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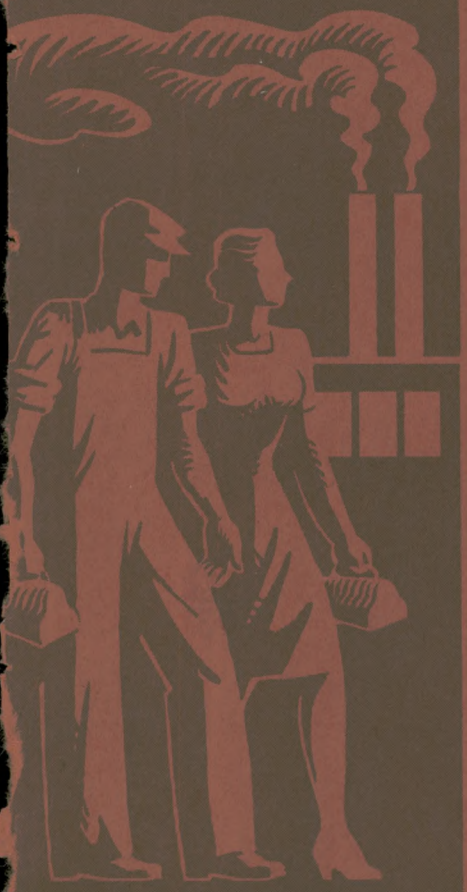

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

L. B. Schwellenbach, *Secretary*

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BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

A. F. Hinrichs, *Acting Commissioner*

Inquiries should be addressed to Bureau of Labor Statistics
Washington 25, D. C.

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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This Issue in Brief

Wage policy, and the role of fact-finding boards

Between November 27, 1945, and January 17, 1946, six boards were appointed to make findings of fact and recommendations in a group of important labor disputes in petroleum refining, automobiles, steel, meat packing, interstate bus transportation, and the manufacture of farm machinery. The controversies involved mainly the question of postwar adjustment in the general wage rate structure. The work of the fact-finding boards was affected by wage-price policy as formulated at the end of the war, and their recommendations contributed to the recasting of that policy in Executive Order No. 9697, issued on February 14, 1946. The general wage rate increases recommended by the boards ranged from less than 14 percent to 20 percent. Page 537.

Wage structure in bituminous-coal mining, fall of 1945

Straight-time hourly wages of workers in key occupations in underground bituminous mines, which employ over 300,000 persons, averaged $1.07 in the fall of 1945. The 18,000 workers in strip mines averaged somewhat higher, as indicated by the national figure of $1.19 for key occupations. Gross weekly earnings averaged $55.29 for underground mines and $64.43 for strip mines. The extremes shown in the selected occupations ranged from 95 cents for slate pickers to $1.42 per hour (straight time) for shot firers paid on an incentive basis in underground mines, and from 97 cents for groundmen and slate pickers to $1.64 for power-shovel operators. Page 550.

Effect of wartime housing shortages on home ownership

The proportion of dwellings occupied by owners increased 15 percent between April 1940 and October 1944 in nonfarm areas of the United States. For many individual cities the increase in home ownership was even greater. In 122 cities surveyed since September 1944 the typical increase in owner occupancy over 1940 was 28 percent, with a fourth of the cities having increases of more than 36 percent. Much of this increase in owner occupancy was supplied by units withdrawn from the rental market, because new home construction was curtailed during the period of the war. Page 560.

Extent of collective bargaining and union recognition, 1945

About 13.8 million workers, 48 percent of all eligible wage earners, were covered by union agreements in 1945. Eight million of these were from manufacturing industries and the remainder from nonmanufacturing. Six and a third million workers were covered by closed- or union-shop agreements, and more than 3.9 million by provisions requiring maintenance of membership. About 39 percent of all employees under agreement were covered by check-off provisions. Page 567.

Employment outlook for molders

In general, the employment outlook is favorable for the important foundry occupation of molder. Among the various types of molders, however, prospects are best for journeymen, because of their diversified skills. It is also expected that many new workers will be needed to train as journeymen. The outlook for specialized hand molders and for semiskilled molding-machine operators is slightly less favorable, particularly in the longer-run period, and it is likely that there will be relatively few openings for newcomers at these levels. Page 573.

Employment Act of 1946

Under the Employment Act, approved on February 20, 1946, the President is to formulate programs whereby conditions will be created which provide work opportunities for those able, willing, and seeking to work. To facilitate cooperation between the Executive and Congress in the formulation of policies, the law provides for the establishment of a joint Congressional Committee. Within the Executive Office of the President there is to be a council of economic advisers. The act calls for an annual economic report to Congress, containing information on the levels of employment, production, and purchasing power and other specified factors in the economic situation; recommendations are to be included. Page 586.

United Rubber Workers of America, 1935–45

Since the formation of the United Rubber Workers in 1935, the union has shown almost continuous growth; its membership in June 1945 stood at about 190,000. It consists of 224 local unions (126 in the rubber industry proper and 98 in related industries). These have about 200 collective agreements in force; the 126 in the rubber industry cover 130,000 workers in 24 States. The tenth annual convention of the organization, in September 1945, adopted a wide program of union objectives and made a number of constitutional changes. Page 601.

Industrial disputes in British countries

In the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand man-days lost through industrial disputes during 1945 were well above the average for the preceding 10 years. Since VJ-day cumulative pressures and strains of the war period, continued high levels of living costs, short supplies of consumer goods, and the sense that the national crisis had passed, combined to produce this increase in industrial disputes. Page 610.

Wage structure of fabricated structural-steel industry, January 1945

In the first study of wages and wage practices to be made on a national scale by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the fabricated structural-steel industry, straight-time hourly earnings for men plant workers averaged 97 cents in January 1945; for the relatively few women employed, 6 cents less. About 6 percent of the men and 14 percent of the women earned less than 65 cents. Occupations engaging large numbers of men averaged from 94 cents to $1.19. Premium pay for overtime and night work supplemented straight-time earnings. Half the establishments paid bonuses not directly related to production; two-thirds gave vacations with pay for a year or more of service; a third had insurance or pension plans. For some years to come this industry should be busy in meeting the accumulated need for buildings, bridges, and other heavy construction. Page 621.

Union wages and hours in printing trades, July 1, 1945

Hourly scales for union printing-trades workers in 75 cities averaged $1.355 on July 1, 1945 ($1.541 in the newspaper branch and $1.261 in the book and job division). This was a gain of 1.4 percent for the industry as a whole since July 1, 1944. Between July 1945 and February 1946 further increases ranging from 5 to 40 cents per hour were negotiated. Almost three-fourths of the raises amounted to at least 10 cents per hour. The straight-time workweek for the industry averaged 39 hours. Practically all workers were entitled to time and a half for overtime, and three-fourths had double time for work on Sunday or the seventh consecutive day. Page 631.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit or base period	1946		1945		1939: Average for year
		February	January	December	February	
Employment and unemployment						
Civilian labor force (BC): Total	Thousands	54,340	53,710	53,310	[2] 51,430	[3] 54,230
Male	do	38,340	37,550	36,130	[2] 33,660	[3] 40,950
Female	do	16,000	16,160	17,180	[2] 17,770	[3] 13,280
Employed [4]	do	51,690	51,420	51,360	[2] 50,550	[3] 46,930
Male	do	36,200	35,790	34,650	[2] 33,170	[3] 35,600
Female	do	15,490	15,630	16,710	[2] 17,380	[3] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	44,700	44,660	44,170	[2] 43,760	[3] 37,430
Agricultural	do	6,990	6,760	7,190	[2] 6,790	[3] 9,500
Unemployed	do	2,650	2,290	1,950	[2] 880	[3] 7,300
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total [4]	do	35,554	35,839	36,319	37,968	30,353
Manufacturing	do	11,614	12,048	11,914	15,517	10,078
Mining	do	819	811	802	798	845
Construction [5]	do	1,222	1,120	1,042	599	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,915	3,891	3,896	3,771	2,912
Trade	do	7,537	7,512	7,960	6,985	6,618
Finance, service and miscellaneous	do	5,002	4,984	4,936	4,360	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,445	5,473	5,769	5,938	3,988
Military personnel	do	5,930	7,011	8,576	11,948	362
Production-worker employment:						
Manufacturing	do	9,667	10,076	9,962	13,268	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	341	336	332	337	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,365	1,393	1,398	1,413	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	1,424	1,320	2,028	1,494	[6] 1,784
Hours and earnings						
Average weekly hours:						
Manufacturing	Hours		41.1	41.6	[7] 45.4	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do		43.3	45.8	[7] 45.1	27.1
Retail trade	do		40.3	40.1	[7] 39.6	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	37.7	37.7	37.1	39.1	32.6
Average weekly earnings:						
Manufacturing			$41.27	$41.40	[7] $47.50	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			$54.23	$58.20	[7] $53.89	$23.88
Retail trade			$30.84	$29.12	[7] $26.99	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$54.43	$52.89	$51.85	$52.89	$30.39
Average hourly earnings:						
Manufacturing			$1.004	$0.996	[7] $1.046	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			$1.262	$1.280	[7] $1.190	$0.886
Retail trade			$0.826	$0.796	[7] $0.751	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.443	$1.402	$1.397	$1.352	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			$0.966	$0.955	[7] $0.970	$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1941			$0.968	$0.957	[7] $0.920	$0.640
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)			$4.40		[7] $4.15	[7] $1.53
Industrial injuries and labor turn-over						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing per million man-hours worked				17.9	[8] 16.9	15.4
Labor turn-over per 100 employees in manufacturing:						
Total separations		6.3	6.8	5.9	6.0	[6] 2.6
Quits		3.8	4.3	4.0	4.3	[6] 0.6
Lay-offs		1.8	1.8	1.3	0.7	[6] 1.9
Total accessions		6.8	8.5	6.9	5.0	[6] 3.1
Labor-management disputes						
Work stoppages beginning in month:						
Number		260	325	134	279	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	130	1,400	50	111	98
All work stoppages during month:						
Number of man-days idle	do	21,500	19,200	7,718	388	1,484
Man-days idle as percent of available working time.		3.94	3.13	1.39	0.06	0.28

See footnotes at end of table.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods—Continued

Item	Unit or base period	1946		1945		1939: Average for year
		February	January	December	February	
Prices						
Consumers' price index (moderate income families in large cities): All items	1935–39=100	129.4	129.9	129.9	126.9	99.4
Food	1935–39=100	139.6	141.0	141.4	136.5	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	149.9	149.5	149.4	143.3	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100			108.3		104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	111.0	110.8	110.3	110.0	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	148.4	148.5	148.3	144.0	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	125.1	125.2	124.8	123.4	100.7
Retail food price index (large cities): All foods	1935–39=100	139.6	141.0	141.4	136.5	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	109.8	109.4	109.2	108.7	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	131.3	131.4	131.2	130.7	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	136.6	136.4	136.2	133.5	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	144.2	172.4	193.2	153.2	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	181.2	180.8	177.3	168.9	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	124.9	124.9	124.9	124.5	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	125.4	125.5	125.1	123.5	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	126.9	126.5	126.6	126.3	100.6
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100	107.7	107.1	107.1	105.2	77.1
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100	102.5	101.9	101.6	100.2	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100	101.3	100.8	100.5	99.2	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	130.8	129.9	131.5	127.0	65.3
Foods	1926=100	107.8	107.3	108.6	104.7	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments (BFDC)	Millions	$12,106	$13,047	$14,272	$12,743	[6] $5,319
Consumer expenditures for goods and services (BFDC)	do			[8] $29,395	[8] $26,646	[8] $16,651
Retail sales (BFDC)	do	$6,191	$6,440	$8,271	$5,113	[6] $2,749
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total	1935–39=100	150	156	161	232	109
Manufacturers	1935–39=100	153	161	167	249	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	135	133	126	135	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons.	49,960	54,100	46,100	48,150	32,905
Car loadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	119	123	119	130	101
Electric energy (FPC): Total	Millions of kw.-hrs.	19,481	22,163	22,012	22,060	[9]
Utilities (production for public use)	do	16,217	18,403	18,109	18,021	[6] 9,433
Industrial establishments	do	3,264	3,760	3,903	4,039	[9]
Construction						
Construction expenditures	Millions	$628	$611	$563	$333	[6] $408
Value of urban building construction started	do	$352	$307	$301	$84	[9]
New nonfarm family-dwelling units		45,600	40,000	28,700	8,500	30,700

[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 December 1945 and January and February 1946 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 the inclusion in the latter 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] February.

[7] January.

[8] Fourth quarter; figures in February 1945 column are for fourth quarter of 1944.

[9] Not available.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

APRIL 1946

Wage Policy, and the Role of Fact-Finding Boards [1]

BETWEEN November 27, 1945, and January 17, 1946, six boards were appointed to make findings of fact and recommendations in a group of important labor disputes in petroleum refining, automobiles, steel, meat packing, interstate bus transportation, and the manufacture of farm machinery. Their work was completed by mid-February 1946. Four of the six boards were appointed by the Secretary of Labor and two by the President. In all of the disputes the question of general wage rate increases was basic, although subsidiary issues were present in several cases. Work stoppages occurred in connection with all of the disputes, and Government seizure of facilities occurred in two instances. The prolongation of several of the stoppages would have impeded seriously the reconversion of industry to civilian production.

The work of these fact-finding boards can adequately be understood only in terms of (1) wartime wage control, (2) the phase of reconversion wage control ending on February 14, 1946, with the issuance of Executive Order No. 9697, and (3) the termination with the end of the war of the role of the National War Labor Board as an agency for the adjudication of labor disputes.

The fact-finding boards here considered were emergency devices in an emergency situation. This article describes the circumstances under which they functioned, the nature of their procedures, and the general significance of their recommendations.

Wartime Wage Control and the Wage-Rate Level

The end of the war posed critical problems of policy in the field of wage-price relationships. One of the basic issues was the extent to which wage rates, which for 3 years had been subject to wartime control, should be increased in the immediate postwar period. Before the end of the war it was clear that the major labor organizations would press for substantial wage advances at the conclusion of hostilities.

During the war period, comprehensive control of wage rate changes constituted an important barrier to general price inflation. Between October 2, 1942, and August 18, 1945, all wage changes were subject to governmental approval. The "Little Steel" formula, which permitted only a 15-percent increase, operated as an effective brake upon general wage rate movements. The wage increases approved in the

[1] Prepared by H. M. Douty, director of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff.

period of general control were largely selective in character, and were designed to correct various types of wage inequities experienced by particular occupational groups, to eliminate substandard rates, and to provide such improvements in working conditions as vacation pay and late-shift premiums. Union proposals to modify or abandon the "Little Steel" formula, in order to permit scope for general wage rate advances, failed of realization during the war period.[2]

As a consequence of wartime control, increases in the basic wage rate structure of American industry were held to moderate proportions. Between January 1941 and October 1945, general rate increases in manufacturing, as measured by the Bureau's urban wage rate index, averaged about 18 percent.[3] Across-the-board rate increases in many important individual industries, including basic steel, meat packing, petroleum refining, automobiles, and bituminous coal did not substantially exceed 15 percent. In addition to general increases, the wage rate structure during this period was affected by selective rate adjustments to individuals and small groups of workers, and both hourly and weekly earnings (as distinguished from basic wage rates) were lifted sharply by longer hours of work, overtime premium pay, the operation of incentive wage systems, and other factors. The fear of a substantial decline in the level of earnings in the reconversion period gave great impetus to the unions' movement for upward revision of basic wage rates.

Wage-Stabilization Policy, August 18, 1945, to February 14, 1946

The wartime wage-stabilization program was modified promptly at the end of the war with the issuance of Executive Order No. 9599 on August 18, 1945. This order was amended on October 30, 1945, by Executive Order No. 9651. Comprehensive regulations for the guidance of the stabilization agencies were issued on December 6, 1945.

Wage policy as formulated in these three documents differed materially from the wartime policy. During the war, all wage adjustments were subject to control; Executive Order No. 9599, on the other hand, permitted employers to make wage increases of any magnitude without governmental approval, provided such increases were not used as the basis for an increase in price ceilings or to increase the cost of goods or services furnished the United States under procurement agency contracts. In short, freedom of action was restored to employers and workers with respect to those upward wage adjustments that could be made within the existing framework of prices and costs to the Government.[4] Subsequently, by Executive Order No. 9651, the Price Administrator was authorized to take even unapproved wage or salary increases into account for price purposes, after such increases had been in effect normally for at least 6 months.

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[2] Wage Report to the President on the Wartime Relationship of Wages to the Cost of Living (National War Labor Board, Feb. 22, 1945).

[3] The total increase as shown by the index was 33.7 percent. In addition to general rate changes, the index is influenced by wage rate adjustments to selected groups of workers, changes in the output of workers paid on an incentive basis, by the prevalence of incentive payments, and by changes in average rates within established rate ranges.

[4] All wage reductions remained subject to control by the terms of the Emergency Price Control Act, as amended by the Public Debt Act of April 10, 1943.

Under Executive Orders Nos. 9599 and 9651, proposed wage increases that would provide immediate bases for applications for price relief remained subject to governmental approval. Approval of wage increases in price relief cases could be granted (1) if increases in straight-time average hourly earnings since January 1941 in the appropriate unit had failed to equal the increase in living costs between January 1941 and September 1945, (2) if inequities in wage or salary rates existed among plants in the same industry or locality, (3) if wages were inadequate for the recruitment of needed manpower in industries designated as essential to reconversion, and (4) if the proposed increases satisfied standards in effect prior to August 18, 1945. The Stabilization Administrator was also given authority to define additional classes of wage or salary increases which could be approved by the appropriate stabilization agency.[5]

Implicit in the new wage policy was the assumption that many employers were in a position to grant increases in basic rates of pay within existing price ceilings and that in many cases the magnitude of these increases could be determined through collective bargaining without work stoppages. Thus, in his address of October 30, 1945, the President stated: "While the positions of different industries vary greatly, there is room in the existing price structure for business as a whole to grant increases in wage rates." The President urged the full use of collective bargaining to determine what an industry or a company "can pay under existing prices and conditions," but warned that "the decisions that are reached in collective bargaining must be kept within the limits laid down by the wage-price policy of the Government."

Disputes and Wage-Price Policy

Many wage rate increases within the existing price structure were made through collective bargaining, or were granted by employers in the absence of union organization, in the 6-month period following the end of the war. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that some 6 million employees received wage increases during this period, the increases ranging from less than 5 percent to more than 30 percent with evidence of concentration in the range of 10 to 15 percent.

In important instances, however, no agreement was reached between employers and unions on the magnitude of the wage increases that could be made under the wage-price policy. No agency for the final determination of these peacetime disputes existed. Wage policy during the war period had been applied in dispute cases by the National War Labor Board. However, the President in a statement on August 16, 1945, had announced that the Board would be terminated as soon as practicable after the conclusion of the imminent Labor-Management Conference on Industrial Relations. The Board was in no position to accept jurisdiction over new dispute cases between the end of the war and its termination date (December 31, 1945).

The Labor-Management Conference adjourned on November 30, 1945, without agreement on machinery to effect the settlement of labor disputes in which collective bargaining and conciliation had failed. Hence recourse to economic power was to be expected when

[5] This authority was not used.

labor and management failed to agree on the terms of the wage bargain and when either or both parties felt that the issue was too fundamental for voluntary submission to binding arbitration.

It was in this setting that the fact-finding boards here discussed were appointed. Their function was to determine the facts in each dispute and make recommendations for settlement within the limitations of the wage-price policy of the Government. In essence, their function was the quasi-judicial one of applying this policy in specific instances, with reliance upon public opinion to force the conclusion of agreements on the basis of the recommendations made.

Recommendations of Fact-Finding Boards in Relation to Wage Policy

At the outset, a fact-finding board's scope of inquiry and the precise relation of its recommendations to wage-price policy required clarification. Basic policy questions were raised at the first public session of the oil panel.

When the hearing in the oil dispute opened, counsel for the Oil Workers International Union posed the following questions:

1. Does the panel have the right to recommend to the Secretary of Labor the wages that should be paid upon the resumption of a 40-hour workweek and that the increase, if any, should be made through collective bargaining with the recognized representatives of the employees involved?
2. Is the panel authorized to find and recommend that such increase, if any, should not be used in whole or in part as the basis for seeking an increase in price ceilings or to increase costs to the United States?
3. Is the panel authorized to recommend to the Stabilization Administrator that additional classes of wage or salary increases to correct maladjustments or inequities be added to those specified in Executive Order No. 9651? [6]

With these questions the union asked, essentially, whether the board would confine its wage recommendation to an increase that could be approved for price relief purposes, or whether, taking the ability-to-pay factor into account, its recommendation could exceed this amount if the equities of the case so warranted. The oil companies in general had taken the position that the question of ability to pay was irrelevant, in the absence of a plea of inability, and that the board should limit any wage recommendation to an increase that could be approved for price relief purposes.[7] By the third question the union sought to determine whether the Board would feel free to recommend that the wage-stabilization policy be modified in the event of a finding that a wage increase would necessitate price relief and that the amount of the increase required for an equitable settlement would exceed the amount approvable under stabilization policy.

The board, after consultation with the legal staff of the Department of Labor, answered "Yes" to the first question, "No" to the second, and "Yes" to the third. By its answers to the first two questions, the board held that it could recommend a wage increase required, in its judgment, for an equitable settlement of the dispute but could not make a finding on the ability of the employers to absorb the increase without price relief. The position of the union on these answers was phrased as follows: "If the employers take the position that they

[6] The questions as formally presented have been paraphrased. See Transcript of Hearing, *Ashland Oil & Refining Co., et al.*, and *Oil Workers International Union, CIO*, Dec. 17, 1945 (pp. 21–24).
[7] Idem, Dec. 4, 1945 (pp. 73 et seq.).

cannot grant the wage increase without the price increase, there is no means of determining that question and we are back exactly where we started. The situation is that you make findings of fact which answers only part of the problem and leaves the union without any opportunity to go to the public or any other means to determine whether or not they are going to get the wage increase." After consultation, the board stated that "The question raised by the union involves a basic question of the entire relationship between the functioning of these fact-finding panels and the wage and price stabilization policies established to cover all of the cases." [8]

On December 21, 1945, the Secretary of Labor, after conferences with the Government stabilization agencies, issued a statement [9] based upon the issues raised in the oil case and designed for the general guidance of fact-finding boards during the life of the then-existing wage stabilization policy.[10] The more significant portions of this statement may be summarized as follows:

1. A fact-finding board will not limit itself to determining what wage increases, if any, are approvable under Executive Order 9651. The propriety of wage increases in excess of these amounts may be considered.

2. A board may recommend a wage increase on either of two bases: (a) That the recommended wage increase can be paid without any increase in price ceilings or in costs to the United States (irrespective as to whether it is approvable in part); and (b) that the recommended wage increase is, in its judgment, approvable for price relief purposes under Executive Order 9651.

3. If a board recommends an increase under 2 (a), "it must satisfy itself that the employers are in a position to absorb the whole increase without any increase in price ceilings." Hence, "the panel must necessarily inquire into the issue of the employer's ability to pay. Ability to pay is a limitation on and does not necessarily constitute a measure of the amount of a fair increase." [11]

4. If a board recommends an increase under 2 (b)—i. e., if it believes an increase will necessitate price relief—the board "is limited to an increase not in excess of the amount approvable for price relief purposes by the Wage Stabilization Board."

On the day preceding the issuance of the statement summarized above, a separate statement on the controversial ability-to-pay issue had been made by the President. This statement read, in part:

In appointing a fact-finding board in an industrial dispute where one of the questions at issue is wages, it is essential to a fulfillment of its duty that the board have the authority, whenever it deems it necessary, to examine the books of the employer. That authority is essential to enable the board to determine the ability of the employer to pay an increase in wages where such ability is in question. Ability to pay is always one of the facts relevant to the issue of an increase in wages.

This does not mean that the Government or its fact-finding board is going to endeavor to fix a rate of return for the employer. It does mean, however, that since wages are paid out of earnings, the question of earnings is relevant.[12]

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[8] Transcript of Hearing, *Ashland Oil & Refining Co., et al.*, and *Oil Workers International Union, CIO*, Dec. 17, 1945 (pp. 28, 29, 40, 42).

[9] Fact-Finding Boards: I—Rules for the Conduct of the Hearing; II—Statement of Policy (U. S. Department of Labor, Dec. 21, 1945).

[10] On the basis of this statement, the oil panel framed a new reply to the questions raised by the union. See transcript, Dec. 21, 1945 (pp. 72-74).

[11] The acceptance by an employer of a wage recommendation made under 2 (a) would not preclude application by the employer to the Wage Stabilization Board for its approval, in whole or in part, for price relief purposes.

[12] Statement of President, December 20, 1945. The President's statement also declared that the information obtained from the books of an employer should not be made public. The board in the General Motors case took the position that it would request confidential information of the company only if the union consented, "since the board has acted throughout this case on the principle that it would not consider evidence which was not freely available to both sides, unless both sides consented" (Report and Recommendations of the President's Fact-Finding Board in the General Motors Case, pp. 4, 5). In the meat-packing case, the board, with the consent of the companies, received access to confidential reports filed with the OPA and the BLS (Report and Recommendations of the Fact-Finding Board in the Meat Packing Industry Case, p. 1).

The fact must be emphasized that financial ability was not considered by any of the boards as a determinant of the amount of an equitable adjustment. For that purpose, use was made of such traditional criteria as the relative movement of wages and the cost of living, labor productivity, and changes in hours as related to earnings. Probably the importance of the policy controversy was that it clarified the duty of fact-finding boards to consider the question of ability to pay in view of the nature of the wage-price policy under which they operated. Presumably this principle will hold as long as wages are subject to public control in the interest of stabilization and a distinction is made in wage policy between increases which do and do not involve price relief.[13]

Board Recommendations and the Transition in Wage Policy

The first two boards to report (those dealing with the oil and General Motors disputes) each recommended wage increases that, in the opinion of the boards, could be paid without price relief. Thus their recommendations conformed to part 2 (a) of the policy statement issued by the Secretary of Labor (page 541).

The board in the General Motors case observed that "we have endeavored to decide this case upon its own particular merits. We have not evolved any formula or set of rules to be applied in other cases." [14] In its discussion of wage-price policy, the board emphasized the fact that the policy set forth in the Executive orders made for differential wage increases depending upon the relation of increased wage costs to prices and profits in particular firms.[15] The board explicitly accepted the concept of a range of increases:

> The situation [with respect to wage rate increases] as reported to us [by the Bureau of Labor Statistics] may be summarized by saying that if General Motors were to make a wage adjustment limited to 13½ cents it would fall definitely into the lower group of employers who have been granting wage increases, and that if it were to make an adjustment of 16 cents or more it would be in the category of the highest-paying employers and in the position of leadership of American industry which it has occupied in the past. In earning capacity, and in prospects for profitable and continuous maximum production, it is outstanding among American corporations.[16]

The board however specifically rejected the use in wage determination of profitability as a factor in itself; profitability was considered "as a significant element which may properly be taken into account in determining the full weight to be attached to such factors as cost of living, reduction of weekly hours, and downgrading and demotions." [16]

The wage rate increase recommended in the oil dispute was 18 percent and in the General Motors case about 17.5 percent. The magnitude of these increases was such that in other cases in which the capacity to pay was less, the recommendation of decidedly smaller increases would be required under the then-existing wage-price policy. This left the fact-finding boards with a particularly awkward problem.

[13] This problem would not arise under the type of wage stabilization effective during the war years, under which no distinction in the application of stabilization rules was made between price-relief and non-price-relief cases, except that cases of the former type were subject to review by the Office of Economic Stabilization.
[14] Report and Recommendations of the President's Fact-Finding Board in the General Motors Case (p. 27).
[15] Idem (pp. 3–4).
[16] Idem (p. 23).

There is nothing in wage theory to suggest that every firm should make a profit. In fact, the least-profitable companies may have to pay a going wage. It was not possible, however, for boards to recommend wages that would force an industry or firm into a loss position, unless the wage increase could be covered by price changes. If a marginal employer or industry could get a case before a board, therefore, the recommended wage increase might well be less (to stay within the wage-price policy) than the increase that could be obtained by the employees through a collective-bargaining process without recourse to a public body. Hence the upward pull of wages warranted by profitability in some industries tended to be more limited under fact-finding procedures than in a completely free market.

At the same time, the increases granted in the oil industry and recommended in the General Motors case would unavoidably be viewed in later cases as guide posts to an emerging wage structure. It was inevitable that labor should argue that these recommendations set a level that should be achieved even in cases in which there might be some question of capacity to pay without price increase on the one hand, or a decisive lowering of profits on the other. It was thoroughly in keeping with past practices in the labor market for the unions to say in such cases that they were concerned exclusively with obtaining the going rate.

This general problem had to be faced in both the steel and meat-packing cases. In steel the situation was less clear than in meat packing. Some measure of price increase was called for in the steel case, even in the absence of a wage increase. Moreover, some increase in wages was possible without any increase in labor cost, owing to the possibility in this industry of converting overtime payments into straight-time rates. There was a great deal of public discussion as to whether the steel case was decided within the framework of wage-price policy. As far as the official record is concerned, the only unusual adaptation of policy was the timing of the price award. Price relief was not granted before a wage change was recommended; [17] it was granted, however, before the wage change was finally accepted.

It is clear in perspective, even on the view that the steel recommendation was made within the framework of the then-existing wage-price policy, that the steel recommendation contributed to a change in policy. The similarity of the award to those made in the oil and General Motors cases helped to develop an alternative approach to wage change, namely, emphasis on "pattern" or equivalence of change in the same industry or related industries or in the same labor-market area.

This was most evident in the meat-packing dispute. Price relief was clearly involved in this case. An 11-cent increase was called for to equalize changes in straight-time average hourly earnings and changes in the cost of living, even though price relief was involved. In addition, the fact-finding board found that the companies involved had the capacity to absorb 5 cents. Adding the two together, the board recommended 16 cents.[18] Thus, the meat-packing case also helped to confirm a general framework or pattern of change that the

[17] In the steel case the fact-finding board served in an advisory capacity to the President and the stabilization agencies. The 18.5-cent recommendation was made directly by the President. Subsequently, the board made a "terminal" report on the wage issue.

[18] Report and Recommendations of the Fact-Finding Board in the Meat Packing Case (pp. 15–20).

General Motors board had described as characteristic of the upper group of employers voluntarily granting wage increases since VJ-day.

At this point, if not during the steel case, it became evident that the policy of differentiated changes implicit in the general wage-price policy and explicitly described in the General Motors case could not survive. Even if both the steel and meat-packing cases were decided within the framework of the original policy, disputes inevitably would arise in which there were no unexhausted margins of capacity to pay and not enough margin of permissive increase to bring the recommended wage increase within the reach of the awards in the oil, motors, steel, and meat-packing cases.

It was in this setting that Executive Order No. 9697 was issued on February 14, 1946. This order permitted the National Wage Stabilization Board to "approve any wage or salary increase, or part thereof, which it finds is consistent with the general pattern of wage or salary adjustments which has been established in the industry or local labor-market area between August 18, 1945, and the effective date of this order." Several other criteria for approval of wage increases (that are to be used as the basis of an application for price relief) were set forth in the order. The general effect of the new order was to establish a framework within which more nearly uniform wage increases within industries, between related industries, and within local labor-market areas could be approved for price relief purposes, with a new stabilization line established upon the basis of the adjustments thus made.

It should be noted that Executive Order No. 9697 gave prior approval to any wage or salary increase "made in accordance with a governmental recommendation in a wage controversy announced prior to the effective date of this order." The new order was issued while the International Harvester and Greyhound Bus boards were in the process of writing their reports, and their recommendations were cast in terms of the new policy.

Method of Operation and Significance of Board Recommendations

Composition of the boards.—Except in the Greyhound Bus case, each of the six boards was composed of three public members. The Greyhound board was composed of three public members and one member each representing industry and labor. Of the 18 public members of the six fact-finding boards, 8 had served as board members of the National War Labor Board at either the national or regional level, and several others had had War Labor Board experience. Five of the 18 members were from the judiciary.

All of the boards made use of various kinds of technical assistance. In the case of five boards, economists were detailed from the Bureau of Labor Statistics to serve the boards in a technical capacity. In the General Motors case, economists from the staff of the National War Labor Board were used for this purpose. Legal assistance, where required, was provided by the Solicitor's Office of the Department of Labor, and press relations were handled by the Department's Information Division.

Methods of operation.—Public hearings were held by all except the steel board. Prior to the public hearings, informal meetings with the parties were generally held to plan the public sessions. At the hear-

ings, full opportunity was afforded the parties to present information bearing on the issues. The hearings were informal and legal rules of evidence were not observed. There was complete freedom of cross-examination. Board members participated in the questioning of witnesses.

The parties had the right to submit written briefs and to make concluding oral statements. They were encouraged, during the course of the proceedings, to attempt to reach agreement through collective bargaining; for example, the oil board recessed for more than a week for this purpose.

There was marked difference in the extent to which the parties participated in the proceedings of the five boards that held public hearings. In the General Motors case, the company participated in informal conferences with the board and in the proceedings of the first day of the public hearing, but withdrew on the second day in protest against the board's decision to consider the question of ability to pay. Although this action proved a handicap to the work of the board, its effect was mitigated by the fact that the company had already submitted extensive evidence.[19] Most of the companies involved in the oil case refrained from participating in the public hearing. Some of them submitted written briefs, however, and a much larger number cooperated with the Bureau of Labor Statistics in providing basic wage information for the consideration of the board.[20]

In the remaining three cases that went to the public-hearing stage, company participation was excellent. In the meat-packing case, the five companies involved placed in the record a very large amount of relevant material. The International Harvester Co. and the various Greyhound companies were highly cooperative.[21] The unions cooperated in all of the proceedings.

The general rate-increase recommendations made by the boards were generally based on several considerations. All of the boards took into account the relative movement of straight-time average hourly earnings and living costs since January 1941. This factor was of crucial importance under stabilization policy prior to Executive Order No. 9697.

Several of the boards gave attention to general wage rate changes made in the subject establishments since January 1941, and to general increases granted in the industry or in industry generally after VJ-day. These considerations became particularly relevant with the promulgation of Executive Order No. 9697 on February 14, 1946. Thus, reports on the International Harvester, Greyhound Bus, and U. S. Steel cases all contain data on wage rate increases granted by other companies or industries since the end of the war. The oil board gave considerable weight to the fact that the union and several important companies agreed to an 18-percent increase during the course of the proceedings. The meat packing and steel reports devoted some attention to the general wage rate increases granted by the subject companies since January 1941.

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[19] Report and Recommendations of the President's Fact-Finding Board in the General Motors Case, (p. 2 and Appendix B–1).

[20] Oil Panel Report and Recommendations to the Secretary of Labor (p. 3).

[21] The Greyhound companies submitted information with respect only to the wage issues. The board held that its authority did not extend to nonwage issues.

The problem of the maintenance of take-home pay, in view of actual or prospective reduction in the length of the workweek, was likewise considered. This factor was taken into account, with others, in determining the specific amount of the increase. The board in the oil case stated that "the panel does not believe that the maintenance of any given level of weekly earnings when hours are reduced can be the sole, or even the major, criterion on which to base a wage recommendation." [22] The steel board concluded that "what proportion of the loss of take-home pay resulting [from a reduction in average hours worked] should be borne by the company and the employees, respectively, is a matter of judgment." [23] The attitude of the General Motors board was expressed as follows:

> We do not believe that in disputes over wage adjustments consideration should be given only to the question of the maintenance of take-home pay. If wages were to be set on this basis only, it is likely that historical wage relationships between companies in the same industry, and even between different industries, would be disrupted with accompanying unrest and competitive injustices.[24]

One or more of the boards also gave consideration to such factors as productivity and savings to the companies in the premium overtime payments upon the resumption of a shorter workweek. As previously noted, attention was given to the question of the ability of the companies to pay increased wages,[25] although this factor, as emphasized earlier, was not of primary significance in determining the amount of the recommended increases.

Significance of board recommendations.—The general wage increase recommendations of the boards ranged from about 14 percent to 20 percent. These recommendations were important in narrowing the range of controversy over wages, even when they were not used as a basis for the immediate settlement of the particular disputes. Moreover, the recommendations provided guides for the conclusion of many agreements between the unions and other companies in the same or related industries. Following the recommendation in the General Motors case, for example, many agreements were concluded by other automotive companies by the granting of wage increases slightly lower than the recommended increase.

Finally, as indicated earlier, the work of the fact-finding boards undoubtedly contributed to the elaboration of the new wage-price policy contained in Executive Order No. 9697.

Summary of Parties, Issues, and Board Recommendations

A general summary of the fact-finding boards and their work is given in the accompanying table.

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[22] Oil Panel Report and Recommendations to the Secretary of Labor (p. 16).
[23] Terminal Report of the President's Steel Fact-Finding Board (p. 24).
[24] Report and Recommendations of the President's Fact-Finding Board in the General Motors Case (p. 8).
[25] The terminal report of the steel board does not deal with this question. Neither the International Harvester nor the Greyhound Bus boards made specific findings on the ability to the companies to pay the recommended increase without price relief. The Harvester board, however, said that "the cost of a wage increase of 18 cents an hour can be met by the company without difficulty" (Report, p. 11).

Summary of Composition and Activities of Fact-Finding Boards

Fact-finding board			Parties to dispute
Membership	Appointed	Reported	
Oil board: Frank P. Graham, *Chairman.* Paul Eliel. Otto S. Beyer.	Nov. 27, 1945, by Secretary of Labor.	Jan. 12, 1946	Companies: 22 petroleum companies, some or all of whose plants and facilities had been seized by Navy as result of strike action by union. Union: Oil Workers International Union (CIO).
General Motors board: Lloyd K. Garrison, *Chairman.* Milton Eisenhower. Walter P. Stacy.	Dec. 14, 1945, by the President.	Jan. 10, 1946	Company: General Motors Corp. Union: United Automobile Workers (CIO).
Greyhound Bus board: William E. Simkin, *Chairman.* Saul Wallen, Public member. Jesse Freidin, Public member. O. David Zimring, Labor member. Earl N. Cannon, Industry member.	Dec. 19, 1945, by Secretary of Labor.	Feb. 21, 1946	Companies: Central Greyhound Lines, Illinois Greyhound Lines, New England Greyhound Lines, Pennsylvania Greyhound Lines, Greyhound Terminal of Toledo, Greyhound Terminal of Columbus, Chicago Garage Division of Greyhound Motors & Supply Co., Greyhound Garage of Washington, D. C., Capitol Theatre Bus Terminal (New York, N. Y.) Union: Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway, and Motor Coach Employees of America, (AFL), Divisions Nos. 1042, 1063, 1098, 1200, 1202, 1204, 1207, 1210, 1211, and 1221.
Steel board: Nathan P. Feinsinger, *Chairman.* Roger I. McDonough. James M. Douglas.	Dec. 31, 1945, by the President.	Feb. 25, 1946[1]	Company: U. S. Steel Corp. Union: United Steelworkers of America (CIO).
International Harvester board: Philip G. Marshall, *Chairman.* William H. Holly. William H. Spencer.	Jan. 12, 1946, by Secretary of Labor.	Feb. 18, 1946	Company: International Harvester Co. Union: United Farm Equipment and Metal Workers Union (CIO).
Meat-packing board: Edwin E. Witte, *Chairman.* Clark Kerr. Raymond W. Starr.	Jan. 17, 1946, by Secretary of Labor.	Feb. 7, 1946	Companies: Armour & Co., Cudahy Packing Co., John H. Morrell & Co., Swift & Co., and Wilson & Co. Unions: United Packinghouse Workers of America (CIO); Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butchers Workmen of North America (AFL); National Brotherhood of Packinghouse Workers (CUA).

Dispute	Union demands and company proposals	Recommendations of board
Oil	Union demand: An increase of 31 percent (36 cents an hour) in basic rates on resumption of 40-hour workweek. Company proposal: At time of hearing, most companies had offered a 15-percent increase.	Rate increase of 18 percent.
General Motors	Union demand: Increase of 30 percent. Company proposal: Increase of 13.5 cents (about 12 percent) an hour. Certain other disputed issues were not considered by the Board, which urged that they be settled through collective bargaining.	Rate increase of 19½ cents (about 17.5 percent) an hour.

[1] Terminal report.

Summary of Composition and Activities of Fact-Finding Boards—Continued

Dispute	Union demands and company proposals	Recommendations of board
Greyhound Bus.	Union demands: 25 listed demands presented to board. The principal demands were as follows: Drivers' wage rates: (a) Mileage rates: Increase of 15 percent in Eastern top rate from $0.0500 per mile to $0.0575; Western top rate of $0.0485 to be raised to $0.0575, eliminating East-West differential; generally comparable increases to other classes of drivers. (b) Hourly rates: To be related to mileage by multiplying applicable mileage rate by 30 miles per hour. Effect of proposal would be top rates of $1.68 and $1.65 per hour, as against current top rate of $0.80 per hour. (c) Trip and monthly rates: Increase of 20 percent. (d) Guaranties and minimum wages. Increases in some instances slightly less and in others considerably more than requested percentage increase in drivers' rates. Maintenance and terminal employees: Increase top rates by 30 percent and progression rates by same number of cents per hour (to maintain existing differentials within progression). Meal allowances: Equalize contract provision regarding meal allowances for extra men and regular men. Extra men receive 75 cents meal allowance, 30 minutes after arrival at away-from-home point and additional 75 cents for each hour thereafter until assignment to home terminal is received. No meal allowance provided for regular men. Other money issues: 14 issues, including payment for late arrival owing to bad weather, changes in vacation plan, reclassifications of certain hourly rated maintenance and terminal employees, etc. Nonmoney issues: 6 issues, including request for union shop at Chicago garage, change in date when employees bid for vacations, etc. Company proposals: Before the strike the company had made proposals on at least some of the above issues. Proposals were withdrawn when a strike occurred, and no information is available regarding them.	Total increase of about 14 percent in all wage-cost items allocated as follows: Drivers' wage rates: (a) Mileage rates: Increase in Eastern top rate from $0.0500 to $0.0560 (12 percent); increase in Western top rate from $0.485 to $0.0550 (13.4 percent), thus reducing East-West differential from $0.0015 per mile to $0.0010. Increase in rates for other classes of drivers by $0.0060 for Eastern divisions and $0.0065 for Western divisions. (b) Hourly rates: Top rate of $0.90 per hour with $0.10 hourly increase for lower classifications (12.5 percent). (c) Trip and monthly rates: 12-percent increase in Eastern and 13-percent increase in Western trip rates. (d) Guaranties and minimum wages. Increases to be determined by negotiation; in absence of agreement, 12.5-percent increase. Maintenance and terminal employees: Increase of $0.13 per hour. Meal allowances: Substantially identical provision for regular and extra drivers. Cost limitation of 14 percent prevents extension of extra drivers' provision to regular drivers. Equalization would necessitate diminishing extra drivers' benefits. Recommended that issue be referred to collective bargaining with following guides: (1) Meal provisions to be substantially identical; (2) to present allowance (equivalent to about $0.0015 on basic mileage rate) should be added equivalent of about $0.0005 on basic mileage rate. Other money issues: Specific recommendations considered not necessary for settlement of dispute. Nonmoney issues: Panel found itself without authority under Secretary's order, to inquire into merits or to make recommendations.
Steel	Union demand: Increase of 25 cents per hour (demanded not only of U. S. Steel Corp. but also of over 1,100 other companies with which union had contracts permitting wage reopening at date of demand). Final demand was for 19.5-cent increase. Company proposal: Final offer made by U. S. Steel Corp. (prior to strike which ensued when company rejected President's proposal of 18.5-cent increase) was increase of 15 cents an hour.	President recommended increase of 18.5 cents an hour (about 17.5 percent). Board as such made no final findings of fact or recommendations. (Its terminal report covered "the wage equities and the question of breach of contract.")

Summary of Composition and Activities of Fact-Finding Boards—Continued

Dispute	Union demands and company proposals	Recommendations of board
International Harvester.	Union demands: (1) General wage increase of 30 percent; (2) union shop with check-off of initiation fees, dues, fines, and assessments; (3) payment by company to union shop stewards and committeemen for time spent in settlement of grievances; (4) arbitration as final step in grievance procedure; (5) simplification of wage structure and revision in piece-rate system; (6) liberalization of vacation plan to provide 1 week for employees with 6 months' but less than 1 year's service, 2 weeks for those with 1 year's but less than 5 years' service, and 3 weeks for those with 5 years' service or more; (7) premium pay for Saturday and Sunday work in certain continuous operations. Company proposals: (1) After hearings began, company raised previous offer of 10-percent increase to 17-cent increase (about 14.5 percent); (2) willing to grant some form of union security; (3) willing to continue payments to shop stewards if reasonable limits could be established; (4) agreeable to arbitration limited to grievances arising under agreement; (5) essentials of present wage structure should not be changed; (6) willing to liberalize vacation plan in some respects; (7) opposed full demand of union as regards continuous-shift workers, but some liberalization of compensation might be appropriate.	General wage increase of 18 cents an hour (slightly over 15 percent); (2) maintenance of membership with 15-day escape period and voluntary automatic check-off of reasonable union initiation fees, dues, and assessments; (3) continuance of provisions in expired contract on payment of shop stewards, except that alleged abuses by union may be initiated as grievance by the company; (4) arbitration of disputes involving interpretation of union contract, the expenses of arbitration to be shared equally by parties; (5) certain recommendations on internal wage structure; [2] (6) 3-week vacation for employees with 15 years' service or more and amendment of attendance requirements; (7) payment to continuous-shift employees of time and a half for all Sunday work in addition to overtime premiums presently paid.
Meat packing..	Union demands: CIO union initially demanded increase of 25 cents an hour; later willing to accept immediate increase of 17.5 cents, with remaining 7.5 cents to be subject of further negotiations. AFL union asked for minimum of $36 per week, with proportionate increases in rates now above this minimum and special consideration of rates in Pacific Coast plants. CUA union demanded minimum of $1 an hour, with proportionate increases in other rates. Company proposals: Companies made differing offers of increase, highest of which was 10 cents an hour.	General increase of 16 cents an hour (about 20 percent).

[2] Impossible to summarize briefly.

Wage Structure in Bituminous-Coal Mining, Fall of 1945 [1]

Summary

CURRENT earnings in bituminous-coal mining as of the fall of 1945 are summarized in this report, which is based upon a survey of wages, hours, and wage practices in the industry, conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The survey, initiated late in 1945, is one of a recently expanded series of BLS wage studies of leading American industries and the first comprehensive report since 1936 of wages in bituminous-coal mines.

In the underground bituminous-coal mines, which employ more than 300,000 workers, average straight-time hourly earnings in key occupations for the country as a whole ranged from 95 cents for slate pickers (except for a comparatively few workers in one other occupation) to $1.42 for shot firers, paid on an incentive basis. Gross weekly earnings averaged as low as $45.64 for drivers and as high as $80.48 for inside maintenance mechanics. Considerable variation from the national averages occurred in the coal districts tabulated, and there was little consistency from district to district in the occupations for which the lowest average was found. The highest average was most usually shown for cutting-machine operators in underground mines and power-shovel operators in strip mines.

For the 18,000 workers employed in strip mines, the national straight-time averages ranged from 97 cents per hour for groundmen and slate pickers to $1.64 for power-shovel operators. The extremes in gross weekly earnings in strip mines were $43.54 for slate pickers and $98.22 for power-shovel operators.

Occupations selected for use in the study represented key jobs—those numerically important as well as those important from the standpoint of wage determination—which it was believed would be indicative of earnings throughout the industry at various skill levels. These occupations represent two-thirds of the workers in the bituminous-coal industry. Hence, although not all occupations in the mines were included in the survey, the national straight-time earnings per hour of $1.07 shown by the study are believed to approximate the average for all occupations in the underground and strip mines for the bituminous-coal industry as a whole. Considered separately, the average for underground mines was $1.07 and for strip mines $1.19. Gross weekly earnings averaged $55.64 for the selected occupations—$55.29 for underground and $64.43 for strip mines.

A small number of the occupations studied accounted for the great majority of the estimated number of workers in all of the selected occupations, hand loaders being by far the most important numerically in underground mines, but cutting-machine operators and helpers, motormen, trackmen, brakemen, and timbermen also being of comparative numerical importance.

[1] Prepared by Pamela Brown and Ardemis Kouzian, of the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch. The field work was done under the direction of the wage analysts in the Bureau's regional offices.
A forthcoming report will contain detailed statistics on earnings, by occupation, district, and type of mine.

Hand loaders averaged $1.06 and $1.07 per hour (straight time) when paid on an incentive and a time basis, respectively, and their average gross weekly earnings were about $50.

The average straight-time hourly earnings for cutting-machine operators and helpers varied both by method of pay and according to whether or not they were in the group in which operators and helpers worked interchangeably. However, for each of these classes the average was over $1.10 per hour and as high as $1.38 for operators and helpers working interchangeably, on an incentive basis. Gross weekly earnings averaged $76.04 for the latter group.

Trackmen and timbermen averaged $1.00 an hour, motormen $1.02, and brakemen 99 cents. Average gross weekly earnings for these occupations varied from $50.46 for brakemen to $57.05 for motormen, and amounted to almost $54.00 for trackmen and timbermen.

In strip mines, workers were quite largely concentrated in two occupations—truck and tractor operators and power-shovel operators. The United States average straight-time hourly earnings for the former were $1.03 and for the latter $1.64. Average gross weekly earnings for the two occupations amounted to $50.49 and $98.22, respectively. For two other numerically important jobs (slate pickers and groundmen) average straight-time earnings of 97 cents per hour were shown, but the average gross weekly earnings differed; they were $43.54 for slate pickers and $52 for groundmen.

A much larger proportion of the strip than of the underground mines studied reported second- and third-shift operations. However, where such shifts were scheduled, payment of a 4- and 6-cent differential, respectively, was made.

A workday of 9 hours and a workweek of 54 hours constituted the predominant schedule for inside workers in underground mines. For outside workers (on noncontinuous operations) the most commonly scheduled workday was 8¼ hours and the usual scheduled workweek 49½ hours in both underground and strip mines studied. Premium overtime was usually paid after 7 hours for the first 5 days and for all work on the sixth and seventh consecutive days.

The great majority of the underground mines studied were operating under union agreement, whereas almost 40 percent of the strip mines were nonunion. Size of mines varied from 20 workers (the minimum size included in the study) to over 500, but the majority had fewer than 250 employees.

In the mines studied there were no provisions for paid sick leave for mine workers, but most of the mines had formal provisions for paid vacation or for payment in lieu of vacation. Insurance or pension plans were comparatively infrequent.

Provisions of National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement

The National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement, signed by the United Mine Workers of America and the Coal Operators and Associations on April 11, 1945, established the hours of work and methods of computing pay. Since this agreement affects such a large segment of workers in bituminous-coal mines it is necessary to take such provisions into account in arriving at any picture of earnings in the industry.

The agreement provided for different hours and computation of pay for (a) inside day workers, (b) for inside piece workers, (c) for outside workers on continuous operations, and (d) for outside workers on noncontinuous operations. This classification of workers was used in compiling the data presented in this study.

For outside workers on continuous operations a workday of 8 hours and 35 minutes was provided, time and a half being paid after 8 hours; for outside workers on noncontinuous operations a workday of 8 hours and 15 minutes (including a 15-minute paid lunch period) with time and a half after 7 hours. In addition, each outside worker, whether on continuous or noncontinuous operations, was to receive $1.07 per day "to equalize earnings of outside employees with earnings of the inside employees." The rate of time and a half applied to all time worked on the sixth consecutive day.

For inside day (time) workers a workday of 9 hours (portal to portal) was provided in the agreement, the first 7 hours to be paid at straight-time rates, the eighth hour at time and a half, and the ninth hour at a flat rate of $1.50 ($1.00 at time and a half). On the sixth consecutive day the time-and-a-half rate applied to 8 hours and the flat $1.50 rate to the ninth hour.

The agreement also provided a workday of 9 hours (portal to portal) for inside piece (tonnage) workers, earnings to be figured on a piece-rate basis to which would be added one-ninth of such daily earnings as payment of premium overtime beyond 7 hours and for travel. On the sixth consecutive day, the tonnage workers' piece-rate earnings were computed at a rate of time and a half, and one-ninth of the amount of such earnings was added to make up the total for the day.

In the actual application of the provisions of the National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement some variation in interpretations was found on both a local and a district level. In collecting and tabulating the material for the Bureau of Labor Statistics study the endeavor was made to present the earnings picture as it actually existed in the fall of 1945, as evidenced by pay-roll records, within the limits set for the different items.

Average Earnings in Fall of 1945

The national average of straight-time hourly earnings for the combined selected occupations in underground and strip mines was $1.07 ($1.07 for the selected occupations in underground and $1.19 in strip mines). In view of the careful selection of the key occupations studied, which were chosen to include jobs at various skill and earnings levels, it is believed that that average is fairly representative of the average for all mine jobs. The same would be true of the average gross weekly earnings, which amounted to $55.29 for the selected occupations in underground mines and $64.43 in strip mines, or $55.64 in the two types combined.

For all the selected occupations in underground mines United States average straight-time hourly earnings [2] varied from a low of 94 cents

[2] The averages were obtained by weighting each average by the number of workers receiving the average;

an hour for pick miners (paid on a time basis) [3] and 95 cents for slate pickers to $1.42 for shot firers (paid on an incentive basis) and $1.38 for cutting-machine operators and helpers (incentive workers). Except for pick miners these same occupations also accounted for the extremes in the United States average straight-time earnings per start ($7.91 to $12.54 and $12.10, respectively). However, the lowest average gross weekly earnings were reported for pick miners (time) ($45.68) and underground drivers ($45.64) and the highest ($80.48 and $77.67) for inside maintenance mechanics and electricians.

For all districts combined, the jobs of greatest numerical importance in underground mines were hand loaders, cutting-machine operators and helpers, motormen, trackmen, brakemen, and timbermen. Average earnings for these occupations are, therefore, of special interest. In each of these particular occupations the average actual number of hours worked per day was 9 or very close to it. Hand loaders averaged $1.06 and $1.07 per hour (straight time) when paid on an incentive and a time basis, respectively, and their average gross weekly earnings were about $50. The average straight-time hourly earnings for cutting-machine operators and helpers varied both by method of pay and according to whether or not they were in the group in which operators and helpers worked interchangeably. However, for each of these classes the average was over $1.10 per hour and as high as $1.38 for operators and helpers working interchangeably on an incentive basis. Gross weekly earnings averaged $76.04 for the latter group. Trackmen and timbermen averaged $1 an hour, motormen $1.02, and brakemen 99 cents. Average gross weekly earnings for these occupations varied from $50.46 for brakemen to $57.05 for motormen, and was almost $54 for trackmen and timbermen.

In strip mines, truck and tractor operators and power-shovel operators were numerically the most important of the jobs shown. Average straight-time earnings per hour for all districts combined ranged from 97 cents for groundmen and slate pickers to $1.64 for power-shovel operators. The latter two occupations also accounted for the extremes in average straight-time earnings per start of $8.04 and $14.33, respectively, and in average gross weekly earnings of $43.54 for slate pickers, to $98.22 for power-shovel operators.

In individual districts, average earnings varied considerably from the national average. Workers in underground mines were heavily concentrated in Coal Act Production Districts 1, 2, 7, and 8, and Districts 3, 4, 10, and 13 were also relatively important.[4] In four of these important districts the lowest average earnings per hour for any of the selected jobs were between 95 cents and $1 and were less than 90 cents in only one instance—80 cents for 3 jobs in District 13. The lowest average in any individual district was shown in District 15 (58 cents for pick miners paid on incentive basis), whereas in District 16 $1.03 was the lowest average reported. The highest straight-time average earnings per hour for an individual job, which amounted to $1.42 on a Nation-wide basis, varied for individual Districts from 97 cents in District 15 to $1.51 in District 8. The

[3] Comparatively few workers were employed as pick miners (paid on an incentive basis); much larger numbers were employed as slate pickers.

[4] Coal Act Production Districts should not be confused with United Mine Workers districts. Although in some cases they are the same, in general the Coal Act Production Districts are somewhat broader.

occupations for which the lowest average hourly earnings were reported showed little uniformity from district to district. The highest average hourly earnings were usually shown for cutting-machine operators. Average gross weekly earnings varied from a low of about $21 in District 15 and $32 in District 8 to a high of over $92 in District 7.

Wage and Related Practices

"Fringe issues," covering working conditions and other provisions that affect real income without raising hourly rates of pay, became increasingly important during the war years as a result of wartime stabilization of wage rates.

Rate structure.—All of the strip mines and practically all of the underground mines studied had formalized their rate structure at the time this study was made, by providing a written or other generally recognized rate or scale of rates for each occupational group in the mine. The single rate for an individual occupation in a mine, as distinguished from a range of rates, was the type prevailing in almost all of these mines.

