	10	15	3	4				
Permanent total	10	15	3	4				
Permanent partial	10	15	3	4	2,000	2,500		
Utah:								
Temporary total	[12] 16	[12] 22.50	7	10	6,250	8,500		
Permanent total	[12] 16	[12] 22.50	7	10	Life	8,500		
Permanent partial	[12] 16	[12] 22.50			6,250	5,624		

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 1.—*Benefit Increases in Disability Cases Under State Workmen's Compensation Laws, 1945*—Continued

State and kind of disability	Weekly maximum		Weekly minimum		Aggregate amounts		Periods (in weeks)	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
Vermont:								
Temporary total	15	20	7	10	4,000	5,200		
Permanent total	15	20	7	10	4,000	5,200		
West Virginia:								
Temporary total	16	18	8	10			78	156
Permanent total	16	18	8	10				
Permanent partial	16	18	8	10				
Wisconsin:								
Temporary total	24.50	25.90						
Permanent total	21	25.90						
Permanent partial	21	25.90						
Wyoming:								
Temporary total	25.38	27.92						
Permanent total	16.15	[13] 17.77			6,000	6,600		

[1] Reduced compensation after first 400 weeks increased from $6 to $8 per week.
[2] For listed disabilities only.
[3] For listed disabilities. For nonlisted disabilities increased from $3,000 to $5,000.
[4] Plus $2.50 for each dependent.
[5] After payment of $7,500 (instead of $4,500) reduced benefits are paid during disability.
[6] Reduced compensation after first 300 weeks increased from $10 to $12 per week.
[7] Increases minimum by eliminating provision for payment of actual wages if less than minimum.
[8] Duration of weekly benefit for schedule injuries increased from 25 to 35 percent.
[9] For period ending September 30, 1947.
[10] Amount payable for each degree of partial disability increased from $25 to $30.
[11] For listed disabilities. For nonlisted disabilities, increased from $15 to $17.
[12] Plus allowances for minor children.
[13] Benefits for children increased from $180 to $198 annually, with total increased from $5,500 to $6,050.
[14] Benefits paid during period of disability.

Death benefits.—Increases in the maximum weekly benefits in death cases were made in 14 States. In 7 of these States the minimum

TABLE 2.—*Benefit Changes in Death Cases Under State Workmen's Compensation Laws, 1945*

State	Weekly maximum		Weekly minimum		Aggregate amounts		Periods (in weeks)	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
Delaware	$19.50	$22.75	$7.00	$10.00				
Illinois	23.50	24.00						
Indiana	18.70	20.08	10.01	11.00	$5,500	$7,500	300	350
Maryland	18	20	8	10	5,000	6,500		
Massachusetts	12	[1] 15			6,400	7,600		
Minnesota	20	24	8	10		[2]		
Nebraska	15	18						
New Jersey	20	25		[3]				
North Dakota	20	23.33		[4]				
Ohio	21	[5] 24.50			7,000	7,500		
Pennsylvania	18	20		[6]				
Puerto Rico						[7]		
Utah	16	[8] 22.50			7,500	7,000		
Wisconsin	15	18.50						
Wyoming	11.54	[9] 12.69			4,500	4,950		

[1] For widow. Benefits for each child were increased from $3 to $5 per week.
[2] After maximum of $10,000 is paid, widow is entitled to additional payments, maximum $2,500, from special fund.
[3] Minimum increased by eliminating provision for payment of actual wage, if less than minimum.
[4] Weekly wage deemed to be not less than $25, instead of $18.
[5] For period ending September 30, 1947.
[6] Weekly wage deemed to be not less than $17, instead of $15.
[7] Death benefits range from $2,000 to $3,500 instead of from $1,000 to $3,000.
[8] Allowances for children eliminated.
[9] Benefits for children were increased from $180 to $198 annually, with total increased from $5,000 to $6,050.

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weekly benefits were also raised. Changes were made in the aggregate maximum benefits in 7 States, and in Indiana the maximum period during which benefits are paid was extended. Seven States increased the maximum allowances for funeral expenses. In Alabama this allowance was increased from $125 to $200, and in Minnesota, New Mexico, and Utah from $150 to $250. In North Dakota the allowance was raised from $200 to $250, in South Dakota from $150 to $300, and in Wisconsin from $200 to $300.

Waiting period.—In Iowa the waiting period was reduced from 2 weeks to 1 week. The amendment provides that if incapacity extends beyond the fourth, fifth, or sixth week compensation for each of these weeks is increased by one-third in place of the former provision of a two-thirds increase in case incapacity extends beyond the fifth, sixth, or seventh week. In Puerto Rico the waiting period was reduced from 7 days to 5 days, with the provision that if disability continues for 4 weeks compensation is payable from date of disability.

Coverage of Persons and Employments

Some important changes relating to coverage were made. The Massachusetts act was made compulsory as to employers of more than 3 instead of more than 6 and elective as to employers of 3 or less instead of 6 or less. In North Carolina the exemption of sawmill and logging operators with fewer than 15 employees was amended to apply to those with fewer than 10. The exemption now applies only to individual operators. In Michigan the workmen's compensation act was made elective instead of voluntary for employers with fewer than 8 employees.

Medical Services

Six States—Indiana, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, West Virginia, and Wyoming—increased the amount or duration of medical aid. In Michigan employers are now required to furnish artificial appliances, and under legislation in Utah specific amounts are allowed for an artificial limb or eye.

Administration

Two States—California and New York—reorganized or reenforced the authority of the administrative agencies to meet the great increase in the volume of cases handled. In California 4 additional commissioners were appointed to serve on the Industrial Accident Commission. In New York, where additional board members were appointed in 1944, a newly created Workmen's Compensation Board took over the workmen's compensation functions of the Industrial Commissioner and the Industrial Board.

Legislation relating to administration and procedure was enacted in Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. In Nebraska, changes were made in the qualifications of the judges of the workmen's compensation court by eliminating the requirement that one judge shall be an attorney, one a representative of employers, and one a representative of employees. The amended law provides that hearings must be held within 60 days after a petition is filed.

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Australian Social Insurance Legislation, 1944–45[1]

IMPORTANT changes occurred in the Australian social-insurance system in July 1945.

Unemployment and Sickness Insurance

Eligibility.—Under the Unemployment and Sickness Benefits Act of 1944, eligibility for both kinds of benefit extends to persons who have attained the age of 16 years but are under 65 years of age (60 years for females) and who have resided continuously in Australia for not less than 1 year prior to the date on which a claim is made for benefit. An applicant for unemployment benefit must satisfy the director general of social services that his unemployment is not the result of direct participation in a strike, that he is able and willing to perform suitable work, and that he has taken reasonable steps to obtain such work. For sickness benefit, the person must satisfy the director general that he is temporarily incapacitated for work by reason of sickness or accident and has therefore incurred loss in salary, wages, or other income and that the incapacity was not brought about with a view to obtaining sickness benefit.

A married woman shall not be qualified to receive unemployment or sickness benefit, unless the director general is satisfied that it is not reasonably possible for her husband to maintain her. Similarly, benefits are withheld from aboriginal natives, unless the director general is satisfied "by reason of the character, standard of intelligence and development of the aboriginal native, that it is reasonable that the aboriginal native should receive benefit."

Contributions.—Money for the payment of unemployment and sickness benefits, like other forms of social insurance, is to be taken from the trust account established under the National Welfare Fund Act of 1943 providing for the formation of the national welfare fund. This fund, which was made up from regular tax revenue, recently formed nearly half of all the nonwar expenditures of the Commonwealth Government. Previously such costs were defrayed from general revenue. However, in the consideration of the budget in 1945 the position taken by the Commonwealth was that a specific levy should be fixed for social-benefit costs and that it was equitable that low-income earners should contribute to the maintenance of a system under which they are the chief beneficiaries. Therefore, a levy of 1s. 6d.[2] per £1 is to begin with an income of £104 for social purposes, whereas income tax begins at £200.

Benefit rates.—Rates of benefit shown below apply both to the insured person who is unemployed and who is incapacitated by sickness, except that the sickness benefit payable per week may not exceed

[1] Data are from International Labor Office, Legislative Series, Australia, 1944, No. 2; The Times (London) September 10, 1945 (p. 3); Employers' Review (Employers Federation of New South Wales, Sydney), July 31, 1945 (p. 180); and reports by Perry Ellis, vice consul, August 3, 1945 (No. 149) and Alfred G. Whitney, economic analyst, August 21, 1945 (No. 5) from the United States Legation, Canberra, Australia.

[2] The official exchange rate for the Australian pound was $3.23 in United States currency in late 1945. Studies in the interwar period showed that to convert one currency into another according to the foreign exchange rate does not give an accurate measure of the relative purchasing power of money but information is not available showing the relative living costs in the United States and Australia.

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the rate of salary, wages, or other income per week, which the director general believes that the person has lost by reason of his incapacity.

	Weekly benefit £	s.
Unmarried persons:		
Under 18 years of age	0	15
18 and under 21 years of age	1	0
Other persons	1	5
Dependents:		
Spouse [1]	1	0
Child	0	5

[1] This provision covers a spouse resident in Australia who, in the director general's opinion is dependent on that person; the allowance, however, is subject to reduction of the amount of any pension under £1 that the spouse is receiving.

A means test for beneficiaries is prescribed by the terms of the law, whereby the director general is granted discretionary power to reduce the benefit paid to any person if the aggregate income of the spouse and of minors exceeds stipulated sums.

Benefits are payable from and including the seventh day after the day on which the insured person becomes unemployed or makes a claim for unemployment benefit, or becomes incapacitated owing to sickness or claims sickness benefit. Payments are to be made only as long as the director general is satisfied that the person continues to be qualified for aid. Provision is made for transfer of the insured person from sickness benefit to unemployment benefit, and vice versa, without financial loss.

Special benefits may be authorized at the discretion of the director general to special classes. The rate of such payment may not exceed that for unemployment or sickness and shall continue for such period as the director general determines.

Invalidity and Old-Age Pensions

Benefits.—Passage of the Invalidity and Old-Age Pensions Act of 1945 amended the earlier legislation by providing for an increase in the maximum pension rate from 27s. per week to 32s. 6d., effective on installments payable on and after July 5, 1945. Inmates of benevolent institutions, in which the cost of maintenance is borne almost entirely by the institution, were granted a weekly increase in benefits amounting to 2s., bringing the total they receive personally to 11s. 6d. per week. The difference between the 5s. 6d. advance allotted for each pensioner and the 2s. paid to the inmate himself is paid to the institution. In August 1945, 310,501 pensioners received the 5s. 6d. increase in invalidity and old-age pensions. The number of institutionalized pensioners was 4,930. For both groups, the total additional cost of pensions was £4,510,500, which raised costs of the system to £27,000,000.

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Canadian Conference Affecting Social Insurance and Taxes[1]

A CONFERENCE on reconstruction was held in Canada between August 6 and August 10, 1945, by the Dominion Government and the nine Provinces, to explore means of cooperation for achieving the goals of full employment,[2] high national income, and social security. A basic feature of the proposals that were made by the Dominion for insuring the wider interests of the country was stated to be the relinquishment by the Provinces to the central Government of their rights of taxation on income, estates, and corporations, except that the Provinces were to retain the right to tax the profits from mining and logging operations. In return, the Federal authorities would take increased responsibility for social-security payments and would pay annual subsidies to the Provinces of not less than $12 per capita, based on the population in 1941. Before adjournment, the members of the conference created a coordinating committee composed of the Canadian Prime Minister and the Ministers of Finance, Reconstruction and Supply, and Justice, and the prime minister of each of the nine Provinces. The committee was to reconvene on November 26 and determine when the main conference would reassemble.

Need for Action

The August 1945 conference was the second in recent years, a meeting having been held in 1941 at which amendment of the British North America Act of 1867—the law dealing with the relation between Dominion and Provincial powers—was discussed, but which took no action concerning such amendment. The need for the 1945 session arose, according to the Prime Minister of Canada, on account of the difference that exists between the Dominion's broad wartime legislative powers and its more limited peacetime powers. Those controls needed during hostilities, which will ultimately be withdrawn, cannot be revoked suddenly without serious dislocation of the national economy. However, the Dominion Government declared it to be the policy that such controls should be eliminated as speedily as consistent with safety. Pending the establishment of a joint plan, Canada was to continue to operate under the war emergency powers.

Dominion Proposals

A memorandum was submitted to the conference making the Dominion's proposals for changes. This document, which was accepted by the prime ministers of the nine Provinces as a basis for study and discussion, was based on the assumption that Dominion-Provincial cooperation would be brought about by agreement and not by constitutional change. A minimum trial period of 3 years was advocated.

[1] Sources: Proposals of the Government of Canada [to the Dominion-Provincial Conference on Reconstruction, Ottawa, August 1945], Labor Gazette (Ottawa), September 1945; Facts and Figures Weekly (Ottawa, Wartime Information Board), August 2–8, 1945; Canadian Affairs (Wartime Information Board), No. 13, August 11, 1945 (p. 3); Trades and Labor Congress Journal (Montreal), September 1945; report from Robert W. Rinden, second secretary, United States Embassy, Ottawa, August 13, 1945 (No. 251); and daily press.

[2] For discussion of the Canadian Government's employment policy, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1945 (p. 56).

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Employment policy.—Provincial cooperation was advocated in the Dominion proposals, to bring about a high and stable level of employment by means of a public investment program to be ready for utilization in times when private employment is slack. Federal aid would be granted to the Provinces for this purpose on condition that they timed municipal public works projects in accordance with the Federal plan.

Social security.—Proposals for social security consist of a national health system, including health insurance and a series of public health projects administered by the Provinces with Federal financial aid. A national old-age pension plan would be administered and financed by the Dominion, covering persons over 70 years of age, and supplemented by a Dominion-Provincial scheme for persons 65 to 69 years old. In addition, the Dominion Government would assume full responsibility for the care of the employable unemployed through a broadened unemployment-insurance system, supplemented by unemployment assistance for those ineligible for regular benefits.

Transition measures.—The Dominion stated that the elimination of wartime economic controls would be hastened and that matters within the jurisdiction of the Provinces would be returned to them. Other transition measures were maintenance of the existing comprehensive provisions for the reestablishment of veterans; expedition of reconversion in industry; retention of wage-control and collective-bargaining regulations for the transition period; and cooperation with the Provinces in the housing field.

Financial arrangements.—Suggested financial arrangements were stated to be conditional on the withdrawal of the Provinces from the taxation of incomes, corporations, and estates. If the Provinces would take such action, the Dominion Government was willing to increase subsidy payments [3] to each of the Provinces, based on the 1941 population and the gross national production in that year of approximately 8 billion dollars or $700 per capita. The subsidy would be increased or decreased (never below the stated minimum, however) in proportion to the value of gross national production. Thus, the irreducible minimum payments to the Provinces would be $12 per capita annually, or a total of 138 million dollars. Assuming that gross national production was 12½ billion dollars or $1,000 per capita in 1944, for example, such a subsidy would total 206.8 million dollars.

The subsidy payments under the tax proposals, coupled with the assumption by the Dominion of the social-security payments for unemployment and for old age, and with other considerations, would assure a surplus to each Provincial Government, the Canadian Government stated. "Under prosperous conditions the surpluses would become very substantial indeed and would make it possible to pay off debt on a large scale." On the other hand, the Provincial governments would be protected against any major deterioration when business was below normal.

[3] The proposed subsidy would be in lieu of existing statutory subsidies and payments under the wartime Dominion-Provincial tax agreements.

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Revocation of Wartime Child-Labor Exemption[1]

EMPLOYMENT of girls under 18 on public contracts subject to the provisions of the Walsh-Healey Act was ordered by the Secretary of Labor to be stopped as quickly as possible. When increased production was vital to the progress of the war, in 1942, former Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins issued an exemption to the act, permitting the employment of 16- and 17-year-old girls under certain conditions. As one of her last acts in office, she revoked the exemption as of October 1, 1945. By a supplemental order of August 24, 1945, Secretary Schwellenbach advanced the date of revocation to September 4, 1945, directing—

1. That girls under 18 may not be employed on contracts awarded after September 4, 1945; but
2. That the supplemental order does not affect the employment of 16- and 17-year-old girls on contracts awarded on or prior to September 4, 1945, the effective date of the order. Therefore, the working of 16- and 17-year-old girls may continue on contracts awarded on or prior to that date, subject to all conditions previously in force; and
3. That where employers have received modifications of these conditions, such modifications will end as of the terminal date contained in them or the completion of contracts awarded on or prior to September 4, 1945, whichever is earlier.

This ruling does not affect the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

The conditions for wartime employment of 16- and 17-year-old girls on Government contracts mentioned in paragraph 2 above are as follows:

(1) That no girl under 16 years of age shall be employed.
(2) That no girl under 18 years of age shall be employed for more than 8 hours in any 1 day, or between the hours of 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., or in any way contrary to State laws governing hours of work.
(3) That no girl under 18 years of age shall be employed in any operation or occupation which, under the Fair Labor Standards Act or under any State law or administrative ruling, is determined to be hazardous in nature or dangerous to health.
(4) That for every girl under the age of 18 years employed by him the contractor shall obtain and keep on file a certificate of age showing that the girl is at least 16 years of age.
(5) That a specific and definite luncheon period of at least 30 minutes be regularly granted any women workers under 18 years of age.
(6) That no girl under 18 shall be employed at less than the minimum hourly rate set by or under the Fair Labor Standards Act or the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act for the industry in which the exemption is granted.

The Public Contracts Act stipulations are included in all Federal Government supply contracts for more than $10,000. They provide liquidated damages of $10 a day for each minor illegally employed.

[1] United States Department of Labor. Press release (S 46-92), Washington, August 24, 1945.

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Rent Control in The Netherlands[1]

A GENERAL law of September 1938, empowering the Netherlands Government to prevent increases in rents, was replaced on July 1, 1939, by the Price Increase and Hoarding Law of 1939 and was supplemented by the Rental Decree of December 13, 1940. The 1940 decree stipulated that no rental could be increased over the level in effect on May 9, 1940 (before the German invasion of the Netherlands).

Under the Rent Protection Decree, effective April 25, 1941, the lessee was protected against eviction, provided he behaved properly and paid his rent on time. However, if the owner could prove that his needs were more urgent than the tenant's, or if official orders required the evacuation of the property, the lessee could be evicted.

In view of the tremendous housing shortage in the Netherlands resulting from the destruction of property during the war (estimated at 2 billion Dutch florins[2]) it is expected that the above measures will remain in force at least for the next few years.

These national measures are enforced by local price bureaus.

During the first 2 years of occupation, when the Germans evacuated many people, and required two or more families to share one dwelling, the local price bureaus sometimes permitted the owner to receive from the tenants rentals 10 to 20 percent higher in the aggregate than the rent paid by the former single occupant. In 1942, however, the Nazi Director General for Price Controls discontinued the practice, on the ground that owners should be required to make a wartime sacrifice comparable to that made by the tenants. As the housing shortage was accentuated because of increased German requisitions, a much wider application of the practice of doubling up of families became necessary.

There has been no change in the rental situation since complete liberation of the Netherlands on May 5, 1945, but plans are being made to relieve the housing situation as quickly as possible, and new legislation may be enacted. The Government hopes to be able to build 10,000 emergency houses by the end of 1945. Much depends upon the speed with which materials can be prought into the country and skilled labor recruited to effect repairs to the 250,000 damaged structures and to replace the more than 90,000 houses which were totally destroyed.

[1] Data are from economic report (No. 1) of Jesse F. Van Wickel, commercial attaché, United States Embassy, The Hague, September 14, 1945, and from the International Federation of Trade Unions Bulletin, September 1945.

[2] The certified exchange rate of the florin on November 2, 1945=37.9 cents. Studies in the interwar period show that the foreign exchange rate is not an accurate measure of the domestic purchasing power of two currencies, but no information is available which makes possible the measurement of relative living costs in the United States and the Netherlands.

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Legislation on Reemployment Rights in Norway[1]

A PROVISIONAL act of September 15, 1944, in Norway, provided priority in reemployment for 6 months for capable workers who had been discharged during the war years because of curtailment of operations; it specifically denied such rights to former members of Nazi organizations.

Some months later (May 4, 1945), a provisional decree was issued which gave reinstatement rights to workers who, after attaining 18 years of age, had been employed for 3 consecutive months at a place of employment, and to apprentices even though they had reached that age later than 3 months prior to the date of their leaving the employment. Such rights, however, were to be extended only to workers who had resigned their positions to enter the service of the Norwegian or an allied government, who had left the country or their usual domicile to avoid molestation by the occupying authorities, who had lost their positions through imprisonment, banishment, dismissal, discharge or other encroachment by the occupying authorities, or who had voluntarily resigned their positions for political or conscientious reasons. As before, these rights were denied to former members of Nazi organizations and to others guilty of treasonable acts.

Under the 1945 act the worker's right to reinstatement was to expire 2 months after liberation or 2 months after the resumption of business operations following liberation, but the time could be extended under certain conditions. Reinstatement rights for wounded or ill workers become valid from the date of their being declared physically fit.

Exceptions to the right of reinstatement could be made by the King or his agent because of the technical conditions at the place of employment, with the stipulation that the worker be offered other employment or be given employment preference within a stated period.

[1] Data are from report of Walter Galenson, labor attaché, United States Embassy, Oslo, August 21, 1945 (No. 10), enclosing translations of provisional act of September 15, 1944, and provisional decree of May 4, 1945.

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Employment Conditions

Labor Conditions in Germany Since Occupation[1]

THE German civilian economy has been in a state of great confusion since the end of the war. Transportation and communications have been disrupted; internal and external commerce has been at a standstill; industries have been closed down or operating at a fraction of their former capacity; the normal coal supply—Germany's chief source of power—has been sharply reduced, and retailers' shelves have been bare of consumer goods. During August 1945, production was estimated to be less than a fourth of the average wartime level. Reserve stocks of consumer goods and most raw materials were practically wiped out.

Revival has been hampered not only by those factors present in all war-torn countries, including the liberated areas, but also by certain additional factors such as the division of the country into zones of occupation with little communication and as yet no administrative unity among them, and the economic policies of the Allied Governments. Objectives of allied economic controls, as agreed at Potsdam, are industrial disarmament, demilitarization and reparations, and provision for approved exports and imports, and assurance of "production and maintenance of goods and services required to meet the needs of the occupying forces and displaced persons in Germany and essential to maintain in Germany average living standards not exceeding the average of the standards of living of European countries." General Eisenhower's reports have indicated that the Germans are unlikely to attain this objective soon by their own efforts.

Under these circumstances, trade-union activities, industrial relations, and working conditions have been overshadowed in importance by such primary concerns as the problem of obtaining food, clothing, and shelter.

Situation as to Food and Other Supplies

The maximum permissible food ration for a "normal consumer," fixed by the military authorities at 1,550 calories per day, has not been met since the occupation started, in any part of western or southern Germany. Even this standard is well below the standard deemed necessary for health. Actual daily ration scales in the U. S. Zone

[1] Data are from Monthly Report of Military Governor, U. S. Zone, Germany, August 20, September 20, October 20, and November 20, 1945; and The Axis in Defeat, a Collection of Documents on American Policy Toward Germany and Japan (Department of State, Washington, 1945). For accounts of conditions prior to the occupation, see Labor Conditions in Germany, in Monthly Labor Review, March 1945 (reprinted as Serial No. R. 1735), and The German Labor Front, Monthly Labor Review, November 1944 (reprinted as Serial No. R. 1706). *Latest information included relates to early November 1945.*

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in October 1945 for selected consumer categories are shown in the following statement:

	Normal consumers (calories)	*Moderate workers (calories)*	*Heavy workers (calories)*
Minimum required for health	2,000	2,700	3,200
Authorized ration	1,354	-----	-----
Average reported ration	1,142	2,060	2,135
Eastern Military District	1,307	1,567	1,833
Western Military District	1,245	1,386	1,817
Berlin	1,247	1,992	2,486

The actual daily caloric level of rationed foods was estimated at 1,250 per person, but, because of temporary increases of available unrationed foods, consumption reached approximately 1,700 calories per day for normal consumers in cities and a somewhat higher level in rural areas in October 1945.

In order to meet its minimum needs, western Germany will have to import about 4 million metric tons in terms of bread grains during the consumption year 1945–46. Some Allied wheat was distributed during the summer and fall of 1945 in the Ruhr and Saar. Assurances were given to the German civilian authorities by the American Deputy Military Commander, General Clay, on December 4, 1945, that the United States would send food sufficient to maintain the 1,550 calorie scale in the American Zone as of January 1, 1946, subject to later repayment by Germany. The British Zone did not meet the authorized daily ration (1,550 calories) in October, but approximated one of 1,350 calories. In the French Zone nutritional conditions were reported to be bad in the same month, with daily caloric intake between 800 and 1,100 for "normal consumers." The French have expressed their willingness to raise the German ration to 2,000 calories per day as soon as that level has been reached in France.

The food shortage in the U. S. Zone has apparently not yet continued long enough to produce actual conditions of disease and starvation. However, the Military Governor's Monthly Report for September 1945 stated—

> Public health officers in the Zone completed a health survey in September and state that 60 percent of the German civil population is now living on a substandard diet pointing to widespread malnutrition and disease, and the balance is receiving an adequate diet only by supplementing the authorized ration with home produce and black-market purchases.

As regards other consumer goods, it is reported that—

> At the same time that reserve stocks of goods have been wiped out and private holdings largely eliminated through bombing and the ravages of war, production (except for food) has virtually ceased. An enormous demand is being built up which overshadows every other factor in the economic picture, and that demand grows more insistent with every passing month.

In the U. S. Zone the machinery for coping with potential inflation is a newly constituted and de-Nazified price-control and rationing system administered by German price offices and economic control agencies, supervised by the Military Government at the regional (*Land*) level.[2] German price authorities have been authorized to grant price increases when called for under the German price regulations (continued with modifications) to cover legitimate capital losses and production-cost increases of nonagricultural goods, after keeping profits to a bare minimum. Each increase, together with the facts

[2] The U. S. Zone is divided into three regions.

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upon which a determination is made, must be reported to the Military Government.

Whereas only minor price increases have as yet been authorized within the area of price control, black-market prices have soared and are 10 to 100 times the amount of normal prices. In the effort to break up the black markets, official barter centers have been established for consumer goods other than food, and enforcement programs have been undertaken from time to time. Large cash reserves and bank deposits and extreme shortages of goods constitute a continuing danger.

Wages of Workers

The wage freeze in effect during the war in Germany was continued by the Military Government, subject to certain modifications. Discrimination in wage rates on account of race, creed, or political beliefs was ordered to be eliminated. Certain war bonuses were abolished. During October, provision was made by the Allied Control Council for machinery to provide for some flexibility in the wage structure. The relative wage levels of different industries which had been fixed during the war no longer corresponded to current labor-market conditions. Employers in the metal industries have sought wage reductions and employees in the building industry have sought increases. The new wage directive, applicable to all four zones, provides for consultative bodies composed of employers and employees, to advise the German authorities on wage adjustments; it provides for review of all proposed wage changes by the reconstructed German labor offices, subject to final approval by the Military Government, and authorizes the German labor offices to recommend needed changes. As an anti-inflation measure the tax on incomes, including wages, has been increased 25 percent for the period ending January 1, 1946, for all zones.

Surprisingly, in view of the widespread resort to black markets, demands for wage increases to meet rising living costs do not seem to have been put forward with the insistence that characterized the situation in Italy.

Labor Organizations

The basic directive to the Commander-in-Chief of the United States Forces of Occupation, issued in April 1945, instructed him to "permit the self-organization of employees along democratic lines, subject to such safeguards as may be necessary to prevent the perpetuation of Nazi or militarist influence under any guise or the continuation of any group hostile to the objectives and operations of the occupying forces," and to "permit free collective bargaining between employees and employers regarding wage, hour, and working conditions. . . . Collective bargaining shall be subject to such wage, hour, and other controls, if any, as may be instituted or revived by your direction."

Labor organizations have been formed in all zones. In order to make certain that democratic procedures and forms are observed, the British, American, and French authorities were at first reluctant to authorize regional or zone-wide labor organizations. When assured of democratic procedures, permission to organize was granted by British and American authorities at all governmental levels from

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the local up to the zone level. In Berlin the Russians have authorized the formation of the Free German Federation of Trade Unions, with 17 member unions corresponding to the major industrial or occupational groups of pre-Hitler German unions, and operating on an interzone basis. This organization is now publishing a biweekly paper, Die Freie Gewerkschaft.

Permission to form unions has been sought from the United States Military Government by workers in the following industries and occupations: Textiles, hotels and restaurants, food processing, metal industries, government service (including postal, telephone, telegraph, railways, administrative offices), office work, the "free professions" (artists, musicians, and writers), and agriculture. The initial interest has not always been maintained.

The new German labor organizations exhibit a unity which contrasts with the former cleavages along denominational and political lines. In Berlin, Stuttgart, Munich, and Nuremberg, unions have been planned, embracing all classes and types of workers within a broad territorial coverage.

In the early stages the new German labor organizations sometimes deviate from the customary trade-union pattern in that workers of various occupations were recruited into a single comprehensive organization covering a geographical area, which it was then planned to break up into craft and industry divisions. In Karlsruhe, a General German Labor Union has been organizing all types of workers; a similar all-inclusive union has been projected for the Northern Rhine Province (British Zone).

A delegation of British trade-unionists which recently visited Germany expressed gratification at the ideological unity but warned their German colleagues against overcentralization. The delegation deplored the plan to combine all workers regardless of craft or calling, on the ground that a union movement of this nature would be more susceptible to political suppression by a hostile government than would a more decentralized structure.

Elections of shop stewards to negotiate with employers on grievances have been permitted when petitions signed by at least 25 percent of the employees in an establishment are presented. The ratio of employees requesting such elections has generally been much higher—between 40 and 50—and the labor offices have been deluged with applications. Elections were held in over 3,000 establishments and Government offices in the United States Zone through the month of October, 1945. In Thuringia (Russian Zone), a new works-council law became effective in October. In each factory, members of the Free German Federation of Trade Unions are responsible for the nomination of candidates and the conduct of elections.

Settlement of Industrial Disputes

Machinery for the settlement of industrial disputes has been provided in conjunction with the Regional and Zonal Labor Offices. Complicated cases are referred to panels of employers and labor representatives; simpler cases are settled by a government conciliator.

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The following statistics refer to cases handled by the Frankfort Labor Office (American Zone) between June 1 and August 25, 1945:

	Number of cases
Submitted by employers	712
Submitted by employees	613
Total	1,325
Nature of case:	
Working conditions	580
Wage claims	285
Paid vacations	105
Requests for information	330
Other	25
Industrial distribution:	
Commerce	370
Metal trades	350
Building trades	175
All other	430

Dissolution of the Nazi Labor Front

The Labor Front has been ordered dissolved in all four zones and its property, assets, and widely diversified economic enterprises have been taken into custody by military government. Decrees to this effect were issued for the United States Zone on July 22, and for the British Zone on August 22. Enterprises which it appeared desirable to continue in operation after de-nazification are being administered by trustees appointed by the Military Government. Included are the still largely intact properties of the German consumers' cooperatives which were taken over by the Labor Front during the war; in the U. S. Zone these include 1,585 retail stores, 36 warehouses, and 56 bakeries. The Bank of German Labor (the former trade-union bank which was taken over by the Nazis in October 1933), has been closed by the occupying powers, and its very considerable assets have been sequestered. Claims to assets of the Labor Front and its affiliated holding companies have been asserted by the trade-unions and by the cooperatives. The final disposition of properties and settlement of claims is, however, still to be decided. These questions are closely connected with questions of reparations, equity, public policy, and the eventual reconstitution of a central German civilian government.

No former official of the Labor Front (it had 2 million officials) and no official or active member of the Nazi Party or any of its affiliates is permitted to hold office in a German trade-union.

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Cooperation

Operations of Savings and Loan Associations, 1944

MORTGAGE loans totaling over $1,454,000,000 were made in 1944 by the 6,279 local savings and loan associations in the United States, according to a report by the Federal Home Loan Bank Administration.[1] This was an increase of 23 percent over 1943 and of 5 percent over the previous postdepression record (for 1941). Total assets rose to an all-time high of $7,458,000,000, the increase being attributable almost entirely to "the accelerated inflow of savings."

Because of mergers and liquidations, the number of associations declined from 6,498 in 1943 to 6,279 in 1944. Of the latter number, 3,656 were members of the Federal Home Loan system; the others were not so affiliated.

The purposes for which the mortgage loans made in 1944 were granted are shown in the accompanying table.

Estimated Volume of New Mortgage Loans Made by Savings and Loan Associations, 1943 and 1944, by Purpose of Loan

Purpose of loan	Amount (in millions of dollars)		Percentage distribution	
	1944	1943	1944	1943
All purposes	1,454	1,184	100	100
Construction	95	107	7	9
Home purchase	1,064	802	73	68
Refinancing	164	167	11	14
Reconditioning	31	31	2	3
Other purposes	100	77	7	6

The statement below gives, for 1943 and 1944, some of the salient data for all associations combined.

	Amount (in thousands)	
	1944	*1943*
Total assets	$7,458,265	$6,604,069
Mortgage loans outstanding	4,982,556	4,793,184
Real estate owned	60,383	116,969
Private repurchasable capital [1]	6,305,167	5,493,942
Federal advances and borrowed money	198,891	134,409
Reserves and undivided profits	572,323	533,585
Mortgage loans made during year	1,454,052	----------

[1] Includes deposits and investment certificates.

[1] Trends in the Saving and Loan Field, 1944. (Division of Operating Statistics, Federal Home Loan Bank Administration, Washington, 1945. Mimeographed.)

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Purchasing by Farmers' Cooperatives, 1943–44

IN THE 1943–44 marketing season, according to a recent report by the Farm Credit Administration,[1] 2,778 farmers' cooperatives were carrying on purchasing for their members.

The following statement shows the estimated membership and volume of business in 1943–44:

	Associations	*Members*	*Business*[1]
All associations	10, 300	4, 250, 000	$5, 160, 000, 000
Purchasing associations	2, 778	1, 520, 000	730, 000, 000
Marketing associations	7, 522	2, 730, 000	4, 430, 000, 000

[1] Includes business of both local associations and federations.

After adjustment for the purchasing done by the marketing associations (6.8 percent of their total) and the marketing done by the purchasing associations (4.5 percent of total), it is estimated that the volume of cooperative purchasing of farm and home supplies by farmers' cooperatives amounted to $1,010,000,000, or about 19.6 percent of the total farmer cooperative business in 1943–44.

New features of the survey, which is made annually, are a table showing the development of the farmers' mutual fire insurance companies from 1914 to 1942 and one (compiled from various sources) showing the number and estimated membership of these and other types of farmers' cooperatives (production, credit, distributive, and service).

[1] Statistics of Farmers' Marketing and Purchasing Cooperatives, 1943–44, by Grace Wanstall (Farm Credit Administration, Miscellaneous Report No. 83).

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Education and Training

Peacetime Educational Needs

NINE peacetime educational needs of labor interest were listed by the September 1945 issue of the Journal of the National Education Association, as follows:

1. To overcome the vast educational deficit which the war has caused.
2. To provide for the employment of more teachers at adequate salaries.
3. To lay the basis for a higher level of civic responsibility and understanding.
4. To keep youth off the labor market by extending educational programs.
5. To provide the foundation for economic well-being.
6. To make education for peacetime as challenging as wartime education.
7. To enable civilian education to use as effectively as the armed forces the most up-to-date tools and techniques of teaching.
8. To give special attention to raising the educational level of the economically underprivileged but children-rich areas of the Nation.
9. To raise the level of civilian education generally.

Training Rural Youth for Farm and Other Occupations

THAT the majority of rural youth should not be expected to remain on farms is the conclusion reached in a recent discussion in the Land Policy Review.[1] This conclusion was based on "the technological advances in agriculture, the increasing competitive nature of farming, the relatively high rural birth rate, the outlook for markets for agricultural products, which are always more circumscribed than the markets for industrial production, and the future employment opportunities in agriculture." A large percentage of these rural young people should be encouraged to look for other types of work. Of those not brought up on farms, only the very small number who have particular aptitudes for farming should be given encouragement to regard it as a life occupation.

A new high-school program is proposed, under which perhaps the first 2 years could be organized somewhat along traditional lines, the program in the second 2 years being directed toward bringing out special aptitudes of the students, so arranged that students with definite interests could follow courses which would aid them to enter particular vocations. A strictly vocational curriculum, however, is not regarded as advisable. The courses could be speeded up to cover as much ground in a 6-month term as is now covered in the 9-month term. "This would leave 6 months open for apprenticeship training in certain occupations with compensation in accordance with student contribution to output." This apprenticeship training would be

[1] Training Rural Youth for Farm and Other Occupations, by Sherman Johnson, in Land Policy Review (U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics), Fall, 1945 (p. 7).

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under close supervision, and reports concerning it should be made by supervisors responsible to the educational authorities.

Education beyond the high-school level is required to provide the essential training for numerous occupations. "The national interest in a well-trained citizenship seems to justify special scholarships for the best adapted and most promising high-school graduates who could not otherwise obtain further training. These scholarships might provide either for college or for further vocational training in agriculture or other occupation."

Technological progress in farming has enlarged the possibilities of family farms. With available mechanical equipment the farm family can carry on a larger farm than was previously possible. Sometimes the improvements which result in greater production per acre are as important as additional acreage. The broadening of the scope of the family farm presents an opportunity to earn higher incomes, provided there is efficient management. Without capable management, however, or without ability to obtain sufficient capital to carry on a bigger business, the small-farm family is in a less advantageous position than ever before. These developments make proper training imperative for success in farming.

It is suggested that the high-school curriculum be revised so that a high-school student who is interested in taking up farming as a vocation may become an apprentice on an approved farm for the last 2 years of his course.

After graduation, the most promising youth might be offered scholarships, and to those desiring to begin farming immediately, financial credit and other help might be granted.

For the many rural young persons not required for agricultural work, the whole national economy should operate to provide other employment and eliminate artificial barriers. "Rural youth should be informed about the most propitious vocations, and employment offices should be located in rural areas to acquaint them with job opportunities elsewhere."

Retraining of French Ex-Servicemen and Displaced Persons[1]

THE French Provisional Government has provided for the occupational retraining of eight specified groups of citizens, including returning war veterans, repatriated prisoners, deported and displaced and similar persons. Under terms of a decree of May 1, 1945, the retraining courses are to be given in special centers or in industrial enterprises which have the necessary equipment. During the period of retraining, the trainee is to receive, in addition to pensions to which he may be entitled, remuneration equal in amount to the wage given in the trade being studied.

The groups of persons who may participate in the retraining program are the same as those for whom job reinstatement was promised: (1) Persons voluntarily enlisted or called for service in the French or Allied armed forces during hostilities, (2) repatriated prisoners of war, (3) persons deported abroad or detained in France for political

[1] Data are from Journal Officiel de la République Française, Ordonnances et Décrets, May 2, 1945.

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or military reasons by the enemy Government, (4) members of the resistance groups who were deprived of jobs because of resistance activities, (5) persons forced out of jobs by the enemy, (6) persons who voluntarily contracted civilian work under the law of July 11, 1938, (7) persons whose services were requisitioned in work other than their previous work, and (8) refugees or war victims who were forced to give up jobs because of the war and under official ruling.

In the training programs preference is to be given in the following order: (1) Those unable to exercise their former trade because of their lowered physical capacity, (2) those who were unable to study a trade or whose training was interrupted, (3) those forced to learn a new trade because of changing production conditions, and (4) those wishing to resume a trade formerly exercised but now partially forgotten.

Requests for permission to take the occupational training courses must be made to the Offices of Labor within 1 year of the applicant's return to civilian life. Special counselors are to be provided to advise applicants. The Labor Office may also provide for retraining courses if it finds them necessary.

Trainees are entitled not only to the regular pensions for which they may be eligible but also to the wage fixed for certain types of workers or wages, plus a good-work bonus which would amount to the wage in the trade being studied. If the worker must leave his home in order to undergo training, he is to receive, in addition, the daily maintenance fee accorded to displaced workers.

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Industrial Injuries

Accident Experience of the Gas Industry, 1944

By Irvin Dunston, *Senior Statistician, Statistical Bureau, American Gas Association*

WORKERS in the gas utility industry in the United States experienced 14.2 disabling injuries per 1,000,000 man-hours of exposure in 1944, a frequency rate which was 8.4 percent higher than the rate of 13.1 injuries in 1943. There were 3.10 disabling injuries per 100 employees, an increase of 10.7 percent over the corresponding rate of 2.80 injuries the year before. These frequency rates are the highest recorded in the industry since 1936.[1]

Comparison of the industry's 1944 severity rates with those for 1943 reveals even larger relative increases. In 1944 there were 1.15 days charged to disabling injuries per 1,000 hours of exposure as against 0.99 day in 1943, representing an increase of 16.2 percent. The number of days charged in 1944 for every 100 employees was 18.2 percent greater than in the preceding year.

The 1944 rates are based on reports covering more than 400 gas utilities. The reporting utilities employed an average of about 92,000 persons who worked 200.5 million hours during the year and had more than 2,800 disabling injuries, of which 24 were deaths or permanent total disabilities. Nearly 230,000 days were lost (or charged) as a result of these injuries.

The higher rates in 1944 reverse the favorable changes which were noted for 1943. The 1944 rates, in general, are higher than those for 1942 or are at approximately the same levels. Total industry accident rates have fluctuated somewhat irregularly during the past 6 years, and there is no indication, accordingly, of a trend toward lower or higher rates in this period.

There were many inexperienced employees in the labor force of the industry in 1944. In reports from some individual gas utilities, higher accident rates in 1944 were attributed mainly to this factor.

Accident Rates by Branch of Industry

Changes in the composite accident rates of the industry between 1943 and 1944 mask rather striking differences between manufactured- and mixed-gas utilities and natural-gas utilities with respect to relative changes in accident rates in those years. In the manufactured-gas branch, for instance, there was a fairly moderate increase of 2.3 percent in the number of disabling injuries per 1,000,000 man-hours of exposure—from 17.3 in 1943 to 17.7 in 1944. The corresponding frequency rate for natural-gas utilities increased by 13.0 percent over the rate for 1943.

[1] All rates here mentioned were computed by standard methods prescribed by the American Standards Association.

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Despite these sharper relative increases in the accident rates of natural-gas utilities, when rates for 1944 are considered as absolute values those of the manufactured-gas branch of the industry were all substantially higher than the natural-gas rates. The accident rates of the manufactured-gas segment of the industry generally have been higher than the rates of the natural-gas companies in the period from 1941 through 1944.

Thus the 1944 frequency rates, calculated on the basis of 1,000,000 hours of exposure, were 17.7 disabling injuries for manufactured gas as against 11.3 for natural gas. There were 3.83 disabling injuries for every 100 employees of manufactured-gas companies but only 2.49 injuries in the natural gas division of the industry.

Severity rates in terms of 1,000 man-hours of exposure were 1.33 days for manufactured-gas utilities as compared with 1.00 for natural-gas companies; the corresponding severity rates per 100 employees were 286.6 and 219.8 days.

Accident Rates by Size of Utilities

The larger units in the manufactured-gas branch of the gas utility industry enjoyed a more favorable accident experience than smaller companies in 1944. Among natural-gas utilities, by contrast, the smallest units had the lowest frequency and severity rates.[2]

Among manufactured-gas utilities the very large companies had the lowest frequency rate—15.23 injuries per 1,000,000 hours of exposure—while the medium-size companies had the highest frequency rate—26.64 injuries. The frequency rate of the medium-size and small utilities combined was 24.88 disabling injuries; corresponding separate rates were 26.64 and 22.66. Taking the combined rate into account, there appears to be an inverse relationship between size of company and magnitude of frequency rate. A similar regular pattern is not evident, however, in the severity rates of the different classes, although the combined rate for medium-size and small companies was higher than rates for the two classes of larger utilities.

In the natural-gas division the outstanding fact is the comparatively more favorable accident experience of the small companies in 1944. The low frequency rate of this group (8.95 disabling injuries) was approached only by the very large utilities (9.73 injuries). Large and medium-size units had appreciably higher frequency rates. Small natural-gas utilities had the extremely low severity rate of 0.16 day for every 1,000 hours of exposure. The severity rate of the large units was 8 times as high as that of the small companies.

Coverage of Accident Reports

The Statistical Bureau of the American Gas Association, cooperating with the National Safety Council, each year collects and summarizes quantitative information describing the accident experience of the gas utility industry.

The 1944 total industry rates were based on usable accident reports from 403 gas utilities which employ an estimated 81 percent of

[2] The size classifications referred to here are based on criteria related to total annual man-hours of exposure which yield the following approximations in terms of full-time employees: Very large utilities, 700 employees and over; large utilities, 225 to 699 employees; medium-size utilities, 100 to 224 employees; and small utilities, under 100 employees.

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the workers in the industry. Approximately 79 percent of the employees of manufactured-gas utilities were covered in the reports from which branch rates were computed. The rates of natural-gas utilities were based on an estimated coverage of 83 percent of the labor force in that section of the industry.

Data covering all operations of the reporting gas utilities as well as the gas departments of combination companies were used in calculating the various rates. Information pertaining to combination companies which did not report separately on their gas accident experience was excluded.

The natural-gas accident rates for 1944 as well as the composite rates for the total industry do not include the experience of The East Ohio Gas Co. A catastrophe occurred on October 20, 1944, at the liquefied-natural-gas plant of this company, 73 employee fatalities resulting. This plant, in which liquefied natural gas was stored at low temperature for use during periods of peak demand on the system, was the only one of its kind. The experience of the company was excluded in order to present 1944 accident rates which would be validly comparable with rates for other years.

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Industrial Disputes

Labor-Management Disputes in November 1945

IDLENESS arising out of work stoppages continued at a high level in November 1945, though considerably lower than the peak figure of the preceding month. Preliminary estimates show 335 new strikes and lock-outs during the month, involving about 405,000 workers. About 230 stoppages which began in preceding months continued into November, making a total of 565 stoppages in progress during the month, with about 600,000 workers involved. Idleness in plants directly affected by the stoppages amounted to approximately 6,100,000 man-days or 1.06 percent of available working time, as compared with 7,800,000 man-days or 1.27 percent of the available working time lost in October.

The outstanding work stoppage during November was the company-wide General Motors strike. Other large strikes beginning in November were (1) a stoppage of over 18,000 textile workers, members of the Textile Workers' Union of America (CIO), affecting 21 mills in Maine, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire; (2) a stoppage of some 15,000 truck drivers, members of the AFL Teamsters' Union, on over-the-road truck lines in seven Midwestern States; and (3) a 1-week "demonstration" stoppage by about 10,000 employees of Montgomery Ward & Co., called by the United Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Employees of America (CIO). Three large stoppages which began in September and October continued throughout November, namely, lumber workers in the Pacific Northwest, glass workers in 7 States, and machinists in the San Francisco Bay area.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes and Lock-outs in November 1945, With Comparable Figures for Earlier Periods*

Period	Strikes and lock-outs beginning in period		Man-days idle during period (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
November 1945 [1]	335	405,000	6,100,000	1.06
October 1945 [1]	455	560,000	7,800,000	1.27
November 1944	345	201,000	789,000	.11
January to November, inclusive:				
1945 [1]	4,500	3,285,000	27,500,000	.36
1944	4,692	2,024,000	8,334,000	.09
1943	3,397	1,718,000	12,713,000	.15
1935–39 average	2,736	1,093,000	16,089,000	.27

[1] Preliminary estimates.

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General Motors Corp. strike.—Over 160,000 production workers in General Motors automotive parts and assembly plants, in 13 States, stopped work on November 21 to enforce their demand for a 30-percent wage increase. The workers, members of the United Automobile Workers (CIO), on October 24 had voted in favor of a strike, by a ratio of 6–1, under the War Labor Disputes Act. It is estimated that 50,000 clerical and supervisory employees, not directly involved in the dispute, were also made idle as a result of the strike.

The stoppage followed protracted and highly publicized negotiations, in the course of which the major points at issue were clearly defined. Union spokesmen contended that any wage increase granted should not be used by the corporation as a basis for requesting price increases and that the corporation's ability to pay should be a major criterion in determining the proper amount of the wage adjustment. Company officials, however, insisted that prices and profits be excluded from consideration in the wage discussions. Prior to the stoppage, a corporation offer of a 10-percent wage increase was rejected by the union's bargaining committee. On November 19, the union offered to submit the dispute to a 3-member arbitration board, empowered to examine the corporation's books. The following day a strike call was issued.

After a lapse of over 2 weeks, during which efforts at conciliation were made by officials of the U. S. Department of Labor, direct wage negotiations were resumed by the two parties on December 6. A new complication developed on December 10, when the corporation announced it was terminating its union agreement, in accordance with a clause permitting cancellation of the contract in the event of a strike lasting more than 10 days. Several counterdemands were later submitted by the corporation including, among others, elimination of the maintenance-of-membership provision, penalties against employees participating in stoppages in violation of the agreement, and a specific guaranty of "management prerogatives."

Meanwhile, on December 3, President Truman announced that he would appoint a 3-man fact-finding board to investigate the dispute, and requested the strikers to return to work pending its findings. This request was rejected by the union, but both parties indicated their willingness to appear before the board. On December 12 the board was established, consisting of Judge Walter P. Stacy, Chairman of the recently concluded Labor-Management Conference, Lloyd K. Garrison, Chairman of the National War Labor Board, and Milton Eisenhower, President of Kansas State College, The board began hearings later in the month. On the crucial issue as to whether ability to pay would be considered in its findings, the board stated on December 21 that this factor would be considered as a relevant, but not as a sole factor, in its recommendations. On December 28, in protest against this policy of the fact-finding board, representatives of the corporation withdrew from a hearing of the board and stated that they would refuse to participate further as long as "ability to pay is to be treated as a subject of investigation, fact finding and recommendations." The board, nevertheless, proceeded with its investigation. The stoppage was still in effect at the end of December.

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Activities of U. S. Department of Labor's Conciliation Service, November 1945

During November 1945, the United States Department of Labor's Conciliation Service disposed of 1,508 situations as compared with 1,825 situations in October. During November of 1944, 2,017 situations were closed.

Of the estimated 565 stoppages in progress during the month, 256 were settled by the Conciliation Service. The records show that 371 situations were threatened strikes and 667 were controversies in which the employer, employees, and other interested parties asked for the assignment of a Commissioner of Conciliation to assist in the adjustment of disputes. Ten cases were certified during the month to the National War Labor Board. The remaining 214 situations included 92 arbitrations, 12 technical services, 32 investigations, and 78 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

TABLE 2.—*Cases Closed by Conciliation Service, U. S. Department of Labor, in November 1945, by Type of Situation and Method of Handling*

Method of handling	Total	Strikes and lock-outs	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations
All methods	1,508	256	371	667	214
Settled by conciliation	1,498	256	370	658	----
Certified to National War Labor Board	10	----	1	9	----
Decisions rendered in arbitration	92	----	----	----	92
Technical services completed	12	----	----	----	12
Investigations, special services	110	----	----	----	110

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Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor[1]

Veterans' Rights

AN ARBITRATOR held that a company had fulfilled its obligations under the Selective Service Act by offering a returned veteran a higher-rated job than the one he had left, even though the veteran preferred his old job which had been expanded during his absence to include supervisory work.[2] The union contended he was entitled to his old job even though the content had been expanded, but the arbitrator took the company's view that seniority rights referred to by the union did not apply to promotions to supervisory positions. The appointment of supervisors is a right reserved exclusively to management. The veteran received a better job than the one he had left and is better off than if he goes back to an expanded job which he might be incapable of handling well.

Fair Labor Standards Act

Compensation for nonproductive hours.—Three district courts have ruled on the issues of what nonproductive hours must be included in computing working time, in the following cases:

The District Court of Illinois held that time which employees are required to spend before and after regularly scheduled working hours in changing clothes and performing miscellaneous duties constitutes working time within the meaning of the Fair Labor Standards Act when the company furnishes uniforms to employees, requires that they be worn during working hours, and will not permit them to be worn off the company's premises.[3]

The District Court of California held that a nonexempt supervisory employee who spent time outside his regular working hours arranging recreational events to promote bond drives and consulted with other supervisory employees on business matters was entitled to compensation for the time thus spent, as he acted in behalf of his employer.[4]

The District Court of Ohio ruled that time spent by employees, prior to their hours of duty, in traveling from the outer gate of the employer's plant to the time office and then to the site of work, and

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[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached, based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

[2] In re arbitration between New York and Brooklyn Casket Co. and Casket Makers' Local of United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America (AFL), September 29, 1945.

[3] *Alberts, et al.*, v. *Porter, et al.*, d. b. a. Sanderson & Porter, U. S. Dist. Ct. N. D. Ill., Eastern Div., May 7, 1945, and June 19, 1945.

[4] *Gorchakoff* v. *California Shipbuilding Corp.*, U. S. Dist. Ct. ,S. D. Calif., Oct. 9, 1945.

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the time similarly spent at the end of work, constituted hours worked if the employees during this time were subject to regulations of the employer.[5]

Employees, not required on premises at lunch hour, not entitled to overtime.—The District Court of Texas in *Thomas* v. *Peerless Carbon Co.*, 62 Fed. Supp. 154, held that if employees in a carbon-black manufacturing plant were not required to stay on the premises during lunch hour, they were not entitled to overtime under the Fair Labor Standards Act merely because of general instructions to all employees, on all shifts, that when the power was cut off for any reason, the men must within 5 minutes begin to turn off gas throughout the plant. It is only to be expected, the court pointed out, that when danger threatens the plant and its equipment, whether by fire or loss of current, all employees would quit their lunches voluntarily and aid in overcoming the danger.

No reduction from back pay for refusal to accept employer-proffered job.—The Circuit Court of Appeals for the 10th Circuit[6] held that the amount payable under a back-wage award of the National Labor Relations Board may not be decreased by the amount which discriminatorily discharged employees would have earned had they accepted lower-paid jobs offered by the discharging employer.

The employer had told employees that as cost clerks they were a part of management, and if they joined unions they would be transferred to lower-paying production jobs. The employees joined the union and left the plant, refusing to accept the lower-rate jobs. The court upheld the Board's finding that these employees were not supervisors or a part of management and that the demotion which the employees refused to accept was discrimination.

Decisions of National Labor Relations Board

Employer's petition for election, not supported by employees, accepted.—The Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board entertained an employer's petition for an election even though the petition stated the employees did not want to join a union.[7] The employer had refused to bargain with a union on the ground that it had no majority status, and the union picketed the plant, demanding recognition. The union asked for a dismissal of the petition, claiming that it was designed not to encourage collective bargaining but to initiate individual bargaining. The Board, however, rejected this argument, saying that if the union did not want an election it should cease picketing and making demands on the employer. The union's request being irreconcilable with its actions, the Board ordered an election.

Court determines what constitutes fair Board hearing.—The Circuit Court of Appeals, 8th Circuit, set aside an order of the National Labor Relations Board on the ground that the employer had not had a fair trial.[8] The court based its finding on the fact that a new trial examiner had not been appointed for the new hearing and the Board disregarded testimony of employees that an allegedly dominated

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[5] *Ulle* v. *Diamond Alkali Co., et al.*, U. S. Dist. Ct., N. D. Ohio, Sept. 20, 1945.
[6] *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Armour & Co.*, Nov. 5, 1945, C. C. A., 10th Cir.
[7] *In re Roo's Employees*, Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board, Case No. 54, Sept. 20, 1945.
[8] *Donnelly Garment Co.* v. *National Labor Relations Board, Donnelly Garment Workers' Union & International Ladies Garment Workers' Union, interveners*, U. S. Cir. Ct. App., 8th Cir., Oct. 29, 1945.

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inside union was their voluntary choice. The Board admitted the testimony to this effect in the new hearing but failed to take it into consideration. The Board also failed to admit defendant's evidence showing that the inside union had been given a contract with the same terms that the outside union had in contracts with other companies and that the inside union had been formed to prevent the employer from forcing employees to join the outside union.

The court pointed out that, even though the Board's findings of fact are conclusive, the court may determine whether the Board has conducted a fair hearing on the basis of all available evidence and ordered an appropriate remedy.

Labor Code for French African Colonies, 1945[1]

LABOR legislation for French Africa (excepting North Africa) was standardized, and the principle of free, rather than compulsory, labor was established for the same area by a decree promulgated June 18, 1945, by the French Provisional Government. Labor-union representatives are to participate in the making of collective agreements. Maximum hours are to be fixed for various categories of workers, and a weekly day of rest has become obligatory. Medical care and accident and sickness benefits must be provided by employers. Labor inspectors, assisted by consultative committees representing employers and workers, are to supervise and give advice on labor problems, and arbitration boards may be created by decrees of the Governors. Employers are to contribute to compensation funds from which family, marriage, and retirement benefits may be paid.

Labor Contracts

Industrial contracts.—Contracts of work may not exceed 2 years in duration, and, for workers unaccompanied by their families, may not exceed 12 months. Contracts for periods longer than 3 months or for employment in an establishment beyond the area of origin must be in writing and subject to the supervision of the administrative head of the region in which the hiring takes place. Expense of transporting the worker and his family is to be borne by the employer.

In addition to the name, nationality, occupation, and residence of the employer and the worker, the contract must show (1) further identifying detail regarding the worker, number, date, and origin of identity certificate (birth date, family status, etc.), (2) the nature of the work and its effective duration, which must not be less than 15 days per month, (3) the wage rate, which must be equal at least to the minimum rate established by the Governor, (4) the quantity and type of rations to be provided, and the housing conditions and arrangements for the worker's family, (5) the advances made at the time of hiring, and (6) other special provisions and information.

If an employer wishes to cancel a contract before its regular expiration, he must give 8 days' notice to the administrative head before whom the contract was made.

[1] Data are from Journal Officiel de la République Française, Ordonnanes et Décrets, June 20, 1945; and Free France (French Press and Information Service, New York), August 15 and September 15, 1945.

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Collective agreements.—Conditions of work which are to prevail in one establishment or a group of establishments must be defined in written collective agreements. These agreements are to be made between representatives of a trade-union or other group of workers and representatives of an employer or of a group of employers. When no group representing the workers exists, a collective agreement may be made between the employers and the head of the administrative services (as representative of the workers).

If the collective agreement is for an indefinite period of time, it may be terminated by either of the parties, on 3 months' notice.

Workbooks and employment registers.—Workbooks are to be given workers by the head of the administrative services. These books must contain a copy of any written employment contract, as well as specified identification of the worker and his family status. No statements regarding the worker's conduct or ability are to be entered in the book.

The employer must maintain a register of employment showing the names of workers employed, the day or month in which hired, the work done, wages paid and ration distributed, advances made, etc.

Conditions of Work

Children less than 14 years of age may not be employed by heads of establishments or commanders of ships, but children 12 to 14 years of age may, on approval, be employed in light agricultural or domestic work. Night work for women and children is to be regulated by the terms of the International Convention of Washington.

The interruption of work for 10 consecutive weeks within the period preceding and following a woman's confinement may not be used as cause for breaking the work contract. During this period the woman is to have the right to free medical aid and to a benefit determined by the Governor but amounting to not less than half her wage.

The workday for men, women, or children, in public, private, lay, or religious establishments, is not to exceed 8 hours. When the work is urgent or unusual, a Governor may prolong the length of the workday by decree, provided that the total workweek is not more than 48 hours. A weekly rest day of 24 consecutive hours must be given, preferably on Sunday.

The wage rate may not be less than the minimum set by decree of the Governor on advice of the labor inspector, and fixed supplementary rates must be paid for night work. For similar work under similar conditions, women are to have the right to the same wage as men. Wage deductions may be made only (1) to repay loans made to the worker, and (2) to establish a marriage fund. Wages must be paid in legal currency. Payments in kind and notably payments in alcohol are forbidden. The employer must supply to all workers a daily "living ration," or pay its equivalent in cash.

Workers who have been in employment with the same employer for 1 year and have worked 240 days are given the right to 10 days' leave on full pay.

Members of a worker's family are given the right to housing quarters (lodging) and a plot of land situated near the worker.

An employer may operate a store selling supplies to the workers only if (1) the workers are not obliged to patronize it, (2) sales are made

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only in cash and without profit, and (3) separate accounts are kept for the store.

Workers are to have the right to free legal assistance, in case of litigation concerning wages or sick or accident benefits.

Social Insurance and Other Benefits

Medical care.—Certain medical facilities must be maintained by employers, as follows: Establishments with 1,000 or more workers, a medical service and a resident physician approved by the labor inspector; underground mining companies with 500 workers, a physician; establishments with 100 or more workers, an approved resident medical attendant; and establishments with over 20 but fewer than 100 workers, a first-aid station. The employer must also provide daily medical inspection of workers who are ill (and of their families if they desire it), as well as medical supplies and attendance in the case of sickness of a worker or members of his family living with him, and necessary hospitalization expenses for a maximum of 30 days.

Workmen's compensation.—Accident compensation must be paid by the employer for all work accidents. For the first 3 days, compensation equals the regular daily wage plus the daily ration or "living indemnity," and after the third day equals the daily ration or indemnity and half the daily wage. If permanently disabled, the worker is entitled to compensation equal to 1,000 times his daily wage (in money and in kind [2]) at the time of his incapacitation, and if partially disabled, to a specified smaller amount.

If death results within 6 months, the heirs are to be paid a sum equal to 500 times the daily remuneration.

Social insurance.—Family-, maternity-, and marriage-allowance systems are to be established in the territories covered by the decree. Funds for them will be built up from compulsory employer contributions and local government subsidies, and (in case of the marriage funds) also from the wages of unmarried male workers.

Workers with a certain number of years' service are to have the right to retirement pensions under a system to be established.

Labor Inspection and Arbitration

A labor inspector is to have charge of labor conditions in each colony. He is to be assisted by a consultative commission composed of equal numbers of representatives of employers (named by the chambers of commerce and agriculture) and of workers (named by the Governor and chosen, as far as possible, from the most representative trade-unions). The proportion of native and European members and the length of their term (not to exceed 5 years) are to be fixed by decree.

In each territory covered by this legislation, the Governor is to create an arbitration board, establish its territorial jurisdiction, and name its three members. The president of the board is to be the chief of the administrative services or an official named by the Governor; one of the two members must be a European employer in full possession of his civil and political rights, and the other a worker (preferably a labor-union officer); both must be selected on the recommendation of the labor inspector.

Decisions of the boards are final, except in cases involving claims exceeding 1,000 francs, which may be appealed to a civil court.

[2] "In kind" as used in reference to calculation of disability compensation apparently means the "living ration" which each employee receives in addition to his money wage.

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Wage and Hour Statistics

Wartime Labor Force of St. Paul Propeller Plant[1]

Summary

CONCERNED for the welfare of the millions of workers recruited for war production, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in the spring of 1945, undertook a series of surveys designed to disclose the war workers' problems through analysis of their experiences. Among the workers selected for study was a group of 248 employed in a St. Paul propeller plant which shut down soon after hostilities ended in the Pacific war.

The plant was considered typical of many others engaged in a purely war production job. The individual workers were carefully chosen to be representative of the entire 2,300 employed in the plant.

The survey, the results of which are summarized here, was designed to ascertain where these workers came from, why they went into war industry, how they acquired the necessary skills, what changes the war made in their lives, and what were their hopes, expectations and postwar plans. The same workers are to be reinterviewed periodically to determine the effects of reconversion on their economic situation.

Though making propellers when surveyed in April 1945, the group studied was found to consist in large part of prewar farmers, white-collar workers, housewives, businessmen, and professionals. Some of the workers had come to St. Paul from over 500 miles away. Most of them had held several jobs during the war, but few had had formal vocational training. Generally their wartime occupational and industrial shifts had brought substantially increased earnings. When surveyed, they were earning an average of $68.50 per week at the propeller plant. In terms of January 1941 purchasing power, however, their take-home pay averaged less than $40 after allowance for increased living costs, and deductions for taxes and war bonds. Relatively few intended to remain in manufacturing industry after the war. A large proportion of the women workers expected to leave the labor market. Almost a third were planning to leave St. Paul when their jobs ended.

Plant and Community

Although, in the spring of 1940, planes were custom made, British and French orders, and later our own defense program, forced an incredibly rapid transition to mass-production techniques. Propellers, however, were a bottleneck.

Existing techniques of propeller manufacture called for precise metalworking operations. Faced with a shortage of skilled man-

[1] Prepared by Everette B. Harris, Regional Wage Analyst, Chicago Regional Office, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. A more detailed analysis of the data summarized here is available in mimeographed form.

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power, new methods had to be developed to permit the utilization of quickly trained men and women. A peacetime manufacturer of automobile parts relieved the bottleneck with a process for forging and welding hollow-steel propellers, which could be carried on by workers with little or no factory experience.

With a new process and contracts for production, several months were consumed in finding and equipping a plant. Recruitment of workers began in October 1943.

The propeller plant was ready for production about the time St. Paul-Minneapolis employment reached its wartime peak. A concerted effort by company representatives, the U. S. Employment Service, a number of American Federation of Labor locals, and civic leaders and organizations was necessary to obtain enough workers to start production by January 1944. The National War Labor Board permitted the plant a high wage-rate schedule to speed employment, as a "rare and unusual" case.

Most of the workers were recruited in the Twin Cities, but some came from outside, even from hundreds of miles away. Some 60 percent of the workers originally hired had to be sent to vocational schools in the community. Subsequently, all training activities were conducted inside the plant.

With 400 workers at the outset (January 1944), plant employment gradually increased to 2,300 in April 1945.

Personal and Family Characteristics

Personal characteristics.—Manpower shortage, the Selective Service Act, and certain features of the Twin Cities' labor market were mirrored in the new work force.

War-induced shortages of men opened up new opportunities for women. Of the 248 workers studied, 49 or close to a fifth were women. This was in sharp contrast to the prewar situation in metalworking plants. Even as late as the Pearl Harbor attack, less than 4 percent of the employees in propeller production were women.

The effect of the draft was apparent in the relatively small proportion of younger men employed in the plant. Little more than a fifth of the male propeller workers were from 25 to 34 years of age, as compared with a similar age group of almost a third of St. Paul male workers in manufacturing work in 1940. Seven of the men were 60 years of age or older, four of them were 65 or over. Among the older men in the propeller plant, as in many other war industries, were a number brought out of retirement by the war.

The women, on the average, were considerably younger than the men. More than two out of five were less than 25 years old. Younger women, of course, were the least likely to have family responsibilities and were, therefore, the group most readily available.

Relatively few Negro workers were employed. In 1940 Negroes formed about 1 percent of the population of St. Paul. Slightly more than this proportion was found in the sample. There was no evidence of discrimination.

The educational level of the workers was relatively high. More than half (157) had some high-school education and 15 percent had 1 or more years of college training. Only 5 had less than 5 years of grammar school.

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Peacetime physical standards were modified. The company employed a high proportion of disabled workers; 42 (17 percent of the total) reported physical disabilities. Defective and injured legs or leg joints were among the most frequently mentioned, but did not prevent workers from holding jobs as inspector, welding-die repairman, janitor, hot-form helper, grinder, die setter, hammerman, crane hooker, furnace loader, and foreman.

The propeller plant had on its pay rolls a fairly large number of World War II veterans; among those surveyed were 22, or almost 10 percent of the sample. Eleven of the 22 reported disabilities, ranging from "nervous condition" to gunshot wounds.

Family characteristics.—Almost three-fourths of the workers (182) were heads of families. An additional 21 had no family attachments, while 45 lived in family groups of which they were not the head. Only 13 men were in the last group. More than a third of the women were either heads of families or living alone and supporting themselves.

The majority of the workers not only were members of families but were also supporting families. Only 71 were without dependents. Sixty-five of the men were supporting three or more dependents each, and in 13 instances the worker had five or more dependents. In a number of cases, the workers surveyed were the sole wage earners of large families completely dependent on their income from war jobs.

The average number of persons employed per family was moderately larger in the group surveyed than was typical of St. Paul in 1940. However, the employment status of the families of the propeller workers does not coincide with the popular belief that most war workers' families had several persons working. In fact, there were only 38 cases (15 percent) [2] in which two or more family members were employed in addition to the worker surveyed; in some instances all employed members of the family were engaged in war jobs subject to termination with the cessation of war production.

Industrial and Occupational Background

War production brought a new work force to the Twin Cities and great changes into the working lives of those already there.

All but 49 of the St. Paul propeller workers had worked for at least three employers since the beginning of 1941. The largest single group of the men, 59 in number, consisted of workers who had had four different employers since 1941. Two had worked for as many as nine different employers in the space of little over 4 years. Only 35 percent of the women, compared to 62 percent of the men, had four or more employers during this period. The lower turn-over among women was due largely to the late entry of many women into the labor market.

Workers changed jobs more frequently than they changed employers. Changing products and processes, plus high turn-over rates, made it necessary even within plants to shift workers into new jobs. These factors explain to a considerable degree why all but 37 of the workers had held three or more different jobs since the beginning of 1941.

Industry changes.—Only 67 (27 percent) of the 248 workers had usually worked in manufacturing industries. Of the remainder, 44 were drawn from wholesale and retail trade, 25 from the service

[2] There is some duplication in this figure since, in several cases, two or more workers belonging to the same family were surveyed.

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trades, 24 from construction, 21 from farming, and 17 from transportation, communication, and other public utilities. Smaller numbers were employed at the beginning of the war in mining, finance, insurance and real estate, and government.

The industries which many of the workers left offered a degree of security which the propeller plant could not match. It was fairly well known in the community that the plant lease called for the removal of facilities within 6 months after the cessation of hostilities. There were, of course, workers who had no security to lose and still others who could be reasonably sure of returning to their prewar occupations or businesses when their war jobs ended. Some were attracted by high wages. Others patriotically sacrificed income to help in the war effort. Some sought war jobs because wartime manpower and materials restrictions made impossible the conduct of their normal activities. Others entered war work under the urging of their draft boards. In short, the motivations that led workers into the propeller plant ran the gamut of wartime pulls and pressures.

Occupational changes.—Of the 248 propeller workers studied, 226 were employed as craftsmen and manual workers at the time of the survey. Only 117, or little less than half, had normally been so engaged in peacetime. Fifteen of the remaining 131 were usually professionals or semiprofessionals, 23 were proprietors, managers, and officials, 18 were farmers or farm laborers, 51 were in clerical, sales, or kindred work, 15 were service workers, and 9 were housewives.

Ralph A., for 16 years a teacher and high-school principal, exemplifies the professional who entered the factory during the war. Motivated by the inadequacy of his earnings as high-school principal in a small community, he improved his financial position substantially by the change and expressed a hope to continue in his war job. His background, in all likelihood, played some role in his selection for the position of time-study observer at the propeller plant.[3]

Farmers who entered war industry were also frequently induced to do so by the high wages offered as compared with their earnings on the land.

This appears to be the force that drew Harold E., 35 years old, who invested $140 in an aircraft metalworking course in order to prepare himself for a war job. Required by his draft board to return to farm work at harvest time, he shuttled between California war plants and Minnesota farms twice before taking a job in the propeller plant. Though glad of the chance to earn high factory wages while they were available, Mr. E. foresaw hard times coming and thought he would be better off back on the farm when his war job ended.

Occupational changes of craftsmen and manual workers.—The experience of the St. Paul propeller workers seems in conflict with the popular notion of universal and rapid wartime upgrading. Among those who had employment experience before 1941, it appears that 47 were normally skilled workers or foremen. At the time of this study, however, only 24 of them were employed in skilled occupations. Of the remaining 23, there were 14 in semiskilled jobs and 9 in unskilled occupations.

The downgrading process cannot be explained by lack of skilled jobs. The majority of skilled jobs were filled, not by former skilled craftsmen, but by workers who were previously semiskilled workers, proprietors, managers and officials, or clerks. Of 21 men who were previously proprietors, managers and officials, 10 were employed as skilled workmen and 11 in semiskilled jobs. The 31 men who were

[3] All [illegible] used in this report are fictitious.

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clerical, sales or kindred workers before the war seem to have done almost as well, with 11 holding skilled and 12 semiskilled jobs. None of the 7 men who were unskilled laborers before the war was engaged in a skilled job, though 4 of them had been upgraded to the semiskilled category.

There appears to be no single explanation which would account for the acceptance of semiskilled and unskilled jobs by those who were normally skilled workers. Some apparently found that they could earn more by accepting less-skilled jobs in a war plant, while others (including a number of the peacetime construction workers) found the market for their skills too limited as the war neared its end. Still others, voluntarily or under draft-board pressure, chose less-skilled essential work in preference to skilled but nonessential activity.

None of the 49 women held a skilled job. Neither lack of experience nor lack of openings satisfactorily accounts for this fact.

Training.—Most of the propeller workers' wartime occupational changes were accomplished without formal training or retraining.[4] Of 69 workers surveyed who held skilled jobs, only 33 had received either prewar or wartime training even remotely related to the work they performed in the propeller plant.