Method of wage payment.—Three of every five of the underground mines studied, but none of the strip mines, paid a significant portion of their mine workers on an incentive basis. However, only 22 percent of the mine workers in underground mines were paid on an incentive basis (usually of the piece-rate type).[5] The proportion varied from district to district, being highest in District 1. The great majority of the hand loaders and pick miners were paid on an incentive basis, and cutting-machine operators and helpers were also frequently paid on this basis.

Scheduled hours of work for first-shift workers.—The following information refers to scheduled rather than actual hours of work. It should be recognized that actual hours may be either shorter or longer than scheduled hours, being influenced on the one hand by such factors as absenteeism, break-downs in equipment, and material shortages, and on the other by emergency needs for increased production. Scheduled hours refer to the usual workweek of full-time first-shift workers in the mine. Scheduled hours are to be distinguished not only from actual hours of work but from basic straight-time hours beyond which premium overtime is paid.

A 9-hour day and 54-hour week were scheduled in over three-fifths of the underground mines studied, in which inside day and piece workers were employed. The next most frequently reported schedules for inside workers were the 8-hour day, 40-hour week and the 9-hour day, 45-hour week; however, these hours for inside day or piece workers were reported by less than a tenth of the mines. For outside workers engaged on continuous operations three-fifths of the underground mines reported schedules of 8 hours and 35 minutes per day and 51½ hours per week. For workers on noncontinuous operations, a schedule of 8¼ hours per day and 49½ hours per week was most frequently reported in both underground and strip mines

[5] For purposes of reporting the number of mines with incentive systems, mines with a fourth or more of their mine workers paid on this basis were classified as predominantly incentive. However in determining the proportion of employees paid on an incentive basis, incentive workers in all mines were included regardless of the predominant method of wage payment in the mine.

studied. These most commonly scheduled daily hours conformed to those provided for by the National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement.

Shift operations.—In underground mines throughout the United States, workers employed on the first, second, and third shifts represented 73, 23, and 4 percent of the total, respectively. However, only 58 percent of the mines studied reported a second shift and 27 percent a third (or other) shift.

Variation from this national pattern occurred in individual Coal Act Production Districts. District 4 reported 56 percent of its workers on the first, 28 percent on the second, and 16 percent on the third (or other) shift. District 12 had the highest proportion of its workers on the first shift (93 percent). The proportion of mines scheduling second-shift operations ranged from 84 percent in Coal Act Production District 7, to 6 percent in District 12. Three of the five mines in District 11 reported third-shift operations, whereas none were reported in the five mines in District 20.

The use of shift employment in strip mines varied slightly from that in underground mines. Seventy-eight percent of the workers were reported on the first shift, 16 percent on the second, and 6 percent on the third (or other) shift.

Eighty percent of the strip mines studied reported second-shift operations and 50 percent third (or other) shift operations, as compared to the 58 and 27 percent of underground mines. In each of the Coal Act Production Districts covered, no less than 69 percent of the workers were employed on the first shift; Districts 13 and 19 had as high as 94 percent on this shift, and Districts 3 and 7 had 93 percent.

As many as 23 percent of the mine workers in District 2 were represented on the second shift. Most of the districts, however, had less than 15 percent of the mine employees working on the second shift.

Shift differentials.—In both underground and strip mines, additions of 4 cents and 6 cents per hour represented the differential paid for work on the second and third shifts, respectively.

Ninety-six percent of the 287 underground mines operating second shifts and 98 percent of the 133 underground mines operating third shifts reported payment of shift differentials. The small group that did not pay such differentials for second- or third-shift operations consisted primarily of nonunion mines.

Of the 84 strip mines operating second shifts, only two-thirds reported payment of a shift differential, as compared with three-fourths of the 53 mines operating third (or other) shifts. Union mines constituted the majority of those strip mines paying such compensatory differentials for work on late shifts.

Paid lunch periods.—A paid lunch period of 15 minutes was the most usual provision in bituminous-coal mines. In a very few of the mines studied a 30-minute paid lunch period was provided. This lunch period was considered part of working time in computing average hours per start and average straight-time earnings.

Bonuses not directly related to production.—Information was requested as to the payment of nonproduction bonuses (such as profit-sharing, safety, attendance, and Christmas bonuses) which were not directly dependent upon the output of either individuals or groups of workers.

It was found that payments such as these were made to the mine workers in only 8 underground and 11 strip mines. With one exception in strip and one in underground, these all took the form of Christmas bonuses. Among the mines which reported the employment of office workers, slightly more liberal practices were in effect; 15 percent of the underground and 26 percent of the strip mines provided bonuses to this group of workers.

Paid-vacation provisions.—Formal provisions for paid vacations to workers in the mines scheduled were reported in nearly 9 out of every 10 underground mines and 7 out of every 10 strip mines. The $75 payment in lieu of vacation (which is the provision specified in the 1945 National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement) was the type most frequently reported; in 12 Coal Act Production Districts (8 districts representing 117 underground mines and 4 districts representing 22 strip mines) all of the mines scheduled reported this practice.

Formal vacation provisions for office workers were reported by nearly half of the underground mines that employed such workers; 2 weeks' vacation was the most frequent provision. Among strip mines a higher proportion was found without than with formal vacation provisions for office workers.

Paid sick leave.—There were no formal provisions for paid sick leave for mine workers in any of the mines studied. Such provisions were also lacking for office workers in practically all of the mines.

Insurance or pension plans.—Participation by mine operators in a form of insurance or pension plan (other than social security and workmen's compensation) was reported in only 10 percent of the underground and 13 percent of the strip mines. Life insurance represented the type of plan most frequently provided and health insurance was the next most frequent type. Plans of this type for office workers were somewhat more frequent; they were reported by 16 percent of the underground and 17 percent of the strip mines in which office workers were employed.

Scope and Method of Survey

This study of earnings in bituminous-coal mines was made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the fall of 1945, as part of its general program to provide current wage information for the leading industries in the United States. The latest previous detailed study of wages in this industry was made by the Bureau in 1936. In the 9 intervening years many significant changes have occurred in the wage structure of this industry. New agreements have had a profound effect on earnings, hours of work, and such related practices as shift differentials and vacations. Essentially, since the fall of 1945 there has been little change in the wage situation in bituminous-coal mining and the data presented in this report reflect the wage picture as of the late winter and early spring of 1946.

The study covered both underground (shaft, drift, and slope) and strip bituminous-coal mines but did not cover anthracite mines. Mines operating under agreement with the United Mine Workers of America, with the Progressive Mine Workers of America, and with other unions are included, as well as nonunionized mines. The mines studied were selected to provide balanced geographical distribution of

the industry. Only mines employing 20 or more workers were included but within that group mines of various sizes were represented.

Coverage of study.—Data were obtained from a total of 492 underground mines employing over 73,000 workers, and 105 strip mines employing 6,500 workers, or about a fourth of all underground mines and over a third of all strip mines having 20 or more workers. The proportions of workers in mines included in the study were similar to the proportions of mines covered. Based upon this representative survey, estimates were made to represent the entire industry.

Most of the mines studied had fewer than 250 workers, the percent of mines in the different size groups being as follows:

Mines with—	*Underground mines (percent)*	*Strip mines (percent)*
20–50 employees	37	62
51–250 employees	45	35
251–500 employees	13	3
501 and over employees	5	---
Total	100	100

Unionization was much more extensive in underground than in strip mines. In underground mines all but about an eighth of the mines covered were operating under agreements with the United Mine Workers or other unions, whereas in strip mines about two-fifths were nonunion.

In all areas a pay-roll period in the fall of 1945 was selected for the study, and care was taken in each case to choose a representative period. The exact month used differed slightly in the different areas; although a period in September or October was usually chosen, in some mines it was necessary to use an August or November period in order to avoid scheduling an abnormal pay-roll period.

The wage data were compiled by field agents of the Bureau directly from pay-roll and other company records. In order to obtain comparable information as between different mines and districts, uniform job descriptions were prepared and used by the agents in obtaining the information.

Data were obtained for selected occupations rather than for all occupations in the mine. Occupations selected for use in the study represented key jobs—those numerically important as well as those that are important from the standpoint of wage determination—which it was believed would be indicative of earnings throughout the industry at various skill levels. It is estimated that for the entire country the workers in the selected occupations in underground mines represented slightly over 70 percent of all the workers in such mines and that in strip mines the coverage in selected occupations covered was about 55 percent. Because of the inclusion of jobs at the various levels of earnings the results are believed to approximate closely the average for all jobs in the industry.

With the exception of office workers, few women were employed in mines.

A worker employed in more than one occupation during a day was classified in the principal occupation or the one in which he spent the major part of his time. Earnings on days on which he was em-

ployed primarily on another job were excluded in computing average earnings per hour and start, but not from gross weekly earnings.

The data were tabulated for each Coal Act Production District as well as for the United States as a whole. The territorial boundaries of these districts were originally specified in the schedule of districts annexed to the Bituminous Coal Act of 1937; this act, which was for the purpose of regulating interstate commerce in bituminous coal, also established the National Bituminous Coal Commission. The Bureau's study included underground mines in all but 5 of the 23 districts and strip mines in all but 9; in these omitted districts there were either no mines employing as many as 20 workers or too few mines to be of significance.

The wage structure of the industry is highly complex. It is affected by the provisions of the National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement. This complexity necessitates certain arbitrary decisions on the limits to be set forth describing earnings per day or per start and on other bases for describing earnings. It should be clearly understood that the summaries of types of earnings presented in this study do not constitute a judgment by the Bureau as to what should be used as a proper measurement of wages in the industry, but have been chosen rather because they appeared significant and lent themselves to statistical summary.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS

Average gross weekly earnings include both straight-time and overtime earnings and shift differentials for an actual workweek. If the pay-roll period exceeded a week, gross earnings for the entire pay-roll period were reduced to a weekly basis by applying a factor based on the number of working days in the period and the length of the scheduled workweek in the mine.[6] These gross earnings excluded only nonproduction bonuses and costs of explosives, carbide, tool sharpening, etc. The latter costs were excluded whether borne by the worker (either through deductions from earnings or by outside purchase) or borne by the company (through an allowance added to the worker's pay). Workers' payments for food and other purchases at company stores, for company housing, utilities, union dues, hospitalization, and similar items (even when deducted from pay rolls) are included in total pay.

Average straight-time earnings per start (day) cover the actual workday, not merely the seven hours for which straight-time rates are paid. They exclude, for all groups of workers, premium (but not straight-time) payments for overtime and night work, nonproduction bonuses, and cost of explosives, carbide, and tool sharpening. For mines operating under the provisions of the National Bituminous Coal Wage Agreement or similar agreements certain specific items, entering into total earnings, were considered as part of premium overtime payments and excluded in order to arrive at straight-time earnings figures. For outside workers these deductions are the small

[6] For example, during the pay-roll period of Sept. 16-30 in a mine working a scheduled 6-day week, there were 12 working days including 2 premium-pay (sixth consecutive day) days. Since a normal workweek would consist of 6 days including 1 premium day, a factor of 0.500 was used to reduce semimonthly earnings to a weekly basis.

portion of the $1.07 [7] (added to outside workers' earnings as equalization) which may be considered the premium part of the addition to the overtime hours. For inside day workers they are 50 cents of the $1.50 ninth-hour pay; for inside piece workers, all of the one-ninth addition to earnings. The agreement is not clear as to how the latter item (additional one-ninth) is divided between premium payment for overtime and travel. In the absence of definite determination on this point, the entire one-ninth was excluded from straight-time earnings.

Average straight-time earnings per hour represent total straight-time earnings per pay period divided by the hours worked during the period. In most mines actual hours for day workers were available from time or pay-roll records. If records of actual hours were not kept by the mine (usually for piece workers) scheduled hours were used.

Average hours per start (day) represent portal-to-portal time, including travel time for inside workers and a 15-minute lunch period. Because of methods used in deriving the averages and also because of the rounding of figures, average hours per start multiplied by straight-time average hourly earnings did not always agree exactly with the average straight-time earnings per start.

[7] If the $1.07 is prorated over 7 hours at straight time and 1 hour and 15 minutes at time and a half (outside workers on noncontinuous operations) it results in a total of $0.995 at straight time for the day.

Effect of Wartime Housing Shortages on Home Ownership[1]

Summary

ONE of the most outstanding changes in the residential housing picture in the United States during the war was the rapid and continuous shift from tenancy to home ownership. Between April 1940 and October 1944, the most recent date for which Nation-wide data are available, the proportion of dwellings occupied by owners rose from 41 to 47 percent, an increase of 15 percent. This change, which affected hundreds of thousands of dwellings, occurred during a period when construction of new homes for owner occupancy was seriously curtailed. Therefore, much of the increase in ownership came by withdrawing dwellings from the rental market. Forced purchases probably constituted a substantial part of these transactions. Serious housing shortages growing out of wartime migrations and increased employment and incomes have combined with the traditional urge for home ownership, leading to an extremely active sales market. Competitive bidding by prospective owners caused sharply advancing prices of homes. In many cases, long-time tenants had the choice of buying or moving. Rent control limited the earnings from rental property and encouraged owners to take advantage of the unrestricted sales market. In spite of stringent OPA regulation of evictions and the requirement of large down payments for home purchasing, the rate of tenant evictions almost tripled between June 1943 and April 1945.

Since September 1944, information on tenure (i. e., whether dwellings are occupied by tenants or owners) has been obtained for 122 cities or areas, representing a fourth of the total occupied dwellings in nonfarm areas of the United States. In all but one of these cities, the ratio of owner-occupied to total dwellings increased over April 1940. The median increase was 28 percent, with one-fourth of the cities having increases of more than 36 percent. Most generally affected by this shift to home ownership was the supply of single-family rental dwellings, the reduction of which in some large cities amounted to as much as one-third in less than a 2-year period. Thus, the present difficulties confronting newly formed families and reunited families of veterans needing a place to live has resulted not only from severe restrictions on new construction, but also from the drastic shift of existing dwellings from the rental to the sales market.

Whether or not these wartime gains in home ownership remain will depend, for many families, upon continued high earnings. The sharp increase in sales prices, combined with forced purchases of homes by persons not in a financial position to assume the cost of home ownership or by persons whose residence in a community is only temporary, has created a costly, unstable, and insecure type of home ownership for many families.

[1] Prepared by Helen Humes and Bruno Schiro of the Bureau's Consumers' Prices Division. A table showing the tenure of dwellings for the survey date and for April 1940 in each of 122 cities will be included in a reprint of this article, which may be had upon request.

Trends in Home Ownership

Traditionally in the United States, home ownership has been the goal of virtually all families. It is deeply ingrained in our history, and has been universally accepted and encouraged by business, government, and labor. In the 5 years since 1940, home ownership has been achieved by hundreds of thousands, and the shift of families from the position of tenants to owners has been spectacular and rapid. The proportion of dwellings occupied by their owners has increased more rapidly in this 5-year period than in the entire boom decade of the 1920's.

Table 1 shows the proportion of nonfarm dwellings that were owner-occupied for the census years from 1890 to 1940 and the percent of change in the proportion from the preceding census. During World War I, despite the housing shortage that then existed, the total increase in owner occupancy was moderate compared to that which occurred in World War II. Prior to 1940, the greatest shift to owner occupancy occurred between 1920 and 1930. In 1920, 40.9 percent of all occupied dwellings were occupied by owners. By 1930, 46.0 percent of all occupied dwellings were owner-occupied—an increase of 12.5 percent.

Between 1930 and 1940 the gain in home ownership of the previous decade was wiped out by the more than a million foreclosures of the early thirties. By 1940 (in spite of the recovery of the real-estate market after the mid-thirties) the proportion of home ownership had fallen to 41.1 percent of all occupied dwellings—almost the same proportion as in 1920.

During the period, April 1940–October 1944, the proportion of owner-occupied units in nonfarm areas rose from 41.1 to 47.4 percent—an increase of 15.3 percent, to a level only slightly higher than that which prevailed in 1930.

TABLE 1.—*Tenure of Dwellings in Nonfarm Areas in the United States, 1890–1944*

Census year	Occupied dwelling units, or families [1]	Percentage distribution of dwellings for which tenure was reported				
		Total reporting tenure	Owned		Rented	
			Percent of total	Percent of change from preceding period	Percent of total	Percent of change from preceding period
1944 [2]	[3] 30,756,000	100.0	47.4	+15.3	52.6	−10.7
1940	27,665,684	100.0	41.1	−10.7	58.9	+9.1
1930	23,235,982	100.0	46.0	+12.5	54.0	−8.6
1920	17,600,472	100.0	40.9	+6.5	59.1	−4.1
1910	14,131,945	100.0	38.4	+5.2	61.6	−3.0
1900	10,274,127	100.0	36.5	−1.1	63.5	+.6
1890	7,922,973	100.0	36.9	----------	63.1	----------

[1] The term "occupied dwelling units" in 1940 and 1944 is not exactly the same as the private "families" for the other years, but the differences are so small as to be negligible. The count of families for 1930 and 1900 represent private families only; that for 1920, 1910, and 1890 includes the small number of quasi-families which were counted as families in those years.

[2] Information on tenure of occupied dwelling units for October 1944 was obtained by the Bureau of the Census as a supplement to the Monthly Report on the Labor Force.

[3] Estimated number.

Residential Sales Markets in World War II

The vast migration of people to military and war-industry centers, that began in the summer of 1940, created serious housing shortages in those areas. The shortages, together with substantial increases in employment and income, created a brisk sales market. According to many reports, banks, insurance companies, and loan agencies took advantage of this favorable market to dispose of repossessed properties acquired during the thirties. In-migrant war workers in many areas found that the only way to obtain a place to live was to buy. As a result, tenants of long standing found themselves dispossessed because the war workers with higher earnings had bought their houses. The displaced tenants in turn were often forced to buy other houses.

After Federal rent control became effective in 1942, a noticeable increase in sales occurred. Rent ceilings encouraged and stimulated the sales of rental properties. Owners who were no longer able to realize higher incomes on rental dwellings took advantage of the unrestricted sales market. In many instances tenants bought houses at inflated prices in order to forestall eviction. In spite of eviction regulations, increasing numbers of tenants were evicted from rental dwellings. The regulations provide that, in cities under rent control, evictions are allowed only in the case of nonpayment of rent, improper conduct, or when the owner himself is going to occupy the property. The extent to which tenant-occupied units were being removed from the rental market was recognized early by the Office of Price Administration. To protect tenants from short-notice evictions and to guarantee that sales which did occur would be bona fide, the rent regulations were amended on October 20, 1942, by requiring a down payment of one-third (reduced to one-fifth on September 16, 1943) of the purchase price before issuing an eviction certificate. In addition, the tenant could not be forced to vacate until 3 months (increased to 6 months on September 15, 1945) after the eviction order was authorized. Removal of dwellings from the rental market nevertheless continued. The rate at which eviction certificates were issued by the Office of Price Administration rose from 0.55 per thousand registered units in all areas under rent control in June 1943 to 1.07 by June 1944, and by April 1945 had reached a rate of 1.40. This meant that tenant families were being evicted at a rate of well over 20,000 per month in areas under control. The eviction rate varied greatly from city to city. In April 1945, it was 0.26 per thousand in Boston, 2.79 per thousand in Atlanta, and 2.93 per thousand in Los Angeles. Losses to the rental markets also occurred because of sales of homes which were vacant, those vacated by tenants who moved without legal action, and sales of homes to current tenants.

The attractive prices encouraged property holders to offer their rental dwellings for sale. Rapidly increasing sales prices were reported in virtually all cities in which housing surveys were made.

In Washington, D. C., data on sales prices based on a survey of real estate brokers' opinions indicate that the increase in sales prices over 1940 had amounted to 16 percent by April 1943, 27 percent by April 1944, and 42 percent by April 1945. In Los Angeles County, a similar survey showed that single-family dwellings had increased in

price by 56 percent between 1940 and May 1944 and 59 percent by October 1944.[2]

In Chicago, residential sales prices increased 50 percent between 1939 and 1943, according to a Bureau study of records of the Illinois State Department of Revenue. Near the end of 1945 in Omaha, owners of homes purchased after 1939 were asked by the Bureau to estimate the current market value of their homes. The prices quoted indicated the current level 58 percent above 1940, 44 percent above 1942, and 13 percent above 1944.

Trend to Home Ownership in Individual Cities

The regional coverage of cities surveyed and the extent of the shifts to owner occupancy within regions since 1940 are shown in table 2. For all cities the median increase in the proportion of dwellings occupied by owners was 28 percent. A fourth of the cities surveyed had increases of less than 21 percent, while another fourth reported increases of more than 36 percent since 1940. Cities in the Mountain States reported the smallest increase—a median rise of 16 percent—with only 2 of the 11 cities surveyed showing more than a 20-percent increase. Also low was the median rise for cities in New England, 20 percent, with cities in the Middle Atlantic States slightly higher, 22 percent. The largest changes in the proportion of owner-occupied dwellings occurred in the Southeastern States, where the median increase was 34 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Cities by Extent of Change in Proportion of Owner-Occupied Units, April 1940 to 1944–45, by Region*

Region	Total number of cities	Number of cities having increase of—						Median percent of increase
		Under 10 percent	10–19 percent	20–29 percent	30–39 percent	40–49 percent	50 percent and over	
All regions	122	7	23	42	27	15	8	27.7
North	39	3	9	13	9	4	1	26.2
New England	11	1	5	3	2	----	----	19.8
Middle Atlantic	6	1	2	2	1	----	----	21.8
East North Central	10	1	1	6	2	----	----	23.3
West North Central	12	----	1	2	4	4	1	33.7
South	56	----	7	18	15	10	6	31.8
South Atlantic	17	----	3	4	4	3	3	34.1
East South Central	18	----	2	4	5	5	2	34.4
West South Central	21	----	2	10	6	2	1	29.5
West	27	4	7	11	3	1	1	24.7
Mountain	11	[1] 2	7	1	----	----	1	15.6
Pacific	16	2	----	10	3	1	----	27.4

[1] Includes 1 city with a 1.0-percent decrease.

Only one city—Tooele, Utah—reported a decline (1 percent) in the proportion of dwellings occupied by owners. The increase was more than 50 percent in 8 cities—Wilmington, N. C., Dallas, Tex.,

[2] Press release OWI-4114, NHA-208, March 2, 1945.

Winona, Miss., Kansas City, Mo., Norfolk, Va., Rifle, Colo., Atlanta, Ga., and Ashland, Ky. Among the cities showing little change since 1940 were Colorado Springs, Colo., Scranton, Pa., Corvallis, Oreg., Olympia, Wash., and Portland, Maine.

The magnitude of these increases does not seem to vary with any single factor, although, in general, the greatest increases occurred in cities having less than 100,000 dwellings. Only one of 20 cities of more than 100,000 dwellings reported an increase of more than 35 percent. In part this is due to the large concentrations of apartments in large cities, and the smaller proportion of single-family dwellings which sets a limit to what is available for sale. Here again, however, there are exceptions. Some cities with a small proportion of single-family houses have reported large shifts to owner occupancy. For example, in Detroit, where only 24 percent of the tenant-occupied units as of 1940 were single-family dwellings, an increase of 28 percent in owner occupancy was reported; conversely, in Denver, even though 44 percent of the tenant occupied units in 1940 were single-family dwellings, owner-occupancy increased only 16 percent. In both cities about two-fifths of all units were owner-occupied in 1940.

Where the percentage of owner occupancy existing in 1940 was higher than average, the increase during the war was generally less. This in part explains the relatively smaller percentage increases for the cities in the West, where a higher proportion of homes was owner-occupied in 1940, and the relatively larger percentage increase for cities in the South, where owner occupancy in 1940 was somewhat less than in the West.

Effect Upon Supply of Rental Units

In normal times, substantial additions to the rental market occur through new construction and through previously owner-occupied units becoming available for tenants. Since 1940, however, as has been pointed out, the increase in owner occupancy reduced the number of dwellings in the rental market. Table 3 shows the proportion of tenant units which became owner-occupied during the 21-month period between March 1943 and December 1944. The reduction in the rental market was concentrated among the single-family type rental dwellings (attached houses as well as detached), since this is the type that is suitable for owner occupancy. For example, in Portland, Oreg., although only 13 percent of all types of occupied rental dwellings became owner-occupied in the 21 months, 32 percent of the single-family rental dwellings became occupied by owners. In Cleveland, during the same period, the loss from the rental market amounted to 9 percent for all types of rental dwellings and 23 percent for single-family houses.

Whether the wartime gains in home ownership are permanent or whether foreclosures will follow, as happened after the 1920's, is yet to be seen. In some respects the present real-estate boom is based on sounder financial practices than that of the 1920's. The faulty financial practices of the 1920's, the high interest rates, and the widespread use of second and third mortgages are not now prevailing. Long-term amortized mortgages and low interest rates, and substantial down payments, have characterized recent practice. However, the sharp increase in sales prices, together with the long-term commitments at

inflated levels, may prove too heavy a burden for many of the new wartime home owners, especially if there is a downward adjustment in the level of incomes in the postwar years. Furthermore, the forced purchase of homes by persons not yet ready financially to assume the cost of home ownership, or by persons whose residence in the community was only temporary, has created for many an unstable and insecure type of home ownership. All of these factors may cause wartime owners to become postwar tenants.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Tenant-Occupied Dwelling Units Which Became Owner-Occupied Between March 1943 and December 1944 in 34 Large Cities* [1]

City	Dwellings becoming owner-occupied, March 1943–December 1944		City	Dwellings becoming owner-occupied, March 1943–December 1944	
	Percent of all tenant-occupied dwellings	Percent of tenant-occupied single-family dwellings		Percent of all tenant-occupied dwellings	Percent of tenant-occupied single-family dwellings
Atlanta, Ga	[2] 12	[2] 17	Milwaukee, Wis	[2] 6	[2] 8
Baltimore, Md	[2] 10	[2] 10	Minneapolis, Minn	[2] 11	[2] 31
Birmingham, Ala	[2] 8	[2] 8	Mobile, Ala	13	18
Boston, Mass	3	[3] 34	New Orleans, La	4	18
Buffalo, N. Y	8	19	New York, N. Y	[5] 4	[5] 22
Chicago, Ill	3	15	Norfolk, Va	7	9
Cincinnati, Ohio	12	26	Philadelphia, Pa	6	[2] 8
Cleveland, Ohio	9	23	Pittsburgh, Pa	7	8
Denver, Colo	12	16	Portland, Maine	[2] 7	[4] 36
Detroit, Mich	10	24	Portland, Oreg	13	32
Houston, Tex	[2] 9	[2] 10	Richmond, Va	[2] 7	[2] 15
Indianapolis, Ind	13	13	St. Louis, Mo	[2] 5	[2] 18
Jacksonville, Fla	12	13	San Francisco, Calif	8	25
Kansas City, Mo	17	36	Savannah, Ga	7	9
Los Angeles, Calif	14	20	Scranton, Pa	[5] 4	[5] 5
Manchester, N. H	[2] 6	[4] 19	Seattle, Wash	[2] 12	[2] 33
Memphis, Tenn	[2] 16	[2] 18	Washington, D. C	4	13

[1] Based on samples of tenant-occupied dwellings selected during 1942. The percentages reflect the proportion of units removed from the rent sample because they became owner-occupied.
[2] Includes information only through September 1944.
[3] Data based on small sample of single-family dwellings.
[4] Data based on small sample of single-family dwellings. Includes information only through September 1944.
[5] Covers period June 1943–December 1944.

Source of Data

In the summer of 1944, the Bureau of Labor Statistics began a program of comprehensive housing surveys to provide the basis for periodic revision of its samples of rental dwellings on which its rent indexes are based. Simultaneously, the Bureau also obtained occupancy and vacancy data for the National Housing Agency. These surveys of residential dwellings are conducted in conjunction with the regular rent surveys which the Bureau has made continuously since 1917 as a part of its studies of changes in consumer prices and living costs for moderate-income families in large cities. Information is obtained by personal visits of the Bureau's field representatives to occupants of family dwellings in a sample carefully selected to represent all sections and types of structures in each area. In general, all accommodations considered as dwelling units in the April 1940 Census of Housing are included in these surveys, except public housing, trailers, and tourist camps, and miscellaneous quarters such as boats,

tents, etc. Both the current surveys and the 1940 Census of Housing excluded commercial rooming houses and hotels.

For purposes of these surveys, a residential dwelling unit is defined as a room or group of rooms occupied or intended for occupancy as separate living quarters (i. e., the occupants are able to live separate family lives) by a person or group of persons as their place of abode. Sleeping rooms occupied by lodgers are not considered as individual dwelling units.

Dwellings are classified as tenant-occupied if they are occupied by renters, or by managers of apartments, caretakers, superintendents, or persons receiving free rent in lieu of repairs, services, or improvements. Owner-occupied dwellings are those occupied by their owners, including units owned outright and also those for which payments are being made toward ownership.

The cities in which these housing surveys were made, by either the Bureau of Labor Statistics or the Bureau of the Census, were selected on the basis of needs for housing information and were not intended to be a representative sample of all cities in the country. In general most of these cities now have, or had at some period during the war, serious housing shortages. Nevertheless the group included almost three-fifths of all cities of 100,000 population or more in 1940, exclusive of New York and Chicago.

The cities or areas where surveys were made included 40 of the 73 cities for which the Bureau made periodic reports of consumers' prices, 45 cities surveyed by the Bureau to obtain rent data for the Office of Price Administration, and 37 cities or areas in which the Bureau of the Census conducted vacancy surveys for the National Housing Agency. Surveys made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and for which data on tenure are available, represent cities with a total of 6,800,000 dwelling units; those made by the Bureau of the Census represent cities totaling 750,000 dwelling units. The total number of dwellings in these 122 cities is 7,550,000 and represents one-fourth of the total occupied dwellings in nonfarm areas of the United States.

Extent of Collective Bargaining and Union Recognition in 1945[1]

Union-Agreement Coverage

OF AN estimated total of about 29 million workers[2] engaged in occupations in which unions were organizing and endeavoring to obtain written agreements in 1945, about 13.8 million workers were covered by written collective-bargaining agreements. Although the total number covered decreased from 14.3 millions in 1944, the ratio of those covered by collective bargaining to the total number employed and eligible for coverage increased slightly from about 47 percent to about 48 percent.

In manufacturing industries, slightly over 67 percent (8 millions) of the production wage earners [3] were employed under union agreements during 1945, compared with 65 percent (more than 8.75 millions) in 1944. In nonmanufacturing industries the workers covered by union agreements in 1945 constituted about 34 percent (about 5.8 millions) compared to about 33 percent (slightly more than 5.5 millions) in 1944.

The extent of unionism in the various industries is shown in table 1 (p. 568).

Types of Union Recognition

The various degrees of union recognition or union security are commonly referred to as closed shop, union shop with or without preferential hiring of union members, maintenance of membership, preferential hiring with no membership requirements, and sole bargaining with no membership requirements. Check-off arrangements are of two kinds, usually referred to as automatic check-off and check-off by individual authorization.

Extent of various types of union-status provisions.[4]—As indicated in table 2, the proportion of workers covered by closed- and union-shop clauses in 1945 remained about the same as in 1944, but the proportion employed under maintenance-of-membership clauses increased from 27 percent (3.75 millions) to 29 percent (more than 3.9 millions). About 30 percent (almost 4.25 millions) of the workers were employed under closed- and union-shop with preferential hiring, compared to 28 percent (slightly over 4 millions) under such provisions in 1944. Union-shop clauses, without hiring preference, accounted for 15 percent in 1945 compared to 18 percent in 1944. Preferential hiring

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Branch. For similar data for previous years, see Monthly Labor Review, April 1945, April 1944, February 1943, May 1942, and March 1939.

[2] The estimate of 29 million includes all wage and salary workers except those in executive, managerial, and certain types of professional positions in most industries but excludes all self-employed, domestic workers, agricultural wage workers on farms employing fewer than 6 persons, all Federal and State government employees, teachers, and elected and appointed officials in local governments.

It should be noted that the number of workers covered by union agreements is not the same as union membership. Except under closed- or union-shop conditions, agreements cover nonmembers as well as members employed within the given bargaining unit. On the other hand, some union members may be working in unorganized plants and many civil-service employees and teachers are members of unions but are not employed under the terms of bilateral written agreements.

[3] Clerical, professional, service, and construction workers, foremen, and truck drivers connected with manufacturing are treated as occupational groups under nonmanufacturing employees.

[4] Since almost all of the agreements current in 1945 were negotiated before VJ-day, these proportions do not reflect any postwar changes.

TABLE 1.—*Proportion of Wage Earners Under Union Agreements in January 1945*

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

80–100 percent	60–80 percent	40–60 percent	20–40 percent	1–20 percent
Agricultural equipment. Aircraft and parts. Aluminum. Automobiles and parts. Breweries. Carpets and rugs, wool. Cement. Clocks and watches. Clothing, men's. Clothing, women's. Furs and fur garments. Glass and glassware. Leather tanning. Meat packing. Newspaper printing and publishing. Nonferrous metals and products. Rubber products. Shipbuilding. Steel, basic. Sugar, beet and cane.	Book and job printing and publishing. Coal products. Electrical machinery, equipment, and appliances. Machinery and machine tools. Millinery and hats. Paper and pulp. Petroleum refining. Railroad equipment. Rayon yarn. Steel products. Tobacco products. Woolen and worsted textiles.	Baking. Canning and preserving foods. Dyeing and finishing textiles. Flour and other grain products. Furniture. Gloves, leather and cloth. Hosiery. Jewelry and silverware. Knit goods. Leather luggage, handbags, novelties. Lumber. Pottery, including chinaware. Shoes, cut stock and findings. Stone and clay products.	Beverages, nonalcholic. Chemicals, excluding rayon yarn. Confectionery products. Cotton textiles. Paper products. Silk and rayon textiles.	Dairy products.

NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

80–100 percent	60–80 percent	40–60 percent	20–40 percent	1–20 percent
Actors and musicians. Airline pilots and mechanics. Bus and streetcar, local. Coal mining. Construction. Longshoring. Maritime. Metal mining. Motion-picture production. Railroads—freight and passenger, shops and clerical. Telegraph service and maintenance. Trucking, local and intercity.	Radio technicians. Theater—stage hands, motion-picture operators.	Bus lines, intercity. Light and power. Newspaper offices. Telephone service and maintenance.	Barber shops. Building servicing and maintenance. Cleaning and dyeing. Crude petroleum and natural gas. Fishing. Hotels and restaurants. Laundries. Nonmetallic mining and quarrying. Taxicabs.	Agriculture.[1] Beauty shops. Clerical and professional, excluding transportation, communication, theaters, and newspapers. Retail and wholesale trade.

[1] Less than 1 percent.

was provided for 3 percent (2 percent in 1944) of all the workers, and 23 percent were covered by agreements specifying recognition only, compared to 25 percent in the previous year.

TABLE 2.—*Trend in Union Recognition in the United States, 1941–45*

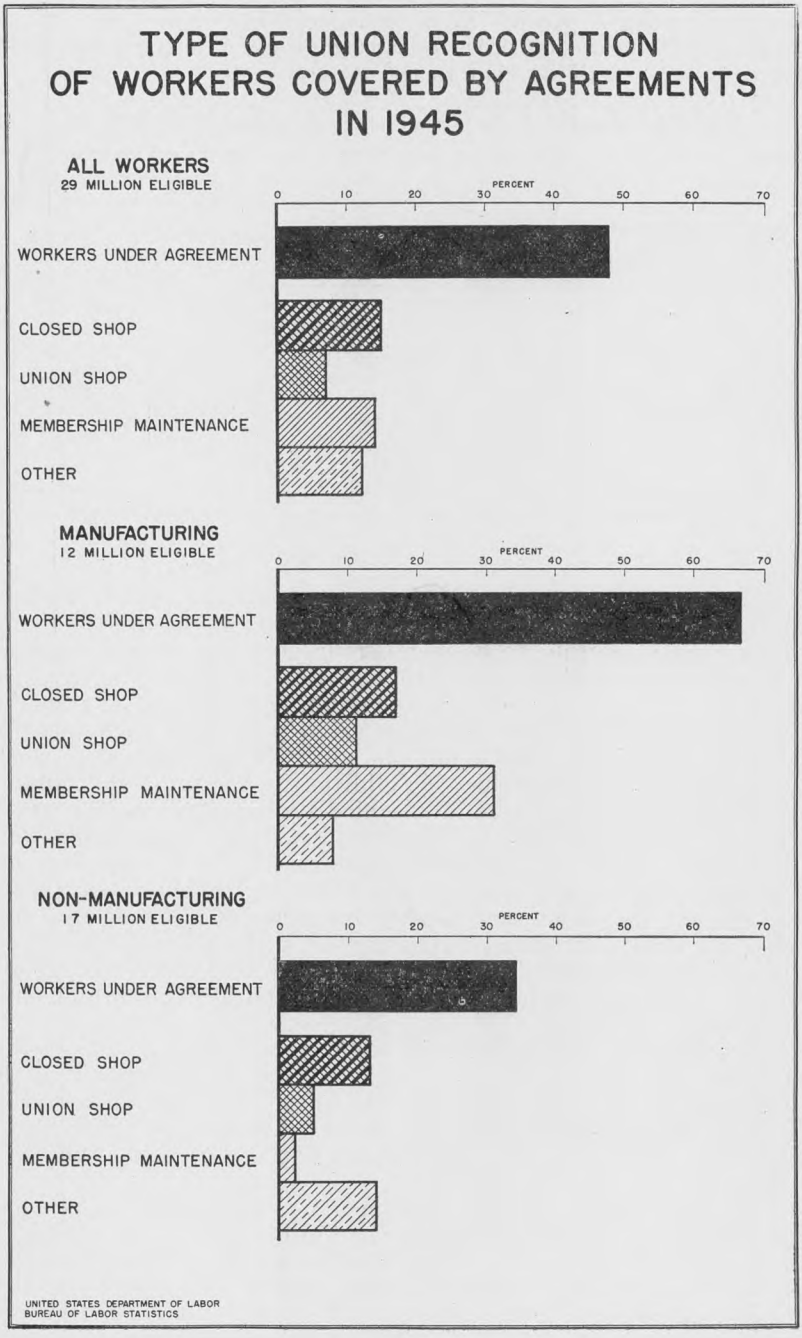
Item	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Eligible for union-agreement coverage:					
Number (in millions)	31	31	31	30¼	29
Percent under agreement [1]	30	40	45	47	48
	Percentage distribution [1]				
Workers under agreements providing for—					
Closed shop	40	45	30	28	30
Union shop			20	18	15
Maintenance of membership	(2)	15	20	27	29
Preferential hiring	(2)	5	2	2	3
Other		35	28	25	23
Total		100	100	100	100

[1] Percentages not strictly comparable, year by year, because of slight changes in volume of employment during the period.
[2] No data.

Closed shop.—Under closed-shop agreements, all employees are required to be members of the appropriate union at the time of hiring, and they must continue to be members in good standing throughout their period of employment. Most of the closed-shop agreements require employers to hire through the union unless the latter is unable to furnish suitable persons within a given period; in such case the persons hired elsewhere must join the union before starting to work. A union-shop agreement which, in addition to requiring that all employees join the union within a specified probationary period, states that union members shall be given preference in hiring, differs very little in effect from the closed-shop agreement. In a few cases, employees hired before a closed- or union-shop agreement is signed are exempt from the union-membership requirement. The closed and union shop with preferential hiring prevail in the following manufacturing industries: Baking, brewery, canned and preserved foods, hosiery, men's and women's clothing, printing and publishing, and shipbuilding.

In manufacturing industries in 1945, closed-shop or union-shop provisions with preferential hiring covered about 25 percent of the workers or the same proportion as in 1944. In nonmanufacturing industries they covered 38 percent, compared with 36 percent in 1944, largely as a result of increases in construction and trucking and warehousing.

In contrast to closed-shop agreements, a union-shop agreement gives employers complete control over the hiring of new employees, who need not be union members when hired. They must, however, join the union within a specified time, usually 30 to 60 days, as a condition of continued employment. This type of union recognition prevails in the bus and street railway, coal mining, and paper and allied products industries. Union-shop clauses with no hiring preference accounted for 16 percent of manufacturing workers under



agreement in 1945, as compared with 17 percent in 1944. Fifteen percent of the nonmanufacturing workers under agreement were under union-shop provisions, compared to 16 percent in 1944.

A maintenance-of-membership agreement requires that all employees who are members when the agreement is signed, and all who join the union later, must retain their membership for the duration of the agreement. The maintenance-of-membership provisions established by order of the National War Labor Board allow 15 days during which members may withdraw from the union if they do not wish to remain members for the duration of the agreement. In 1945 maintenance-of-membership clauses covered 46 percent (about 3.7 millions) of the manufacturing workers, compared with 40 percent (about 3.5 millions) covered the year before. About 5 percent of the manufacturing workers under agreement—a drop of 1 percent from the previous year—had maintenance-of-membership provisions. Maintenance of membership has prevailed in the following industries: Agricultural equipment, aircraft and parts, aluminum, auto, carpets, cigarettes, chemicals, clocks and watches, cotton textiles, electrical machinery and appliances, machines and machine tools, meat packing, nonferrous metals, petroleum, railroad equipment, rayon yarn, rubber products, basic steel, steel products, and woolen and worsted.

Some agreements provide for preferential hiring without union-membership requirements. In other words, union members must be hired if available but, if not, the employer may hire nonmembers, and such persons need not join the union as a condition of continued employment. In 1945 such provisions for preferential hiring prevailed in the maritime, longshoring, and pottery industries.

Some agreements do not require union membership as a condition of hiring or continued employment. The union is recognized as the sole bargaining agent for all employees in the bargaining unit and is thus responsible for negotiating the working conditions under which all workers are employed, including those who do not belong to the union. This type of agreement, unlike the others, does not enable the union to rely on employment per se to maintain or increase its membership. In 1945 such agreements predominated in the cane sugar, cement, glass, railroad, and telephone industries and in the employment of clerical and professional workers.

Dues Check-Off Arrangements

Slightly over 5.3 million workers, or about 39 percent of all employees under agreement, were covered by check-off provisions in 1945. Not quite half of these were under agreements which called for the automatic check-off of union dues; the remainder were under clauses which specified check-off of union dues only for those employees who filed individual written authorizations with the employer. Under some of the latter agreements, the authorizations, once made, continue in effect for the duration of the agreement; under others they may be withdrawn whenever the employee desires. Although most of the check-off clauses provide that all dues and assessments levied by the union shall be collected, some specify "regular dues only" or check-offs not to exceed a given amount.

In manufacturing industries nearly 4 million workers, about 50 percent of all under agreement, were employed under check-off provisions in 1945. In nonmanufacturing a little over 1.3 millions, 24 percent of the workers under agreement, were covered by check-off provisions. One-third of these specified automatic deduction of dues, while the other two-thirds specified check-off only on individual authorization.

Over 90 percent of the workers under agreement in the following industries are covered by check-off provisions: Aluminum, cotton textiles, hosiery, metal mining, basic steel, and carpets. Over 50 percent are under check-off provisions in the following manufacturing industries: Aircraft, cane sugar, chemicals, cement, cigarettes, confectionery, men's clothing, electrical machinery and appliances, leather tanning, meat packing, nonferrous metals, petroleum and coal products, railroad equipment, rayon yarn, rubber products, silk and rayon textiles, steel products, and woolen and worsted textiles. Slightly less than 25 percent of the workers under agreement in nonmanufacturing industries are covered by check-off provisions.

Occupational Outlook

Employment Outlook for Molders[1]

Summary

EMPLOYMENT prospects for molders are generally favorable, although there are marked variations in the outlook for the various types of molders—journeymen, less-skilled specialists, and molding-machine operators. This is the main conclusion of the second part of a study of employment opportunities in foundries, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to provide information for the vocational counseling of veterans and other persons making the choice of an occupation.[2]

Among the many types of foundry work, molding stands out as particularly significant in that the occupation is large—about 75,000 molders were employed in 1944—and is a major field of employment for skilled workers.

An especially strong demand is anticipated for journeymen molders during the next few years. These workers, because of their diversified training—either a formal 4-year apprenticeship or its equivalent in experience—are qualified for all-round hand molding and for skilled, specialized jobs in molding. In addition, they are usually preferred, when available, for machine-molding work. In view of the present shortage of journeymen and of the probable high volume of replacement demand which will be maintained for a number of years, many openings are expected for new workers.

The outlook for journeymen molders is only slightly less favorable in the longer run (say the 5- or 10-year period beginning about 1950). Some reduction in their employment will eventually result from technological developments and from the anticipated gradual decline in foundry activity from its high postwar level. Nevertheless, journeymen previously established in the trade should have continued employment because they are well suited to mechanized molding operations and because the expected decline in foundry employment will be moderate.

Below the journeyman level of skill is a large group of workers with brief, specialized training in hand molding. Under close supervision, these men may perform most of the skilled steps in the making of a given type of mold, but they lack the journeyman's versatility. A high rate of foundry activity during the next few years, combined with the likelihood that a fairly substantial number will leave this type of job

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Calman R. Winegarden, under supervision of Richard H. Lewis.

[2] The first part of this study, Outlook for Foundry Employment, appeared in the Monthly Labor Review, December 1945. These two sections, together with a third dealing with employment prospects in other foundry occupations, will appear in a forthcoming bulletin.

for other fields, will probably provide employment for those experienced in the work as well as for a limited number of trainees. Longer-range prospects are for a possible curtailment of employment opportunities for those less-skilled hand molders who do not acquire sufficiently diversified experience to compete with journeymen when foundry employment is declining.

Semiskilled molding-machine operators (as distinct from journeymen molders working on molding machines) have grown considerably in numbers in recent years. Although there will be slightly fewer jobs of this type in the next several years than during wartime, withdrawals from the occupation are expected to create openings for a limited number of new workers. In the longer run, employment of machine molders will be fairly stable, but they may face competition from journeymen for available jobs, if enough of the latter are trained.

Earnings data for molders show that they are among the best-paid foundry workers and that their pay is comparable to that of other metalworking occupations of equivalent skill. Working conditions in molding departments vary widely among individual establishments. Although the injury rate in molding exceeds the average in metalworking, considerable progress has been made in improving the conditions of work in many foundries.

The Work of the Molder

The primary function of molders is to prepare the sand molds in which metal is cast. Basically, this involves packing sand around a model ("pattern") of the desired object and then withdrawing the pattern, leaving in the sand a hollow space, or "mold cavity," in the shape of the casting to be made. The specific duties of molders, however, vary widely according to the type of operation. These differences greatly affect skill requirements and assume considerable significance in relation to employment prospects.

The following descriptions of the work of each of the main types of molders—all-round hand molders, less-skilled hand molders, and machine molders—are intended not only to provide a general picture of the operations but also to serve as a basis for the analysis of trends in supply and demand in the occupation. For this reason, only the more generally used molding methods are discussed, and the less-important details of the work are omitted.

ALL-ROUND HAND MOLDERS

The essential features of all-round hand molding, which distinguish it from other types of molding, are that it involves the making of widely varying kinds of molds and that it requires workers of journeyman qualifications who use mainly hand methods and perform nearly all the steps in the process.

Bench molding and floor molding are the two principal divisions of hand operations. In bench molding, small molds are prepared on work benches. In the various types of floor molding, larger molds are constructed on the foundry floor.

Bench molding.—The bench molder first assembles the pattern to be used and a suitable molding box, or "flask," on his work bench.

He places the lower ("drag") half of the molding flask upside down on a flat molding board and sets the lower half of the pattern (if a two-part pattern is used) in an inverted position on this board. If his duties include determining the most efficient placing of the pattern, he must be able, at this point, to visualize the entire casting process. Frequently, however, this decision is the responsibility of a supervisor.

After placing the pattern, the molder fills the flask with molding sand, covering the pattern. Using hand-ramming tools, he compacts the sand around the pattern, employing considerable skill to obtain a proper and uniform degree of density. Setting a flat board on top of the mold, he rolls the mold over and exposes the lower half of the pattern. He joins the upper ("cope") half of the pattern to the lower part, and places the cope half of the flask on the drag. Using the top surface of the drag of the mold as a base, he prepares the upper (cope) section of the mold in much the same manner as he made the drag half.

Following this operation, the bench molder cuts a channel, or "sprue" (through which the molten metal will later be poured), leading from the top surface of the mold to a point near the embedded pattern. He separates the mold sections by lifting the cope mold from the drag half, and then very carefully takes out the pattern sections from the sand. This phase of molding requires a high degree of skill in order to avoid serious damage to the mold impression and to patch by hand any minor damage resulting from pattern withdrawal.

The molder's next step is to "gate" the mold, that is, to cut passages in the sand connecting with the sprue, or feeding channel. Determining the most efficient arrangement of these passages, which provide for the distribution of molten metal within the mold, also requires skill of high order. However, a foreman may provide general instructions on how this work is to be done or gated patterns may be used, greatly simplifying the whole operation.

The final steps in the molder's work are to apply a facing material, such as graphite, to the mold cavity in order to strengthen it; to set the sand cores (which will form any hollow spaces needed in the casting) into place within the mold; and to reassemble the mold sections. In some small foundries, he may himself pour molten metal into the completed mold. More commonly, however, pouring is done by other workers, although often under the molder's direction.

Floor molding.—The work is much the same as bench molding, with certain exceptions, some of the more important of which are as follows: A crane or hoist is used to turn over the mold sections and to withdraw large or bulky patterns, with the crane operator working according to hand signals from the molder. The floor molder reinforces the structure of the mold by inserting metal rods ("gaggers") and nails into the sand at the appropriate points which he selects. Pneumatic rammers are substituted for hand tools in compacting the sand. One or more helpers may ram the sand, bring up materials, and assist the floor molder in other ways.

Pit and sweep molding.—Other all-round hand-molding jobs, less common than either bench or floor work, are pit molding (in which large molds are constructed within a pit in the foundry floor) and sweep molding (in which the mold cavity is formed by moving a shaped board, or "sweep," over a bed of sand).

LESS-SKILLED HAND MOLDERS

All-round hand molding of the types described above is characteristic of limited-quantity (jobbing) operations. In the making of molds which are required in very large quantities, but which are unsuited by reason of their size or shape for machine molding, hand molders without diversified qualifications are frequently employed. This type of worker prepares the single type of mold which he has learned to make. Although the mold itself may be quite intricate, the job is greatly simplified because it is repetitive. The less-skilled molder often performs all the steps of making a mold, but a journeyman molder must be provided to supervise groups of these workers. The exercise of judgment in such operations as gating and finishing the mold may be delegated to this supervisor. In another type of molding method, gating and finishing are performed by qualified molders, called "mold finishers," employed for this specialty, and molds up to but excluding these final and more difficult steps are prepared by less-skilled molders.

In still another type of hand operation, large molds are prepared by a crew, or "gang," of 10 or 12 men headed by an all-round molder. Each of these workers performs a set of specialized duties, such as ramming, under the molder's direction. There may be, in addition, a separate crew which is responsible for the final finishing of each mold.

MACHINE MOLDERS

Machine molders operate one of several types of machines which simplify and speed up the making of a large quantity of identical molds. Each of the various types of machines (briefly described in part 1 of this study [3]) substitutes mechanical operation for one or more of the major steps involved in hand molding, and accordingly reduces the skill required. Machine molders are differentiated on the basis of the functions of the machines that they use.

Molders using simple squeezer, jolt and jar, or roll-over molding machines may perform nearly all the skilled duties of hand molders. However, these machines, and especially the squeezer, are very commonly used in conjunction with mounted patterns and mechanical pattern-withdrawal devices. This combination eliminates from the operator's work such important steps of hand molding as positioning the pattern, hand cutting the gates, and aligning cope and drag sections of the pattern and mold. Sand-slinger machines are operated by semiskilled specialists, not properly classed as molders since they perform no other steps in molding.

The basic duties of a machine molder consist mainly of assembling the flask and pattern on the machine table, filling the flask with sand, and actuating the machine by the properly timed use of its control levers and pedals. Any additional duties of a machine molder are determined by his qualifications and by the manner in which the molding department is organized in the foundry in which he works.

The operator of a molding machine may be a qualified journeyman molder who requires little supervision, in which case he sets up and adjusts the machine for each job, sets cores, and gates and finishes

[3] See Monthly Labor Review, December 1945 (p. 1112).

his own molds. More commonly, however, the machine molder lacks these skills, so that his duties are limited mainly to operating the machine, which another worker, either a qualified molder or a maintenance employee of the foundry, adjusts for him. Skilled mold finishers receive the partly completed molds as they come from the machines and perform the finishing operations.

Qualifications and Training

A 4-year apprenticeship, or its equivalent in on-the-job training, is normally required to qualify as an all-round (journeyman) molder.

The molder apprentice works under the close supervision of journeymen who instruct him in the skills of the craft. About half of the apprenticeship training is devoted directly to molding. Working closely with a journeyman molder, the apprentice begins with simple tasks, such as shoveling sand, and gradually takes on more difficult and responsible work, such as ramming molds, withdrawing patterns, and setting cores. He also learns to operate the various types of molding machines used in the foundry. As his training progresses, he makes complete molds, under supervision, beginning with simple shapes and going on to those of increasing complexity. This molding phase of his apprenticeship includes both floor and bench work, and qualifies him for both branches of molding.

In addition to his time spent in learning molding, the apprentice works in other foundry departments in order to develop the diversified knowledge of foundry practice needed by fully qualified molders. He learns sand preparation, melting of metal, and the cleaning and finishing of castings. For a brief period, the apprentice serves in a pattern shop as a helper. He spends considerable time in the coremaking department, and, under many apprentice programs, gets sufficient training to qualify as a skilled coremaker.

The apprentice usually receives, in addition to his shop work, at least 144 hours of classroom instruction each year in such subjects as shop arithmetic, metallurgy, and shop drawing.

It is also possible for a man to develop journeyman skill without apprenticeship or similarly organized form of learning on the job. Molders' helpers sometimes succeed in acquiring informally the various elements of skilled molding, and then seek jobs as journeymen. However, this is a lengthier and less reliable way of learning the trade than apprenticeship. A more common method for the helper to advance to journeyman status is for him to transfer to an apprentice classification, with his previous experience as a helper credited toward the apprenticeship period.

Full-time 1- or 2-year trade-school courses in molding are available in many localities. If the school's equipment is adequate and its instruction of good quality, useful preparation for the molding trade may be provided, in that the trade-school course may be credited toward completion of the molding apprenticeship. However, these schools cannot qualify their students for jobs as journeymen molders without an additional period of work experience.

The less-skilled type of hand molding, in which highly repetitive work is done, requires only a brief training period. "Learners" (either men without previous foundry experience or upgraded foundry

helpers) are assigned to work with a molder engaged in making a particular kind of mold. After 2 to 6 months of this training, the learner is usually competent to make the same mold, or one that is roughly similar, on his own responsibility.

For machine-molding jobs of the more difficult and responsible types, a molding apprenticeship or equivalent training is required. However, machine molding of the less-skilled variety, in which close supervision is provided and finishing is delegated to other workers, is ordinarily learned in 60 to 90 days of on-the-job training.

A molder apprenticeship, or its equivalent, is usually needed to qualify for supervisory jobs and for the skilled specialties, such as mold finishing.

In the past, educational requirements for molders have not been high. Seventy-five percent of the molders (including machine molders) reported in the 1940 Census of Population had no more than a grade-school education. However, educational standards for entry into the occupations have been gradually raised. For a molding apprenticeship, an eighth-grade education is usually the absolute minimum, and many employers specify additional school work up to and including high-school graduation. Eighth-grade schooling, however, still suffices for most jobs as learners of specialized hand or machine molding.

Physical standards for molding jobs are fairly high, taking into account the needs for continual standing and moving about, frequent lifting, and good vision. For hand molding, a high degree of manual dexterity is essential. Since the work is fairly strenuous, even in many kinds of machine molding, very few women are employed as molders.

Negroes are better represented in molding than in most other skilled occupations. In March 1940, they comprised about 8 percent of the employed molders reported in the Census of Population. During the war, upgrading from less-skilled foundry jobs led to an increase in this ratio.

Employment Outlook

During the next few years, a strong demand for molders will be maintained if the anticipated high rate of foundry activity is realized. Although foundry employment as a whole will be slightly below the 1944 peak (on the basis of the estimates made in Part 1 of this study), the number of molders' jobs should approximate that of 1944—when about 75,000 molders were employed.[4] This is explained by the differences in employment outlook among the major classes of foundries and in their relative utilization of molders. It is expected that gray-iron foundries, in which the ratio of molders to other workers is comparatively high, will substantially expand employment in 1946–47 over their wartime requirements. On the other hand, the postwar

[4] The estimate of 75,000 molders is based on data obtained by the Bureau's Wage Analysis Division in its occupational wage-rate surveys and on unpublished Selective Service occupational registration data for 1942–43, adjusted for under-coverage and the increase in foundry employment between 1942–43 and 1944. There is, of course, a considerable discrepancy between this estimate and the 87,624 molders in the labor force as of March 1940 shown by the Census of Population. (The census total is made up of 75,904 employed, except on public emergency work; 3,520 on public emergency work; and 8,200 experienced persons seeking work.) However, it is probable that the census figures are inflated by the inclusion of a large number of foundry workers other than molders. The smaller total is based on narrower definitions of the occupation and is therefore better suited to the purpose of this study.

drop in aluminum and magnesium casting, accounting for much of the anticipated decrease in foundry employment generally, will not greatly affect the total number of molders needed, since the ratio of molders to other workers in these foundries has been relatively low.