Upgrading of untrained workers to skilled jobs was a common wartime phenomenon. The process was greatly facilitated, of course, by the fact that the jobs themselves were frequently "diluted" in content.

Only 28 in all reported serving an apprenticeship before January 1941. Another 23 reported having attended trade or vocational school before 1941—15 for less than 2 years and 8 for 2 years or more.

Of the total of 51 who reported formal prewar training, only about three-fifths were trained in metalworking skills or in occupations (such as electrician) which might be considered related to metalworking. Their training apparently exerted some but not a determining influence on the kinds of jobs held in the propeller plant. Of 32 trained before the war in metalworking or related skills, 17 or little more than half held skilled jobs. Not all of these jobs, however, were related to the type of training which the worker had received. One man, for example, who had served a year as "apprentice" in telephone wire and cable work was employed as an engine-lathe operator. Of the remaining 15 with metalwork or related training, 9 held semiskilled and 6 unskilled jobs in the propeller plant. One man, who had served a 4-year apprenticeship as a boilermaker, was employed as a rough grinder—an unskilled occupation.

Nineteen reported prewar training in a variety of nonmetalworking occupations—6 held skilled jobs in the propeller plant, 9 held semiskilled jobs, and the remaining 4 were divided evenly between service and clerical work. Their prewar training had been in the building trades, the printing trades, and such varied occupations as candy dipping, barbering, men's tailoring, ladies' dressmaking, and baking.

After January 1941, training was frequently started with specific jobs in view. It is therefore not surprising to find that 21 of 35 workers who obtained vocational training of 1 month's duration or more after 1940 held propeller-plant jobs in which they made greater or less use of the skills they acquired through such training.

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[4] Throughout this section only training of 1 month or more is considered. A number of workers reported trade or vocational school training, ranging in duration from 1 day to 3 weeks.

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Migration of Workers

At one time or another since the beginning of 1941 one out of three workers surveyed moved from one community to another to take or to seek new work.[5] They moved from farms to cities, from light-industry communities to new and expanding centers of heavy industry.

In all, the 73 workers who reported migrations connected with job changes moved a total of 136 [6] times, an average of close to two moves per person. Among these migrants, single persons without dependents (one-person families) were the most mobile group. Of the 21 single persons, 10 made at least one migration and 5 moved twice. Only 53, less than a third, of the family heads had moved from one community to another since 1940.

Least mobile were those who were members but not the heads of multiperson families; most of them were women. Only 8 of the 49 women, less than a sixth, had moved from one city to another since 1940, while the proportion of men who did so was twice as great.

Family size seems to have exerted little if any influence on the mobility of the workers surveyed. The age factor shows a somewhat more significant correlation with mobility. Almost a third of the workers from 20 to 44 years of age changed communities at least once, as compared with slightly more than a quarter of those 45 years and over. The lesser mobility of the older workers is probably associated with greater family attachments and responsibilities.

More than 1 out of 5 of the propeller workers were not living in St. Paul at the beginning of 1941. Two were more than a thousand miles away (1 in Mississippi and another in Pennsylvania), 6 had homes in Illinois, Michigan and Indiana, and another 9 lived in States bordering on Minnesota, namely North Dakota, South Dakota, Iowa, and Wisconsin. The remaining 34 who migrated to St. Paul were, at that time, living in communities scattered throughout the State of Minnesota.

Certain others were living in St. Paul in January 1941, but subsequently left to take jobs elsewhere, in several cases at great distances from their homes—Alaska (highway construction), California (shipbuilding, aircraft, oil, and construction), Washington, Canada, Florida, Oregon, and Arizona. Several of the women traveled in the wake of husbands who were shifted from camp to camp by the armed forces. At the time of the survey, 30 workers were more than 100 miles from where they had lived early in 1941.

Although migrations were generally short, they were frequently costly. Of 92 moves for which the cost was reported, 19 (more than a fifth) involved outlays of $100 or more. These outlays were in addition to loss of earnings during the time required to move. Two workers reported moves costing $500, and another 6 spent from $200 to $500 on individual moves. Moving expenses, of course, tended to run highest among heads of families, though 4 of the single workers stated that moving from one job location to another had cost them between $75 and $100.

The longest migrations were not necessarily the most costly. A worker from western Pennsylvania spent only $50 to move to St.

[5] Migrations not connected directly with changes in jobs, e. g., a move made by a worker because some one else in his family found a new job elsewhere, are not considered except where otherwise noted.
[6] Excluding moves within the same community.

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Paul; his wife and three children were left behind. A worker who lived in Mississippi at the beginning of 1941 shared a ride to Chicago with several others, at a cost of $12.50; he also left his family behind. One man spent $200 each way, moving his wife, two children, and his father-in-law from Minneapolis to Chicago and back. One four-person family spent $500 moving from Kalamazoo, Mich., to St. Paul.

Expenses as large as those described are not lightly undertaken. The element of risk was reduced considerably during wartime because of the availability of jobs. Return to a more normal labor market, however, will doubtless immobilize many who do not feel free to gamble their savings on moving. Geographical mobility of labor, however, is generally recognized as a necessary condition for full employment.[7]

Outlays for moving were not in all cases offset by immediate increases in income. In 89 cases the workers earned more on the first job obtained after the move than they had earned before, 3 migrations resulted in no change in earnings, and 35 migrations were followed by decreases in weekly earnings. Some who received reduced earnings after moving may have had expectations of higher incomes which failed to materialize. A few moved because their previous jobs had ended and there was no work immediately available where they lived. These probably were inclined to take what they could get after moving. Others may have accepted jobs at relatively low beginning rates in hope of subsequent upgrading. Still others may have been influenced by their draft boards.

The wartime travels of Clarence L., though somewhat unusual in their frequency, are illustrative of the variety of reasons which led workers to move from place to place.

Mr. L., a Negro worker, left his home in South Bend, Ind., for undisclosed "personal" reasons and moved to Chicago. After the completion of a construction contract on which he was engaged in the latter city, he returned to South Bend. Subsequently, the high wages paid welders in Michigan attracted him to the town of Buchanan. Fear that his health was being affected by welding and a desire for outdoor work next led him to Detroit. The unavailability of housing for Negroes in that city caused him to leave after 2 months. Then, hearing of openings in the propeller plant, he moved on to St. Paul.

Unionization Among Propeller-Plant Workers

Union membership was among the new experiences which the war brought. Sixty-nine of the 103 propeller workers who held union cards at the time of the survey had never been union members before 1941.

Locals of five American Federation of Labor affiliates had collective-bargaining agreements at the propeller plant,[8] with maintenance-of-membership provisions. Workers were free to join or not to join the unions covering their respective occupations; but, once in, they were required to remain members.

[7] Sir William Beveridge, in his Full Employment in a Free Society (New York, W. W. Norton & Co., 1945) lists the "organized mobility of labor" as one of three necessary conditions for full employment. A statistical demonstration of the importance of labor mobility for full employment in the United States is presented in Internal Migration and Full Employment in the United States, by A. J. Jaffe and Seymour L. Wolfbein, in the Journal of the American Statistical Association, September 1945.

[8] International Association of Machinists; International Brotherhood of Blacksmiths, Drop Forgers and Helpers; International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers; International Brotherhood of Firemen and Oilers; and International Union of Operating Engineers.

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Propeller workers who joined unions varied widely with respect to previous occupational experience. Proportionately, the largest number who joined were normally employed in skilled and semiskilled occupations; the smallest number were professionals and semiprofessionals, unskilled workers, and those normally engaged in clerical, sales and kindred occupations.

Almost half of the men (92 of 199) belonged to unions; about one out of four women (11 of 49) held cards.

Earlier experience in labor organizations seems to have influenced somewhat, though not decisively, the extent to which workers joined unions. Of 73 workers who had been union members at some time prior to 1941, there were 34 (47 percent) who joined one of the five locals covering the plant. On the other hand, only 69 of 174 (40 percent) of those who had no prewar experience in unions were members at the time of the survey.

Wartime Earnings

Considered as a group, the St. Paul propeller-plant workers shared in the general upward movement of wages that resulted from long hours, shift differentials, incentive payments, and the movement of workers from low- to high-wage industries during the war period. At the time of the survey half the men earned more and half less than $1.25 per hour.[9] The corresponding median for the women workers was 89 cents, and for the entire group, $1.18.

For most of the workers hourly earnings in the propeller plant were considerably above those received during the year preceding the attack on Pearl Harbor. In all, 189 workers (172 men and 17 women), reported 1941 hourly earnings for comparison with their earnings at the time of the survey. Nine workers had increased their earnings by less than 10 percent during the period under consideration, 22 had gains of 10 to 24 percent and an equal number had increases of 25 to 49 percent and of 50 to 74 percent. Increases of 75 to 99 percent were reported by 29 workers; and 61, almost a third of those reporting earnings changes, enjoyed gains of 100 percent or more.

In many instances, a large percentage rise reflected an increase from a very low prewar level, and brought the worker only to the bottom ranks of wartime wage levels.

Not all of the workers were able to increase their hourly rates during the war. Almost one out of eight of the men, 22 to be exact, actually earned less per hour at the time of the survey than during 1941. Reductions of earnings seem to have fallen most heavily on those who had the highest prewar earnings. Of 14 men who had earned $1.50 or more per hour during 1941, all but 5 earned less than that amount in the propeller plant, 3 of them receiving less than $1.

Weekly earnings were substantially higher than in 1941. Comparisons with earnings during that year were possible in the case of 189 workers. Close to three out of five, 112 in all, had increased their earnings by 75 percent or more since 1941. Increases of 150 percent or more were reported by 57 workers. On the other hand, there were 19 who reported decreases and another 19 whose earnings had increased by less than 25 percent.

[9] The entire discussion of hourly earnings is in terms of straight-time earnings. Overtime premium pay and shift differentials are excluded.

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Long hours, with premium overtime rates paid after 8 hours per day, plus shift differentials received by some of the workers, determined the level of weekly earnings. The dividing line between the lowest-paid half of the workers and the highest-paid half was $72.50 for men, $44.81 for women and $65.77 for the entire group. Hours of work per week were 48 or more for all workers surveyed. Seven out of ten, 174 in all, worked 48 hours; 69 (including 2 women) regularly worked more than 52 hours.

Average gross weekly earnings of the entire group of 248 workers were $68.50 at the time of the survey.[10] From this, an average of $9.08 was deducted for income taxes and an additional $0.68 for social security taxes, leaving $58.74. Since pay-roll deductions for war bonds amounted to approximately 10 percent of the total plant pay roll, the workers surveyed may be assumed to have contributed an average of $6.85 per week for that purpose. This would put "take home" pay at $51.89. After adjustment of this figure for a living-cost rise of roughly 30 percent, the average propeller worker had spendable earnings equivalent to less than $40 per week in terms of early 1941 purchasing power. If no deductions are made for war bonds, the comparable deflated figure for spendable weekly earnings in 1941 prices would be $45.18.

For most industrial employees, the war years meant far steadier work than they had enjoyed in normal times. This is reflected in the levels of the annual earnings of the propeller workers. During 1944, half of the 241 for whom data are available had an annual wage income of less than $2,481 and half earned more than that amount. The dividing line between the lowest- and highest-paid halves of the male group was $2,769. The dividing line for the women was considerably lower, $1,365. The very marked difference between the annual earnings of the men and those of the women is attributable in large part to the fact that a number of women were not employed throughout the year, having entered or reentered the labor market at various times during 1944. The differences in the wage rates received by men and women, respectively, contributed, of course, to the annual earnings differential.

Few of the propeller workers were in the higher income brackets. Only 6 of the 196 men who reported total 1944 wages earned $5,000 or more. Of the 45 women for whom 1944 wage income is available, none had gross earnings of as much as $2,500 for the year and all but 8 earned less than $2,000; earnings of 26 (more than half) were under $1,500. The lowest earners, however, include some who were not at work throughout the entire year.

Postwar Plans [11]

In the course of the survey, the workers had been asked whether they wanted to remain in the jobs they then held, whether they expected to do so and, if not, what changes they planned and why.

There was small hope that they would be able to continue in the propeller plant, which closed on August 22, 1945. The lease called

[10] This is somewhat higher than the average for the airplane-propeller industry as a whole. As of April 1945, workers employed by prime contractors making propellers for the various procurement agencies earned an average of $62.51 per week. Average hours worked were 46.7 per week, making average hourly earnings (including overtime) $1.34. It is estimated that straight-time hourly earnings were $1.24.

[11] Follow-up studies will trace the actual situation of these workers after leaving the propeller plant.

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for removal of the operation within 6 months after cessation of hostilities. Throughout its active life the plant made only one product—hollow-steel aircraft propellers, not a part of the company's business before the war. Company plans for postwar production were far from certain.

If the plant's future had been put up to the workers there is no doubt what the decision would have been. Three-fifths of them, all but 96 of those who planned to continue working, wanted to keep their jobs. Evidently hoping that they would be able to continue at the plant, 71 men and 17 women had made no plans to do anything else after the war ended. Many of the others "wanted" and "expected" to continue in their jobs, but indicated what they "might" do if and when laid off or discharged.

Occupational changes.—Of the men, 128 or close to two-thirds had ideas on postwar employment. Slightly more than half, 68, expected to return to their usual occupations or to occupations similar to those in which they were usually engaged. The proportions expecting to revert to their normal occupational status were largest among those usually engaged in professional, managerial, and white-collar occupations. Nine of 11 professionals and semiprofessionals with postwar plans expected to resume their previous type of work, as did also 12 of the 15 who had been proprietors, managers, and officials, and 15 of the 24 white-collar employees (clerical, sales and kindred workers). Six out of the remaining 9 in the last group hoped to become proprietors, managers, or officials.

Men in the craftsman and manual-worker group showed the greatest divergence between usual occupation and postwar intentions. Only 19 of 36 skilled workers with plans for the future expected to engage in skilled labor after the war. Eight expected to start their own business, and 1, rather surprisingly, was headed for semiskilled work. Semiskilled workers indicated a wider diversity of plans than any other group. Of 21 who had some idea what they would do when the war ended, only 3 expected to return to semiskilled jobs, 5 expected to establish businesses, 1 to become a farmer, 2 to become white-collar workers, 1 to become a service worker, 2 to become skilled workers, 1 to get an unskilled job, and 1 to leave the labor market.

Only 6 out of 11 men who were normally engaged in farming planned to return to rural life after the war. One intended to establish a business, another to get a white-collar job, a third to become a semiskilled worker, and the remaining two to find skilled jobs.

The men who were usually employed in semiskilled and unskilled work were the only groups in which a majority gave no indications of future plans for employment. Of 46 semiskilled workers, 25 had no plans except to remain where they were if they could. The same was true of 4 of the 7 unskilled workers.

Among the women who had ideas as to what they would do in the future, a surprisingly large proportion (21 out of 32) indicated intentions to retire from the labor market. Most of these expected to return to housekeeping responsibilities which they left for war jobs, but several of the younger women wanted to return to school. Their plans, however, may not be typical of the postwar plans of women war workers. It should be recalled at this point that most of the women propeller workers were among the last to enter the labor

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market during the war period, and would probably be among the first to leave.

There are indications, nevertheless, from the survey of the propeller workers that more women will remain in the labor market after the war than were gainfully occupied before it began. As of January 1941, only 10 out of 49 women surveyed were employed and none of the others was actively seeking work. Of 32 who reported their postwar plans, 11 proposed to continue working. Some of the remaining 17 who reported no plans may also seek other jobs. Additionally, some of the 21 who expect to leave the labor market may well find it necessary to alter their plans if the chief breadwinners of their families are unable to find work or are forced to accept jobs paying inadequate wages.

Industrial changes.—The service industries and trade loom large in the postwar plans of the propeller workers as a group. Of 96 who reported postwar plans in sufficient detail to permit classification by industry, wholesale and retail trade is the field in which 28 planned to work if and when their war jobs ended. Another 21 proposed to enter service industries, and 19 said they were going into the construction industry, a field from which most of them came. Only 11 intended to remain in manufacturing and, of these, 4 planned to work in the food industry.

Failure to report postwar plans was disproportionately large among those usually engaged in semiskilled and unskilled occupations. This undoubtedly contributed to the small proportion of those proposing to continue in manufacturing industry.

Plans for migration.—The migration plans reported at the time of the interview were often far from definite. In many cases, moving out of St. Paul was contemplated only if there was no possibility of remaining in the propeller plant. In that event, almost one out of three of the workers surveyed, 76 in all, expressed an intention to leave St. Paul.

The destinations of 62 lay elsewhere within the State of Minnesota. Another 5 were not specific, but indicated that they would leave St. Paul. Of the remaining 9, two expected to go to California, 1 to Florida, and another to some unspecified place on the Pacific Coast. Colorado, Montana, and Oklahoma, respectively, attracted 3 workers, and 2 others said they were going to Wisconsin.

About half of those who had migrated since 1940 planned further moves after the war ended.[12] Omitting those workers who had first left and then returned to St. Paul, little more than half of the wartime migrants expected to return to where they had lived at the beginning of 1941. The remainder had severed connections with their previous homes.

[12] This does not necessarily mean that all the other wartime migrants proposed to remain in St. Paul. Some did not report postwar plans.

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Union Wages and Hours of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, July 1, 1945[1]

Summary

WAGE rates of union motortruck drivers in 75 principal cities averaged $1.007 per hour on July 1, 1945, a 2.1-percent increase over July 1, 1944; drivers' helpers averaged 84.6 cents per hour, an advance of 2.4 percent. Almost half of the 187,000 drivers included in the survey worked under agreements requiring minimum scales between 90 cents and $1.10. About 45 percent of the 28,000 helpers had rates between 80 and 95 cents. Of the 75 cities studied, New York had the highest composite average for truck drivers ($1.22 per hour), followed by Seattle ($1.164) and Newark ($1.160). San Antonio, Tex., and Charleston, S. C., had the lowest average ($0.645).

The straight-time workweek averaged 45.9 hours for union truck drivers and 45.4 hours for helpers on July 1, 1945. There was very little change in hour scales during the year. The 48-hour workweek was typical, covering about two-fifths of the drivers and helpers studied. Payment of time and a half was practically always required for work beyond the hours provided by union agreement. Double-time or time-and-a-half rates were required by agreements covering over four-fifths of the union members for work on Sunday or the seventh consecutive day.

Scope and Method of Survey

This study is one of a series of annual surveys of union scales in various trades in principal cities of the United States, started by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1907. Union scales for a few driver classifications in selected cities are available from 1907, but the index series showing the general trend of union scales dates back only to 1936. Data for prior years were insufficient to warrant construction of an index series. The studies now include 75 cities in 40 States and the District of Columbia.

The basic material for this report was obtained by field representatives of the Bureau through personal interviews with union officials and employers in each city. The scales obtained were those provided in union agreements effective on July 1, 1945. Scales in negotiation, or before the National or Regional War Labor Boards or the National Trucking Commission, were checked before the data were tabulated so that as far as possible any wage or hour changes retroactive to July 1, 1945, would be reflected in this study.

All of the figures in this report were based on effective union scales. A union scale is a minimum wage rate or maximum schedule of hours

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by Donald Gerrish assisted by Herbert Abowitz, Annette Simi, and James Corkery.

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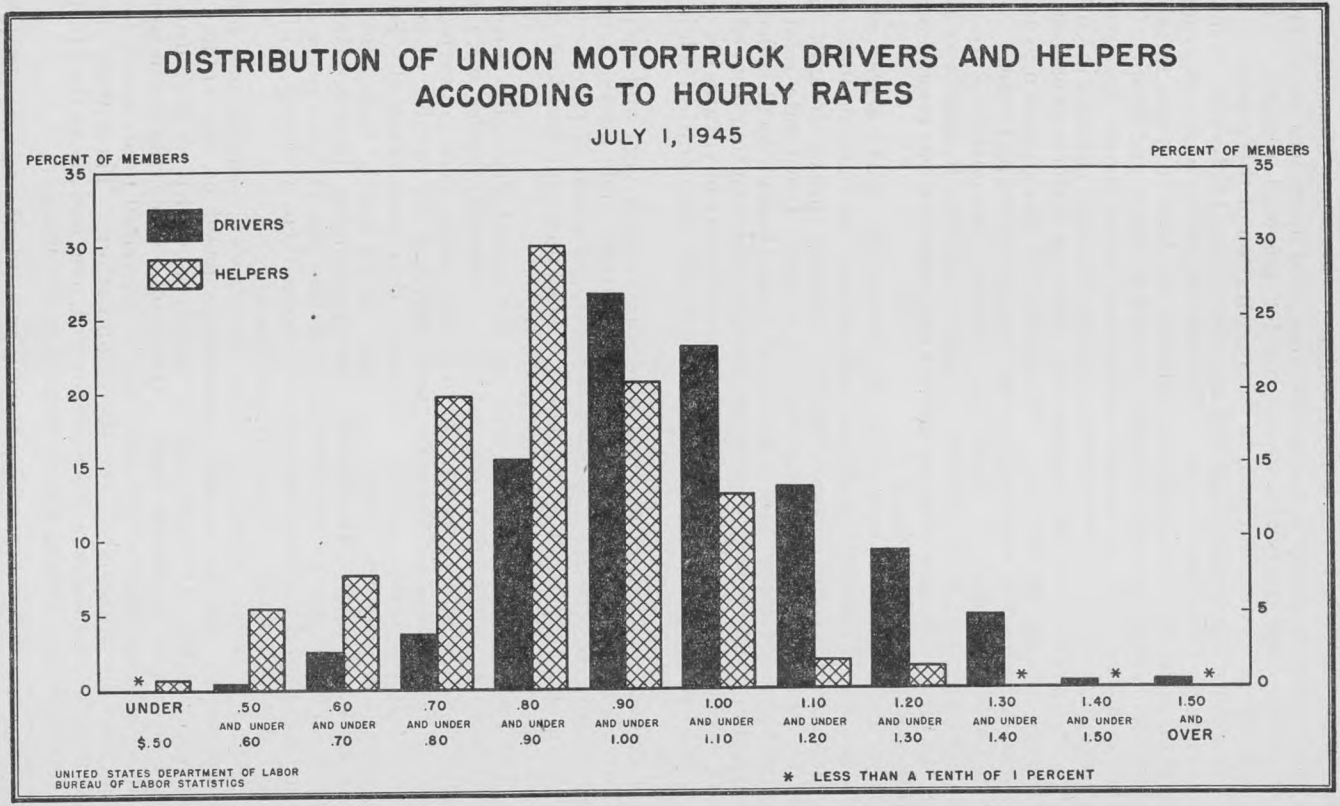

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agreed upon through collective bargaining between employers or their bargaining associations and trade-unions. Some union members may receive rates in excess of the minimum agreed upon because of length of service, special qualifications, or for personal reasons. These premium rates were not used in the preparation of this report.

The Bureau has also computed an index series (1939=100) to measure changes from year to year. The index numbers were constructed in a manner that minimizes the influence of shifts in union membership which might obscure the real changes in wages and hours. This series, rather than the actual averages of rates, should be used to determine the trend of hourly wage rates, because changes in coverage and shifts in union membership distort a direct comparison of average rates in two periods. The percent of change shown in table 5 should be used in determining the trend in individual cities.

This survey covered local city trucking primarily. Rates for drivers operating trucks on long-distance runs from terminals located in the cities surveyed were included when payment was on an hourly rather than a mileage basis.

No Nation-wide combination has been made of the scales which prevail for different commodities (such as coal, ice, building materials, beer, general commodities, baggage, express, heavy freight, and other items), or for different sizes of trucks. Local rate relationships have developed over a period of years through local collective bargaining, and there is, as a result, considerable variation from city to city. For instance, the coal drivers in one city may have rates in excess of the rates for drivers who handle general commodities, while in another city the opposite may be true.[2]

Occupational separation was made between drivers and helpers. Only those helpers were included who actually rode on the trucks. The report covered 215,423 union members, of whom 87 percent were drivers and 13 percent were helpers. Dockmen and warehousemen were specifically excluded from the study.

The union agreements covered by the report generally specified hourly rates, although daily, weekly, or monthly scales were not unusual. The daily, weekly, or monthly rates were converted to hourly rates whenever the agreements specified the number of hours for which the scales applied; otherwise, they were omitted. Some agreements, although specifying wages on an hourly basis, did not contain hour scales. The hourly rates appearing in these agreements were included in the computations in this report. However, the agreements and the members included under them were omitted from table 3 which shows average regular hours.

Laundry, milk, bakery, and beer drivers were usually paid minimum weekly guaranties and commissions based on the volume of individual sales. Over-the-road or long-distance drivers were usually paid on a trip or mileage basis. Quotations specifying commission, trip, or mileage wage scales could not be converted to an hourly basis and have been excluded from the computations. There were about 80,000 union members in the cities covered, over and above the 215,423 included in this report, who were paid in this manner.

[2] A bulletin to be published shortly will contain a table listing all of the scales for all of the different classifications of truck driver, by type of commodity carried and size of truck, in each of the cities covered by the study.

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Trend of Union Wage Rates and Weekly Hours

Hourly wage rates for union motortruck drivers increased an average of 2.1 percent between July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945; rates for helpers increased slightly more, 2.4 percent (table 1). Included in these figures were increases granted in lieu of overtime by the Trucking Commission of the National War Labor Board. Straight-time weekly hours decreased slightly during the year for both union drivers and helpers. Reductions in straight-time hours resulted in an increase in take-home pay in most cases, as the drivers and helpers continued to work the longer hours, but received more premium overtime pay.

Wage rates for drivers increased 10 percent, and for helpers 12 percent, since June 1942. Since June 1941 (prior to our entry into the war) union wage rates increased 18 percent for drivers and 21 percent for helpers.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours for Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, 1936–45*

[1939=100]

Year	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Wage rates	Hours	Wage rates	Hours	Wage rates	Hours
1936	88.5	101.8	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1937	94.4	100.9	94.5	100.8	94.2	101.2
1938	97.8	100.9	97.9	100.8	97.5	101.2
1939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1940	102.0	99.1	102.1	99.2	102.0	98.7
1941	106.1	98.5	105.9	98.5	107.0	98.1
1942	113.6	98.8	113.1	98.6	116.4	100.0
1943	119.8	98.6	119.2	98.4	123.0	99.8
1944	[2] 122.6	98.5	[2] 121.9	98.3	[2] 126.8	99.8
1945	125.2	98.3	124.5	98.1	129.8	99.7

[1] Information not computed separately in 1936.
[2] Revised in 1945 to include wage changes that were retroactive to July 1, 1944, but were settled too late to be included in the 1944 report.

Distribution of Union Members by Hourly Wage Rates, 1945

Union wage rates for motortruck drivers in the 75 cities surveyed averaged $1.007 per hour on July 1, 1945; for helpers who rode on the trucks the average was 84.6 cents; and for the two groups combined, it was 98.6 cents (table 2). Almost half of the drivers had hourly rates ranging from 90 cents to $1.10 per hour and an additional 29 percent were paid in excess of $1.10. The most frequently quoted rates were 90 cents and $1. A rate of $2 per hour covering a few dump-truck drivers in St. Louis (those operating trucks of 8 cubic yards capacity or over) continued, as in previous years, to be the highest recorded union scale. The lowest scale was reported in Des Moines where meat-truck drivers employed less than 6 months received 39½ cents per hour.

Over 45 percent of the helpers worked under union agreements providing rates of 80 cents but less than 95 cents per hour. An additional fifth received between 95 cents and $1.35 per hour, and a third

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of the helpers had rates of less than 80 cents per hour. Department-store drivers' helpers in New Orleans worked under the lowest scale, 37.5 cents per hour, while theatrical drivers' helpers in New York reported the highest, $1.306 per hour.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hourly Wage Rates, July 1, 1945*

Union scale	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers	Union scale	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Under 50 cents	0.1	(1)	0.7	$1.10 and under $1.15	7.1	8.0	1.2
50 and under 55 cents	.5	0.1	3.0	$1.15 and under $1.20	4.9	5.5	.6
55 and under 60 cents	.6	.3	2.4	$1.20 and under $1.25	4.6	5.2	.6
60 and under 65 cents	1.0	.8	2.8	$1.25 and under $1.30	3.6	4.0	.8
65 and under 70 cents	2.1	1.7	4.8	$1.30 and under $1.35	2.9	3.3	(1)
70 and under 75 cents	2.4	1.1	11.5	$1.35 and under $1.40	1.4	1.6	
75 and under 80 cents	3.3	2.6	8.2	$1.40 and under $1.45	.2	.2	
80 and under 85 cents	7.5	6.9	11.6	$1.45 and under $1.50	.2	.2	
85 and under 90 cents	9.7	8.4	18.3	$1.50 and over	.5	.5	
90 and under 95 cents	13.5	13.2	15.9				
95 cents and under $1.00	12.2	13.4	4.7	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
$1.00 and under $1.05	10.8	11.9	3.5				
$1.05 and under $1.10	10.9	11.1	9.4	Average hourly rate	$0.986	$1.007	$0.846

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Weekly Hours, 1945

On July 1, 1945, straight-time weekly hours for truck drivers in the 75 cities covered by the survey averaged 45.9; the helpers averaged 45.4 hours (table 3). The 48-hour workweek was predominant, covering 39 percent of the drivers and over 42 percent of the helpers. The next largest group, substantially over 25 percent of both drivers and helpers, had a basic workweek of 40 hours. The 44-hour week covered slightly more than 1 of every 10 union members. Fewer than 1 percent of the members reported a workweek of less than 40 hours. The shortest workweek (30.8 hours) was reported for night drivers carrying newspapers in Duluth. Seventeen percent of the drivers and over 9 percent of the helpers were covered by agreements providing workweeks of over 48 hours. The maximum workweek reported was 60 hours, and most of the union members working these hours operated long-distance or over-the-road trucks under the regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The Fair Labor Standards Act, which requires premium pay at the rate of time and a half for all hours worked in excess of 40 per week for employees of companies engaged in interstate commerce, is generally not applicable to the truck-transportation industry. A vast majority of the union drivers and helpers included in this survey were employed by establishments not covered by the act, as they were engaged entirely in intrastate commerce or were included under the regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Trucking operations that come under the jurisdiction of the ICC are specifically exempt from the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The ICC has jurisdiction over trucking operations in interstate commerce, as regards conditions affecting the safety of the operations.[3] The Interstate Commerce Commission has ruled that employers of drivers

[3] Generally the drivers and helpers who operate trucks for trucking firms engaged in interstate commerce are included under exemptions listed in the Fair Labor Standards Act which gave the Interstate Commerce Commission jurisdiction over these drivers and helpers while they are actually engaged in truck operation.

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operating vehicles in interstate commerce may not require drivers in their employ to remain on duty for more than 60 hours in a period of 168 consecutive hours. Various exceptions are allowed regarding daily and weekly hours.[4]

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Straight-Time Hours Per Week, July 1, 1945*

Hours per week	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers	Hours per week	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Under 40	0.5	0.5	0.5	54	4.5	4.3	5.7
40	28.0	27.8	29.3	Over 54 and under 60	.2	.2	
Over 40 and under 44	.3	.4	(1)	60	3.8	4.2	.8
44	11.9	11.5	14.0	Hours not specified in union agreement	.3	.4	.1
Over 44 and under 48	3.9	3.8	4.7				
48	39.0	38.6	42.1	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Over 48 and under 51	.9	.9	1.2				
51	6.5	7.2	1.6	Average weekly hours	45.8	45.9	45.4
Over 51 and under 54	.2	.2					

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Changes in Wage Rates and Hours from 1944 to 1945

Wage rates.—A total of 1,022 quotations, or 32 percent of those received, revealed increases in wage rates, affecting about 39 percent of all the union drivers and helpers for whom comparable quotations were obtained on July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945 (table 4). Slightly less than 60 percent of the drivers receiving wage boosts (23 percent of all union drivers) received advances of 5 but less than 10 percent; about a third of these drivers benefited by raises of less than 5 percent. This latter group comprised 13 percent of all union drivers tabulated. Increases involving raises of more than 15 percent affected less than 1.5 percent of those drivers obtaining higher scales (0.5 percent of all union drivers). No change in rate was recorded during the year for slightly over 60 percent of all union drivers. The greatest percentage

TABLE 4.—*Extent of Increases in Wage Rates of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers and Percent of Members Affected, July 1, 1945, Compared With July 1, 1944*

Extent of increase	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
All increases	1,022	39.3	836	39.1	186	40.4
Less than 5 percent	353	13.0	301	13.0	52	13.2
5 and under 10 percent	473	23.1	386	23.2	87	22.9
10 and under 15 percent	121	2.4	96	2.4	25	1.8
15 and under 20 percent	46	.3	34	.2	12	1.1
20 and under 25 percent	13	.1	10	.1	3	.1
25 and under 30 percent	9	.3	6	.2	3	1.2
30 percent and over	7	.1	3	(1)	4	.1

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

[4] An essential difference between the hour regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the Fair Labor Standards Act should be noted. Whereas the Interstate Commerce Commission regulations specify maximum hours which may not be exceeded, the regulations under the Fair Labor Standards Act merely specify the maximum hours that may be worked at straight-time rates, and do not limit the total number of hours that may be worked, provided time and one-half is paid for all hours in excess of the specified week. (See Interstate Commerce Commission: Motor Carrier Safety Regulations Revised.)

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increase in wage rates for truck drivers between July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945 (32.1 percent) was reported for beer-keg route drivers in Charleston, W. Va. The union scale for these drivers advanced from 53 cents in 1944 to 70 cents in 1945.

Wage increases for union helpers follow a similar pattern, with almost 90 percent of those receiving increases (36 percent of all union helpers) benefiting by raises of less than 10 percent. Increases of more than 10 percent were obtained during the period by less than 5 percent of all union helpers. The largest percent of increases for helpers (41 percent) was received by soft-drink helpers in Houston where rates increased from 31.5 to 44.4 cents. The wage rates for almost 60 percent of all union helpers tabulated indicated no change from those in effect on July 1, 1944.

Weekly hours.—Based on comparable quotations for both years, maximum straight-time weekly hours provided by union agreements remained practically the same for the period July 1, 1944, to July 1, 1945. For a few drivers (1.3 percent) straight-time hours decreased; less than 1 percent of the helpers worked under agreements providing shorter straight-time hours in 1945 than in 1944.

Overtime and Sunday Rates

Overtime.—Almost 92 percent of the quotations, covering 93 percent of the union members, specified time and a half as the rate for working beyond the regular hours. Double time was reported as the initial overtime rate in only 13 quotations, applying to a very small proportion of the membership. Other penalty rates for overtime work, most of which were fixed monetary rates not in any particular ratio to the normal rate, were provided for 2.5 percent of the members. Approximately 4 percent worked under agreements that did not provide overtime rates. In some of these cases overtime was prohibited by the agreement.

A few agreements guaranteed a number of overtime hours each week at the rate of time and a half.

Sunday rates.—Double time or time and a half for Sunday or the seventh consecutive day of work was specified in over 84 percent of the quotations, benefiting more than 87 percent of the union members. Forty-six percent of the drivers and over 38 percent of the helpers received time and a half, while about two-fifths of the drivers and over half of the helpers received double time. Some agreements made no provision for premium pay for work performed on Sunday or the seventh consecutive day.

Average Wage Rates and Changes, by City [5]

In 10 of the 75 cities surveyed wage-rate averages for union motor-truck drivers were in excess of the $1.007 per-hour average for all cities combined (table 5). Comprising this group were New York City ($1.220), Seattle ($1.164), Newark ($1.160), San Francisco ($1.140), Spokane ($1.110), Detroit ($1.074), Chicago ($1.036), Los Angeles ($1.025), Portland, Oreg. ($1.024), and Cleveland ($1.010).

[5] The average rate shown for each city is a composite of all rates quoted for each different type of truck driver, weighted by the number of union members covered by each rate.

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TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Rates of Union Motortruck Drivers, by City, July 1, 1945, and Percent of Change Over Previous Year* [1]

City	Average hourly rate	Percent of increase	City	Average hourly rate	Percent of increase
New York, N. Y.	$1.220	2.0	Tampa, Fla.	$0.879	----
Seattle, Wash.	1.164	.4	Jacksonville, Fla.	.873	0.2
Newark, N. J.	1.160	.3	Denver, Colo.	.860	2.2
San Francisco, Calif.	1.140	.1	Grand Rapids, Mich.	.858	2.3
Spokane, Wash.	1.110	----	Baltimore, Md.	.855	1.8
Detroit, Mich.	1.074	1.3	Binghamton, N. Y.	.852	7.6
Chicago, Ill.	1.036	5.3	Indianapolis, Ind.	.849	1.6
Los Angeles, Calif.	1.025	1.4	Kansas City, Mo.	.838	3.5
Portland, Ore.[2]	1.024	.1	Louisville, Ky.	.837	4.7
Cleveland, Ohio	1.010	.4	Reading, Pa.	.834	2.9
Average for all cities	*1.007*	*2.1*	Portland, Me.	.833	.5
Butte, Mont.	1.005	.1	Madison, Wis.	.830	.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.	.976	1.2	Dallas, Tex.	.825	3.2
Boston, Mass.	.973	1.3	Norfolk, Va.	.825	1.8
Toledo, Ohio	.965	2.0	Duluth, Minn.	.822	.6
Milwaukee, Wis.	.957	2.6	Erie, Pa.	.814	----
South Bend, Ind.	.952	2.4	Des Moines, Iowa	.806	1.8
Buffalo, N. Y.	.944	1.4	El Paso, Tex.	.803	2.5
Phoenix, Ariz.	.942	2.7	Mobile, Ala.	.798	3.3
Columbus, Ohio	.939	1.0	Rock Island (Ill.) district [3]	.797	1.3
Peoria, Ill.	.938	2.6	Manchester, N. H.	.794	----
Youngstown, Ohio	.938	2.3	Omaha, Nebr.	.793	4.0
Charleston, W. Va.	.937	1.5	Jackson, Miss.	.783	5.8
Philadelphia, Pa.	.934	----	Oklahoma City, Okla.	.768	----
Minneapolis, Minn.	.930	1.4	Wichita, Kans.	.767	.9
St. Paul, Minn.	.928	2.2	Charlotte, N. C.	.762	4.9
New Haven, Conn.	.924	.1	Houston, Tex.	.762	1.8
Cincinnati, Ohio	.921	.2	Richmond, Va.	.759	4.2
St. Louis, Mo.	.913	3.1	Atlanta, Ga.	.751	3.2
Springfield, Mass.	.905	4.1	York, Pa.	.748	.3
Washington, D. C.	.905	2.0	Little Rock, Ark.	.719	6.1
Providence, R. I.	.904	4.4	Memphis, Tenn.	.712	4.0
Salt Lake City, Utah	.890	3.4	New Orleans, La.	.696	3.6
Dayton, Ohio	.888	1.2	Birmingham, Ala.	.695	5.5
Scranton, Pa.	.887	2.7	Nashville, Tenn.	.669	1.2
Worcester, Mass.	.881	7.2	Charleston, S. C.	.645	----
Rochester, N. Y.	.879	3.0	San Antonio, Tex.	.645	1.4

[1] Does not include drivers paid on a commission or mileage basis. Weighted according to number receiving each different rate. Helpers are not included in this table.
[2] Less than a fifth of the organized truck drivers in Portland are included in this report as the Bureau was unable to obtain cooperation from the local union covering the balance of the organized drivers.
[3] Includes Rock Island, Ill., Davenport, Iowa, and Moline, Ill.

The only other city which had an average hourly rate exceeding $1.00 was Butte, Mont. ($1.005).

Twenty cities, led by Pittsburgh, Pa. ($0.976), had averages falling within the $0.900 to $0.999 range. Baltimore with an average of $0.855 was the only city of 500,000 or more where the average union scale was below 90 cents per hour. More than half of the remaining cities had average rates in excess of $0.800 per hour. Thirteen of the 15 cities having the lowest averages were in the South, with the lowest average ($0.645) indicated for San Antonio, Tex., and Charleston, S. C.

PERCENTAGE CHANGES, BY CITY [6]

During the period July 1, 1944, to July 1, 1945, 32 cities registered increases in their base rates above the average increase for all cities

[6] The percentage changes were based on specific rates weighted by the number of members working at each rate. Only those quotations showing comparable data for both 1944 and 1945 were included. Specific increases during the 12-month period reflect larger percentage changes among those classifications with comparatively lower scales; e. g., if freight drivers in city A increase their scale 10 cents per hour from 70 to 80 cents, an average increase of 14.3 percent is registered, while in city B if the same increase raises the rate from $1.10 to $1.20 per hour the change is only 9.1 percent. For this reason those cities which have lower scales tend to show greater percentage increases than those which have higher scales.

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combined (2.1 percent). Highest increases were recorded for Binghamton (7.6 percent) and Worcester (7.2 percent). Little Rock, Jackson, Birmingham, and Chicago all had average increases amounting to more than 5 percent. The better than 5 percent increase for Chicago was primarily due to the granting of an 8-cent-per-hour raise by the National War Labor Board's Trucking Commission to over 40 percent of the city's organized drivers. An additional increase of 4 cents per hour has since been allowed, but it could not be included in this report as it became effective subsequent to July 1, 1945. Seven cities reported no change in wage scales during the year.

Union Wage Rates of City Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1945[1]

Summary

HOURLY wage rates of union streetcar and bus operators averaged 94.4 cents on July 1, 1945, an advance of 1.1 percent over July 1, 1944. This small increase was augmented by the introduction of bonus plans in 22 cities in 1945, which generally increased the hourly rates from 2 to 7 cents per hour. Pay was also increased during the year for some operators through the speed-up of wage progressions. No change in basic wage rates was recorded for 82 percent of the workers tabulated.

Almost three-fourths of the union members operated under agreements limiting straight-time hours per week. About 60 percent had a workweek of 44 hours or less. Completion of scheduled run controlled the length of the straight-time workweek for the remainder of the members. Time and a half for work beyond specified periods was prevalent in the industry, covering 96 percent of the total membership.

Scope and Method of Study

This study is one of a series covering wage and hour scales of union members in various trades. The background of the series is described in the article on union wages and hours of motortruck drivers (p. 104 of this issue).

Operators of municipally owned intracity transit systems are included in the survey if unions act as bargaining agents for the employees. Trackmen and maintenance workers are not included. Of the 75 cities surveyed, 71 reported effective union agreements for local transit operations.[2] The current study includes 421 quotations covering 84,850 union members.

Trend of Hourly Wage Rates

The index of hourly wages for union streetcar and bus operators rose to 122.1 on July 1, 1945, representing an increase from the preceding year of only 1.1 percent, and an advance of about 17 percent

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by Herbert Abowitz and Annette V. Simi under the direction of Donald Gerrish.

[2] A bulletin to be published shortly will contain a tabulation of the actual union scales effective in each of these cities, by type of vehicle operated and length of service

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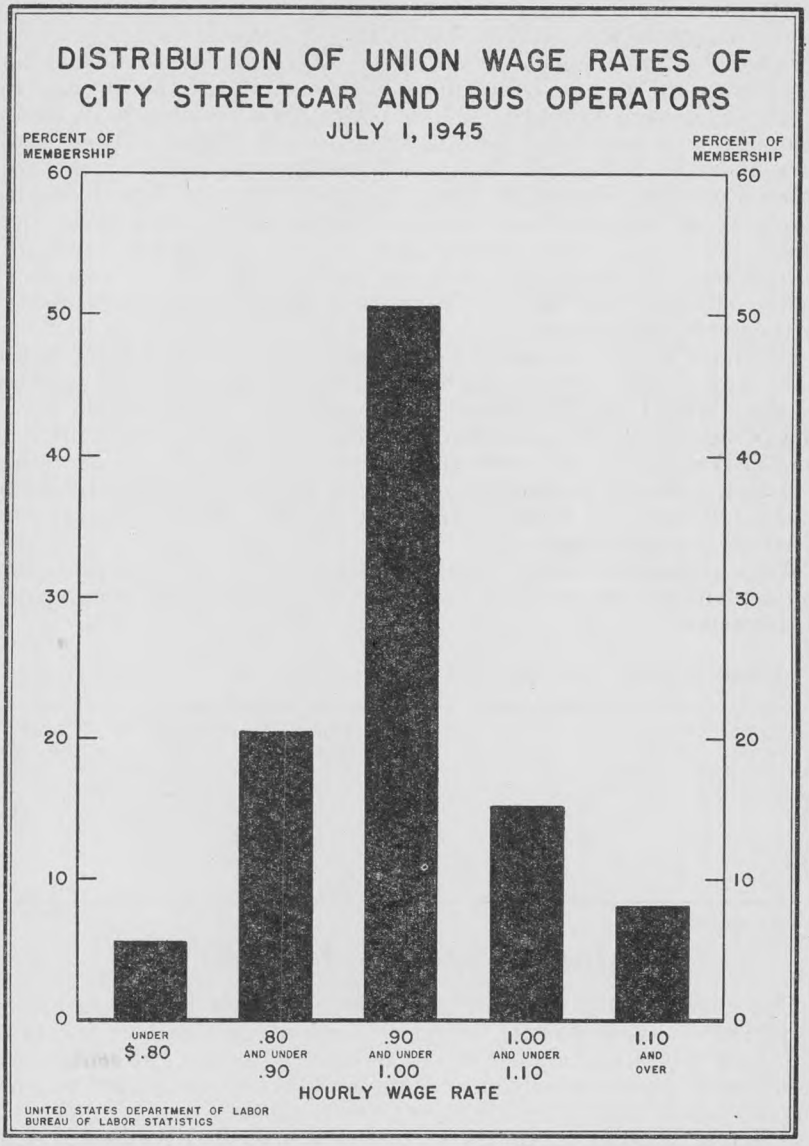

since June 1941, the nearest survey period prior to the United States entry into the war. Since 1934, wage rates have gradually increased, the most pronounced change taking effect in 1942. Although there was only a small increase in average basic scales between July 1, 1944 and July 1, 1945, numerous adjustments in rates were made by reducing the intervals between automatic wage increases under the graduated scales effective in most cities. More than 11 percent of the quotations received, affecting over 10 percent of the union members in the cities covered, indicated such interval changes. In most cases, the time for reaching the top level of the scale was shortened

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by several months. The majority of the members benefiting by shorter intervals were in New York City.

Especially important in a study of wages for streetcar and bus operators were the war-bonus plans effective in 30 of the 71 cities for which scales were obtained. These bonus plans resulted in increased earnings for 36 percent of the operators studied. Most of these plans were based on a formula that was formally established by the War Labor Board in September 1944. At that time the Board decided that it would approve bonus plans to compensate workers in the local transit industry for the increased and unusual work loads during the war period.[3] A ceiling of 7 cents per hour was placed upon any such bonus. Bonus plans that were already in operation were not affected by the terms of the order.

Additions to the operator's hourly rates as a result of these bonus plans ranged up to 17 cents per hour. The latter amount was reported for the Triple City Traction Corp. operating in Binghamton, N. Y. The bonus plan in Binghamton was effective several years prior to the WLB decision, and consequently was not affected by its terms.

Detroit reported the largest number of operators covered by bonus plans, followed by Boston, Washington, Los Angeles, St. Louis, Pittsburgh and Minneapolis.

Wage changes resulting from adjustments in time intervals and bonus plans are not reflected in the index or the averages appearing in this report.

Indexes of Hourly Wage Rates of Union Streetcar and Bus Operators, 1929–45

Year	Index (1939=100)	Year	Index (1939=100)	Year	Index (1939=100)
1929	91.6	1935	91.4	1941	104.8
1930	92.5	1936	92.1	1942	112.5
1931	92.5	1937	96.4	1943	119.8
1932	90.6	1938	99.2	1944	120.8
1933	(1)	1939	100.0	1945	122.1
1934	88.0	1940	101.1		

[1] Not available.

Hourly Wage Rates, July 1945

The average wage rate for union streetcar and bus operators on July 1, 1945, was 94.4 cents. Over a fourth of the members had rates of 85 to 95 cents, and almost two-fifths received rates of 95 cents to $1. Less than 6 percent reported rates under 80 cents in contrast to more than 23 percent who received $1 or more per hour.

Streetcar and bus operators were usually paid on a graduated scale based on the employee's length of service with the company. The period between rate changes varied considerably in different cities, ranging from 3 months in some instances to as long as 1 year in others. Most agreements provided an entrance rate, an intermediate rate, and a maximum rate, the maximum rate most frequently applying after 1 or 2 years of service. Some agreements, however, provided for

[3] The formula followed may be expressed in mathematical terms as follows:

$$\left[\text{(Jan. '41 wages)} \times \left(\frac{\text{Current revenue}}{\text{Jan. '41 revenue}}\right)\right] - \left[\text{(Current wages)} - \text{(Jan. '41 wages} \times .15)\right]$$

in which wages equals operator's wages per vehicle-mile and revenue equals passenger revenue per vehicle mile. Any bonus resulting in a fraction of a cent is raised to the next even cent.

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longer periods between automatic increases, including as many as 7 progression steps and as much as 4 years of service before reaching the maximum rate. The difference between the entrance and maximum rates [4] also varied widely among cities and companies, the most prevalent difference being 5 or 10 cents.

The agreements provided higher rates for operators of 1-man cars and busses than for operators or conductors on 2-man cars for all cities reporting these cars in operation. The maximum rate was generally about 10 cents per hour more for the 1-man car and bus operators.

Hourly rate:	*Percent of union members*
Under 75 cents	1. 6
75 and under 80 cents	3. 9
80 and under 85 cents	7. 2
85 and under 90 cents	13. 5
90 and under 95 cents	13. 3
95 cents and under $1	37. 2
$1 and under $1.05	10. 0
$1.05 and under $1.10	5. 2
$1.10 and under $1.15	2. 5
$1.15 and over	5. 6
Total	100. 0
Average rate per hour	$0. 944

The entrance rates for 1-man car and bus operators ranged from 60 cents per hour in Charlotte to $1.10 in Seattle; maximum rates varied from 74.5 cents in Binghamton to $1.15 per hour in Detroit [5] and Seattle. Detroit reported a 10-cent differential for operators of "owl runs." Of the 71 cities studied, 20 reported rates for 2-man cars. The entrance rates for members on these cars ranged from 66.5 cents in Boston to 95 cents in Detroit and maximum rates from 70 cents in Reading to $1.05 in Detroit.

Changes in Wage Rates Between 1944 and 1945

Wage-rate increases during the period July 1, 1944–July 1, 1945, were reported in approximately 23 percent of the comparable quotations reviewed, affecting over 17 percent of the union members. Of those union operators receiving raises, over 70 percent benefited by increases of 2 but under 8 percent, with more than half of these receiving increases amounting to less than 6 percent. Increases of 8 percent and over were indicated by 3 percent of the quotations, covering about 5 percent of the members for whom comparable data were obtained. Quotations covering over 82 percent of all union transit operators tabulated revealed no change in basic wage rates from those in effect the previous year.

	Number of comparable quotations	*Percent of members affected*
No change reported	267	82. 6
Increases reported	78	17. 4
2 and under 4 percent	25	1. 4
4 and under 6 percent	15	5. 2
6 and under 8 percent	27	5. 7
8 and under 10 percent	5	3. 1
10 percent and over	6	2. 0

[4] This so-called "maximum rate" is actually the minimum union scale after a specified period of employment with the company, and is not a maximum rate in the sense that the company may not pay more.

[5] The bonus plan in Detroit required a minimum payment of 2 cents per hour over base rates regardless of the amount of bonus computed, and therefore the actual minimum was $1.17 per hour.

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Weekly Hours and Overtime Rates

The length of the scheduled run was the controlling factor in the straight-time workweek for about a fourth of the union operators. A scheduled run may vary from 40 to 60 hours per week, depending on length of route, traffic conditions and other factors. Many runs are "swing runs," operated during the morning and afternoon rush hours, with a lay-off of 4 or 5 hours in the middle of each day. Straight-time hours on swing runs are usually limited on a spread basis, with overtime pay at time and a half required after a spread of 12 or 13 hours per day.

Prior to the current union efforts to limit straight-time hours per week, union energies were directed toward arranging runs so that the operators would be guaranteed a reasonable weekly wage. This was accomplished by writing into agreements provisions stipulating that a certain percentage of runs should be straight runs, guaranteeing 40 or 48 hours' pay, and that swing runs be kept to a minimum. As the length and desirability of runs necessarily varies and as "take home" pay depends on the run operated, most union agreements provide for a periodic selection of runs on a seniority basis. Runs are selected every 3 or 6 months, the swing runs often being operated by low-seniority men or by "extra men." Newly hired employees are considered "extra men" until they qualify for a regular run.

For many years it was the position of the transit companies operating local streetcars and busses that any State or Federal rules or regulations governing hours of work should not apply to them because of the nature of their operations. The companies contended that it was impracticable to relieve an operator at the conclusion of any exact number of hours, as all scheduled runs could not be arranged to reach the terminal at the end of a specified number of hours. Relief in the middle of a run was considered impracticable because of the need for checking-in cash and making reports at the terminal.

This argument received consideration during hearings on the Fair Labor Standards Act, and when the act became effective it specifically exempted the street-railway industry from its hour and overtime-pay provisions. However, during the past few years the unions have tried to have limited-hour provisions included in their contracts. As a result of these efforts, the operators in Chicago and a few other cities now receive time and a half if they work over 40 hours per week, irrespective of the length of the run. In Detroit and several other large cities overtime rates are paid after 44 hours per week. As a result of the success of unions in these areas, it appears probable that similar provisions will become effective in other areas. About three-fourths of the union members included in this study worked under agreements providing a limit on straight-time hours, as compared with one-third in July 1, 1944. These limitations range from 40 to 54 hours per week. About three-fifths of the members with a limit on straight-time hours had a week of 44 hours or less. The main effect of these hour limitations during the war period was to increase the take-home pay of the operator rather than to lessen his hours of work. It is expected, however, that with a return to more normal operation the companies will endeavor to arrange the runs to conform with the straight-time hours provided in the union agreements.

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Practically all (96 percent) of the union members received time and a half for work performed in addition to the scheduled run, beyond certain hours on swing runs, for extra runs, or after the regular hours provided in the agreement. Almost all of the remainder worked unlimited hours without receiving any premium rates.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to October 1945

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to October 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.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $41.02 in October 1945—76.9 percent above the average in January 1939, 54.0 percent

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to October 1945

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings [1] weighted by January 1941 employment		
	All manufacturing (1)	Durable goods (2)	Nondurable goods (3)	All manufacturing (4)	Durable goods (5)	Nondurable goods (6)	All manufacturing (7)	Durable goods (8)	Nondurable goods (9)
1939: January	$23.19	$25.33	$21.57	$0.632	$0.696	$0.583	$0.641	$0.702	$0.575
1940: January	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.652	.708	.589
1941: January	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601
1942: January	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.751	.826	.668
July	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.783	.863	.696
October	38.89	45.31	30.66	.893	.990	.751	.807	.888	.718
1943: January	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.819	.905	.726
April	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.833	.916	.742
July	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.850	.939	.753
October	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.086	.824	.863	.950	.768
December	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.873	.962	.775
1944: January	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.877	.965	.780
April	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.013	1.110	.850	.889	.976	.794
July	45.43	51.07	37.05	1.018	1.116	.862	.901	.993	.802
October	46.94	53.18	37.97	1.031	1.129	.878	.908	.991	.817
December	47.44	53.68	38.39	1.040	1.140	.883	.912	.997	.820
1945: January	47.50	53.54	38.66	1.046	1.144	.891	.920	1.005	.827
April	47.12	52.90	38.80	1.044	1.138	.899	.925	1.007	.836
July	45.12	50.60	38.59	1.032	1.126	.902	.933	1.017	.842
August	41.72	45.72	36.63	1.024	1.113	.909	(1)	(1)	(1)
September [2]	40.84	43.90	37.77	.987	1.072	.903	.944	1.024	.856
October [2]	41.02	44.38	37.72	.985	1.063	.909	.941	1.012	.863

[1] The method of estimating straight-time average hourly earnings makes no allowance for special rates of pay for work done on major holidays. Estimates for the months of January, July, September, and November, therefore, may not be precisely comparable with those for the other months in which important holidays are seldom included in the pay periods for which manufacturing establishments report to the Bureau. This characteristic of the data does not appear to invalidate the comparability of the figure for January 1941 with those for the preceding and following months. Inapplicability of the formula to August 1945 with its double holiday, in celebration of the Japanese surrender, prevents release of that month's estimates.

[2] Preliminary.

[1] Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939–43, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (p. 869), especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, October 1945, table 6 (p. 159) in this issue.

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above January 1941, and 5.5 percent above October 1942. Weekly pay for October 1945 dropped 13 percent below that of October 1944, as the result of reductions in both hourly pay and working hours. However, the average earnings of factory workers were still higher than before the war, as a result of such wartime factors as 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.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 98.5 cents in October 1945—55.9 percent above the average in January 1939, 44.2 percent above January 1941, and 10.3 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of manufacturing for January 1941. These earnings are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. However, the effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For this reason, straight-time earnings data are not presented for August 1945 when the hourly earnings were inflated by premium payments for work on the double holiday, celebrating the Japanese surrender. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in October 1945 was 94.1 cents per hour; this was 46.8 percent higher than in January 1939, 41.7 percent above January 1941, and 16.6 percent above October 1942.

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Prices and Cost of Living

Index of Consumers' Prices[1] in Large Cities, November 1945

RETAIL prices of goods and services important in the purchases of moderate-income city families advanced 0.2 percent between October 15 and November 15, 1945, after declining 0.4 percent during the 3 previous months. The removal of subsidies on butter and peanut butter, seasonal increases for eggs, and higher costs for clothing and housefurnishings were mainly responsible for this increase. The consumers' price index for November 15, 1945, was 129.2 percent of the 1935–39 average, and was 2.1 percent above the level of November 1944.

The food bill for city workers' families rose 0.6 percent during the month as the first effects of the withdrawal of the butter and peanut-butter subsidies were reflected in the index. The average price of butter advanced 9 percent, or 4.5 cents per pound; peanut butter increased 2.4 percent, or 0.7 cents per pound. When subsidy payments were first made on these two foods in 1943, the average price of butter dropped 5.1 cents in the first month, while peanut butter went down gradually, declining 5.0 cents during the succeeding 6 months.

Prices of all foods other than butter and peanut butter showed an average increase of 0.3 percent between mid-October and mid-November. Prices of green beans moved up sharply (18 percent) as OPA adjusted ceiling prices to meet higher production costs. Oranges (still under price control in mid-November), cabbage, and spinach prices dropped seasonally more than 8 percent. Eggs continued their seasonal advance and in November averaged 68 cents per dozen.

Clothing costs increased by 0.1 percent during the month ending November 15. Retailers' inventories of apparel—especially men's clothing—continued to be extremely low as replacements from manufacturers were quickly sold to returning servicemen and early Christmas shoppers. Prices for work trousers and overalls rose moderately, reflecting upward adjustments in ceilings by OPA to encourage production. With only higher-priced articles available in many cities, costs of men's overcoats, suits, sweaters, and socks, and women's

[1] The "consumers' price index for moderate-income families in large cities," formerly known as the "cost of living" index, measures average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents, and services, weighted by quantities bought by families of wage earners and moderate-income workers in large cities in 1934–36. The items priced for the index constituted about 70 percent of the expenditures of city families whose incomes averaged $1,524 in 1934–36.

The index only partially shows the wartime effects of changes in quality, availability of consumer goods, etc. The President's Committee on the Cost of Living has estimated that such factors, together with certain others not fully measured by the index, would add a maximum of 3 to 4 points to the index for large cities between January 1941 and September 1944. If small cities were included in the national average, another one-half point would be added. If account is also taken of continued deterioration of quality and disappearance of low-priced merchandise between September 1944 and September 1945, the over-all adjustment for the period January 1941 to September 1945 would total approximately 5 points. As merchandise of prewar quality and specifications comes back into the markets and the Bureau is able regularly to price them again, this adjustment factor will gradually decrease and finally disappear.

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percale housedresses and gloves continued to edge upward. Inexpensive and medium-quality business shirts and shorts were found in some stores at lower prices, produced under the low-cost clothing program. However, quantities were far below the heavy demand.

Average prices of housefurnishings advanced 0.3 percent during the month. The price of sheets, which rose more than 5 percent between mid-September and mid-October, advanced an additional 2 percent as retailers continued to adjust their ceilings in accordance with the recent price increases granted to manufacturers. Scattered increases were reported in the costs of living room and bedroom suites.

Fuel, electricity, and ice costs decreased 0.1 percent. Rate reductions, lowering the average cost of electricity to New York families by almost 6 percent, more than offset increases in the prices of heating oils in Chicago and Minneapolis. Coke prices in New York City and anthracite prices in Buffalo rose to ceilings already established.

The costs of miscellaneous goods and services decreased 0.1 percent during the month, as additional retailers were reported resuming the sale of cigarettes in multiple units. The price of pipe tobacco increased slightly in several cities. Small price changes for cleaning and other household supplies occurred in all but two cities.

Rents were not surveyed in November.

The indexes in the accompanying tables are based on time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower salaried workers in large cities. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than in another. The data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941, in table 1. For that month they were 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. The President's "hold-the-line" order was issued April 8, 1943. The peak of the rise which led to that order was reached in May, which is, therefore, used for this comparison.

Food prices are collected monthly in 56 cities during the first 4 days of the week which includes the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month. Aggregate costs of foods in each city, weighted to represent food purchases of families of wage earners and lower salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. In March 1943, the number of cities included in the food index was increased from 51 to 56, and the number of foods from 54 to 61. 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. 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 because of the general stability of average rents at present, the indexes are held constant in cities not surveyed during the current quarter. Prices for fuel, electricity, and ice are collected monthly in 34 large cities.

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TABLE 1.—*Index of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families, and Percent of Change, November 1945 Compared with Earlier Months*

Group	Nov. 1945 This month	Oct. 1945 Last month	Nov. 1944 Last year	May 1943 Hold-the-line order	May 1942 Gen. Max. Price Reg.	Jan. 1941 "Little Steel" decision	Aug. 1939 Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935-39=100)						
All items	129.2	128.9	126.6	125.1	116.0	100.8	98.6
Food	140.1	139.3	136.5	143.0	121.6	97.6	93.5
Clothing	148.4	148.3	142.1	127.9	126.2	101.2	100.3
Rent				108.0	109.9	105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	110.5	110.6	109.9	107.6	104.9	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	94.6	95.0	95.8	96.1	96.6	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	125.8	125.7	123.6	118.7	112.9	104.0	96.3
Housefurnishings	147.1	146.6	141.7	125.1	122.2	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous	124.4	124.5	122.9	115.3	110.9	101.8	100.4
	Percent of change to November 1945						
All items		+.2	+2.1	+3.3	+11.4	+28.2	+31.0
Food		+.6	+2.6	−2.0	+15.2	+43.5	+49.8
Clothing		+.1	+4.4	+16.0	+17.6	+46.6	+48.0
Rent [1]				+.3	−1.5	+3.1	+3.8
Fuel, electricity, and ice		−.1	+.5	+2.7	+5.3	+9.6	+13.3
Gas and electricity		−.4	−1.3	−1.6	−2.1	−3.0	−4.4
Other fuels and ice		+.1	+1.8	+6.0	+11.4	+21.0	+30.6
Housefurnishings		+.3	+3.8	+17.6	+20.4	+46.8	+46.2
Miscellaneous		−.1	+1.2	+7.9	+12.2	+22.2	+23.9

[1] Percent of change to September 1945.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index From Specified Dates to November 1945*

City	October 1945 Last month	November 1944 Last year	May 1943 Hold-the-line order	May 1942 General Maximum Price Regulation	January 1941 "Little Steel" decision	August 1939 Month before war in Europe
Average	0.2	+2.1	+3.3	+11.4	+28.2	+31.0
Baltimore, Md	−.2	+1.9	+2.7	+11.4	+30.8	+33.4
Birmingham, Ala	−.2	+1.8	+5.6	+12.0	+30.8	+34.9
Boston, Mass	+.1	+1.3	+1.9	+9.9	+25.7	+28.3
Buffalo, N. Y	+.5	+2.1	+.4	+7.3	+26.9	+31.3
Chicago, Ill	−.2	+1.1	+2.2	+9.3	+25.8	+29.0
Cincinnati, Ohio	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cleveland, Ohio	.1	+1.1	+3.0	+10.9	+29.2	+31.8
Denver, Colo	0	+1.1	+1.8	+9.6	+26.7	+28.5
Detroit, Mich	+.3	+3.1	+3.0	+10.4	+29.8	+33.1
Houston, Tex	−.1	+2.6	+2.3	+9.5	+24.7	+26.3
Kansas City, Mo	+.2	+2.5	+3.9	+11.6	+29.4	+29.1
Los Angeles, Calif	+.5	+3.0	+5.5	+12.4	+29.5	+32.0
Minneapolis, Minn	+.3	+2.1	+3.0	+8.3	+23.3	+25.9
New York, N. Y	+.7	+2.3	+4.8	+14.9	+28.9	+31.5
Philadelphia, Pa	+.2	+2.5	+2.6	+11.7	+29.1	+31.0
Pittsburgh, Pa	+.1	+2.5	+4.2	+12.3	+28.6	+32.2
St. Louis, Mo	−.2	+1.4	+2.2	+9.6	+25.4	+29.2
San Francisco, Calif	+1.1	+2.1	+4.9	+14.3	+32.0	+35.3
Savannah, Ga	+.2	+2.5	+4.5	+14.0	+35.9	+38.8
Seattle, Wash	+.7	+1.9	+2.5	+9.6	+30.1	+32.4
Washington, D. C	+.4	+3.0	+4.5	+12.7	+29.4	+31.1

[1] Data not available.

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TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index October 1945 to November 1945, by Groups of Items and by Cities*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average	+0.2	+0.6	+0.1	−0.1	+0.3	−0.1
Atlanta, Ga		+.4		−.1		
Baltimore, Md	−.2	0	−1.6	0	+.1	0
Birmingham, Ala	−.2	−.3	0	0	+.1	−.1
Boston, Mass	+.1	+.4	−.5	0	+.2	0
Buffalo, N. Y	+.5	+.8	+1.6	+.7	−.2	0
Chicago, Ill	−.2	0	0	+.1	+.1	−.9
Cincinnati, Ohio	(1)	−.9	(1)	0	(1)	(1)
Cleveland, Ohio	+.1	+.3	−.5	0	+.4	0
Denver, Colo	0	−.1	−.1	0	+.2	0
Detroit, Mich	+.3	+.8	+.1	−.1	0	+.1
Houston, Tex	−.1	−.1	−.4	0	0	+.1
Indianapolis, Ind		+.2		+.1		
Jacksonville, Fla		+.3		0		
Kansas City, Mo	+.2	+.7	−.2	0	+.5	0
Los Angeles, Calif	+.5	+1.4	−.3	0	+.1	0
Manchester, N. H		+1.1		−.1		
Memphis, Tenn		+.1		0		
Milwaukee, Wis		+.3		0		
Minneapolis, Minn	+.3	+.8	0	+.1	+.3	0
Mobile, Ala		+.2		−.1		
New Orleans, La		−.8		+.1		
New York, N. Y	+.7	+1.6	+.4	−1.3	+1.8	0
Norfolk, Va		0		0		
Philadelphia, Pa	+.2	+.5	0	0	+.3	0
Pittsburgh, Pa	+.1	−.2	+.6	0	+.6	+.2
Portland, Maine		+.7		−.1		
Portland, Oreg		+1.1		0		
Richmond, Va		+.1		0		
St. Louis, Mo	−.2	0	−.8	0	+.5	0
San Francisco, Calif	+1.1	+2.4	+.8	0	−.2	0
Savannah, Ga	+.2	+.1	+.9	0	+.3	0
Scranton, Pa		+.6		0		
Seattle, Wash	+.7	+1.8	−.2	+.1	+.3	−.1
Washington, D. C	+.4	+.4	+1.1	0	+.3	0

[1] Data not available.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families in Large Cities, 1935 to November 1945*

Year and month	Indexes (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
1945:							
Jan. 15	127.1	137.3	143.0	(1)	109.7	143.6	123.3
Feb. 15	126.9	136.5	143.3	(1)	110.0	144.0	123.4
Mar. 15	126.8	135.9	143.7	108.3	110.0	144.5	123.6
Apr. 15	127.1	136.6	144.1	(1)	109.8	144.9	123.8
May 15	128.1	138.8	144.6	(1)	110.0	145.4	123.9
June 15	129.0	141.1	145.4	108.3	110.0	145.8	124.0
July 15	129.4	141.7	145.9	(1)	111.2	145.6	124.3
Aug. 15	129.3	140.9	146.4	(1)	111.4	146.0	124.5
Sept. 15	128.9	139.4	148.2	108.3	110.7	146.8	124.6
Oct. 15 [2]	128.9	139.3	148.3	(1)	110.6	146.6	124.5
Nov. 15 [2]	129.2	140.1	148.4	(1)	110.5	147.1	124.4

[1] Rents not surveyed in this month.

[2] Preliminary figures.

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Retail Prices of Food in November 1945

RETAIL prices of food in November 1945 in relation to those in selected preceding periods are shown in the accompanying tables.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods*

Commodity group	Oct. 16, 1945, to Nov. 13, 1945	Nov. 14, 1944, to Nov. 13, 1945	May 18, 1943, to Nov. 13, 1945	Jan. 14, 1941, to Nov. 13, 1945	Aug. 15, 1939, to Nov. 13, 1945
All foods	+0.6	+2.6	−2.0	+43.3	+49.8
Cereals and bakery products	0	+.5	+1.4	+15.0	+16.8
Meats	0	+1.0	−5.3	+29.6	+36.9
Beef and veal	0	0	−9.9	+8.0	+18.7
Pork	0	+.4	−10.3	+30.8	+28.0
Lamb	0	+1.3	−3.8	+38.0	+37.9
Chickens	+.1	+1.4	+3.3	+56.9	+61.2
Fish, fresh and canned	−.2	+5.0	+10.1	+86.0	+121.7
Dairy products	+2.0	+1.7	−.7	+29.3	+46.0
Eggs	+3.6	+2.9	+35.2	+97.2	+111.8
Fruits and vegetables	−.1	+7.2	−9.7	+84.7	+86.5
Fresh	−.2	+8.5	−11.6	+94.8	+96.0
Canned	+.2	+.8	−.4	+42.9	+42.6
Dried	−.2	+1.2	+6.6	+69.2	+86.6
Beverages	+.2	+.5	+.3	+37.4	+31.6
Fats and oils	+.3	+1.0	−1.5	+54.9	+47.2
Sugar and sweets	0	0	−.9	+32.7	+32.3

[1] The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Prices 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
	Nov. 13 [3]	Oct. 16	Nov. 14	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	140.1	139.3	136.5	143.0	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	109.1	109.1	108.6	107.6	94.9	93.4
Meats	131.0	131.0	129.7	138.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	118.2	118.2	118.2	131.2	109.4	99.6
Pork	112.6	112.6	112.2	125.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	136.2	136.2	134.5	141.6	98.7	98.8
Chickens	152.5	152.3	150.4	147.6	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	220.8	221.3	210.3	200.5	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	135.9	133.3	133.6	136.9	105.1	93.1
Eggs	192.1	185.5	186.7	142.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	172.3	172.5	160.7	190.8	93.3	92.4
Fresh	181.9	182.3	167.6	205.8	93.4	92.8
Canned	130.6	130.4	129.6	131.1	91.4	91.6
Dried	168.5	168.9	166.5	158.0	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.9	124.7	124.3	124.5	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	124.4	124.0	123.2	126.3	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.5	126.5	126.5	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 by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[3] Preliminary.