Although the general level of foundry employment constitutes the most important single factor affecting the outlook for molders, there are, in addition, a number of other considerations which influence employment prospects. These include the supply of molders, the probable volume of replacement demand, and technological developments affecting employment and skill requirements.

SUPPLY OF MOLDERS

In considering the number of persons likely to seek molding jobs, it is necessary first to distinguish the various degrees of skill represented by those included under the general heading of "molder." As previously indicated, three fairly definite skill classifications emerge.

First, there are the journeymen molders, mainly employed in bench or floor molding in job foundries, but also used in supervisory or skilled specialist jobs in production operations. This is a relatively small group, and one to which few workers have been added during recent years. In the war period, the training of apprentices was restricted by the operation of the draft. Moreover, this curtailment followed a long period in which the training of molder apprentices was at extremely low levels, reflecting both the depressed condition of metalworking industries during the thirties and the long-run trend toward the mechanization of molding. The rapid wartime expansion of steel and nonferrous-metal casting spread thin the limited supply of journeymen molders, and necessitated the training of a large class of hand molders of specialized, more limited skill.

In spite of brief and specialized training, the less-skilled hand molders in many cases have greatly increased their skill and versatility in the course of their wartime experience. As a result, many of these workers will be able to get jobs as journeymen during a period in which the supply of all-round molders remains short, and thus will constitute a real addition to the skilled-molder labor force.

Machine molders (in the sense of workers qualified only as operators of molding machines, and excluding journeymen working at machine molding) have been increasing in numbers over a period of many years, reflecting the substitution of machine molding for hand operations and the gradual break-down of skilled jobs into less-skilled specialties. Wartime expansion of foundry production, as well as the scarcity of qualified journeymen, gave impetus to this growth of machine molding, which has, in turn, augmented the supply of experienced machine molders.

In evaluating the supply situation for molders, it is also necessary to consider the transferability of workers among types of foundries and among important foundry areas. In general, it is not difficult for a worker experienced in making molds for one kind of metal to shift to the making of a comparable type of mold for another metal. However, a short period of readjustment is usually required, especially in transfers between steel casting and gray-iron casting.

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Wartime increase in the supply of molders has occurred mainly in the same general areas in which foundry work will be most important in the postwar years. In some communities within these areas, however, there will be an oversupply of molders; in others, a shortage. Many molders, especially the less skilled, in the localities in which there is a surplus, will be reluctant to move to other cities and will seek different types of work instead. As a result, there will be some net reduction in the total supply of molders.

Demobilization of the armed forces will not have any especially significant effect on supply, in contrast to the situation in certain other metal trades. Relatively few journeymen molders were drafted, since the large majority of these men were over military age. On the other hand, there is a somewhat larger group of younger and less-skilled men with some molding experience who will return from military service. The services have trained few, if any, men as molders.

REPLACEMENT DEMAND

Owing to the relatively advanced age of the molding labor force, the replacement of those who die or retire should of itself provide an important source of demand for new workers in the next 5 to 10 years. In 1940, according to the Census of Population, the median age of employed molders was about 42 years, and 15 percent were over 54 years of age. On the basis of census age data, it is estimated that the average death and retirement rate for molders will exceed 1,500 annually between 1940 and 1950. Since many molders, like other workers, have postponed retirement during the war, the actual rate during the next few years will probably be somewhat greater.

However, the census age distribution and the resulting estimate apply to all types of molders. For the journeyman group alone a still higher replacement rate is indicated, since these workers are known to be considerably older, on the average, than the other categories of molders. On the other hand, wartime additions to the supply of molders below the journeyman level of skill have included mainly younger workers; and thus replacement demand owing to death and retirement should operate at a lower rate for this group.

Need for replacement is also created by the transfer of workers from foundries to other lines of employment. As few journeymen molders leave their occupations, not many jobs can be expected from this source. At the lower levels of skill in molding, however, moving to other kinds of work is a more important factor; for this reason, actual replacement requirements will exceed considerably the volume estimated on the basis of death and retirement.

TECHNOLOGICAL TRENDS AFFECTING EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK

It was shown in part 1 of this study that numerous and extensive technological developments have occurred in molding, and that these changes have tended to increase output per molder and, at the same time, to reduce the skill required. It has also been indicated that the long-run prospects are for continuation and intensification of this trend. These developments iuclude, primarily, the greater use of

machine molding, permanent molds, centrifugal casting, and improved pattern equipment. In addition, there is the possibility that investment casting will make some inroads into sand casting. During the next few years, the effects of these changes may not be substantial; over a longer period they will become a highly significant element in the outlook for molders, in that they will greatly affect the ratio of molders to other foundry workers and will thus in large part determine demand in this occupation. However, the mechanization of limited-quantity operations will proceed much more slowly; therefore jobbing foundries will continue to provide an important source of employment for all-round hand molders.

Another major technological development affecting occupational opportunities has been the substitution of semiskilled specialists for journeymen by breaking down the molding process into a number of specialized jobs. Owing to the shortage of all-round molders, this practice gathered momentum during the war and led to a significant reduction in the ratio of journeymen molders to other foundry workers.

In spite of the fact that actual skill requirements in molding have been and will continue to be reduced, the tendency will be to use journeymen molders for mechanized molding operations. The advantages of employing them for relatively specialized jobs are fairly substantial. As molding-machine operators, journeymen require a minimum of supervision. They can set up their own work, are able to shift readily from one type of mold to another, and can perform all the steps of finishing the molds made on their machines. In foundries where semiskilled specialists—hand or machine—continue to perform most of the operations in preparing molds, some journeymen will still be needed for supervisory jobs and for such skilled specialties as mold finishing. Even in permanent-mold casting, in which skill requirements are minimized, a few journeymen are required—some to supervise permanent-mold operations and others to cast the permanent molds which are used.

The impact of technological change will be greatest on the large groups of specialized hand molders trained during recent years. The types of molds made by these workers are most susceptible to the extension of machine molding and other mechanized methods.

The trend toward greater use of machine molding, tending to increase the number of machine-molding jobs, will be offset by improvements in machine molding which restrict employment gains by increasing output per worker.

EMPLOYMENT PROSPECTS FOR MOLDERS

Taking into account all important supply and demand factors, the future opportunities in molding, both for those now in the occupation and for those who may enter it, appear to be as noted below, for the various grades of molders.

(1) *Journeymen molders* will be in the best position. As a result of their present scarcity, their adaptability to mechanized as well as hand operations, and the anticipated volume of replacement needs, the demand for such molders should substantially exceed the supply for at least several years. Thus, employment opportunities for experienced journeymen should be plentiful, and there should also be numerous

openings for newly trained journeymen. During the next 4 years, however, while young workers who now enter the occupation as apprentices are still in training, many specialized hand molders will probably succeed in rising to the journeyman level. Competition with this group will tend to limit somewhat the opportunities of the newly trained journeymen.

To the extent that journeymen molders are available, they will probably be hired for the less-skilled, but often well-paid, specialized jobs, as well as for all-round work. Moreover, supervisory positions in molding will continue to be filled from the journeyman ranks.

Opportunities for young workers to obtain molder apprenticeships should be numerous in the immediate future, reflecting the growing feeling among foundry employers that a revival of apprentice training is needed, in view of the depleted supply of journeymen. In addition, apprenticeship will probably be expanded under the veterans' training provisions of the GI bill of rights.

In the longer-run period, the anticipated gradual, although moderate, decline in foundry activity from the high levels of the immediate postwar years, combined with rising output per man-hour in molding as a result of technological change, will reduce the number of jobs for journeymen molders. At the same time, expanded apprentice training and upgrading may relieve the formerly short supply of journeymen. However, in view of continuing deaths and retirements, the drop in demand should not be sharp enough, nor the probable increase in supply sufficiently great, to cause unemployment of workers already established as journeymen molders.

(2) *Less-skilled hand molders* with experience have favorable employment prospects for the immediate future, although much less so than journeymen. The number of such jobs will be slightly below the wartime peak, but demand and supply will probably be roughly balanced, since these less-skilled workers often transfer to other lines of employment. For several years there will be openings for a limited number of men without previous experience in molding. However, the number of these opportunities will be very greatly diminished when and if fully qualified molders become available.

Continuing technological developments and the possible increase in the supply of journeymen in the long run may seriously curtail employment opportunities for those who remain at this skill level. However, such workers—and there will be many—who succeed during the next few years in acquiring the necessary broad experience will compete on roughly even terms with the newly trained journeymen.

(3) *Operators of molding machines* with experience have immediate employment prospects roughly comparable to those of the less-skilled hand molders. Although the actual number of machine-molding jobs is expected to be slightly below the wartime level, withdrawals from the occupation will probably reduce the supply and will thus permit the absorption of a limited number of new workers.

In the longer run, employment in machine molding should be fairly stable, although most vacancies for these jobs will be filled by journeymen molders if enough are trained. However, the future growth of machine molding will provide continued employment for the more experienced and efficient of the operators, even though they may not be qualified as journeymen.

Earnings and Working Conditions

HOURLY EARNINGS [5]

Molders are among the best-paid foundry workers. In January 1945, average straight-time hourly pay in independent nonferrous-metal foundries was $1.35 for floor molders, $1.22 for bench molders, and $1.29 for machine molders. In independent ferrous-metal foundries (excluding cast-iron-pipe foundries) average straight-time earnings were $1.17 for floor molders, $1.14 for bench molders, and $1.31 for machine molders. Hourly earnings in "captive" (integrated) foundries of the machinery industries averaged $1.15 for floor molders, $1.10 for bench molders, and $1.19 for machine molders. The above rates are for males only; female machine molders, of whom there was a small number, received considerably less. The higher averages shown for machine molders reflect the fact that most of these workers are employed in the higher-wage establishments and are, in addition, mainly on incentive pay. The beginning rate for molder apprentices is usually between a third and a half that of journeymen.

Earnings of molders in particular areas vary markedly from the general averages quoted above. Average straight-time hourly rates in nine of the more important foundry cities are shown for purposes of illustration in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Average Straight-Time Hourly Earnings [1] for Male Molders in Independent Foundries in Nine Cities, January 1945*

City	Independent ferrous-metal foundries (excluding cast-iron pipe foundries)			Independent nonferrous-metal foundries		
	Bench molders	Floor molders	Machine molders	Bench molders	Floor molders	Machine molders
Buffalo	$1.20	$1.25	$1.38	$1.18	$1.44	$1.24
Chicago	1.24	1.24	1.42	1.20	1.24	1.48
Cleveland	1.30	1.38	1.48	1.27	1.58	1.37
Detroit	1.35	1.47	1.57	1.37	1.37	1.25
Los Angeles	1.28	1.30	1.51	1.33	1.33	1.34
Milwaukee	1.31	1.29	1.43	1.15	1.46	1.47
Newark	1.19	1.22	1.31	1.22	1.29	1.13
Philadelphia-Camden	1.26	1.27	1.30	1.27	1.39	1.20
Pittsburgh	1.15	1.12	1.22	1.23	1.37	1.26

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.

In addition, there are wide variations in earnings within a given area, depending on such factors as unionization, skill requirements, and the method of wage payment (whether time or piece rates).

WORKING CONDITIONS

The working environment of molders varies greatly among individual foundries. Some molding departments compare favorably with

[5] These data are based on a survey conducted by the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch. Further information on wages as well as on wage and related practices in ferrous- and nonferrous-metal foundries is provided in publications of the Wage Analysis Branch of the Bureau. Local summaries are now available for selected cities of 100,000 or more; regional and national summaries will be provided in two forthcoming bulletins, (1) Wage Structure: Foundries, 1945, and (2) Occupational Wage Relationship: Foundries, 1945.

metalworking operations as a whole in such respects as frequency and severity of accidents, incidence of industrial disease, and plant cleanliness, ventilation, and temperature. In others, safety and comfort are far below the average in metalworking industries. Because of this wide range, generalizations on molders' working conditions are likely to be somewhat misleading. However, with this limitation in view, the safety record in molding may be examined.

Hazards.[6]—Table 2 compares the 1942 injury record of molding departments and all foundry departments with that of the entire group of industries producing iron and steel and their products, excluding machinery. It should be noted that these rates do not represent present foundry hazards, as data for 1942 (the only year for which this type of information is available) reflect intensified wartime operations, as well as the influx of inexperienced workers. Since that time, there has been a considerable decrease in the incidence of injuries in foundries. Moreover, a more favorable aspect of molders' safety is indicated by the fact that no disabling injuries occurred during 1942 in 63 percent of the nonferrous-metal job foundries, 24 percent of the ferrous-metal job foundries, and 29 percent of the nonferrous-metal job foundries.

TABLE 2.—*Injury Frequency and Severity Rates*[1] *in Molding Departments and All Departments of 2,188 Foundries, and in the Iron and Steel Industry Group, 1942*

Item	Molding departments (including shake out)		All departments	
	Frequency rate	Severity rate	Frequency rate	Severity rate
Foundries:[2]				
Ferrous job foundries	59.7	3.7	52.0	3.1
Nonferrous job foundries	34.2	2.1	35.3	1.6
Foundries other than job	43.0	3.1	37.3	3.2
Iron and steel industry group[3]			27.7	2.0

[1] The frequency rate refers to average number of disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked; the severity rate is the average number of days lost per thousand employee-hours worked.
[2] Includes both captive and independent types.
[3] Producing iron and steel and their products, excluding machinery.

Spilled or splashed molten metal is a major source of accidents in molding; even though molders do not ordinarily do the actual pouring, they are usually near enough to be endangered. Hand movement of heavy materials may result in sprains and in crushed fingers or toes. Objects dropped from overhead cranes are responsible for some of the more serious accidents. Falls may be caused by tools, scrap metal, or other objects left lying about.

Molders may be exposed to the danger of silicosis—an industrial disease caused by the inhalation of silica dust and resulting in damage to lung tissue, thereby weakening the respiratory system and in some cases leading to tuberculosis and pneumonia. However, the incidence of silicosis is actually quite low, and it is relatively minor as a source of disability. (In 65 ferrous-metal foundries surveyed, all

[6] Industrial hazards data used in this section are drawn primarily from published studies of the Bureau's Industrial Hazards Division. For a detailed analysis of safety in foundries, reference should be made to Injuries and Accident Causes in the Foundry Industry, 1942 (the Bureau's Bulletin No. 805).

industrial diseases, including silicosis, accounted for substantially less than 1 percent of all disabling injuries occurring in 1942.)

The hazards associated with molding are in large measure preventable by such means as good "housekeeping" (the orderly arrangement of materials and tools) providing special safety equipment for certain operations, furnishing machinery for heavy lifting, and training workers in safe practices. The danger of silicosis may be largely eliminated by the installation of dust-control equipment. In recent years, substantial progress has been made in these respects, especially in dust control.

Other conditions of work.—Smoke and fumes often constitute a nuisance in molding departments, although where adequate ventilating systems have been installed, discomfort from these sources has been minimized. Heat may be excessive near the melting units, especially in warm weather, and inadequate in other parts of the establishment during the winter. Better regulation of temperature, however, has been achieved in many foundries. Although cleanliness in molding is difficult because of the extensive use of sand in the casting process, good housekeeping has in many cases kept this problem under control and, in addition, numerous foundries now provide showers for their employees.

The large majority of molders are union members. The principal labor organizations in this field include the International Molders and Foundry Workers Union of North America (AFL), the United Steelworkers of America (CIO), and the United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (CIO).

The scheduled workweek for molders, prior to the war, was typically about 40 hours. During the war, hours in most foundries were lengthened to a schedule of 48 or more per week. It is probable that a 40-hour week will again be customary in the postwar years.

In peacetime, there is some seasonal unemployment of molders. The degree of seasonal change in employment differs among foundries, depending mainly on the industry or industries providing the principal market for the castings output of a given establishment. For example, the amount of seasonal variation in foundries making automotive castings is influenced in large part by the seasonality of automobile production. In general, molding is comparable to most other metalworking occupations in regularity of employment.

Postwar Policies

Employment Act of 1946

ADOPTION of the Employment Act of 1946 [1] was a commitment by the Government to take "measures necessary for a healthy economy, one that provides opportunities for those able, willing, and seeking to work," according to the statement made by the President in signing the legislation on February 20.

The law contains the following "declaration of policy":

It is the continuing policy and responsibility of the Federal Government to use all practicable means consistent with its needs and obligations and other essential considerations of national policy, with the assistance and cooperation of industry, agriculture, labor, and State and local governments, to coordinate and utilize all its plans, functions, and resources for the purpose of creating and maintaining, in a manner calculated to foster and promote free competitive enterprise and the general welfare, conditions under which there will be afforded useful employment opportunities, including self-employment, for those able, willing, and seeking to work, and to promote maximum employment, production, and purchasing power.

The President has the duty of formulating programs to carry out the purposes of the law. To facilitate cooperation between the Executive and Congress in fulfilling the objectives stated above, provision was made for the establishment of a joint Congressional Committee consisting of seven members each of the Senate and the House of Representatives. A Council of Economic Advisers was also provided for. The Council is to be in the Executive Office of the President, and, according to the Chief Executive, will be an important addition to the facilities available for preparing economic policies and programs.

Economic Report

Much of the activity under the Employment Act is to be directed toward making known employment conditions and needs by means of an Economic Report to be made by the President. Such a report must be transmitted to Congress within 60 days after the beginning of each regular session, starting with the year 1947. It is required to contain information on—

(1) the levels of employment, production, and purchasing power obtaining in the United States and such levels needed to carry out the policy declared in section 2; [2]

(2) current and foreseeable trends in the levels of employment, production, and purchasing power;

(3) a review of the economic program of the Federal Government and a review of economic conditions affecting employment in the United States or any considerable portion thereof during the preceding year and of their effect upon employment, production, and purchasing power; and

[1] Public Law No. 304 (79th Cong. 2d sess.), approved February 20, 1946.

[2] Section 2 of the law declares the policy of the Government with regard to the promotion of maximum employment, production, and purchasing power.

(4) a program for carrying out the policy declared in section 2, together with such recommendations for legislation as he may deem necessary or desirable.

Supplementary reports may be made to Congress by the President, including such recommendations as he may deem necessary or desirable to achieve the policy of affording employment opportunities. When transmitted to Congress, the Economic Report and supplementary reports are to be referred to the Joint Committee to be created under the terms of the legislation.

Council of Economic Advisers

Membership in the specially created Council of Economic Advisers is to consist of three persons appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate. Each member is to receive a salary of $15,000 a year. The duties and functions of the Council are as follows:

(1) To assist and advise the President in the preparation of the Economic Report;

(2) To gather timely and authoritative information concerning economic developments and economic trends, both current and prospective, to analyze and interpret such information in the light of the policy declared in section 2 for the purpose of determining whether such developments and trends are interfering, or are likely to interfere, with the achievement of such policy, and to compile and submit to the President studies relating to such developments and trends;

(3) To appraise the various programs and activities of the Federal Government in the light of the policy declared in section 2 for the purpose of determining the extent to which such programs and activities are contributing, and the extent to which they are not contributing, to the achievement of such policy, and to make recommendations to the President with respect thereto;

(4) To develop and recommend to the President national economic policies to foster and promote free competitive enterprise, to avoid economic fluctuations or to diminish the effects thereof, and to maintain employment, production, and purchasing power;

(5) To make and furnish such studies, reports thereon, and recommendations with respect to matters of Federal economic policy and legislation as the President may request.

In the exercise of its duties, the Council may establish advisory bodies and may consult with such representatives of industry, agriculture, labor, consumers, State and local governments, and other groups as is deemed advisable. The Council must, to the fullest extent possible, utilize the services, facilities, and information of other Government agencies as well as of private research agencies, to avoid duplication of effort and expense.

Joint Committee on the Economic Report

The seven members each of the Senate and House of Representatives, who are to make up the Joint Committee on the Economic Report provided for by the Employment Act, are to be chosen by the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives, respectively. As nearly as may be feasible, the party representation must reflect the relative membership of the majority and minority parties in the two chambers of Congress. The functions of the Joint Committee are—

(1) To make a continuing study of matters relating to the Economic Report;
(2) To study means of coordinating programs in order to further the policy of this act; and
(3) As a guide to the several committees of the Congress dealing with legislation relating to the Economic Report, not later than May 1 of each year (beginning with the year 1947) to file a report with the Senate and the House of Representatives containing its findings and recommendations with respect to each of the main recommendations made by the President in the Economic Report, and from time to time to make such other reports and recommendations to the Senate and House of Representatives as it deems advisable.

Vacancies in the membership of the Joint Committee are not to affect the power of the remaining members to execute the functions of that body. Either the Joint Committee or any duly authorized subcommittee may hold hearings.

Financing of Operations

To enable the Council of Economic Advisers to carry on its work, the act authorizes the appropriation of necessary sums; a limit of $345,000 per fiscal year was fixed for the salaries of the members and of officers and employees. For the operations of the Joint Committee on the Economic Report, the law authorizes $50,000 for each fiscal year, or as much thereof as may be necessary.

Requirements for Peacetime Civil-Service Employment [1]

DURING the half year following VJ-day, several changes were made in the eligibility requirements for United States civil-service positions, culminating with the discontinuance of war-service appointments and the temporary employment of workers pending the selection of candidates for permanent positions by open competitive examinations. In authorizing these changes, the President acted to place the civil service on a peacetime footing. He stated (in Executive Order No. 9691 of February 4, 1946) that the need no longer existed for the war-service regulations prescribed pursuant to Executive Order No. 9063 of February 16, 1942, whereby members of the general public were not allowed to qualify for permanent civil-service status while millions of persons of military age were in the armed forces and thus barred from competition.

Two major categories of changes were made, those affecting ex-service personnel specifically, and those applying to all persons who may wish to have a career in governmental employment.

Changes Affecting Veterans

Under the terms of a Civil Service Commission circular issued on August 16, 1945, all civil-service examinations were closed; applications were accepted only from persons with military preference who

[1] Sources: Federal Register, October 23, 1945, and February 6, 7, and 12, 1946; Veterans Employment Service News Letter, August, October, and November–December 1945; and information supplied by Cecil M. Nichols, U. S. Civil Service Commission.

had the right to have examinations reopened.[2] The provision of the circular which barred acceptance of applications from the general public stated:

> The Commission has discontinued receipt of applications for entry into the service except from persons with military preference entitled to have examinations reopened for them. * * * If it later becomes necessary to announce any examination in order to meet the needs of the service, this will be done.

In accepting applications for reopened examinations from nondisabled veterans, the Commission accepted them only from veterans of World War II, who had missed the opportunity to qualify for civil-service positions owing to their service in the armed forces. In doing this, the Commission was following the practice established after World War I, which remained in effect until February 1, 1921.

Executive Order No. 9644, signed October 19, 1945, authorized the Civil Service Commission to confer a classified (competitive) civil-service status upon disabled veterans serving under war-service indefinite appointments (not limited to 1 year or less). The order permits retention in Federal service of veterans who establish the present existence of service-connected disabilities of not less than 10 percent and are satisfactorily serving under war-service indefinite appointments.[3]

Resumption of Open Competitive Examinations

Opportunity for veterans and nonveterans to compete for permanent appointments in the Federal civil service was afforded by Executive Order No. 9691, issued on February 4, 1946, directing the Civil Service Commission to resume operations under the civil-service rules and authorizing the adoption of special regulations during the transitional period. The making of war-service appointments (under Executive Order No. 9063) was discontinued, as it was deemed to be "in the interest of economy and efficiency that positions in the classified (competitive) civil service be filled in times of normal competition on a permanent basis by the best-qualified persons as determined through competitive examination."

The Civil Service Commission was directed (by Executive Order No. 9691) to resume, as rapidly as possible, the announcement of open competitive examinations and the establishment of registers of eligibles for certification for regular probational appointment to fill vacancies in the classified service and to replace employees who lack permanent tenure.

Pending the establishment of registers of eligibles as a result of competitive examinations, the Commission was empowered to authorize departments and agencies to make temporary appointments. This made it possible to retain many war-service appointees on a temporary basis. The President ordered that in making such appointments, there should be no discrimination because of race, creed, color,

[2] Following the date on which the receipt of applications for an examination is discontinued, the examination is said to be "closed," and applications are no longer accepted from the general public. Special examinations conducted in response to applications from persons granted military preference are referred to as "reopened examinations."

For many years, disabled vererans have had the right of having examinations reopened. Applications for reopened examinations are accepted from disabled veterans, their wives, and the widows of veterans, at any time.

[3] Unless otherwise limited, appointments under the war service regulations were for "not to exceed the duration of the war and 6 months." War-service appointees do not, by virtue of such appointment, acquire a classified (competitive) civil-service status. They are among the first to be released in reductions in force.

or national origin. Preference must be given in the following order: (1) To qualified persons entitled to a 10-point preference under the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944, (2) to qualified persons entitled to 5-point preference under that act, and (3) to qualified former Federal employees.

As soon as practicable after the establishment of the new registers of eligibles, employees without permanent tenure were to be replaced in the following order: (1) War-service and other temporary appointees who fail to compete, or to qualify, in the appropriate open competitive examination, and (2) all other such appointees unless they are (a) reached (on the register) and selected for probational appointment, or (b) recommended for, and granted, a classified (competitive) civil-service status under certain conditions explained below.

After the establishment of a register of eligibles, a person on that register who is serving under an appointment not limited to 1 year or less may be given a classified status in his job by the Civil Service Commission upon the recommendation of the employing agency, provided (1) he is serving in a position which would normally be filled from that register, (2) the lowest rating reached in accordance with the regular order of certification does not exceed his own by more than 5 points, and (3) he has had at least 1 year of continuous service under his appointment, including military service. A nonveteran cannot be granted status in this manner until all preference eligibles higher on the same register have been appointed or given appropriate consideration.

The Civil Service Commission is required to submit, by July 1, 1946, recommendations for a general revision of the civil-service rules, including schedule A, which lists positions excepted from the classified service and to which appointment may be made without examination.

In compliance with Executive Order No. 9691, the Commission, on February 5, 1946, prescribed temporary regulations, which supersede the war-service regulations.[4] Important provisions are as follows:

(1) Competition is restricted in certain types of positions to persons entitled to military preference, as long as such persons are available.

(2) More extensive utilization of boards of United States civil-service examiners outside of Washington, D. C., is contemplated. In addition, civil-service committees of expert examiners will be established in Washington to perform examining work in professional, scientific, and technical fields.

(3) Persons appointed temporarily, pending the establishment of appropriate registers, are not subject to the Civil Service Retirement Act; they cannot be given automatic within-grade salary advancements, and may not be transferred between agencies noncompetitively, but may be promoted from grade to grade within the same department or agency.

On February 8 (by Executive Order No. 9695) the President revoked an earlier order (No. 9243 of September 12, 1942) providing for the transfer and release of Federal personnel, provided that this action should not be construed to affect any reemployment rights previously acquired under Executive Orders Nos. 8973 and 9067 and Directives X and XVI issued by the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. The Civil Service Commission was empowered to take

[4] These temporary regulations were printed in the Federal Register of February 7, 1946.

action necessary to preserve any reemployment rights which may have been acquired under the said orders and directives.

Military Release and Draft of Special Classes [1]

DECISIONS were made in February 1946 affecting the release of a very limited number of key men and women from the armed forces for urgent reconversion activities, and for lowering the physical standards for induction under Selective Service.

Release of key personnel.—The Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion announced, on February 14, that the Federal Interagency Committee on Manpower Shortages had completed arrangements under which the Government would certify applications for the release of two special classifications of personnel. These are (1) college or university teachers needed by educational institutions for instruction of veterans under the GI bill of rights; [2] and (2) key industrial personnel required in critical industries in which low production impedes the reconversion program.

Provision was made for the consideration of applications for release under Army and Navy regulations governing military personnel which have been in effect for some time. The requests must be filed with the appropriate certified Federal agency and must originate with the employers or colleges, and not with persons in the armed forces. The certifying agency for industrial personnel is the Civilian Production Administration and that for teachers the U. S. Office of Education. Final decisions are made by the War and Navy Departments.

At the time the announcement was made, the industrial personnel for whom release would be considered was limited to experienced managerial, supervisory, and key production workers, for employment in the following industries: Brick and structural tile, clay sewer pipe, gray iron castings, malleable castings, Northwest Area lumber (including logging, veneer, plywood, flooring, and millwork), and cast-iron soil pipe.

Modified standards for military induction.—To make up shortages in inductions following VJ-day, the Army lowered the physical requirements for men of draft age (namely between 18 and 25 years, inclusive), according to announcement by the Army on February 15. Men having the following physical defects, who were previously considered to be unqualified for military service, are to be accepted for induction into the armed forces:

> Lateral deviation of the spine from the midline of more than 1 inch and less than 2 inches; history of thyroidectomy for toxic goiter with complete absence of active manifestations for 2 years; hernia, inguinal, which has not descended into the scrotum; hernia, femoral; individuals with local paralyses such as those due to poliomyelitis or nonprogressive disease of the peripheral nerves of such degree that they disqualify for general military service but have not interfered with locomotion and have not prevented the individual from successfully following a useful vocation in civil life; stuttering or stammering of a degree disqualifying for general military service but which has not prevented the man from successfully following a useful vocation in civil life; mild chronic neuroses; moderate transient psychoneurotic reaction; and mental deficiencies, mild in degree.

[1] Information is from press releases of the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion, February 14, 1946, and War Department, Bureau of Public Relations, Press Branch, February 15, 1946.

[2] For a summary of the education and training provisions see page 595 of this issue.

Employment Conditions

Labor Passages in President's Message to Congress [1]

REFERRING to labor-management disputes as the chief obstacle in averting the dangers of inflation and deflation, the President in his annual message on the state of the Nation, January 3, 1946, asked Congress to act promptly to adopt "certain fact-finding procedures which * * * can go a long way toward meeting these problems." He also stressed the need for Congressional action on other domestic problems during 1946, the country's "year of decision." The pressures for inflation were described as many times stronger than those which caused inflation and then depression after World War I. A high volume of production, resulting in a prompt supply of marketable goods in quantity, was described as the greatest safeguard. Specific types of protective legislation, which he believed to be needed, were cited.

Settlement of Labor Disputes

The legislative recommendation on the settlement of labor disputes that had been made to Congress on December 3, 1945, was restated and urged again, namely a measure to permit the Government "to obtain all the facts and report its findings to the country" with regard to disputes in the few Nation-wide industries in which a work stoppage would vitally affect the national public interest. Such action would take place "after all other efforts had failed." Provision of a 30-day "cooling-off period" would give a fact-finding board a reasonable chance to function before a strike is actually called. The President also recommended that the power of subpena be given to the fact-finding board to enable it to get the pertinent facts. It had been the President's responsibility, he stated, to make proposals, when the Labor-Management Conference held in late 1945 [2] failed to bring about a solution of industrial-relations questions.

Without legislation, fact-finding boards cannot function so efficiently, the President added.

Maintenance of Price Level

Of equal importance with the settlement of management-labor disputes, he stated, "is the question of keeping prices on an even keel" during reconversion. Until goods are supplied in sufficient quantity to meet demand, the Government's power must be used to keep prices

[1] White House, Press release of January 3, 1946.
[2] For a summary of the conference, see Monthly Labor Review, January 1946 (p. 37).

down. All are anxious to eliminate controls as rapidly as possible, but price and rent controls must be maintained for many months if the Nation is to have a steady and stable economy. Emphasizing that "the line must be held," the President stated that he would request extension of the price-control legislation in advance of its expiration date on June 30, 1946, as well as other necessary laws, including the Second War Powers Act.

Other Legislation

Other legislation mentioned as essential for immediate adoption was "a satisfactory full employment" law.[3] Also, although unemployment had not reached anything like the level which was feared, the President wished to have Congress make provision for supplementing the unemployment-insurance benefits provided by the different States. Congress was asked to outlaw by permanent statute un-American discrimination in employment, and to raise substantially the minimum wage rates provided by law. The President pointed out that housing is one of the country's most difficult problems, and he estimated the immediate and urgent need at about 5 million additional dwelling units, excluding replacements.

Six Months' Operation of New York Law Against Discrimination[4]

THAT the economic and social problems arising from discriminatory employment practices because of race, creed, color, or country of national origin can be solved under the existing New York Act is the conclusion reached by the New York State Commission Against Discrimination, after 6 months' experience under that legislation.

The chairman of the commission directed attention to a lessening of hostility, and stated that of the 189 cases referred to that body in the period under review, 140 had been adjusted and 47 were pending. In none of the adjusted cases had it been necessary to resort to the extreme stage of formal hearings; no cases had failed of settlement in the conciliation and conference stage. According to the chairman, Henry C. Turner—

> The commission realizes that the number of complaints, however, is no index as to the amount of discrimination now present in the State, * * *. To meet the problem fully, we realize the importance of the educational work to be done by the commission. We are proceeding actively in selecting councils in the various areas to handle the local discriminatory practices. The Buffalo council, headed by Judge Charles Sears, which functioned so successfully as a war council, has now been enlarged to cover peacetime activity, with the result that now it is composed of 19 representative citizens.

The chairman added that the whole employment field, including labor unions, public utilities, and all kinds of industries, will come under the scrutiny of the commission.

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[3] The employment legislation adopted is summarized on page 586 of this issue.
[4] New York. State Commission Against Discrimination. Press release, New York, January 2, 1946.

In addition to the enforcement of the law, and as part of the program of education, the commission notified more than 11,000 employers of over 100 workers each of the law's provisions and "requested them to post printed notices of their intent to comply." An offer was also made by the commission to review the employment practices of these employers. More than 500 employers had sent their job application forms and other material to the commission for examination; in connection with the 465 reviews already made, such changes were required as to insure that veterans and others applying for jobs will not in future have to make their applications on forms containing discriminatory questions. In the investigations of specified unlawful employment practices which were not the outcome of formal complaints, the commission reviewed 51 cases and made appropriate recommendations.

Many associations and groups of employers had met with the commissioners; thousands of copies of the law had been distributed, replies had been made to numerous inquiries, and more than 60 speeches had been delivered by members of the commission to groups interested in its functioning.

The chairman and other members of the commission conferred with the mayors of San Francisco and Seattle and with representatives of various State governments desiring to investigate the operation of the law. On December 20, 1945, the chairman made the following statement in Boston before the special committee of the Governor of Massachusetts, which was charged with the drafting of an anti-discrimination bill for that State:

> Many of the fears voiced at the impending passage of the New York law have been proved unfounded. We are not aware of a single instance of any business or industry leaving the State because of this law. As a matter of fact, in some areas more industries are moving in.
>
> Reluctance to obey the law seems based more on fear of loss of trade or good will on the part of the rest of the employees than on individual prejudice. When these fears prove unfounded, the employer often becomes extremely cooperative. In none of the cases heard has the employer proved so recalcitrant that the case has had to go to the last step of a formal hearing. We feel that the fact that so many of the cases have been settled by conference and conciliation augurs well for future accomplishment under the law.

Discharged Veterans

Liberalization of GI Bill of Rights [1]

A LAW amending the GI bill of rights (Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944) [2] approved by the President on December 28, 1945, liberalized the education and training and the loan provisions for veterans of World War II. Administrative powers were strengthened, and ample authority was provided to govern the procurement of artificial limbs and other appliances for ex-servicemen in need of them. Certain provisions concerning benefits for disabled veterans which were included originally in Public Law 16 of 1943, and which had been amended by Public Law 346 of 1944 (the GI bill of rights) were further amended by the act of 1945 referred to above.

Education and Training

Courses of education and training may be taken by persons who served in the active military or naval service on or after September 16, 1940 (with exceptions), provided the veterans start 4 years after either the date of discharge or the termination of the war, whichever is later. Previously the time limit was 2 years. The time within which the facilities may be utilized was extended from 7 years to 9 years after the termination date of the war. By the amendment, veterans were released from the requirement of showing that their education was interrupted by war service. This change struck out the 25-year age limitation which had been utilized as a criterion of the interrupted education. The allowed duration of assisted education or training was made 1 year plus the time on active service, but not to exceed a total of 4 years. Subsistence allowances were raised from $50 to $65 monthly for a veteran without dependents and from $75 to $90 for a veteran with dependents.

In vocational rehabilitation of service-disabled veterans under Public Law 16, the Administrator is empowered (by the 1945 law) to approve courses beyond the 4-year period previously fixed. The time within which the training may be furnished is extended from 6 to 9 years. Monthly payments to the disabled veteran during training, and for 2 months after his employability is determined, were fixed at a minimum of $105 for a veteran without dependents, $115 for a veteran with a dependent, plus $10 for the first child, $7 for each additional child, and $15 for a dependent parent.

[1] Data are from Public Law No. 268 (79th Cong., 1st sess.), approved December 28, 1945; and Veterans Administration Circular No. 10, December 31, 1945.

[2] For a summary of the 1944 legislation (Public Law 346, 78th Cong., 2d sess., approved June 22, 1944), see Monthly Labor Review, August 1944 (p. 383).

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Short, intensive courses were authorized, which may be furnished under contracts with approved institutions, with pro rata acceleration, or foreshortening of the period of eligibility. The cost of any such course was limited to $500. Provision was made for instruction by correspondence, subject to the $500 limitation on payment for such instruction from public funds. No subsistence allowances may be made during such study. The cost of an ordinary school year shall not exceed the $500 allotted by law for tuition, etc., unless the veteran elects to have such excess charged against the total duration of eligibility for educational or training benefit to which he is entitled.

Guaranty of Loans

Material changes were made in the Servicemen's Readjustment Act with regard to the guaranty of loans for homes, farms, and business purposes.

Any loan made by a prescribed lending agency to an eligible veteran within 10 years after the end of the war, in compliance with the terms and conditions of the title, is automatically guaranteed in an amount not to exceed 50 percent of the loan. The former practice of predetermination by the Veterans Administration with regard to such loans is abolished; however, a loan made by a lender who is not supervised by State or Federal agencies must be approved in advance by the Veterans Administration in order to be guaranteed.

The aggregate amount of the guaranty was fixed at not over $2,000 for a non-real-estate loan; not over $4,000 for a real-estate loan; or "a prorated portion thereof on loans of both types or combination thereof." Interest may not exceed 4 percent. Authorization was given to the Administrator to pay an amount equivalent to 4 percent on the amount originally guaranteed in place of an interest payment for the first year. Loans may run for not to exceed 25 years on real estate, 40 years on farm properties, and 10 years on loans for other purposes. A lot may be purchased out of a loan designed to finance home construction.

Industrial Injuries

Industrial Injuries in Manufacturing, Fourth Quarter of 1945

DISABLING injuries in manufacturing plants continued at about the same rate in the fourth quarter of 1945 as in the previous quarter, but the number of injuries was substantially smaller as the size of the working force was cut back from war peak levels and exposure to accidents was reduced. There were more fatal accidents and more serious injuries than in the third quarter, however.

Extending the sharp declines recorded in the second and third quarters of 1945, the estimated number of disabling injuries in manufacturing dropped to approximately 111,000 in the fourth quarter of the year. This represents 17,000 fewer injuries than occurred during the third quarter of 1945 and 42,000 fewer than happened in the fourth comparable quarter of 1944. However, reports from nearly 11,000 establishments indicate that for manufacturing as a whole there were on the average 17.9 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked in the fourth quarter as compared with an average of 18.0 in the third quarter, and with an average of 16.9 in the fourth quarter of 1944.

In spite of the general reduction in the volume of disabling injuries, the number of serious injuries reported during the fourth quarter was somewhat greater than that recorded during the preceding 3 months. Current information indicates that about 550 injuries in the last quarter of the year were fatal, compared with about 500 fatalities in the third quarter. Similarly, it appears that the number of persons who suffered permanent physical impairments rose from about 4,900 in the third quarter to about 5,200 in the fourth quarter.

Full information regarding the final outcome of many of the injuries, which were regarded as temporary disabilities at the time of reporting, will not be available for some time. It is, therefore, impossible to evaluate the total cost of the fourth-quarter injuries at this time. Without any allowance for the time losses which will continue into the future, however, it may be conservatively assumed that the workers who were injured in the last quarter lost at least 2,220,000 man-days of work during that period because of their injuries.

In terms of injury-frequency rates, which measure the hazards of industry much more accurately than do injury totals, the fourth-quarter record differed only slightly from that of the third quarter. Among the 121 industry classifications for which frequency rates for both periods were available, there were 47 for which the two rates differed by less than a single frequency-rate point. For 34 industry

classifications the fourth-quarter frequency rates were from 1 to 5 points higher than the corresponding third-quarter rates; the reverse was true for 29 other classifications. There were, however, a few industry groups for which substantial changes were recorded. These included 17 industry classifications which had reductions of 5 or more points in their frequency rates and 4 which had increases of 5 or more points. Most important among these changes in respect to their effect upon the all-manufacturing average were the reductions in the frequency rates for iron foundries, steel foundries, and planing mills. Each of these three classifications had lower frequency rates in the fourth quarter than in any of the earlier periods of 1945.

The best safety records achieved during 1945 among the 121 industry groups included in the Bureau's quarterly survey were those of the electric-lamp industry, the explosives industry, and the women's and children's clothing industry, for which the year's average frequency rates were, respectively, 4.4, 4.8, and 5.0, according to preliminary reports. In addition to these three industries, there were 19 others which had cumulative frequency rates for 1945 of less than 10. At the other end of the scale there were 4 industry classifications for which the cumulative rates ranged above 40 per million employee-hours. These were: Plywood mills, 40.8; iron foundries, 44.3; combined saw and planing mills, 51.6; and sawmills, 54.5. All of these cumulative rates for the year, however, should be considered as preliminary, subject to later revision as final data become available in the more comprehensive annual survey.

The following table lists the injury-frequency rates for various specific manufacturing classifications during each month of the fourth quarter of 1945, together with averages for the quarter, for the full 12 months of 1945, and for the year 1944.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates [1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, Fourth Quarter of 1945, with Cumulative Rates for 1945

Industry [2]	Fourth quarter, 1945					Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments [3]	Frequency rate [4] for—				Cumulative, Jan.–Dec. 1945 [4]	1944: Annual
		October	November	December	4th quarter		
Apparel:							
Clothing, men's and boy's	416	9.1	11.7	8.8	9.9	8.7	9.2
Clothing, women's and children's	324	3.8	5.2	4.4	4.4	5.0	4.8
Trimmings and fabricated textile products not elsewhere classified	72	21.9	16.8	15.5	18.3	19.5	(5)
Chemicals:							
Compressed and liquefied gases	45	10.5	6.6	13.6	10.1	10.2	(5)
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	78	17.3	14.6	14.7	15.5	16.4	18.6
Explosives	53	5.1	5.7	8.5	6.3	4.8	5.3
Industrial chemicals	176	15.1	15.6	16.3	15.7	13.4	(5)
Paints, varnishes, and colors	66	12.6	13.0	11.2	12.3	15.7	18.3
Plastic materials, except rubber	16	8.9	8.6	8.0	8.5	6.7	(5)
Soap and glycerin	53	7.8	10.3	3.7	7.3	9.8	15.0
Synthetic rubber	23	5.1	4.8	5.0	4.9	5.3	(5)
Synthetic textile fibers	22	7.2	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.0	9.0
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified	77	12.4	14.2	10.6	12.4	15.1	15.7

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates [1] *for Selected Manufacturing Industries, Fourth Quarter of 1945, with Cumulative Rates for 1945*—Continued

Industry [2]	Fourth quarter, 1945					Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments [3]	Frequency rate [4] for—				Cumulative, Jan.–Dec. 1945 [4]	1944: Annual
		October	November	December	4th quarter		
Electrical equipment:							
Automotive electrical equipment	17	16.7	14.2	12.6	14.5	12.1	(5)
Batteries	24	21.7	17.3	25.9	21.4	20.6	(5)
Communication and signaling equipment except radio	27	8.1	5.2	13.2	8.8	6.7	(5)
Electrical appliances	24	11.0	13.0	14.9	13.1	12.9	(5)
Electrical equipment for industrial use	280	9.3	9.1	7.7	8.7	8.7	(5)
Electric lamps (bulbs)	17	2.5	4.2	8.0	4.7	4.4	(5)
Insulated wire and cable	22	17.1	22.8	13.0	17.6	17.2	(5)
Radios and phonographs	149	8.4	7.4	4.3	6.7	7.2	9.2
Electrical equipment, not elsewhere classified	22	9.9	6.8	7.5	8.2	7.5	(5)
Food:							
Baking	27	24.5	17.8	15.2	19.2	19.0	20.2
Canning and preserving	43	16.9	22.1	28.7	21.9	27.0	28.9
Confectionery	7	10.6	12.0	15.4	12.5	16.4	19.0
Dairy products	101	30.4	26.6	27.2	[6] 28.1	[6] 39.6	[6] 29.6
Distilleries	37	15.7	9.3	13.8	12.8	14.1	(5)
Flour, feed, and grain mill products	9	25.2	26.5	21.3	24.5	22.2	31.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	380	35.9	34.7	34.6	35.0	32.5	35.9
Food products, not otherwise classified	29	21.0	20.9	15.2	19.0	16.5	26.3
Furniture and lumber products:							
Furniture, wood	77	31.0	29.3	28.6	29.7	30.6	(5)
Wooden containers	284	42.5	42.4	38.5	41.2	39.1	47.1
Miscellaneous wood products, not elsewhere classified	109	31.1	22.4	29.1	27.5	33.4	32.6
Iron and steel:							
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	49	25.9	18.9	16.8	20.7	23.7	22.9
Cold finished steel	20	(5)	(5)	(5)	29.5	22.4	(5)
Cutlery and edge tools	36	21.9	18.0	17.6	19.2	24.3	28.1
Fabricated structural steel	234	35.7	28.0	25.3	30.0	29.5	35.7
Forgings, iron and steel	133	34.6	28.4	27.4	30.2	31.3	37.7
Foundries, iron	411	45.9	38.0	38.9	41.0	44.3	(5)
Foundries, steel	102	31.0	32.3	30.1	31.1	35.4	(5)
Hardware	46	18.7	11.9	8.9	13.3	15.5	20.0
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	72	38.4	25.8	30.4	31.2	31.8	42.8
Iron and steel	181	8.8	9.7	9.9	9.5	8.7	9.9
Metal coating and engraving	66	24.1	28.6	20.0	24.3	30.0	(5)
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products	128	36.0	33.9	33.8	34.6	33.0	44.7
Plumbers' supplies	33	15.4	20.0	11.1	15.5	15.4	20.8
Screw-machine products	105	20.9	15.5	19.2	18.5	15.1	18.8
Sheet-metal work	47	21.6	19.5	15.1	18.7	25.5	39.2
Stamped and pressed metal products, not elsewhere classified	211	25.0	21.7	20.7	22.5	22.0	27.4
Steam fittings and apparatus	60	22.8	20.2	21.7	21.5	20.8	23.4
Steel barrels, kegs, drums, and packages	28	27.6	23.8	30.8	27.4	33.0	(5)
Steel springs	13	(5)	(5)	(5)	21.7	21.4	(5)
Tin cans and other tinware	17	13.9	13.1	13.6	13.5	15.9	19.7
Tools except edge tools	64	22.0	21.2	14.0	19.1	22.3	25.5
Wire and wire products	139	23.5	23.8	24.0	23.8	23.0	23.2
Wrought pipes, welded and heavy-riveted	11	(5)	(5)	(5)	20.1	19.2	(5)
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified	61	24.7	28.0	28.1	26.9	26.3	(5)
Leather:							
Boots and shoes, not rubber	252	13.4	12.1	12.2	12.6	13.0	12.3
Leather	22	30.3	29.5	29.8	29.8	28.7	29.2
Lumber:							
Sawmills	67	49.7	58.3	44.8	51.1	54.5	(5)
Sawmills and planing mills combined	24	(5)	(5)	(5)	44.2	51.6	(5)
Planing mills	348	36.9	25.6	36.4	33.0	36.7	(5)
Plywood mills	38	28.7	28.2	42.9	33.6	40.8	(5)
Machinery, except electric:							
Agricultural machinery and tractors	73	22.9	23.6	23.7	23.4	22.2	24.0
Bearings, ball and roller	26	18.6	18.6	15.8	17.7	16.6	(5)
Commercial and household machinery	81	15.3	13.6	14.3	14.4	15.0	18.1
Construction and mining machinery	113	23.5	26.2	23.7	24.4	23.5	28.4
Elevators, escalators, and conveyors	26	25.8	23.8	35.2	28.1	25.6	(5)
Engines and turbines	47	16.4	14.0	12.9	14.5	12.7	10.1
Food-products machinery	51	21.6	18.9	20.5	20.4	22.5	27.3
General industrial machinery, not elsewhere classified	292	29.0	25.3	23.6	26.0	23.1	(5)
General machine shops (jobbing and repair)	136	16.8	19.3	13.3	16.5	18.1	20.3
Mechanical measuring and controlling instruments	49	12.2	11.7	14.9	12.9	11.7	(5)

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates [1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, Fourth Quarter of 1945, with Cumulative Rates for 1945—Continued

Industry [2]	Fourth quarter, 1945					Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments [3]	Frequency rate [4] for—				Cumulative, Jan.–Dec. 1945 [4]	1944: Annual
		October	November	December	4th quarter		
Machinery, except electric—Continued							
Mechanical power transmission equipment except ball and roller bearings	65	19.3	15.9	19.4	18.3	17.4	(5)
Metalworking machinery	491	16.0	14.6	15.0	15.2	15.3	16.9
Pumps and compressors	79	17.7	17.4	12.9	16.1	17.2	(6)
Special industry machinery, not elsewhere classified	115	21.5	22.8	18.9	21.1	23.1	22.6
Textile machinery	24	15.2	13.9	17.2	15.4	12.1	17.3
Nonferrous metals:							
Aluminum and magnesium products	15	22.6	30.0	19.7	24.0	17.7	(5)
Foundries, nonferrous	238	32.6	25.6	26.0	28.1	26.3	(5)
Nonferrous basic shapes and forms	18	19.3	19.8	15.9	18.4	19.3	(5)
Watches, clocks, jewelry, and silverware	21	6.7	9.0	9.2	8.3	7.4	(5)
Nonferrous-metal products, not elsewhere classified	92	26.9	20.5	27.5	25.0	24.1	(5)
Ordnance:							
Ammunition—under 20 mm	2	(5)	(5)	(5)	5.1	6.8	7.2
Ammunition—20 mm and over	78	23.4	16.1	21.1	20.2	20.1	16.1
Guns and related equipment	23	13.6	12.6	13.6	13.2	14.4	15.0
Sighting and fire-control equipment	8	10.4	10.3	6.7	9.1	7.9	7.9
Small arms	15	7.6	7.1	5.5	6.8	13.8	11.9
Tanks, military	3	(5)	(5)	(5)	6.7	20.2	12.2
Tank components, military	10	(5)	(5)	(5)	19.8	27.9	15.4
Ordnance and accessories, not elsewhere classified	8	(5)	(5)	(5)	36.3	20.9	18.8
Paper:							
Paper boxes and containers	333	28.7	27.1	23.7	26.6	24.3	23.3
Paper	259	29.1	32.6	30.3	30.7	28.8	31.0
Paper and pulp, integrated	95	21.4	21.4	20.5	21.1	23.1	26.6
Pulp	20	43.9	42.9	23.5	37.1	35.4	39.2
Paper products, not elsewhere classified	30	23.3	28.7	20.6	24.3	21.5	21.5
Printing:							
Book and job printing	35	12.9	11.6	11.8	12.1	10.4	9.0
Rubber:							
Rubber boots and shoes	11	10.7	10.4	12.4	11.1	9.6	12.4
Rubber tires and tubes	23	13.8	14.5	12.9	13.7	13.7	15.5
Rubber products, not elsewhere classified	77	18.7	15.0	16.9	16.9	17.3	18.8
Stone, clay and glass:							
Glass	33	15.3	19.0	17.4	17.1	16.1	18.0
Pottery and related products	30	23.1	15.9	21.8	20.3	22.1	17.9
Structural clay products	25	(5)	(5)	(5)	24.9	30.2	43.9
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified	54	18.6	15.5	16.6	17.0	16.2	18.3
Textiles:							
Cotton yarn and textiles	195	15.9	13.0	12.6	13.9	13.3	16.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles	43	16.5	16.7	13.9	15.7	16.2	24.5
Knit goods	79	11.5	6.3	6.8	8.3	9.7	8.1
Rayon, other synthetic, and silk textiles	43	9.7	13.1	10.6	11.1	12.5	13.3
Woolen and worsted textiles	126	20.3	20.3	15.3	18.7	18.6	20.2
Miscellaneous textile goods, not elsewhere classified	25	13.8	26.1	18.1	19.2	18.3	(5)
Transportation equipment:							
Aircraft	19	6.6	5.6	5.1	5.8	8.7	8.8
Aircraft parts	84	14.6	12.5	11.1	12.7	12.0	10.1
Motor vehicles	78	17.2	17.0	15.3	16.5	16.6	14.4
Motor-vehicle parts	105	22.7	19.8	19.3	20.6	20.8	25.8
Railroad equipment	41	30.4	24.4	22.7	25.9	22.2	21.3
Shipbuilding	158	22.7	21.4	20.5	21.7	22.2	23.6
Miscellaneous manufacturing:							
Fabricated plastic products	33	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.7	14.7	(5)
Optical and ophthalmic goods	20	8.5	4.1	3.5	5.4	7.2	(5)
Photographic apparatus and materials	25	7.2	4.3	4.4	5.4	6.6	(5)
Professional and scientific instruments and supplies	55	6.0	8.0	12.0	8.5	7.5	(5)
Miscellaneous manufacturing, not elsewhere classified	153	14.9	13.6	11.4	13.4	13.9	(5)

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

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

[3] Number of establishments shown are for December.

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

[5] Not available.

[6] The 1945 coverage in the dairy-products industry differs radically from the 1944 sample. The 1944 and 1945 rates for this industry, therefore, are not strictly comparable.

Labor Organizations and Conferences

United Rubber Workers of America, 1935-45[1]

SINCE the first constitutional convention of the United Rubber Workers (CIO[2]) in September 1935, the union has grown from an organization of approximately 4,000 workers to about 190,000 as of June 1945. It includes 224 local unions, with some 200 agreements, 126 of which (covering 130,000 workers in 24 States) are in the rubber industry proper and the remainder are in related industries.

Trend of Union Membership

Unionization in the rubber industry began after the enactment, in the spring of 1933, of the National Industrial Recovery Act with its section 7 (a) which guaranteed the right of employees to organize into unions of their own choosing and to bargain collectively with employers. From June 1933 to October 1934 the AFL organized nearly 106 Federal labor unions, of which 75 were in the rubber industry. It has been variously estimated that union membership in the rubber industry reached a peak of 50,000 to 60,000 workers during the year 1933. It declined substantially during 1934 and by the fall of 1935 had reached a low of about 4,000.

Beginning with only a few locals, the United Rubber Workers had a steady increase in membership, and at the September 1936 convention the membership of the union was reported as 25,000. This gradually increased to some 45,000 in April 1937 and almost 60,000 in the early part of 1938. The recession in 1938 had its effect on the union, and membership dropped somewhat during the following year.

Membership figures published monthly by the union since July 1940 indicate a generally upward trend since that time. A peak of approximately 192,000 members was reached in January 1945. During the next half year there was a slight decline to about 190,000 in June 1945, the latest month for which figures are available. The slight decrease paralleled the movement of total employment in the industry. The membership development of the union is shown graphically in the accompanying chart.

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[1] Prepared by Harold S. Roberts, assistant chief of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Branch.

[2] At the time of its formation the union was a member of the American Federation of Labor; it joined the CIO in 1936 and was suspended from the Federation in 1938.

Extent of Collective Bargaining

The United Rubber Workers has made rapid progress in solidifying its position in the industry by negotiating basic collective-bargaining agreements. As indicated in the following statement, there has been an uninterrupted growth in the number of agreements won by the organization, from 9 in 1935 to about 200 in 1945. These include agreements in the plastic, cork, linoleum, chemical and ordnance industries as well as in the rubber industry proper. The workers covered by these agreements are in more than 20 States, with the largest number in Ohio (Akron) and substantial numbers in New Jersey, California, and Pennsylvania.

	Number of agreements [1]		*Number of agreements* [1]
1935	9	1941	126
1936	17	1942	135
1937	55	1943	164
1938	72	1944	174
1939	104	1945	200
1940	113		

[1] Estimates based on reports of general officers and files of the United Rubber Worker.