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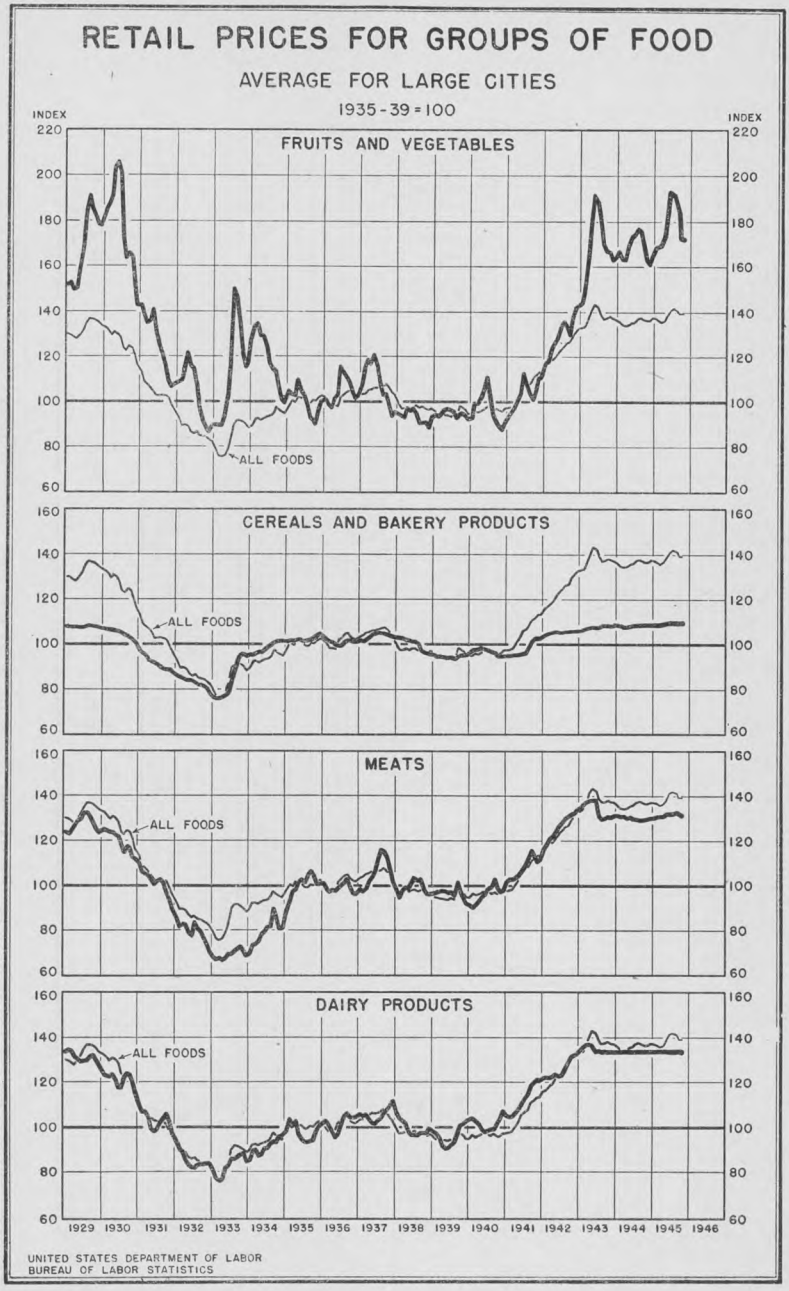

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TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *November 1945 Compared With Earlier Months*

Article		1945		1944	1941	1939
		Nov. 13 [2]	Oct. 16	Nov. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	64.1	64.1	64.2	41.4	35.8
Macaroni	pound	15.7	15.7	15.8	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal [3]	28 ounces	23.3	23.4	23.2	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes	8 ounces	6.7	6.7	6.5	7.1	7.0
Corn meal	pound	6.5	6.5	6.4	4.2	4.0
Rice [3]	do	12.9	12.7	12.7	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats	do	10.4	10.4	10.2	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake [3]	20 ounces	12.8	12.4	12.3	(4)	(4)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	8.8	8.8	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.6	9.6	9.6	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye	do	9.9	9.9	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies	do	29.5	29.1	28.2	25.1	(5)
Soda crackers	do	18.8	18.9	18.9	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	40.9	40.9	40.6	38.6	36.4
Rib roast	do	33.1	33.1	33.0	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast	do	28.3	28.4	28.3	25.2	22.5
Stew meat [3]	do	29.6	29.9	30.6	(4)	(4)
Liver [3]	do	37.3	37.2	37.3	(5)	(5)
Hamburger	do	27.4	27.3	27.5	(4)	(4)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	44.7	44.5	44.6	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [3]	do	35.3	35.1	36.0	(4)	(4)
Pork:						
Chops	do	37.2	37.2	37.3	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced	do	41.2	41.2	40.8	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced	do	49.6	49.4	50.1	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole	do	34.9	34.7	35.2	26.2	27.4
Salt pork	do	22.0	22.0	22.1	16.7	15.4
Liver [3]	do	22.1	22.1	22.0	(4)	(4)
Sausage [3]	do	38.8	38.7	38.4	(4)	(4)
Bologna, big [3]	do	34.1	34.0	34.0	(4)	(4)
Lamb:						
Leg	do	40.4	40.4	39.9	27.8	27.6
Rib chops	do	45.9	45.9	45.3	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	47.0	46.1	45.0	31.1	30.9
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	23.0	23.0	22.9	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [3]	do	40.4	40.2	41.5	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:						
Butter	pound	54.4	49.9	49.8	38.0	30.7
Cheese	do	35.7	35.7	36.2	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	14.5	11.9	11.0
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	10.0	10.0	10.0	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh	dozen	67.9	65.7	66.3	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits:						
Apples	pound	14.1	13.6	10.3	5.2	4.4
Bananas	do	10.5	10.4	11.2	6.6	6.1
Oranges	dozen	47.0	51.2	46.0	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [3]	each	8.5	10.0	8.6	(7)	(7)
Fresh vegetables:						
Beans, green	pound	20.1	17.0	20.2	14.0	7.2
Cabbage	do	4.4	4.8	4.7	3.4	3.9
Carrots	bunch	9.0	9.0	9.0	6.0	4.6
Lettuce	head	12.3	12.2	10.9	8.4	8.4
Onions	pound	7.0	6.6	4.7	3.6	3.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	62.3	62.0	66.5	29.2	34.4
Spinach	pound	10.2	11.1	10.8	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes	do	7.7	7.7	6.8	5.0	5.5
Beets [3]	bunch	8.9	8.2	7.9	(4)	(4)
Canned fruits:						
Peaches	No. 2½ can	28.0	27.5	27.7	16.5	17.1
Pineapple	do	26.5	26.3	27.2	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	14.3	14.5	14.4	(7)	(7)
Canned vegetables:						
Beans, green	do	13.2	13.1	13.1	10.0	10.0
Corn	do	14.7	14.8	14.7	10.7	10.4
Peas	do	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes	do	12.4	12.2	11.9	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [3]	11-oz. can	13.0	13.0	13.4	(4)	(4)
Dried fruits: Prunes	pound	17.1	17.3	16.8	9.6	8.8

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *November 1945 Compared With Earlier Months*—Continued

Article	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Nov. 13 [2]	Oct. 16	Nov. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.					
Dried vegetables:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Navy beans—pound	11.4	11.5	11.1	6.5	5.8
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle [3]—ounce	3.8	3.8	3.7	[4]	[4]
Beverages:					
Coffee—pound	30.7	30.6	30.3	20.7	22.3
Tea—¼ pound	24.1	24.3	24.0	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [3]—½ pound	10.3	10.4	10.4	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:					
Lard—pound	18.7	18.8	18.8	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard—					
In cartons—do	19.9	20.0	20.2	11.3	11.7
In other containers—do	24.5	24.5	24.9	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing—pint	24.7	24.5	25.8	20.1	[5]
Oleomargarine—pound	24.1	24.3	24.1	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter—do	29.3	28.6	28.5	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [3]—pint	29.9	30.0	30.7	[5]	[5]
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar—pound	6.6	6.6	6.7	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup—24 ounces	15.7	15.8	15.8	13.6	13.7
Molasses [3]—18 ounces	15.8	15.8	15.9	13.4	13.6
Apple butter [3]—16 ounces	16.0	14.3	13.6	[4]	[4]

[1] Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Not included in index.
[4] First priced February 1943.
[5] Not priced.
[6] Composite price not computed.
[7] First priced October 1941.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Date*

[1935–39=100]

City	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Nov. 13 [2]	Oct. 16	Nov. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	140.1	139.3	136.5	97.8	93.5
Atlanta, Ga	141.0	140.5	137.9	94.3	92.5
Baltimore, Md	147.5	147.5	144.3	97.9	94.7
Birmingham, Ala	143.8	144.2	141.3	96.0	90.7
Boston, Mass	133.8	133.3	131.8	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport, Conn	136.3	136.4	134.5	96.5	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y	136.7	135.6	133.4	100.2	94.5
Butte, Mont	137.9	136.7	133.5	98.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa [3]	142.8	142.2	139.6	95.9	----
Charleston, S. C	138.4	139.4	134.7	95.9	95.1
Chicago, Ill	137.8	137.8	135.8	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio	137.7	139.0	134.4	96.5	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio	143.8	143.3	142.6	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	133.0	132.6	129.0	93.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex	137.0	137.1	132.7	92.6	91.7
Denver, Colo	137.9	138.0	136.4	94.8	92.7
Detroit, Mich	137.5	136.4	132.3	97.0	90.6
Fall River, Mass	134.3	132.8	131.6	97.5	95.4
Houston, Tex	139.5	139.7	134.6	102.6	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind	136.3	136.0	133.1	98.2	90.7
Jackson, Miss. [3]	150.1	150.0	150.2	105.3	----
Jacksonville, Fla	149.5	149.0	145.9	98.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo	133.8	132.9	130.3	92.4	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn [3]	160.0	161.1	156.8	97.1	----
Little Rock, Ark	138.8	138.3	136.3	95.6	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif	149.2	147.2	143.3	101.8	94.6
Louisville, Ky	134.2	133.5	131.0	95.5	92.1
Manchester, N. H	136.1	134.6	133.6	96.6	94.9
Memphis, Tenn	148.8	148.6	144.9	94.2	89.7

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Dates*—Continued

[1935–39=100]

City	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Nov. 13 [2]	Oct. 16	Nov. 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Milwaukee, Wis	137.8	137.4	135.2	95.9	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn	133.7	132.6	130.0	99.0	95.0
Mobile, Ala	148.4	148.1	145.0	97.9	95.5
Newark, N. J	143.6	141.0	139.1	98.8	95.6
New Haven, Conn	135.3	135.5	135.2	95.7	93.7
New Orleans, La	153.2	154.4	149.7	101.9	97.6
New York, N. Y	141.7	139.5	137.4	99.5	95.8
Norfolk, Va	144.3	144.3	142.0	95.8	93.6
Omaha, Nebr	132.8	131.1	130.3	97.9	92.3
Peoria, Ill	145.4	145.5	140.2	99.0	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa	137.9	137.2	133.3	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa	139.7	140.0	134.7	98.0	92.5
Portland, Maine	133.9	133.0	133.2	95.3	95.9
Portland, Oreg	151.4	149.7	146.8	101.7	96.1
Providence, R. I	139.0	139.1	135.6	96.3	93.7
Richmond, Va	137.8	137.7	135.7	93.7	92.2
Rochester, N. Y	135.1	134.7	132.4	99.9	92.3
St. Louis, Mo	141.4	141.4	138.5	99.2	93.8
St. Paul, Minn	132.8	131.4	128.3	98.6	94.3
Salt Lake City, Utah	145.6	144.5	141.1	97.5	94.6
San Francisco, Calif	151.5	147.9	146.3	99.6	93.8
Savannah, Ga	155.6	155.4	150.6	100.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa	139.5	138.7	136.3	97.5	92.1
Seattle, Wash	145.3	142.7	142.7	101.0	94.5
Springfield, Ill	145.5	145.0	141.9	96.2	94.1
Washington, D. C	140.8	140.2	136.7	97.7	94.1
Wichita, Kans.[3]	150.6	148.3	147.2	97.2	----
Winston-Salem, N. C.[3]	142.1	142.6	138.0	93.7	----

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), weighted to represent total purchases by wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] June 1940=100.

[4] Revised.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Prices in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *1913 to November 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	1929	132.5	*1944*		*1945*	
1914	81.8	1930	126.0				
1915	80.9	1931	103.9	January	136.1	January	137.3
1916	90.8	1932	86.5	February	134.5	February	136.5
1917	116.9	1933	84.1	March	134.1	March	135.9
1918	134.4	1934	93.7	April	134.6	April	136.6
1919	149.8	1935	100.4	May	135.5	May	138.8
1920	168.8	1936	101.3	June	135.7	June	141.1
1921	128.3	1937	105.3	July	137.4	July	141.7
1922	119.9	1938	97.8	August	137.7	August	140.9
1923	124.0	1939	95.2	September	137.0	September	139.4
1924	122.8	1940	96.6	October	136.4	October	139.3
1925	132.9	1941	105.5	November	136.5	November	140.1
1926	137.4	1942	123.9	December	137.4		
1927	132.3	1943	138.0				
1928	130.8	1944	136.1				

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

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Wholesale Prices in November 1945

RISING to the highest level since January 1921, primary market prices advanced 0.8 percent in November 1945, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The Bureau's wholesale [1] price index rose to 106.8 percent of the 1926 average, 2.3 percent above November 1944 and 42.4 percent above August 1939.

Average prices for farm products rose 3.0 percent during November, and food prices advanced 2.1 percent. The group index for fuel and lighting materials increased 0.5 percent and that for building materials 0.3 percent. Average prices were up 0.2 percent for hides and leather products, metals and metal products, and chemicals and allied products. The index for the textile products group advanced 0.1 percent. No changes occurred in average prices for housefurnishing goods and miscellaneous commodities.

Primary market prices for raw materials rose 2.0 percent during November, prices of semimanufactured articles advanced 0.1 percent, and manufactured articles 0.3 percent.

The rise of 3 percent in average primary market prices of farm products reflected generally higher prices for agricultural commodities. Transportation difficulties, particularly shortages of rolling stock, and anticipated revisions in parity were important causes of price increases for many agricultural products. Quotations for livestock rose contraseasonally, with prices for calves advancing under continued heavy demand with inadequate supplies. Prices for cows moved up substantially and hogs were fractionally higher. Quotations for sheep advanced with a reduction in the number of animals slaughtered. In contrast to the price increases for most livestock, quotations for steers declined in November on slow demand. Live poultry prices advanced with holiday buying. Quotations for grains were generally higher, with the largest increases occurring in prices of oats which were being used extensively to supplement scarcer feed grains, and of rye which was still exempt from price control and in relatively short supply. Prices for wheat moved up seasonally. Cotton quotations rose sharply because of improved export prospects and a smaller crop than anticipated. Domestic wool averaged lower in November, following Governmental action to bring prices into a more favorable competitive position with foreign wools. Quotations for eggs advanced on holiday buying, with some grades still in short supply. Citrus fruit prices rose sharply following suspension of ceiling controls. Prices for onions moved up more than seasonally and sweetpotato prices advanced under higher ceilings permitted by OPA. Quotations for white potatoes, no longer under ceiling controls, moved up seasonally from their summer levels.

The substantial advance in prices for fresh fruits and vegetables was chiefly responsible for the rise of 2.1 percent in the group index for foods. In addition, butter prices advanced following removal of the subsidy. Powdered milk prices were up, reflecting the shortage of fluid milk, and prices for cereal products moved fractionally higher. Quotations for canned tomatoes advanced under higher ceilings permitted for the 1945 pack.

[1] The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data, for the most part, represent prices in primary markets. In general, the prices are those charged by manufacturers or producers or are those prevailing on commodity exchanges. The monthly index is calculated from a monthly average of one-day-a-week prices. It should not be compared directly with the weekly wholesale price index, which is designed as an indicator of week to week changes. Indexes for the last 2 months are preliminary.

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Higher prices for some types of shoes, permitted individual manufacturers by OPA, were responsible for the advance of 0.2 percent in the group index for hides and leather products.

Price increases for cotton goods and other cotton products allowed by OPA under the Bankhead Amendment to the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944 caused the rise of 0.1 percent in average prices for textile products. Quotations for products made from other fibers remained unchanged during the month.

A more than seasonal increase in sales realizations for electricity was responsible for the rise of 0.5 percent in the group index for fuel and lighting materials. Primary market prices for fuel oil and gasoline declined during November, reflecting competitive price reductions by both established and new marketing organizations. Sales realizations for gas were lower.

Average primary market prices of farm machinery advanced 0.2 percent during November, with higher prices for some types of plows permitted individual manufacturers and price advances for tractors under an interim ceiling increase allowed by OPA pending further study. Quotations for builders' hardware continued to advance under higher ceilings previously allowed. Average prices for pig iron in November were higher than in the previous month, reflecting the ceiling increases allowed on this commodity in October. Quotations for mercury advanced substantially, reflecting steady demand and low commercial stocks.

Slightly higher prices were reported for some structural clay products during November, and quotations for cement advanced fractionally under higher OPA ceilings granted in southeastern States. Slightly higher prices for lumber, particularly Western pine, also contributed to the advance in the group index for building materials. Higher quotations for turpentine reflected the increased amount of painting being done in November following revocation of Governmental controls on building.

The increase in the average price for chemicals and allied products followed higher prices for alcohol under increased ceilings and price increases for glycerine as quotations for this commodity moved to ceiling levels.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, November 1945, Compared with Previous Months*

Group and subgroup	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent of change to November 1945 from—		
	November 1945	October 1945	November 1944	August 1939	October 1945	November 1944	August 1939
All commodities	106.8	105.9	104.4	75.0	+0.8	+2.3	+42.4
Farm products	131.1	127.3	124.4	61.0	+3.0	+5.4	+114.9
Grains	132.9	130.2	124.8	51.5	+2.1	+6.5	+158.1
Livestock and poultry	131.8	130.5	127.0	66.0	+1.0	+3.8	+99.7
Other farm products	129.3	123.6	121.8	60.1	+4.6	+6.2	+115.1
Foods	107.9	105.7	105.1	67.2	+2.1	+2.7	+60.6
Dairy products	113.2	110.4	110.7	67.9	+2.5	+2.3	+66.7
Cereal products	95.5	95.3	94.7	71.9	+.2	+.8	+32.8
Fruits and vegetables	123.8	116.3	113.7	58.5	+6.4	+8.9	+111.6
Meats	107.9	107.9	106.1	73.7	0	+1.7	+46.4
Other foods	100.7	98.5	99.3	60.3	+2.2	+1.4	+67.0

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TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, November 1945, Compared with Previous Months*—Continued

Group and subgroup	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent of change to November 1945 from—		
	November 1945	October 1945	November 1944	August 1939	October 1945	November 1944	August 1939
Hides and leather products	118.8	118.6	116.2	92.7	+0.2	+2.2	+28.2
Shoes	126.7	126.3	126.3	100.8	+.3	+.3	+25.7
Hides and skins	117.6	117.6	107.1	77.2	0	+9.8	+52.3
Leather	103.8	103.8	101.3	84.0	0	+2.5	+23.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	115.2	97.1	0	0	+18.6
Textile products	101.1	101.0	99.4	67.8	+.1	+1.7	+49.1
Clothing	107.4	107.4	107.4	81.5	0	0	+31.8
Cotton goods	125.1	125.0	118.8	65.5	+.1	+5.3	+91.0
Hosiery and underwear	71.5	71.5	71.5	61.5	0	0	+16.3
Rayon	30.2	30.2	30.2	28.5	0	0	+6.0
Silk				44.3			
Woolen and worsted	112.7	112.7	112.9	75.5	0	−.2	+49.3
Other textile products	101.9	101.4	100.9	63.7	+.5	+1.0	+60.0
Fuel and lighting materials	84.6	84.2	83.1	72.6	+.5	+1.8	+16.5
Anthracite	102.2	102.2	95.3	72.1	0	+7.2	+41.7
Bituminous coal	124.8	124.8	120.5	96.0	0	+3.6	+30.0
Coke	134.9	134.9	130.7	104.2	0	+3.2	+29.5
Electricity	(1)	(1)	60.1	75.8			
Gas	(1)	79.8	77.3	86.7			
Petroleum and products	61.7	62.1	63.8	51.7	−.6	−3.3	+19.3
Metals and metal products	105.2	105.0	103.7	93.2	+.2	+1.4	+12.9
Agricultural implements	98.1	97.9	97.5	93.5	+.2	+.6	+4.9
Farm machinery	99.1	98.9	98.7	94.7	+.2	+.4	+4.6
Iron and steel	100.2	99.8	97.1	95.1	+.4	+3.2	+5.4
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	112.8	92.5	0	0	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.7	85.8	74.6	+.1	0	+15.0
Plumbing and heating	95.0	95.0	92.4	79.3	0	+2.8	+19.8
Building materials	118.7	118.3	116.4	89.6	+.3	+2.0	+32.5
Brick and tile	116.7	115.2	105.0	90.5	+1.3	+11.1	+29.0
Cement	100.1	99.9	97.7	91.3	+.2	+2.5	+9.6
Lumber	155.5	155.2	154.2	90.1	+.2	+.8	+72.6
Paint and paint materials	107.7	107.6	106.3	82.1	+.1	+1.3	+31.2
Plumbing and heating	95.0	95.0	92.4	79.3	0	+2.8	+19.8
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	0	0	0
Other building materials	105.4	104.6	103.3	89.5	+.8	+2.0	+17.8
Chemicals and allied products	95.7	95.5	94.8	74.2	+.2	+.9	+29.0
Chemicals	96.7	96.4	95.5	83.8	+.3	+1.3	+15.4
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	110.7	110.3	106.9	77.1	+.4	+3.6	+43.6
Fertilizer materials	81.9	81.9	81.8	65.5	0	+.1	+25.0
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.6	86.6	73.1	0	0	+18.5
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	102.0	40.6	0	0	+151.2
Housefurnishing goods	104.7	104.7	104.4	85.6	0	+.3	+22.3
Furnishings	107.9	107.9	107.4	90.0	0	+.5	+19.9
Furniture	101.6	101.6	101.5	81.1	0	+.1	+25.3
Miscellaneous	94.8	94.8	94.0	73.3	0	+.9	+29.3
Auto tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	73.0	60.5	0	0	+20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	159.6	68.4	0	0	+133.3
Paper and pulp	109.3	109.3	107.2	80.0	0	+2.0	+36.6
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	46.2	34.9	0	0	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	98.9	98.9	97.8	81.3	0	+1.1	+21.6
Raw materials	118.9	116.6	113.8	66.5	+2.0	+4.5	+78.8
Semimanufactured articles	96.9	96.8	94.8	74.5	+.1	+2.2	+30.1
Manufactured products	102.2	101.9	101.1	79.1	+.3	+1.1	+29.2
All commodities other than farm products	101.3	101.0	99.9	77.9	+.3	+1.4	+30.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	100.2	100.1	98.8	80.1	+.1	+1.4	+25.1

[1] No quotation.

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Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to November 1945

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1944, and by months from November 1944 to November 1945, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.4	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											
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
April	129.0	105.8	117.9	99.6	83.5	104.2	117.1	94.9	104.5	94.8	105.7
May	129.9	107.0	117.9	99.6	83.7	104.3	117.3	94.9	104.5	94.8	106.0
June	130.4	107.5	118.0	99.6	83.9	104.7	117.4	95.0	104.5	94.8	106.1
July	129.0	106.9	118.0	99.6	84.3	104.7	117.5	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.9
August	126.9	106.4	118.0	99.6	84.8	104.7	117.8	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.7
September	124.3	104.9	118.7	100.1	84.1	104.9	118.0	95.3	104.6	94.8	105.2
October	127.3	105.7	118.6	101.0	84.2	105.0	118.3	95.5	104.7	94.8	105.9
November	131.1	107.9	118.8	101.1	84.6	105.2	118.7	95.7	104.7	94.8	106.8

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–December and Year 1943, Bulletin No. 785.

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TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1944					
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
April	116.8	95.0	101.8	100.5	99.3
May	117.7	95.0	101.8	100.6	99.4
June	118.2	95.4	101.8	100.7	99.6
July	117.5	95.3	101.8	100.7	99.7
August	116.3	95.5	101.8	100.9	99.9
September	114.8	96.5	101.7	100.9	99.8
October	116.6	96.8	101.9	101.0	100.1
November	118.9	96.9	102.2	101.3	100.2

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during October and November 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, October and November 1945*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Nov. 24	Nov. 17	Nov. 10	Nov. 3	Oct. 27	Oct. 20	Oct. 13	Oct. 6
All commodities	106.7	106.3	106.1	105.9	105.7	105.5	105.3	105.2
Farm products	132.1	130.3	129.5	129.1	127.7	126.9	126.3	125.7
Foods	108.7	107.2	107.0	106.6	106.0	105.8	105.2	105.3
Hides and leather products	119.1	119.1	119.1	119.1	119.1	119.1	118.4	118.4
Textile products	100.5	100.5	100.5	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9
Fuel and lighting materials	84.6	84.6	84.5	84.5	84.7	84.5	84.5	84.5
Metals and metal products	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.2	105.2	105.1	104.8	104.8
Building materials	118.7	118.6	118.6	118.2	118.1	118.1	118.0	117.9
Chemicals and allied products	95.6	95.6	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.3	95.3
Housefurnishing goods	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.3	106.3	106.3	106.3
Miscellaneous	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6
Raw materials	120.2	119.1	118.6	118.2	117.4	116.9	116.6	116.3
Semimanufactured articles	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.7	96.7	96.6	95.9	95.9
Manufactured products	102.3	102.2	102.2	101.9	101.9	101.9	101.9	101.8
All commodities other than farm products	101.1	101.1	101.0	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.7	100.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods	100.3	100.3	100.2	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.0	100.0

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Labor Turn-Over

Labor Turn-Over in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, October 1945

FACTORY workers were hired at the rate of 86 per 1,000 in October, the highest rate since October 1942. At the same time, lay-offs dropped from 45 per 1,000 in September to 23 in October, the average level of prewar years, as the necessity for further lay-offs diminished and employers began expansion of their work forces.

The rise in the hiring rate for all manufacturing reflected increases in all major industry groups, except food and tobacco. Hirings in the durable-goods group jumped to 84 per 1,000 by October—about a 25-percent increase over September—while hirings for the nondurable group were 87 per 1,000. As evidenced by the increased accessions in the heavy industries, most major munitions industries had either partially or completely converted to consumer production by October. Among these heavy industry groups, the most striking rise in the rate of hirings, from 74 per 1,000 in September to 107 in October, occurred in the automobile industry; nonferrous metals followed closely.

The rate of lay-offs for the durable-goods industries was cut in half in October, all major groups contributing to this decline. Lay-offs dropped to a relatively low level in most industries, but continued high in the ordnance and transportation-equipment groups.

The increased accession rate for all manufacturing was due largely to the hiring of men. Almost two-thirds of the major groups hired men at a faster rate than women, while in all groups women were separated from their jobs at a faster rate than men. With the termination of wartime relaxation of labor laws, some girls under 18 years of age and women who had been working on night shifts were laid off. In other cases, women were released to make room for veterans.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation:												
1945	6.2	6.0	6.8	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	17.9	12.0	[2] 8.7	------	------
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	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	6.7	[2] 5.6	------	------
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	.7	.7	.6	.6	.7	.6	.7	.6	[2] .6	------	------
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

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation—Con.												
Lay-off: [3]												
1945	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	10.7	4.5	[2] 2.3	------	------
1944	.8	.8	.9	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	0.5	0.5
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	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.2	[2] .2	------	------
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	5.0	4.9	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	7.4	[2] 8.6	------	------
1944	6.5	5.5	5.8	5.5	6.4	7.6	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.1	5.1
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 turn-over 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 one-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turn-over data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. The labor turn-over 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 Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,* [1] *October 1945* [2]

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.
Manufacturing												
Durable [3]	9.4	14.0	5.3	6.4	0.6	0.6	3.3	6.8	0.2	0.2	8.4	6.8
Nondurable [3]	7.9	9.7	6.0	7.0	.5	.5	1.2	2.0	.2	.2	8.7	8.1
Ordnance	26.2	29.9	5.9	4.8	.9	1.0	19.3	23.9	.1	.2	7.8	7.0
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	19.4	19.6	12.1	4.0	.6	.4	6.5	15.0	.2	.2	12.6	6.5
Ammunition, except for small arms	29.4	32.3	4.3	5.3	1.2	1.3	23.9	25.6	[4]	.1	6.2	7.4
Tanks	26.9	35.3	2.3	3.6	.4	.5	24.1	31.1	.1	.1	6.1	7.5
Sighting and fire-control equipment	23.6	29.8	2.8	3.7	.4	.4	20.4	25.4	[4]	.3	5.9	4.7
Iron and steel and their products	6.5	7.8	4.8	5.0	.4	.4	1.0	2.2	.3	.2	8.1	6.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	5.5	6.0	4.4	4.2	.2	.2	.7	1.4	.2	.2	6.7	5.0
Gray-iron castings	7.4	11.3	5.9	7.8	1.0	1.2	.3	2.1	.2	.2	13.0	10.2
Malleable-iron castings	6.7	7.6	5.7	6.4	.4	.5	.1	.5	.5	.2	9.7	7.6
Steel castings	9.4	8.9	5.7	5.4	.7	.8	2.8	2.5	.2	.2	5.7	4.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	7.2	7.2	5.4	5.6	.4	.3	.8	1.0	.6	.3	9.5	5.9
Tin cans and other tinware	15.1	17.7	9.7	12.4	1.9	3.5	3.1	1.3	.4	.5	18.0	12.7
Wire products	5.2	7.5	3.6	4.0	.2	.2	1.1	3.0	.3	.3	6.8	4.7
Cutlery and edge tools	7.0	7.2	5.3	5.6	.9	1.1	.7	.4	.1	.1	11.2	8.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.9	7.0	4.4	5.0	.7	.7	.6	1.1	.2	.2	7.8	7.6
Hardware	6.8	8.0	5.6	6.1	.5	.6	.5	1.1	.2	.2	10.4	8.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	8.0	10.7	6.2	6.9	.7	1.0	.8	2.5	.3	.3	14.7	11.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	6.2	8.5	4.4	5.6	.2	.8	1.3	1.9	.3	.2	7.0	6.3
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	8.2	13.0	5.6	7.2	.7	.7	1.6	4.9	.3	.2	12.9	10.0
Fabricated structural-metal products	9.2	10.7	5.1	5.5	.7	.7	3.1	4.2	.3	.3	9.0	7.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	5.5	8.0	3.2	3.7	.6	.4	1.4	3.7	.3	.2	6.4	5.2
Forgings, iron and steel	5.4	11.0	3.6	4.4	.4	.3	1.2	6.2	.2	.1	6.4	3.0
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	8.7	16.3	3.3	2.6	.4	.2	4.8	13.3	.2	.2	10.5	13.8

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *October 1945* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.
Manufacturing—Continued												
Electrical machinery	7.4	12.5	4.1	4.5	0.4	0.4	2.6	7.3	0.3	0.3	6.6	5.2
Electrical equipment for industrial use	8.4	10.9	4.3	4.2	.2	.3	3.4	6.1	.5	.3	4.0	2.9
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	5.6	13.6	3.3	4.4	.4	.6	1.8	8.4	.1	.2	7.3	5.9
Communication equipment, except radios	8.1	19.6	3.8	4.6	.6	.5	3.5	14.3	.2	.2	6.5	3.8
Machinery, except electrical	5.7	7.8	3.8	4.4	.5	.6	1.2	2.6	.2	.2	7.1	5.2
Engines and turbines	7.8	11.4	4.4	5.1	.6	.7	2.6	5.4	.2	.2	5.9	4.0
Agricultural machinery and tractors	4.6	7.0	3.7	4.9	.3	.4	.3	1.4	.3	.3	6.8	6.2
Machine tools	4.7	6.3	2.8	3.4	.3	.4	1.5	2.3	.1	.2	4.2	3.5
Machine-tool accessories	8.6	10.3	3.5	3.7	.6	.8	4.3	5.6	.2	.2	4.9	4.4
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	5.2	5.8	3.9	4.1	.7	.9	.4	.6	.2	.2	6.5	6.3
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.9	8.7	4.0	4.7	.6	.6	1.1	3.2	.2	.2	6.9	5.0
Pumps and pumping equipment	5.2	6.0	3.4	4.2	.5	.5	1.1	1.0	.2	.3	9.3	8.0
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	19.1	29.9	7.2	10.0	1.2	1.1	10.5	18.6	.2	.2	8.0	6.2
Aircraft	13.1	38.4	5.2	7.4	.9	.4	6.8	30.4	.2	.2	5.9	5.1
Aircraft parts, including engines	14.5	23.6	4.5	4.1	.4	.4	9.4	18.9	.2	.2	12.1	8.3
Shipbuilding and repairs	24.1	28.5	8.9	12.5	1.5	1.6	13.5	14.2	.2	.2	8.1	6.0
Automobiles	5.6	8.8	3.2	3.1	.3	.2	2.0	5.4	.1	.1	10.7	7.4
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	4.0	7.3	2.3	2.4	.2	.1	1.4	4.7	.1	.1	7.2	5.7
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	8.0	11.3	4.5	4.2	.5	.4	2.9	6.5	.1	.2	16.6	9.9
Nonferrous metals and their products [5]	7.9	10.2	5.4	5.9	.6	.7	1.6	3.4	.3	.2	10.0	7.7
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	5.6	5.4	4.9	4.4	.2	.2	.3	.5	.2	.3	7.3	4.7
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	5.9	7.3	4.5	4.2	.4	.3	.7	2.6	.3	.2	7.2	4.7
Aluminum and magnesium products	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Lighting equipment	8.7	9.1	7.4	7.9	.3	.4	.8	.7	.2	.1	14.4	10.9
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	9.4	12.8	6.3	6.5	.7	.9	1.8	5.0	.6	.4	10.5	7.4
Lumber and timber basic products	10.2	12.7	8.3	9.8	.4	.6	1.3	2.1	.2	.2	10.4	10.3
Sawmills	9.4	11.9	8.0	10.3	.4	.3	.8	1.1	.2	.2	9.8	10.2
Planing and plywood mills	9.3	12.6	5.9	6.4	.3	1.3	2.8	4.7	.3	.2	9.5	8.6
Furniture and finished lumber products	9.1	11.4	7.4	9.0	.6	.7	.9	1.5	.2	.2	12.3	11.8
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.9	12.0	7.6	9.4	.7	.7	.5	1.7	.1	.2	12.8	12.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	6.4	8.4	4.9	5.7	.5	.5	.7	1.9	.3	.3	8.8	7.7
Glass and glass products	5.6	7.7	4.1	5.3	.6	.6	.5	1.4	.4	.4	8.1	8.3
Cement	6.3	6.3	5.4	5.1	.4	.4	.3	.5	.2	.3	10.2	9.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	9.2	10.7	8.2	8.0	.4	.6	.3	1.9	.3	.2	13.4	10.3
Pottery and related products	7.3	7.8	6.1	6.7	.5	.4	.4	.5	.3	.2	10.0	7.4
Textile-mill products	6.6	7.9	5.6	6.6	.4	.4	.4	.7	.2	.2	7.9	7.6
Cotton	7.3	9.1	6.5	8.0	.4	.5	.2	.4	.2	.2	8.6	8.3
Silk and rayon goods	7.4	8.3	6.2	6.8	.5	.5	.5	.9	.2	.1	8.9	7.9
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	5.2	5.6	4.2	4.4	.3	.4	.5	.6	.2	.2	6.7	6.1
Hosiery, full-fashioned	3.9	4.7	3.1	3.8	.3	.2	.4	.6	.1	.1	6.2	5.7
Hosiery, seamless	6.6	7.3	5.5	6.2	.2	.2	.7	.8	.2	.1	8.0	8.1
Knitted underwear	6.4	6.9	5.6	5.8	.4	.3	.3	.7	.1	.1	7.7	7.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	.9	5.4	3.7	3.9	.3	.5	.7	.8	.2	.2	6.0	5.6

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *October 1945* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.
Manufacturing—Continued												
Apparel and other finished textile products	7.9	7.8	6.4	6.3	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.1	(4)	(4)	8.7	7.1
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	5.9	6.4	5.0	4.5	.1	.2	.8	1.7	(4)	(4)	5.8	5.3
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	8.9	7.1	6.9	6.1	.4	.3	1.6	.7	(4)	(4)	9.7	7.4
Leather and leather products	6.5	8.0	5.3	6.4	.4	.3	.6	1.2	.2	.1	7.7	7.1
Leather	5.6	6.2	4.0	5.4	.3	.3	1.1	.3	.2	.2	6.2	6.0
Boots and shoes	6.6	8.2	5.5	6.5	.4	.2	.5	1.4	.2	.1	8.0	7.4
Food and kindred products	10.4	11.3	8.1	9.5	.7	.7	1.3	.8	.3	.3	10.7	11.3
Meat products	10.9	10.8	8.3	8.9	.8	.8	1.4	.8	.4	.3	11.2	10.9
Grain-mill products	10.7	14.4	8.9	12.8	1.1	.7	.5	.5	.2	.4	13.9	12.8
Tobacco manufactures	8.1	8.7	6.1	7.8	.5	.5	1.4	.3	.1	.1	9.3	12.1
Paper and allied products	7.6	9.5	6.0	8.1	.9	.7	.4	.4	.3	.3	9.7	9.7
Paper and pulp	6.4	8.7	4.8	7.3	.9	.6	.4	.4	.3	.4	8.6	9.0
Paper boxes	10.7	11.7	9.4	10.3	.9	.8	.2	.4	.2	.2	13.0	12.2
Chemicals and allied products	7.3	13.4	3.8	4.9	.5	.5	2.8	7.8	.2	.2	6.4	5.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors	4.6	5.4	3.5	4.2	.7	.6	.2	.4	.2	.2	8.5	8.2
Rayon and allied products	5.0	5.8	4.3	5.3	.3	.3	.2	.1	.2	.1	7.3	8.0
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	5.5	7.2	3.8	5.0	.6	.6	.9	1.4	.2	.2	6.8	5.8
Explosives	21.4	44.6	3.3	5.0	.2	.3	17.6	38.7	.3	.6	3.1	2.0
Small-arms ammunition	12.7	27.9	3.9	4.6	.3	.4	8.3	22.8	.2	.1	5.4	3.3
Products of petroleum and coal	3.7	3.9	2.5	2.9	.3	.2	.7	.6	.2	.2	5.7	4.0
Petroleum refining	3.7	3.9	2.5	2.8	.3	.2	.7	.7	.2	.2	5.6	3.8
Rubber products	7.1	8.8	5.7	6.5	.5	.4	.6	1.4	.3	.5	9.9	7.3
Rubber tires and inner tubes	7.2	8.3	5.9	5.8	.4	.3	.6	1.5	.3	.7	10.3	6.7
Rubber footwear and related products	8.1	9.4	7.3	8.3	.4	.2	.2	.6	.2	.3	9.3	7.3
Miscellaneous rubber industries	6.8	9.3	4.9	6.9	.7	.6	.9	1.5	.3	.3	9.4	8.5
Miscellaneous industries [5]	7.4	12.4	4.3	4.7	.5	.4	2.4	7.1	.2	.2	7.4	4.8
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining	6.4	6.7	5.0	5.7	.4	.3	.7	.4	.3	.3	6.8	5.6
Iron ore	3.7	4.1	2.1	3.3	.1	.1	1.0	.3	.5	.4	3.4	2.6
Copper ore	7.7	7.8	6.5	6.8	.7	.5	.2	.2	.3	.3	8.0	6.3
Lead and zinc ore	6.6	7.6	5.8	6.7	.3	.4	.2	.2	.3	.3	8.8	7.2
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum ore	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Coal mining:												
Anthracite mining	1.9	2.0	1.4	1.6	.1	(4)	.3	.3	.1	.1	2.7	2.4
Bituminous-coal mining	4.6	5.0	4.1	4.6	.2	.2	.1	.1	.2	.1	5.0	4.9
Public utilities:												
Telephone	3.5	4.7	3.1	4.2	.2	.2	.1	.2	.1	.1	5.9	5.0
Telegraph	4.4	4.5	4.1	4.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	6.1	5.6

[1] Since January 1943, manufacturing firms reporting labor turn-over 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] With the ending of the war, the Bureau has substituted "durable and nondurable goods" for "munitions and nonmunitions" formerly carried. The durable-goods group includes all the heavy industries and differs from "munitions" by the exclusion of such war groups as chemicals, petroleum, and rubber, and by the inclusion of lumber, furniture, and stone, clay, and glass. Data for munitions and nonmunitions are as follows:

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.
Munitions	9.1	14.1	4.8	5.8	0.6	0.6	3.5	7.5	0.2	0.2	7.7	6.0
Nonmunitions	8.2	9.7	6.5	7.6	.5	.5	1.0	1.4	.2	.2	9.4	8.9

[4] Less than 0.05.

[5] The following industry group rates are based on incomplete returns: Nonferrous metals and their products, September and October; Miscellaneous industries, October.

[6] Not available.

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TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) for Men and Women in All Manufacturing and Selected Groups,*[1] *October 1945* [2]

Industry	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.
All manufacturing	8.1	11.1	9.8	15.8	5.2	6.4	6.4	7.6	8.6	7.5	8.1	7.5
Durable [3]	8.7	12.6	11.7	23.6	5.1	6.3	5.9	7.5	8.5	7.1	7.8	6.5
Nondurable [3]	7.2	8.9	8.9	10.7	5.4	6.4	6.7	7.7	8.8	8.1	8.3	8.1
Ordnance	24.8	25.2	30.7	43.5	5.8	4.3	6.3	7.8	7.4	6.4	9.0	8.8
Iron and steel and their products	6.2	7.1	8.6	12.3	4.7	4.7	5.9	6.9	8.4	6.4	7.9	6.5
Electrical machinery	5.9	8.9	9.7	18.1	3.6	3.7	4.8	5.7	5.6	4.2	8.1	6.7
Machinery, except electrical	5.2	6.8	7.7	12.4	3.6	4.1	4.7	5.9	7.5	5.4	5.5	4.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	18.2	32.5	19.4	42.4	6.9	11.9	6.7	8.8	8.1	7.7	5.7	4.6
Automobiles	4.6	7.2	9.5	16.2	3.0	2.8	5.0	5.5	9.5	6.6	10.3	8.4
Nonferrous metals and their products [4]	7.3	9.0	9.8	13.9	5.4	5.8	5.5	5.9	9.8	7.8	10.7	7.1
Lumber and timber basic products	9.7	12.4	13.9	16.9	8.1	9.6	8.3	11.2	10.5	10.4	7.6	9.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.1	9.5	11.6	17.7	6.7	7.6	9.4	12.8	12.3	11.2	12.2	13.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.9	7.4	8.1	11.7	4.7	5.2	5.7	7.3	9.1	7.8	7.8	7.2
Textile-mill products	6.5	7.5	6.6	8.2	5.3	6.3	5.8	7.0	8.2	7.4	7.5	7.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	5.3	6.7	8.2	7.8	4.0	4.6	6.7	6.4	5.5	6.1	9.1	7.5
Leather and leather products	5.2	6.3	7.8	9.9	4.1	4.9	6.6	8.1	6.9	6.2	8.8	8.3
Food and kindred products	9.5	10.5	13.0	13.3	7.7	8.9	9.1	11.2	11.0	11.1	9.7	11.8
Tobacco manufactures	8.0	8.0	8.3	9.1	6.4	6.6	6.0	8.4	10.3	13.9	8.5	10.8
Paper and allied products	7.0	8.8	9.0	10.8	5.5	7.5	7.1	9.5	10.1	9.9	7.9	8.9
Chemicals and allied products	6.6	11.6	9.4	19.2	3.5	4.6	4.7	6.0	7.1	5.8	4.3	5.1
Products of petroleum and coal	3.1	3.5	9.1	8.4	2.2	2.6	5.7	5.9	6.1	4.2	1.8	2.2
Rubber products	6.9	7.5	7.7	11.5	5.5	5.8	6.2	7.9	11.0	7.7	7.4	6.6
Miscellaneous industries [4]	6.4	9.8	9.0	15.9	3.6	3.8	5.3	5.9	7.3	4.4	7.6	5.5

[1] 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.

[2] Preliminary figures.

[3] With the ending of the war, the Bureau has substituted "durable and nondurable goods" for "munitions and nonmunitions" formerly carried. The durable-goods group includes all the heavy industries and differs from "munitions" by the exclusion of such war groups as chemicals, petroleum, and rubber, and by the inclusion of lumber, furniture, and stone, clay, and glass. Data for munitions and nonmunitions are as follows:

Industry	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Sept.
Munitions	8.4	12.4	11.4	23.9	4.5	5.6	5.5	7.0	7.9	6.2	7.0	5.7
Nonmunitions	7.7	9.4	9.0	10.5	6.1	7.3	6.9	8.0	9.6	9.2	8.7	8.6

[4] The following industry group rates are based on insufficient returns: Nonferrous metals and their products, September and October; Miscellaneous industries, October.

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Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, November 1945

BUILDING construction started in urban areas during November continued at an unusually high level for that time of year, dropping only slightly from October, the peak month in 1945. Valuations for November 1945 totaled 260 million dollars, as compared with 267 million in the preceding month and only 92 million in November 1944. Private residential building continued to advance during November 1945 (almost 4 million dollars), in sharp contrast to the decline in all other classes of urban building construction. Additions, alterations, and repairs accounted for most of the decrease, falling from 64 million to 54 million dollars.

The 168-million-dollar gain over the year is attributable entirely to the increase in non-Federally financed work, which quadrupled, rising from 62 million dollars in November 1944 to 255 million dollars in November 1945. Federal building in urban areas, on the other hand, fell off 84 percent, dropping from 30 million to 5 million dollars.

TABLE 1.—*Value of Building Construction Started in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, November 1945* [1]

Class of construction	Value (in millions)								
	Total			Federal			Other than Federal		
	November 1945	Percent of change from—		November 1945	Percent of change from—		November 1945	Percent of change from—	
		October 1945	November 1944		October 1945	November 1944		October 1945	November 1944
All construction	$260	−2.5	+183.8	$5	−26.9	−83.9	$255	−1.9	+314.1
New residential	96	+4.0	+311.9	0	0	−100.0	96	+4.0	+442.0
New nonresidential	110	−.8	+200.1	4	−8.8	−81.6	106	−.4	+559.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs	54	−15.2	+70.3	1	−57.0	−72.7	53	−13.5	+90.3

[1] Percentage changes computed before rounding.

The 20,396 new family dwelling units placed under construction in November 1945 compares with 19,496 in October 1945 and 8,460 in November 1944. For the third consecutive month, all units started were to be built for private owners. In November 1944 Federally financed units accounted for one-fourth of the total.

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TABLE 2.—*Number and Value of New Dwelling Units Started in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and by Type of Dwelling, November 1945*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Value (in thousands)		
	November 1945	Percent of change from—		November 1945	Percent of change from—	
		October 1945	November 1944		October 1945	November 1944
All dwellings	20,396	+4.6	+141.1	$93,712	+2.9	+302.6
Privately financed	20,396	+4.6	+220.6	93,712	+2.9	+530.5
1-family	17,400	+4.9	+256.6	82,703	+4.4	+508.0
2-family [1]	1,069	+24.7	+74.7	4,134	+16.5	+139.2
Multifamily [2]	1,927	−6.3	+121.5	6,875	−17.9	+194.7
Federally financed	0	0	−100.0	0	0	−100.0

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

Comparison of First 11 Months of 1944 and 1945

During the first 11 months of 1945, urban building construction totaled 1,720 million dollars—two-thirds more than the aggregate of 1,025 million dollars reported for the corresponding months of 1944. Non-Federal work, valued at 1,479 million dollars, was more than double the 1944 volume, with all classes of construction sharing in the gain. At the same time, Federal activity was one-fourth less than for the same period of 1944. The 11-million-dollar increase in Federal additions, alterations, and repairs was more than offset by the decline in new work. Federally financed new nonresidential building dropped from 254 million dollars in 1944 to 183 million dollars in 1945, and new residential construction fell from 49 million to 30 million dollars.

TABLE 3.—*Value of Building Construction Started in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, First 11 Months of 1944 and 1945*

Class of construction	Value (in millions)								
	Total			Federal			Other than Federal		
	First 11 months		Percent of change	First 11 months		Percent of change	First 11 months		Percent of change
	1945	1944		1945	1944		1945	1944	
All construction	$1,720	$1,025	+67.8	$241	$320	−24.7	$1,479	$705	+109.8
New residential	570	324	+75.9	30	49	−38.8	540	275	+96.4
New nonresidential	691	408	+69.4	183	254	−28.0	508	154	+229.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs	459	293	+56.7	28	17	+64.7	431	276	+56.2

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TABLE 4.—*Number and Value of New Dwelling Units Started in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 11 Months of 1944 and 1945*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Value (in thousands)		
	First 11 months of—		Percent of change	First 11 months of—		Percent of change
	1945	1944		1945	1944	
All dwellings	141,429	106,797	+32.4	$559,104	$314,229	+77.9
Privately financed	131,435	88,207	+49.0	531,947	267,767	+98.7
1-family	109,980	67,328	+63.3	459,735	203,272	+126.2
2-family [1]	8,007	9,340	−14.3	27,453	30,741	−10.7
Multifamily [2]	13,448	11,539	+16.5	44,759	33,754	+32.6
Federally financed	9,994	18,590	−46.2	27,157	46,462	−41.6

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

Construction From Public Funds, November 1945

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during November and October 1945 and November 1944 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes all types of construction both inside and outside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas of the United States.

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 $4,824,000 in November 1945, $6,599,000 in October 1945, and $29,963,000 in November 1944.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Federally Financed Construction in Continental United States, by Type of Project, November 1945*

Type of project	Value (in thousands)		
	November 1945 [1]	October 1945 [2]	November 1944 [2]
All types	$29,962	$56,298	$76,654
Airports [3]	1,702	1,654	4,173
Buildings:			
Residential	4	263	5,663
Nonresidential	10,620	18,482	45,300
Electrification [4]	1,836	10,559	1,118
Highways, streets, and roads	7,739	13,527	10,437
Reclamation	1,502	1,583	3,156
River, harbor, and flood control	3,647	6,168	2,141
Water and sewer	841	3,465	1,270
Miscellaneous	2,071	597	3,396

[1] Preliminary: Subject to revision. Because of delay in receipt of contract notifications, the total shown is probably an understatement of from 20 to 30 percent. The revised figure will be shown next month. The greater part of the change will be for nonresidential building. Water and sewer and miscellaneous projects (mostly dual or multipurpose projects that cannot be classified separately) will probably also be changed materially, but to a lesser degree. Little or no change can be expected in the following: Highways, streets, and roads; residential building; river, harbor and flood control; and reclamation.
[2] Revised.
[3] Exclusive of hangars and other buildings which are included under building construction.
[4] Includes the value of loan agreements made for Rural Electrification Administration projects.

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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 builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by the Federal Government. 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 November 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 valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

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Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Employment Reports for November 1945

FOR the first time since March 1945, the number of employees in nonagricultural establishments increased, and, with the addition of 413,000 workers, November 1945 employment (35,600,000) is above the September level.

All but one of the major industry divisions, including manufacturing, reported gains in employment over the month. The largest increase, 226,000, was in trade establishments, to meet the large volume of pre-Christmas shopping. The number of Government employees declined by 134,000, almost all of the drop being concentrated in the War and Navy Departments of the Federal Government.

Industrial and Business Employment

Employment of production workers in factories (as distinct from total factory employment) increased by 60,000 between October and November. The heavy industries showed an increase of 27,000,

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers and Indexes of Production-Worker Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group* [1]

Industry group	Estimated number of production workers (thousands)				Production worker indexes (1939=100)	
	Nov. 1945 [2]	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944	Nov. 1945 [2]	Oct. 1945
All manufacturing	10,017	9,957	10,040	13,350	122.3	121.5
Durable goods	4,968	4,941	5,017	7,915	137.6	136.8
Nondurable goods	5,049	5,016	5,023	5,435	110.2	109.5
Iron and steel and their products	1,209	1,191	1,194	1,663	121.9	120.1
Electrical machinery	461	451	430	719	178.0	174.1
Machinery, except electrical	892	878	880	1,169	168.7	166.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	555	645	760	2,142	349.7	406.2
Automobiles	500	454	423	680	124.3	112.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	313	297	291	402	136.5	129.7
Lumber and timber basic products	408	409	435	475	97.1	97.3
Furniture and finished lumber products	308	295	291	338	93.9	89.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	322	321	313	327	109.6	109.5
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,050	1,037	1,032	1,096	91.8	90.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	795	798	788	868	100.7	101.0
Leather and leather products	313	305	300	314	90.1	87.9
Food	1,058	1,077	1,140	1,086	123.8	126.0
Tobacco manufactures	86	86	83	84	91.8	92.2
Paper and allied products	316	312	304	313	119.2	117.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	348	336	324	326	106.2	102.5
Chemicals and allied products	438	440	452	608	152.0	152.7
Products of petroleum and coal	134	131	130	132	126.4	123.5
Rubber products	183	174	154	196	151.6	143.8
Miscellaneous industries	328	320	316	412	134.0	130.8

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

[2] Preliminary.

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despite a decline of 90,000 workers in aircraft and shipbuilding production. Evidences that reconversion is well under way were to be found in almost all the industries which had been important in the war effort. While the addition of 46,000 workers by the automobile industry was the most significant gain, there were also gains of 10,000 or more in iron and steel, electrical machinery, machinery (other than electrical), nonferrous metals, and furniture.

The increase in employment was slightly larger in the light industries than in the heavy. The addition of 33,000 production workers was pretty equally divided among the textile, leather, printing, rubber, and miscellaneous groups.

The only large decline among the light industries was reported by the canning industry, which had passed its seasonal peak. The drop in this industry more than offset the relatively large increases in the slaughtering, beet sugar, and baking industries, and was responsible for the decline of 19,000 workers in the food group.

Public Employment

The decline of 101,000 in Federal employment within continental United States during the month ending November 1, 1945, was smaller than in the first month following the war's end. Together, the War and Navy Departments declined 95,000. Sizable cut-backs also affected WPB, OPA, and War Shipping Administration. These, together with partially offsetting increases in some of the peacetime agencies—State, Treasury, and Post Office Departments, Veterans Administration, and RFC—brought total Federal employment within continental United States to 2.5 million by November 1.

Since VJ-day, 11 of the emergency war agencies either have been abolished, were transferred to peacetime agencies, or are engaged in the final wind-up of their affairs. (These include the National War Labor Board, War Manpower Commission, Office of War Information, Office of Inter-American Affairs, Foreign Economic Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Office of Censorship, War Refugee Board, Office of Defense Transportation, Office of Economic Stabilization, and the Petroleum Administration for War.) The need for continued control of prices and for a smooth transition to a peacetime economy, however, will require the continuance of several of the emergency agencies, such as OPA, Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion (including the Office of Economic Stabilization), and the War Production Board (now the Civilian Production Administration).

Although employment of most of the war agencies outside the continental limits of the United States dropped immediately after the close of the war, employment of the War Department in foreign areas continued to expand and, because of its size, to raise the total in these areas. This trend was later reversed, however, with an estimate drop of 56,000 during the month, to a total of 815,000 on November 1, 1945.

Relatively few of these employees occupied classified Federal positions or were sent from the continental United States. Most of them were natives of a foreign country and were paid at the rate prevailing in the locality for similar work. This may have been only $1.50, or even less, a day. In some localities where there was an acute shortage of foodstuffs on the local markets, the United States

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Government sometimes was able to secure the services of natives only by making payment in kind. The pay rolls of these employees, therefore, moved irregularly during the war, going up when operations were undertaken in a country with a relatively high wage level, and going down when operations were undertaken in a country with a relatively low wage level, and not necessarily moving in the same direction as employment. During the last 2 years of the war the pay rolls for foreign operations varied between $50,000,000 and $70,000,000 a month for all agencies combined and in November 1945 amounted to approximately $65,000,000.

Within continental United States, Federal pay rolls have been cut even more than employment. Although both the base and overtime pay rates of classified positions were increased by Congress in July 1945, in most agencies the weekly hours were cut simultaneously to 44 and soon after the Japanese surrender to 40, thus eliminating overtime pay at one and one-half times the basic rate. Between August and November, the drop in pay rolls for a 4-week period amounted to $151,000,000, or 24 percent. (The corresponding drop

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls for Regular Federal Services and for Government Corporations, in Selected Months*

Year and month	Total	Executive [1]			Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations [2]
		All areas	Continental United States				
			Total	Washington, D. C., area			
	Employment [3]						
November 1939	988,312	954,966	911,902	126,818	5,418	2,357	25,571
November 1940	1,158,413	1,123,605	1,054,009	149,782	5,892	2,529	26,387
November 1941	1,617,385	1,578,219	1,453,350	194,911	6,242	2,569	30,355
November 1942	2,807,536	2,764,752	2,533,167	284,804	6,319	2,666	33,799
November 1943	3,243,945	3,198,907	2,818,494	265,694	6,110	2,647	38,281
November 1944	3,400,320	3,356,254	2,878,212	258,107	6,253	2,646	35,167
July 1945	3,826,861	3,782,967	2,936,210	257,808	6,444	2,706	34,744
August 1945 [4]	3,821,453	3,777,605	2,920,355	255,573	6,412	2,866	34,570
September 1945 [4]	3,727,474	3,683,661	2,819,360	251,090	6,445	2,883	34,485
October 1945 [4]	3,495,477	3,451,871	2,581,276	239,992	6,388	2,878	34,340
November 1945 [5]	3,339,296	3,295,470	2,480,671	232,577	6,367	2,850	34,609
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [6]						
November 1943	$684,513	$676,703	$617,599	$55,093	$1,490	$774	$5,546
November 1944	675,357	667,712	613,754	54,200	1,525	781	5,339
July 1945 [4]	728,436	720,324	650,040	59,183	1,771	841	5,500
August 1945 [4]	698,445	690,240	620,134	57,695	1,779	857	5,569
September 1945 [5]	593,506	585,403	516,063	47,979	1,749	865	5,489
October 1945 [5]	557,109	549,035	483,587	45,817	1,762	857	5,455
November 1945 [5]	540,949	532,860	468,810	43,094	1,758	854	5,477

[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. Beginning July 1945, data include approximately 22,000 clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.

[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] Figures are as of the first of the calendar month.

[4] Revised.

[5] Preliminary.

[6] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month.

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in employment amounted to only 15 percent.) Nevertheless, Federal pay rolls still amount to almost half a billion dollars a month ($477,000,000 for all branches within continental United States in November—$541,000,000 if pay rolls for employees outside continental United States are included).

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). The revised pay-roll series showing monthly figures from 1943 to date is available upon request.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls of the Executive Branch of the Federal Government, in Selected Months* [1]

Year and month	All agencies	War agencies [2]			Other agencies [3]		
		Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [4]	Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [4]
	Employment [5]						
November 1939	954,966	233,860	201,195	32,665	721,106	710,707	10,399
November 1940	1,123,605	373,587	316,234	57,353	750,018	737,775	12,243
November 1941	1,578,219	757,587	646,348	111,239	820,632	807,002	13,630
November 1942	2,764,752	1,917,992	1,700,985	217,007	846,760	832,182	14,578
November 1943	3,198,907	2,377,914	2,014,896	363,018	820,993	803,598	17,395
November 1944	3,356,254	2,507,804	2,045,720	462,084	848,450	832,492	15,958
July 1945	3,782,967	2,848,405	2,020,240	828,165	934,562	915,970	18,592
August 1945 [6]	3,777,605	2,852,519	2,014,272	838,247	925,086	906,083	19,003
September 1945 [6]	3,683,661	2,749,226	1,909,339	839,887	934,435	910,021	24,414
October 1945 [6]	3,451,871	2,494,739	1,648,236	846,503	957,132	933,040	24,092
November 1945 [7]	3,295,470	2,328,901	1,538,319	790,582	966,569	942,352	24,217
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [8]						
November 1943	$676,703	$514,835	$459,244	$55,591	$161,868	$158,355	$3,513
November 1944	667,712	499,627	449,107	50,520	168,085	164,647	3,438
July 1945 [6]	720,324	530,839	464,635	66,204	189,485	185,405	4,080
August 1945 [6]	690,240	495,794	429,847	65,947	194,446	190,287	4,159
September 1945 [7]	585,403	385,651	321,639	64,012	199,752	194,424	5,328
October 1945 [7]	549,035	348,487	288,395	60,092	200,548	195,192	5,356
November 1945 [7]	532,860	335,644	276,917	58,727	197,216	191,893	5,323

[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] Beginning July 1945, data include approximately 22,000 clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.
[4] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.
[5] Figures are as of the first of the calendar month.
[6] Revised.
[7] Preliminary.
[8] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month.

Employment in Shipyards

During November 1945, employment in shipyards declined by 94,100 employees, leaving only 561,300 workers in an industry that employed 1,723,000 at its peak. The decline of 94,100 workers from October to November compares with the drop of 109,000 from Sep-

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tember to October. Employment in United States navy yards was 228,800, only 9,400 less than in October, while the 322,500 workers employed in private shipyards represented a decline from October of 84,700.

The greatest numerical loss in shipyard employment was in the Pacific region, where employment dropped by 44,800 workers. However, a good part of this loss occurred because, during the month, approximately 20,000 shipyard workers in the San Francisco area were not at work because of strikes. Employment in Atlantic Coast shipyards declined 32,200, as compared with a drop of 13,200 workers in Gulf Coast yards. The employment decline of nearly 4,000 in Great Lakes and Inland yards left only 13,000 shipyard workers in these two regions that at one time employed more than 125,000.

Pay rolls of shipyard workers amounted to $128,720,000 during November 1945 as compared with $158,268,000 during the preceding month.

Data on employment and pay rolls are received monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics directly from private shipyards. Data for United States navy yards are received monthly from the Navy Department. 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 by Shipbuilding Region, November 1945*

Shipbuilding region	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	November 1945 [1]	October 1945	November 1944	November 1945 [1]	October 1945	November 1944
All regions	561.3	655.4	1,468.9	$128,720	$158,268	$414,933
United States navy yards [2]	228.8	238.2	321.6	53,455	55,654	92,670
Private shipyards	332.5	417.2	1,147.3	75,265	102,614	322,263
North Atlantic	253.1	278.1	518.6	58,441	72,759	154,212
South Atlantic	63.5	70.7	129.8	13,301	14,798	34,815
Gulf	54.3	67.5	196.8	12,756	15,871	54,238
Pacific	177.4	222.2	513.5	41,408	50,570	142,166
Great Lakes	7.3	10.0	53.9	1,700	2,749	15,002
Inland	5.7	6.9	56.3	1,114	1,521	14,500

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Maryland) Coast Guard yard. Data are also included in the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3).

Construction Employment

Almost twice as many persons were employed in November 1945 on construction in the United States as in November 1944. Construction employment reached a total of 1,229,300 in November 1945, as compared with only 735,300 in November 1944 and 1,175,000 in October 1945. Both the increase during the month and the gain over the year were entirely on non-Federal projects, employment on Federal construction having dropped to 116,800 from 137,600 in October and from 247,600 in November a year ago.

All types of projects financed with other-than-Federal funds showed employment gains over November 1944, ranging from an increase of only 1,600 on county and municipal streets and highways to a 320,700 rise on new nonresidential building. Conversely, all types of Federally financed construction, except electrification projects, shared in the

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employment decrease from 1944. The greatest drop (95,500) occurred in Federal new nonresidential building.

Workers engaged on construction of plants to produce atomic bombs are now included with Federal nonresidential employment in table 5, but were previously included, for security reasons, in the miscellaneous category "Other." It can now be revealed that in November 1944 26,500 construction workers were employed at Oakridge, Tenn., and 22,500 at Hanford, Wash., the two largest atomic-bomb projects. Although about 10,000 were still employed at Oakridge in November 1945, construction at Hanford had been completed.

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, November 1945*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	November 1945[1]	October 1945	November 1944	November 1945[1]	October 1945	November 1944
New construction, total[2]	1,229.3	1,175.0	735.3	(3)	(3)	(3)
At the construction site	1,072.6	1,036.5	657.5	(3)	(3)	(3)
Federal projects[4]	116.8	137.6	247.6	[5] $21,799	[5] $25,017	[5] $41,726
Airports	5.0	6.0	11.1	1,079	1,103	2,162
Buildings	67.5	84.7	171.4	11,904	14,320	26,763
Residential	5.3	7.1	13.7	1,172	1,373	2,995
Nonresidential[6]	[7] 62.2	[7] 77.6	[7] 157.7	[5] 10,732	[5] 12,947	[5] 23,768
Electrification	.7	.8	.4	151	138	66
Highways, streets, and roads	10.8	11.4	12.5	2,010	2,255	2,327
Reclamation	6.0	6.1	9.8	1,223	1,342	2,210
River, harbor, and flood control	18.4	18.0	20.9	3,822	3,792	4,097
Water and sewer systems	2.3	2.7	6.0	392	442	984
Miscellaneous	6.1	7.9	15.5	1,218	1,625	3,117
Non-Federal projects	955.8	898.9	409.9	(3)	(3)	(3)
Buildings	686.5	583.6	202.3	157,895	137,730	47,338
Residential	253.4	214.5	89.9	(3)	(3)	(3)
Nonresidential	433.1	369.1	112.4	(3)	(3)	(3)
Farm dwellings and service buildings	80.8	120.2	68.3	(3)	(3)	(3)
Public utilities	116.4	121.9	96.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
Streets and highways	33.8	40.0	26.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
State	18.0	18.9	12.6	(3)	(3)	(3)
County and municipal	15.8	21.1	14.2	(3)	(3)	(3)
Miscellaneous	38.3	33.2	15.7	(3)	(3)	(3)
Other[8]	156.7	138.5	77.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
Maintenance of State roads[9]	87.5	90.0	86.2	(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: November 1944, 23,417, $4,658,000; October 1945, 17,499, $3,326,000; November 1945, 17,178, $3,165,000.

[5] Excludes pay-roll data for construction of plants to produce atomic bombs.

[6] Employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation projects are included, but those for projects financed from RFC loans are excluded. The latter are considered non-Federal projects.

[7] Includes employment on projects which for security reasons were previously included in these estimates but were shown in the classification "Other," as follows: November 1944, 49,000; October 1945, 15,000; November 1945, 10,000. Comparable pay-roll data are not available.

[8] Includes central office force of construction contractors, shop employees of special trades contractors, such as bench sheet-metal workers, etc.

[9] Data for other types of maintenance not available.

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Estimates of employment on non-Federal construction projects (except State roads) are obtained by converting the value of work started (compiled from reports on building permits issued, priorities granted, and from certain special reports) into monthly expenditures and employment by means of factors which have been developed from special studies and adjusted to current conditions. For State roads projects, data represent estimates of the Public Roads Administration.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, October 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)			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Total, estimated employment [1]	35,207	35,334	36,984	38,360
Manufacturing [2]	11,974	12,097	13,831	15,692
Mining	718	784	784	816
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	990	945	927	652
Transportation and public utilities	3,792	3,834	3,860	3,767
Trade	7,334	7,138	6,979	7,148
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,698	4,603	4,666	4,340
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,701	5,933	5,937	5 945

[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 production workers in manufacturing industries have been further adjusted to final 1943 data, subsequent to December 1942, the two sets of estimates are not comparable.

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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 production workers 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 production workers 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 production workers in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the production workers 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 August, September, and October, 1945, and for October 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 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.

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TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
All manufacturing	9,957	10,040	11,643	13,440
Durable goods	4,941	5,017	6,512	7,981
Nondurable goods	5,016	5,023	5,131	5,459
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,191	1,194	1,439	1,672
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	422.9	422.4	456.7	473.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	67.8	66.1	68.7	72.7
Malleable-iron castings	21.9	22.0	22.0	25.0
Steel castings	53.2	53.4	58.0	71.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	13.8	13.2	14.7	15.2
Tin cans and other tinware	35.8	37.6	40.5	40.9
Wire drawn from purchased rods	27.8	27.5	29.5	32.2
Wirework	28.3	26.0	29.8	35.5
Cutlery and edge tools	21.6	21.1	22.1	23.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	21.8	22.6	24.5	26.9
Hardware	34.8	33.9	41.3	45.7
Plumbers' supplies	18.0	17.5	21.0	22.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	46.7	43.8	55.6	62.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	40.3	40.4	44.3	54.8
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	60.5	59.8	75.9	87.5
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	41.3	41.0	50.1	73.4
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	7.2	7.0	7.7	11.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	19.6	19.5	21.7	25.2
Forgings, iron and steel	25.7	25.1	30.0	35.3
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	13.8	12.3	21.9	25.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws	25.0	25.1	34.9	42.8
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	5.3	6.0	8.1	7.5
Firearms	11.2	10.6	16.5	41.6
Electrical machinery	451	430	617	728
Electrical equipment	291.8	271.0	375.8	438.3
Radios and phonographs	59.2	60.3	98.8	123.7
Communication equipment	64.1	64.5	93.0	107.7
Machinery, except electrical	878	880	1,039	1,178
Machinery and machine-shop products	330.1	332.9	398.9	449.8
Engines and turbines	42.8	44.7	57.6	67.9
Tractors	49.5	48.8	51.4	57.0
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	35.9	36.0	39.5	43.9
Machine tools	59.4	60.3	66.6	74.7
Machine-tool accessories	45.7	47.2	57.8	65.0
Textile machinery	25.5	24.9	24.5	27.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	51.6	52.5	62.5	74.9
Typewriters	12.6	11.5	12.8	12.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	24.4	25.2	26.9	31.2
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	7.4	6.5	10.9	11.9
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	7.5	7.4	9.6	10.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	36.3	33.4	43.8	52.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	645	760	1,418	2,175
Locomotives	29.7	29.0	30.5	35.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	41.5	40.3	55.4	57.5
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	128.3	159.3	430.2	647.7
Aircraft engines	30.3	32.4	154.1	226.4
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	367.1	444.0	647.2	1,054.3
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	6.5	6.2	8.4	9.0
Automobiles	454	423	544	685
Nonferrous metals and their products	297	291	365	404
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	35.4	36.8	38.0	41.5
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	50.1	51.6	61.7	68.9
Clocks and watches	20.8	19.6	22.8	25.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	14.2	13.5	13.0	13.4
Silverware and plated ware	10.1	9.7	10.5	11.0
Lighting equipment	19.7	16.8	21.6	27.0
Aluminum manufactures	36.7	35.9	59.0	64.2
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	22.4	21.2	30.8	32.7
Lumber and timber basic products	409	435	452	477
Sawmills and logging camps	193.9	207.6	215.1	227.3
Planing and plywood mills	60.9	63.1	65.9	69.6

See footnote at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Durable goods—Continued				
Furniture and finished lumber products	295	291	317	337
Mattresses and bedsprings	14.5	14.7	17.1	17.9
Furniture	130.5	128.4	141.1	152.5
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	23.3	23.2	24.8	26.9
Caskets and other morticians' goods	11.8	11.3	11.6	12.1
Wood preserving	10.1	10.3	10.0	9.5
Wood, turned and shaped	19.9	19.5	21.1	21.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	321	313	321	325
Glass and glassware	86.6	84.5	87.0	87.1
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.3	9.8	10.0	10.3
Cement	20.3	19.4	18.2	17.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	44.7	42.7	41.6	41.1
Pottery and related products	38.8	37.4	37.7	39.8
Gypsum	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.0
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.2	9.0	9.1	9.6
Lime	7.5	7.4	7.5	7.8
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	12.9	11.9	13.1	13.6
Abrasives	15.7	16.5	19.8	20.7
Asbestos products	17.5	17.5	18.8	19.7
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,037	1,032	1,031	1,087
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	404.3	407.0	407.3	424.1
Cotton smallwares	12.6	12.4	13.0	13.3
Silk and rayon goods	85.2	84.9	85.0	88.1
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	139.5	136.3	134.3	146.0
Hosiery	98.3	96.2	95.5	102.0
Knitted cloth	10.2	9.6	9.7	10.3
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	27.3	26.3	25.9	28.7
Knitted underwear	33.3	32.5	32.7	34.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	54.1	55.9	55.8	59.1
Carpets and rugs, wool	17.9	17.8	18.8	20.1
Hats, fur-felt	9.6	9.3	9.0	9.3
Jute goods, except felts	3.5	3.4	3.2	3.3
Cordage and twine	14.0	13.8	14.3	15.0
Apparel and other finished textile products	798	788	781	876
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	179.7	180.5	185.9	208.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	49.4	48.5	47.5	51.7
Underwear and neckwear, men's	10.9	11.3	11.3	12.2
Work shirts	13.2	13.1	14.0	14.6
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	205.9	202.1	190.4	218.8
Corsets and allied garments	14.5	14.1	13.4	14.9
Millinery	18.3	18.1	17.5	19.2
Handkerchiefs	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.8
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	11.0	9.8	10.2	13.1
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	8.5	8.0	10.6	11.4
Textile bags	14.8	14.4	14.4	13.8
Leather and leather products	305	300	308	312
Leather	39.8	38.8	38.2	39.3
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	15.9	16.3	16.3	16.0
Boots and shoes	168.0	164.6	169.1	171.0
Leather gloves and mittens	10.9	11.0	11.3	12.7
Trunks and suitcases	11.4	10.9	13.1	12.7
Food	1,077	1,140	1,065	1,127
Slaughtering and meat packing	126.9	126.5	124.3	147.9
Butter	22.8	23.7	24.6	21.3
Condensed and evaporated milk	14.0	14.9	15.8	13.7
Ice cream	16.0	16.6	17.3	14.5
Flour	31.3	30.8	30.6	28.4
Feeds, prepared	23.3	23.0	22.2	19.8
Cereal preparations	9.9	9.7	9.5	8.4
Baking	252.8	251.0	248.9	261.5
Sugar refining, cane	12.1	13.1	13.0	14.7
Sugar, beet	19.6	7.6	5.0	18.1
Confectionery	53.6	50.7	50.2	58.9
Beverages, nonalcoholic	24.1	25.7	26.2	27.6
Malt liquors	54.4	55.2	53.8	51.8
Canning and preserving	166.5	237.1	179.5	130.1

See footnote at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Tobacco manufactures	86	83	78	83
Cigarettes	35.9	34.9	33.7	35.3
Cigars	35.9	34.3	31.4	34.5
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.3
Paper and allied products	312	304	303	311
Paper and pulp	145.5	142.0	143.1	143.9
Paper goods, other	43.1	41.9	42.1	44.4
Envelopes	9.7	9.5	9.2	9.6
Paper bags	12.6	12.2	11.4	12.9
Paper boxes	79.2	76.8	75.8	78.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	336	324	322	324
Newspapers and periodicals	115.0	112.3	109.9	110.3
Printing, book and job	138.9	133.1	133.2	133.3
Lithographing	25.0	24.1	24.1	24.4
Bookbinding	27.8	26.3	27.0	27.6
Chemicals and allied products	440	452	548	601
Paints, varnishes, and colors	31.0	29.7	29.0	29.6
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	47.6	46.9	49.6	49.5
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.6	12.4	12.6	12.4
Soap	13.4	13.2	13.0	13.5
Rayon and allied products	54.7	53.4	53.1	53.1
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	109.2	111.7	112.2	115.9
Explosives and safety fuses	29.3	39.2	80.2	87.7
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.6	5.6	5.9	5.8
Ammunition, small-arms	10.4	13.5	37.9	50.3
Fireworks	3.2	3.3	14.3	26.5
Cottonseed oil	17.7	14.5	11.5	19.5
Fertilizers	20.4	20.9	19.9	19.0
Products of petroleum and coal	131	130	135	132
Petroleum refining	89.7	87.7	92.9	90.0
Coke and byproducts	21.4	22.1	21.9	22.4
Paving materials	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6
Roofing materials	9.4	9.8	9.3	9.6
Rubber products	174	154	179	194
Rubber tires and inner tubes	88.2	71.8	86.3	92.3
Rubber boots and shoes	15.3	14.8	16.7	18.4
Rubber goods, other	58.7	57.0	64.4	70.0
Miscellaneous industries	320	316	381	412
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	23.9	26.2	49.7	60.7
Photographic apparatus	20.6	20.9	26.7	27.7
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	19.1	18.8	21.2	23.3
Pianos, organs, and parts	5.2	5.1	7.4	7.1
Games, toys, and dolls	14.1	12.8	13.9	16.9
Buttons	9.1	8.8	8.9	9.2
Fire extinguishers	3.2	3.2	4.1	5.3

[1] Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and should not be compared with the manufacturing employment estimates of production workers plus salaried employees appearing in table 1. 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.