In July 1942, 133 local unions had collective-bargaining agreements. Of these, 51 had agreements containing a union-shop provision and covering some 13,000 workers. The other 82 locals had agreements conferring sole or exclusive collective-bargaining rights and covering nearly 92,000 workers. In 1945 the rubber workers had, in the rubber industry itself, 126 agreements, covering 130,000 workers. The number of workers under agreements requiring maintenance of membership was in excess of 100,000; the numbers under union-shop and sole-bargaining provisions were 14,000 and 16,000, respectively.

Extent of Collective Bargaining in the Rubber Industry, 1945 [1]

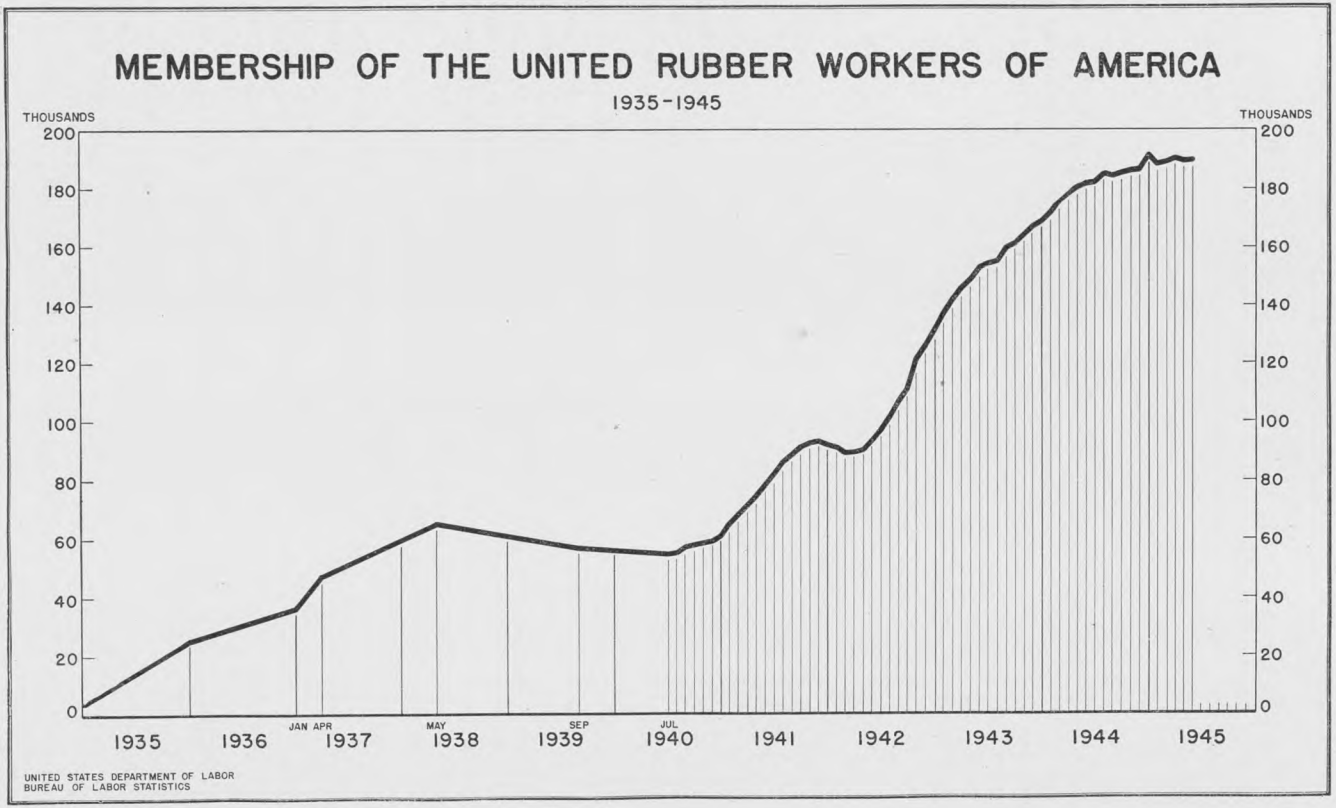
State	Number of agreements	Total number of employees covered	Workers covered by agreements providing for—		
			Union shop [2]	Maintenance of membership [3]	Sole bargaining rights
All States	126	129,951	13,807	100,178	15,966
California	12	9,395	120	8,870	405
Connecticut	3	3,688	587	3,101	----
Illinois	6	1,832	272	1,492	68
Indiana	7	8,451	218	7,496	737
Massachusetts	9	9,942	2,073	7,869	----
Michigan	6	7,775	686	6,457	632
New Jersey	12	3,905	1,852	1,325	728
New York	7	3,560	752	2,808	----
Ohio	35	52,807	4,463	43,687	4,657
Pennsylvania	10	6,937	2,784	2,542	1,611
Tennessee	3	6,247	----	6,247	----
Other [4]	16	15,412	----	8,284	7,128

[1] Covers rubber tires and tubes, rubber boots and shoes, and other rubber products. Does not include agreements held by URWA locals in ordnance, plastics, linoleum, cork, etc., industries

[2] Includes preferential hiring, in addition to union shop.

[3] Includes preferential hiring, in addition to maintenance of membership.

[4] Grouped to avoid identification of individual plants. Includes 13 States with fewer than 3 agreements. These States are Alabama, Colorado, Delaware, Iowa, Maryland, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Texas, Virginia and Wisconsin.



Convention of 1945

The tenth annual convention of the United Rubber Workers, which opened in Grand Rapids, Mich., on December 14, 1945, adopted a wide program of union objectives and made a number of constitutional changes.

REPORTS OF GENERAL OFFICERS

Report of general executive board.—The report of the general executive board, adopted by the 1945 convention, included a description of the efforts made throughout the year to bring about industry-wide collective bargaining. Following the pattern initiated by the War Labor Board to handle the rubber industry as a unit, a 7-point program was adopted in September 1945 which included—

(1) A wage increase of 30 cents per hour.
(2) A basic 30-hour week.
(3) Time and a half for hours worked in excess of 6 in any day and 30 in any week.
(4) Time and a half for work performed on Saturday.
(5) Double time for work performed on Sundays and on six designated holidays.
(6) Straight-time pay for six holidays not worked.
(7) Night-shift premium of 10 cents per hour.

At the time this program was adopted the general executive board adopted a resolution inviting employers in the rubber industry to sit down and bargain on the wage program of the union on an industry basis.[3]

Report of general president.—The report of President Dalrymple informed the delegates of his resignation and reviewed the growth of the union during the 10 years of his presidency. He advised the delegates to abide by the constitution of the union, to show themselves "thoroughly responsible," and to observe the provisions of the union contracts. "To break any portion of an agreement is a clear indication of irresponsibility and cannot be condemned too severely. At the same time, insist that other parties to contracts with you adhere strictly to the terms of the provisions set forth."

Financial report.—In the United Rubber Workers, the general secretary-treasurer submits to the annual convention a certified report of all union accounts. The statement submitted to the tenth annual convention covered the year ending June 30, 1945, and consisted of 35 printed pages, including a statement of assets and liabilities, receipts and disbursements, and detailed reports of specific accounts, such as "strike and defense," "research and education," and the monthly paper, United Rubber Worker.

Total receipts for the year 1944–45 were about $902,000 and disbursements slightly under $920,000, compared with receipts of approximately $783,000 and disbursements of $722,000 during 1943–44. Total net assets as of June 30, 1945, were $515,000 compared with $447,000 in 1944, or an increase of some $68,000. The $515,000

[3] On March 2, 1946, the "big four" (U. S. Rubber Co., Goodyear, Goodrich, and Firestone) reported an amicable agreement covering a uniform general wage increase of 18½ cents per hour for all employees in plants covered by contracts with the United Rubber Workers. The agreement was negotiated with the aid of the U. S. Conciliation Service.

net total assets included $315,000 in U. S. War Bonds; $94,000 in land, building, furniture and fixtures, and about $80,000 on deposit with local banks.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED

The convention had submitted to it for consideration more than 40 resolutions. Among the resolutions adopted were those supporting the CIO guaranteed-annual-wage plan, the elimination of differentials between hourly earnings and incentive earnings, a program of cooperation for labor education (including the sending of students to labor schools), physical examinations of new employees hired and subsequent periodic examinations to prevent the spread of communicable diseases, and a 6-hour day and 30-hour week. The bill for a 65-cent minimum wage, the Wagner-Murray-Dingell bill, the Federal Housing bill, and the Missouri Authority bill were also favored. A strong resolution was adopted in support of the OPA and its efforts to control prices.

Two resolutions were adopted to strengthen the union's research and education department. The first reaffirmed the action of the 1944 convention which instructed the general executive board to hire a full-time competent person to provide the officers, general counsel, and research and education department with statistical and economic data relating to any branch of the rubber industry; the other resolution dealt with the establishment of a master file of union agreements, coded by subject matter and made available to local unions to assist them in their negotiations. The implementing of both resolutions was contingent on an amendment to increase the union dues.

Two resolutions condemned racial, religious, and minority-group discrimination. In order to effectuate the promotion of "tolerance, understanding and amity," locals were urged to make every "effort to obtain antidiscrimination clauses in future collective-bargaining contracts." The convention also went on record in support of the creation of a permanent Fair Employment Practices Commission, and favored the passage by Congress of an anti-poll-tax bill.

CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENTS

More than 50 amendments to the constitution were proposed by various local unions and the general executive board, of which only a small number were adopted by the convention. Among the more important amendments adopted were the following:

(1) The name of the union was changed from United Rubber Workers of America to United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum, and Plastic Workers of America.

(2) A uniform procedure was adopted for local-union nominations and elections of officers.

(3) The term of office for the general president, vice president, and general secretary-treasurer was specified as 1 year or "until the next international convention." The latter qualification was intended to meet such situations as arose as a result of ODT orders which made it impossible to hold the union's regular convention in September 1945,

(4) The number of general executive board members was increased from 13 to 15. This includes 12 executive board members and the 3 elected officers.

(5) The constitution was amended to provide that the general organizational director as well as the district representatives be required to attend all sessions of the international convention—the organizational director with voice and the district representatives without voice in the deliberations, but none of them with the right to vote unless elected as delegates from their own local unions.

Some 14 proposed amendments to the constitution related to dues payment. The committee on laws unanimously recommended monthly dues of $2 per member, of which $1.10 would be retained by the local union and 90 cents would go to the international office. Of the 90 cents, 7 cents would be assigned to the research and education account, 5 cents to the United Rubber Workers account, 10 cents to the strike and defense account, 5 cents to the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the balance to the general operating account. The convention, after much deliberation, retained existing dues payments. An effort to submit the question to referendum was also lost.

OFFICERS AND NEXT CONVENTION

The convention by unanimous action elected L. S. Buckmaster as president for the coming year and H. R. Lloyd and Charles Lanning, as vice president and secretary treasurer, respectively.

Los Angeles was chosen as the convention city for 1946, with Boston as an alternate possibility in case it was impossible to hold the convention in Los Angeles.

1945 Convention of Oil Workers International Union [1]

THE sixteenth annual convention of the Oil Workers International Union [2] held in Fort Worth, Tex., December 10–15, 1945, was attended by over 200 delegates representing 92 local unions in 23 States.

The OWIU was the first major CIO union to seek enforcement of its demands for maintained take-home pay by means of a nation-wide strike. Its acceptance of an 18-percent basic-pay increase, under a national contract with the Sinclair Corporation, marked the first settlement of a major postwar wage dispute that had reached the strike stage.

Several organizational changes considered appropriate to the enlarged size of the union were adopted at the convention. These resulted in increased authority and responsibility of its president and integration of its organizing, bargaining, and policy-making activities.

The principal visiting speaker, Dr. Edwin A. Elliott, Director of the 16th Region of the National Labor Relations Board, stressed the importance of the presentation by labor of the full story of its position

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by Robert C. Martin of the Dallas regional office.

[2] The Oil Workers International Union was originally organized in 1917 and chartered by the American Federation of Labor in 1918 as the International Association of Oil Field, Gas Well, and Refinery Workers of America. In 1935 the union became a charter member of the Congress of Industrial Organizations and in 1937 the name was changed to the Oil Workers International Union. Its constitution provides that membership is open to "persons working in the production, transportation, refining, natural gas and marketing of petroleum products and allied industries peculiar to the oil industry located in the United States, Canada, and Mexico."

to the public, taking the public interest into account. He remarked that labor seldom suffers when all facts are known. The delegates were urged to expand their interests beyond the immediate problems of their locals by taking a more active part in the affairs of their towns, counties, States, Nation, and the world.

OWIU officials described the progress of the organization during the preceding year; noted the union's growth from some 15,000 members in 1935 to 66,000 at the end of 1945, with a 35-percent increase during 1944–45; and stated that 479 contracts were in force, an increase of 146 over the previous convention's reports.

Fraternal greetings from the Mexican Oil Workers Union were brought by that group's foreign relations secretary and publicity director, who described the advances made since nationalization of the oil industry in Mexico.

Structural and Organizational Changes

The principal revisions made by the convention in the organization's administrative structure were the abolition of one of the offices of vice president, the creation of seven regional directors, and the discontinuance of the Oil Workers Organizing Campaign as a separate organization.

All representatives of the international and all organizers were made appointive officers under the direction of the president.

The Sinclair Agreement

The organization's acceptance of an 18-percent raise in basic wage rates, in a national contract with the Sinclair Corporation, represented a substantial reduction in its demand for a 30-percent wage increase in order to maintain 48-hour weekly pay after a return to the 40-hour workweek. Coupled with the wage offer was a union-responsibility clause. The Sinclair contract was the most thoroughly and heatedly debated issue of the convention and was considered only in closed sessions.

According to a postconvention issue of the International Oil Worker (the organization's official publication) the acceptance of this type of agreement was approved by an 81 to 81 vote.

Resolutions and Union Program

A proposal that health- and death-benefit systems be established by individual locals wherever feasible was adopted by the convention in order to combat what was termed "coercive" powers held over workers through management-operated plans that can be withdrawn at any time. Another resolution advocated a National Petroleum Retirement Act that would provide a retirement system for oil workers similar to that provided for railroad employees.

The appointment of a Political Action Committee liaison representative from the Oil Workers International Union was authorized by a resolution that also ordered the distribution through the locals of literature informing the members on current issues and the PAC program.

The organization of supervisory employees in their own locals under separate charters from the OWIU was favored.

The convention voted down a resolution that would have provided for master agreements drawn up by a committee appointed for that purpose, the terms of which would have to be met in all contracts signed by OWIU locals. Opponents stated that, although this procedure would tie in with ultimate objectives, it might handicap present collective bargaining. A proposal that OWIU employ Negro staff members was rejected with the explanation that directing the employment of representatives on a racial basis was a violation of the no-discrimination clause in the constitution. President Knight stated that the union had employed Negro representatives in the past and would do so in the future.[3] Also rejected was a proposal that would remove from the constitution a prohibition against members belonging to Communist or Fascist organizations.

Organization program.—The Oil Workers International Union's long-range program calls for union-security provisions in contracts, industry-wide bargaining, national contracts, and uniform wage rates on an industry basis, with complete elimination of geographic and company variations and any based on sex or color.

Other objectives include (1) shift differentials of 4 and 6 cents in all contracts,[4] and (2) expansion of the publicity, research, and educational activities. The International Oil Worker, now published monthly, will be issued at least twice a month as soon as proper arrangements can be made, and will devote more space to general labor news, industry items, and research and education, possibly at the expense of local union news, in an effort to keep the members informed of latest developments. The need for a more adequate research program was considered to have been demonstrated in the organization's 52–40[5] wage fight. The union was believed to have been handicapped in its appearances before governmental agencies and in bargaining activities by lack of statistical data supporting its position. Education of local union officials on grievance and bargaining procedures, of members on union objectives and political action, and of the general public on its interests in the union's activities in behalf of the national welfare were outlined as a part of the educational and public relations programs.

Officers and Next Convention

Nominations for the elective offices of the union were made at the closing session of the convention on December 15. President O. A. Knight and Vice President A. R. Kinstley were nominated for reelection without opposition, as were two of the district representatives on the international executive council and three of the vice council members. Voting on other offices through secret referendum ballots by the membership was scheduled to be completed in January, with the newly elected officials taking office on February 18.

The seventeenth annual convention will be held in Fort Worth, Tex. (the headquarters city), August 12–17, 1946.

[3] Shortly after the convention a Negro representative was employed to assist in organizing and bargaining in the Gulf Coast area.

[4] Such provisions had been rejected by a Regional War Labor Board because they were not general industry practices but had recently been approved by the National War Labor Board.

[5] 52 hours, pay for 40 hours, work.

Labor-Management Disputes

Work Stoppages in February 1946

DESPITE marked progress in settlement of labor-management disputes in February, work stoppages in effect during that month resulted in the highest volume of man-day idleness on record. That was due to the continuation of three major strikes [1] which accounted for more than three-fourths of the total idleness. These were (1) the industry-wide steel strike which began January 21, (2) the General Motors stoppage in automotive plants which began November 21, 1945, and (3) the electrical workers' strike which began January 15 in General Electric, Westinghouse, and General Motors plants. Most of the larger steel companies reached agreements with the United Steelworkers' Union in the middle of February but many thousands of workers were still idle at the end of the month, awaiting settlements with the steel fabricators.

Preliminary estimates indicate 260 new stoppages during February, involving 130,000 workers, as against 325 in January involving 1,400,000 workers. With a carry-over of 200 work stoppages from January to February, a total of 460 is shown for February, accounting for 1,430,000 workers.

Idleness of these workers during February amounted to 21,500,000 man-days or 3.9 percent of the available working time.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes and Lock-outs in February 1946, with Comparable Figures for Earlier Periods*

Month	Strikes and lock-outs beginning in period		Man-days idle during period (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
February 1946 [1]	260	130,000	21,500,000	3.94
January 1946 [1]	325	1,400,000	19,200,000	3.13
February 1945 [1]	280	111,000	381,000	.05
February 1944	340	146,000	459,000	.06
February 1935–39	182	70,000	829,000	----------

[1] Preliminary estimates.

[1] For further details on these three strikes see Monthly Labor Review, March 1946 (p. 425).

Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor, February 1946

There were 1,311 assignments made to labor disputes, including arbitrations and technical services, during February 1946, as compared with 1,155 assignments in January and 1,782 in February 1945. This represents an increase of 11.9 percent in case assignments over January and a decrease of 26.4 percent from February 1945.

During February 1946, the U. S. Conciliation Service disposed of 1,343 situations, in comparison with 1,867 during the second month of 1945. Of the 1,343 situations disposed of, 16.5 percent were strikes and lock-outs; 27.4 percent were threatened strikes; 35.8 percent were controversies; 7.1 percent were arbitrations; and 12.3 percent were investigations, elections, and special services.

According to February records, 222 strikes and lock-outs were settled by conciliation; 3 of these cases were lock-outs. The records show that 368 situations were threatened strikes and 482 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. The remaining 271 situations included 96 arbitrations, 9 technical services, 81 investigations, and 85 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

Cases Closed by U. S. Conciliation Service in February 1946, by Type of Situation and Method of Handling

Method of handling	Total	Strikes and lock-outs	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations
All methods	1,343	222	368	482	271
Settled by conciliation	1,072	222	368	482	
Decisions rendered in arbitration	96				96
Technical services completed	9				9
Investigations, special services	166				166

Industrial Disputes in the United Kingdom and British Dominions, 1935–45 [1]

THE number of workdays lost in industrial disputes in 1945 in Canada and Australia was greater than in any of the last 10 years. In New Zealand, workdays lost in the first 9 months of 1945 [2] were 40.8 percent above the annual average for the period 1935–44. In the United Kingdom, the time loss in 1945 was 23.7 percent lower than in 1944, but 49.3 percent higher than the average for 1935–44.[3] In the late fall and winter of 1945, Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom experienced some of the largest or most critical strikes in their recent history. In Australia, a joint steel workers', coal miners' and seamen's strike rendered idle 15 to 25 percent of the industrial labor force, while in Great Britain a 6-week dock workers' strike halted all except essential cargoes moved by troops.

[1] Prepared by Jean A. Flexner and Mary B. Cheney of the Bureau's Foreign Labor Conditions Staff. The materials for this report were taken from official and other publications of the countries covered and from reports of the following members of the U. S. Foreign Service: Australia, Webster Powell; Canada, Paul Norgen and Kathryn Jane Smith; New Zealand, J. Jefferson Jones III.

[2] Data for the entire year not yet available.

[3] For industrial disputes in the United Kingdom for May-December 1944–45, see Monthly Labor Review, March 1946.

Trend of Strikes, 1935–45

During the war years of 1939–44, in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand industrial disputes, as indicated by workers idle and man-days lost, tended to exceed those of the 5-year period immediately preceding, as is shown in table 1. A somewhat contrary trend occurred in the United Kingdom, where the number of man-days lost during 1939–43 was, on the average, lower than in the preceding years, although the number of strikes and the number of workers involved increased; in 1944, however, there was great increase in strike activity above prewar and war levels. In all four countries, strikes were shorter during the war period than in the 5 preceding years. The decrease was most marked in the United Kingdom.

Workers Involved and Man-Days Lost in Industrial Disputes in United Kingdom and Three British Dominions, 1935–45 [1]

Period	Australia				Canada		New Zealand		United Kingdom	
	All States		New South Wales [2]							
	Work-days lost	Workers involved	Work-days lost	Workers involved	Work-days lost	Workers involved	Work-days lost	Workers involved	Work-days lost (in thousands)	Workers involved (in thousands)
1935	495,124	47,322	270,975	54,766	284,028	33,269	18,563	2,323	1,960	271
1936	497,248	60,587	468,317	86,342	276,997	34,812	16,980	7,354	1,830	316
1937	557,111	96,173	546,748	184,208	886,393	71,905	29,916	11,411	3,410	597
1938	1,337,994	143,954	939,266	183,230	148,678	20,395	35,456	11,388	1,330	274
1939	459,154	152,830	446,483	211,565	224,588	41,038	53,801	15,682	1,360	337
1940	1,507,252	192,597	1,075,714	227,505	266,318	60,619	28,097	10,475	940	299
1941	984,174	248,107	912,035	344,477	433,914	87,091	26,237	15,261	1,080	360
1942	378,195	169,263	417,729	193,390	450,202	113,916	51,189	14,345	1,530	457
1943	990,151	296,103	914,246	356,634	1,041,198	218,404	14,687	10,915	1,810	557
1944, year [3]	912,752	276,358	733,991	312,502	490,139	75,290	52,602	29,766	3,710	861
January–March	348,158	77,743	265,542	91,666	66,380	18,489	29,051	10,149	2,110	426
April–June	133,401	57,238	149,070	66,904	251,908	29,705	10,420	8,546	806	85
July–September	185,508	80,373	166,649	87,770	147,106	19,339	6,513	6,060	3,376	196
October–December	245,685	61,004	213,313	77,883	24,745	7,757	6,618	5,011	422	114
1945, year [3]	.....	.....	1,372,419	314,322	1,478,311	90,509	.....	.....	2,830	530
January–March	274,725	63,347	177,404	72,462	47,526	15,037	20,414	12,584	564	126
April–June	261,716	69,476	274,515	91,880	36,197	10,171	12,229	7,408	430	129
July–September	.....	.....	269,872	85,143	271,821	38,676	13,469	8,840	393	115
October–December	.....	.....	650,628	64,837	1,122,767	26,625	.....	.....	1,436	89
Percent of change, 1944 to 1945	.....	.....	+87.0	+.6	+201.6	+20.2	.....	.....	−23.7	−35.4
First 9 months of—										
1944	667,067	215,354	581,261	246,340	465,394	67,533	45,984	24,755	3,292	707
1945	.....	.....	721,791	249,485	355,544	63,884	46,112	28,832	1,387	370
Percent of change	.....	.....	+24.2	+1.3	−23.6	−5.4	+.3	+16.5	−57.9	−47.7

[1] The coverage of the statistics varies considerably from country to country with regard to size and type of dispute included and therefore the statistics are usable only to show the trend within the country. "Work-days lost" includes work days lost because of *all strikes in existence* during the period, while "workers involved" includes workers involved in *strikes beginning* in the period, except in annual figures for Canada and New South Wales, where workers involved in *all strikes in existence* is used; the difference is generally slight in annual figures. All statistics are from official reports of the countries concerned.

[2] Strikes in New South Wales accounted for 77.7 percent of total man-days lost in Australia, according to the Commonwealth figures, 1940–44. The figures compiled by the Commonwealth exclude smaller strikes included in the figures compiled independently by New South Wales; hence the figures for New South Wales are occasionally larger than those for all States.

[3] The quarterly figures for 1944 and 1945 are in some cases based on preliminary and uncorrected monthly figures, while the total figures for those years are revised and are thus not equal to the sum of the quarterly figures.

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In order to understand the recent strikes, various factors tending to produce industrial unrest must be taken into account. The heightened tempo of industrial activity, the increasing industrialization of some areas, and the growth in the labor force all tended to produce strikes. Longer hours, rising living costs, and the pressures and strains resulting from the war tended to increase the tension between workers and management. On the other hand, from the fall of 1939 to the fall of 1945, the workers' inclination to strike was checked by the sense of national emergency and the urgencies of war production. For example, in the United Kingdom time lost because of industrial disputes reached an all-time low in the years of the battle of Dunkirk and the blitzkrieg (1940 and 1941); in Australia it declined during the year after Pearl Harbor (1942). Since VJ-day, living costs have remained high, the supply of consumer goods has still been limited, and the sense of national crisis has passed.

In all four countries, government facilities to assist in the voluntary settlement of industrial disputes have long been available. Australia and New Zealand also have had compulsory arbitration systems. However, in Australia during 1939–42, disputes settled through the use of government conciliation and arbitration machinery accounted for only 29.9 percent of total workers involved in strikes; in New Zealand the percentage was only 18.2. During the war, machinery for the settlement of disputes was supplemented in all four countries by wartime measures regulating or prohibiting strikes and lock-outs, and by an expansion of the government conciliation services, as well as control of living costs, wages, and working conditions. Settlements both before and during the war were, as a rule, achieved through voluntary machinery, and penalities were seldom involked.

Australia

In Australia during the past decade, peaks in man-days lost because of labor-management disputes were registered in 1938, 1940, and 1943. During 1944, the number of strikes rose to the highest point of any recent year (since 1935), but the work stoppages were relatively small and of short duration. During the first 9 months of 1945, compared with a similar period in 1944, there was a 24.2-percent increase in the number of workers involved in disputes in the State of New South Wales; this is the most highly industrialized section of the country, and accounts for about three-fourths of Australia's labor-management disputes.

In the last quarter of 1945, two protracted strikes directly involved over 40,000 workers in basic industries, indirectly affected about half a million, and threatened to paralyze the industrial life of a large and important part of the country. Both involved attacks upon the arbitration system by strong militant groups within the trade-union movement. The Trades and Labor Council of New South Wales, the Australasian Council of Trade Unions, and the Australian Labor Party (the party in control of the Government) opposed the strikes, although all of these bodies cited have themselves recommended "modernization" of the arbitration system.

Settlement of these two strikes was achieved by means of a partial use of emergency war powers without recourse to the more drastic penalties authorized by law and, in one case, by substituting Commonwealth for State machinery.

The first of these major strikes occurred at the Bunnerong municipal power plant at Sydney, New South Wales. The second and larger strike began on September 23, 1945, at the Port Kembla steel plants of the Broken Hill Proprietary Co., Ltd., which controls Australia's iron and steel industry. The cause of the strike was the alleged discriminatory discharge of a member of the Federated Ironworkers Association. This union had, a week previously, been "deregistered"; that is, it had lost its standing and benefits as a registered union because it had obstructed the Industrial Commission of New South Wales in its investigation of a jurisdictional-dispute case. The Broken Hill Co. refused to negotiate with a deregistered union, and the Federated Iron-workers Association refused to apply for reregistration. A strike at a second Broken Hill steel plant occurred on October 30, 1945, over an alleged violation of seniority rights. Sympathetic strikes by the seamen on November 30 and by the coal miners on December 3, 1945, brought the total number of workers directly involved up to 40,000 by mid-December 1945, and threatened to paralyze industry in general. It was estimated that between 300,000 and 500,000 workers were indirectly affected, or between 15 and 25 percent of the total number engaged in civilian employment in Australia, excluding rural and domestic workers. Fuel and power had to be severely rationed in three major cities in three States. The strikes were condemned by the Australian Labor Party, the New South Wales Trades and Labor Council, and the Australasian Council of Trade Unions, which claimed that they were primarily political and that the three unions concerned were Communist-dominated. At the same time these organizations endeavored to persuade the company to negotiate with the ironworkers' union, in spite of its "deregistration," and to persuade the union to reregister. The Commonwealth Prime Minister endeavored to uphold the State arbitration authorities as long as possible, and intervened only after the strike had spread to the mines and shipping industry. Settlements were reached with the different groups between mid-December and the first week in January. The ironworkers returned to their jobs when the full bench of the Industrial Commission of New South Wales reversed a previous ruling of November 6 which had upheld the discharge at Port Kembla. The Federated Ironworkers' Association also applied for reregistration.

Canada

Two major strikes—one involving 5,000 coal miners, and the other involving at its peak 18,500 employees of the Ford Motor Co. of Canada, Ltd., and of automobile-parts plants—were responsible for the marked increase in time lost in Canada, as a result of industrial disputes during 1945 as compared with 1944. These two strikes, both occurring after VJ-day, followed a comparatively peaceful period that had lasted since 1943. Together they accounted for 83.8 percent

of the 1,478,000 man-days lost in 1945, which was the peak in annual man-days lost during a 10-year period. Both man-days lost through industrial disputes and trade-union membership in 1944 were about double the 1939 level, while the industrial labor force increased 28 percent from 1939 through 1944.

In general, reconversion in Canada has been going forward with a minimum of friction. Wartime wage and price controls have been maintained by the Government with little change. Following the settlement of the Ford strike, the number of strikes reported reached a low point, and at the beginning of 1946 fewer than 500 workers were idle because of industrial disputes. However, unions in steel, coal, electrical manufacturing, woodworking, meat packing, and shipping were reported to have wage campaigns under consideration.

The Ford Motor Co. strike of 10,000 workers started September 12, 1945, and lasted until December 20, 1945. During November this strike was supplemented by a sympathetic strike of 8,500 workers in automobile-parts plants in Windsor. The Ford Co. had terminated its agreement with the union in April 1944, and the Government had been making every effort, using both regular and wartime machinery, to keep negotiations for a new agreement going. The chief difficulty was the question of union security. A conciliation board, appointed under the Canadian Wartime Labor Relations Regulations of February 17, 1944 (P. C. 1003), reported on September 10, 1945, recommending a voluntary check-off and against a union shop; the union thereupon called the strike. The strike received the support of the Canadian Congress of Labor. Conferences continued among representatives of the union, the company, and the Provincial and Dominion Labor Departments, and after 3 months work was resumed on the basis of arbitration of any provisions not settled during another 10 days of negotiation. A Labor Department official was to umpire any complaints of discrimination against the strikers.

The arbitrator of the unsettled issue, union security, was selected by the Canadian Supreme Court. His decision, released January 29, 1946, and incorporated in an agreement signed February 15, 1946, is of considerable interest to labor-management groups in the United States. Under it all production employees of the Ford Motor Co. of Canada are required to pay the dues of $1 (Canadian) per month to the union through a check-off; however, union membership, which involves payment of an initiation fee and liability for special assessments, is voluntary. A strike may be called only through a majority vote, supervised by an Ontario Labor Department official, of all production employees, union and nonunion; if the union calls a strike without such authorization its check-off rights are suspended for 1 to 6 months. The union agreed to repudiate publicly within 72 hours any "wildcat" strike and to permit its members to cross picket lines of such strikes; employees engaging in such strikes will be penalized at the rate of $3 for each day on strike and, in addition, will lose 1 year's seniority for each week of the strike. An umpire was to be appointed, whose decisions shall be final, to settle all disputes arising under the contract.

New Zealand

Strike activity in New Zealand showed a slight increase during the first 9 months of 1945 as compared with the first 9 months of 1944. The number of strikes, workers involved, and working days lost were all somewhat higher, but in general, the strikes were of short duration and minor importance. As much working time was lost through industrial disputes in 1944 and 1945 as in the highest years of the last decade (1939 and 1942), but the duration of disputes was shorter in the war years. As in the case of Australia, the amount of time lost because of strikes was higher during the war years than in the years immediately preceding the outbreak of hostilities.

During 1945 brief stoppages occurred in some collieries, and disputes of a relatively minor nature occurred in other industries, particularly toward the end of the year. A 2-day stoppage of street-railway employees took place in Wellington in November in protest against an award by the arbitration court which discontinued the war bonuses. An emergency tribunal was appointed by the Minister of Labor under the wartime industrial disputes regulations, which supported the union's claim and ordered continuation of the war bonus, pending an award by the court of arbitration.

Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor [1]

Fair Labor Standards Act

PREDETERMINATION of coverage in subpena case.—In two cases having the same name and date,[2] the United States Supreme Court upheld the investigatory powers of the Wage and Hour Administrator and sustained his right to judicial enforcement of sunpenas issued by him to aid in determining whether or not the companies were violating the Fair Labor Standards Act. The Court held it was immaterial that no charge or complaint was pending against the employers, since an investigation aided by subpena power was not for the purpose of proving a complaint but to determine whether or not a charge or complaint would be justified in light of the surrounding circumstances. Since the act does not require the Administrator to make a showing of coverage in making application for judicial enforcement of his subpenas, it was also immaterial whether the Administrator made such a showing at the time of his application to the court. The Administrator's allegation of the employer's coverage, his investigation of possibly existing violations, and the necessity of seeing the employer's records for a determination are sufficient. Such action does not abridge the employer's rights under the first amendment to the Constitution, as it places no restraint on the employer's freedom of expression, nor does it abridge his rights under the fourth amendment.

Jurisdiction of act not extended to foreign countries.—An employee who signed an employment contract in Canada to work in that country and whose work under the contract was all performed there brought suit to recover overtime compensation under the Fair Labor Standards Act.[3] The Court held that the act itself limited its jurisdiction to the United States, its territories and possessions, and since that is so, the employee could not recover. The employee contended that the work in which he was engaged was a project of the United States, that he was employed by that Government, and the employer was engaged on a war contract. The Court pointed out that this theory also was excluded by the very terms of the act under which the employee sought recovery, as the United States as an employer is excluded from all provisions of the act. The case was therefore dismissed.

[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of the significant decisions believed to be of general 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] *Oklahoma Press Publishing Co.* v. *Walling*, Feb. 4, 1946, ——— U. S. ———.

[3] *Bernhard, et al.* v. *Metcalfe Construction Co., et al.*, U. S. D. C., Nebr., Jan 28, 1946.

Judicial approval of overtime pay settlements.—In an employee action to recover overtime compensation under the act the parties effected a settlement evidenced by releases and presented it to the district court for the entry of a "final judgment." The court refused to sign the settlement, on the ground that it was, on its face, devoid of findings of fact and conclusions of law, and commented as follows:

* * * where as here, the public interest, as well as the rights of the private litigants, must be protected, the District Court should deny its authoritative approval of private settlements except upon a clear showing that the statutory requirements have been met. It is because of the complete absence of such a showing that we must refuse to enter the proposed final judgment.[4]

Nature of employees' work alone not decisive of exemption issue under act.—In an appeal from a decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals,[5] the United States Supreme Court affirmed the decision and upheld the position of the Wage and Hour Administrator that the nature of the employees' work there involved was not in itself sufficient to determine whether or not it was exempted from the Fair Labor Standards Act.[6] As to the applicability of the Motor Carrier Act, it covers only employees "with respect to whom the Interstate Commerce Commission has power to establish qualifications and maximum hours of service pursuant to the provisions of section 204 of the Motor Carrier Act." However, the Court pointed out, the Commission's jurisdiction extends only to employees of carriers. This does not include mechanics whose services affect the operation of motor vehicles but who are not themselves employees of a carrier.

Regularity of interstate shipments, not volume, determines coverage.—The United States Supreme Court refused to apply the "de minimis" doctrine [7] to a daily newspaper 98½ percent of whose business was entirely local.[8] The Court held the doctrine inapplicable because the company's shipments out of the State, though small, were regularly and continuously made. The Court based its decision on the intent of Congress to exclude only employees of weekly and semiweekly newspapers with circulations of less than 3,000, the major part of which circulation is within the county where the paper is published and printed. Such classifications as daily papers, weeklies, and semiweeklies are not so arbitrary and unreasonable as to violate the fifth amendment to the Constitution, nor does the Fair Labor Standards Act thereby abridge freedom of the press, since the business aspects of the paper, as such, have no special immunity from laws applicable to business in general.

Barge captains employed by common carrier.—In *Anderson* v. *Southern Pacific Co.*, 62 Fed. Supp. 730, the District Court for the Southern District of New York held that barge captains of lighters employed in interstate commerce, by a common carrier operating by rail and water under common control and management, were not covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. They were held to be employees of an employer subject to regulation under the Interstate Commerce Commission and in the same position as building employees of railroads, who have been held to be exempt from the act.

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[4] *Rogan, et al.* v. *Essex County News Co., Inc.*, U. S. D. C., N. J., Jan. 28, 1946.
[5] *Boutell* v. *Walling*, 148 Fed. (2d) 329. Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, April 1945 (p. 831).
[6] *Boutell, et al., d/b/a F. J. Boutell Service Co.* v. *Walling*, — U. S. —, Feb. 25, 1946.
[7] Doctrine that the law does not concern itself with trifles, or minor points.
[8] *Mabee, et al.* v. *White Plains Publishing Co., Inc.*, Feb. 11, 1946, — U. S. —.

Employees of local power plant.—In *Walling* v. *Connecticut Co.*, 62 Fed. Supp. 733, the District Court of Connecticut held that, if a substantial part of the electricity produced by employees was used solely for local trolleys but part of it was used for interstate commerce and the time spent so producing could not be segregated, all employees spending any substantial part of their time in any workweek in producing electricity were engaged in interstate commerce within the meaning of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Reemployment Rights of Veterans

Superseniority of veterans.—The District Court, Southern District of Illinois, in a suit for a declaratory judgment as to the rights of veteran and nonveteran employees,[9] decided the rights of four veterans before the court but declared that the scope of the declaratory judgment should not extend beyond the named veteran and nonveteran employees, as each employee is entitled to a decision on the merits of his particular case. The four decisions under this declaratory judgment were as follows:

1. A veteran, originally employed in 1929, was promoted to subforeman in 1942, then entered the service and was honorably discharged in 1945. To restore the veteran to his former position of subforeman in this case would mean the removal of another subforeman, a nonveteran who not only had greater seniority rights but had been a foreman at the time the veteran was a subforeman. The collective-bargaining contract between the employer and union provided for length-of-service seniority, but since the war, production had been curtailed and the employer could not supply jobs for all. This, said the court, would make reinstatement of the veteran "unreasonable" within the meaning of the statute.

2. The second veteran was employed by the company in 1940 during the "war inflation era" and promoted in 1942, just before entering the service, from which he was honorably discharged in 1945. To restore him to his former position would involve discharging or demoting a nonveteran who had greater seniority. In this situation, since the job for which the veteran sought reinstatement had been temporarily expanded during the war from 30 to 100 employees but now used only 24 employees, the court held the veteran to be a "temporary" employee within the meaning of the act.

3. The third veteran was employed in 1942 in the "war inflation era" and promoted several months later. He entered the service in 1944 and was honorably discharged in 1945. To restore this veteran would mean the discharge of a nonveteran with greater seniority. The job was one created during the war and requiring nine men, but since the war only one man had been retained. The court considered this also to be a "temporary" job and held it "unreasonable" to require the reinstatement of the veteran.

4. The fourth veteran held a position similar to that presented by the third case in another part of the plant and was not reinstated because of the reduction in operations. Owing to his "temporary" employment, he also was denied reinstatement by the court.

[9] *Olin Industries, Inc.* v. *Barnett, et al.*, U. S. D. C., S. D. Ill., Jan. 24, 1946.

The court in reaching its decisions on these four veterans held that the act, properly construed, does not confer superseniority rights upon veterans as interpreted by the Director of Selective Service.

Right of returning veteran to increased pay.—The District Court for New Jersey held that a veteran is not automatically entitled to increased pay merely because the employee presently holding the same or like position is receiving higher pay than that received by the veteran at the time he entered the armed services, if there has been no general wage increase or automatic within-grade increase.[10] The court pointed out that this rule is particularly applicable in positions requiring individual skill, ability and training, since such positions are generally filled by employees paid in accordance with their individual capacities. The facts in this case showed that the salary of company doctors and its medical director varied according to individual skill. The employer offered to reinstate the veteran in his former position as medical director at the same weekly salary he had received prior to entering the service but the veteran refused on the ground that he would be subordinate to the present medical director who was to be retained. The court held that the employer's offer of reinstatement could not be attacked as being insincere, inadequate, in bad faith, or not in compliance with the act. The employee's year of reemployment, to which he is entitled under the act, was considered to have started as of the time the employer made his reinstatement offer.

Veteran's seniority not top seniority.—The Federal District Court of Michigan, construing the Selective Training and Service Act in regard to veterans' reemployment rights, held that an employer who restored a veteran to his former position but within a year demoted him in accordance with the seniority provisions of the union contract, had fulfilled his obligations under the act.[11] The veteran sued for loss of wages incurred as a result of being transferred to a lower-paying job in accordance with his seniority rights as established on the basis of his employment with the company plus the time spent by him in military service.

The court held that the veteran was entitled only to such a job as his seniority, including his seniority while in the service, would entitle him and could not recover the difference in wages between the higher-paying job he held at the time he entered the service and the wages he was receiving for the position he held at the time of bringing this suit. The employee status of a veteran, said the court, depends entirely on the seniority he himself has accumulated and he has no right to be placed above those with greater seniority who were not in military service.

Decision of State Court

The Supreme Court of California recently granted injunctive relief to a group of skilled Negro shipyard workers who had been ordered discharged by the union for refusal to join the union, which had a closed-shop agreement with the employer.[12] The Negroes' refusal

[10] *Kay* v. *General Cable Corp.*, U. S. D. C. of N. J., Feb. 19, 1946. Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, February 1946 (p. 259).
[11] *Droste* v. *Nash-Kelvinator Corp., et al.*, U. S. D. C., E. D. Mich., Jan. 30, 1946.
[12] *Williams et al.* v. *International Brotherhood of Boilermakers, et al.*, Sup. Ct. Calif., Jan. 29, 1946.

was based on the fact that the union denied membership to Negroes except under discriminatory and unequal conditions. Relying on two previous cases,[13] the court held that protection against arbitrary and discriminatory exclusion from union membership is essential to the validity of a closed-shop agreement. In the *Marinship* case, the court pointed out, the decision had not rested on the basis of union monopoly within a given area, but the question had been left for future determination. Following the decision in that case, the court held that the protection is not conditioned on a requirement that the union have a monopoly on jobs in the trade in the area, since a closed-shop contract provides a job monopoly with a particular employer and, when coupled with discrimination in union membership, interferes with the basic right to work.

[13] *James* v. *Marinship Corp.*, 155 Pac. (2) 329, and *Railway Mail Ass'n* v. *Corsi*, 326 U. S. 88. Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, August 1945 (pp. 289 and 291).

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wage Structure of the Fabricated Structural-Steel Industry, January 1945 [1]

Summary

MEN employed as plant workers by fabricators of structural steel earned an average of 97 cents an hour in straight-time pay in January 1945. The relatively small number of women plant workers in the industry averaged 91 cents an hour. Approximately 6 percent of the men and 14 percent of the women earned less than 65 cents. Among the occupations that engaged the greatest number of men, class A structural fitters averaged $1.13 an hour, class B fitters 94 cents, class A lay-out men $1.19, class A hand welders $1.11, and class B hand welders $1.05.

Fabricated structural-steel establishments in the Pacific Coast region paid the highest rates in the industry. Workers in union plants generally received higher wages than workers in nonunion plants. It was also found that wages were higher in the larger cities. For the industry as a whole, no consistent wage difference was found as between large and small plants.

Premium pay for overtime and night work supplemented straight-time earnings. In January 1945, the scheduled workweek for men exceeded 48 hours in most of the plants studied. Less than a fourth of the industry operated more than a single shift; the majority of multiple-shift plants paid a premium rate on the night shifts.

Half of the establishments in the industry reported the payment to plant workers of bonuses not directly related to production, while two-thirds offered paid vacations to plant workers with a year or more of service. Some form of insurance or pension plan covering plant workers was found in 1 out of every 3 establishments.

Scope of Survey

The fabricated structural-steel industry occupies an intermediate position between the rolling mills (which supply the structural shapes and plates) and the manufacturers and builders (who use the shaped or assembled structural parts). Prior to the war the industry devoted the major part of its productive capacity to fabricating steel for buildings and bridges. The demand for plant construction increased

[1] This article was prepared by Joseph W. Bloch of the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch. The section on the industry's labor force was prepared by Edyth Bunn. More detailed information on wages in the industry will be presented in 2 mimeographed reports, namely Wage Structure: Fabricated Structural Steel, 1945; and Occupational Wage Relationships: Fabricated Structural Steel, 1945. Wage data by locality are available in the Bureau's regional offices.

with the outbreak of war in Europe and under the defense program; it expanded further after the attack on Pearl Harbor. With the rapid completion of the greater part of the Nation's wartime industrial plant and the restrictions on the use of structural steel for other purposes, a large number of fabricators turned to new types of work; many became engaged in subassembling ships, barges, pontoons and tanks. Other military needs, such as portable bridges and other prefabricated steel structures, also served to make up for the decline in construction. The conversion of so large a part of the industry's productive capacity was accomplished with a relatively small addition to plant equipment; chief among the innovations was an increased use of welding apparatus.

For some years to come, the industry should be busy meeting the accumulated needs for building, bridges, and other heavy construction. For this reason, it was included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics series of Industry Wage Studies. This study, covering wages and wage practices effective early in 1945, is the first to be made on a national scale by the Bureau for the fabricated structural-steel industry.

In January 1945 an estimated 600 establishments with 8 or more employees were engaged in fabricating structural shapes and plates. Altogether, 324 establishments, or more than half of the fabricated structural-steel industry, were selected for study after careful consideration of factors which ordinarily influence wages, such as size of establishment, location, and unionization. Information relating to straight-time average hourly earnings of all plant workers was obtained from company records. A more detailed study was made of earnings in selected occupations.[2] In addition, an analysis was made of those wage practices which affect workers' incomes, whether in small measure through paid sick leave or in significant manner by lengthened workweeks. The data obtained covered about 24,000 workers during a typical pay-roll period in January 1945.[3]

For purposes of depicting geographical variations in wages and wage practices the data are shown according to broad regions. Variations in industry coverage within and among the regions necessitated the application of weighting factors to correct for partial coverage and to provide a balanced picture of the industry. In the presentation of average hourly earnings for all plant workers and for selected occupations, therefore, appropriate weights were used, in effect bringing the number of workers up to the estimated industry level of employment in January 1945. It should be noted, however, that the actual survey coverage was used in the discussion of methods of wage determination and sources of supplementary income.

With the exception of data relating to earnings by occupation, which apply solely to the designated jobs, the information presented herein covers all plant workers, excluding professional, supervisory, and administrative personnel. Apprentices, learners, and handicapped workers were excluded from the occupational wage data but were included in the distributions of plant workers by straight-time hourly earnings. It should be borne in mind that average straight-time

[2] Workers were classified by occupation on the basis of uniform occupational descriptions developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These descriptions are available on request.
[3] In some instances an April 1945 pay-roll period was used.

hourly wages, as presented below, do not include premium overtime or shift-differential pay, nor any additional money income accruing to workers in the form of nonproduction bonuses, vacation or sick-leave pay, paid insurance premiums, etc. They do include direct incentive earnings and cost-of-living bonuses.

Characteristics of the Industry

ESTABLISHMENT SIZE AND LOCATION

Although the majority of fabricated structural-steel plants were situated in the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes regions, sizable portions of the industry were found in other regions, close to the steel-producing centers. The Bureau's present survey revealed that over 80 percent of the establishments in the industry were in communities with populations exceeding 100,000 persons.

At the time of the survey about 6 out of every 10 establishments in the industry employed from 8 to 50 workers, while a third employed 51 to 250 workers. Among the large plants, there were at least 5 which gave employment to over 500 persons.

THE LABOR FORCE

Employment in fabricated structural-steel establishments increased markedly during the war years; in January 1945 it was estimated that 47,000 workers were employed. As mentioned previously, many plants had undertaken wartime contracts calling for types of work not normally found in the fabrication of steel for structural purposes; in general, there was an increase in the production of lighter and smaller shapes and a substitution of welded for riveted construction. These changes in turn led to significant modifications in the composition of the labor force and in the occupational structure of the industry.

In January 1945 over half of the industry's workers were engaged in processing jobs. Lay-out, fitting and joining (including welding and riveting) occupied 60 percent of the processing workers, while about 13 percent were employed in shaping and cutting; machining accounted for 7 percent, and finishing for another 7 percent. A small number of foundry and forge shop workers was also found in the industry.

Because of the size and weight of materials, one-fourth of the nonprocessing plant workers were engaged in material handling. Other important job categories included supervision, maintenance of equipment and plant, custodial work, plant clerical work, and inspection.

Occupational structure was found to vary with size of establishment, as measured by employment. Although the proportion of workers in processing occupations was roughly comparable in the two size groups studied,[4] the distribution of workers within the processing classification was not uniform. Thus, large establishments employed a comparatively smaller percentage of fitters and a higher proportion of welders. In these establishments, also, war contracts for relatively standardized units resulted in a more limited use of highly skilled lay-out men. Typically, maintenance, inspection, material handling, and office work engaged a higher proportion of workers in the larger establishments; on the other hand, working supervisors were relatively more numerous in small plants.

[4] Establishments with 8 to 50 workers and 51 or more workers.

The production of lighter shapes during the war increased the opportunities for the employment of women in this industry. Although fewer than 1,500 women were engaged in plant operations in January 1945, they were performing such jobs as welding, assembling, drill-press and punch-press operating, and many other tasks traditionally considered as man's work. As was to be expected, women were employed more extensively in the larger establishments.

Over 60 percent of the establishments covered in the Bureau's survey operated under terms of trade-union agreements. In most of the union plants, the International Association of Bridge, Structural and Ornamental Iron Workers (AFL) represented the workers, but agreements were also in effect with the United Steel Workers of America (CIO) and other unions affiliated with the AFL and CIO.

Wage Structure [5]

AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

In January 1945, the 41,700 men plant workers employed by structural-steel fabricators earned 97 cents an hour, on the average (table 1). About 6 percent earned less than 65 cents, whereas over 1 out of every 4 earned $1.10 or more on a straight-time hourly basis.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Men Plant Workers in Fabricated Structural-Steel Establishments by Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings,*[1] *and Region, January 1945*

Average hourly earnings	United States[2]	New England	Middle Atlantic	Border States	Southeast	Great Lakes	Middle West	Southwest	Pacific
	Percent of workers in each earnings group								
Under 40.0 cents	0.1	-------	-------	-------	-------	0.1	0.1	-------	-------
40.0–44.9 cents	.2	-------	0.2	1.3	0.7	(2)	.2	0.3	-------
45.0–49.9 cents	.2	-------	(2)	.6	1.2	.1	.9	.1	-------
50.0–54.9 cents	1.3	-------	.1	1.3	8.7	.1	.5	4.2	-------
55.0–59.9 cents	1.7	-------	.6	6.7	8.1	.3	.5	4.6	0.1
60.0–64.9 cents	2.3	0.7	.8	5.6	8.1	.4	1.3	11.7	-------
65.0–69.9 cents	2.9	.9	.8	6.3	9.4	1.6	3.6	10.0	-------
70.0–74.9 cents	4.4	1.1	5.6	5.4	5.6	3.2	10.6	7.5	.1
75.0–79.9 cents	8.1	1.7	9.5	7.3	7.0	9.3	10.4	11.2	.6
80.0–84.9 cents	8.8	15.0	11.4	11.5	4.7	8.7	13.4	8.1	14.7
85.0–89.9 cents	10.2	6.1	13.5	11.5	6.5	12.3	9.3	5.9	1.7
90.0–94.9 cents	8.5	6.4	8.2	5.5	5.0	10.8	9.8	7.9	6.0
95.0–99.9 cents	8.7	16.3	6.9	3.4	4.0	10.3	16.7	5.2	9.6
100.0–104.9 cents	8.9	6.4	6.8	6.7	7.9	10.6	14.5	5.3	9.6
105.0–109.9 cents	6.5	15.5	5.7	2.3	7.0	7.6	2.7	4.6	5.0
110.0–114.9 cents	6.4	8.0	5.7	3.6	5.7	7.4	1.2	3.8	10.1
115.0–119.9 cents	4.6	3.3	7.3	4.5	4.0	4.3	1.3	2.2	4.0
120.0–124.9 cents	4.7	5.6	6.5	5.3	3.4	2.5	1.0	2.4	14.6
125.0–129.9 cents	3.4	3.3	2.8	6.6	1.4	1.9	.9	2.9	13.9
130.0–134.9 cents	2.7	1.7	1.6	.2	.3	4.5	.5	1.1	4.7
135.0–139.9 cents	1.6	1.5	.9	.3	.4	1.2	.1	.4	9.3
140.0–144.9 cents	.7	.9	.7	.2	.3	.8	-------	(2)	1.9
145.0–149.9 cents	.4	.5	.8	-------	.1	.2	-------	-------	1.0
150.0–159.9 cents	1.2	1.4	1.5	3.4	.3	.6	-------	.4	3.7
160.0–169.9 cents	.6	2.5	.4	-------	.1	.5	.3	.2	2.5
170.0–179.9 cents	.4	.7	.8	.5	.1	.4	.1	(2)	.4
180.0–189.9 cents	.2	.1	.3	-------	-------	.2	.1	(2)	.3
190.0–199.9 cents	.1	.3	.1	-------	-------	(2)	-------	-------	.1
200.0 cents and over	.2	.1	.5	-------	(2)	.1	-------	-------	.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	[3] 41,729	1,618	9,328	2,146	4,107	16,040	1,845	2,903	3,626
Average hourly earnings [1]	$0.97	$1.04	$0.99	$0.90	$0.83	$0.98	$0.89	$0.83	$1.19

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work. [2] Less than 0.05 of 1 percent.
[3] Includes data for 2 establishments in Mountain region.

[5] Information regarding minimum establishment entrance rates and job rates, intercity variation in wage rates and detailed data relating to other matters treated briefly in this article are presented in a mimeographed report (Wage Structure: Fabricated Structural Steel, 1945), available from the Bureau on request.

A distribution of the relatively small number of women plant workers employed in the industry indicated that approximately 14 percent earned less than 65 cents an hour. The difference between the earnings of men and those of women workers was relatively small, particularly when viewed in the light of general industrial practices. The approximately 1,300 women plant workers averaged 91 cents an hour, or 6 cents an hour less than the men's average. In the two regions where women were employed in greatest number—Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes—the men's advantage in average earnings was no greater than 1 and 2 cents, respectively. A combined distribution of men and women plant workers would, of course, reflect the overwhelming incidence of men in the industry.

OCCUPATIONAL WAGE RATES

In an analysis of occupational wage rates it is not necessary to study all job rates; average earnings for a carefully selected group of occupations will usually serve to illustrate the prevailing occupational wage structure. Moreover, the use of uniform job descriptions in classifying workers and the exclusion of occupations peculiar to only a few plants, types of operation, or products, assure a comparable basis for analyzing wages in different situations.

Table 2 shows average straight-time wage rates for key occupations in each region and for the country as a whole. Wage rates for men in the industry ranged from 62 cents an hour for watchmen to $1.25 an hour earned by working foremen. Among the occupations that engaged the greatest number of men, class A structural fitters averaged $1.13 an hour, class B fitters 94 cents, class A lay-out men $1.19, class A hand welders $1.11, and class B hand welders $1.05.

Data were obtained for only two jobs for which women were fairly consistently hired: Class A and class B hand welders. The straight-time wages of women in these occupations exceeded the average shown for men in those jobs by 1 and 4 cents, respectively. Almost all of the women welders were employed in union plants.

The average straight-time hourly earnings of the office workers in selected occupations shown in table 2 do not include premium overtime pay or any of the other increments to real or cash income discussed in a later section of this report.

The small number of men employed in office work in the industry received higher rates of pay, on the average, than women in comparable jobs. Women's earnings varied from 54 cents an hour for office girls to 91 cents an hour for hand bookkeepers. It is interesting to note that, as a group, the average hourly rate of pay of women plant workers (91 cents) equalled that of the highest-paid office job studied.[6]

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN WAGE RATES [7]

The highest level of earnings in the fabricated structural-steel industry was found in the Pacific region where men averaged $1.19 in straight-time pay (table 1). Men plant workers in Southeastern and Southwestern establishments, averaging 83 cents, fared the poorest among the regions represented. The largest group of workers earning

[6] Because of problems encountered in classifying office workers, only those occupations in which duties and responsibilities are relatively comparable among establishments were studied.