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TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
All manufacturing	121.5	122.6	142.1	164.1	213.5	214.5	256.2	335.1
Durable goods	136.8	138.9	180.3	221.0	235.3	236.8	322.9	462.9
Nondurable goods	109.5	109.6	112.0	119.2	192.1	192.6	191.0	219.0
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	120.1	120.5	145.1	168.6	201.9	200.9	247.0	318.0
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	108.9	108.8	117.6	121.9	172.7	175.3	199.2	225.3
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	116.0	113.1	117.5	124.4	223.2	216.1	216.9	254.3
Malleable-iron castings	121.5	121.8	121.9	138.7	235.4	228.4	208.2	296.5
Steel castings	176.9	177.6	192.7	237.8	291.8	280.9	311.4	453.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	83.5	80.0	89.1	92.0	164.5	151.2	160.2	185.1
Tin cans and other tinware	112.7	118.4	127.4	128.6	186.2	200.7	209.0	216.5
Wire drawn from purchased rods	126.3	125.1	134.4	146.4	189.2	179.4	208.4	252.2
Wirework	93.0	85.7	98.0	117.0	171.1	153.9	176.1	235.6
Cutlery and edge tools	140.1	137.0	143.5	151.3	267.5	260.7	260.7	317.7
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	142.2	147.8	160.3	175.7	252.4	255.0	282.0	329.0
Hardware	97.7	95.0	116.0	128.1	183.9	173.9	209.2	266.5
Plumbers' supplies	73.1	71.2	85.1	89.5	126.0	120.8	136.8	165.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	101.4	95.1	120.5	135.2	179.7	160.5	195.9	262.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	133.1	133.4	146.2	180.7	230.2	234.0	253.6	347.4
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	109.0	107.7	136.7	157.5	198.6	190.1	242.9	327.3
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal work	116.3	115.5	141.1	206.6	186.7	179.0	239.7	400.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	92.4	90.1	99.8	148.3	159.5	152.0	169.6	295.6
Belts, nuts, washers, and rivets	136.7	136.1	151.5	176.3	248.0	217.1	287.9	346.9
Forgings, iron and steel	167.2	163.5	195.4	229.9	288.5	258.5	309.8	472.7
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	164.3	147.1	261.4	306.0	247.5	233.2	551.0	627.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws	147.6	148.6	206.1	253.0	267.2	260.2	368.8	497.1
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums [2]	87.3	98.5	133.0	123.2	154.6	164.5	244.0	244.9
Firearms	223.0	213.0	330.9	831.9	399.0	380.0	653.5	1869.1
Electrical machinery	174.1	166.1	238.2	281.0	280.1	260.6	385.3	512.5
Electrical equipment	161.4	149.9	207.9	242.5	254.7	229.7	330.2	450.3
Radios and phonographs	136.0	138.6	227.1	284.3	229.8	239.1	389.3	542.3
Communication equipment	199.6	200.9	289.7	335.4	323.7	314.4	478.8	550.0
Machinery, except electrical	166.2	166.6	196.7	222.9	276.4	275.5	326.8	424.7
Machinery and machine-shop products	163.2	164.6	197.1	222.3	271.8	266.4	323.6	415.5
Engines and turbines	229.3	239.6	308.5	364.1	378.0	368.6	510.8	786.6
Tractors	158.1	155.9	164.5	182.1	220.0	237.5	248.2	291.9
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	129.0	129.3	142.1	157.8	229.6	246.8	259.4	316.3
Machine tools	162.1	164.8	181.8	204.0	262.4	266.1	303.9	372.6
Machine-tool accessories	181.7	187.6	229.6	258.5	268.2	277.0	336.4	447.3
Textile machinery	116.5	113.6	111.7	123.6	215.2	209.8	191.3	233.4
Pumps and pumping equipment	213.0	216.6	257.9	308.9	386.0	389.9	512.3	659.4
Typewriters	77.7	71.2	78.7	73.8	144.6	133.1	136.4	152.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	123.9	128.1	136.4	158.4	207.1	210.4	231.1	309.2
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	99.0	87.4	146.6	158.8	157.9	143.2	242.9	283.2
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	95.9	94.6	122.3	129.4	191.0	192.8	235.4	271.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	103.3	95.0	124.4	148.7	168.6	155 9	168.8	277.0
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	406.2	479.0	893.7	1370.3	681.1	803.2	1682.9	2964.8
Locomotives	459.1	449.0	471.6	553.6	846.7	753.9	856.3	1297.7
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	169.2	164.4	226.0	234.3	298.6	277.3	396.1	486.9
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	323.5	401.6	1084.4	1632.5	533.0	622.5	1854.8	3185.8
Aircraft engines	340.9	363.9	1732.9	2545.8	441.2	451.4	2375.9	4460.3
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	530.1	641.2	934.7	1522.5	886.0	1106.6	1919.9	3468.7
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	93.6	88.6	120.2	128.8	151.6	132.7	216.6	239.0
Automobiles	112.8	105.2	135.2	170.2	169.7	150.5	178.8	313.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	129.7	127.1	159.4	176.3	223.7	216.2	282.1	337.3
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	128.1	133.0	137.5	150.4	226.8	239.4	258.6	281.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	129.2	133.0	159.0	177.5	223.4	222.6	289.3	335.8
Clocks and watches	102.7	96.6	112.2	127.7	188.5	168.5	212.5	268.6

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Durable goods—Continued								
Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued.								
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	98.1	93.7	90.2	92.9	174.3	165.9	147.0	157.5
Silverware and plated ware	83.0	80.1	86.8	90.9	150.5	144 2	151.4	163.7
Lighting equipment	96.2	82.2	105.6	132.0	155.4	129.7	142.7	237.3
Aluminum manufactures	155.9	152.5	250.4	272.7	237.2	219.9	411.9	501.6
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	119.5	113.0	164.2	174.6	206.2	199.7	284.4	341.0
Lumber and timber basic products	97.3	103.4	107.5	113.4	171.6	184.8	189.0	219.2
Sawmills and logging camps	67.3	72.1	74.7	78.9	119.6	130.9	133.8	156.5
Planing and plywood mills	83.9	86.8	90.7	95.8	140.9	145.2	147.3	167.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	89.8	88.8	96.6	102.7	161.9	157.5	165.0	193.0
Mattresses and bedsprings	79.1	80.2	93.3	97.4	133.2	137.6	149.2	175.1
Furniture	82.0	80.6	88.6	95.8	147.1	140.8	150.4	178.5
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	91.7	91.3	97.8	106.3	177.4	176.6	185.5	221.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	95.0	90.6	93.5	97.3	156.9	149.6	136.2	170.8
Wood preserving	89.6	91.2	89.0	84.7	201.3	209 4	188.3	190.3
Wood, turned and shaped	90.3	88.5	95.8	96.8	161.1	159.0	166.4	176.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	109.5	106.5	109.3	110.9	184.2	176.8	181.7	192.1
Glass and glassware	124.0	121.0	124.5	124.8	196.1	188.9	192.7	204.9
Glass products made from purchased glass	102.9	98.1	99.8	102.7	183.0	172.2	166.6	176.0
Cement	85.1	81.3	76.5	71.8	139.4	131.0	128.0	119.8
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	78.7	75.2	73.2	72.5	134.0	125.6	118.2	122.6
Pottery and related products	117.1	113.0	113.9	120.4	186.7	172.7	173.3	191.6
Gypsum	84.3	82.9	82.1	80.8	148.0	144.8	139.6	143.8
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	113.4	110.9	112.3	117.8	220.5	211.2	200.1	218.5
Lime	78.8	77.9	79.0	82.3	166.8	158.3	158.7	170.5
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	69.5	64.3	70.6	73.5	107.2	102.0	102.4	113.4
Abrasives	203.4	213.1	255.8	267.8	305.1	320.2	443.6	464.4
Asbestos products	110.3	110.4	118.4	124.1	215.8	216.9	242.5	257.5
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	90.6	90.2	90.2	95.0	168.1	166.7	159.4	172.8
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	102.1	102.8	102.9	107.1	198.6	201.0	192.9	203.5
Cotton smallwares	94.5	92.9	97.9	100.2	167.4	166.0	182.3	182.9
Silk and rayon goods	71.1	70.9	70.9	73.6	143.0	138.2	133.9	138.5
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	93.5	91.3	90.0	97.8	178.3	175.4	167.2	188.0
Hosiery	61.8	60.5	60.0	64.1	105.3	101.1	89.0	104.2
Knitted cloth	93.1	88.3	89.1	94.3	176.6	168.1	155.4	165.9
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	97.0	93.6	92.0	102.1	187.6	172.1	160.3	189.8
Knitted underwear	86.3	84.3	85.0	88.9	161.1	157.2	153.1	164.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	80.8	83.6	83.5	88.4	135.0	141.9	139.6	149.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	69.8	69.4	73.6	78.5	114.9	113.7	111.6	135.9
Hats, fur-felt [2]	65.7	63.8	62.0	64.0	135.8	124.8	112.4	123.8
Jute goods, except felts	98.0	95.3	90.1	91.6	193.1	190.3	174.4	179.1
Cordage and twine	115.7	114.2	118.3	123.8	217.9	218.0	217.2	233.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	101.0	99.8	98.9	110.9	183.6	180.3	157.3	200.4
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	82.2	82.5	85.0	95.3	141.5	141.4	135.0	169.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	70.1	68.8	67.5	73.3	131.4	126.1	110.9	130.9
Underwear and neckwear, men's	67.5	70.3	70.1	75.5	141.7	141.8	124.1	151.7
Work shirts	98.5	97.1	103.9	108.3	201.1	188.3	186.5	211.5
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	75.8	74.4	70.1	80.5	141.6	138.4	108.4	147.4
Corsets and allied garments	77.5	74.9	71.6	79.5	139.0	132.2	119.1	140.1
Millinery	75.4	74.5	72.1	79.2	134.8	131.1	112.7	126.8
Handkerchiefs	54.6	53.9	51.2	58.4	102.1	98.1	94.3	110.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	65.1	57.8	60.4	77.8	127.7	111.0	116.8	153.8
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	80.0	75.5	100.1	107.6	141.7	130.4	171.4	204.3
Textile bags	123.2	120.5	120.1	114.7	207.9	207.5	193.2	195.5
Leather and leather products	87.9	86.3	88.6	89.9	160.8	157.2	157.0	160.1
Leather	84.2	82.1	80.9	83.1	151.1	146.3	141.2	144.0
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	84.3	86.5	86.3	84.7	138.1	143.4	141.8	140.1
Boots and shoes	77.1	75.5	77.6	78.5	143.1	140.3	141.2	142.7
Leather gloves and mittens	109.1	109.7	113.3	126.8	193.6	196.2	181.9	223.0
Trunks and suitcases	136.6	130.8	156.8	152.4	243.6	212.8	243.9	248.3

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food	126.0	133.4	124.6	131.8	208.4	218.5	198.6	209.8
Slaughtering and meat packing	105.3	105.0	103.2	122.7	173.1	177.6	158.2	200.2
Butter	127.0	132.1	137.1	118.8	204.1	216.2	226.3	187.2
Condensed and evaporated milk	144.0	153.9	162.6	141.4	235.7	261.0	280.5	229.2
Ice cream	101.9	105.9	109.9	92.3	153.0	161.8	161.5	132.3
Flour	126.3	124.3	123.5	114.6	224.6	218.2	210.9	192.3
Feeds, prepared	151.5	149.2	144.3	128.6	262.3	267.2	244.9	219.3
Cereal preparations	132.7	129.7	126.8	113.1	245.7	251.3	225.6	198.9
Baking	109.6	108.8	107.9	113.3	176.8	173.6	170.9	171.4
Sugar refining, cane	85.7	92.3	92.1	103.6	127.0	145.3	140.0	172.9
Sugar, beet	188.0	72.5	48.2	174.1	264.2	108.9	72.8	228.9
Confectionery	107.8	102.0	101.0	118.5	188.0	175.4	165.7	199.6
Beverages, nonalcoholic	113.5	120.7	123.0	129.9	153.4	168.4	166.6	171.4
Malt liquors	150.8	153.0	149.1	143.6	226.2	242.6	224.2	209.6
Canning and preserving	123.8	176.3	133.5	133.9	250.8	351.6	249.4	262.3
Tobacco manufactures	92.2	89.1	84.0	89.2	181.4	175.3	148.8	165.7
Cigarettes	131.0	127.2	122.9	128.6	217.9	214.1	193.9	208.9
Cigars	70.5	67.5	61.6	67.8	158.7	148.4	114.6	137.0
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	96.3	95.2	91.6	90.0	160.6	164.6	148.8	148.4
Paper and allied products	117.5	114.4	114.2	117.2	201.2	195.5	184.6	196.3
Paper and pulp	105.8	103.3	104.1	104.7	186.7	180.5	171.7	182.6
Paper goods, other	114.5	111.3	111.9	118.1	184.8	182.6	180.2	191.9
Envelopes	111.6	109.6	105.4	110.9	176.2	174.5	160.4	171.7
Paper bags	114.1	109.8	102.8	116.7	206.7	196.4	169.7	199.3
Paper boxes	114.6	111.1	109.6	113.2	192.6	185.5	171.1	180.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	102.5	98.8	98.3	98.7	150.7	147.7	140.0	136.7
Newspapers and periodicals	96.9	94.6	92.6	92.9	132.4	129.8	128.6	119.3
Printing, book and job	109.9	105.4	105.4	105.5	168.8	166.9	151.9	153.7
Lithographing	96.0	92.8	92.8	93.9	147.2	140.1	130.6	132.2
Bookbinding	107.9	102.0	104.7	107.1	191.4	184.7	176.1	177.9
Chemicals and allied products	152.7	156.9	190.0	208.6	256.9	266.4	325.7	364.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	110.1	105.6	103.0	105.1	171.9	167.0	163.0	167.1
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	173.6	171.2	181.1	180.7	268.8	265.0	270.7	268.2
Perfumes and cosmetics	121.4	120.1	121.2	120.1	185.1	178.9	165.5	176.2
Soap	98.6	97.6	95.6	99.5	165.1	170.2	160.3	170.7
Rayon and allied products	113.4	110.6	110.0	110.0	184.1	177.2	181.6	176.8
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	157.0	160.5	161.2	166.6	261.3	273.6	288.2	288.6
Explosives and safety fuses	494.3	540.8	1105.4	1209.7	571.0	738.9	1607.4	1847.4
Compressed and liquefied gases	142.6	140.6	148.0	146.1	222.5	230.0	265.5	262.1
Ammunition, small-arms	242.8	316.2	889.1	1178.6	497.9	592.7	1469.9	2402.2
Fireworks	279.6	281.8	1237.0	2284.4	698.1	755.3	3258.6	6100.1
Cottonseed oil	116.6	95.4	75.6	128.2	258.4	199.7	144.1	275.7
Fertilizers	108.4	111.2	106.2	101.5	249.8	261.0	241.8	227.2
Products of petroleum and coal	123.5	122.6	127.3	124.9	198.4	210.8	228.6	224.2
Petroleum refining	123.1	120.4	127.5	123.6	192.0	203.5	224.3	219.7
Coke and byproducts	98.8	101.9	100.8	103.4	163.5	181.6	189.4	183.1
Paving materials	72.0	71.4	70.4	65.8	140.7	142.0	135.1	131.6
Roofing materials	116.8	122.0	116.0	119.4	211.9	208.7	205.5	217.4
Rubber products	143.8	127.3	148.4	160.2	236.7	216.1	249.5	293.3
Rubber tires and inner tubes	163.0	132.7	159.3	170.6	239.8	211.4	249.7	297.5
Rubber boots and shoes	103.2	99.8	113.0	124.2	185.9	182.7	211.6	225.7
Rubber goods, other	113.4	110.1	124.4	135.2	201.5	192.4	212.8	250.6
Miscellaneous industries	130.8	129.2	155.8	168.4	231.4	227.7	279.2	327.5
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	216.0	236.8	449.4	548.7	345.5	372.7	797.9	1032.1
Photographic apparatus	119.5	120.9	154.6	160.7	189.3	190.6	250.1	268.6
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	164.0	162.1	182.1	200.1	273.4	265.6	283.0	341.6
Pianos, organs, and parts	67.9	66.6	96.7	92.9	108.2	109.4	164.2	174.7
Games, toys, and dolls	75.6	68.7	74.7	90.6	138.6	124.3	116.5	185.5
Buttons	82.7	80.5	80.9	83.5	165.4	167.7	148.1	168.2
Fire extinguishers	326.5	322.2	411.3	527.9	748.3	767.9	786.8	1076.3

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

[2] Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes for earlier months:
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.—July 1945 pay-roll index to 277.4.
Hats, fur-felt.—July 1945 pay-roll index to 111.7.

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TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Mining:				
Anthracite	64.7	64.3	64.1	66.7
Bituminous coal	262	325	323	342
Metal	64.0	63.7	64.5	70.9
Iron	23.7	23.7	24.1	25.5
Copper	19.0	18.8	19.4	22.3
Lead and zinc	13.2	13.2	13.2	14.7
Gold and silver	5.7	5.5	5.2	5.4
Miscellaneous	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.0
Telephone [1]	431	424	423	404
Telegraph [2]	46.4	45.6	45.0	46.0
Electric light and power [1]	209	206	205	201
Street railways and busses [1]	231	229	227	228
Hotels (year-round) [1]	371	362	354	353
Power laundries	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Cleaning and dyeing	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Class I steam railroads [4]	1,397	1,414	1,449	1,410
Water transportation [5]	163	168	164	135

[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] The change in definition from "wage earner" to "production worker" in the power laundries and cleaning and dyeing industries results in the omission of driver-salesmen. This causes a significant difference in the data. New series are being prepared.
[4] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.
[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.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1944
Mining:								
Anthracite	78.1	77.6	77.4	80.5	170.8	149.8	148.0	159.8
Bituminous coal	70.8	87.6	87.1	92.3	122.8	199.7	188.0	210.2
Metal	72.5	72.2	73.1	80.4	119.3	116.4	114.2	130.7
Iron	117.5	118.1	119.4	127.2	204.5	197.5	200.8	210.9
Copper	79.6	78.8	81.3	93.3	132.0	127.5	120.8	155.7
Lead and zinc	85.2	84.6	85.0	94.5	161.4	159.4	157.2	174.6
Gold and silver	23.1	22.3	21.2	22.0	29.4	28.4	26.1	29.7
Miscellaneous	61.1	63.6	66.0	74.9	93.9	104.6	105.2	125.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic	83.9	82.5	81.7	83.0	164.3	159.2	155.9	162.7
Crude-petroleum production [1]	84.8	84.0	84.2	82.7	132.4	138.4	139.2	129.6
Public utilities:								
Telephone	135.6	133.5	133.1	127.1	189.0	181.7	195.7	159.9
Telegraph	123.2	121.2	119.4	122.1	177.6	177.2	200.4	174.9
Electric light and power	85.6	84.5	84.1	82.1	120.4	120.6	120.7	114.3
Street railways and busses	119.2	118.0	117.3	117.7	178.1	177.1	178.7	168.3
Wholesale trade	99.4	97.0	95.8	96.0	150.7	145.6	141.3	140.4
Retail trade	101.1	97.6	93.8	99.7	144.2	138.7	132.0	132.0
Food	104.6	102.0	99.9	108.8	149.7	145.8	144.7	141.6
General merchandise	115.9	110.4	104.7	116.7	157.7	150.0	141.2	147.1
Apparel	112.5	106.4	96.7	113.5	167.4	154.7	139.6	155.0
Furniture and housefurnishings	65.5	63.1	61.7	62.6	97.2	91.4	88.8	88.7
Automotive	75.7	72.3	69.6	66.2	117.3	113.5	104.6	99.1
Lumber and building materials	99.0	96.1	91.8	90.6	150.9	146.7	133.3	133.1
Hotels (year-round) [2]	115.0	112.2	109.9	109.6	184.6	177.2	172.0	161.9
Power laundries	107.4	106.6	106.1	108.0	169.1	168.1	160.5	161.3
Cleaning and dyeing	124.7	122.3	117.3	119.8	207.6	199.2	179.9	188.0
Class I steam railroads [3]	141.4	143.1	146.7	142.8	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]
Water transportation [5]	311.0	320.5	313.4	257.2	566.8	669.6	664.0	599.0

[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.

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AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for August, September, and October 1945, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. (For trend of earnings since 1939, see page 117 of this issue.)

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	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$41.02	$40.48	$41.72	41.6	41.4	40.7	98.5	98.7	102.4
Durable goods	44.38	43.90	45.72	41.8	41.0	41.1	106.3	107.2	111.3
Nondurable goods	37.72	37.77	36.63	41.5	41.8	40.3	90.9	90.3	90.9
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	45.93	45.54	46.31	42.7	41.8	41.7	107.7	108.9	110.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	47.50	48.26	50.74	41.8	41.2	42.2	113.5	117.1	120.4
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	48.78	48.45	47.17	45.0	45.0	42.8	109.3	108.4	110.2
Malleable iron castings	48.24	46.68	42.51	44.2	43.1	38.7	109.1	108.2	109.8
Steel castings	46.28	44.37	45.34	41.9	39.4	39.9	110.2	112.3	113.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	41.23	39.64	37.74	45.6	43.8	41.9	90.5	90.4	90.0
Tin cans and other tinware	39.25	40.31	38.96	42.6	44.1	43.1	92.5	91.7	90.3
Wirework	45.88	44.80	44.79	44.0	43.3	42.7	104.4	103.6	104.9
Cutlery and edge tools	40.94	40.77	38.94	44.4	43.7	40.9	92.9	94.0	95.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	43.48	41.99	42.83	44.5	43.2	43.6	97.8	97.3	98.3
Hardware	42.02	40.80	40.05	43.9	43.2	41.0	95.6	94.5	97.7
Plumbers' supplies	45.00	44.33	42.01	42.5	42.0	40.5	105.7	105.5	103.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	43.92	42.15	40.60	43.6	42.2	39.7	101.3	99.8	102.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	44.69	45.11	44.58	43.3	43.3	42.3	103.2	104.2	105.4
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	41.84	40.50	40.78	42.3	41.2	40.2	98.9	98.7	101.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	44.94	43.34	47.26	42.5	41.0	43.3	105.0	105.1	109.1
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	46.51	45.47	45.80	43.4	42.3	42.9	107.1	107.5	106.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	45.62	40.17	47.88	44.4	39.3	44.8	102.5	101.9	106.5
Forgings, iron and steel	51.71	47.48	47.62	42.4	39.7	38.5	121.9	119.5	123.5
Screw-machine products and wood screws	46.57	45.04	46.10	43.9	42.8	43.8	105.6	105.2	105.2
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums [2]	38.47	36.23	39.81	39.5	36.7	38.6	96.9	98.0	103.1
Firearms	47.44	47.14	52.14	43.0	41.1	42.1	110.3	114.8	123.9

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945
Durable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Electrical machinery	$42.49	$41.46	$42.75	41.2	40.9	41.2	103.2	101.3	103.8
Electrical equipment	43.09	41.87	43.50	41.3	40.9	40.8	104.3	102.4	106.7
Radios and phonographs	36.69	37.44	37.21	39.1	40.9	40.9	93.3	91.3	90.9
Communication equipment	45.11	43.52	45.92	42.4	41.0	43.2	106.4	106.1	105.5
Machinery, except electrical	48.57	48.16	48.41	43.4	43.0	42.7	111.8	111.9	113.4
Machinery and machine-shop products	48.36	47.13	47.81	44.0	42.7	42.7	110.3	110.2	111.8
Engines and turbines	46.55	43.10	46.47	39.6	37.3	39.4	116.5	115.8	118.9
Tractors	46.77	51.32	50.82	41.2	43.8	43.6	114.0	117.2	116.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	47.14	50.63	48.16	43.3	45.6	42.9	108.8	111.1	112.3
Machine tools	52.25	51.94	53.63	44.3	45.1	45.6	117.2	115.2	117.6
Machine-tool accessories	50.72	50.72	50.33	41.9	41.9	42.0	120.9	121.4	120.1
Textile machinery	48.05	47.91	44.34	46.8	47.0	43.6	102.7	101.9	101.6
Typewriters	44.83	45.05	41.68	45.1	45.3	40.6	99.4	99.5	102.7
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	50.94	49.90	51.44	42.0	42.0	43.4	121.0	119.2	118.8
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	42.08	43.27	43.70	42.3	43.9	42.8	99.5	98.6	102.0
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	54.05	55.13	52.13	48.2	49.5	47.4	112.7	112.4	110.7
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	46.98	47.22	39.05	42.8	43.0	35.5	110.0	110.3	110.4
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	48.30	48.31	54.07	38.8	38.3	41.7	124.6	126.0	129.7
Locomotives	52.37	47.68	51.56	41.4	38.5	40.9	126.3	123.9	126.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	46.16	44.15	46.09	42.4	41.2	40.4	108.9	107.1	114.2
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	46.65	43.89	48.43	39.2	37.2	40.7	119.0	118.0	119.0
Aircraft engines	44.65	42.80	47.31	37.7	36.2	37.2	119.1	118.8	127.1
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	49.43	50.92	60.46	38.0	38.6	43.6	129.4	131.7	138.6
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	44.84	41.44	49.88	43.7	41.1	46.7	102.6	100.8	106.8
Automobiles	47.20	44.81	41.70	38.7	36.5	33.5	122.1	122.8	124.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	45.09	44.44	46.15	43.0	42.5	43.3	104.9	104.5	106.7
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	47.12	47.90	50.22	44.4	44.9	45.8	105.8	106.7	109.7
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	50.06	48.32	52.55	44.4	43.8	46.8	112.7	110.4	112.5
Clocks and watches	38.28	36.39	39.41	41.1	38.7	41.7	92.9	94.0	94.6
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	45.14	44.96	41.43	43.4	44.2	42.3	103.8	101.6	97.3
Silverware and plated ware	47.79	47.39	45.93	46.5	47.0	45.4	102.7	100.9	101.1
Lighting equipment [2]	41.45	40.61	34.82	40.7	40.4	33.6	101.9	100.6	103.6
Aluminum manufactures	42.09	39.86	45.47	41.2	39.0	42.8	102.1	102.0	106.2
Lumber and timber basic products	33.02	33.54	32.91	42.2	40.9	40.5	78.3	81.9	81.3
Sawmills and logging camps	31.76	32.53	32.13	41.8	40.5	40.2	75.9	80.4	79.9
Planing and plywood mills	37.11	36.92	35.77	43.2	42.4	41.3	85.7	86.9	85.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	35.89	35.21	33.89	42.7	42.3	40.6	84.1	83.2	83.5
Furniture	36.56	35.39	34.49	42.5	41.7	40.2	86.1	85.0	85.8
Caskets and other morticians' goods	38.27	38.06	33.48	43.5	43.9	38.3	87.6	86.8	86.9
Wood preserving	35.52	36.60	33.71	44.0	44.8	42.4	80.7	81.8	79.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	39.56	39.05	39.08	42.5	41.8	41.6	93.2	93.4	93.9
Glass and glassware	39.90	39.39	38.97	40.5	39.8	39.5	98.5	99.2	98.9
Glass products made from purchased glass	36.68	36.15	34.42	42.8	42.1	41.2	86.0	86.4	82.8
Cement	43.83	43.32	44.91	45.6	45.0	46.5	96.1	96.2	96.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	35.19	34.70	33.47	41.7	40.9	40.4	84.1	84.1	82.3
Pottery and related products	37.15	35.60	35.41	41.5	39.7	39.4	90.8	90.9	90.4
Gypsum	46.12	45.88	44.55	49.1	49.9	47.6	94.0	92.0	93.5
Lime	41.31	39.73	39.54	48.7	47.2	48.1	83.6	84.0	81.3
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	40.18	41.26	37.64	42.1	42.4	39.9	95.4	97.4	94.0
Abrasives	42.18	42.25	48.75	41.7	41.9	45.1	100.7	100.7	108.1
Asbestos products	45.31	45.48	47.40	45.0	45.9	46.8	100.6	99.1	101.2
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	31.12	31.01	29.60	40.4	40.6	38.4	77.0	76.3	77.0
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	28.21	28.32	27.13	40.4	40.6	38.3	69.8	69.8	70.8
Cotton smallwares	32.86	33.22	34.62	40.8	41.7	42.1	80.4	79.6	82.2
Silk and rayon goods	31.86	31.05	30.07	41.8	40.8	39.3	76.2	76.1	76.6
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	35.60	35.84	34.59	40.4	41.4	39.5	88.2	86.6	87.7
Hosiery	31.35	30.67	27.31	37.7	37.6	34.2	83.0	81.7	79.8

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued									
Textile-mill products, etc.—Continued.							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Knitted cloth	$35.29	$35.42	$32.27	43.7	43.9	41.5	80.8	80.7	77.8
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	32.21	30.64	28.82	39.2	38.1	36.7	81.3	79.3	78.0
Knitted underwear	27.42	27.46	26.61	38.9	38.9	37.3	70.1	70.2	70.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	34.41	34.95	34.46	42.7	44.0	41.7	80.6	79.5	82.5
Carpets and rugs, wool	37.98	37.80	35.00	41.7	41.5	38.2	91.1	91.2	91.8
Hats, fur-felt [2]	48.34	45.75	42.41	41.5	41.7	38.1	115.4	109.7	111.0
Jute goods, except felts	35.20	35.67	34.60	44.5	45.1	44.0	79.1	79.2	78.7
Cordage and twine	33.51	34.04	32.63	43.7	44.2	42.5	76.7	76.8	76.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	32.15	31.81	28.06	36.8	36.2	33.2	87.5	87.8	84.6
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	32.58	32.40	30.10	36.9	36.1	33.6	88.6	89.7	89.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	26.06	25.53	23.03	37.4	36.6	33.3	69.6	70.0	70.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's	28.02	26.98	23.72	36.7	35.8	31.7	76.3	75.4	74.8
Work shirts	22.05	20.97	19.46	37.1	35.8	33.5	59.5	58.5	57.9
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	41.16	40.87	33.75	35.8	35.6	31.5	112.0	111.9	105.2
Corsets and allied garments	31.17	30.71	28.92	39.5	39.1	37.2	79.1	78.7	77.9
Millinery	43.61	42.92	38.11	33.8	33.6	30.8	104.7	104.3	101.8
Handkerchiefs	24.42	23.93	24.20	36.3	35.3	35.5	67.9	67.8	68.2
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	26.42	25.79	25.83	35.8	35.5	35.3	73.0	72.3	73.1
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	30.59	29.81	29.56	39.7	39.2	37.2	76.7	75.5	79.2
Textile bags	29.49	30.29	28.28	40.3	40.8	39.3	73.3	74.2	71.9
Leather and leather products	34.94	34.64	33.62	40.9	40.6	39.3	85.5	85.2	85.7
Leather	44.50	44.13	43.18	45.0	45.1	44.1	99.2	98.1	97.9
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	33.09	33.44	33.04	40.2	40.8	39.9	82.8	82.3	83.3
Boots and shoes	33.00	32.95	32.24	40.2	39.9	38.5	82.0	82.1	83.2
Leather gloves and mittens	30.02	30.55	27.48	37.0	36.9	34.2	81.6	83.2	80.2
Trunks and suitcases	37.34	34.15	32.68	41.6	39.1	39.0	89.3	87.4	83.4
Food	39.51	39.36	38.16	44.1	44.7	43.3	89.5	88.0	88.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	44.54	45.81	41.57	46.9	48.0	44.4	95.4	95.8	94.0
Butter	35.69	36.37	36.71	46.5	47.2	48.4	76.6	76.4	75.3
Condensed and evaporated milk	37.94	39.35	39.97	47.6	49.7	52.0	79.7	79.1	76.8
Ice cream	41.04	41.81	40.19	46.8	48.0	47.8	84.5	83.8	81.7
Flour	44.93	44.49	43.18	48.7	49.4	48.6	93.0	90.1	89.1
Cereal preparations	47.04	49.22	45.20	44.7	48.6	45.4	105.0	101.1	99.5
Baking	40.21	39.83	39.66	45.8	45.7	45.5	88.0	87.4	87.4
Sugar refining, cane	35.51	37.62	36.32	41.2	43.6	41.9	86.2	86.4	86.7
Sugar, beet	35.03	37.45	37.87	38.7	36.7	38.4	90.6	102.0	98.7
Confectionery	31.22	31.79	30.18	40.6	40.9	39.4	79.0	77.8	76.6
Beverages, nonalcoholic	35.69	36.85	35.83	42.5	44.0	43.3	83.9	83.9	83.2
Malt liquors	53.09	56.03	53.13	45.6	47.5	45.3	116.3	117.8	116.9
Canning and preserving	32.90	32.24	30.11	39.3	40.8	36.9	83.6	79.5	82.3
Tobacco manufactures	33.30	33.21	29.85	42.0	42.3	39.0	79.3	78.6	76.5
Cigarettes	35.44	35.77	33.55	42.3	43.1	41.1	83.8	83.0	81.7
Cigars	32.13	31.40	26.49	42.3	41.6	37.1	76.1	75.4	71.0
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	29.11	30.11	28.30	39.7	41.6	37.9	73.3	72.4	74.6
Paper and allied products	41.00	40.78	38.69	45.8	45.8	44.0	89.5	89.0	88.0
Paper and pulp	44.55	44.12	41.86	48.2	47.8	45.9	92.5	92.4	91.1
Envelopes	37.81	38.12	36.44	43.7	44.9	43.4	86.6	84.9	84.0
Paper bags	36.76	36.28	33.48	43.6	43.5	41.3	84.8	84.1	81.2
Paper boxes	37.24	36.86	34.40	43.6	43.6	41.4	85.1	84.4	83.2
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	48.10	48.96	46.60	41.6	42.2	40.7	115.7	116.0	114.4
Newspapers and periodicals	52.25	52.43	53.13	39.1	39.3	39.7	131.7	131.1	131.7
Printing, book and job	45.81	47.58	43.44	42.9	43.8	41.0	108.3	109.4	106.3
Lithographing	51.46	50.91	47.13	44.7	44.7	42.9	115.1	113.8	109.9
Chemicals and allied products	42.75	43.10	43.53	43.1	43.3	43.4	99.3	99.6	100.3
Paints, varnishes, and colors	45.59	46.23	46.34	45.4	45.8	46.6	100.6	101.1	99.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	36.54	36.53	35.25	41.7	41.9	41.3	87.6	87.2	85.6
Soap	47.86	49.83	47.90	46.9	48.0	47.6	102.0	103.7	100.6
Rayon and allied products	39.38	38.85	40.33	41.0	41.1	42.3	96.0	94.5	95.3
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	50.25	51.46	53.96	43.3	44.3	46.5	116.1	116.2	116.0
Explosives and safety fuses	43.53	42.12	44.83	38.3	39.8	42.3	113.9	105.8	105.9
Ammunition, small-arms	46.35	42.38	37.38	43.3	41.3	38.2	107.3	102.6	97.8
Cottonseed oil	30.60	28.66	26.09	54.6	50.7	45.0	55.5	56.6	57.9
Fertilizers	32.94	33.75	32.51	44.0	44.9	43.6	74.9	75.0	74.5

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Aug 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Products of petroleum and coal	$52.05	$54.70	$57.28	43.0	44.9	46.9	121.0	121.7	122.2
Petroleum refining	52.59	57.37	59.77	42.2	44.8	46.9	128.6	128.1	128.0
Coke and byproducts	45.18	48.82	51.48	43.9	45.2	46.9	103.4	108.6	109.7
Roofing materials	46.76	44.12	45.55	48.3	45.2	46.6	96.7	97.6	97.7
Rubber products	44.50	46.09	46.76	40.7	42.3	41.8	109.2	108.9	111.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	49.48	53.59	52.81	38.8	41.7	41.5	121.7	122.8	126.9
Rubber boots and shoes	40.44	41.19	42.21	44.7	45.0	45.1	90.8	91.7	93.7
Rubber goods, other	41.47	40.77	40.02	42.7	42.3	41.3	97.2	96.4	96.9
Miscellaneous industries	40.25	40.23	40.72	42.0	42.2	41.8	95.9	95.3	97.5
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire control equipment	46.52	45.77	51.39	41.3	40.6	44.4	111.9	112.1	116.2
Pianos, organs, and parts	38.53	39.90	41.34	40.6	41.4	40.8	95.9	97.0	101.7
NONMANUFACTURING									
Mining:							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Anthracite	$56.45	$49.89	$49.29	41.4	37.0	37.1	135.8	134.1	132.7
Bituminous coal	39.98	52.73	49.90	33.0	42.3	40.1	124.2	126.1	124.9
Metal	46.31	45.33	43.98	44.3	43.0	42.0	104.6	105.5	104.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic	42.63	41.91	41.25	47.2	46.5	46.6	90.2	90.0	88.5
Crude-petroleum production	52.52	55.41	55.51	44.1	45.4	46.8	118.7	122.2	118.7
Public utilities:									
Telephone	40.54	39.62	42.96	41.9	41.5	44.1	97.2	95.9	97.7
Telegraph [3]	37.34	37.87	43.44	45.4	45.9	48.2	82.2	82.5	90.1
Electric light and power	49.22	49.91	50.71	43.4	43.0	44.3	112.8	114.9	113.9
Street railways and busses	50.40	50.54	51.59	50.9	51.3	52.3	98.2	98.3	97.4
Wholesale trade	44.60	43.85	43.27	42.6	42.4	42.4	104.5	102.5	101.3
Retail trade	29.17	28.95	29.01	40.4	40.7	41.2	79.2	78.0	77.3
Food	34.34	34.20	34.68	40.9	41.3	42.6	78.8	77.9	77.3
General merchandise	24.12	23.89	23.91	36.8	37.1	38.0	64.7	63.8	63.4
Apparel	30.92	30.05	29.99	37.5	37.6	37.3	85.2	82.2	82.2
Furniture and housefurnishings	41.12	39.74	39.49	44.0	44.0	43.5	93.9	92.5	92.3
Automotive	44.20	44.82	42.58	45.9	46.5	45.7	98.4	96.5	94.5
Lumber and building materials	39.31	39.24	37.66	43.1	43.3	42.0	92.7	92.2	90.3
Hotels (year-round) [4]	25.08	24.79	24.37	43.7	43.4	43.7	57.0	56.7	55.5
Power laundries	28.74	28.59	27.68	43.2	43.4	42.4	66.2	66.1	64.9
Cleaning and dyeing	33.72	33.00	31.14	43.5	43.1	41.5	79.4	77.8	74.6
Brokerage	64.80	60.69	59.10	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]
Insurance	46.88	46.73	46.73	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]
Private building construction	54.05	53.11	55.79	38.7	38.1	40.3	139.6	139.2	138.3

[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:
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.—July 1945 to $43.74 and 42.9 hours.
Lighting equipment.—April through July 1945 to $47.28, $47.40, $48.19, and $46.65.
Hats, fur-felt.—July 1945 to 39.8 hours.