[7] See footnote on p. 626.

less than 65 cents an hour in the industry was employed in the two southern regions. In the Great Lakes area, where the industry is most heavily concentrated, an average of 98 cents an hour was paid to men plant workers; in New England and Middle Atlantic establishments the averages were slightly higher.

Table 2 contains a regional analysis of occupational wage rates. The wage superiority of the Pacific Coast region is clearly evident, showing the highest averages in almost every occupation, but no precise position can be assigned to the other regions. Establishments in the Middle Atlantic, Great Lakes, and New England regions generally paid the higher rates, while those of plants in the Southeast, Middle West and Southwest were usually low.

VARIATION IN LEVELS OF PAY WITH SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENT, SIZE OF COMMUNITY, AND UNIONIZATION

In January 1945 establishments employing more than 50 workers showed no predominant tendency to pay higher rates than plants with fewer employees. In the Southeastern, Great Lakes, and Middle West regions workers in the larger plants had higher average rates in most of the occupations studied, but the contrary was true in Pacific Coast plants. For the industry as a whole, no decided advantage one way or the other was apparent.

Less than a fifth of the establishments covered in the survey were situated in communities with fewer than 100,000 persons. Workers in these plants were at a disadvantage in terms of average hourly rates when compared with workers performing similar jobs in the larger cities. In three of the five regions in which there was a sufficient number of plants in small communities to justify a comparison, men in the larger cities enjoyed a distinct advantage; in the other two regions—Middle Atlantic and Southwest—no consistent difference was observed.

Union establishments, which made up the greater part of the industry, showed higher average wages than did nonunion plants for most of the jobs covered. In only one important production job, class A hand welders, did nonunion exceed union average earnings, but a marked advantage was indicated for union class B welders. Workers in union plants did not consistently receive higher wages in all of the regions; in the Border States, particularly, where there was an equal number of union and nonunion plants, the nonunion plant workers had, on the average, higher wages per hour in most of the occupations studied.

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[7] The regions used in this study are as follows: *New England*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont. *Middle Atlantic*—New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. *Border States*—Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia. *Southeast*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee. *Great Lakes*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin. *Middle West*—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota. *Southwest*—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. *Mountain*—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming. *Pacific*—California, Nevada, Oregon and Washington. Fabricated structural-steel plants were not found in all States.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Wage Rates (Straight-Time Hourly Earnings)* [1] *for Selected Occupations in Fabricated Structural-Steel Establishments, January 1945*

Occupation, grade, and sex	United States [2]		New England		Middle Atlantic		Border States		Southeast	
	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate
Plant workers										
Men:										
Buckers-up	301	$0.81	14	$0.85	81	$0.87	12	$0.68	20	$0.71
Carpenters, maintenance	64	1.18	9	1.35	14	1.01	12	1.43	1	(3)
Crane operators, electric bridge	912	.91	12	1.24	331	.92	37	.76	55	.89
Electricians, maintenance	192	1.12	2	(3)	66	1.09	11	.97	15	1.06
Fitters, structural, class A	1,624	1.13	143	1.08	356	1.18	147	1.12	131	.99
Fitters, structural, class B	1,661	.94	13	.93	350	1.00	170	.85	136	.82
Guards	165	.71	4	(3)	21	.69	15	.43	58	.55
Inspectors, class A	177	1.12	2	(3)	29	1.14	5	(3)	15	1.12
Inspectors, class B	231	1.01	4	(3)	36	.94	2	(3)	-------	-------
Inspectors, class C	86	.80	-------	-------	7	(3)	-------	-------	-------	-------
Janitors	343	.68	4	(3)	78	.66	7	.49	38	.50
Lay-out men, class A	1,125	1.19	74	1.25	303	1.25	106	1.08	126	1.05
Lay-out men, class B	511	.99	46	1.15	162	1.01	36	.94	34	.80
Machinists, maintenance	206	1.11	6	.97	51	1.09	5	1.10	38	1.09
Maintenance men, general utility	374	1.02	20	1.09	68	1.08	15	.90	22	.87
Painters, rough	906	.86	16	.97	216	.85	80	.64	148	.97
Power-shear operators, class A	290	.99	12	1.06	90	.98	32	1.01	37	.91
Power-shear operators, class B	612	.86	2	(3)	143	.94	70	.83	78	.70
Riveters, hydraulic	170	.86	-------	-------	113	.84	-------	-------	2	(3)
Riveters, pneumatic	434	.94	9	(3)	122	.98	52	.77	30	.94
Stock clerks	194	.88	13	.88	24	.97	4	(3)	48	.85
Truck drivers	540	.87	24	.92	111	.94	66	.77	59	.65
Watchmen	452	.62	8	(3)	119	.64	25	.46	38	.54
Welders, hand, class A	4,659	1.11	282	1.09	906	1.14	313	1.08	350	1.06
Welders, hand, class B	3,388	1.05	118	.99	717	1.11	70	1.09	280	.93
Working foremen, processing departments	1,380	1.25	61	1.41	157	1.35	67	1.19	132	1.16
Women:										
Welders, hand, class A	111	1.12	10	1.08	34	1.06	-------	-------	-------	-------
Welders, hand, class B	322	1.09	49	1.00	223	1.14	-------	-------	-------	-------
Office workers										
Men:										
Bookkeepers, hand	91	1.09	6	.89	17	1.15	2	(3)	3	(3)
Clerks, accounting	24	.90	-------	-------	3	(3)	-------	-------	-------	-------
Clerks, general	17	.76	-------	-------	2	(3)	4	(3)	-------	-------
Clerks, order	18	1.06	-------	-------	2	(3)	2	(3)	1	(3)
Clerks, pay-roll	25	.90	-------	-------	5	1.10	-------	-------	-------	-------
Women:										
Bookkeepers, hand	207	.91	30	.86	72	.90	7	.82	-------	-------
Bookkeeping-machine operators, class A	25	.89	-------	-------	3	(3)	4	(3)	-------	-------
Calculating-machine operators, class A	26	.82	-------	-------	5	.85	-------	-------	1	(3)
Calculating-machine operators, class B	31	.68	-------	-------	2	(3)	-------	-------	-------	-------
Clerk-typists	159	.64	14	.65	36	.62	4	(3)	10	.69
Clerks, accounting	55	.83	2	(3)	15	.83	6	.74	-------	-------
Clerks, file, class B	23	.58	2	(3)	6	.70	-------	-------	1	(3)
Clerks, general	127	.71	9	.53	36	.76	5	.63	6	.67
Clerks, pay-roll	135	.74	6	.72	33	.69	3	(3)	11	.69
Office girls	25	.54	-------	-------	6	.53	-------	-------	6	.52
Stenographers, class A	148	.83	10	.80	19	.81	4	(3)	23	.78
Stenographers, class B	275	.72	9	.69	87	.76	12	.66	7	.69
Switchboard operators	19	.69	-------	-------	12	.69	-------	-------	4	(3)
Switchboard operator-receptionists	120	.69	3	(3)	22	.68	6	.63	-------	-------
Typists, copy, class B	23	.57	-------	-------	3	(3)	-------	-------	1	(3)

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.
[2] Includes data for two establishments in Mountain region.
[3] Insufficient number of workers to justify presentation of average.

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TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Wage Rates (Straight-Time Hourly Earnings)* [1] *for Selected Occupations in Fabricated Structural-Steel Establishments, January 1945*—Continued

Occupation, grade, and sex	Great Lakes		Middle West		Southwest		Pacific	
	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate
Plant workers								
Men:								
Buckers-up	101	$0.83	38	$0.76	34	$0.73	1	(3)
Carpenters, maintenance	19	1.08	2	(3)			7	$1.29
Crane operators, electric bridge	329	.91	52	.82	40	.78	54	1.11
Electricians, maintenance	58	1.17	10	1.00	5	1.12	24	1.24
Fitters, structural, class A	454	1.11	90	.99	44	1.13	252	1.24
Fitters, structural, class B	581	.93	76	.88	87	.84	243	1.07
Guards	61	.92			3	(3)	3	(3)
Inspectors, class A	105	1.12	8	(3)	5	(3)	8	(3)
Inspectors, class B	170	1.03	14	.98	5	(3)		
Inspectors, class C	74	.79	2	(3)	3	(3)		
Janitors	157	.77	24	.50	17	.52	17	.87
Lay-out men, class A	317	1.18	50	1.07	37	1.09	95	1.37
Lay-out men, class B	127	.97	24	.88	57	.94	24	1.25
Machinists, maintenance	63	1.15	26	.94			17	1.32
Maintenance men, general utility	187	1.03	18	.76	29	.97	15	1.26
Painters, rough	268	.87	70	.79	47	.73	59	1.07
Power-shear operators, class A	67	1.00	12	.90	20	.91	19	1.18
Power-shear operators, class B	220	.89	50	.84	28	.75	21	1.07
Riveters, hydraulic	50	.92			5	(3)		
Riveters, pneumatic	129	.97	48	.91	33	.89	11	1.17
Stock clerks	67	.89	12	.81	13	.76	12	1.09
Truck drivers	155	.91	26	.81	38	.71	55	1.07
Watchmen	192	.65	26	.53	24	.54	20	.85
Welders, hand, class A	1,835	1.07	172	1.04	193	1.14	600	1.27
Welders, hand, class B	1,563	1.08	274	.92	250	.96	116	1.17
Working foremen, processing departments	549	1.22	101	1.03	99	1.13	203	1.43
Women:								
Welders, hand, class A	46	1.16			2	(3)	19	1.20
Welders, hand, class B	40	.96			10	.84		
Office workers								
Men:								
Bookkeepers, hand	23	1.15	14	1.02	15	1.06	11	1.16
Clerks, accounting	4	(3)	14	.81	1	(3)	2	(3)
Clerks, general	3	(3)	6	.78	2	(3)		
Clerks, order	5	1.43			6	.91	2	(3)
Clerks, pay-roll	5	1.05	10	.72	5	.91		
Women:								
Bookkeepers, hand	64	.90	8	1.14	3	(3)	18	.99
Bookkeeping-machine operators, class A	18	.90						
Calculating-machine operators, class A	18	.81					2	(3)
Calculating-machine operators, class B	27	.69	2	(3)				
Clerk-typists	71	.62	4	(3)	9	.67	11	.75
Clerks, accounting	13	.72	2	(3)	4	(3)	9	1.03
Clerks, file, class B	8	.54	4	(3)	2	(3)		
Clerks, general	56	.72	6	.63	7	.72	2	(3)
Clerks, pay-roll	56	.74	2	(3)	6	.81	17	.90
Office girls	9	.53	2	(3)			2	(3)
Stenographers, class A	56	.87	8	.81	22	.75	5	1.02
Stenographers, class B	118	.68	20	.71	4	(3)	14	.80
Switchboard operators	2	(3)			1	(3)		
Switchboard operator-receptionists	58	.70	12	.61	8	.61	11	.78
Typists, copy, class B	17	.54					2	(3)

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.
[2] Includes data for two establishments in Mountain region.
[3] Insufficient number of workers to justify presentation of average.

Wage Practices and Sources of Supplementary Income

In wage negotiation interest is usually centered on wage rates; to employers they represent a critical element of labor cost, while to trade-unions they are considered the key to workers' income. To both groups, however, "fringe issues" involving methods of wage payment and the various ways in which workers' income may be supplemented are of considerable interest. Because of wartime stabilization of wage rates, many of these "fringe issues" gained in importance since they served as inducements to hold personnel and to attract new workers, besides offering a means of adding to the total income and well-being of workers.

METHODS OF WAGE DETERMINATION

An incentive-wage system, whereby workers were compensated according to individual or group productivity, was rarely used by fabricated structural-steel plants; only 14 of the 324 establishments surveyed reported a significant proportion of their workers on an incentive-pay basis in January 1945. Where found, the incentive was usually a production bonus. The ratio of union establishments to nonunion establishments with incentive systems was similar to that for the industry as a whole.[8] As might be expected, a greater proportion of the larger establishments had adopted incentive-wage plans. About 7 percent of the industry's plant personnel worked on an incentive-pay basis, most of these workers being employed in large establishments.

The wartime stabilization program gave impetus to the formalization of rates within individual establishments. At the time of the Bureau's survey three-fourths of the industry had formal rate structures, incorporating in most instances a recognized range of rates for each job rather than a single established job rate; the other establishments related the wage rates to the individual worker rather than to the job.

WORK SCHEDULES AND PREMIUM PAY

Although this survey did not attempt to measure gross earnings, data are presented relating to the payment of shift differentials (a form of supplementary income) and to scheduled weekly hours of work, which form one of the chief determinants of weekly pay and were an important source of premium pay during the war years.

A study of normal weekly hours for first-shift workers in January 1945 indicated that schedules for men in all but a small number of plants called for at least 48 hours of work per week; in the majority of instances more than 48 hours were reported. Women also remained on the job for a considerable number of overtime hours, working 48 hours or more a week in all but 5 of the plants in which they were employed.

Although the present survey was made during a period of high employment in the industry, less than a fourth of the plants operated more than a single shift. Slightly more than 10 percent of the indus-

[8] 9 of the 14 establishments with incentive-wage systems were union plants.

try's labor force worked on the second shift, while the third shift accounted for another 1 percent. Second-shift workers in most multiple-shift plants were rewarded with extra pay, usually in the form of 5 cents an hour added to their base rates. Among the 7 establishments in which a third shift was maintained, only 1 plant did not pay a premium to these night workers.

NONPRODUCTION BONUSES

Half of the establishments in the industry reported the payment of nonproduction bonuses to plant workers; a bonus at Christmas was the most common type of extra payment. In an effort to arrive at an approximate figure which would indicate to what extent workers benefited by these additions, information was obtained regarding the amount of money paid out and a rough apportionment was made to show the net effect, over the year, upon average hourly earnings in the industry. The net addition to workers' average hourly earnings created by nonproduction bonuses of all types amounted to 1 cent. Office workers fared slightly better than plant workers with respect to nonproduction bonuses. (Nonproduction bonuses were not included in the data on straight-time hourly earnings presented earlier in this report.)

VACATIONS, SICK LEAVE, AND INSURANCE PROVISIONS

Paid vacations were offered to plant workers with a year or more of service by almost two-thirds of the establishments studied. Except in a few instances the vacation period was 1 week. Vacation policies for office workers were more liberal.

Formal provisions for paid sick leave were not common for plant personnel; only 4 establishments paid workers for a limited number of days of illness. Office workers in 13 establishments were covered by a formal sick-leave policy.

Slightly more than a third of the 324 establishments surveyed maintained some form of insurance or pension plan covering plant workers. In most of these establishments workers had life-insurance policies paid for in whole or in part by the employer, while health (or accident) insurance policies were in effect in 50 plants. Retirement-pension plans were rarely encountered. Office workers were covered by insurance in approximately the same measure as plant workers.

Union Wages and Hours in the Printing Trades, July 1, 1945 [1]

Summary

HOURLY wages of union printing-trades workers in 75 cities on July 1, 1945, averaged $1.355, an advance of 1.4 percent over July 1, 1944. The newspaper branch averaged $1.541—the day-shift workers $1.464, and the night-shift workers $1.611. In the book and job branch hourly rates averaged $1.261. Photoengravers registered the highest trade averages in both the book and job and newspaper branches ($1.736 and $1.814, respectively). A substantial majority of the book and job and day-shift newspaper workers had hourly rates ranging from $1.20 to $1.60; on the night newspaper shifts about half of the workers received $1.60 or more per hour. Approximately one-third of the book and job members and almost two-fifths of the newspaper tradesmen had received rate increases since July 1, 1944, amounting to less than 5 percent in most instances. However, increases ranging from 5 to 40 cents per hour were negotiated between July 1945 and February 1946; almost three-fourths amounted to at least 10 cents per hour.

The straight-time workweek for all printing tradesmen averaged 39 hours. The book and job branch averaged 39.7 hours and the newspaper branch 37.5. Practically all of the workers were covered by agreements stipulating time and a half for work beyond the regular contract hours. Premium rates of double time applied to more than 90 percent of the book and job members and 42 percent of the newspaper printing tradesmen if they were required to work on Sunday or the seventh consecutive day.

Scope and Method of Study

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has made annual studies of union wage and hour scales in various trades on a Nation-wide basis since 1907. Originally, the survey of the printing trades was confined to 7 book and job and 4 newspaper occupations in 39 cities. Coverage was gradually broadened and currently includes 11 book and job and 8 newspaper occupations in 75 principal cities.[2] Field representatives of the Bureau gathered the basic data for this report through personal interview with officials of local printing-trades unions in each city. These data included rates stipulated in the working agreements effective July 1, 1945. Scales in negotiation or awaiting War Labor

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by Donald H. Gerrish and Herbert M. Abowitz.
[2] Cities are listed in table 3.

Board action at the time of survey were reviewed prior to tabulation to insure inclusion of any changes retroactive to July 1, 1945. Data regarding wage-rate changes between July 1945 and date of publication were obtained from various sources.

In making use of the information contained in this report, it should be kept in mind that all the averages and tabulations are based on union scales. A union scale is a minimum wage rate or maximum schedule of hours 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 or special qualifications, or for personal reasons. Such special rates were not used in the preparation of this report. Also excluded were scales for apprentices, supervisory foremen, and union members employed in Government printing plants where rates, although negotiated through collective-bargaining procedures, are not incorporated in written agreements signed by both parties. This survey included 2,603 rate quotations, covering 63,735 book and job members and 31,993 newspaper members.

The various averages shown herein were based on effective union scales weighted by the number of members actually covered by each scale.[3] However, because of annual fluctuations in the weighting factor (membership) the averages do not accurately reflect year-to-year changes. For example, a substantial increase in membership during one year in cities or occupations having lower-than-average rates would tend to depress the average, even though rates increased. To eliminate such distortions the Bureau has constructed an index series (1939=100) which measures year-to-year changes.[4] This series should be used to determine the trend of hourly wage rates, while the current averages best serve as a basis for comparing the general level of wage rates among trades, cities, and regions at the time of survey.

Union Hourly Wate Rates

TREND OF UNION WAGE RATES

The index of union hourly wage rates for all printing-trades workers in the 75 cities studied showed an increase of 1.4 percent between July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945 (table 1). Similar increases were recorded for each branch (book and job, and newspaper), raising the indexes for these branches to 113.7 and 116.7, respectively, since 1939.

Among the individual book and job trades, photoengravers received the highest average increase (2.2 percent), followed closely by bindery women (2.1 percent) and electrotypers (2.0 percent); the smallest increase between July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945, was recorded for bookbinders (less than 1 percent). All other trades in this branch had increases averaging at least 1 percent. In the newspaper branch, photoengravers also reported the largest advance (2.1 percent), while stereotypers had the smallest (less than 1 percent). All other crafts

[3] A bulletin to be published shortly will show the actual union scale effective for each occupation in each of the cities included in the survey, and where possible the wage changes between July 1, 1945, and date of publication.

[4] Annual percent of change was computed from aggregates of the quotations of unions which furnished eports for identical classifications in 2 consecutive years. The membership weights in both the aggregates r sed for each year-to-year comparison were those reported for the second year.
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in this section of the industry showed gains averaging between 1 and 2 percent.

The rise in the index during the 5-year period, 1940–45, showed an average increase of 12.7 percent in rates for book and job workers and 14 percent for newspaper workers. In the 5-year period covering World War I (1914–19), rates for book and job workers increased 44 percent, and those for newspaper workers 31 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates in All Printing Trades, 1907–45*

Year	Indexes (1939=100) of hourly wage rates			Year	Indexes (1939=100) of hourly wage rates		
	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper		All printing	Book and job	Newspaper
1907	(1)	27.0	35.3	1927	87.0	87.5	86.3
1908	(1)	29.9	37.2	1928	88.6	88.7	88.5
1909	(1)	32.1	38.8	1929	89.9	89.9	90.0
1910	(1)	33.8	40.1	1930	91.3	91.5	90.9
1911	36.0	34.7	40.7	1931	91.8	92.1	91.2
1912	36.6	35.3	41.4	1932	91.1	91.2	91.0
1913	37.3	36.0	42.3	1933	85.7	86.1	85.1
1914	38.0	36.8	42.7	1934	87.5	88.5	86.2
1915	38.2	36.9	43.0	1935	90.8	90.4	91.5
1916	38.6	37.5	43.2	1936	92.9	93.0	92.8
1917	39.9	38.8	44.3	1937	96.0	96.0	96.3
1918	43.4	43.0	46.4	1938	99.1	99.2	98.8
1919	53.1	53.0	56.0	1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
1920	68.1	69.1	68.5	1940	101.4	100.9	102.2
1921	74.6	76.1	74.5	1941	102.6	102.0	103.6
1922	75.4	76.4	75.2	1942	107.0	106.4	108.1
1923	77.7	79.4	76.0	1943	110.4	109.3	112.6
1924	81.5	82.7	80.6	1944	113.1	112.2	115.1
1925	82.7	83.5	82.0	1945	114.6	113.7	116.7
1926	84.5	85.4	83.8				

[1] Combined data for years 1907–10 not available.

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGE RATES, JULY 1, 1945

Printing-trade workers under union contract in 75 cities averaged $1.355 per hour on July 1, 1945; book and job employees receiving $1.261 and newspaper employees $1.541 (table 2). Day-shift newspaper workers averaged substantially less than those on the night shift, $1.464 compared to $1.611. Night-shift book and job workers were not included in this study, because the normal working force in this classification was too small to yield significant results.

Almost three-fifths of the workers in all the printing trades combined had rates ranging from $1.20 to $1.60. About a third of the book and job members worked under agreements providing rates of $1.20 to $1.40 per hour, and over a fourth earned between $1.40 and $1.60. In the newspaper branch, slightly over a quarter of the membership received between $1.20 and $1.40 and about a third earned between $1.40 and $1.60. Only 11 percent of the book and job workers had rates exceeding $1.60, compared to over a third of the newspaper workers. Twice as many night workers as day workers had rates above $1.70.

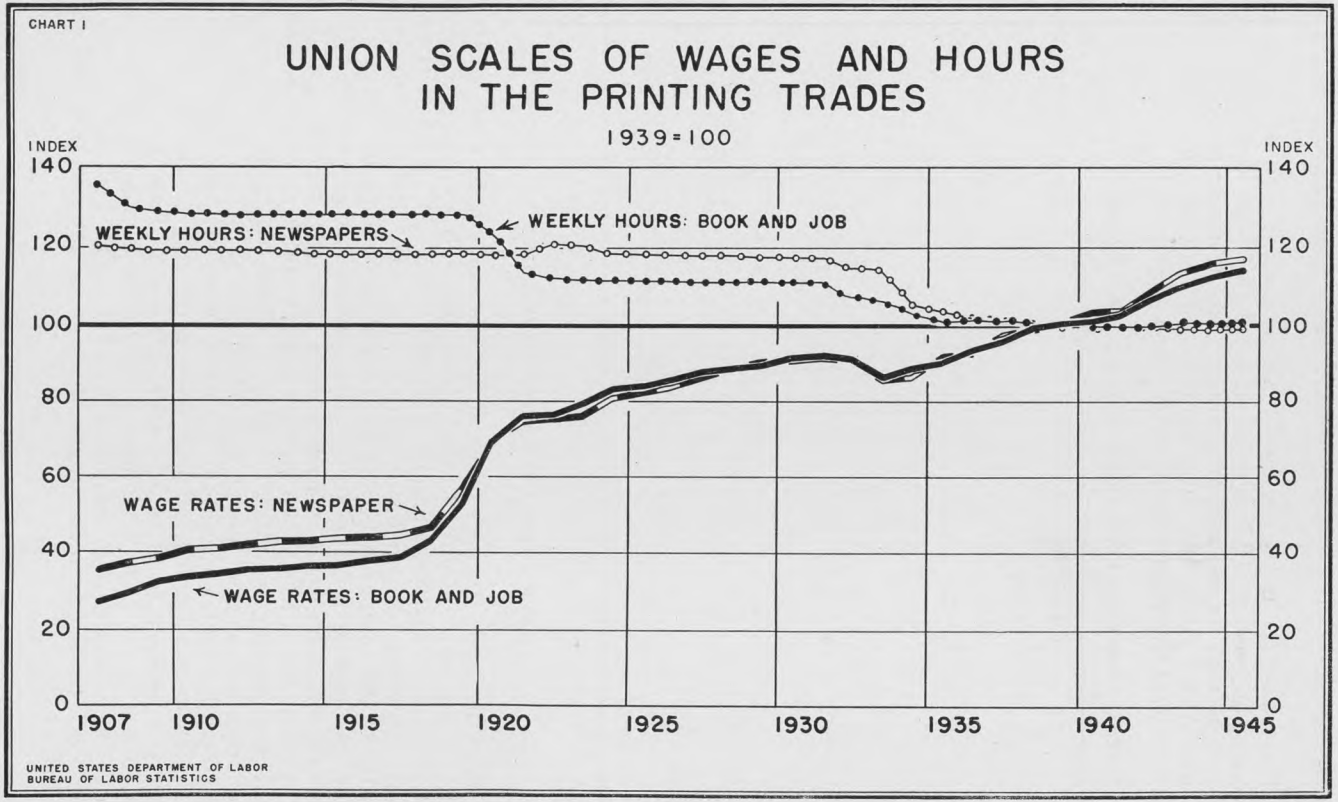


TABLE 2.—*Average Union Rates Per Hour and Hours Per Week in the Printing Trades, July 1, 1945*

Trade	Average rate per hour	Average hours per week
All printing trades	$1.355	39.0
Book and job	1.261	39.7
Bindery women	.655	40.0
Bookbinders	1.252	40.0
Compositors, hand	1.415	39.9
Electrotypers	1.615	40.0
Machine operators	1.449	39.9
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.479	39.8
Mailers	1.205	39.9
Photoengravers	1.736	37.3
Press assistants and feeders	1.101	39.9
Pressman, cylinder	1.406	39.9
Pressmen, platen	1.201	40.0
Newspaper	1.541	37.5
Day work	1.464	38.1
Night work	1.611	36.9
Compositors, hand	1.617	37.4
Day work	1.546	37.5
Night work	1.677	37.3
Newspaper—Continued.		
Machine operators	$1.596	37.4
Day work	1.521	37.6
Night work	1.660	37.3
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.615	37.4
Day work	1.539	37.5
Night work	1.692	37.3
Mailers	1.219	38.1
Day work	1.123	39.2
Night work	1.278	37.5
Photoengravers	1.814	38.0
Day work	1.719	38.2
Night work	1.928	37.8
Pressmen (journeymen)	1.495	37.3
Day work	1.397	38.7
Night work	1.595	35.9
Pressmen-in-charge	1.650	37.5
Day work	1.556	38.8
Night work	1.764	35.9
Stereotypers	1.500	37.0
Day work	1.404	38.3
Night work	1.626	35.3

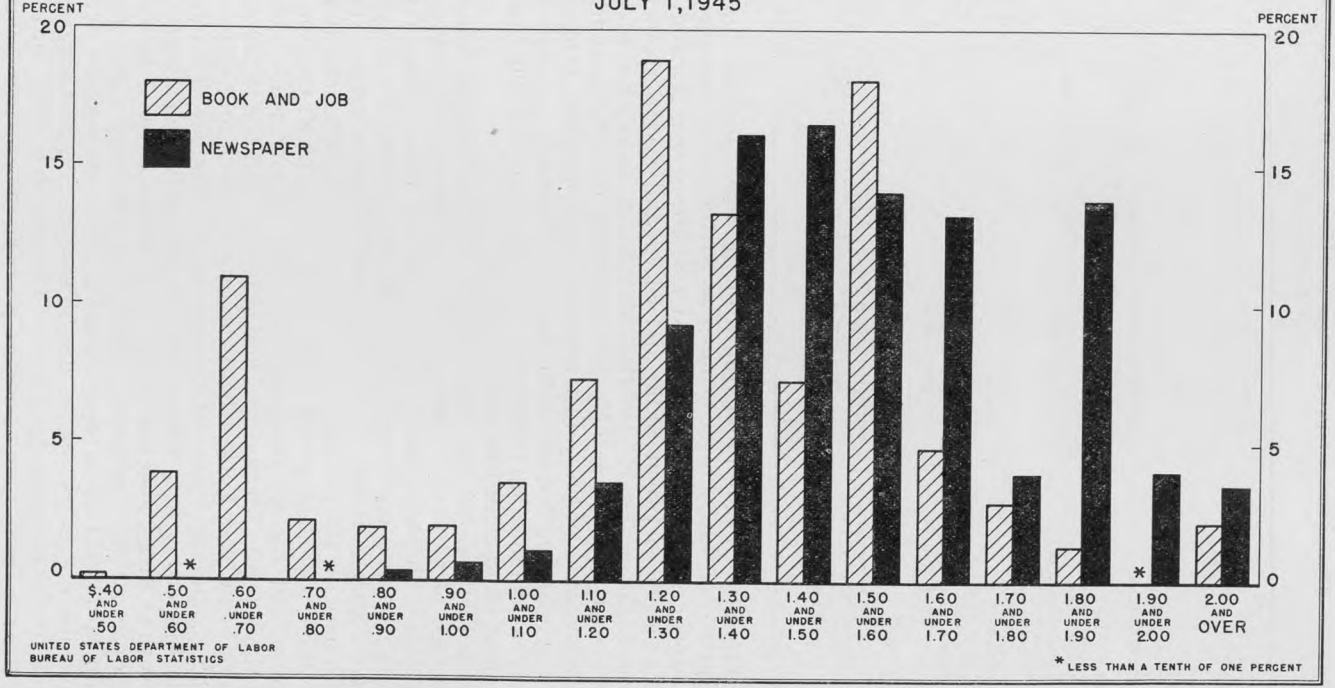
Averages of individual trades in the book and job branch ranged from $0.655 for bindery women to $1.736 for photoengravers. The photoengravers had no rates under $1.20; over a third of their members earned between $1.60 and $1.70 and about a fourth received over $2.00 per hour. On the other hand, more than 8 out of every 10 bindery women earned between $0.50 and $0.70 per hour. Rates in this branch of the industry have always been low, primarily because of the unskilled nature of the work. Electrotypers, with 55.3 percent of their membership covered by rates of $1.70 to $1.90, had the second highest average in this branch ($1.615).

Photoengravers also ranked first in the newspaper branch, with an average of $1.814 per hour, while mailers had the lowest average—$1.219. Photoengravers reported almost three-fifths of their night-shift members receiving at least $2.00 per hour, 45 percent of whom were located in the New York and Chicago areas. Pressmen-in-charge, with the second highest average ($1.650), reported two-thirds of their day-shift group being paid $1.30 to $1.60; the night-shift group had the greatest concentration of any trade (10.3 percent) in the top rate bracket ($2.20 and over). All the latter were gravure workers in New York, where the rate on black and white presses was $2.233, and on color $2.315 per hour. Mailers, the only trade in the branch with a substantial portion of its membership receiving less than $1.20, also had very few members covered by rates of $1.50 or over. Trades revealing significant blocks of night-shift membership earning $1.60 or more included hand compositors (60.8 percent), machine operators (59.9), machinists (66.5), photoengravers (93.3), and pressmen-in-charge (58.6). On the day shift only the photoengravers had a comparable proportion of their members (76.2 percent) in these rate intervals. The range of individual rates in the newspaper branch revealed a high of $2.865 for night-shift Hebrew-

CHART 2

DISTRIBUTION OF UNION MEMBERS IN PRINTING TRADES ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES

JULY 1, 1945



text hand compositors and machine operators in New York City and a low of $0.588 for day mailers in Portland, Maine.

CHANGES IN UNION WAGE RATES BETWEEN 1944 AND 1945

Wage increases for printing-trade workers during the period of the study seldom exceeded 10 percent; almost two-thirds of those receiving increases benefited by less than 5 percent, a third had advances of 5 to 10 percent, and a small number 10 percent or more. The maximum increase, 27 percent, covered only 8 workers. When the two branches were considered separately, it was found that a slightly higher proportion of newspaper workers (39 percent) than of book and job workers (33 percent) received increases. However, the increases were generally smaller among newspaper workers; three-fourths of the latter who obtained raises benefited by less than 5 percent compared to three-fifths of the book and job members. Very few in either branch had their rates raised by as much as 10 percent.

In the individual book and job trades, mailers had the greatest proportion of members receiving increases (62.1 percent), but practically all in this group benefited by less than 5 percent. Similarly, almost three-fifths of the electrotypers reported gains, but very few of the raises amounted to as much as 5 percent. Bookbinders benefited least by wage changes; only 15 percent of their membership was affected, and only 3 out of every 10 had rates raised by 5 percent or more. In only two trades, photoengravers and bindery women, did the number of members having increases of 5 percent or more exceed the number with gains of smaller amounts. Bindery women were the only group in the book and job branch showing a sizable proportion of members receiving increases of 10 percent or more—4.7 percent had rates raised by 10 to 15 percent, and 5.2 percent received increases of 15 percent or more.

In the newspaper branch about half of the photoengravers, pressmen, and pressmen-in-charge had wage advances during the year. Among night workers, mailers showed the largest percentage of workers getting raises (67 percent). On day work, every trade except photoengravers reported that most of the raises amounted to less than 5 percent. Stereotypers were the only newspaper group with a significant proportion of those receiving increases (13 percent of the day workers and 9 percent of the night workers) benefiting by 10 percent or more.

WAGE CHANGES BETWEEN JULY 1945 AND FEBRUARY 1946

Wage increases negotiated through collective bargaining in the industry since the survey date (July 1) have been both extensive and substantial. Practically all the increases occurred after August 18, the date of the Executive order permitting general wage changes under certain conditions. A check in February 1946 indicated that raises ranged from 5 to 40 cents per hour. About one-third of the increases fell between 10 and 15 cents; one-fifth were in the 5- to 10-cent bracket; and another one-fifth provided increases of 15 to 20 cents per hour. Over two-fifths of the book and job employees included

in the July study and about three-fifths of the newspaper employees were covered by these raises. As checks of the basic data on wage changes were not possible in all cases, owing to time and staff limitations, this material is meant only to give a general picture of the wage changes in the industry since VJ-day.

NIGHT-SHIFT DIFFERENTIALS IN NEWSPAPER TRADES [5]

On July 1, 1945, union members on night shifts in the newspaper printing trades were paid 11.5 cents more per hour on the average than day-shift workers. Average differentials ranged from 8.1 cents per hour for type-setting-machine operators to 19.5 cents for photoengravers. Actual earnings of night-shift newspaper journeymen were not necessarily higher than those of day workers, as in many instances the night force worked fewer hours for the same daily or weekly scales set for day workers.

Shift differentials varied from 2 cents to 71.5 cents per hour. Stereotypers showed the greatest differences between day and night scales, with over 29 percent of the night stereotypers earning as much as 40 cents more per hour than day workers. Virtually all of these tradesmen were employed in New York City, where the same daily rate was paid to the night shift working 6 hours and to the day shift working 7.5 hours. The differential for this trade in Newark was 46.7 cents, resulting from the same daily scale applying to a day shift of 8 hours and a night shift of 6 hours. In Chicago, a combination of shorter night hours and higher night scales resulted in a differential of 36.3 cents for night-shift stereotypers on foreign-language newspapers. Photoengraving was the only trade which showed a majority of its members receiving differentials exceeding 20 cents an hour. Most of the latter were concentrated in New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia, where higher night scales prevailed for equivalent work shifts.

Over half of the night mailers (54.5 percent) received between 14 and 16 cents an hour more than those on the day shift. These night mailers, all working in New York City or Chicago, were covered by agreements providing both higher scales and shorter hours for night work. The highest differential was found in the Hebrew publishing field in New York City; the same weekly scale for both day and night work, combined with 25 percent shorter hours for night work than for day work, resulted in a 71.5-cent hourly premium for night hand compositors and machine operators.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN WAGE RATES

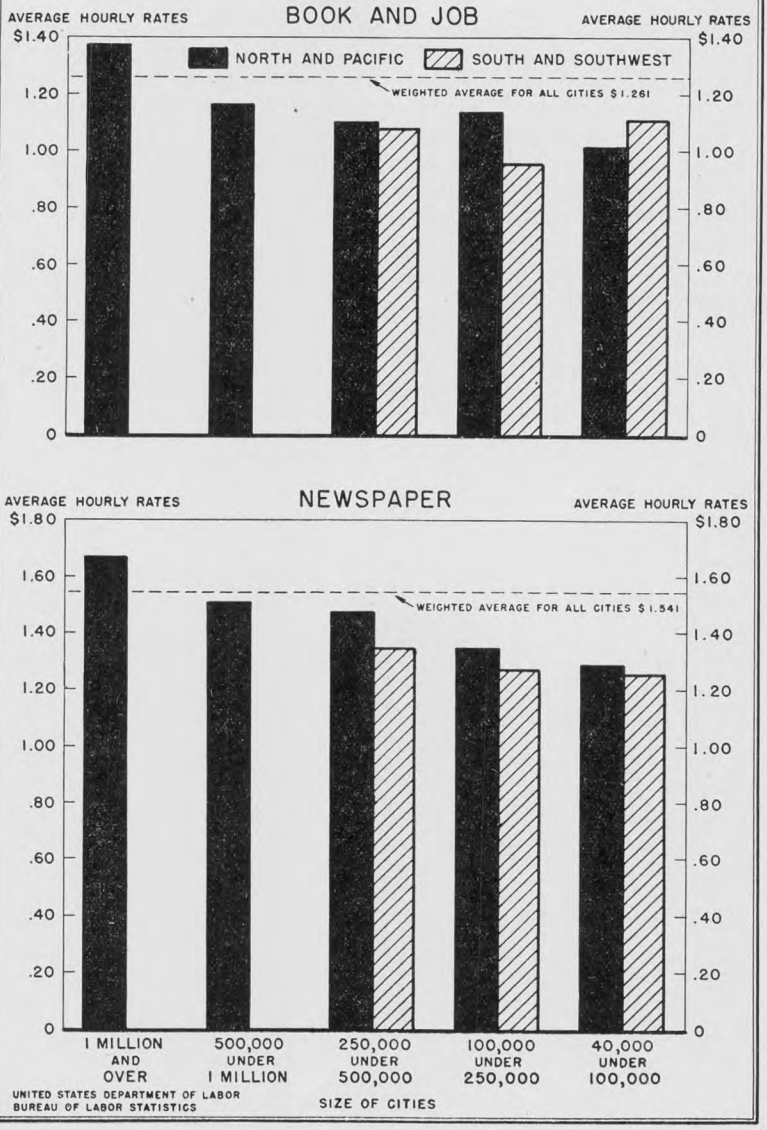
Union rates in the printing trades show a decided tendency to vary with size of city. In every trade, workers employed in cities of over a million population had higher average rates than those in cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000. However, in both the newspaper and book and job branches some cities of 100,000 to 250,000 had rates higher than in larger cities. Similarly, the smallest-size cities (populations under 100,000) reported higher trade averages than larger cities in a few cases. In general, however, the larger the city, the higher the average rate.

[5] As some cities did not report both day and night workers, the average differentials discussed in this section are not the same as the differences between the averages for day and night work shown in table 2.

CHART 3

AVERAGE UNION WAGE RATES IN PRINTING TRADES ACCORDING TO SIZE OF CITY AND REGION

JULY 1, 1945



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Union rates of printing-trades workers in the North and Pacific regions generally exceeded those in the South and Southwest. In the book and job branch, this relationship prevailed in 25 out of 29 possible comparisons of average rates; in the newspaper branch, in 44 out of 46 cases.

AVERAGE UNION WAGE RATES AND PERCENT OF CHANGE IN NEWSPAPER PRINTING, BY CITY [6]

Average rates for individual cities in the book and job branch were not computed because of the unrepresentativeness of such averages. In this branch the bindery women, a low-wage group, were more completely organized in the large cities than in the small ones, and in some cases they outnumbered the highly paid skilled workers. As a result, a general weighted average which included all crafts in the well-organized areas would be seriously deflated and lack comparability with averages reported for areas in which bindery women were poorly organized.

TABLE 3.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in Newspaper Printing Trades, by City and Population Group, July 1, 1945, and Percent of Increase Over Previous Year*

City and population group	Average hourly rate	Percent of increase
Group I (1,000,000 and over):		
New York, N. Y.	$1.810	0.8
Average for group I	*1.674*	
Chicago, Ill.	1.655	3.4
Detroit, Mich.	1.606	.2
Los Angeles, Calif.	1.409	0
Philadelphia, Pa.	1.407	.9
Group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):		
Washington, D. C.	1.645	2.5
Boston, Mass.	1.556	1.1
Cleveland, Ohio	1.511	1.0
Average for group II	*1.507*	
Milwaukee, Wis.	1.504	3.3
San Francisco, Calif.	1.480	0
St. Louis, Mo.	1.462	.2
Baltimore, Md.	1.436	.7
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1.432	2.3
Buffalo, N. Y.	1.413	.4
Group III (250,000 to 500,000):		
Newark, N. J.	1.627	1.5
Providence, R. I.	1.568	1.9
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.555	.3
Toledo, Ohio	1.493	0
Columbus, Ohio	1.491	.8
Indianapolis, Ind.	1.482	.3
Seattle, Wash.	1.480	.1
Minneapolis, Minn.	1.448	2.2
Average for group III	*1.438*	
St. Paul, Minn.	1.435	.3
Houston, Tex.	1.420	1.8
Dallas, Tex.	1.418	5.8
Portland, Oreg.	1.410	.7
Denver, Colo.	1.393	1.3
Kansas City, Mo.	1.385	2.5
Memphis, Tenn.	1.384	.3
Atlanta, Ga.	1.356	5.1
Rochester, N. Y.	1.345	0
Louisville, Ky.	1.306	0
San Antonio, Tex.	1.272	.2
New Orleans, La.	1.265	4.4
Birmingham, Ala.	1.239	.4
Group IV (100,000 to 250,000):		
Dayton, Ohio	$1.480	3.5
Jacksonville, Fla.	1.427	1.2
Scranton, Pa.	1.426	4.2
Youngstown, Ohio	1.417	.3
Des Moines, Iowa	1.409	.6
Erie, Pa.	1.403	1.9
Springfield, Mass.	1.367	5.8
Reading, Pa.	1.353	0
Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	1.350	.3
Omaha, Nebr.	1.344	.2
Worcester, Mass.	1.340	.4
Peoria, Ill.	1.331	.5
Average for group IV	*1.331*	
Salt Lake City, Utah	1.322	.3
Duluth, Minn.	1.317	2.2
Tampa, Fla.	1.302	0
Spokane, Wash.	1.293	3.3
Grand Rapids, Mich.	1.291	.6
Richmond, Va.	1.269	.2
New Haven, Conn.	1.259	.8
South Bend, Ind.	1.256	0
Oklahoma City, Okla.	1.247	4.0
Norfolk, Va.	1.245	0
Nashville, Tenn.	1.231	1.1
Charlotte, N. C.	1.217	.1
Wichita, Kans.	1.140	3.8
Group V (40,000 to 100,000): [2]		
Butte, Mont.	1.425	2.8
Charleston, W. Va.	1.341	3.5
Phoenix, Ariz.	1.328	2.9
Madison, Wis.	1.323	2.9
Binghamton, N. Y.	1.304	0
El Paso, Tex.	1.282	.5
Average for group V	*1.274*	
Manchester, N. H.	1.245	2.1
Mobile, Ala.	1.215	3.4
Portland, Maine	1.207	1.4
Little Rock, Ark.	1.200	2.3
Charleston, S. C.	1.185	0

[1] Includes Rock Island and Moline, Ill., and Davenport, Iowa.

[2] Newspaper trades not organized in Jackson Miss. and York, Pa.

[6] These net changes were based on the specific rates for 1944 and 1945 weighted by the membership reported in 1945. Only comparable data for both years were included. Specific increases for 1944 reflected a larger percentage change in those cities with comparatively low actual scales. Thus, if rates of pressmen in city A increased from $1.00 to $1.10, a gain of 10 percent was registered. If in city B rates rose from $1.40 to $1.50 the percentage change was only about 7 percent.

In the newspaper branch, intercity comparisons can be made from the available data. Table 3 shows city averages and the percent of change since 1944 for each city. New York had the highest average rate among the 73 cities covered in this branch ($1.81). Chicago ($1.655) ranked next, followed closely by Washington, D. C. ($1.645), and Newark ($1.627). The lowest averages were found in Charleston, S. C. ($1.185), and Wichita, Kans. ($1.140). Atlanta also reported a substantial increase during the survey period (5.1 percent). There were no other increases as high as 5 percent; 11 cities reported no change in scales. These figures do not include any wage adjustments that have occurred since July 1, 1945.

Average Union Hours

TREND OF WEEKLY HOURS

There was no change in the index of straight-time weekly hours between July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945. For both the book and job and newspaper branches weekly hours have shown only slight variations since 1939 (table 4). During both war periods (1914–19 and 1940–45) contract hours remained practically unchanged.

The most marked changes recorded by the index series occurred in 1921, when the 44-hour week for commercial printers was established. Hours were reduced in both branches of the industry between 1932 and 1935 as a result of union efforts to minimize lay-offs and spread available work.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Union Weekly Hours in All Printing Trades, 1907–45*

Year	Indexes of weekly hours (1939=100)			Year	Indexes of weekly hours (1939=100)		
	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper		All printing	Book and job	Newspaper
1907	(1)	136.6	120.5	1927	114.0	111.7	118.3
1908	(1)	130.3	119.9	1928	114.0	111.7	118.0
1909	(1)	129.2	119.6	1929	113.9	111.6	117.8
1910	(1)	128.8	119.3	1930	113.8	111.5	117.6
1911	127.1	128.8	119.3	1931	113.7	111.5	117.6
1912	127.0	128.7	119.1	1932	109.9	107.2	114.6
1913	126.9	128.7	119.0	1933	109.0	106.1	114.0
1914	126.8	128.7	118.7	1934	103.4	102.4	105.0
1915	126.8	128.7	118.6	1935	101.7	100.9	103.2
1916	126.8	128.7	118.5	1936	101.3	101.0	101.9
1917	126.8	128.7	118.5	1937	100.8	100.8	101.0
1918	126.8	128.7	118.5	1938	100.3	100.3	100.5
1919	126.8	128.6	118.7	1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
1920	123.1	123.8	118.6	1940	99.8	99.8	99.7
1921	115.6	113.9	118.3	1941	99.8	99.8	99.3
1922	115.2	112.5	120.6	1942	99.5	99.8	99.2
1923	114.7	111.8	120.4	1943	99.8	100.1	99.2
1924	114.2	111.8	118.7	1944	99.8	100.1	99.2
1925	114.2	111.9	118.4	1945	99.8	100.1	99.2
1926	114.1	111.7	118.6				

[1] Combined data for the years 1907–10 not available.

UNION HOURS IN 1945

Straight-time hours specified in union agreements changed very little between 1944 and 1945. The workweek averaged 39.7 hours for book and job members and 37.5 for newspaper members on July 1, 1945 (table 2). More than 9 of every 10 book and job workers

had 40-hour workweeks, while over three-fourths of the newspaper members worked under agreements providing 37.5 hours or less. Newspaper workers on the night shift generally had shorter hours than those on day shifts. Over a third of the day-shift men averaged more than 37.5 hours, while but 13.3 percent of the night workers were in this category.

The 40-hour week generally prevailed in the book and job trades. Photoengravers—the one exception—had three-fifths of their members working under agreements stipulating 37.5 hours as the maximum straight-time week and about one-quarter under agreements having a 35-hour straight-time limit.

In the newspaper trades, the 37.5-hour workweek predominated. However, about half of the night newspaper pressmen, pressmen-in-charge, and stereotypers had workweeks of 35 hours or less, while some trades had a substantial proportion of their members scheduled to work more than 37.5 hours.

Overtime and Sunday Rates

Practically all the organized workers in both branches of the industry received an initial overtime rate of time and a half for work beyond the regular contract hours. A few members worked in specialized shops where the overtime rate was not indicated in the agreement; some workers were covered by agreements providing other than standard overtime rates.

About two-thirds of the printing-trades quotations, covering three-fourths of the members tabulated, provided double pay for Sunday or the seventh consecutive day of work. This premium rate applied to more than 9 out of 10 members in the book and job branch. However, in the newspaper branch, where Sunday is often a regular workday, almost half the members received time and a half, and over two-fifths received double time for work not regularly scheduled, or for Sunday when the seventh consecutive day of work.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to January 1946

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to January 1946.[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 $41.27 in January 1946—78.0 percent above the average in January 1939, 54.9 percent above January 1941, and 6.1 percent above October 1942. Weekly pay for January 1946 dropped 13.1 percent below that of January 1945, 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

[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, January 1946, table 6 (p. 690), in this issue.

distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 100.4 cents in January 1946—58.9 percent above the average in January 1939, 47.0 percent above January 1941, and 12.4 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 all manufacturing, the straight-time average in January 1946 was 96.8 cents per hour; this was 51.0 percent higher than in January 1939, 45.8 percent above January 1941, and 20.0 percent above October 1942.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to January 1946

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
October	40.97	44.23	37.76	.985	1.063	.909	.942	1.014	.863
November	40.77	43.71	37.89	.990	1.064	.918	.949	1.020	.871
December [2]	41.40	44.30	38.67	.996	1.069	.928	.957	1.028	.880
1946: January [2]	41.27	43.80	38.83	1.004	1.071	.941	.968	1.034	.896

[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 figures for January 1941 with those for the preceding and following months.

[2] Preliminary.

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Immigration and Emigration

Immigration and Emigration, 1944–45

THE close of the war in Europe and the slackening of travel restrictions by the United States and Canada resulted in more international travel in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1945, than in any of the preceding years of the war. In the 12 months, 202,366 aliens were admitted to this country—a 42-percent expansion over the previous year.[1] This figure does not include aliens who crossed the border or Mexican laborers coming into the United States under special governmental agreements.

The number of outgoing aliens also increased, but was only 11 percent above the 1943–44 record.

Table 1 gives the immigration and emigration totals for the past 5 years.

TABLE 1.—*Admissions and Departures of Aliens, United States, in Years Ended June 30, 1941–45*

Admissions and departures	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Aliens admitted	151,784	111,238	104,842	142,192	202,366
Immigrant	51,776	28,781	23,725	28,551	38,119
Quota	36,220	14,597	9,045	9,394	11,623
Nonquota	15,556	14,184	14,680	19,157	26,496
Nonimmigrant	100,008	82,457	81,117	113,641	164,247
Aliens departed	88,477	74,552	58,722	84,409	93,362
Emigrant	17,115	7,363	5,107	5,669	7,442
Nonemigrant	71,362	67,189	53,615	78,740	85,920

As shown in table 2, of the 1,260 entering the United States in 1945 who reported Germany as country of birth, only 172 gave that country as their last permanent residence; of the 1,222 from Poland, only 195 had resided there directly before they left for the United States. This was true, to a less degree, of other immigrants from Continental Europe. However, England, Canada, and the West Indies reported greater numbers of immigrants by country of last residence than by country of birth.

[1] Monthly Review (U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service), December 1945.

TABLE 2.—*Immigrant Aliens Admitted Into the United States, by Country of Birth and of Last Permanent Residence, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1939, 1944, and 1945*

Country of birth or last residence	Number reporting					
	1939: Country of—		1944: Country of—		1945: Country of—	
	Birth	Residence	Birth	Residence	Birth	Residence
All countries	82,998	82,998	28,551	28,551	38,119	38,119
Europe	68,198	63,138	8,694	4,509	10,141	5,943
Albania	217	229	10	1	5	1
Belgium	329	683	135	126	92	71
Bulgaria	117	129	23	6	11	3
Czechoslovakia	3,127	2,896	341	136	289	64
Denmark	303	306	119	61	108	43
Estonia	112	93	28	26	19	16
Finland	514	411	72	29	58	29
France	923	1,907	232	387	207	201
Germany	33,621	33,515	1,360	238	1,260	172
Great Britain:						
England	2,423	2,739	1,135	1,210	2,627	2,784
Scotland	619	277	357	96	515	192
Wales	92	42	47	15	100	53
Greece	841	907	292	226	235	176
Hungary	1,321	1,348	227	87	132	54
Ireland (Eire)	1,494	1,101	146	68	286	125
Italy	6,780	6,570	177	120	320	213
Latvia	241	168	66	24	50	16
Lithuania	418	290	105	37	86	19
Netherlands	674	1,259	217	71	111	50
North Ireland	187	88	92	44	340	302
Norway	575	527	195	127	114	61
Poland	7,315	3,072	1,420	292	1,222	195
Portugal	484	422	429	431	562	570
Rumania	679	421	249	70	234	77
Spain	379	257	291	271	238	156
Sweden	378	342	90	58	67	45
Switzerland	639	1,237	50	33	70	39
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	1,901	59	433	41	399	18
Yugoslavia	1,050	1,090	178	93	184	88
Other Europe	445	753	178	85	200	110
Asia	1,304	2,162	349	227	560	442
China	317	642	72	50	109	71
Japan	78	102	9	4	3	1
Palestine	255	1,066	35	45	52	133
Syria	190	207	42	8	61	18
Other Asia	464	145	191	120	335	219
Canada	8,151	10,501	7,023	9,821	8,866	11,079
Newfoundland	342	312	363	322	513	451
Mexico	2,265	2,640	6,399	6,598	6,455	6,702
West Indies	1,152	2,231	2,299	3,198	4,660	5,452
Central America	450	530	1,876	1,985	3,382	3,359
South America	625	915	899	1,160	1,326	1,609
Africa	167	218	75	112	267	406
Australia	151	159	425	461	1,179	1,261
New Zealand	59	54	108	116	356	364
Other countries	94	138	41	42	414	1,051

Since 1930, female immigrants have outnumbered the males in a rising proportion, which reached its highest level in the year ended June 30, 1945. For that year the median age of the immigrant aliens was 28.6; the males on the average were 5 years older than the females, the median ages being respectively 33.8 and 26.8.

In the latest fiscal year under review, the number of female immigrants was approximately twice the number of male immigrants, but the numbers of male and female emigrants were almost equal—3,745 males and 3,697 females. The median ages of these two emigrant groups were 32.8 and 32.3.

In immigration statistics by occupation (table 3), the "no occupation" group, which in 1944–45 constituted 56.2 percent of the

admitted immigrants, includes "housewives." If all the immigrants admitted to the United States in the fiscal year 1945 who reported having an occupation, secure jobs, the net increase in the labor force of the Nation would be only 13,645.

TABLE 3.—*Immigrants Admitted to the United States, by Occupational Groups, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1939, 1944, and 1945*

Occupational group	1939		1944		1945	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	82,998	100.0	28,551	100.0	38,119	100.0
Professions	7,225	8.7	2,593	9.0	2,852	7.5
Commercial occupations	10,268	12.4	1,137	4.1	1,457	3.8
Skilled workers	10,231	12.3	5,528	19.4	8,226	21.6
Farmers	1,186	1.4	349	1.2	497	1.3
Servants	5,420	6.5	987	3.4	1,495	3.9
Laborers	2,270	2.7	1,168	4.1	1,111	2.9
Miscellaneous	1,924	2.3	1,167	4.1	1,047	2.7
No occupation reported	44,474	53.7	15,622	54.7	21,434	56.3

Table 4 shows the increase or decrease in occupational groups resulting from immigration or emigration in 1945.[2]

TABLE 4.—*Increase or Decrease in Occupational Groups Resulting From Immigration and Emigration, Year Ended June 30, 1945*

Occupational group	Number of—		Net immigration
	Immigrants	Emigrants	
Total	38,119	7,442	30,677
Professional workers	2,852	707	2,145
Farmers and farm managers	497	54	443
Proprietors, managers, and officials	1,457	551	906
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers	3,715	380	3,335
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	2,120	157	1,963
Operatives and kindred workers	2,391	216	2,175
Domestic-service workers	1,495	125	1,370
Protective-service workers	62	104	42
Service workers, except domestic and protective workers	985	98	887
Farm laborers and foremen	225	145	80
Laborers, except farm	886	503	383
No occupation	21,434	4,402	17,032

[2] Major occupational groups are those used in the statistics of the U. S. Bureau of the Census.

Prices and Cost of Living

Index of Consumers' Prices in Large Cities, February 1946[1]

RETAIL prices of consumer goods in large cities declined 0.4 percent between January 15 and February 15. Lower prices for food, house-furnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services more than offset higher costs for clothing and fuel oil. The consumers' price index for moderate-income families in large cities was 129.4 percent of the 1935–39 average.

Average retail food costs dropped 1.0 percent during the month as the retail price of eggs, which represent about 6 percent of the urban families' food bill, fell more than 16 percent. Prices of foods other than eggs increased on the average 0.1 percent between mid-January and mid-February. The average price of cheese rose 2 percent, as the first effect of the February 1 removal of the subsidy was reflected in the index. Green beans dropped 15 percent in price as lower ceilings became effective.

Clothing costs continued to advance fractionally (0.3 percent), raising the clothing index to 149.9 percent of the 1935–39 average. The cost of men's business shirts, work clothing, sweaters, undershirts, hats, and socks rose, as inventories of men's clothing remained low and only the higher-priced garments were available. Retailers reported slightly lower prices, however, for some men's topcoats and wool suits, and women's percale house dresses. Gloves advanced sharply in price and men's and women's street shoes in the lower-price ranges edged upward. Shoe-repair prices rose in a few cities following the issuance of uniform regional ceilings.

Coal and fuel-oil prices increased 0.5 percent during the month ending February 15. Retail prices of heating oils increased 3.4 percent. Higher ceilings for these fuels, allowed by OPA at all levels of sale along the Atlantic Coast on December 19, were raised on January 24 to a uniform half cent per gallon and extended to all areas east of the Rockies. Coal and coke prices were higher in New York

[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 $1524 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 ½ 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 pre-war quality and specifications comes back into the markets and the Bureau is able regularly to price it again, this adjustment factor will gradually decrease and finally disappear.

City where dealers were permitted to pass on to consumers increased delivery costs. Higher prices were also reported for coke and bituminous coal in Detroit.

Costs of housefurnishings and miscellaneous goods and services decreased 0.1 percent each during the month. Lower prices for cook stoves more than offset slightly higher prices for mattresses, sheets, and brooms. Beauty-shop charges declined in Pittsburgh, but higher charges were reported in Detroit.

Rents were not surveyed in February.[2]

TABLE 1.—*Index of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families and Percent of Change, February 1946 Compared With Earlier Months*

Group	Feb. 1946	Jan. 1946	Feb. 1945	May 1943	May 1942	Jan. 1941	Aug. 1939
	This month	Last month	Last year	Hold-the-line order	General Maximum Price Regulation	"Little Steel" decision	Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)						
All items	129.4	129.9	126.9	125.1	116.0	100.8	98.6
Food	139.6	141.0	136.5	143.0	121.6	97.6	93.5
Clothing	149.9	149.5	143.3	127.9	126.2	101.2	100.3
Rent				108.0	109.9	105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	111.0	110.8	110.0	107.6	104.9	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	93.8	93.8	95.5	96.1	96.6	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	127.7	127.2	124.1	118.7	112.9	104.0	96.3
Housefurnishings	148.4	148.5	144.0	125.1	122.2	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous	125.1	125.2	123.4	115.3	110.9	101.8	100.4
	Percent of change to February 1946						
All items		−0.4	+2.0	+3.4	+11.6	+28.4	+31.2
Food		−1.0	+2.3	−2.4	+14.8	+43.0	+49.3
Clothing		+.3	+4.6	+17.2	+18.8	+48.1	+49.5
Rent [1]				+.3	−1.5	+3.1	+3.8
Fuel, electricity, and ice		+.2	+.9	+3.2	+5.8	+10.1	+13.8
Gas and electricity		0	−1.8	−2.4	−2.9	−3.8	−5.3
Other fuels and ice		+.4	+2.9	+7.6	+13.1	+22.8	+32.6
Housefurnishings		−.1	+3.1	+18.6	+21.4	+48.1	+47.5
Miscellaneous		−.1	+1.4	+8.5	+12.8	+22.9	+24.6

[1] Percent of change to December 1945.

[2] 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 tables 1 and 3. 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.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index From Specified Dates to February 1946, by Cities*

City	Jan. 1946	Feb. 1945	May 1943	May 1942	Jan. 1941	Aug. 1939
	Last month	Last year	Hold-the-line order	General Maximum Price Regulation	"Little Steel" decision	Month before war in Europe
Average	−0.4	+2.0	+3.4	+11.6	+28.4	+31.2
Baltimore, Md	−.5	+1.2	+2.6	+11.3	+30.6	+33.2
Birmingham, Ala	−.4	+1.8	+5.6	+11.9	+30.7	+34.8
Boston, Mass	−.4	+1.1	+2.0	+10.0	+25.8	+28.4
Buffalo, N. Y	−.1	+1.6	+.7	+7.6	+27.3	+31.7
Chicago, Ill	−.3	+1.6	+2.6	+9.6	+26.2	+29.4
Cincinnati, Ohio	−.5	+1.7	+4.0	+11.1	+29.3	+32.4
Cleveland, Ohio	−.5	+1.5	+2.8	+10.8	+29.0	+31.6
Denver, Colo	0	+1.5	+2.7	+10.6	+27.8	+29.6
Detroit, Mich	−.3	+3.3	+3.5	+10.9	+30.4	+33.7
Houston, Tex	−.3	+1.5	+1.8	+9.0	+24.2	+25.8
Kansas City, Mo	−.5	+1.7	+3.8	+11.5	+29.3	+29.0
Los Angeles, Calif	−.1	+3.0	+5.3	+12.2	+29.3	+31.8
Minneapolis, Minn	−.3	+2.1	+3.3	+8.5	+23.6	+26.2
New York, N. Y	−.3	+2.7	+5.3	+15.4	+29.5	+32.1
Philadelphia, Pa	−.5	+1.3	+2.7	+11.8	+29.2	+31.1
Pittsburgh, Pa	−.3	+2.3	+4.9	+13.1	+29.4	+33.1
St. Louis, Mo	−.5	+2.2	+3.1	+10.6	+26.6	+30.4
San Francisco, Calif	−.5	+1.7	+4.1	+13.4	+31.0	+34.3
Savannah, Ga	.5	−2.4	+4.9	+14.4	+36.4	+39.3
Seattle, Wash	[1]	+2.0	+3.0	+10.1	+30.7	+33.0
Washington, D. C	−.7	+2.9	+4.9	+13.2	+29.9	+31.

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index, January 1946 to February 1946, by Cities and by Groups of Items*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice			House furnishings	Miscellaneous
				Total	Gas and electricity	Other fuels and ice		
Average	−0.4	−1.0	+0.3	+0.2	0	+0.4	−0.1	−0.1
Atlanta, Ga		−1.5		−.1	−0.4	0		
Baltimore, Md	−.5	−1.4	+.4	+.1	0	0	−.1	+.2
Birmingham, Ala	−.4	−1.2	+1.2	0	0	0	−1.1	0
Boston, Mass	−.4	−1.3	+1.0	[1] +.7	0	[2] +1.0	−.1	−.1
Buffalo, N. Y	−.1	−.6	+.7	0	0	0	+.4	+.2
Chicago, Ill	−.3	−.4	−.6	+.3	0	+.5	−.1	−.1
Cincinnati, Ohio	−.5	−1.5	+.5	[1] 0	0	[2] 0	+.2	+.2
Cleveland, Ohio	−.5	−1.0	+.1	0	0	0	−1.7	0
Denver, Colo	0	−.2	+.4	0	0	−.1	+1.7	+.1
Detroit, Mich	−.3	−.8	0	+.5	0	+.8	0	−.2
Houston, Tex	−.3	−1.1	+.6	0	0	0	−.2	0
Indianapolis, Ind		−1.7		0	0	0		
Jacksonville, Fla		−2.7		0	0	0		
Kansas City, Mo	−.5	−1.4	+.1	0	0	0	+.1	−.1
Los Angeles, Calif	−.1	−.1	−.6	0	0	0	+.5	−.1
Manchester, N. H		−.7		+1.1	0	+1.4		
Memphis, Tenn		−1.3		0	0	0		
Milwaukee, Wis		−.9		0	0	0		
Minneapolis, Minn	−.3	−1.3	+1.2	[1] +.4	[2] 0	+.4	+.5	0
Mobile, Ala		0		+.1	+.2	0		
New Orleans, La		−1.0		+.1	+.1	0		
New York, N. Y	−.3	−1.2	+1.4	+.4	0	+.8	+.1	−.1
Norfolk, Va		−.8		0	0	0		
Philadelphia, Pa	−.5	−.9	−.3	−.1	0	−.1	+.4	0
Pittsburgh, Pa	−.3	−.4	−.7	−.1	−.2	0	+.6	−.1
Portland, Maine		−.4		+1.0	0	+1.2		
Portland, Oreg		−.3		0	+.1	0		
Richmond, Va		−.9		0	0	0		
St. Louis, Mo	−.5	−1.4	0	0	0	0	+.7	−.1
San Francisco, Calif	−.5	−1.2	+.2	0	0	0	−1.9	−.1
Savannah, Ga	+.5	+1.2	[3] .2	0	0	0	+.6	0
Scranton, Pa		−1.0		0	0	0		
Seattle, Wash	[4]	+.1	+.1	+.1	0	+.2	+.7	0
Washington, D. C	−.7	−1.4	−1.4	+.1	0	+.2	+.2	+.2

[1] Jan. 1946 index revised: Boston 118.0, Cincinnati 108.3, Minneapolis 104.7.
[2] Jan. 1946 index revised: Boston 125.2, Cincinnati 125.0, Minneapolis 83.6.
[3] Jan. 1946 index revised: Savannah 149.1. [4] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families in Large Cities, 1935 to February 1946*

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	128.4	139.1	145.9	108.3	110.3	145.8	124.1
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	128.9	139.3	148.5	(1)	110.5	146.9	124.7
Nov. 15	129.3	140.1	148.7	(1)	110.1	147.6	124.6
Dec. 15	129.9	141.4	149.4	108.3	110.3	148.3	124.8
1946:							
Jan. 15 [2]	129.9	141.0	149.5	(1)	110.8	148.5	125.2
Feb. 15 [2]	129.4	139.6	149.9	(1)	111.0	148.4	125.1

[1] Rents not surveyed in this month. [2] Preliminary figures.

Retail Prices of Food in February 1946

RETAIL prices of food in February 1946 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	Jan. 15, 1946, to Feb. 12, 1946	Feb. 13, 1945, to Feb. 12, 1946	May 18, 1943, to Feb. 12, 1946	Jan. 14, 1941, to Feb. 12, 1946	Aug. 15, 1939, to Feb. 12, 1946
All foods	−1.0	+2.3	−2.4	+42.7	+49.3
Cereals and bakery products	+.4	+1.0	+2.0	+15.7	+17.6
Meats	−.1	+.5	−5.1	+29.9	+37.2
Beef and veal	+.1	−.1	−9.8	+8.1	+18.8
Pork	0	+.1	−10.3	+30.8	+28.0
Lamb	+.4	+1.0	−3.3	+38.7	+38.6
Chickens	−1.0	−1.1	+2.4	+55.6	+59.8
Fish, fresh and canned	−.2	+5.4	+13.2	+91.2	+127.8
Dairy products	+.1	+2.3	−.2	+30.0	+46.7
Eggs	−16.4	−5.9	+1.5	+48.0	+59.0
Fruits and vegetables	+.2	+7.3	−5.0	+94.2	+96.1
Fresh	+.2	+8.5	−6.2	+106.6	+108.0
Canned	+.3	+.8	−.2	+43.2	+42.9
Dried	+.5	+1.7	+7.5	+70.6	+88.2
Beverages	0	+.3	+.3	+37.4	+31.6
Fats and oils	−.1	+1.5	−.7	+56.2	+48.4
Sugar and sweets	+.3	+.5	−.5	+33.2	+32.7

[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.

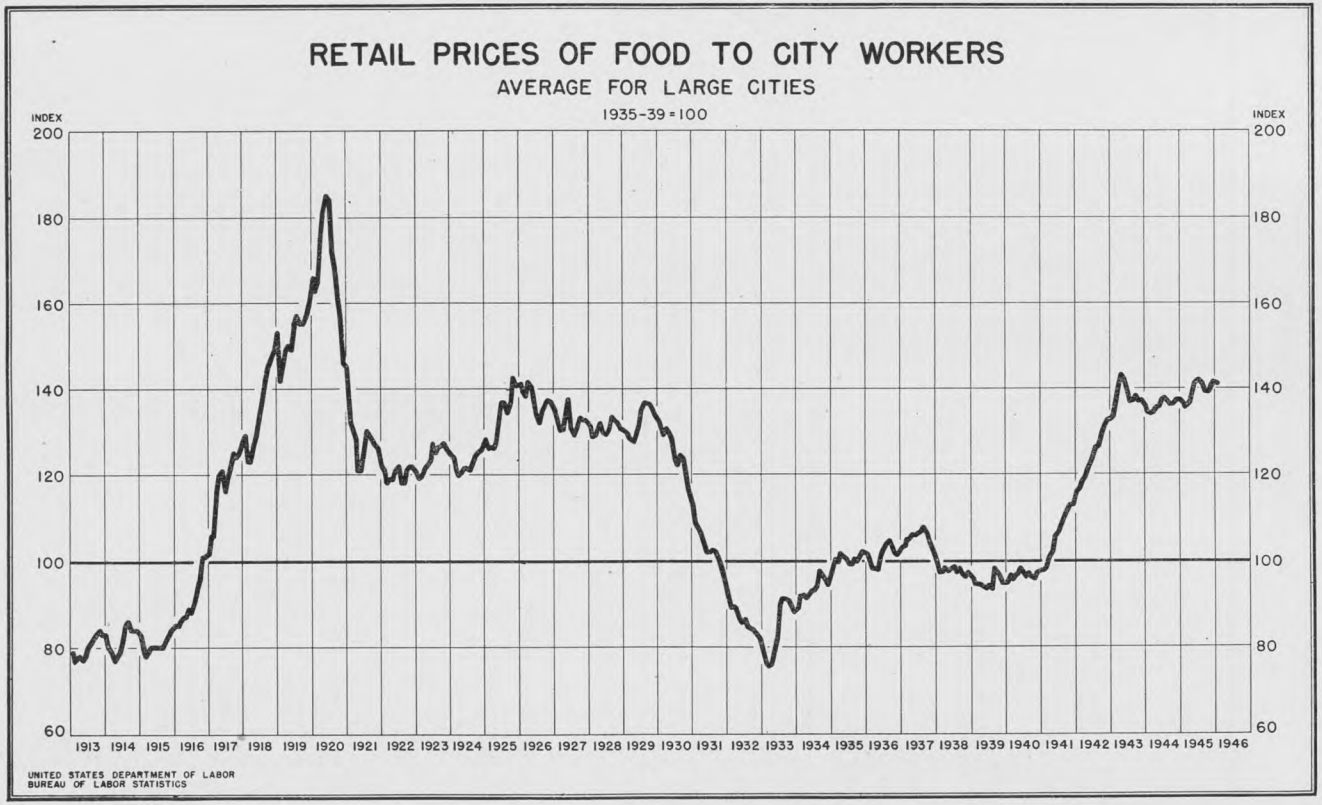

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Food in 56 [1] Large Cities Combined,[2] by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1946		1945	1943	1941	1939
	Feb. 12 [3]	Jan. 15	Feb. 13	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	139.6	141.0	136.5	143.0	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	109.8	109.4	108.7	107.6	94.9	93.4
Meats	131.3	131.4	130.7	138.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	118.3	118.2	118.4	131.2	109.4	99.6
Pork	112.6	112.6	112.5	125.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	136.9	136.4	135.5	141.6	98.7	98.8
Chickens	151.2	152.7	152.9	147.6	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	226.9	227.3	215.2	200.5	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	136.6	136.4	133.5	136.9	105.1	93.1
Eggs	144.2	172.4	153.2	142.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	181.2	180.8	168.9	190.8	93.3	92.4
Fresh	193.0	192.7	177.8	205.8	93.4	92.8
Canned	130.9	130.5	129.8	131.1	91.4	91.6
Dried	169.9	169.0	167.0	158.0	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.9	124.9	124.5	124.5	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	125.4	125.5	123.5	126.3	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.9	126.5	126.3	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.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,[1] February 1946, Compared With Earlier Months*

Article		1946		1945	1941	1939
		Feb. 12 [2]	Jan. 15 [3]	Feb. 13	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	5 pounds	32.0	31.9	32.1	20.7	17.9
Macaroni	pound	15.6	15.6	15.7	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal [4]	28 ounces	23.4	23.4	23.1	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes	11 ounces	9.3	9.3	8.9	9.8	9.7
Corn meal	pound	6.5	6.5	6.4	4.2	4.0
Rice [4]	do	12.8	12.9	12.8	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats	do	10.4	10.5	10.2	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake [4]	20 ounces	12.4	12.4	12.3	(5)	(5)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	8.9	8.8	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.7	9.7	9.6	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye	do	9.8	9.9	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies	do	29.0	28.4	28.8	25.1	(6)
Soda crackers	do	18.6	18.6	18.9	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	40.8	40.6	40.5	38.6	36.4
Rib roast	do	33.3	33.4	32.8	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast	do	28.5	28.4	28.0	25.2	22.5
Stew meat [4]	do	29.9	29.8	29.9	(5)	(5)
Liver	do	37.4	37.4	37.3	(5)	(5)
Hamburger	do	27.2	27.3	27.5	(5)	(5)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	44.6	44.6	44.2	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [4]	do	34.7	36.0	35.3	(5)	(5)
Pork:						
Chops	do	37.0	37.1	37.2	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced	do	41.0	40.9	41.0	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced	do	50.3	50.5	49.9	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole	do	35.8	35.7	35.2	26.2	27.4
Salt pork	do	22.2	22.0	22.3	16.7	15.4
Liver [4]	do	22.3	22.2	22.0	(5)	(5)
Sausage [4]	do	38.8	38.8	38.3	(5)	(5)
Bologna, big [4]	do	33.9	34.0	33.9	(5)	(5)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *February 1946, Compared With Earlier Months*—Continued

Article	1946		1945	1941	1939
	Feb. 12[2]	Jan. 15[3]	Feb. 13	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Meats—Continued					
Lamb:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Leg—pound	40.3	40.3	39.8	27.8	27.6
Rib chops—do	46.0	45.7	45.2	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens—do	45.8	46.3	45.6	31.1	30.9
Fish:					
Fish (fresh, frozen)—do	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)
Salmon, pink—16-oz. can	24.8	24.7	23.5	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [4]—do	42.9	43.2	40.5	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:					
Butter—pound	54.7	54.7	49.9	38.0	30.7
Cheese—do	37.2	36.5	35.5	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)—quart	15.4	15.4	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	9.9	9.9	10.0	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh—dozen	50.1	59.9	54.4	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh fruits:					
Apples—pound	14.5	14.4	11.2	5.2	4.4
Bananas—do	10.9	11.0	10.3	6.6	6.1
Oranges—dozen	44.9	46.0	43.9	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [4]—each	8.3	8.6	8.8	(8)	(8)
Fresh vegetables:					
Beans, green—pound	21.1	25.0	20.5	14.0	7.2
Cabbage—do	6.3	5.7	6.4	3.4	3.9
Carrots—bunch	8.7	9.0	8.7	6.0	4.6
Lettuce—head	11.0	10.6	10.6	8.4	8.4
Onions—pound	8.4	8.1	5.9	3.6	3.6
Potatoes—15 pounds	72.3	70.0	75.3	29.2	34.4
Spinach—pound	12.7	12.6	12.7	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes—do	10.4	10.1	9.0	5.0	5.5
Beets [4]—bunch	9.5	9.4	9.3	(8)	(8)
Canned fruits:					
Peaches—No. 2½ can	28.1	28.1	27.7	16.5	17.1
Pineapple—do	27.6	28.0	26.4	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice—No. 2 can	14.1	14.1	14.4	(8)	(8)
Canned vegetables:					
Beans, green—do	13.7	13.6	13.1	10.0	10.0
Corn—do	14.8	14.7	14.8	10.7	10.4
Peas—do	13.8	13.8	13.3	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes—do	13.1	12.9	12.0	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [4]—11-oz. can	13.3	13.3	13.4	(8)	(8)
Dried fruits: Prunes—pound	17.8	17.7	17.2	9.6	8.8
Dried vegetables:					
Navy beans—do	11.7	11.7	11.2	6.5	5.8
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle [4]—ounce	3.9	3.9	3.7	(8)	(8)
Beverages:					
Coffee—pound	30.4	30.4	30.3	20.7	22.3
Tea—¼ pound	24.0	24.0	24.1	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [4]—½ pound	10.5	10.5	10.3	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:					
Lard—pound	18.7	18.7	18.8	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard—					
In cartons—do	20.2	20.2	20.1	11.3	11.7
In other containers—do	24.8	24.8	24.7	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing—pint	27.9	28.1	25.6	20.1	(6)
Oleomargarine—pound	24.3	24.3	24.1	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter—do	32.7	32.2	28.3	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [4]—pint	30.9	30.8	30.7	(6)	(6)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar—pound	6.7	6.7	6.7	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup—24 ounces	15.8	15.7	15.8	13.6	13.7
Molasses [4]—16 fluid ounces	20.2	20.3	20.4	17.3	17.5
Apple butter [4]—16 ounces	15.2	15.0	13.5	(8)	(8)

[1] Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Beginning with this issue of the Monthly Labor Review, sales taxes have been eliminated from average prices for January 15, 1946, and all succeeding periods, and there are minor changes resulting from a revision of calculation procedures. For comparison of prices for January with preceding periods, the data published in the March issue should be used. Prices for flour, corn flakes, and molasses in 1939, 1941, and 1945 have been converted from formerly published data to the units shown in this table.
[4] Not included in index.
[5] First priced, February 1943.
[6] Not priced.
[7] Composite price not computed.
[8] First priced in October 1941.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

City	1946		1945	1941	1939
	Feb. 12[2]	Jan. 15	Feb. 13	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	139.6	141.0	136.5	97.8	93.5
Atlanta, Ga	139.4	141.5	137.8	94.3	92.5
Baltimore, Md	145.6	147.7	145.2	97.9	94.7
Birmingham, Ala	142.9	144.6	140.6	96.0	90.7
Boston, Mass	133.3	135.1	132.1	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport, Conn	135.6	135.1	133.5	96.5	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y	136.1	136.9	136.3	100.2	94.5
Butte, Mont	135.2	136.2	133.2	98.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa[3]	141.9	143.0	139.4	95.9	----
Charleston, S. C	138.4	138.7	133.9	95.9	95.1
Chicago, Ill	138.6	139.2	134.5	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio	136.1	138.2	134.6	96.5	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio	142.7	144.2	140.1	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	131.1	132.5	128.8	93.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex	137.6	138.5	132.9	92.6	91.7
Denver, Colo	139.5	139.8	136.9	94.8	92.7
Detroit, Mich	136.7	137.8	131.7	97.0	90.6
Fall River, Mass	132.1	134.6	131.9	97.5	95.4
Houston, Tex	139.3	140.8	135.4	102.6	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind	135.6	138.0	132.7	98.2	90.7
Jackson, Miss.[3]	146.6	149.2	150.2	105.3	----
Jacksonville, Fla	145.8	149.9	144.9	98.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo	132.6	134.5	130.6	92.4	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn.[3]	158.1	160.5	158.3	97.1	----
Little Rock, Ark	138.1	140.8	136.5	95.6	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif	148.4	148.6	141.8	101.8	94.6
Louisville, Ky	132.7	134.2	130.1	95.5	92.1
Manchester, N. H	135.8	136.7	133.5	96.6	94.9
Memphis, Tenn	149.2	151.2	145.4	94.2	89.7
Milwaukee, Wis	136.3	137.5	133.8	95.9	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn	132.5	134.3	129.7	99.0	95.0
Mobile, Ala	147.9	147.9	143.8	97.9	95.5
Newark, N. J	141.7	144.4	138.3	98.8	95.6
New Haven, Conn	135.2	135.9	134.7	95.7	93.7
New Orleans, La	151.1	152.7	150.0	101.9	97.6
New York, N. Y	141.8	143.5	137.3	99.5	95.8
Norfolk, Va	145.4	146.5	144.0	95.8	93.6
Omaha, Nebr	131.8	133.6	129.7	97.9	92.3
Peoria, Ill	144.6	146.5	140.1	99.0	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa	137.6	138.9	135.9	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa	140.4	141.0	135.6	98.0	92.5
Portland, Maine	133.7	134.2	132.5	95.3	95.9
Portland, Oreg	148.7	149.1	146.4	101.7	96.1
Providence, R. I	139.1	140.4	134.5	96.3	93.7
Richmond, Va	137.5	138.7	135.0	93.7	92.2
Rochester, N. Y	134.4	136.6	134.0	99.9	92.3
St. Louis, Mo	142.3	144.3	139.1	99.2	93.8
St. Paul, Minn	131.0	132.9	128.8	98.6	94.3
Salt Lake City, Utah	141.7	142.2	139.7	97.5	94.6
San Francisco, Calif	147.7	149.5	145.3	99.6	93.8
Savannah, Ga	155.6	153.8	150.9	100.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa	138.8	140.2	136.9	97.5	92.1
Seattle, Wash	146.1	146.0	142.2	101.0	94.5
Springfield, Ill	143.9	145.8	141.8	96.2	94.1
Washington, D. C	141.0	143.0	137.4	97.7	94.1
Wichita, Kans.[3]	147.6	150.4	147.2	97.2	----
Winston-Salem, N. C.[3]	140.3	143.1	138.1	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.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Prices in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *1913 to February 1946*

[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	1926	137.4	1939	95.2	April	136.6
1914	81.8	1927	132.3	1940	96.6	May	138.8
1915	80.9	1928	130.8	1941	105.5	June	141.1
1916	90.8	1929	132.5	1942	123.9	July	141.7
1917	116.9	1930	126.0	1943	138.0	August	140.9
1918	134.4	1931	103.9	1944	136.1	September	139.4
1919	149.8	1932	86.5	1945	139.1	October	139.3
1920	168.8	1933	84.1			November	140.1
1921	128.3	1934	93.7	*1945*		December	141.4
1922	119.9	1935	100.4			*1946*	
1923	124.0	1936	101.3	January	137.3		
1924	122.8	1937	105.3	February	136.5	January	141.0
1925	132.9	1938	97.8	March	135.9	February	139.6

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Gas and Electricity, Price Changes in 1945[1]

REDUCTIONS in rates in several cities in 1945 resulted in a continued decline in bills for domestic consumers of gas and electricity in urban areas. Decreases in bills for specified quantities of gas and electricity from December 1939, December 1941, and December 1944 to December 1945 were as shown in the accompanying table.

Percent of Decrease in Cost of Electricity and Gas in the United States in Specified Periods

Period	Percent of decrease in—			
	Electricity bills for—		Gas bills for—	
	25 kw.-hr.	100 kw.-hr.	10.6 therms	30.6 therms
December 1944 to December 1945	2.5	[1] 0.2	1.7	2.0
December 1941 to December 1945	3.7	.9	3.5	5.9
December 1939 to December 1945	5.7	3.2	6.0	8.4

[1] Increase.

Prices of Electricity

There were no increases during 1945 in domestic electric rates in the 51 cities included in the composite indexes. Rate reductions in 8 cities resulted in small declines in the composite indexes.

In January 1945, the net monthly bills for electricity in Atlanta returned to November 1944 levels, following a month's free service given in December 1944. In October 1945 regular rates were lowered more than 8 percent. One of the utilities in Portland, Oreg., gave customers a discount of 20 percent on their June 1945 bills.

In four boroughs of New York City—The Bronx, Brooklyn, Manhattan, and Queens—electric rate reductions lowered the initial 20 kilowatt-hour charge nearly 17 percent on November 5. These rate reductions resulted from a decrease in book values of assets required

[1] A forthcoming reprint will contain detailed data, by cities.

by the New York State Public Service Commission before approval of the merger of three companies. Another company, serving a part of Queens, also decreased its rates in November, causing declines of approximately 12 percent in domestic bills.

Other reductions which took place during 1945 were of less extent. They affected the bills of domestic consumers in Buffalo (N. Y.), Rochester (N. Y.), Portland (Maine), Charleston (S. C.), and Houston (Tex.).

Prices of Gas

Reductions in gas rates in six cities caused a decline of almost 2 percent between December 15, 1944, and December 15, 1945, in the indexes of domestic gas bills for 50 cities combined. The composite indexes were not materially affected by changes in the heating value of the gas in about 15 cities or by rate adjustments which were permitted in some of the New England cities to cover increased fuel costs.

The decline in composite indexes which took place between December 1944 and December 1945 was largely due to Federal Power Commission orders reducing wholesale prices paid for gas by distributing utilities in Denver and in Detroit. The resulting decrease of 30 percent in Denver domestic bills was effective October 10 and the decrease of about 20 percent in Detroit domestic bills was effective November 14. Following this reduction in Detroit rates, a discount of 53 percent in December 1945 bills was accorded consumers, as ordered by the Michigan State Public Service Commission. This was somewhat larger than a similar discount given in December 1944. According to the chairman of the commission, the temporary discount aggregated $1,500,000, of which all but $264,000 would otherwise have been paid by the company to the Federal Government as income taxes.

Natural gas rates in Atlanta were lowered in May 1945. The decrease, slightly minimized by a reduction in the heating value of the gas, averaged about 6½ percent. In Savannah, a lower heating value for manufactured gas in January caused an increase of about 7 percent in domestic bills. This was followed in June by a decrease in net bills for all monthly consumption in excess of 5,000 cubic feet. Although bills for 30.6 therms and for 40.6 therms consequently were lowered 3.7 and 7.7 percent, respectively, these declines were too limited to nullify the general effect of the January increases.

On January 1, 1945, Minneapolis rates for mixed manufactured and natural gas were reduced about 4 percent. In New York City, the usual summer reductions for consumption of more than 3,000 cubic feet were effective from May through October in The Bronx, Manhattan and Queens. Permission for one of the companies serving Brooklyn to charge an extra 3 cents per thousand cubic feet, to cover increased costs, expired November 30, 1945, and its rates fell proportionately for December.

Changes in gas heating values in a number of cities between December 1944 and December 1945 were less important than in Atlanta and resulted generally in increases or decreases of less than 1 percent in domestic bills. An exception was an increase of about 1½ percent in bills of the three natural gas companies in Pittsburgh. During the year rates were adjusted in several New England cities to match changes in the costs of fuel used by the utilities. These adjustments

caused decreases in manufactured gas bills amounting to about 2 percent in Manchester and 2½ percent in Portland (Maine), and an increase of a little less than 1 percent in Fall River.

Wholesale Prices in February 1946

STRENGTHENING markets for agricultural products and price advances, following ceiling adjustments, for nonagricultural commodities raised average primary market prices 0.6 percent during February. The index of commodity prices in primary markets [1] prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics stood at 107.7 percent of the 1926 average—1.9 percent above the level at the end of the war, and 2.4 percent above February 1945. From the beginning of the war in 1939 to February 1946 primary market prices rose 43.6 percent.

Price advances for agricultural and nonagricultural commodities were almost equally responsible for the advance in the general average during February. This situation, increasingly frequent in recent months, is in sharp contrast to price movements during the war period, when nonagricultural commodity prices were relatively stable while farm products prices continued to advance.

The advance of 0.5 percent during February for nonagricultural commodities was due largely to price increases for commodities for which higher OPA ceilings were allowed to cover increased costs and stimulate output of peacetime goods.

Nine of the ten major groups in the wholesale price index advanced during February. The largest increase was for metals and metal products, 0.9 percent, followed by building materials, 0.8 percent; farm products, 0.7 percent; textile products, 0.6 percent; foods, 0.5 percent; housefurnishing goods and miscellaneous commodities, 0.3 percent each; and fuel and lighting materials and hides and leather products, 0.2 percent each. The only major group to show a decrease was chemicals and allied products, which declined 0.1 percent.

The advance for farm products was the result of higher average prices in February for livestock and fresh fruits and vegetables. Livestock prices fluctuated during the month, with higher monthly average prices for steers and hogs reflecting a strengthening market and quotations for calves and sheep up on strong demand. Among the fruits and vegetables, advances for apples, oranges, onions, and sweetpotatoes more than offset declines for lemons and potatoes. Egg quotations averaged lower in February, although the market became stronger toward the end of the month. Speculative advances continued for rye and cotton.

[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.

Domestic wool quotations dropped as the Commodity Credit Corporation reduced its selling price for the second time in recent months. Foreign wools showed some weakness following these reductions, which brought prices of some domestic wools below prices of comparable foreign grades for the first time in several years.

The higher prices for fruits and vegetables were largely responsible for the advance in the group index for foods. In addition, prices for cheese rose with elimination of the subsidy on February 1, and raw and granulated sugar prices were higher following ceiling adjustments.

The advance for metals and metal products was the result of higher prices for semifinished and finished iron and steels, announced on March 1, retroactive to February 15. These advances, ranging from 3 to 13 percent, reflected ceiling increases allowed by OPA as the result of higher wages to steel workers. Since the wholesale price index is an average for the month, only part of the advance is reflected in the February index. The full direct effect of these announced advances (excluding price advances for other commodities which may result) on the all-commodities index is estimated at 0.3 percent.

Lumber prices rose 1.0 percent, largely because of higher quotations for Southern pine, following ceiling advances announced late in February. OPA stated that these advances would be withdrawn if production did not reach satisfactory levels by August. Higher prices also were reported for brick, cement, butyl acetate, and lavatories. Paper and pulp prices rose 1.5 percent with higher prices for book paper following ceiling increases to encourage finishing by mills, and for paperboard following ceiling adjustments to stimulate production of standard grades.

Quotations for wool rugs continued to rise as individual manufacturers were allowed further price increases by OPA, supplementing the industry-wide 5-percent advance approved in January. Prices of felt-base rugs and linoleum also rose with increased ceilings granted in February. Quotations for cotton yarns and twine advanced with higher ceilings allowed under the Bankhead amendment to the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944. Prices for men's dress shirts rose as OPA allowed pricing on a cost-plus-fixed-margin basis, and some types of finished cotton piece goods were higher, under a revision of MPR 127, made to improve margins of convertors.

Refinery prices of fuel oils advanced as ceiling increases previously allowed on the Atlantic seaboard were extended to the Midwest and Pacifice areas. Competitive price reductions continued for gasoline, with commercial stocks at the highest level in recent years.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, February 1946, Compared with Previous Months*

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent of change to February 1946 from—		
	February 1946	January 1946	February 1945	August 1939	January 1946	February 1945	August 1939
All commodities	107.7	107.1	105.2	75.0	+0.6	+2.4	+43.6
Farm products	130.8	129.9	127.0	61.0	+.7	+3.0	+114.4
Grains	133.9	133.8	129.8	51.5	+.1	+3.2	+160.0
Livestock and poultry	132.7	131.5	133.8	66.0	+.9	−.8	+101.1
Other farm products	127.9	126.9	121.4	60.1	+.8	+5.4	+112.8
Foods	107.8	107.3	104.7	67.2	+.5	+3.0	+60.4
Dairy products	115.8	115.0	110.8	67.9	+.7	+4.5	+70.5
Cereal products	96.1	95.8	94.9	71.9	+.3	+1.3	+33.7
Fruits and vegetables	127.5	125.7	118.1	58.5	+1.4	+8.0	+117.9
Meats	108.1	108.1	106.5	73.7	0	+1.5	+46.7
Other foods	96.5	96.2	95.1	60.3	+.3	+1.5	+60.0
Hides and leather products	119.6	119.4	117.6	92.7	+.2	+1.7	+29.0
Shoes	128.2	127.9	126.3	100.8	+.2	+1.5	+27.2
Hides and skins	117.6	117.6	115.4	77.2	0	+1.9	+52.3
Leather	103.9	103.8	101.3	84.0	+.1	+2.6	+23.7
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	115.2	97.1	0	0	+18.6
Textile products	102.2	101.6	99.7	67.8	+.6	+2.5	+50.7
Clothing	109.4	107.4	107.4	81.5	+1.9	+1.9	+34.2
Cotton goods	125.8	125.6	119.9	65.5	+.2	+4.9	+92.1
Hosiery and underwear	75.3	75.2	71.5	61.5	+.1	+5.3	+22.4
Rayon	30.2	30.2	30.2	28.5	0	0	+6.0
Silk				44.3			
Woolen and worsted goods	112.7	112.7	112.7	75.5	0	0	+49.3
Other textile products	102.0	101.9	100.9	63.7	+.1	+1.1	+60.1
Fuel and lighting materials	85.1	84.9	83.3	72.6	+.2	+2.2	+17.2
Anthracite	104.0	103.9	95.3	72.1	+.1	+9.1	+44.2
Bituminous coal	125.1	125.1	120.5	96.0	0	+3.8	+30.3
Coke	134.9	134.9	130.7	104.2	0	+3.2	+29.5
Electricity	(1)	(1)	61.1	75.8			
Gas	(1)	77.4	76.9	86.7			
Petroleum and products	61.6	61.5	64.3	51.7	+.2	−4.2	+19.1
Metals and metal products	106.6	105.7	104.2	93.2	+.9	+2.3	+14.4
Agricultural implements	98.1	98.1	97.5	93.5	0	+.6	+4.9
Farm machinery	99.2	99.1	98.7	94.7	+.1	+.5	+4.8
Iron and steel	103.3	101.2	98.0	95.1	+2.1	+5.4	+8.6
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	112.8	92.5	0	0	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.7	85.7	85.9	74.6	0	−.2	+14.9
Plumbing and heating	95.1	95.0	92.4	79.3	+.1	+2.9	+19.9
Building materials	120.9	120.0	117.0	89.6	+.8	+3.3	+34.9
Brick and tile	116.9	116.9	110.5	90.5	0	+5.8	+29.2
Cement	101.5	101.1	99.0	91.3	+.4	+2.5	+11.2
Lumber	160.1	158.5	154.4	90.1	+1.0	+3.7	+77.7
Paint and paint materials	107.8	107.8	106.4	82.1	0	+1.3	+31.3
Plumbing and heating	95.1	95.0	92.4	79.3	+.1	+2.9	+19.9
Structural steel	113.7	107.3	107.3	107.3	+6.0	+6.0	+6.0
Other building materials	107.2	106.6	103.6	89.5	+.6	+3.5	+19.8
Chemicals and allied products	95.9	96.0	94.9	74.2	−.1	+1.1	+29.2
Chemicals	97.0	97.1	95.8	83.8	−.1	+1.3	+15.8
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	111.5	112.1	106.9	77.1	−.5	+4.3	+44.6
Fertilizer materials	81.9	81.9	81.9	65.5	0	0	+25.0
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.6	86.6	73.1	0	0	+18.5
Oils and fats	101.8	101.7	102.0	40.6	+.1	−.2	+150.7
Housefurnishing goods	106.5	106.2	104.5	85.6	+.3	+1.9	+24.4
Furnishings	110.1	109.7	107.5	90.0	+.4	+2.4	+22.3
Furniture	102.9	102.8	101.5	81.1	+.1	+1.4	+26.9
Miscellaneous	95.6	95.3	94.6	73.3	+.3	+1.1	+30.4
Automobile 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	113.7	112.0	108.0	80.0	+1.5	+5.3	+42.1
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	46.2	34.9	0	0	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	98.9	98.9	98.9	81.3	0	0	+21.6
Raw materials	118.9	118.3	115.6	66.5	+.5	+2.9	+78.8
Semimanufactured articles	98.8	97.6	95.0	74.5	+1.2	+4.0	+32.6
Manufactured products	103.4	102.9	101.5	79.1	+.5	+1.9	+30.7
All commodities other than farm products	102.5	101.9	100.2	77.9	+0.6	+2.3	+31.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	101.3	100.8	99.2	80.1	+0.5	+2.1	+26 5

[1] No quotation.

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Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to February 1946

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1945, and by months from February 1945 to February 1946, 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
1945	128.2	106.2	118.1	100.1	84.0	104.7	117.8	95.2	104.5	94.7	105.8
1945											
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
December	131.5	108.6	118.9	101.4	84.8	105.6	119.5	96.1	104.7	94.8	107.1
1946											
January	129.9	107.3	119.4	101.6	84.9	105.7	120.0	96.0	106.2	95.3	107.1
February	130.8	107.8	119.6	102.2	85.1	106.6	120.9	95.9	106.5	95.6	107.7

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 Bulletin No. 785—Wholesale Prices, July–December and Year 1943.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*1945*					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	February	115.6	95.0	101.5	100.2	99.2
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	March	115.7	95.0	101.6	100.4	99.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	April	116.8	95.0	101.8	100.5	99.3
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May	117.7	95.0	101.8	100.6	99.4
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	June	118.2	95.4	101.8	100.7	99.6
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	July	117.5	95.3	101.8	100.7	99.7
						August	116.3	95.5	101.8	100.9	99.9
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	September	114.8	96.5	101.7	100.9	99.8
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	October	116.6	96.8	101.9	101.0	100.1
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	November	118.9	96.9	102.2	101.3	100.2
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	December	119.2	97.6	102.5	101.6	100.5
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	*1946*					
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5	January	118.3	97.6	102.9	101.9	100.8
1945	116.8	95.9	101.8	100.8	99.7	February	118.9	98.8	103.4	102.5	101.3

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during January and February 1946 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, January and February 1946*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Feb. 23	Feb. 16	Feb. 9	Feb. 2	Jan. 26	Jan. 19	Jan. 12	Jan. 5
All commodities	107.4	107.2	107.1	106.8	106.8	106.7	106.7	106.8
Farm products	131.1	131.0	130.4	129.7	129.9	129.3	130.0	131.3
Foods	108.3	108.0	107.1	106.7	106.8	107.3	107.6	108.0
Hides and leather products	120.1	120.1	120.0	119.8	119.4	119.4	119.4	119.4
Textile products	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.0	100.6
Fuel and lighting materials	85.6	85.7	85.8	85.4	85.4	85.5	85.5	85.2
Metals and metal products	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.8	105.4	105.4	105.3
Building materials	120.2	120.0	119.9	119.9	119.9	119.8	119.2	119.1
Chemicals and allied products	96.0	95.9	96.0	96.0	96.0	96.1	96.1	96.1
Housefurnishing goods	108.0	106.8	106.8	106.8	106.6	106.6	106 4	106.4
Miscellaneous	95.4	95.4	95.3	95.0	95.0	95.0	95.0	95.0
Raw materials	119.7	119.7	119.3	118.9	119.0	118.7	119.0	119.7
Semimanufactured articles	98.5	98.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	96.9	96.9	96.9
Manufactured products	103.4	103.2	103.2	102.9	102.9	102.9	102.8	102.6
All commodities other than farm products	102.2	102.0	101.9	101.7	101.7	101.7	101.5	101.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods	101.1	101.1	101.1	100.9	100.9	100.8	100.7	100.6

Labor Turn-over

Labor Turn-over in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, January 1946

THE hiring rate for factory workers in January was 84 per 1,000, considerably above the level in December. The increase, which follows the usual seasonal pattern, was reported by all major industry groups with the exception of food and petroleum.

As in other years, there was also an increase in the rate of separations between December and January. However, this rise was not nearly so great as the increase in the accession rate.

Lay-offs accounted for the increase in the total separation rate, with an increase from 13 to 18 per 1,000 employees, largely because of strikes and material shortages caused by these strikes. Lay-off rates in excess of 20 per 1,000 were reported by the transportation equipment, automobile, nonferrous metals, machinery, and electrical machinery groups and also, for other reasons, by the tobacco and chemical industries.

The lay-off rate of 78 per 1,000 in the transportation-equipment group reflected the fact that many firms engaged in new shipbuilding construction were further curtailing production. However, the transportation-equipment group had an extremely high accession rate—94 per 1,000—indicating primarily that shipyards doing repair work were expanding.

Women were separated from their jobs at the rate of 79 per 1,000 in January as compared with 63 for men. While the quit rate for women was considerably higher than that for men, the involuntary separation rate—lay-offs and discharges—for women was slightly lower. Many employers commented that wives of returning veterans were quitting their jobs in large numbers.

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:												
1946	[2] 6.8											
1945	6.2	6.0	6.8	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	17.9	12.0	8.6	7.1	5.9
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:												
1946	[2] 4.3											
1945	4.6	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	6.7	5.6	4.7	4.0
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:												
1946	[2] .5											
1945	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.7	.6	.7	.6	.5	.5	.4
1943	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1939	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: [3]												
1946	[2] 1.8											
1945	.6	.7	.7	.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	10.7	4.5	2.3	1.7	1.3
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]												
1946	[2] .2											
1945	.3	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2
1943	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1946	[2] 8.4											
1945	7.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	7.4	8.6	8.7	6.9
1943	8.3	7.9	8.3	7.4	7.2	8.4	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.2	6.6	5.2
1939	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8

[1] Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor 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 1-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 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] *January 1946* [2]

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945
Manufacturing												
Durable	7.3	6.2	4.0	3.6	0.5	0.5	2.6	1.9	0.2	0.2	8.8	7.0
Nondurable	6.3	5.8	4.6	4.4	.5	.4	1.0	.8	.2	.2	8.0	6.9
Ordnance	[3]	13.9	[3]	4.5	[3]	.4	[3]	8.8	[3]	.2	[3]	5.8
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	[3]	18.2	[3]	10.3	[3]	.7	[3]	7.0	[3]	.2	[3]	6.3
Ammunition, except for small arms	[3]	13.3	[3]	2.8	[3]	.3	[3]	10.0	[3]	.2	[3]	5.5
Tanks	[3]	18.2	[3]	1.9	[3]	.4	[3]	15.8	[3]	.1	[3]	6.4
Sighting and fire-control equipment	[3]	6.6	[3]	2.9	[4]		[3]	3.6	[3]	.1	[3]	6.1
Iron and steel and their products	5.3	4.4	3.5	3.2	.5	.3	1.0	.7	.3	.2	7.2	6.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.0	3.7	2.3	2.8	.1	.2	.4	.5	.2	.2	3.7	5.9
Gray-iron castings	8.9	7.3	6.1	5.4	1.1	.9	1.4	.6	.3	.4	12.0	8.9
Malleable-iron castings	8.3	6.0	7.0	5.0	.5	.4	.5	.4	.3	.2	11.4	7.8
Steel castings	5.8	5.2	3.2	3.4	.5	.6	1.8	1.0	.3	.2	6.5	5.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *January 1946* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945
Manufacturing—Continued												
Iron and steel their and products—Con.												
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	4.7	3.0	3.5	2.2	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	8.7	5.1
Tin cans and other tinware	8.9	9.8	6.9	6.0	.9	2.2	.7	1.2	.4	.4	12.8	9.4
Wire products	4.4	2.7	2.3	1.7	.3	.2	1.4	.5	.4	.3	4.8	5.4
Cutlery and edge tools	7.1	4.5	4.8	3.5	1.4	.8	.7	.1	.2	.1	6.4	4.5
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.0	5.1	3.6	4.0	.6	.7	.5	.3	.3	.1	7.1	6.4
Hardware	7.1	5.3	5.2	4.2	1.0	.4	.7	.5	.2	.2	12.1	7.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	6.6	6.9	4.3	4.4	1.0	.7	1.0	1.5	.3	.3	13.3	8.3
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	6.0	5.7	4.0	4.1	.4	.5	1.1	.6	.5	.5	7.5	7.7
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	7.6	6.1	4.7	3.8	.7	.5	2.0	1.6	.2	.2	11.3	9.1
Fabricated structural-metal products	7.6	5.0	3.8	3.2	.7	.3	2.8	1.3	.3	.2	8.3	6.3
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	4.4	4.0	2.7	2.5	.2	.3	1.2	.7	.3	.5	5.0	5.1
Forgings, iron and steel	4.2	4.0	2.4	1.9	.2	.2	1.5	1.8	.1	.1	7.1	4.7
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	(3)	7.4	(3)	2.1	(3)	.5	(3)	4.4	(3)	.4	(3)	6.0
Electrical machinery	6.9	4.1	4.0	2.7	.7	.4	2.1	.8	.1	.2	9.5	6.9
Electrical equipment for industrial use	6.4	3.9	3.8	2.6	.7	.2	1.7	.8	.2	.3	8.2	4.7
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	6.5	4.4	4.1	2.9	.6	.6	1.7	.8	.1	.1	10.5	7.2
Communication equipment, except radios	5.8	3.3	3.1	2.1	.4	.2	2.2	.8	.1	.2	8.7	8.8
Machinery, except electrical	5.8	4.4	2.9	2.5	.5	.4	2.2	1.3	.2	.2	7.3	5.8
Engines and turbines	6.4	7.8	2.4	2.0	.6	.3	3.2	5.3	.2	.2	8.8	5.6
Agricultural machinery and tractors	(5)	4.3	(5)	3.2	(5)	.3	(5)	.6	(5)	.2	(5)	6.3
Machine tools	5.2	4.2	2.7	1.5	.2	.5	2.1	2.0	.2	.2	6.1	4.0
Machine-tool accessories	6.4	4.0	2.9	2.0	.6	.5	2.7	1.4	.2	.1	7.7	4.5
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	5.3	3.6	2.8	2.5	.5	.6	1.8	.4	.2	.1	7.4	4.9
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.6	4.5	2.9	2.7	.5	.4	2.0	1.2	.2	.2	6.9	5.8
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.9	4.2	2.6	2.7	.6	.6	1.6	.6	.1	.3	6.5	6.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	12.9	11.5	4.3	4.3	.6	.7	7.8	6.3	.2	.2	9.4	7.2
Aircraft	8.7	8.0	3.8	2.7	.4	.3	4.4	4.7	.1	.3	8.6	6.6
Aircraft parts, including engines	8.0	8.8	2.5	2.6	.3	.4	5.1	5.7	.1	.1	7.1	8.8
Shipbuilding and repairs [6]	16.5	14.9	5.1	5.7	.9	1.0	10.3	8.1	.2	.1	10.1	7.4
Automobiles	6.8	5.1	2.7	2.4	.4	.3	3.6	2.3	.1	.1	9.7	7.9
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailors	5.3	4.7	2.5	2.1	.3	.3	2.4	2.2	.1	.1	9.6	8.0
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	9.3	6.1	3.0	3.0	.5	.5	5.6	2.5	.2	.1	9.8	7.7
Nonferrous metals and their products [7]	7.4	5.6	4.1	3.4	.6	.5	2.4	1.5	.3	.2	9.7	6.4
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.6	4.0	2.5	3.4	.3	.2	1.5	.2	.3	.2	6.3	5.3
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	5.4	4.1	3.6	2.9	.6	.4	1.0	.7	.2	.1	8.0	5.8
Aluminum and magnesium products	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Lighting equipment	10.9	6.0	3.8	4.7	.2	.2	6.7	1.0	.2	.1	11.0	6.2
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	9.3	6.1	5.1	3.4	.8	.6	3.0	1.9	.4	.2	10.8	6.6
Lumber and timber basic products	8.5	8.4	6.2	6.3	.4	.4	1.7	1.6	.2	.1	11.3	9.3
Sawmills	8.3	8.5	6.3	6.3	.3	.4	1.6	1.7	.1	.1	10.7	9.5
Planing and plywood mills	7.2	5.6	4.9	4.2	.3	.6	1.8	.6	.2	.2	9.2	7.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *January 1946* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945
Manufacturing—Continued												
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.4	7.1	6.5	5.5	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.2	0.2	11.8	9.2
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.2	7.1	6.5	5.5	.8	.7	.7	.7	.2	.2	12.8	9.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.8	5.4	4.0	3.9	.5	.4	1.0	.8	.3	.3	9.7	7.5
Glass and glass products	6.3	4.4	3.9	3.2	.6	.3	1.4	.6	.4	.3	10.3	7.7
Cement	5.1	6.6	4.0	4.7	.5	.6	.4	.7	.2	.6	9.2	8.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	6.0	7.8	4.5	6.3	.9	.5	.3	.7	.3	.3	11.6	10.3
Pottery and related products	4.5	5.0	3.6	4.0	.4	.3	.3	.5	.2	.2	8.6	6.7
Textile-mill products	6.4	5.4	5.3	4.5	.5	.4	.4	.4	.2	.1	9.2	6.4
Cotton	7.7	6.3	6.6	5.5	.5	.4	.4	.3	.2	.1	10.4	7.0
Silk and rayon goods	6.1	5.3	4.9	4.6	.5	.4	.5	.2	.2	.1	8.3	5.7
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	4.9	4.3	3.7	3.4	.5	.3	.5	.4	.2	.2	7.9	5.7
Hosiery, full-fashioned	4.0	2.9	3.4	2.5	.3	.2	.3	.2	(4)	(4)	7.8	4.6
Hosiery, seamless	5.8	4.9	5.2	4.4	.2	.2	.3	.3	.1	(4)	8.4	5.4
Knitted underwear	5.7	5.3	5.0	4.6	.5	.1	.1	.6	.1	(4)	7.8	5.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	4.7	4.5	2.8	3.1	.7	.4	.8	.7	.4	.3	7.1	5.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	5.4	4.9	4.8	4.2	.2	.1	.3	.5	.1	.1	7.9	4.3
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.3	4.6	3.8	4.0	.2	.1	.2	.1	.1	.4	6.8	3.8
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	5.9	5.0	5.4	4.4	.2	.1	.3	.5	(4)	(4)	7.7	4.2
Leather and leather products	5.6	5.0	4.8	4.3	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	.2	8.3	6.5
Leather	5.8	3.5	4.4	2.6	.6	.3	.7	.4	.1	.2	7.9	8.3
Boots and shoes	5.6	5.3	4.9	4.6	.3	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	8.4	6.3
Food and kindred products	7.7	8.2	5.6	6.4	.8	.7	1.1	.9	.2	.2	8.3	10.6
Meat products	8.0	9.0	6.3	7.0	.9	.9	.6	.8	.2	.3	8.8	14.5
Grain-mill products	7.3	7.3	5.5	5.4	1.2	.8	.5	.9	.1	.2	9.0	7.5
Tobacco manufactures	8.9	6.7	5.5	3.7	.4	.2	2.9	2.7	.1	.1	9.0	5.1
Paper and allied products	6.9	6.2	5.1	4.8	.7	.5	.8	.6	.3	.3	9.3	7.7
Paper and pulp	5.9	5.9	4.4	4.5	.6	.5	.7	.6	.2	.3	8.5	7.9
Paper boxes	8.8	7.1	6.7	5.9	.9	.6	.8	.4	.4	.2	11.1	7.3
Chemicals and allied products	6.0	5.3	2.5	2.4	.5	.4	2.7	2.3	.3	.2	5.8	5.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors	4.7	4.0	2.7	2.8	.7	.6	1.1	.3	.2	.3	5.9	6.5
Rayon and allied products	3.2	3.7	2.0	2.8	.5	.4	.6	.3	.1	.2	4.4	5.8
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.2	3.5	2.4	2.1	.5	.4	1.1	.8	.2	.2	6.2	5.7
Explosives	(3)	27.7	(3)	3.5	(3)	.1	(3)	23.8	(3)	.3	(3)	4.9
Small-arms ammunition	16.1	8.9	2.3	1.8	.4	.3	12.5	6.5	.9	.3	5.2	4.4
Products of petroleum and coal	3.2	2.9	1.6	1.6	.2	.2	1.2	.9	.2	.2	3.8	3.9
Petroleum refining	3.2	2.7	1.6	1.5	.2	.1	1.2	.9	.2	.2	3.7	3.7
Rubber products	5.6	5.2	4.2	4.2	.4	.4	.6	.3	.4	.3	8.3	6.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	4.4	5.0	3.3	4.2	.3	.3	.4	.2	.4	.3	6.7	6.6
Rubber footwear and related products	7.4	4.8	6.3	4.0	.3	.3	.5	.3	.3	.2	9.7	5.7
Miscellaneous rubber industries	7.7	5.8	5.3	4.3	.7	.6	1.3	.6	.4	.3	11.0	7.3
Miscellaneous industries	4.9	3.8	2.7	2.5	.3	.3	1.7	.9	.2	.1	6.8	5.2
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining [7]	5.5	5.9	4.1	4.5	.6	.4	.5	.7	.3	.3	7.2	7.2
Iron ore	3.3	3.5	1.7	1.6	(4)	.1	1.1	1.3	.5	.5	3.2	4.5
Copper ore	7.0	7.5	5.3	6.1	1.1	.7	.3	.4	.3	.3	8.6	8.7
Lead and zinc ore	5.5	6.5	4.8	5.8	.5	.4	.1	.2	.1	.1	9.3	8.7
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum ore	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *January 1946* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945
Nonmanufacturing—Continued												
Coal mining:												
Anthracite mining	2.4	2.2	1.8	1.4	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.1	3.6	2.4
Bituminous-coal mining	4.8	3.9	3.9	3.4	.3	.2	.3	.2	.3	.1	6.8	4.9
Public utilities:												
Telephone	(5)	3.2	(5)	2.9	(5)	.1	(5)	.1	(5)	.1	(5)	5.1
Telegraph	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)

[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.

[3] Because the majority of plants which manufactured ordnance matériel during the war years either have been converted to peacetime production or have been placed under Government control, the December 1945 rates are the final figures for the ordnance, firearms, and explosives series.

[4] Less than 0.05.

[5] Not available.

[6] Revised November shipbuilding rates are as follows: Total separation, 19.4; quit, 6.1; discharge, 1.2; lay-off, 11.9; military and miscellaneous, 0.2; total accession, 6.9.