[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.

Labor Force, November 1945

INCREASES of 160,000 in unemployment and 170,000 in employment led to a rise of 330,000 in the civilian labor force between October and November 1945, according to the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force. In November, the civilian labor

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force totaled 53,440,000 persons including 51,730,000 employed and 1,710,000 unemployed.

The October-to-November increases in both unemployment and employment to a large extent reflected the return of many discharged veterans into the civilian labor force. Unemployment among men increased by 250,000 during the month, being partially offset by a decrease of 90,000 among women. At the same time, male employment rose by 440,000, while female employment dropped by 270,000. The decline in the number of women workers reflected seasonal as well as other withdrawals.

In spite of reaching a new postwar high in November, the volume of unemployment continued to be minimized by the fact that large numbers of demobilized servicemen were temporarily not seeking work.

The gain in employment between October and November was the net result of divergent movements in agricultural and nonagricultural employment. A gain of 540,000 in nonfarm employment more than offset a decline of 370,000 in farm employment. With a strong underlying demand for labor, nonagricultural employment expanded largely in consequence of the inflow of servicemen into the labor market. Agricultural employment declined seasonally as fall harvests were completed in many areas.

Total Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status, Hours Worked, and Sex, October and November 1945

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over [1]					
	Total, both sexes		Male		Female	
	October [2] (revised)	November [2]	October [2] (revised)	November [2]	October [2] (revised)	November [2]
Total labor force [3]	63,750	62,620	44,990	44,250	18,760	18,370
Civilian labor force	53,110	53,440	34,590	35,280	18,520	18,160
Unemployment	1,550	1,710	930	1,180	620	530
Employment	51,560	51,730	33,660	34,100	17,900	17,630
Nonagricultural	42,770	43,310	27,060	27,750	15,710	15,560
Worked 35 hours or more	35,180	35,990	23,320	24,340	11,860	11,650
Worked 15–34 hours	4,740	4,460	2,140	1,910	2,600	2,550
Worked 1–14 hours [4]	1,130	1,280	440	490	690	790
With a job but not at work [5]	1,720	1,580	1,160	1,010	560	570
Agricultural	8,790	8,420	6,600	6,350	2,190	2,070
Worked 35 hours or more	6,820	6,460	5,610	5,350	1,210	1,110
Worked 15–34 hours	1,660	1,610	770	760	890	850
Worked 1–14 hours [4]	190	220	110	120	(*)	100
With a job but not at work [5]	120	130	110	120	(*)	(*)

[1] Estimates are subject to sampling variation which may be large in cases where the quantities shown are relatively small. Therefore, the smaller estimates should be used with caution; those under 100,000 are not presented in the tables but are replaced with an asterisk (*). All data exclude persons in institutions.

[2] These figures include an adjustment for about 1 million recently discharged veterans who had not yet returned to their homes and who were, therefore, not adequately represented in the sample.

[3] Total labor force consists of the civilian labor force and the armed forces. Estimates of the armed forces during the census week are projected from data on net strength as of the first of the month.

[4] Excludes persons engaged only in incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours); these persons are classified as not in the labor force.

[5] Includes persons who had a job or business, but who did not work during the census week because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor dispute, or because of temporary lay-off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days of lay-off. Does not include unpaid family workers.

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Recent Publications of Labor Interest

January 1946

Cooperative Movement

Operations of consumers' cooperatives in 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 22 pp. (Bull. No. 843; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, September 1945, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Bethlehem and Rochdale: The churches and consumer cooperation, 1884–1944. By Benson Y. Landis. New York, Cooperative League of the U. S. A., 1944. 62 pp., bibliography, illus. 25 cents.

Ourselves, Inc.: The story of consumer free enterprise. By Leo R. Ward. New York, Harper & Bros., 1945. 236 pp. $2.50.

The consumers' cooperative movement is described in terms of simple, moving observations at cooperative associations visited by the author throughout the Middle West.

A century of cooperation. By G. D. H. Cole. Manchester, England, Cooperative Union, Ltd., 1945. 428 pp., maps, charts. 10c.

A history of the forerunners of the British cooperative movement and of the movement itself, interpreting the events in the light of the times and showing how the movement affected and was affected by other economic, political, and social movements. Also discusses cooperators in politics, and international cooperation, and gives statistics showing the development of cooperation in Great Britain.

Economic and Social Problems

China's crisis. By Lawrence K. Rosinger. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1945. 259 pp., map. $3.

Contains a section on the economic crisis showing the unlimited price rises and the ineffectiveness of controls.

Germany: Economic and labor conditions under fascism. By Jürgen Kuczynski. New York, International Publishers, 1945. 234 pp. $2.50.

Description of the structure and the general economic policy of German fascism and of the resultant serf-like condition of workers in Germany during the Nazi regime.

Japan's economic imperialism. By Fritz Sternberg. (In Social Research, New York, September 1945, pp. 328–349. 75 cents.)

Analysis of the "economic roots and implications" of Japanese imperialism. Shows the development of Japan's manufacturing industries, 1931–37, in numbers of factories and workers and value of production, and its domestic production and importation of raw materials, 1936. Somewhat similar data are given for Korea and Manchuria.

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.

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Employment (General)

Assuring full employment in a free competitive economy. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 66, 83, 8 pp. (Senate Committee on Banking and Currency subcommittee report No. 5; committee report No. 583, in two parts.)

The two reports listed contain discussion of the need for the Senate's full-employment bill (S. 380), principles and implementation of the legislation, and the support for and opposition to it, with other related material.

Basic facts on employment and production. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 35 pp., charts. (Senate Committee on Banking and Currency print No. 4.)

Described by the committee as a selective compilation of basic economic data intended to answer the question, "What are the essential statistics bearing on the problem of maintaining full production and full employment?" The tables relate to such subjects as population, employment, production and worker productivity, income, prices; wages, hours of work, labor cost, public and private finance, and foreign trade.

History of the Employment Stabilization Act of 1931. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 25 pp. (Senate Committee on Banking and Currency print No. 3.)

Summary of Federal agency reports on full employment bill. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 102 pp. (Senate Committee on Banking and Currency print No. 1.)

The five reports listed immediately above were prepared in connection with hearings on Senate bill 380, a bill "to establish a national policy and program for assuring continuing full employment in a free competitive economy, through the concerted efforts of industry, agriculture, labor, State and local governments, and the Federal Government."

Full employment: Its economic and legal aspects. By Emile Benoit-Smullyan. (In Antioch Review, Vol. 5, No. 3, Yellow Springs, Ohio, fall 1945, pp. 320–334. 75 cents.)

Discusses the meaning of the term full employment and analyzes the problems involved in its attainment. Other articles in this issue deal with related problems of the reconversion period.

Investigation of civilian employment. Report of the Committee on the Civil Service, House of Representatives, 79th Congress, 1st session, pursuant to H. Res. 66 * * *. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. Variously paged. (Union calendar No. 136; House report No. 514, 79th Cong., 1st sess.)

Report on the pay structure of the United States Government as it affects civilian employees in the executive branch, with pertinent legislation and statistics of employment.

The road to high employment: Administrative controls in a free economy. By Douglas Berry Copland. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1945. 137 pp. $1.75.

The author outlines the nature of public controls which he believes to be necessary for insuring "high" employment and which at the same time are consistent with freedom in the sense of the maintenance of democratic procedures. Although based to a considerable extent on British data, the point of view is primarily international.

There's work for all. By Michael Young and Theodor Prager. London, Nicholson & Watson, 1945. 128 pp., bibliography, charts, illus. 5s. net.

Suggests the policy of enlarging public investment at all times and redistributing incomes to insure a high employment level.

The organization of employment in the transition from war to peace: Review article with special reference to South Africa. By R. H. Smith. (In South African Journal of Economics, Johannesburg, June 1945, pp. 91–116. 6s.)

Employment and Readjustment of Veterans

The problem of reemploying servicemen—how to handle it; an explanation of the Selective Service Act and G. I. Bill of Rights. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945. 32 pp. $1.

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Rehabilitation: The man and the job. Report of the Subcommittee on Rehabilitation, Committee on Work in Industry, National Research Council. Washington, 1945. 73 pp. (Reprint and circular series, No. 121.)

Report of New Zealand Rehabilitation Board for year ended March 31, 1945. Wellington, 1945. 23 pp. 9d.
Account of operations in assisting ex-servicemen in their return to civilian life.

Family Allowances

Family allowances for the U. S. A.? By Edgar Schmiedeler. Washington, National Catholic Welfare Conference, 1945. 7 pp. (Reprinted from Homiletic and Pastoral Review, New York, September 1945.)
According to the author, perhaps the most promising and effective means of providing security for families in the low-income groups would be "through the adoption of a first-rate program of family allowances."

Family allowances in France. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, August-September 1945, pp. 196–210. 50 cents.)
Traces the development of the scheme from its beginning, including administrative organization, benefit rates, and other principal characteristics of the present system.

Les allocations familiales aux travailleurs privés de leur salaire. Paris, Bibliothèque de l'Actualité Sociale, 1943. 285 pp.
Brings together the many French provisions for family allowances for persons who are not at work, as a result of accident, illness, maternity, loss of job, etc.

Guaranteed Wages and Employment

Annual wages and employment stabilization techniques. New York, American Management Association, 1945. 96 pp. (Research report No. 8.) $2.25 to nonmembers.
Part I analyzes some of the leading annual wage or employment-guaranty plans in effect and discusses the factors to be considered in setting up such plans. Part II is devoted to a description of techniques in stabilizing production and employment. A 20-page (processed) supplement gives a checklist of "some of the major considerations which a company should review before adopting a specific employment stabilization technique and a guaranteed wage plan."

The guaranteed annual wage. By Waldo E. Fisher. Pasadena, Calif., California Institute of Technology, Industrial Relations Section, December 1945. 4 pp. Free.
Brief summaries of the nature and extent of guaranteed annual-wage plans and of union demands for such protection, with an appraisal of the economic feasibility of the guaranteed annual wage.

Guaranteed employment and income stabilization. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, January 1945. 4 pp. (Selected references, No. 1.) 10 cents.

Some aspects of the proposed guaranteed wage. By Irving S. Olds. [New York, United States Steel Corporation?], 1945. 17 pp.
In this address the chairman of the board of directors of the United States Steel Corporation discussed the meaning and implications of two types of guaranteed wage plans—the "voluntary" guaranty and the "compulsory" guaranty.

Housing

Housing goals—finding the facts and measuring the need in American cities. Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, 1945. 33 pp.; processed.

Tenth annual report, reviewing the activities of the Detroit Housing Commission for the year 1944. Detroit, Mich., 1945. 63 pp., maps, charts, illus.

Housing. London, Royal Institute of British Architects, [1944?]. 42 pp. 1s.
Presentation of Britain's housing needs and the essentials to fulfilling them.

Housing and the state, 1919–44. By Marian Bowley. London, Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1945. 283 pp., charts. 15s. net.
Describes experiments with governmental supply of housing in Great Britain between the two great wars and unsettled questions on housing policy.

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Industrial Hygiene and Health

The medical and environmental control of health hazards in aircraft assembly plants. By Eugene B. Ley and Frederick J. Vintinner. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, October 1945, pp. 779–787; illus. 50 cents.)

Hernias and serious injuries in Maritime Commission shipyards, with reference to preplacement examinations. By Charles M. McGill, M.D. (In Journal of the American Medical Association, Chicago, November 3, 1945, pp. 672–676; chart. 25 cents.)

Comparison of data for over 100,000 workers in five shipyards giving physical preplacement examinations with information for a similar group of workers in five yards without examinations. Average number and rate per thousand of hernias and serious compensation cases per month were about three times as high in yards without examinations as in those with examinations.

Occupational diseases in New York State—a statistical study of causes and types. (In Industrial Bulletin and Employment Review, New York Department of Labor, Albany, June 1945, pp. 218–223. 10 cents.)

Based on workmen's compensation cases closed in 1943 and 1944, with summary figures for earlier years.

Useful criteria in the identification of certain occupational health hazards. [Salt Lake City?], Utah State Department of Health, Division of Industrial Hygiene, 1945. 115 pp. $1.

Injurious substances are classified by chief employing industry and by occupation. Special attention is given to toxic substances; occupational dermatoses; chemical warfare agents; carbon monoxide inhalation; welding hazards; flammable liquids, gases, and solids; and miscellaneous hazards connected with air pressure, altitude, temperature, radiant energy, dust, etc. In certain connections, causative and diagnostic aspects, as well as prevention and control, are treated.

Battle for health: A primer of social medicine. By Stephen Taylor, M.D. London, Nicholson & Watson, 1944. 128 pp., bibliography, charts, illus. 5s. net.

Popular account of the principal diseases, and of official health services available in Great Britain.

Industrial medicine: Second interim report, January 1945, of Social and Preventive Medicine Committee, Royal College of Physicians of London. London, 1945. 24 pp.

Annual report of New Zealand Department of Health for year 1944–45. Wellington, 1945. 34 pp., chart. 1s.

Report on health conditions in New Zealand, including a special section on tuberculosis control and one on industrial hygiene, the latter including recommendations for raising hygienic and esthetic standards in New Zealand factories by State and industrial action.

Industrial Relations

A labor policy for America: A national labor code. By Ludwig Teller. New York, Baker, Voorhis & Co., Inc., 1945. 334 pp., bibliography. $3.75.

Using the development of collective bargaining and labor legislation during the past 50 years as a starting point, the author seeks to develop a national labor code for the United States. The first three chapters are devoted to a summary of the development of labor relations law, the role of courts in labor controversies, and labor policy and administrative procedures. Chapter 4 evaluates the alleged shortcomings of judicial and administrative procedure with a view to formulating corrective proposals. These four chapters constitute part I of the volume. Part II outlines in detail the proposed labor code.

The National War Labor Board and postwar industrial relations. By Paul Fisher. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., August 1945, pp. 483–523. $1.25.)

The author refers to the "vast and important contributions which the War Labor Board has made to American industrial relations" and suggests utilization of its work in the development of a voluntary system for settling industrial disputes under normal peacetime conditions.

Public relations directory and yearbook, Vol. I. New York, Public Relations Directory and Yearbook, Inc., 1945. 855 pages.

Most of the volume concerns public relations of business enterprises but there are sections on labor public relations, Government business facts needed in public relations, and some other subjects of interest to employee groups.

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Wartime methods of labor-management consultation in the United States and Great Britain. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, October 1945, pp. 309–334. 50 cents.)

Deals with consultation at different levels, national, production, and regional, and points out the similarities in the two countries.

Industry and Commerce

Civil aviation and the national economy. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, 1945. xii, 147 pp., charts. 55 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The study outlines a program of Government aid, which, it is believed, would result in the most satisfactory development of civil aviation during the first 10 postwar years. It is estimated that with Government assistance of $100,000,000 annually during that period civil aviation would be able by 1955 to provide more than 750,000 new jobs. The volume contains extensive statistical data, especially in the appendixes.

Maritime Preparatory Technical Conference, Copenhagen, November 1945: Report I, Wages; hours of work on board ships; manning. Report II, Leave. Report III, Accommodation on board ship. Report IV, Food and catering. Report V, Recognition of seafarers' organizations. Report VI, Social insurance. Report VII, Continuous employment. Report VIII, Entry, training and promotion of seafarers. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1945. Variously paged. Report I, 60 cents; Reports II, IV, V, 20 cents; Reports III, VII, VIII, 50 cents; Report VI, 35 cents; set, $2.50.

Report of the Industrial Commissioner to the Retail Trade Minimum Wage Board relating to wages and other conditions of employment in the retail trade industry in New York State. Albany, New York State Department of Labor, Division of Wages, Hours, Women and Child Labor, 1945. 102 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Statistics included are for the most part for 1943 and 1944.

Textile industry: Summary of economic factors bearing on the proposal to amend the prevailing minimum-wage determination for the textile industry under the Public Contracts Act. New York, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, October 1945. 40 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

What about the builders? Ottawa, Wartime Information Board, 1945. 19 pp. (Reconstruction supplement No. 3 to Canadian Affairs.)

Discussion of the jobs created on and off the construction site in Canada, covering the working force, occupations, unions, and related matters.

Building apprenticeship and training council, second report, December 1944. London, Ministry of Works, 1945. 40 pp. 9d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

Recommends the recruitment of 25,000 apprentices annually for Britain's building industry, and outlines suggested administrative and training requirements.

Labor Legislation

State of Connecticut labor laws, revised to July 1, 1945. Hartford, Department of Labor and Factory Inspection, 1945. 351 pp.

Labor laws and miscellaneous legislation relating to the State Labor and Industrial Commission of New Mexico. Santa Fe, [Labor and Industrial Commission?], 1945. 135 pp.

Compilation of labor laws: Apprenticeship laws, veterans apprenticeship policy, labor lien laws, [State of Washington], and Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. Olympia, Department of Labor and Industries, 1945. 80 pp.

Ley fundamental del trabajo: Ley de 28 de Noviembre de 1942 y decreto reglamentario de 13 de Agosto de 1943, comentarios, crítica, concordancias, [Bolivia]. By Alberto Cornejo S. Cochabamba, Universidad Autonoma de Cochabamba, 1944. 91 pp. (Cuadernos sobre derecho y ciencias sociales, No. 26.)

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Labor Organizations and Activities

Maintenance-of-membership and other measures for union security: Selected references, 1941–45. Compiled by Edna L. Stone. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Library, November 1945. 12 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Organized labor's participation in social work: A selected bibliography. Compiled by Margaret M. Otto. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, October 1945. 8 pp. (Bull. No. 163.) 10 cents.

British labor's rise to power. By Harry W. Laidler. New York, League for Industrial Democracy, Inc., 1945. 39 pp., bibliography. 25 cents.

Account of the recent elections, labor history, and structure of the Labor Party, in Great Britain.

The new German trade-union movement. By Hans Gottfurcht. London, the author (20 East Heath Road, flat 3), 1945. 35 pp.; mimeographed. (In English or German.) 1s.

A group of German trade-unionists in Great Britain has outlined a platform for the reconstruction of the German unions and for dealing with the economic, social, and educational problems which will confront Germany, with special emphasis on recommendations for the transitional period.

Medical Care and Sickness Insurance

Government in public health. By Harry S. Mustard, M.D. New York, Commonwealth Fund, 1945. 219 pp. $1.50.

Traces development of public health services in Federal, State, and local sectors of government in the United States and evaluates trends and needs in light of the increased importance which medical care and other basic health services are assuming.

Group health insurance and sickness benefit plans in collective bargaining. By Helen Baker and Dorothy Dahl. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1945. 89 pp., charts. (Research report series, No. 72.) $1.50.

Analysis of provisions, policies, and problems, based on a survey of some 275 labor-management sickness-benefit plans in industry. Summary data are given for 14 specific health-insurance programs sponsored by trade-unions. Emphasis is placed on the movement as a development in trade-unionism. Support of proposals for State and national systems of health insurance by labor, and factors likely to affect the inclusion of group sickness-insurance provisions in collective-bargaining agreements, are discussed. Employer attitudes toward such agreements were canvassed.

Medical care and health services for rural people. Chicago, Farm Foundation, [1944?]. 226 pp. $1.

Proceedings of a conference, sponsored by the Farm Foundation, held at Chicago in April 1944.

Medical care for the American people. By Louis H. Bauer, M.D. (In Journal of the American Medical Association, Chicago, December 1, 1945, pp. 945–949. 25 cents.)

Presents the point of view of the American Medical Association.

British health services today. New York, British Information Services, 1945. 27 pp. (ID 608, replacing ID 416.)

Rapport annuel du Service Médical du Travail, 24e année, 1943. (In Revue du Travail, organe du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale de Belgique, Brussels, June–July 1945, pp. 370–398.)

Statistical and analytical account of the activities of the Belgian industrial medical service for 1943, with observations on occupational diseases.

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Occupations

Handbook of descriptions of specialized fields in industrial engineering and business management. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, U. S. Employment Service, National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, 1945. 14 pp. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Other handbooks already published in this series cover agricultural engineering; agronomy and soil science; animal, dairy, and poultry husbandry and dairy products technology; bacteriology; ceramic technology and engineering; chemistry and chemical engineering; civil engineering; entomology; forestry; geology; horticulture; plant pathology; zoology and parasitology. (For sale by Superintendent of Documents at prices ranging from 5 to 30 cents.)

How to get the job you want. By John W. Herdegen. New York, Essential Books, 1945. 92 pp. $1.

Job guide: A handbook of official information about employment opportunities in leading industries. Edited by Sydney H. Kasper. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1945. 193 pp., bibliographies. $2($2.50, cloth bound).

The volume deals with 20 industries. The general status of each industry in relation to employment opportunities is indicated; other major topics are nature and location of the industry, nature of jobs, training and education, and employment terms and conditions.

Opportunities in retail trade for servicemen. By A. M. Sullivan. New York, Dun & Bradstreet, Inc., 1945. 40 pp.

Appraisal of retail trade possibilities with a special supplement on operating expenses (including wages and salaries) of retail grocery stores.

Establishing and operating a small sawmill business. By Joseph L. Muller. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1945. 154 pp., diagrams, illus. (Industrial series No. 20.) 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Social work as a profession. Chicago, American Association of Schools of Social Work, [1945?]. 32 pp., bibliography.

Personnel and Industrial Management

An employee suggestion system for the small plant or store. By Donald Wilhelm, Jr. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1945. 21 pp.; processed. (Economic, small business, series, No. 45.)

Industrial economy and labor control. By Wayne L. McNaughton. Los Angeles, Calif., Golden State Publishers, 1945. 273 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. $3.25.

The main subjects discussed are plant lay-out, "motion" economy, and time study. A chapter on employee cooperation emphasizes the importance of proceeding with the approval or consent of union representatives and shop stewards.

Supervision—a selected list of references. Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Library, May 1945. 34 pp.; mimeographed.

The growth of personnel management in Great Britain during the war, 1939–44. By G. R. Moxon. London, Institute of Labor Management, 1945. 32 pp. 1s.

Concludes that in World War II the need for effective personnel management was more widely understood than in past periods.

Postwar Reconstruction

Jobs, production, and living standards. By E. A. Goldenweiser, Everett E. Hagen, Frank R. Garfield. Washington, Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, 1945. 85 pp. (Postwar economic studies, No. 1.) 25 cents.

First of a series of studies prepared by members of the staffs of the Federal Reserve Board and the Reserve Banks on various postwar economic problems. The central theme of the series is the importance of achieving and maintaining full employment at adequate levels of compensation. The present study discusses the nature and magnitude of the problem of full employment and outlines a program for its achievement. There is an analysis of output and demand during the reconversion period and of the living standards that can be created within the next decade through the full use of productive resources.

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What peace can mean to American farmers: Postwar agriculture and employment. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1945. 28 pp. (Miscellaneous publication No. 562.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Stresses the bearing of nonfarm prosperity on that of the farm. Estimates are given of the levels of prices, imports, exports, production, and consumption of farm products in 1950, under the assumptions of full employment and a national income of 150 billion dollars, with agricultural prices averaging parity levels. For example, under full employment in 1950 per capita consumption of canned vegetables is placed at 38 percent above the average for 1935–39. The required production of dairy products in 1950 to provide part of a low-cost adequate diet for all families with incomes of less than $1,500 is estimated at 8,130,000 pounds.

Materials and man-hours for the City of New York postwar works program. New York, [City Planning Commission?], 1945. 35 pp., charts, illus.

This study, compiled by the Postwar Planning Committee of the United States Steel Corporation at the request of the New York City Planning Commission, estimates materials, costs, and man-hours for a proposed municipal postwar public works construction program. The estimated cost of the 2,386 proposed projects would be $1,250,600,000 with an estimated man-hour requirement of 396,500,000.

L'effort social en France depuis la libération. (In Revue du Travail, organe du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale de Belgique, Brussels, August–September 1945, pp. 571–575.)

Short résumé of Government and other measures by which, after liberation, the French restored free trade-unions, established labor-management committees, raised wages, and handled manpower.

Postwar planning—an outline. Delhi, India, Bureau of Public Information, 1945. 44 pp., illus. 14 annas.

Account of the plans of the Government of India for raising the living standard throughout the country and for insuring employment for all.

Merseyside plan, 1944. By F. Longstreth Thompson. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1945. 73 pp., maps, charts. 7s. 6d. net.

Plan for a coordinated policy of reconstruction and future development of the communities in Merseyside.

Social Security

An adequate social security program. Address by J. Howard McGrath, Governor of Rhode Island, before 37th annual meeting of Governors' Conference, held at Mackinac Island, Mich., July 1–4, 1945. (In State Government, Chicago, August 1945, pp. 132, 133, 136–139. 35 cents.)

The speaker analyzed recent comprehensive proposals for extension of the Federal Social Security Act and emphasized that these offer the people of the several States types of security which few individual States could afford. He also recommended a grant-in-aid system for unemployment compensation.

Old-age security for the American farm population. By Daniel K. Andrews. (In Journal of Farm Economics, Menasha, Wis., August 1945, pp. 634–648. $1.25.)

Farmers and farm laborers are at present excluded from the social-security system. This article discusses the advantage which old-age insurance under that system would offer to the farmer. Under the present benefit formulas and minimum-earnings requirements, farm laborers would benefit little. The author believes, however, that it is desirable and possible to furnish the entire farm population with more adequate old-age security.

Report of the Special Committee on Social Welfare and Relief of the Joint Legislative Committee on Interstate Cooperation, [*New York Legislature*]. Albany, 1945. 67 pp., map, charts. (Legislative document, 1945, No. 45.)

Analyzes existing social services in New York State. A reorganization plan proposed by the committee has been published under the title of "Integration of public welfare services in the State of New York" (41 pp., mimeographed, 1945).

Britain's way to social security. By François Lafitte. London, Pilot Press, 1945. 110 pp. 6s.

Account of the growth of the social services, the planning by Beveridge and the Coalition Government, and the targets for social security.

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Codigo de seguridad social, [Mexico]. Mexico, D. F., Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social, 1945. 193 pp.

Description of the Mexican social-security system as to classes of workers and businesses covered, maintenance of the social-security fund, character of benefits, and structure of the Social Security Institute which administers the system, with the text of the social-security law.

Inter-American handbook of social-insurance institutions. By Inter-American Committee on Social Security. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1945. 187 pp. $2.

Among the points covered in the information presented for the various institutions are scope, risks covered, benefits paid, official publications, and pertinent legislation.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Straight-time average hourly earnings, selected occupations, in Alaska, July 1942, July 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 12 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Wages and salaries in New York State, 1940–44. (In Industrial Bulletin and Employment Review, Department of Labor, Albany, June 1945, pp. 225–235; charts. 10 cents.)

Wages and wage rates of hired farm workers, United States and major regions, March 1945. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1945. 55 pp., map; mimeographed. (Survey of wages and wage rates in agriculture, report No. 4.)

The first of three national surveys made in 1945 of agricultural wages. The report includes statistics on farms employing hired labor, and on hourly cash wages, daily and weekly earnings, wage rates, and working hours of hired farm workers. Break-downs are given by region; size and wage expenditure of farm; number, race, and sex of workers employed; expected duration of employment; and type of wage rate.

Fixing wages and salaries of Navy civilian employees in shore establishments, 1862–1945. By Guy McPherson and Mary Watts. Washington, U. S. Navy Department, Administrative Office, Records Administration Division, 1945. 13 pp.; processed. (Administrative reference service report No. 9.)

Consists of summary statements and quotations from laws and administrative orders relating to the fixing of wages and salaries and hours of work.

Let our people live: A plea for a living wage. By Joseph Gaer. New York, CIO Political Action Committee, [1945]. 23 pp. (Pamphlet of the month No. 3.) Distributed by Textile Workers Union of America, CIO, New York.

Second annual report of the Catering Wages Commission, 1944–45. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1945. 13 pp. 3s. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

Report on the initial work on methods of regulating remuneration and conditions of employment in the British catering industry, covering hotels, restaurants, boarding houses, canteens, etc.

Zonal statistics relative to wages, hours of labor, and employees in the various trades of the printing industry for Montreal and district, 1937–44. [Montreal?], Printing Industry Parity Committee for Montreal and District, [1945?]. 101 pp.; mimeographed.

Statistics relative to wages, hours of work, and employees in the various branches of the lithographing industry, 1938–44. [Quebec?], Lithographing Industry Parity Committee for the Province of Quebec, [1945?]. 58 pp.; mimeographed.

General Reports

Economic reconstruction. Edited by Seymour E. Harris. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945. 424 pp. $3.75.

The volume treats a wide range of subjects and is based largely on lectures at the Harvard Graduate School of Public Administration in 1944. Lectures in the general field of labor include discussions of the outlook for employment; wages; reconstruction demands for manpower; redistribution of workers by region, industry, and skill; and problems of social security.

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Labor fact book 7. Prepared by Labor Research Association. New York, International Publishers, 1945. 208 pp. $2.25.

Biennial summary of important developments in respect to trade-unions, labor and social conditions, and farmers and farm programs in the United States, with a chapter on labor in other countries. The current volume also deals with phases of the war economy, and with postwar goals and problems chiefly concerned with employment and income.

Ordenamiento económico-social. Buenos Aires, Consejo Nacional de Postguerra, 1945. 129 pp.

Argentine data of labor interest for various years, mostly ending with 1943, given in this volume, are those pertaining to wages and hours of labor, employment, labor-union membership, strikes, social-insurance contributions and benefits, wholesale and retail prices, and cost of living. Legislation (August 24, 1944, through March 23, 1945) concerning postwar planning and an outline of the postwar reconstruction scheme adopted by the Government are given.

Labor report, 1943. Canberra, Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics, 1945. 165 pp. 3s. 6d. net.

Covers prices, wages and hours of labor, employment and unemployment, industrial disputes, industrial accidents, number and membership of labor organizations, and the basic wage and child endowment in Australia. While most of the information in the report is for 1943 or earlier years, some of it is brought down to 1944 and even to 1945 in several instances.

Health, welfare, and labor: Reference book for Dominion-Provincial Conference on Reconstruction. Ottawa, [Edmond Cloutier, King's Printer?], 1945. 124 pp., charts.

Descriptive and statistical material concerning various activities of the Dominion and Provincial Governments of Canada in the health, welfare, and labor fields. Part III is devoted to peacetime labor legislation and regulations, wartime measures being noted only in the section dealing with industrial disputes.

Informe del Señor Ministro de Agricultura, Industrias, Minas y Turismo al H. Congreso Nacional, [Ecuador], 1943. Quito, [1944?]. 101 pp.

This report for 1943 to the Ecuadoran Congress by the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, Mining, and Tourism covers such matters of interest to labor as industrial and agricultural production and control of prices of articles of prime necessity.

National censuses and vital statistics in France between two World Wars, 1921–42—a preliminary bibliography. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress and U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1945. 22 pp.; mimeographed.

National censuses and official statistics in Italy since the First World War, 1921–44—a preliminary bibliography. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress and U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1945. 58 pp.; mimeographed.

Economic survey of India. New York, General Motors Corporation, General Motors Overseas Operations, 1945. 202, xx pp., maps, charts, illus.

Includes information on the cooperative movement, characteristics of the labor force, protective legislation, and trade-unions.

Report of the New Zealand Department of Labor for the year ended March 31, 1945. Wellington, 1945. 23 pp. 9d.

Operations under the Factories Act are covered and information is given on minimum-wage rates, industrial disputes, and other matters. Industrial unions of employers and workers with their membership are listed in an appendix.

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