[7] Based on incomplete returns.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) for Men and Women in All Manufacturing and Selected Groups,*[1] *January 1946* [2]

Industry group	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945
All manufacturing	6.3	5.7	7.9	6.6	3.7	3.6	5.6	4.9	8.8	7.7	7.7	4.9
Durable	6.8	5.8	9.5	7.6	3.7	3.4	5.5	4.6	9.3	7.4	7.6	5.1
Nondurable	5.6	5.5	7.2	6.2	3.8	3.9	5.7	5.1	8.1	8.2	7.7	4.9
Ordnance	(3)	13.0	(3)	16.1	(3)	3.9	(3)	6.9	(3)	6.6	(3)	5.6
Iron and steel and their products	5.2	4.3	8.4	7.2	3.4	3.0	5.6	4.7	8.0	6.8	7.4	4.0
Electrical machinery	5.7	3.4	8.5	5.3	2.7	2.1	5.6	3.7	8.4	6.9	10.8	6.9
Machinery, except electrical	5.4	4.0	7.6	6.2	2.7	2.3	4.1	3.6	7.7	6.3	5.0	3.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	12.5	11.2	13.9	12.1	4.2	4.0	5.2	5.0	10.2	7.7	4.4	4.9
Automobiles	6.2	4.5	11.5	9.7	2.4	2.3	5.3	4.6	9.6	6.6	10.7	7.8
Nonferrous metals and their products [4]	6.8	5.5	9.5	6.0	3.9	3.4	5.0	3.6	10.2	7.0	8.2	4.2
Lumber and timber basic products	7.8	8.3	13.3	11.4	6.0	6.1	7.9	9.4	12.0	9.8	3.1	3.4
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.0	6.8	10.0	8.2	6.1	5.3	7.8	6.4	12.8	10.3	7.7	5.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.4	5.0	7.3	6.4	3.8	3.8	4.7	4.1	10.4	8.3	7.4	4.4
Textile-mill products	6.1	5.3	6.6	5.5	4.8	4.2	5.8	4.9	10.4	7.7	7.9	5.0
Apparel and other finished textile products	3.2	3.6	5.7	5.2	2.3	2.5	5.2	4.5	6.3	5.3	8.0	3.8
Leather and leather products	5.1	4.0	6.1	6.0	4.2	3.3	5.5	5.4	8.6	7.3	8.0	5.6
Food and kindred products	6.8	7.7	10.8	9.6	5.0	5.9	7.7	7.8	8.3	11.6	8.5	7.7
Tobacco manufactures	5.3	4.8	10.9	7.8	3.3	3.2	6.7	4.0	10.8	6.7	8.0	4.2
Paper and allied products	6.2	5.8	8.5	7.2	4.6	4.5	6.3	5.6	9.5	8.7	8.0	4.1
Chemicals and allied products	5.6	5.0	7.0	5.9	2.1	2.0	3.7	3.4	6.1	6.2	5.0	3.0
Products of petroleum and coal	2.6	2.1	9.6	11.1	1.4	1.3	5.2	4.8	3.9	4.1	2.6	1.6
Rubber products	5.1	5.1	7.3	5.4	3.7	4.1	5.7	4.4	8.4	7.3	8.1	5.2
Miscellaneous industries	4.0	3.1	6.4	5.0	1.7	1.8	4.3	3.6	7.1	6.0	6.2	3.9

[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] See table 2, footnote 3. [4] Based on incomplete returns.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, February 1946

THE value of urban building construction started in continental United States during February 1946 reached 352 million dollars—the highest total reported in any month during the period for which monthly data are available (January 1942 to date). The February 1946 figure was 15 percent above that for the preceding month and was more than 4 times as much as the total for February 1945.

All types of building construction shared in the 45-million-dollar gain during February; new residential construction increased 12 percent, new nonresidential building 16 percent, and additions, alterations, and repairs 18 percent. While non-Federal (private, State, and local government) work rose 12 percent over the high level it had already attained in the preceding month, Federally financed construction—down to 3½ million dollars in January—more than tripled in February. The former increased from 303 million to 341 million dollars over the month, and the latter from 3½ million to 11 million dollars.

TABLE 1.—*Value of Building Construction Started in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, February 1946* [1]

Class of construction	Value (in millions)								
	Total			Non-Federal			Federal		
	February 1946	Percent of change from—		February 1946	Percent of change from—		February 1946	Percent of change from—	
		January 1946	February 1945		January 1946	February 1945		January 1946	February 1945
All construction	$352	+14.7	+316.8	$341	+12.4	+579.8	$11	+205.6	−67.9
New residential	142	+12.2	+593.5	137	+11.0	+707.5	5	+59.0	+38.3
New nonresidential	143	+15.6	+236.4	141	+14.0	+914.5	2	+3031.8	−92.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs	67	+18.3	+212.4	63	+12.0	+226.2	4	+714.7	+90.1

[1] Percentage change computed before rounding.

Work was started during February 1946 on 30,682 new family dwelling units, as compared with 27,603 in January, and 6,168 in February 1945. After 4 consecutive months in the latter part of

1945 in which no Federal money was used for home construction in urban areas, there were 1,685 Federally financed units started in January and 2,179 in February 1946. Most of these were started under the program recently instituted to relocate temporary war housing for veterans. In February 1945, only 840 units were financed from Federal funds.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Value of New Dwelling Units Started in all Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and by Type of Dwelling, February 1946*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Value (in thousands)		
	February 1946	Percent of change from—		February 1946	Percent of change from—	
		January 1946	February 1945		January 1946	February 1945
All dwellings	30,682	+11.2	+397.4	$135,687	+11.2	+578.3
Privately financed	28,503	+10.0	+435.0	131,886	+10.8	+681.2
1-family	24,072	+10.5	+456.2	116,568	+10.9	+756.8
2-family [1]	1,792	+36.9	+387.0	6,659	+34.6	+561.9
Multifamily [2]	2,639	−6.5	+317.6	8,659	−3.2	+281.1
Federally financed	2,179	+29.3	+159.4	3,801	+25.7	+21.8

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 2 Months of 1945 and 1946

During the first 2 months of this year, the value of urban building construction started totaled 658 million dollars—well over 4 times the amount reported for the corresponding months of 1945. Non-Federal work rose from only 97 million dollars in 1945 to 644 million dollars in 1946, with all classes of construction sharing in the gain. On the other hand, Federal contract awards fell from 55 million dollars in January and February 1945 to 14 million dollars in the same months of this year. The 5-million-dollar increase in Federally financed home construction was more than offset by a drop of 43 million dollars in new nonresidential building and of 3 million dollars in additions, alterations, and repairs.

TABLE 3.—*Value of Building Construction Started in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, First 2 Months of 1945 and 1946*

Class of construction	Value (in millions)								
	Total			Non-Federal			Federal		
	First 2 months of—		Percent of change	First 2 months of—		Percent of change	First 2 months of—		Percent of change
	1946	1945		1946	1945		1946	1945	
All construction	$658	$152	+332.9	$644	$97	+563.9	$14	$55	−74.5
New residential	268	35	+665.7	260	32	+712.5	8	3	+166.7
New nonresidential	267	71	+276.1	265	26	+19.2	2	45	−95.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	123	46	+167.4	119	39	+205.1	4	7	−42.9

TABLE 4.—*Number and Value of New Dwelling Units Started in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and by Type of Dwelling, First 2 Months of 1945 and 1946*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Value (in thousands)		
	First 2 months of—		Percent of change	First 2 months of—		Percent of change
	1946	1945		1946	1945	
All dwellings	58,285	11,214	+419.8	$257,697	$34,544	+653.8
Privately financed	54,421	10,374	+424.6	250,872	31,067	+707.5
1-family	45,858	8,423	+444.4	221,666	25,167	+780.8
2-family [1]	3,101	581	+433.7	11,606	1,586	+631.8
Multifamily [2]	5,462	1,370	+298.7	17,600	4,314	+308.0
Federally financed	3,864	840	+360.0	6,825	3,477	+118.8

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Federal Funds, February 1946

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during January and February 1946 and February 1945 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 continental 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 $10,987,717 in February 1946, $3,594,874 in January 1946, and $34,260,432 in February 1945.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Federally Financed Construction in Continental United States in Specified Months*

Type of project	Value (in thousands)		
	February 1946 [1]	January 1946 [2]	February 1945 [2]
All types	$43,200	$74,864	$58,928
Airports [3]	39	1,247	2,048
Buildings:			
Residential	8,719	3,037	3,477
Nonresidential	2,996	10,254	39,250
Electrification [4]	161	758	922
Highways, streets, and roads	22,744	29,532	2,815
Reclamation	2,339	23,416	6,090
River, harbor, and flood control	5,870	5,928	907
Water and sewer	206	258	1,116
Miscellaneous	126	434	2,303

[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 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; 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 projects.

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 December 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.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Employment Reports for February 1946

EMPLOYMENT expanded in February 1946 by an unusually large amount in construction, mining, and trade, and there were further gains in the light manufacturing industries. However, substantial lay-offs in heavy manufacturing, because of strikes and material shortages, brought a net decrease of 434,000 in manufacturing as a whole and resulted in the smallest employment in factories since January 1941.

Industrial and Business Employment

As a consequence, nonagricultural employment for the whole country went down by 285,000 to a level of 35,554,000. According to the Bureau of the Census, there were 2,700,000 unemployed in February, about 400,000 more than in January.

The number of production workers in manufacturing industries was 9,667,000, the lowest figure in 5 years and 3½ million less than in February 1945. All the decline during the month was concentrated in the durable-goods group and most of it was attributed to the steel strike and strikes in allied industries. The iron and steel group, largest of the 20 major groups in number of production workers in January, showed a 36-percent decrease during the month. Four other major durable-goods groups—machinery (except electrical), transportation equipment, automobiles, and nonferrous metals—together reported a drop of 67,000 workers between January and February. Firms in these industry groups commented on the shortages caused by strikes.

An employment increase of 84,000 in the nondurable-goods group reflected gains in 9 of the 11 component major groups. Increases of about 25,000 workers each were reported by the textile and apparel groups. The slight decreases in the number of employees in the food industries is of a seasonal nature, and was almost evenly divided between the canning and the beet-sugar industries.

In the textile and apparel groups, where seasonal increases were reported, larger supplies of raw materials and the availability of a growing number of returning veterans made possible the addition of 51,000 workers during the month. Other significant increases occurred in the leather, printing, and miscellaneous industries. The boot and shoe industry accounted for most of the leather increase, while firms in the printing industry indicated that they were being swamped with textbook orders because of the large volume of veteran enrollment in colleges.

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 (in thousands)				Production-worker indexes (1939=100)	
	Feb. 1946 [2]	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Feb. 1945	Feb. 1946 [2]	Jan. 1946
All manufacturing	9,667	10,076	9,962	13,268	118.0	123.0
Durable goods	4,445	4,938	4,854	7,898	123.1	136.7
Nondurable goods	5,222	5,138	5,108	5,370	114.0	112.2
Iron and steel and their products	808	1,260	1,243	1,694	81.5	127.1
Electrical machinery	463	456	465	708	178.5	175.9
Machinery, except electrical	884	904	878	1,185	167.2	171.0
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	489	506	519	2,076	308.0	318.5
Automobiles	377	395	373	692	93.8	98.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	308	320	313	410	134.3	139.5
Lumber and timber basic products	428	424	415	465	101.8	100.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	336	332	322	341	102.3	101.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	352	341	326	327	120.0	116.1
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,129	1,103	1,090	1,090	98.7	96.4
Apparel and other finished textile products	832	807	797	852	105.5	102.2
Leather and leather products	342	331	323	314	98.4	95.3
Food	998	1,006	1,030	1,008	116.8	117.7
Tobacco manufactures	81	81	82	82	86.7	86.5
Paper and allied products	335	330	325	315	126.3	124.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	367	359	355	323	111.9	109.4
Chemicals and allied products	445	444	441	638	154.3	153.9
Products of petroleum and coal	142	141	139	134	134.2	132.9
Rubber products	198	194	189	200	163.4	160.2
Miscellaneous industries	353	342	337	414	144.2	139.9

[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.

Public Employment

United States total.—Federal employment within continental United States, totaling 2,374,000 on February 1, 1946, showed a net decline of only 5,000 during the month. The War Department and OPA reduced their civilian staffs (by 27,000 and 5,000, respectively) but several of the peacetime agencies that were understaffed during the war took advantage of the loosening labor-market situation to expand. For instance, the Veterans Administration added 13,000 employees, the Post Office Department 6,000, and the Interior Department 1,000. The Treasury Department gain of 7,000 reflected the transfer of the Coast Guard from the Navy Department, and the RFC gain of 4,500 reflected the acquisition of part of the Smaller War Plants Corporation [1] and the expansion of its recently acquired Surplus Property Administration functions.

Employment outside continental United States, practically 80 percent of which is in the War Department, declined 43,000 during the month to a total of 513,000 for the executive branch and Government corporations.

A slight upturn in employment occurred in the Washington, D. C., area. Nearly three-fourths of the 3,600 increase was concentrated in the Veterans Administration, and the Agriculture and War Departments.

[1] RFC gained about 1,400 Smaller War Plants Corporation employees and Commerce Department gained the remainder—about 400.

Federal pay rolls, following the general trend of employment, declined $5,000,000 in February 1946 to a level of $538,000,000 for all branches in all areas, or $124,000,000 less than in February 1945 (table 2).

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]						
Feb. 1939	917,213	885,021	850,498	120,862	5,234	2,228	24,730
Feb. 1940	992,856	958,319	910,890	127,836	5,889	2,360	26,288
Feb. 1941	1,232,956	1,196,876	1,119,891	159,098	5,985	2,507	27,588
Feb. 1942	1,813,014	1,773,533	1,621,985	226,259	6,354	2,584	30,543
Feb. 1943	3,031,830	2,988,636	2,730,372	285,477	6,284	2,597	34,313
Feb. 1944	3,263,016	3,217,941	2,819,973	263,126	6,115	2,668	36,292
Feb. 1945	3,516,640	3,473,254	2,888,841	256,043	6,561	2,643	34,182
Nov. 1945	3,300,038	3,256,349	2,480,671	232,577	6,373	2,942	34,374
Dec. 1945	3,431,746	3,388,037	2,678,565	233,762	6,384	2,991	34,334
Jan. 1946	2,973,463	2,930,076	2,378,916	229,389	6,390	3,011	33,986
Feb. 1946 [4]	2,923,389	2,879,918	2,374,038	233,017	6,433	3,023	34,015
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [5]						
Feb. 1943	$623,796	$616,563	([6])	$57,824	$1,415	$728	$5,090
Feb. 1944	679,826	671,930	$618,090	54,730	1,491	760	5,645
Feb. 1945	662,047	654,307	601,350	54,239	1,612	782	5,346
Nov. 1945 [4]	571,666	563,626	509,257	50,625	1,757	912	5,371
Dec. 1945 [4]	701,681	695,089	648,746	73,960	1,822	1,135	5,457
Jan. 1946 [4]	543,192	534,832	490,726	52,877	1,767	968	5,625
Feb. 1946 [4]	538,371	530,104	487,900	53,235	1,771	968	5,328

[1] Includes employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5). 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 R. R. 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, except for the seasonal post-office workers included in the executive service in December 1945.

[4] Preliminary.

[5] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. Figures for December 1945 include 3 pay periods covering 6 weeks for most of the per-annum employees.

[6] Data not available.

Employment by States.—In January 1946, 5 months after the Japanese surrender, 28 States had over 50 percent and 8 States had over 75 percent of their total Federal employment in war agencies.[1] In the same month of 1945, war-agency employment was over 50 percent of the Federal total in 36 States and over 75 percent in 16 States. In other words, war-agency employment dropped below 75 percent in 8 States and below 50 percent in 8 States during the year.

During 1945, employment in Federal war agencies declined 30 percent in the country as a whole, but declined over 50 percent in 4

[1] The percentage of Federal employees in war agencies in the highest-ranking 8 States was as follows: Rhode Island and Virginia 82, Florida and California 81, Utah 80, Washington 78, and South Carolina and New Jersey 75.

States (Michigan, Wyoming, Nevada, and Kansas) and between 40 and 50 percent in 9 States. There were 2 States (Kentucky and New Hampshire) with a drop in war-agency employment of less than 10 percent.

On the other hand, no State had as much as 50 percent of its total Federal employment in either the Post Office Department or in other peacetime agencies in January 1945. This January, however, Vermont had over 50 percent of its Federal employment in the Post Office Department, and North Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, and the District of Columbia had over 50 percent in other peacetime agencies.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls for 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]						
February 1939	885,021	187,430	161,092	26,338	697,591	689,406	8,185
February 1940	958,319	241,249	204,848	36,401	717,070	706,042	11,028
February 1941	1,196,876	433,197	368,860	64,337	763,679	751,031	12,648
February 1942	1,773,533	930,853	793,172	137,681	842,680	828,813	13,867
February 1943	2,988,636	2,173,311	1,929,862	243,449	815,325	800,510	14,815
February 1944	3,217,941	2,401,552	2,019,816	381,736	816,389	800,157	16,232
February 1945	3,473,254	2,625,509	2,057,409	568,100	847,745	831,432	16,313
November 1945	3,256,349	2,290,537	1,538,319	752,218	965,812	942,352	23,460
December 1945	3,388,037	2,162,351	1,476,439	685,912	1,225,686	1,202,126	23,560
January 1946	2,930,076	1,945,383	1,416,285	529,098	984,693	962,631	22,062
February 1946 [6]	2,879,918	1,861,196	1,377,049	484,147	1,018,722	996,989	21,733
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [7]						
February 1943	$616,563	$464,843	([8])	([8])	$151,720	([8])	([8])
February 1944	671,930	509,618	$459,036	$50,582	162,312	$159,054	$3,218
February 1945	654,307	488,688	439,230	49,458	165,619	162,120	3,499
November 1945 [6]	563,626	364,473	314,929	49,544	199,153	194,328	4,825
December 1945 [6]	695,089	411,410	369,946	41,464	283,679	278,800	4,879
January 1946 [6]	534,832	333,981	294,587	39,394	200,851	196,139	4,712
February 1946 [6]	530,103	319,175	281,699	37,476	210,929	206,201	4,728

[1] Includes 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 except for the seasonal post-office workers included in December 1945.
[6] Preliminary.
[7] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. Figures for December 1945 include 3 pay periods covering 6 weeks for most of the per-annum employees.
[8] Data not available.

Over the year period, employment in post offices, increasing an average of 13 percent for the entire country, increased in all of the 48 States, but decreased in the District of Columbia. Although Delaware's gain was the largest relative to size (29 percent), many other States had greater numerical gains. New York's 6,100 was the largest (table 4).

Although much of the total gain of 21 percent in agencies other than the war agencies and Post Office Department, may be attributed to the transfer of certain war agencies to regular peacetime agencies (such as the transfer of the National Wage Stabilization Board and War Manpower Commission to the Department of Labor), the major factor was the expansion of the Veterans Administration which accounted for over half the total gain during the year period. These agencies as a group showed increases of over 50 percent in 3 States (South Dakota, Alabama, and Nebraska), and increases of less than 10 percent in 5.

The South Atlantic region, containing the District of Columbia, had almost a quarter of all Federal employees in both January 1945 and January 1946. If the District of Columbia is excluded, the region would have ranked third in number of Federal employees, the Middle Atlantic and the Pacific leading with approximately 20 and 15 percent, respectively.

The New England region lost almost a fourth of its Federal employment during the year, whereas the West North Central and East South Central regions, as the result of relatively large gains in the peacetime agencies, lost less than 10 percent.

Although war agency employment showed the greatest numerical declines in the South and Middle Atlantic regions, it showed greater declines relative to employment in the East North Central, New England, and West North Central regions. As compared with the other regions and relative to size, war-agency employment in the Pacific region, with a decline of 18 percent, demonstrated rather marked stability.

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. Employment on Federal force-account construction is included in the executive branch and also in construction employment (table 5).

The distribution of employment by State was derived from actual reports as of January 1 of both years for each War Department and Navy Department establishment. The distributions for the other agencies were based on reports to the Civil Service Commission from each agency for June 30, 1944, and June 30, 1945.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Employment in the Executive Branch of the Federal Government by State, January 1945 and January 1946* [1]

[In thousands]

Region and State	January 1946				January 1945			
	Total	War agencies [2]	Post Office Department	Other agencies	Total	War agencies [2]	Post Office Department	Other agencies
Continental United States, total	2,343.0	1,405.8	394.7	542.6	2,816.8	2,018.0	349.4	447.4
New England	134.2	89.2	29.1	15.9	176.5	137.7	25.2	13.5
Maine [3]	19.3	13.9	3.2	2.1	26.6	22.1	2.5	1.9
New Hampshire [3]	4.2	1.8	1.6	.8	3.9	1.9	1.4	.6
Vermont	2.9	.3	1.5	1.2	2.7	.5	1.3	1.0
Massachusetts	81.3	57.1	15.6	8.6	107.7	86.4	13.7	7.5
Rhode Island	15.8	13.0	1.9	.8	23.7	21.4	1.7	.7
Connecticut	10.6	3.1	5.2	2.3	11.8	5.3	4.6	1.9

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 4.—*Estimated Employment in the Executive Branch of the Federal Government by State, January 1945 and January 1946* [1]—Continued

[In thousands]

Region and State	January 1946				January 1945			
	Total	War agencies [2]	Post Office Department	Other agencies	Total	War agencies [2]	Post Office Department	Other agencies
Middle Atlantic	445.4	282.7	92.5	70.2	561.2	419.2	82.2	59.3
New York	238.9	137.0	56.1	45.8	287.9	199.3	50.0	38.4
New Jersey	60.7	45.6	10.4	4.8	80.2	66.3	9.3	4.5
Pennsylvania	145.8	100.2	26.0	19.6	193.0	153.6	22.9	16.4
East North Central	295.1	138.9	86.0	70.2	346.5	216.3	75.8	54.1
Ohio	89.7	54.2	20.8	14.7	107.6	78.6	18.2	10.7
Indiana	34.4	18.6	9.8	5.9	39.8	26.7	8.7	4.4
Illinois	113.4	47.3	32.3	33.8	125.3	70.0	28.7	26.4
Michigan	37.2	13.9	14.3	9.0	52.8	33.2	12.5	7.0
Wisconsin	20.5	4.8	8.8	6.9	21.1	7.9	7.6	5.6
West North Central	146.9	55.5	47.4	44.1	159.0	85.6	41.8	31.4
Minnesota	20.7	2.9	9.5	8.2	18.7	4.4	8.3	5.9
Iowa	16.9	3.5	8.2	5.2	17.0	6.1	7.2	3.6
Missouri	50.8	24.2	13.7	12.8	50.4	28.7	12.1	9.4
North Dakota	5.7	.3	2.5	2.9	4.8	.6	2.1	2.1
South Dakota	8.8	2.4	2.3	4.1	9.5	4.7	2.1	2.7
Nebraska	20.9	11.0	4.8	5.1	26.6	18.9	4.2	3.4
Kansas	23.1	11.0	6.2	5.8	32.1	22.1	5.7	4.3
South Atlantic	537.5	308.6	45.6	183.2	658.6	451.6	42.3	164.4
Delaware	2.9	1.7	.9	.4	3.2	2.1	.7	.3
Maryland [4]	38.5	22.7	5.0	10.8	51.2	36.7	4.5	10.0
District of Columbia [4]	229.1	91.7	7.2	130.2	254.8	126.6	8.6	119.7
Virginia [4]	82.6	67.3	7.2	8.1	108.1	94.9	6.2	6.9
West Virginia	9.9	3.0	4.1	2.8	9.1	3.5	3.4	2.1
North Carolina	35.5	20.2	6.4	8.8	40.1	26.0	5.6	8.4
South Carolina	29.3	22.0	3.2	4.1	49.5	43.5	2.8	3.2
Georgia	52.7	34.1	6.6	12.0	68.8	53.8	6.0	9.0
Florida	57.0	45.9	5.1	6.0	73.7	64.4	4.4	4.9
East South Central	123.7	66.5	21.5	35.7	136.5	92.0	18.8	25.6
Kentucky	26.6	13.6	6.1	6.8	24.7	13.7	5.2	5.7
Tennessee	38.2	18.5	6.6	13.1	36.6	21.4	5.8	9.2
Alabama	38.7	23.0	5.1	10.6	51.7	40.2	4.5	7.0
Mississippi	20.2	11.4	3.6	5.1	23.6	16.6	3.3	3.6
West South Central	198.4	128.7	28.5	41.1	249.3	192.5	24.6	32.0
Arkansas	19.4	9.8	3.9	5.7	24.4	17.1	3.4	3.9
Louisiana	33.5	20.9	4.2	8.4	42.2	32.2	3.7	6.3
Oklahoma	37.1	24.5	5.5	7.1	43.5	33.7	4.7	5.1
Texas	108.3	73.5	14.8	20.0	139.3	109.5	12.8	16.8
Mountain	103.9	56.8	12.2	34.9	123.1	84.1	10.6	28.2
Montana	8.5	2.1	1.9	4.5	7.8	2.8	1.6	3.3
Idaho	8.5	3.5	1.5	3.5	8.9	5.2	1.2	2.4
Wyoming	4.6	1.1	.9	2.6	5.1	2.3	.8	1.9
Colorado	24.0	12.8	3.7	7.5	26.0	16.8	3.2	5.9
New Mexico	13.5	7.2	1.2	5.1	14.7	9.5	1.0	4.2
Arizona	13.4	6.4	1.2	5.9	18.6	12.0	1.0	5.6
Utah	26.6	21.3	1.5	3.8	35.3	30.7	1.4	3.1
Nevada	4.8	2.3	.5	2.0	6.9	4.8	.4	1.8
Pacific	357.9	278.7	31.9	47.2	406.0	339.1	28.0	38.8
Washington	76.8	59.6	5.5	11.6	95.3	80.3	4.8	10.1
Oregon	17.0	6.5	3.6	6.9	16.3	7.9	3.0	5.3
California	264.0	212.6	22.9	28.6	294.4	250.9	20.2	23.3

[1] Excludes employment outside continental United States, on force-account construction, and fourth-class postmasters. Data are as of the first of the month. Because of rounding, data will not necessarily add to the sum of the items shown.

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

[3] The Portsmouth (N. H.) Navy Yard is included with data for the State of Maine because, with the exception of the headquarters office, it is located in that State.

[4] Data for the District of Columbia include employees working in those parts of Maryland and Virginia which lie in the Washington metropolitan area, as defined by the Bureau of the Census.

Construction

EMPLOYMENT

During February 1946 employment on construction in continental United States increased 10 percent, rising to a total of 1,398,900—132,000 above January 1946 and 773,900 above February 1945. Employment on non-Federal projects continued its steady upward trend, advancing from 1,016,700 in January to 1,139,800 in February; Federal construction employment, on the other hand, dropped from 85,400 to 74,000.

Normal seasonal gains occurred during February in employment on all types of non-Federal construction—except public utilities and construction on farms—and on Federally financed electrification and reclamation projects. All other classes of Federal construction experienced decreases in employment during the month.

There were five times as many persons employed on construction of private homes in February 1946 as were so occupied in February 1945—368,700 compared with 71,800. Employment on non-Federal building of the nonresidential type (mostly commercial and industrial) tripled over the year, rising from 161,600 to 515,400. Non-Federal construction employment as a whole increased by 743,800 over February a year ago, while employment on Federal projects dropped 155,000.

Source of data.—For construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls at the construction site directly from the contractors or from the Federal agency sponsoring the project. Force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government are also included in tables 2 and 3 under Federal executive service.

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.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction in Continental United States, February 1946*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	February 1946 [1]	January 1946	February 1945	February 1946 [1]	January 1946	February 1945
New construction, total [2]	1,398.9	1,266.9	707.5	(3)	(3)	(3)
At the construction site	1,213.8	1,102.1	625.0	(3)	(3)	(3)
Federal projects [4]	[5] 74.0	[5] 85.4	[5] 229.0	[6] $13,396	[6] $14,905	[6] $41,976
Airports	2.1	2.8	6.5	414	478	1,101
Buildings	37.4	46.3	177.9	6,569	7,791	31,909
Residential	2.0	2.8	11.3	442	533	2,552
Nonresidential [7]	[5] 35.4	[5] 43.5	[5] 166.6	[6] 6,127	[6] 7,258	[6] 29,357
Electrification	1.3	.9	.2	192	160	37
Reclamation	6.0	5.9	6.8	1,264	1,202	1,580
River, harbor, and flood control	16.3	17.7	15.1	3,121	3,283	2,988
Streets and highways	6.9	7.4	6.6	1,162	1,234	1,162
Water and sewer systems	1.5	1.9	3.8	269	317	578
Miscellaneous	2.5	2.5	12.1	405	440	2,621
Non-Federal projects	1,139.8	1,016.7	396.0	(3)	(3)	(3)
Buildings	884.1	764.1	233.4	194,502	176,507	49,984
Residential	368.7	315.8	71.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
Nonresidential	515.4	448.3	161.6	(3)	(3)	(3)
Farm dwellings and service buildings	54.4	58.8	43.2	(3)	(3)	(3)
Public utilities	118.4	120.2	92.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
Streets and highways	22.6	22.0	12.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
State	8.0	7.7	5.0	(3)	(3)	(3)
County and municipal	14.6	14.3	7.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
Miscellaneous	60.3	51.6	13.8	(3)	(3)	(3)
Other [8]	185.1	164.8	82.5	(3)	(3)	(3)
Maintenance of State roads [9]	90.0	89.5	84.2	(3)	(3)	(3)

[1] Preliminary.

[2] Data for all construction workers (contract and force-account) engaged on new construction, additions, 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: February 1946, 16,109, $3,099,000; January 1946, 16,461, $3,060,000; February 1945, 19,355, $3,729,000. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3); all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.

[5] Includes employment on construction of plants to produce atomic bombs, which, for security reasons, was not previously included in these estimates but was shown in the classification "other", as follows: February 1946, 4,600; January 1946, 6,400; February 1945, 34,000.

[6] Excludes pay-roll data for construction of plants to produce atomic bombs.

[7] 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.

[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.

EARNINGS AND HOURS

Revised figures for January 1946 show that, in spite of the rise in private building activity over the previous month, the workweek and weekly earnings in most of the special trades declined. Indications are that this loss in working time and wages was the result of lay-offs on account of materials shortage. Work stoppages were not sufficiently lengthy, however, to keep wages and hours in general building and on roofing and sheet-metal and on excavation and foundation projects from rising significantly during the month.

Workers engaged on private building construction were employed an average of 37.7 hours in January, about an hour less than in January 1945 and 2.4 hours less than last July. Average hourly earnings,

however, have increased almost steadily over the year, so that the average weekly earnings ($52.89) in January 1946, while lower than during the summer and early fall of 1945, were at about the same level as in January 1945.

Reports on number of employees, weekly pay rolls, and weekly hours worked are received monthly from approximately 8,000 different contractors. Data as published are summaries of all reports received during the months shown and do not necessarily represent reports from identical firms.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hours and Earnings on Private Building Construction, for Selected Types of Work, January 1945, and July 1945–January 1946* [1]

Type of work	1945							1946	Percent of change to January 1946 from—	
	Jan.	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.[2]	Jan.[2]	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1945
Average hours worked per week										
All types of work	38.8	40.1	40.3	38.1	38.7	37.2	37.1	37.7	+1.6	−2.8
General building	38.2	39.0	39.5	36.9	37.6	36.5	35.8	36.8	+2.8	−3.7
Special building trades [3]	39.2	40.8	40.8	39.0	39.6	37.6	38.0	38.5	+1.3	−1.8
Plumbing and heating	41.4	41.7	41.4	40.8	41.2	39.2	40.3	40.4	+.2	−2.4
Painting and decorating	37.9	40.8	39.7	39.3	39.0	37.5	38.1	37.9	−.5	0
Electrical work	42.7	44.1	44.5	40.1	40.3	39.7	40.9	40.8	−.2	−4.4
Masonry	29.4	39.4	38.2	37.6	39.1	36.7	33.7	32.9	−2.4	+11.9
Plastering and lathing	33.7	35.0	34.9	34.4	36.5	33.8	35.3	35.0	−.8	+3.9
Carpentry	38.3	40.7	40.1	40.2	40.4	39.4	38.4	38.1	−.8	−.5
Roofing and sheet metal	35.6	39.1	38.3	37.2	38.0	35.1	34.4	36.4	+5.8	+2.2
Excavation and foundation [4]	35.7	39.7	40.3	38.4	39.6	35.6	34.8	35.6	+2.3	−.3
Average weekly earnings [5]										
All types of work	$52.98	$55.57	$55.79	$53.11	$54.05	$51.97	$51.85	$52.89	+2.0	−.2
General building	50.05	51.50	52.17	48.56	49.84	48.77	47.92	49.83	+4.0	−.4
Special building trades [3]	55.24	58.44	58.28	56.42	57.38	54.40	54.92	55.57	+1.2	+.6
Plumbing and heating	56.12	57.61	57.47	57.45	58.40	55.41	55.74	55.93	+.3	−.3
Painting and decorating	52.93	60.16	59.35	57.53	57.57	55.45	56.94	56.43	−.9	+6.6
Electrical work	66.69	68.01	67.87	61.66	63.70	62.15	65.22	65.12	−.2	−2.4
Masonry	39.84	57.01	54.74	58.11	59.87	58.63	52.12	47.70	−8.5	+19.7
Plastering and lathing	51.24	53.69	54.20	53.73	56.04	53.22	55.70	55.31	−.7	+7.9
Carpentry	50.87	56.60	53.89	54.39	56.68	54.26	53.08	53.95	+1.6	+6.1
Roofing and sheet metal	47.74	53.98	53.11	51.90	51.50	46.51	46.00	49.57	+7.8	+3.8
Excavation and foundation [4]	43.60	52.03	53.52	51.51	52.71	46.56	45.44	47.06	+3.6	+7.9
Average hourly earnings										
All types of work	$1.364	$1.387	$1.383	$1.392	$1.396	$1.397	$1.397	$1.402	+.4	+2.8
General building	1.310	1.321	1.319	1.317	1.327	1.336	1.337	1.355	+1.3	+3.4
Special building trades [3]	1.401	1.432	1.430	1.445	1.449	1.447	1.444	1.444	0	+3.1
Plumbing and heating	1.356	1.383	1.389	1.410	1.417	1.413	1.382	1.384	+.1	+2.1
Painting and decorating	1.398	1.474	1.497	1.464	1.477	1.480	1.496	1.491	−.3	+6.7
Electrical work	1.562	1.543	1.526	1.539	1.581	1.565	1.594	1.595	+.1	+2.1
Masonry	1.357	1.449	1.432	1.545	1.531	1.596	1.547	1.450	−6.3	+6.9
Plastering and lathing	1.519	1.535	1.552	1.560	1.537	1.576	1.577	1.579	+.1	+3.9
Carpentry	1.327	1.390	1.345	1.353	1.403	1.378	1.384	1.418	+2.5	+6.9
Roofing and sheet metal	1.342	1.380	1.385	1.395	1.356	1.323	1.335	1.361	+1.9	+1.4
Excavation and foundation [4]	1.220	1.312	1.328	1.341	1.332	1.306	1.306	1.322	+1.2	+8.4

[1] Includes all firms reporting during the months shown (about 8,000) but not necessarily identical establishments.

[2] Revised.

[3] Includes types not shown separately.

[4] Includes grading and concrete work.

[5] Hourly earnings when multiplied by the weekly hours of work do not equal weekly earnings exactly because of rounding.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, January 1946

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)			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Total estimated employment [1]	35,839	36,319	35,639	37,952
Manufacturing [2]	12,048	11,914	11,970	15,555
Mining	811	802	793	801
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,120	1,042	1,014	582
Transportation and public utilities	3,891	3,896	3,871	3,740
Trade	7,512	7,960	7,571	7,030
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,984	4,936	4,845	4,350
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,473	5,769	5,575	5,894

[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.

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 November and December 1945, for January 1946, and for January 1945, 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.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
All manufacturing	10,076	9,962	9,966	13,301
Durable goods	4,938	4,854	4,937	7,921
Nondurable goods	5,138	5,108	5,029	5,380
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,260	1,243	1,205	1,684
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	447.8	446.3	431.5	474.8
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	74.3	72.3	69.7	75.7
Malleable-iron castings	24.5	23.0	23.1	25.9
Steel castings	52.1	51.9	51.1	72.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.4	15.1	14.5	15.8
Tin cans and other tinware	38.0	37.1	35.2	39.8
Wire drawn from purchased rods	29.4	28.9	27.9	32.8
Wirework	34.0	33.1	30.6	34.6
Cutlery and edge tools	23.5	23.1	22.3	24.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	24.2	23.2	22.3	27.6
Hardware	38.2	36.9	34.5	46.2
Plumbers' supplies	21.7	20.0	18.9	22.5
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	51.6	51.3	48.6	63.3
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	44.0	43.9	42.2	55.6
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	68.6	67.4	64.1	87.3
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	44.5	43.7	42.4	73.2
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	7.9	7.5	7.3	10.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	20.9	20.8	20.2	23.9
Forgings, iron and steel [2]	25.5	25.1	24.2	35.6
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	14.1	14.2	13.7	23.8
Screw-machine products and wood screws	26.8	26.1	25.3	42.7
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	6.3	6.2	5.9	8.1
Firearms	10.9	10.3	11.7	35.0
Electrical machinery	456	465	461	709
Electrical equipment	289.7	292.0	300.3	429.3
Radios and phonographs	65.7	62.8	57.3	118.0
Communication equipment	63.6	73.2	66.7	104.9
Machinery, except electrical	904	878	877	1,182
Machinery and machine-shop products	333.7	324.7	325.0	451.8
Engines and turbines	39.0	38.6	42.6	68.1
Tractors	53.0	51.5	50.5	58.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	38.8	40.3	37.6	44.6
Machine tools	58.2	53.3	52.1	74.3
Machine-tool accessories	46.8	46.2	45.6	65.0
Textile machinery	29.0	27.9	26.3	26.7
Pumps and pumping equipment	52.8	52.5	52.2	73.8
Typewriters	14.7	14.3	13.6	12.8
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	29.5	27.4	25.7	30.6
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	9.9	9.6	8.7	12.0
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	8.1	7.9	7.6	11.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	36.3	34.5	39.2	52.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	506	519	552	2,117
Locomotives	23.3	23.3	31.2	33.9
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	47.2	45.7	44.8	57.8
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	119.6	120.7	121.2	639.8
Aircraft engines	21.6	21.9	26.7	212.9
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	254.5	267.8	286.0	1,020.8
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	8.5	8.1	7.8	9.4
Automobiles	395	373	505	693
Nonferrous metals and their products	320	313	307	404
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	35.3	35.2	34.4	39.5
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	55.7	54.6	53.3	70.6
Clocks and watches	23.7	22.9	21.9	25.7
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	15.8	15.3	14.9	13.3
Silverware and plated ware	12.2	11.7	10.8	11.0
Lighting equipment	17.7	18.5	21.7	26.4
Aluminum manufactures	42.3	40.7	38.4	66.8
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	22.5	21.8	21.2	31.8
Lumber and timber basic products	424	415	408	465
Sawmills and logging camps	199.9	196.3	193.1	218.5
Planing and plywood mills	64.4	62.5	61.0	70.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Durable goods—Continued				
Furniture and finished lumber products	332	322	307	339
Mattresses and bedsprings [2]	17.9	17.1	15.3	17.7
Furniture	149.3	143.4	135.9	153.0
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	23.9	23.6	23.6	27.5
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.5	12.2	12.0	11.9
Wood preserving	11.5	11.4	10.7	10.0
Wood, turned and shaped	21.3	21.3	20.9	21.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	341	326	315	328
Glass and glassware	87.3	78.8	76.7	88.0
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.9	10.8	10.8	10.7
Cement	21.8	21.2	20.2	16.5
Brick, title, and terra cotta	52.0	49.7	46.9	41.3
Pottery and related products	41.6	40.7	39.7	39.5
Gypsum	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.0
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	10.1	9.8	9.5	9.6
Lime	8.2	7.9	7.7	7.6
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13.9	14.0	13.2	14.0
Abrasives	16.8	16.3	16.3	21.3
Asbestos products	16.5	17.2	16.7	20.1
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,103	1,090	1,042	1,098
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	428.7	423.8	398.9	432.7
Cotton smallwares	13.5	13.4	13.1	13.5
Silk and rayon goods	87.5	87.1	84.5	88.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	149.1	147.5	143.0	146.6
Hosiery	106.3	104.3	101.7	100.7
Knitted cloth	10.7	10.7	10.4	10.3
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	28.7	28.7	28.3	28.5
Knitted underwear	33.6	33.7	33.6	34.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	60.3	59.1	54.0	59.9
Carpets and rugs, wool	20.1	19.6	18.4	20.3
Hats, fur-felt	10.3	10.1	9.8	9.4
Jute goods, except felts	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.2
Cordage and twine	14.7	14.6	14.2	15.1
Apparel and other finished textile products	807	797	795	851
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	180.6	177.4	177.4	201.2
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	50.5	50.7	50.5	49.6
Underwear and neckwear, men's	11.1	11.5	11.4	12.0
Work shirts	12.6	13.0	13.1	14.1
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	207.5	204.5	203.2	214.6
Corsets and allied garments	15.0	14.9	14.9	14.6
Millinery	19.6	18.2	17.9	19.4
Handkerchiefs	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	11.4	11.5	11.2	10.9
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	9.6	9.1	9.1	11.5
Textile bags	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.0
Leather and leather products	331	323	314	315
Leather	43.5	42.4	40.7	39.5
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	17.1	16.8	16.3	16.1
Boots and shoes	182.4	177.8	173.6	173.1
Leather gloves and mittens	11.1	11.4	10.9	12.3
Trunks and suitcases	12.6	12.2	11.8	12.9
Food	1,006	1,030	1,042	1,025
Slaughtering and meat packing	149.8	145.1	132.5	154.7
Butter	21.0	21.7	22.7	20.7
Condensed and evaporated milk	12.6	12.9	13.3	13.1
Ice cream	15.0	15.2	15.6	13.3
Flour	31.5	30.9	30.9	29.5
Feeds, prepared	23.8	23.3	23.5	21.3
Cereal preparations	10.1	10.0	9.1	8.9
Baking	256.0	253.2	254.3	257.0
Sugar refining, cane	12.9	12.9	12.3	14.8
Sugar, beet	7.0	18.0	23.0	5.2
Confectionery	52.8	55.2	55.3	58.8
Beverages, nonalcoholic	22.8	23.5	23.6	25.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Food—Continued				
Malt liquors	54.8	53.4	54.2	49.6
Canning and preserving	92.1	107.4	124.7	105.3
Tobacco manufactures	81	82	83	82
Cigarettes	32.5	33.0	34.9	35.2
Cigars	35.2	35.0	34.5	33.3
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.0	8.5	8.4	8.7
Paper and allied products	330	325	317	314
Paper and pulp	156.6	153.1	148.2	147.3
Paper goods, other	44.4	44.2	43.2	44.8
Envelopes	9.8	9.8	9.6	9.5
Paper bags	13.6	13.4	13.2	13.1
Paper boxes	82.6	81.6	80.5	77.7
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	359	355	347	324
Newspapers and periodicals	122.3	121.9	119.8	109.6
Printing, book and job	148.5	146.0	142.6	134.2
Lithographing	27.3	26.9	26.0	24.4
Bookbinding	29.1	28.7	28.4	27.9
Chemicals and allied products	444	441	444	628
Paints, varnishes, and colors	33.0	32.3	31.7	29.7
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	49.2	48.6	48.0	49.2
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.0	12.2	12.4	12.2
Soap	13.6	13.6	13.6	13.4
Rayon and allied products	59.3	57.7	56.9	54.1
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	114.6	112.8	110.6	115.2
Explosives and safety fuses [2]	17.3	21.5	26.2	95.1
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.9
Ammunition, small-arms	9.6	9.9	11.3	61.0
Fireworks	2.0	2.2	3.1	25.9
Cottonseed oil	17.7	19.4	20.6	19.8
Fertilizers	24.4	22.2	20.8	23.1
Products of petroleum and coal	141	139	138	133
Petroleum refining	96.1	95.1	95.1	91.4
Coke and byproducts	23.7	23.0	22.4	22.2
Paving materials	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.4
Roofing materials	10.4	10.1	9.8	9.5
Rubber products	194	189	181	199
Rubber tires and inner tubes	98.8	96.2	91.4	96.7
Rubber boots and shoes	16.3	15.9	15.4	17.9
Rubber goods, other	65.7	64.4	61.6	71.5
Miscellaneous industries	342	337	326	411
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	22.1	22.4	22.4	58.8
Photographic apparatus	22.0	22.4	21.5	28.0
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	20.2	19.9	19.4	23.6
Pianos, organs, and parts	6.8	6.1	5.6	7.3
Games, toys, and dolls	17.6	17.5	15.9	16.5
Buttons	9.6	9.4	9.2	9.2
Fire extinguishers	2.3	2.4	2.3	4.8

[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.

[2] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months: *Forgings, iron and steel.*—October 1945 production workers to 24.3. *Mattresses and bedsprings.*—October 1945 production workers to 14.3. *Explosives and safety fuses.*—October 1945 production workers to 29.7.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
All manufacturing	123.0	121.6	121.7	162.4	217.2	215.3	212 3	335.2
Durable goods	136.7	134.4	136.7	219.4	231.7	229.9	231.3	461.5
Nondurable goods	112 2	111 5	109.8	117.4	203.1	200.9	193.7	211.7
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	127.1	125.4	121.5	169.8	207.8	211.9	202.2	321.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	115.3	114.9	111.1	122.2	171.4	181.2	173.6	224.4
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	127.2	123.7	119.3	129.5	247.0	240.5	221.1	267.0
Malleable-iron castings	135.7	127.3	128.1	143.6	263.5	259.3	242.6	305.1
Steel castings	173.1	172.5	170.0	239.7	263.9	297.1	281.7	457.3
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	93.3	91.2	87.7	95.9	184.8	176.4	170.3	195.9
Tin cans and other tinware	119.7	116.8	110.8	125.2	207.5	201.8	185.5	219.3
Wire drawn from purchased rods	134.0	131.7	127.1	149.4	199.2	199.7	191.3	260.8
Wirework [2]	111.8	108.8	100.8	113.9	206.1	199.9	190.5	236.4
Cutlery and edge tools	152.2	149.7	144.3	157.4	310.2	301.7	283.5	336.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	158.3	151.5	145.9	180.5	290.3	272.5	253.9	353.7
Hardware	107.0	103.5	96.7	129.5	204.7	195.0	177.8	273.6
Plumbers' supplies	88.0	81.1	76.8	91.4	146.9	136.6	126.3	173.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	111.9	111.2	105.3	137.2	197.2	197.7	182.1	267.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	145.1	145.0	139.3	183.4	251.9	253.9	238.1	358.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	123.4	121.3	115.4	157.2	225.0	222.4	209.0	336.7
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	125.2	123.1	119.5	206.1	196.2	195.9	187.7	395.1
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	101.6	96.8	94.2	138.2	168.0	176.1	164.7	262.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	145.8	145.2	141.3	167.4	248.4	266.4	259.4	331.0
Forgings, iron and steel [2]	165.6	163.5	157.3	231.5	288.5	285.6	261.9	477.9
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	169.0	169.5	163.6	284.5	270.8	271.8	255.1	571.7
Screw-machine products and wood screws	158.4	154.0	149.5	252.2	290.1	284.4	272.5	509.2
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	103.4	101.9	97.0	134.1	191.5	183.1	178.0	262.5
Firearms	217.0	206.8	233.2	699.7	398.1	380.8	418.9	1538.1
Electrical machinery	175.9	179.6	177.8	273.7	285.1	298.4	290.3	513.2
Electrical equipment	160.3	161.5	166.1	237.5	251.8	261.3	264.9	454.4
Radios and phonographs	151.0	144.4	131.8	271.2	274.0	259.9	237.5	539.9
Communication equipment	198.1	227.9	207.6	326.5	327.8	381.4	328.7	541.5
Machinery, except electrical	171.0	166.2	165.9	223.8	284.6	277.4	272.6	428.9
Machinery and machine-shop products	164.9	160.5	160.7	223.3	272.8	265.4	263.4	421.3
Engines and turbines	209.1	206.9	228.6	365.0	382.0	367.6	366.7	790.2
Tractors	169.5	164.6	161.3	186.2	244.7	235.3	228.8	295.0
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	139.6	145.0	135.3	160.4	230.9	249.4	230.9	322.1
Machine tools	158.8	145.6	142.4	202.8	262.9	244.5	233.0	378.6
Machine-tool accessories	186.1	183.5	181.2	258.3	284.1	279.2	269.9	458.3
Textile machinery	132.6	127.5	120.2	122.0	247.5	241.2	218.9	235.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	217.9	216.8	215.3	304.5	391.4	406.3	384.8	648.7
Typewriters	90.7	88.1	83.6	79.1	166.2	163.9	153.8	162.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	149.9	139.3	130.5	155.6	262.0	239.2	231.3	305.1
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	133.1	128.3	115.9	160.9	213.1	207.1	186.4	290.7
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	102.8	100.3	97.0	141.1	185.3	180.6	188.4	302.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	103.3	98.2	111.5	149.3	151.7	144.0	175.6	271.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	318.5	327.1	347.8	1333.6	548.3	562.2	561.7	2900.1
Locomotives	360.8	360.3	482.6	523.3	735.5	772.9	1021.8	1168.3
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	192.3	186.2	182.8	235.9	329.7	314.8	302.5	485.9
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	301.3	304.1	305.6	1612.7	515.7	520.4	506.6	3257.1
Aircraft engines	242.5	246.2	300.3	2394.8	359.8	346.3	389.7	4334.5
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	367.6	386.8	413.0	1474.2	625.3	656.4	637.9	3313.4
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	122.0	116.2	112.3	135.4	204.4	195.9	186.1	258.2
Automobiles	98.1	92.6	125.6	172.3	146.1	130.3	184.9	324.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	139.5	136.6	134.1	176.3	245.8	240.7	234.3	343.0
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	127.8	127.4	124.6	142.9	224.7	221.4	219.5	264.2
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	143.5	140.6	137.4	181.9	256 7	247.0	238.7	354.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Durable goods—Continued								
Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued								
Clocks and watches	116.7	112.9	108.1	126.5	219.8	211.6	199.3	272.5
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	109.5	106.0	102.9	92.1	203.1	202.2	184.4	160.5
Silverware and plated ware	100.7	96.8	88.8	90.8	198.2	192.3	173.5	163.0
Lighting equipment	86.6	90.1	105.8	128.7	138.5	138.5	175.3	239.1
Aluminum manufactures	179.6	172.6	162.9	283.9	270.9	266.7	253.9	529.6
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	119.8	116.2	112.9	169.5	214.1	215.0	200.0	334.0
Lumber and timber basic products	100.9	98.6	97.0	110.6	170.4	166.0	164.3	199.2
Sawmills and logging camps	69.4	68.1	67.1	75.9	116.6	113.7	114.0	137.9
Planing and plywood mills	88.7	86.1	83.9	97.1	146.9	142.8	137.3	167.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	101.2	98.1	93.6	103.3	184.2	179.8	165.8	194.0
Mattresses and bedsprings [2]	97.7	93.4	83.2	96.4	173.7	161.7	137.8	178.0
Furniture	93.8	90.1	85.3	96.1	169.3	164.3	151.1	180.4
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	94.2	93.2	93.0	108.3	185.4	188.8	179.4	211.3
Caskets and other morticians' goods	100.6	97.8	96.6	95.7	169.8	164.7	153.0	170.9
Wood preserving	102.7	101.4	94.8	88.9	203.9	211.0	205.3	190.6
Wood, turned and shaped [2]	96.9	96.6	95.2	98.1	179.3	178.2	168.0	178.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	116.1	111.0	107.4	111.6	189.2	185.5	177.4	189.0
Glass and glassware	125.0	112.9	109.9	126.1	192.1	182.1	170.3	201.8
Glass products made from purchased glass	108.6	108.0	108.1	106.7	178.9	180.8	184.8	185.3
Cement	91.5	89.0	84.8	69.1	134.4	136.8	135.4	107.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	91.5	87.5	62.6	72.8	154.5	147.5	139.1	117.2
Pottery and related products	125.8	123.0	119.9	119.3	195.5	195.3	188.1	184.5
Gypsum	96.0	93.8	92.4	81.2	161.2	158.4	155.1	142.6
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	124.1	121.1	117.7	118.5	232.0	228.3	220.6	218.6
Lime	86.2	83.7	81.4	81.0	171.1	171.8	167.5	151.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	75.0	75.4	71.3	75.7	111.5	115.6	105.3	117.8
Abrasives	217.8	211.2	210.7	275.2	336.6	337.8	328.8	482.8
Asbestos products	103.8	108.1	105.2	126.4	208.2	213.0	206.7	265.9
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	96.4	95.3	91.1	96.0	186.5	184.1	171.3	176.3
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	108.3	107.0	100.7	109.3	217.0	216.2	199.9	210.3
Cotton smallwares	101.6	100.3	98.5	101.1	195.6	191.5	178.2	193.7
Silk and rayon goods	73.1	72.7	70.5	74.1	150.1	148.8	142.0	138.4
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	99.9	98.8	95.8	98.3	206.6	200.0	184.0	193.5
Hosiery	66.8	65.6	64.0	63.3	115.7	113.1	109.0	102.9
Knitted cloth	98.0	97.8	94.9	94.2	189.8	186.7	180.1	169.4
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	102.1	101.9	100.5	101.4	196.3	197.7	192.5	185.9
Knitted underwear	87.3	87.6	87.1	89.2	165.9	166.1	161.5	164.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	90.2	88.3	80.8	89.6	166.2	164.4	142.6	152.2
Carpets and rugs, wool	78.7	76.6	72.0	79.4	135.1	132.5	124.6	138.6
Hats, fur-felt	70.7	69.7	67.4	64.4	151.9	147.4	140.6	125.3
Jute goods, except felts	105.0	103.7	100.0	90.4	205.0	206.2	198.8	179.3
Cordage and twine	121.4	120.5	117.2	125.1	229.2	228.4	220.4	235.3
Apparel and other finished textile products	102.2	100.9	100.6	107.8	192.4	182.6	177.7	198.5
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	82.6	81.1	81.1	92.0	148.0	140.7	136.9	165.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	71.7	72.0	71.6	70.4	135.9	133.5	132.1	126.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	68.8	71.2	70.7	74.1	145.2	154.4	146.9	146.7
Work shirts	93.9	96.5	97.5	104.6	182.2	172.7	188.7	199.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	76.4	75.3	74.8	79.0	149.9	141.4	136.4	149.1
Corsets and allied garments	79.9	79.4	79.2	77.8	146.1	140.4	142.7	135.5
Millinery	80.7	74.8	73.9	79.6	147.1	118.6	110.4	131.0
Handkerchiefs	47.1	49.1	53.0	54.5	87.6	92.4	98.3	100.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	67.4	68.1	66.2	64.5	128.6	132.8	129.6	129.2
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	90.6	85.5	85.2	108.7	164.9	150.1	149.9	204.0
Textile bags [2]	122.3	122.3	122.7	117.1	201.9	206.4	206.1	206.2
Leather and leather products	95.3	93.1	90.6	90.7	180.3	175.4	161.9	164.7
Leather	92.0	89.7	86.2	83.7	163.2	161.6	146.4	147.0
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	90.6	89.0	86.4	85.2	160.8	154.6	138.0	147.3
Boots and shoes	83.7	81.6	79.6	79.4	162.9	157.1	145.7	147.9
Leather gloves and mittens	111.6	113.9	109.5	122.8	201.7	202.1	188.9	211.6
Trunks and suitcases	150.8	146.4	141.8	154.7	261.7	263.7	256.7	252.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food	117.7	120.5	121.9	119.9	205.7	210.6	206.4	198.0
Slaughtering and meat packing	124.3	120.4	110.0	128.4	214.4	212.2	185.2	221.9
Butter	117.2	121.1	126.5	115.5	195.1	197.6	203.5	181.0
Condensed and evaporated milk	130.2	132.8	137.5	134.9	219.3	215.9	223.5	218.9
Ice cream	95.3	96.7	99.4	84.5	146.2	148.8	151.6	122.0
Flour	127.3	124.9	124.9	119.2	228.8	221.3	212.3	206.0
Feeds, prepared	154.7	151.3	152.6	138.1	276.4	261.6	267.9	230.5
Cereal preparations	135.8	133.8	122.0	119.6	229.6	230.3	211.9	215.9
Baking	111.0	109.8	110.2	111.4	181.5	181.2	181.4	168.2
Sugar refining, cane	90.8	91.4	87.1	104.4	140.4	142.9	125.9	176.1
Sugar, beet	67.4	173.3	220.9	49.6	109.9	279.7	361.9	66.6
Confectionery	106.2	110.9	111.3	118.3	191.1	201.6	197.6	198.0
Beverages, nonalcoholic	107.4	110.7	111.2	121.2	146.3	150.4	150.8	157.3
Malt liquors	151.9	148.0	150.2	137.4	228.1	227.1	225.2	194.9
Canning and preserving	68.5	79.8	92.7	78.3	143.6	167.3	179.4	153.9
Tobacco manufactures	86.5	87.4	88.8	88.1	165.1	163.3	171.4	166.4
Cigarettes	118.3	120.4	127.1	128.3	201.4	184.8	207.8	211.1
Cigars	69.2	68.8	67.7	65.3	144.1	148.8	148.7	134.2
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	87.7	92.5	91.5	93.9	137.4	155.8	150.5	159.0
Paper and allied products	124.4	122.4	119.3	118.5	214.5	212.2	204.9	198.3
Paper and pulp	113.9	111.4	107.8	107.2	198.4	196.6	190.0	183.3
Paper goods, other	118.0	117.6	114.7	119.0	201.8	198.1	185.6	198.2
Envelopes	113.2	112.3	110.5	109.7	185.5	178.8	176.8	173.9
Paper bags	122.6	121.2	118.8	118.3	221.6	218.3	215.2	206.7
Paper boxes	119.5	118.0	116.3	112.4	204.2	203.1	197.0	181.9
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	109.4	108.1	105.9	98.8	165.3	163.2	158.5	139.8
Newspapers and periodicals	103.1	102.7	101.0	92.3	143.5	141.9	138.3	118.4
Printing, book and job	117.6	115.6	112.9	106.2	187.8	184.0	178.1	159.9
Lithographing	105.2	103.4	100.1	93.7	163.4	161.6	157.1	135.5
Bookbinding	113.1	111.2	110.1	108.1	202.8	206.4	201.2	187.7
Chemicals and allied products	153.9	153.0	154.0	217.8	259.5	258.0	256.6	384.2
Paints, varnishes, and colors	117.4	114.8	112.6	105.4	180.1	178.1	174.7	169.4
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	179.6	177.2	175.3	179.4	288.0	276.1	268.7	273.4
Perfumes and cosmetics	115.4	118.1	119.7	118.0	174.9	183.0	183.0	164.3
Soap	100.3	100.1	100.1	98.6	169.1	168.9	161.9	168.2
Rayon and allied products	122.8	119.6	117.9	112.1	194.9	193.8	188.9	182.0
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	164.7	162.2	159.0	165.5	276.8	267.0	260.8	293.2
Explosives and safety fuses [2]	238.7	296.6	360.7	1311.3	365.1	469.7	527.2	1999.1
Compressed and liquefied gases	141.0	140.0	138.9	149.4	233.5	225.6	225.3	267.4
Ammunition, small-arms	225.8	233.2	263.9	1431.4	428.2	436.5	487.7	2914.7
Fireworks	176.0	190.8	263.9	2234.6	461.2	482.5	660.5	6280.7
Cottonseed oil	116.8	128.0	135.7	130.4	252.8	279.6	305.8	275.5
Fertilizers	130.2	118.3	110.7	122.9	280.7	256.1	240.2	269.1
Products of petroleum and coal	132.9	131.3	130.4	126.0	219.8	221.3	221.3	221.7
Petroleum refining	131.9	130.6	130.6	125.5	210.6	212.6	215.5	215.7
Coke and byproducts	109.4	106.2	103.1	102.4	192.6	193.3	184.2	189.0
Paving materials	57.6	64.5	72.4	57.2	108.8	125.3	134.3	114.7
Roofing materials	128.8	125.7	122.2	117.8	237.1	228.9	219.3	211.5
Rubber products	160.2	156.5	149.2	164.9	265.7	256.3	240.4	323.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes	182.4	177.8	168.9	178.5	272.6	256.7	240.2	342.4
Rubber boots and shoes	109.9	107.1	104.1	120.6	204.5	194.5	193.5	220.7
Rubber goods, other [2]	126.9	124.4	119.0	138.2	222.0	225.1	208.8	261.2
Miscellaneous industries	139.9	137.6	133.4	167.8	252.1	249.1	235.6	334.3
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	200.2	202.8	202.3	531.6	330.4	332.1	324.6	1057.1
Photographic apparatus	127.1	129.9	124.6	162.1	198.7	204.3	198.0	277.5
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	173.7	171.1	167.0	203.2	295.9	290.6	281.2	353.5
Pianos, organs, and parts	88.9	80.2	73.8	95.5	148.5	138.3	117.9	187.3
Games, toys, and dolls	94.1	94.0	85.3	88.4	179.2	172.6	153.8	182.7
Buttons	87.9	85.5	84.3	84.0	179.5	174.4	167.5	178.6
Fire extinguishers	231.3	238.9	229.8	478.1	458.0	491.5	459.3	1017.8

[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: *Wirework.*—September and October 1945 pay-roll indexes to 157.6 and 173.1 *Forgings, iron and steel.*—October 1945 employment index to 158.3; pay-roll index to 271.1. *Mattresses and bedsprings.*—August and October pay-roll indexes to 153.4 and 130.0 respectively; October 1945 employment index to 77.8. *Wood, turned and shaped.*—October 1945 pay-roll index to 161.4. *Textile bags.*—September and October 1945 pay-roll indexes to 205.7 and 205.4. *Rubber goods, other.*—October 1945 pay-roll index to 204.3. *Explosives and safety fuses.*—October 1945 employment index to 409.2; pay-roll index to 626.2.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Mining:				
Anthracite	65.7	65.4	64.8	65.4
Bituminous coal	336	332	327	338
Metal:	67.7	66.3	64.6	69.2
Iron	23.1	23.7	23.7	23.5
Copper	20.5	19.7	19.0	22.3
Lead and zinc	14.9	14.2	13.7	15.0
Gold and silver	6.9	6.5	6.0	5.5
Miscellaneous	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.9
Telephone [1]	465	454	443	401
Telegraph [2]	([3])	47.6	47.0	45.2
Electric light and power [1]	227	222	215	200
Street railways and busses [1]	240	238	236	227
Hotels (year-round) [1]	378	379	376	355
Power laundries	([4])	([4])	([4])	([4])
Cleaning and dyeing	([4])	([4])	([4])	([4])
Class I steam railroads [5]	1,393	1,398	1,406	1,394
Water transportation [6]	165	166	165	143

[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] Not available.
[4] 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 data. New series are being prepared.
[5] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.
[6] 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			
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1945
Mining:								
Anthracite	79.3	79.0	78.2	79.0	149.3	167.1	144.5	137.7
Bituminous coal	90.8	89.4	88.2	91.1	210.3	222.5	212.8	214.3
Metal:	76.7	75.2	73.2	78.4	116.6	117.6	117.2	125.7
Iron	114.8	117.6	118.0	116.8	163.6	178.2	191.8	180.3
Copper	86.2	82.5	79.7	93.4	137.1	135.4	129.6	156.6
Lead and zinc	95.6	91.5	87.9	96.6	180.4	173.5	167.6	183.3
Gold and silver	28.0	26.2	24.3	22.3	36.2	34.4	31.7	30.0
Miscellaneous	56.9	55.9	55.8	73.4	82.6	83.0	84.7	121.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic	83.1	83.6	85.0	73.6	150.3	154.4	163.2	135.0
Crude-petroleum production [1]	90.0	88.4	86.7	82.1	139.0	135.9	140.0	132.2
Public utilities:								
Telephone	146.3	143.0	139.4	126.1	205.2	203.5	200.3	157.8
Telegraph	([4])	126.4	124.8	120.2	([4])	178.3	177.9	172.3
Electric light and power	92.9	90.7	88.1	82.0	133.7	129.3	126.7	115.2
Street railways and busses	123.7	122.7	121.7	117.3	181.4	184.0	179.1	175.1
Wholesale trade	106.9	104.1	101.8	95.7	162.4	159.2	155.2	139.1
Retail trade	104.1	116.0	106.2	98.3	159.4	167.7	151.9	130.7
Food	106.6	108.0	106.5	107.2	159.6	159.4	154.9	141.4
General merchandise	116.6	152.6	127.4	114.2	167.0	209.3	172.4	144.3
Apparel	106.0	129.1	117.1	105.9	163.0	194.4	175.2	145.7
Furniture and housefurnishings	70.9	75.0	69.4	62.4	107.1	114.3	103.8	87.4
Automotive	85.8	84.5	80.5	68.1	139.0	134.8	126.6	101.0
Lumber and building materials	101.8	102.0	101.0	88.9	158.6	156.8	150.7	129.9
Hotels (year-round)[2]	117.3	117.6	116.5	110.2	196.4	196.1	190.6	166.8
Power laundries	109.3	107.8	106.7	106.3	178.7	174.3	168.9	161.5
Cleaning and dyeing	120.3	119.9	120.6	111.9	201.7	196.9	193.5	175.3
Class I steam railroads [3]	141.0	141.5	142.4	141.1	([4])	([4])	([4])	([4])
Water transportation [5]	314.8	315.7	315.1	272.6	575.3	583.1	582.1	635.2

[1] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[2] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.
[3] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. [4] Not available.
[5] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for November and December 1945 and January 1946, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. (For trend of earnings since 1939, see page 642 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]		
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$41.27	$41.40	$40.77	41.1	41.6	41.2	100.4	99.6	99.0
Durable goods	43.80	44.30	43.71	40.9	41.5	41.1	107.1	106.9	106.4
Nondurable goods	38.83	38.65	37.89	41.3	41.6	41.3	94.1	92.8	91.8
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	44.65	46.41	45.51	40.9	42.6	42.1	109.2	109.1	108.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	43.98	47.33	46.81	37.8	41.0	40.8	116.2	115.5	114.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	49.17	49.20	47.15	44.8	45.1	43.3	109.9	109.1	108.2
Malleable-iron castings	47.92	50.62	46.54	43.8	45.4	42.4	110.2	111.4	109.9
Steel castings	42.83	48.41	46.94	38.3	42.8	42.0	111.9	113.0	111.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	41.65	40.68	40.67	44.3	43.9	44.5	93.8	92.6	91.3
Tin cans and other tinware	41.38	41.15	40 02	44.4	44.6	43.3	93.3	92.9	92.4
Wirework [2]	46.64	46.19	47.26	44.1	44.2	44.9	105.2	105.0	105.2
Cutlery and edge tools	43.73	43.24	41.94	44.7	44.5	44.1	97.5	97.1	95.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	44.88	44.02	42.46	44.8	44.6	43.5	100.1	98.4	97.7
Hardware	42.87	42.25	41.23	44.4	44.4	44.0	96.7	95.5	93.6
Plumbers' supplies	43.80	44.07	42.98	42.4	43.0	42.5	103.2	102.5	101.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	43.97	44.36	43.13	42.7	43.4	42.5	103.1	102.3	101.7
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	44.99	45.38	44.12	42.9	43.1	42.7	104.9	105.2	103.5
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	42.03	42.38	41.74	41.8	42.0	41.6	100.5	101.0	100.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	43.90	44.55	44.00	41.1	41.8	41.8	106.1	106.0	104.6

See footnotes at end of table.

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]		
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945
Durable goods—Continued									
Iron and steel and their products—Con.									
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	$44.12	$48.77	$46.90	41.9	45.0	43.9	*Cents* 106.2	*Cents* 108.9	*Cents* 107.3
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	43.01	46.24	46.12	41.4	44.3	44.3	104.6	104.2	104.0
Forgings, iron and steel	52.60	52.75	50.24	42.1	42.2	41.4	124.8	125.0	121.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws	47.09	47.52	46.86	43.3	44.2	43.8	107.9	106.8	106.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	40.32	39.14	39.94	40.6	40.1	40.5	99.4	97.4	98.3
Firearms	48.55	48.92	47.66	43.8	43.8	42.9	110.8	111.6	111.2
Electrical machinery	42.69	43.71	42.98	41.3	41.5	41.3	103.5	105.3	103.9
Electrical equipment	42.90	44.17	43.51	41.2	41.5	41.4	103.9	106.2	105.1
Radios and phonographs	39.12	38.82	38.84	40.6	40.8	40.5	96.4	95.2	95.9
Communication equipment	45.97	46.50	44.02	42.4	42.4	41.8	108.5	109.9	105.5
Machinery, except electrical	48.40	48.63	47.90	42.5	42.9	42.6	113.8	113.4	112.4
Machinery and machine-shop products	47.81	47.98	47.58	42.5	42.8	42.9	112.3	112.0	110.9
Engines and turbines	50.91	49.62	44.93	42.3	41.4	38.7	120.5	119.7	115.9
Tractors	48.50	48.26	47.86	41.5	41.4	41.6	117.4	116.5	115.1
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	45.17	45.79	45.61	40.5	41.6	41.9	111.0	110.0	108.9
Machine tools	53.19	53.80	52.35	44.4	44.4	43.9	119.1	121.0	119.3
Machine-tool accessories	52.53	52.35	51.21	42.5	42.8	42.1	124.0	122.7	122.2
Textile machinery	48.28	49.06	47.55	46.3	47.1	45.6	104.4	104.1	104.3
Typewriters	44.12	44.79	44.30	43.4	44.6	44.4	101.8	100.4	99.7
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	53.18	52.28	53.89	42.5	41.8	42.8	126.3	125.6	126.5
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	42.28	42.61	42.45	42.7	43.5	44.0	98.9	97.9	96.6
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	48.75	48.78	52.48	43.6	42.9	46.5	112.5	114.2	113.8
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	42.63	42.55	45.13	40.2	40.0	41.2	105.7	106.1	109.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	49.57	49.53	46.56	40.2	39.8	37.4	123.4	124.3	124.4
Locomotives	57.89	60.92	60.12	42.3	43.6	44.2	136.8	139.8	136.0
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	45.14	44.53	43.57	41.5	42.0	40.7	108.5	106.1	107.0
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	48.49	48.49	46.98	40.9	40.8	39.7	118.4	118.7	118.3
Aircraft engines	51.33	48.67	44.91	40.9	40.3	37.6	125.4	120.8	119.4
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	49.82	49.77	45.56	39.2	38.5	35.0	127.9	129.9	130.1
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	46.36	46.68	45.88	43.3	44.4	43.8	107.0	105.0	104.8
Automobiles	46.30	43.89	45.99	37.5	36.0	37.8	123.4	122.0	121.7
Nonferrous metals and their products	46.13	46.11	45.71	43.3	43.4	43.2	106.6	106.3	105.8
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	46.92	46.36	46.98	43.2	43.5	44.2	108.4	106.7	106.3
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	51.69	50.78	50.24	45.5	44.8	44.8	113.5	113.1	112.0
Clocks and watches	39.40	39.12	38.49	41.1	41.4	41.5	96.0	94.4	92.7
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	47.12	48.47	45.53	44.6	45.3	43.4	105.6	106.6	104.7
Silverware and plated ware	51.87	52.20	51.49	46.9	46.9	46.5	110.6	111.3	110.8
Lighting equipment	43.12	41.25	42.58	41.4	40.6	40.7	103.2	101.1	104.7
Aluminum manufactures	41.86	42.88	43.23	41.1	41.3	41.7	101.9	103.7	103.8
Lumber and timber basic products	32.01	31.79	31.98	38.6	39.2	40.5	83.0	81.1	78.9
Sawmills and logging camps	30.57	30.27	30.69	37.9	38.4	40.1	80.7	78.8	76.5
Planing and plywood mills	36.60	36.65	36.20	40.7	41.7	41.9	89.5	87.6	86.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	36.18	36.49	35.44	42.2	42.8	42.0	85.8	85.3	84.4
Furniture	36.69	37.21	36.21	42.1	42.8	41.9	87.2	86.9	86.6
Caskets and other morticians' goods	39.49	39.22	36.86	43.7	43.9	41.9	89.2	88.4	87.0
Wood preserving	31.59	33.22	34.24	39.3	40.5	43.0	81.0	82.1	79.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	38.42	39.49	38.95	40.8	42.0	42.0	94.3	94.0	92.8
Glass and glassware	38.53	40.99	39.31	38.3	41.7	40.9	100.9	98.5	96.3
Glass products made from purchased glass	34.13	34.70	35.45	39.5	39.8	41.5	85.3	86.0	84.3

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]		
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945
***Durable goods*—Continued**									
Stone, clay, and glass products—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Cement	$39.44	$41.28	$42.79	42.1	43.9	45.2	93.8	94.1	94.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	35.17	35.05	35.01	40.9	40.2	40.2	85.7	86.2	86.3
Pottery and related products	36.09	36.80	36.42	39.4	40.1	40.5	92.8	92.8	91.0
Gypsum	44.42	44.33	44.09	46.7	46.9	46.9	94.4	94.4	93.9
Lime	38.50	40.08	40.04	45.0	45.8	46.7	85.1	85.8	84.9
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	38.88	39.89	38.47	41.6	41.8	40.4	94.4	95.8	95.0
Abrasives	42.10	44.98	43.98	40.0	43.1	42.9	105.2	104.4	102.4
Asbestos products	46.01	45.51	45.36	45.1	44.8	45.1	104.0	103.1	101.8
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	32.46	32.42	31.65	40.4	40.7	40.3	80.3	79.6	78.6
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	29.00	29.25	28.72	40.1	40.5	40.3	72.4	72.1	71.3
Cotton smallwares	35.83	35.42	33.57	42.5	42.1	40.6	84.6	84.2	82.6
Silk and rayon goods	32.52	32.48	31.92	41.0	41.2	41.1	79.2	78.8	77.7
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	38.62	37.64	35.71	41.8	41.9	40.5	92.4	90.0	88.4
Hosiery	31.67	31.62	31.29	37.4	37.7	37.7	84.5	83.8	83.1
Knitted cloth [2]	36.51	36.18	36.09	43.6	43.9	43.2	84.3	82.4	83.1
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.87	32.17	31.79	38.3	38.9	38.8	82.2	81.6	81.1
Knitted underwear	27.89	27.77	27.21	38.6	38.5	38.1	72.0	71.8	71.1
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	39.20	39.22	37.73	44.1	44.2	43.6	88.8	88.7	86.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	39.62	39.92	39.96	40.4	41.0	40.9	98.3	97.5	98.0
Hats, fur-felt	50.39	49.33	48.67	42.3	41.7	41.4	117.7	118.4	117.2
Jute goods, except felts	34.89	35.55	35.54	42.7	44.0	43.8	81.6	80.8	81.2
Cordage and twine	33.58	33.74	33.49	42.8	43.3	43.4	78.2	77.8	77.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	33.25	31.91	31.16	36.7	36.4	36.1	90.7	87.6	86.4
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	33.86	32.80	31.98	37.0	37.0	36.3	91.3	88.9	88.1
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	26.49	25.74	25.52	36.3	36.6	36.8	72.5	70.5	69.8
Underwear and neckwear, men's	28.05	28.93	27.62	35.7	37.5	36.6	78.9	77.1	75.4
Work shirts	21.00	19.37	20.83	35.2	33.6	35.3	59.9	57.6	58.9
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	42.97	41.34	40.11	36.1	35.6	35.3	117.3	113.2	111.3
Corsets and allied garments	31.80	30.75	31.38	39.0	39.2	39.8	81.6	78.7	78.9
Millinery	44.42	38.65	36.45	34.2	32.1	30.6	105.8	98.8	98.4
Handkerchiefs	24.32	24.58	24.35	34.9	35.8	35.5	70.3	68.7	68.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	25.78	26.34	26.47	34.6	34.4	34.7	73.2	74.5	74.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	31.29	30.19	30.23	38.7	37.9	38.6	80.8	79.0	77.8
Textile bags	28.72	29.51	29.39	39.3	40.1	39.9	73.1	73.6	73.6
Leather and leather products	35.81	35.74	33.93	39.7	40.6	39.6	90.1	88.1	85.7
Leather	44.06	44.76	42.23	42.8	44.1	42.2	103.0	101.3	100.1
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	35.85	34.93	32.20	40.9	40.4	39.2	88.2	86.9	82.9
Boots and shoes	34.50	34.13	32.37	39.1	39.9	39.2	87.3	84.8	82.1
Leather gloves and mittens	30.78	30.04	29.22	36.9	36.7	36.0	83.8	82.8	81.9
Trunks and suitcases	36.65	37.64	37.88	39.9	41.1	41.3	90.4	90.4	90.4
Food	41.43	41.51	40.31	45.0	45.4	44.4	92.1	91.4	90.8
Slaughtering and meat packing	46.74	47.76	45.78	48.9	50.4	47.6	95.9	95.0	96.4
Butter	36.98	36.47	35.74	45.9	45.7	45.9	80.5	79.6	77.8
Condensed and evaporated milk	38.72	37.39	37.48	46.7	46.5	47.4	82.9	80.5	79.1
Ice cream	41.60	41.89	41.72	46.8	46.7	47.0	86.3	86.1	85.1
Flour	45.65	44.98	43.12	49.4	49.0	47.9	92.4	91.9	90.2
Cereal preparations	43.01	43.78	44.18	41.8	42.4	42.9	103.0	103.3	102.9
Baking	40.95	41.28	41.37	45.4	45.7	45.8	90.4	90.4	90.1
Sugar refining, cane	36.97	37.37	34.56	42.0	42.6	40.9	88.0	87.7	84.5
Sugar, beet [2]	40.04	39.63	40.17	41.7	43.5	45.8	95.9	91.1	87.8
Confectionery [2]	33.27	33.60	32.83	40.4	41.3	40.9	80.7	79.4	78.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	36.12	35.87	35.89	42.3	42.6	42.6	83.9	83.3	83.7
Malt liquors	53.13	54.55	53.08	44.0	45.0	44.6	120.5	120.4	119.1
Canning and preserving	34.05	33.87	31.56	40.0	40.1	37.9	85.1	84.9	83.4
Tobacco manufactures	32.27	31.53	32.65	39.3	39.1	40.4	82.2	80.6	80.7
Cigarettes	36.13	32.57	34.69	40.3	37.3	40.5	89.7	87.2	85.6
Cigars	29.88	31.21	31.65	39.0	40.7	40.8	76.6	76.4	77.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	27.28	29.31	28.64	36.5	39.4	38.6	74.8	74.4	74.2

See footnotes at end of table.

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]		
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Paper and allied products	$41.35	$41.50	$41.23	44.4	45.6	45.7	93.1	91.1	90.2
Paper and pulp	44.23	44.67	44.81	45.5	47.2	47.9	97.2	94.5	93.5
Envelopes	39.28	38.20	38.37	43.8	43.6	44.1	89.4	87.7	87.0
Paper bags	36.39	36.26	36.47	42.2	43.3	43.5	86.4	84.1	84.4
Paper boxes	37.40	37.77	37.44	43.2	43.9	43.6	87.3	86.4	85.9
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	49.32	49.22	48.83	41.0	41.5	41.7	120.3	118.6	117.1
Newspapers and periodicals	52.92	52.70	52.26	38.1	38.5	38.5	136.9	134.6	133.4
Printing, book and job	47.94	47.79	47.25	42.6	43.0	43.3	113.2	111.5	109.8
Lithographing	52.07	52.38	52.65	43.7	44.7	45.3	119.1	117.2	116.1
Chemicals and allied products	42.78	42.62	42.10	42.1	42.5	42.5	101.6	100.4	99.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors	45.18	45.48	45.56	43.4	44.3	44.7	103.6	103.0	102.1
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	37.59	36.53	35.84	40.6	40.4	40.9	93.3	91.0	88.5
Soap	48.17	48.20	46.17	45.2	45.2	44.4	106.5	106.6	103.9
Rayon and allied products	38.85	39.64	39.21	39.1	40.0	41.0	99.4	99.1	95.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	50.76	49.56	49.25	42.9	42.8	42.8	117.8	115.9	114.8
Explosives and safety fuses	46.96	48.90	45.15	40.2	41.7	38.9	117.4	117.4	116.2
Ammunition, small-arms	42.89	42.32	41.80	41.4	40.8	39.6	103.7	103.8	105.5
Cottonseed oil	29.76	29.94	30.92	51.5	52.3	53.0	57.7	57.2	58.3
Fertilizers	30.36	30.54	30.87	41.5	42.1	41.6	73.1	72.6	74.2
Products of petroleum and coal	52.17	53.14	53.54	41.9	43.1	44.0	124.6	123.3	121.7
Petroleum refining	54.57	55.42	56.21	41.0	42.2	43.6	132.6	131.2	128.7
Coke and by-products	45.81	47.31	46.43	43.2	45.0	44.4	106.0	105.1	104.5
Roofing materials	47.14	46.64	45.96	46.5	47.3	46.8	101.5	98.5	98.2
Rubber products	46.07	45.48	44.68	41.1	40.9	40.2	112.2	111.3	111.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes	50.29	48.54	47.78	39.9	38.7	38.1	125.5	124.7	124.9
Rubber boots and shoes	42.09	40.79	41.75	44.4	43.4	44.7	94.8	94.0	93.4
Rubber goods, other [2]	41.09	42.39	41.06	42.0	43.4	42.1	97.7	97.7	97.5
Miscellaneous industries	41.33	41.49	40.43	41.7	42.1	41.9	99.0	98.5	96.5
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	47.67	47.53	46.60	41.8	41.4	41.2	114.0	114.3	112.5
Pianos, organs, and parts	40.74	42.06	38.93	41.9	43.8	41.3	97.6	96.4	94.6

NONMANUFACTURING

Mining:							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Anthracite	$48.63	$54.62	$47.75	36.4	39.6	35.8	133.9	138.0	133.3
Bituminous coal	54.23	58.20	56.29	43.3	45.8	44.9	126.2	128.0	126.3
Metal	42.94	44.11	45.09	41.6	42.0	43.0	103.1	105.1	104.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic	39.25	40.21	41.79	43.3	44.1	46.1	91.2	91.0	90.9
Crude-petroleum production	51.97	51.70	54.40	41.1	41.0	43.9	125.8	125.1	123.1
Public utilities:									
Telephone	41.19	41.44	42.02	40.1	41.1	42.1	103.0	101.1	100.2
Telegraph [3]	(3)	36.61	36.89	(3)	44.5	45.0	(3)	82.2	82.0
Electric light and power	50.32	50.49	50.37	42.7	42.0	42.7	117.7	118.6	116.2
Street railways and busses	49.74	51.22	49.85	49.3	50.7	50.3	101.8	101.3	98.1
Wholesale trade	44.73	44.71	44.94	41.3	42.0	42.3	107.0	105.8	105.6
Retail trade	30.84	29.12	28.88	40.3	40.1	40.0	82.6	79.6	80.6
Food	36.23	35.38	34.89	40.7	40.7	40.6	84.2	82.3	81.8
General merchandise	25.44	24.33	23.81	36.8	36.2	36.4	68.3	64.8	65.0
Apparel	31.83	31.03	30.96	37.1	37.1	37.0	87.2	85.7	85.1
Furniture and housefurnishings	41.44	41.69	40.88	43.6	43.6	43.9	96.9	96.7	94.7
Automotive	46.06	45.33	44.74	45.9	46.2	45.8	99.2	98.7	99.1
Lumber and building materials	40.37	39.57	38.46	43.1	42.9	42.1	95.4	93.5	92.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Jan. 1946	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Hotels (year-round)[4]	$26.21	$25.94	$25.54	43.7	44.3	44.2	59.1	58.0	57.5
Power laundries	29.38	29.18	28.64	43.6	43.3	42.7	67.5	67.6	67.3
Cleaning and dyeing	33.83	33.30	32.75	43.1	43.0	42.4	79.3	78.9	78.6
Brokerage	68.87	71.39	68.46	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Insurance	49.77	48.64	46.96	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)

[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:

Wirework.—September and October 1945 to $45.43 and $46.33; 43.8 and 44.3 hours.

Knitted cloth.—October 1945 to $35.96; 44.0 hours; and 81.8 cents; not comparable with previously published data. Comparable September figures are $36.09; 44.2 hours; and 81.7 cents.

Sugar, beet.—Average weekly earnings and average weekly hours are not comparable with previously published data. Comparable October 1945 figures are $34.28 and 37.6 hours.

Confectionery.—October 1945 to 77.4 cents; not comparable to previously published data. Comparable September figure is 76.0 cents.

Rubber goods, other.—October 1945 to $41.74 and 43.0 hours.

[3] Excludes messengers and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies. January data not available.

[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

[5] Not available.

Labor Force, February 1946

INCREASES of 360,000 in unemployment and 270,000 in employment combined to raise the civilian labor force by 630,000 between January and February 1946, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. In February, the civilian labor force numbered 54,340,000, including 51,690,000 employed and 2,650,000 unemployed.

The increase in unemployment between January and February was the sharpest monthly upturn since that between August and September of last year. It occurred exclusively among men, largely reflecting the growing number of ex-servicemen now actively seeking work. There were five times as many unemployed men in February as in August 1945, before VJ-day.

Nonagricultural employment accounted for only 40,000 of the 270,000 gain in total employment during the month. The slight increase, however, represented the net effect of divergent movements in nonfarm employment of men and women. An increase of 230,000 among men was largely offset by a decrease of 190,000 among women. The January to February increase in the number of men engaged in nonfarm activity represented the fifth successive month-to-month rise—another reflection of the increased civilian labor market participation among veterans. The decline in nonfarm employment of women, on the other hand, reflected a continuation of the trend in evidence since VE-day.

Agricultural employment rose by 230,000 between January and February 1946 in response to seasonal influences and returning veterans. The seasonal downswing from the July peak in agricultural employment had reached bottom by January, and the upturn between January and February should mark the beginning of a seasonal upward movement as farming activity heightens throughout the spring and early summer months.

Total Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status, Hours Worked, and Sex, January and February 1946

[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	
	January	February	January	February	January	February
Total labor force [2]	59,880	59,550	43,610	43,440	16,270	16,110
Civilian labor force	53,710	54,340	37,550	38,340	16,160	16,000
Unemployment	2,290	2,650	1,760	2,140	530	510
Employment	51,420	51,690	35,790	36,200	15,630	15,490
Nonagricultural	44,660	44,700	29,910	30,140	14,750	14,560
Worked 35 hours or more	37,060	36,720	25,720	25,630	11,340	11,090
Worked 15–34 hours	4,350	4,170	2,180	2,060	2,170	2,110
Worked 1–14 hours [3]	1,290	1,320	610	590	680	730
With a job but not at work [4]	1,960	2,490	1,400	1,860	560	630
Agricultural	6,760	6,990	5,880	6,060	880	930
Worked 35 hours or more	4,240	4,550	3,970	4,320	270	230
Worked 15–34 hours	1,690	1,830	1,220	1,290	470	540
Worked 1–14 hours [3]	350	330	290	220	(*)	110
With a job but not at work [4]	480	280	400	230	(*)	(*)

[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] 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.

[3] Excludes persons engaged only in incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours); these persons are classified as not in the labor force.

[4] 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.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

April 1946

Cooperative Movement

Cooperatives, Volume 1, No. 1. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Labor and Social Information, January 1946. 7 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

The first issue of a new information service to be devoted to current information on cooperatives in Latin America and the United States.

Organizing a farmers' cooperative. By S. D. Sanders. St. Louis, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Farm Credit Administration, 1945. 44 pp. (Circular No. C–108.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Revision of a similar pamphlet issued in 1938. Discusses preliminary survey, incorporation, capitalization, and operating methods and policies, and contains suggested forms for various documents (articles of incorporation, bylaws, various members' agreements, etc.) and the text of the Capper-Volstead Act. Written from the viewpoint of the marketing rather than the purchasing association.

Taxation of cooperatives. By Thomas K. Ford. Washington, Editorial Research Reports (1013 Thirteenth Street NW.), 1946. 14 pp. (Vol. 1, 1946, No. 2.) $1.

Examines the extent of exemption of cooperatives from taxation under Federal and State laws, and in certain foreign countries, and reviews the place of cooperatives in our national economy. Concludes that the maximum amount of taxes that "could conceivably" have been brought into the U. S. Treasury in 1944 "under optimum taxing conditions" would have equaled 1.8 percent of the Government's general civilian expenditures for the year and about 0.12 percent of total civilian and military outlays.

Report of the [Canadian] Royal Commission on Cooperatives. Ottawa, 1945. 245 pp., charts.

This commission was charged with examining the tax status of cooperatives in Canada. Its report recommends that the Income War Tax Act and Excess Profits Tax Act be amended to provide for taxation of cooperatives on the same basis as others, subject to the following: (1) That cooperatives and others be allowed to deduct from taxable income patronage refunds, excess handling charges, discounts, rebates, etc., paid or credited to patrons in proportion to patronage, provided that such amounts are paid in cash or its equivalent within 6 months, that formal provision (in laws, bylaws, or contract) is made for such payments, and that all patrons receive the same rate of return. (2) That interest on shares, paid at a fixed rate, be allowed as a deduction if paid annually. (3) That a newly formed cooperative be exempt from income tax during its first 3 years of operation.

The Commission recommended that housing cooperatives be included among the cooperatives covered above, but that cooperatives providing telephone service, electric power, or medical or hospital service be exempt from all income or excess profits taxes.

The report contains much detailed information on various types of cooperatives in Canada.

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.

Education and Training

The training-within-industry report, 1940–45: A record of the development of management techniques for improvement of supervision—their use and the results. Washington, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Training, Training Within Industry Service, 1945. 330 pp., bibliography. 50 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

[*British*] *Government vocational training scheme: Baking industry; Basket making; Building industry; Clerical work and shorthand-typing; Farm workers and farming; Pottery industry; Retail distributive trades.* London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1945. 7 leaflets.

Report of Commission on Vocational Organization [*in Ireland*], *1943.* Dublin, Government Publications Sale Office, 1944. 539 pp. 7s. 6d.
Describes vocational organization in Ireland and other countries and makes recommendations with respect to Ireland.

Employment (General)

Forests and employment: Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1945. Washington, 1946. 35 pp. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.
The report stresses the importance of forestry in our national goal of full employment, and suggests a comprehensive forestry program which, it is stated, could create as many as 2,500,000 permanent new jobs in that industry. The major activities of the Forest Service, including those during the war, are summarized.

The maintenance of full employment after the transition period: A comparison of the problem in the United States and the United Kingdom. By M. Kalecki. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, November 1945, pp. 450–464. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

Planning and paying for full employment. (In International Postwar Problems, New York, October 1945, pp. 427–547; January 1946, pp. 1–131. $1 each.)
Twelve articles, by different writers, on various phases of the problem.

Employment and Benefits for Veterans

Benefits for ex-servicemen in five British countries and the United States. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1802; reprinted from November 1945 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Industry reports on veterans: A case history report of company performance in providing jobs for veterans. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1945. 16 pp.

State veterans' programs. Chicago, Council of State Governments, 1945. 54 pp., bibliography. Rev. ed. $1.
Summarizes State legislation, enacted prior to and in 1945, providing various benefits for veterans, and lists State agencies dealing with veterans' affairs.

Governmental cooperation and the returning veteran in Connecticut communities. Washington, Council on Intergovernmental Relations, 1945. 51 pp., charts.
Describes the general program for blending the Federal, State, and local interests in veterans, as well as specific operations in several Connecticut communities.

The veteran and his future job: A guidebook for the veteran. By James H. Bedford. Los Angeles, Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., 1946. 263 pp., illus. $3.50.
Explains veterans' rights under law and describes means of determining the abilities and work opportunities of veterans generally and of those who are disabled.

The adjustment of the nervous veteran in industry. By Meyer Brown, M.D. Chicago, Zurich Insurance Cos., Industrial Welfare Department, 1945. 52 pp., illus.
Discussion of the causes and treatment of neuroses and of the special problems presented in the employment of veterans who have nervous disorders.

Rehabilitation and convalescent care: A bibliography of selected references pertaining to the serviceman and the veteran. Washington, U. S. War Department, Army Air Forces, Office of the Air Surgeon, April 1945. 37 pp.; processed. (Information Letter, Army Air Forces convalescent-rehabilitation training program, No. 24.)

Release and resettlement (Indian Defense Services). Simla, Government of India Press, 1945. 48 pp.
Guide to employment and training provisions for ex-servicemen in India.

Housing

Blighted! Sacramento, California State Reconstruction and Reemployment Commission, 1946. 32 pp., maps, plans, illus. (Pamphlet No. 10.)
Considers the extent and costliness of blighted areas and plans for improvement in the State of California.

Report of the Commissioner of Housing to the Governor and the Legislature of the State of New York. New York, Executive Department, Division of Housing, 1945. 62 pp., illus. (Legislative document, 1945, No. 62.)
Discusses past housing activities and future prospects. Tables give statistics of operations of the different public housing projects in the State of New York.

Looking ahead in the farm building market. Philadelphia, Curtis Publishing Co., Research Department, 1945. 67 pp., map, charts, illus.
Survey of the potential market for farm building, needs and preferences of farmers, and sales opportunities and problems.

Land assembly for urban redevelopment. Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, 1945. 39 pp. (National housing bull. No. 3.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.
Covers the objectives of a program, elements of finance, kind and extent of public aid, scope and ultimate cost, and place in a community plan.

The rehousing of Britain. By John Madge. London, Pilot Press, Ltd., 1945. 64 pp., charts, illus. (Target for tomorrow, [No. 9].) 4s. 6d. ($1.50, Transatlantic, Forest Hills, N. Y.)
Deals with housing already provided and the major problems that must be dealt with to insure more adequate facilities.

Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on the Selling Price of Houses, [Great Britain and Scotland]. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1945. 31 pp. (Cmd. 6670.) 6d. net.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

A statistical study of all accident and occupational disease claims filed with the Industrial Commission of Ohio during the calendar year of 1944, with a summary of the years 1935–44 inclusive. Columbus, Industrial Commission of Ohio, Division of Safety and Hygiene, 1945. 27 pp.

Annual report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, [Great Britain], for the year 1944. London, [Ministry of Labor and National Service, Factory Department], 1945. 101 pp. (Cmd. 6698.) 1s. 6d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.
Covers accidents, occupational diseases, safety measures, and related matters. A reduction of 9.1 percent in reportable accidents occurred in 1944 as compared with 1943; in 1943 the decrease was 1.1 percent from the preceding year, which was the first annual decline in World War II.

Olycksfall i arbete, år 1941. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1944. 59 pp.
Report on industrial accidents in Sweden in 1941. A French translation of the table of contents and a résumé in French are provided.

Neuropsychiatric aspects of industrial accidents. By Joseph L. Fetterman, M.D. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, February 1946, pp. 96–100; bibliography. 50 cents.)

Safety in dock work. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1945. 225 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. (Studies and reports, series F, second section, No. 10.) $1.50. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Part I deals with hazards and safety measures; Part II gives texts of relevant International Labor Conventions, statutory regulations of Australia, Chile, Germany, Great Britain, Portugal, and Sweden, and voluntary safety codes in operation in the United States.

Ship-construction accident-prevention regulations. Vancouver, British Columbia, Workmen's Compensation Board, 1943. 16 pp.

Workmen's compensation in Canada—a comparison of provincial laws. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1945. 30 pp.; mimeographed.

Riksförsäkringsanstalten, år 1943. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1945. 24 pp.

Reviews operations of the national insurance institute in Sweden during 1943, covering both compulsory and voluntary insurance of workers against accidents. A French translation of the table of contents is provided.

Industrial Relations

The President's National Labor-Management Conference, November 5–30, 1945—summary and committee reports. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1946. 89 pp. (Bull. No. 77.) Free.

An account of this conference was carried in the Monthly Labor Review for January 1946 (p. 37).

Report and recommendations of the President's fact-finding board in the General Motors Case. Washington, Executive Office of the President, 1946. 27 pp. and appendixes; mimeographed. Free.

[*Reports and recommendations of fact-finding panels appointed by the Secretary of Labor in the Greyhound Bus dispute, the International Harvester case, and the disputes in the meat-packing and oil industries.*] Washington, Office of the Secretary of Labor, 1946. 4 separate reports, variously paged; mimeographed. Free.

Collective bargaining negotiations and contracts—a current service on how to bargain collectively: Part I, Techniques and trends in bargaining; Part II, Representative contracts in text; Part III, Contract clause finder. Washington, Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1945 and 1946. Loose-leaf. $108.

Government and union-employer relations: An analysis of statutes and administrative regulations. By Leifur Magnusson. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1945. 36 pp. (Publication No. 93.) $1.

Collective bargaining in the Saskatchewan civil service. By C. W. Rump. (In Civil Service Review, Civil Service Federation of Canada, Ottawa, September 1945, pp. 278, 280–282.)

Summary of provisions of the agreement between the Saskatchewan Provincial Government and the Saskatchewan Civil Service Association, which became effective August 2, 1945 (see Monthly Labor Review, November 1945, p. 972).

The labor front in Sweden. By Naboth Hedin. (In American-Scandinavian Review, New York, March 1946, pp. 16–22. 50 cents.)

International Labor Conference

International Labor Conference, twenty-eighth session, [Seattle, Wash., June], 1946: Report I, Director's report. Report II, Social security for seafarers. Report III, Crew accommodation on board ship. Report IV, Food and catering on board ship. Report V, Entry, training, and promotion of seafarers. Report VI, Holidays with pay for seafarers. Report VII, Continuous employment for seafarers. Report VIII, Recognition of seafarers' organizations. Report IX, Wages, hours of work on board ship, manning. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1946. Variously paged. Reports I, II, III, and IX, 30 cents each; IV, 20 cents; V, 25 cents; VI, 15 cents; VII and VIII, 5 cents each. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Labor and Social Legislation

The development of labor legislation in Tennessee. By Virginia Holmes Brown. Knoxville, University of Tennessee, Bureau of Public Administration, 1945. 79 pp., bibliography.

The Wagner Act: After ten years. Edited by Louis G. Silverberg. Washington, Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1945. 126 pp. $1.

A symposium in which 11 labor-relations authorities examine and evaluate the National Labor Relations Act. The papers are arranged in five groups dealing, respectively, with theories underlying the legislation and establishment of the first National Labor Relations Board; effects of court interpretation and public opinion on operations of the Board; impact of the legislation on trade-unions, on an industrial city (Detroit), and on the concept of civil rights; proposed changes in the law; and the role of collective bargaining in our economic and political future.

Les principales mesures sociales prises en Europe dupuis mai 1940. (In Revue du Travail, organe du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale de Belgique, Brussels, December 1945, pp. 862–869.)

Résumé of the principal labor and social-welfare laws enacted after May 1940 in France, Great Britain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the Soviet Union. Topics covered include rehabilitation of war victims and veterans, unemployment aid, regulation of industrial wages, apprenticeship, housing, and family allowances.

Les sanctions pénales des lois sociales belges. By Paul Horion. (In Revue du Travail, organe du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale de Belgique, Brussels, November 1945, pp. 700–719.)

Analysis of the penalties authorized in Belgian labor and social-welfare legislation enacted mainly after 1921, and up to the decree-law of June 9, 1945, on joint industrial councils (see Monthly Labor Review, December 1945, p. 1169), which provided penalties for workers as well as employers. Includes some comparisons with laws in France, Italy, Great Britain, and Switzerland.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

Directory of labor organizations in Kansas. Topeka, State Labor Department, 1945. 46 pp.

Machinery for World Federation of Trade Unions. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1816; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1946.) Free.

Report of 18th national delegate conference, Amalgamated Union of Building Trade Workers of Great Britain and Ireland, Aberdeen, August 21–24, 1945. London, the Union, [1945?]. 224 pp.

Report of Proceedings at the 77th annual [British] Trades Union Congress, held at Blackpool, September 10–14, 1945. London, Trades Union Congress, 1945. 468 pp.

A brief article on the congress was published in the Monthly Labor Review for December 1945 (p. 1179).

Fifty-first annual report of the Irish Trade Union Congress, being the report of the national executive for 1944–45 and the report of the proceedings of the fifty-first annual meeting held in Dublin, July 4–6, 1945. Dublin, National Executive of the Irish Trade Union Congress, 1945. 208 pp.

Of, by, and for the people. (In Economic Outlook, Congress of Industrial Organizations, Washington, February 1946; 8 pp. 10 cents.)

Tabulations show, for each international union affiliated with the CIO, (1) how unions are "run" (frequency and powers of conventions, terms of officers and methods of election, requirements for admission to membership, rights of members, etc.), and (2) financial practices (salaries of officers, membership dues and initiation fees, methods and frequency of financial reporting, etc.)

Royalties, taxes and assessments, industry-paid and union-administered for labor welfare benefits. New York, Inter-Union Institute for Labor and Democracy, 1945. 14 pp. (Labor and Nation, August 1945, part 2.)

Attempts to analyze the major implications of royalties, taxes, and assessments demanded by unions. A liberalized national security program is believed to be the best way to meet demands which, the authors maintain, are a significant form of social pioneering for the worker's legitimate equity in the product of industry. They feel that public interest, if aroused, would speed legislative enactment of a broader security program. In the absence of such legislation, and in order to gain support for some of their demands, unions must first convince the public that funds will be used only for the purposes for which they were raised.

Trade union publications—the official journals, convention proceedings, and constitutions of international unions and federations, 1850–1941: Volume II, Subject index. By Lloyd G. Reynolds and Charles C. Killingsworth. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1945. lvii, 486 pp.

Volume III will conclude the subject index.

Medical Care and Health Insurance

Disability among gainfully occupied persons: An introduction to disability insurance statistics. By I. S. Falk, Barkev S. Sanders, David Federman. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1945. 60 pp., bibliography, charts. (Bureau memorandum No. 61.)

The authors present (nontechnically) the principal economic and actuarial considerations essential in a program of disability insurance, and discuss the use of statistics in preparing cost estimates. Both temporary and permanent disability insurance are given special treatment, with summary tables of experience in the United States and selected foreign countries showing principal provisions as to coverage, contributions, and benefits.

How can we assure adequate health service for all the people? By A. J. Altmeyer. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington, December 1945, pp. 12–17. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

The chairman of the Social Security Board explains the need for a Nation-wide system of health insurance in terms of spreading the costs, governmental responsibility in health protection and promotion, inadequacy of existing voluntary arrangements, health insurance vs. State medicine, and the elements of an adequate health-insurance system.

National health program. Message from the President of the United States transmitting his request for legislation for adoption of a national health program. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 11 pp. (House doc. No. 380, 79th Cong., 1st sess.)

The comprehensive program covers five major fields: (1) Construction of hospitals and related facilities; (2) expansion of public-health, maternal, and child-health services; (3) medical education and research; (4) prepayment of medical costs; (5) protection against loss of wages from sickness and disability.

1943–1944 report of the New York State Commission to Formulate a Long Range Health Program (also known as New York State Health Preparedness Commission). Albany, 1945. 213 pp., charts. (Legislative document, 1944, No. 56A.)

Includes detailed studies of health and medical care in four counties of New York State.

Industrial medicine in the Philippine Islands. By Jean S. Felton, M.D. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, February 1946, pp. 129, 131 et seq. 50 cents.)

Account of legislation for the medical protection of workers, especially in the sugar industry, including provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act.

Foreign programs of medical care and their lessons. By Franz Goldman, M.D. (In New England Journal of Medicine, Boston, January 31, 1946, pp. 155–160. 25 cents.)

Lecture on medical sociology at Harvard Medical School, dealing with basic considerations of medical care in official systems and methods of handling them.

Negro in Industry

Annual family and occupational earnings of residents of two Negro housing projects in Atlanta, 1937–44. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 1808; reprinted from December 1945 Monthly Labor Review, with additional data.) Free.

Negro labor—a national problem. By Robert C. Weaver. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1946. 329 pp., bibliography. $3.

Discusses the Negro worker's past, barriers to Negro employment, bending of the color bar, wartime employment, aircraft—a phase of labor utilization, jobs in local transportation, the Negro worker in reconversion, and other topics.

The postwar industrial outlook for Negroes. Papers and proceedings of eighth annual conference of Division of the Social Sciences, Howard University, October 18–20, 1944. Edited by Kurt Braun. Washington, Howard University, Graduate School, 1945. 220 pp. (Studies in the social sciences, Vol. IV, No. 1.) $1.

The attention of the conference was focused on its subject from three principal angles—the public's interest, wartime experience in selected industries, and Federal policies.

Occupations

Job opportunities for the war veteran in the air conditioning and refrigeration industry. Washington, Air Conditioning and Refrigerating Machinery Association, Inc., 1945. 12 pp.

Opportunity unlimited: A guide for veterans interested in the construction industry. Washington, Committee on Opportunities for Veterans in the Construction Industry (1026 17th Street NW.), [1946?]. 55 pp. 10 cents.

Chiropractic—a career. By J. J. Nugent. Webster City, Iowa, National Chiropractic Association, Department of Education, 1945. 19 pp., bibliography, map, chart, illus.

Establishing and operating a service station. By members of the petroleum industry and Charles H. Sevin. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1945. 198 pp., plans, illus. (Industrial (small business) series, No. 22.) 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Pharmacy. By Walter J. Greenleaf. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1945. 20 pp. (Leaflet No. 14, revised 1945.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Social Security (General)

Social legislation—progress in the United States and in Sweden. By Mary Anderson. (In American-Scandinavian Review, New York, March 1945, pp. 32–40. 50 cents.)

Cash benefits under the New Zealand social security program. By Jacob Fisher. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1945. 42 pp., bibliography. (Bureau report No. 13.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Social security for seafarers. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1945. 264 pp. (Studies and reports, series M, No. 19.) $1.50. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Comparative analysis of social-security systems for merchant seamen in nine maritime countries, together with a proposal (including general principles) for an international social-security charter for this group.

The forthcoming International Labor Conference at Seattle, Wash., in June 1946 will deal with social security, working conditions, etc., of seafarers. The reports prepared for the Conference are listed in this section of the Monthly Labor Review under International Labor Conference.

Unemployment Compensation

Unemployment compensation. (In Yale Law Journal, New Haven, Conn., December 1945, pp. 1–263. $1.25.)
Symposium, by Eveline M. Burns, Edwin E. Witte, Ewan Clague, and others, covering the development, objectives, and economics of unemployment compensation in the United States, and special aspects such as eligibility and disqualifications for benefits, experience rating, administration, etc.

A report of the Committee on Unemployment Compensation Benefits for Partial Unemployment, Joint State Government Commission, to Pennsylvania General Assembly. Harrisburg, Joint State Government Commission, 1945. 36 pp.
The committee's proposals include benefits for partial unemployment and increase in the maximum weekly benefit for full-time unemployment from $18 to $20, and in maximum duration of payments, from 16 to 20 weeks.

Fourth report of the Unemployment Insurance Commission [of Canada], for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1945. Ottawa, 1945. 43 pp., charts. 10 cents.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Wage ceiling regulations applied to agricultural labor. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1945. 20 pp., mimeographed.
The 69 specific wage-ceiling regulations established up to September 1, 1945, are summarized by crops and States. A brief résumé is given of the purposes, legislative basis, and operation of the wage-ceiling program.

Annual survey of clerical rates and personnel practices, Greater New York, 1945. New York, Commerce and Industry Association of New York, Inc., Labor Relations Bureau, 1946. 61 pp., charts.
In addition to statistics of wages as of September 1, 1945, the report contains information on practices with regard to payment methods, hours, overtime, vacations, job evaluation, merit rating, benefit plans, separation pay, and extent of unionization.
The Commerce and Industry Association has published a supplement to this report giving comparative salary data for September 1, 1945, and January 15, 1946.

Earnings on tugboats and barges in New York Harbor, January 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 11 pp. (Serial No. R. 1805; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, December 1945.) Free.

Man-hours and pay rolls in hazardous industries, State of Washington, 1920–44. By Ernest L. Edge. Olympia, Department of Conservation and Development, 1945. 51 pp.; mimeographed.
Summary tables, based on workmen's compensation data, give total man-hours and total pay rolls in general manufacturing, food and forest products manufacture, mining, construction, utilities, and miscellaneous industries.

Minimum wages. By Frank P. Huddle. Washington, Editorial Research Reports (1013 13th Street NW.), 1945. 16 pp. (Vol. II, 1945, No. 19.) $1.
Outlines proposals in Congress for upward revision of the wage floor established by the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 and discusses the application of the Act. Important issues considered include the impact of wartime inflation on minimum wages, ability of industry to pay higher minimum wages, and minimum wages as an aid to full employment.

Selected reading list on wage incentives. By E. P. Hollywood. Pasadena, California Institute of Technology, Industrial Relations Section, February 1946. 4 pp. Free.

Décisions des commissions paritaires concernant les salaires. (In Revue du Travail, organe du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale de Belgique, Brussels, November 1945, pp. 720–731.)
Decisions of the Belgian joint industrial councils fixing wage rates in metal, ceramics, glass, chemical, food, clothing, construction, wood and furniture, leather, paper, and other industries.

Planning hours of work. Melbourne, Department of Labor and National Service, Industrial Welfare Division, 1945. 29 pp. (Bull. No. 4.)

Discusses length of the workweek and arrangement of hours. Wartime regulations governing hours of work in Australia are reproduced.

Women in Industry

Jobs and the woman. By Ruth M. Leach. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1945. 18 pp.

Subjects discussed include: How management feels about the working woman, safeguarding women in industry, the housework problem, service occupations, industrial opportunities, and factors affecting women's decision to work.

Women's place in postwar business and industry. By Jessie May Smith. (In Oregon Business Review, University of Oregon, Bureau of Business Research, Eugene, October 1945, pp. 1–5.)

The outlook for women in occupations in the medical and other health services: Physicians' and dentists' assistants. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1946. 15 pp., bibliography, illus. (Bull. No. 203, No. 11.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Soviet women. By Rose Maurer. New York, National Council of American-Soviet Friendship, [1945?]. 56 pp., illus. 15 cents.

Description of the economic and social status and activities of women in the Soviet Union before and during the war.

General Reports

Social policy in China. By T. K. Djang. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, November 1945, pp. 465–478. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

An appendix to the article summarizes wartime labor legislation.

Memoria que al poder ejecutivo presenta el Secretario de Estado de Agricultura, Industria y Trabajo, [Dominican Republic], relativa a las labores realizadas por el Departamento a su cargo, durante el año 1944. Ciudad Trujillo, Departamento de Agricultura, Industria y Trabajo, 1945. 523 pp.

This report of the Secretary of State for Agriculture, Industry, and Labor of the Dominican Republic lists the labor laws, decrees, and resolutions passed in 1944, and the labor organizations existing at the end of the year.

Inventaire économique de la France. By Georges Pilliet and Georges Craonelle. Paris, "Les Ordres de Chevalerie," 1944. 153 pp. (Controle Militaire des Informations, autorisation No. 99.)

Economic inventory of France based on statistics of population, sources of power or energy, production, banking and credit, transportation, and commerce. Covers years immediately preceding World War II, with discussion of future possibilities in France. Some comparisons are made with similar data for other countries.

Statistical summary of the social and economic trends in India (in the period 1918–39). By S. Subramaniam. Washington, Government of India Information Services, 1945. xvii, 41 pp., charts.

Includes statistics of factory employment, production, and prices (indexes), 1943; trade-union membership and cooperative societies, 1941; and wages in mines and tea gardens, 1939. Comparative data for earlier years are given on all these subjects.

Report of the Millowners' Association, Bombay, for the year 1944. Bombay, 1945. Variously paged.

A separate tabulation accompanying the report gives detailed information on equipment installed and in use and on employment in the cotton-textile industry. Existing labor legislation and proposed laws are reviewed in the main report.

Italy: Economics, politics, and military affairs, 1940–45. Compiled by Helen F. Conover. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, General Reference and Bibliography Division, October 1945. 85 pp.; mimeographed. Free to libraries only, on application to Information and Publications Office, Library of Congress.

A bibliography designed to present a fairly well-rounded picture of source material for the study of the whole economic life of Italy during the final years of Mussolini's dictatorship, collapse of the fascist state, and reconstruction up to the summer of 1945.

Memoria de labores, Septiembre de 1943—Agosto de 1944. México, D. F., Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, 1944. 214 pp., maps, charts.

Report on the work of the Mexican Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare from September 1943 to August 1944, with information for various years on industrial distribution of the gainfully employed population, wages, industrial accidents and occupational diseases, industrial disputes, labor organizations, and consumers' cooperatives.

Annual report on the Department of Labor, Nigeria, for the year 1944. Lagos, 1945. 32 pp.

Includes statistics of the labor force, industrial disputes, and changes in wage rates and cost of living. Legislation enacted in 1944, and registered trade-unions, with membership figures for various dates, are listed.

Censo nacional de población y ocupación, [Peru], 1940. Lima, Ministerio de Hacienda y Comercio, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, 1944. cc, 673 pp., charts.

Data on employment and unemployment, by political subdivision, industry, and age and sex of workers are given.

Estatística industrial, [Portugal], 1943. [Lisbon?], Instituto Nacional de Estatística, 1945. 373 pp. (In Portuguese and French.)

The first separate industrial statistical annual for Portugal issued by the National Statistical Institute. Includes statistics, mainly for 1943, of number of establishments and persons employed in various extractive and transforming industries, production, days worked, pay rolls, and industrial accidents.

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