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LAWRENCE R. KLEIN, Editor

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This Issue In Brief

Full employment patterns, 1950: Part 1

The present article is an attempt to evaluate in quantitative terms what is involved in achieving and maintaining high and stable levels of employment after full adjustment to peacetime conditions. By 1950 the labor force may consist of 62.5 million persons, of whom 59.0 million should be employed in civilian jobs if full-employment conditions prevail. If past trends continue, labor productivity will exceed the 1939 level by 20 to 30 percent, depending on the industry. National income might equal 185 billion dollars, but one-sixth of all consumer units might still have incomes below $1,500. Under such circumstances high tax revenues would be yielded by moderate rates, and wage rates and rates of return on investment above the 1946 levels could be maintained with prices below those now prevailing. Consumer outlays are estimated on the basis of prewar expenditure patterns, and a level of investment is assumed. All final demand is translated into total output on a detailed industry basis by means of a study of interindustry relationship. The resulting levels of output (based on prewar patterns) produce an initial employment deficiency of 4.7 million. All estimates are derived from stated assumptions and are not to be construed as forecasts. Page 163.

Union health and welfare plans

The number of workers covered by health-benefit plans negotiated by collective bargaining between trade-unions and management more than doubled since 1945, according to recent estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics—rising from a minimum of some 600,000 to 1,250,000. The unions and industries involved, the recent growth of the movement to include health and welfare provisions in collective agreements, and its increasing importance are noted; sample contract clauses and a selected list of references are added. This article starts on page 191.

A second article, by the secretary-tresaurer of the New York Dressmakers' Joint Board, describes the development of such provisions for the Ladies' Garment Workers, furnishes specific data on the types and costs of benefits currently paid by the Joint Board of the Dress and Waistmakers' Union, and discusses pivotal problems of wider application in the administration of such funds. It follows on page 201.

Wartime and postwar experiences of Connecticut small-arms workers

Employment in small-arms production in Connecticut declined more than 35 percent from the peak war period (summer of 1943) to the spring of 1945. Studies made by the BLS in the spring of 1945 and the winter of 1945–46 showed that 20 percent of the war workers were unemployed and seeking work during the later period. Six months later, the jobless represented only 7 percent of the total. Slightly over a fourth of these workers were still with their same wartime employers. Average weekly earnings declined from $69 in the spring of 1945 to $46 in the winter of 1945–46. Page 215.

Employment in southern manufactures

Manufacturing employment in the South reached a maximum wartime expansion of 71 percent, only slightly below that of the Nation as a whole. Despite subsequent contraction, employment 1 year after VJ-day was still 40 percent above the prewar level. Although the relative position of the South in the Nation's economy has remained approximately the same, some of the diversification acquired during the war period has carried over into 1946. While all States in the region participated in the wartime expansion, the Southwestern States and some of the smaller industrial States of the Southeast have better maintained their increased share in Southern manufacturing employment. Page 305.

Labor policies and programs in Japan under the occupation

According to the findings of the Advisory Committee on Labor in Japan, labor organizations in that country have developed since the defeat at a most spectacular rate. Freedom of association and of collective bargaining have been assured by the abrogation of prohibitive laws and regulations issued before and during the war and by new progressive labor legislation, such as the Trade-Union Act of December 1945 and the Labor Relations Adjustment Act of October 1946. A reform of the Japanese protective labor legislation is under way; it may include a scheme of minimum wage rates, put an end to wage discrimination against women, and raise basic labor standards to a level compatible with the new status of labor in Japan. As an important device of employment policies, the public employment service in Japan must be expanded and strengthened. Page 239.

Current statistics of labor interest in selected periods [1]

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit or base period	1946			1945	1939: average for year
		December	November	October	December	
Employment and unemployment						
Civilian labor force (BC): Total	Thousands	58,430	58,970	58,990	53,130	[2] 54,230
Male	do	41,990	41,950	41,820	35,950	[2] 40,950
Female	do	16,440	17,020	17,170	17,180	[2] 13,280
Employed [3]	do	56,310	57,040	57,030	51,160	[2] 46,930
Male	do	40,300	40,430	40,270	34,450	[2] 35,600
Female	do	16,010	16,610	16,760	16,710	[2] 11,300
Nonagricultural	do	49,100	49,140	48,410	44,000	[2] 37,430
Agricultural	do	7,210	7,900	8,620	7,160	[2] 9,500
Unemployed	do	2,120	1,930	1,960	1,970	[2] 7,300
Male	do	1,690	1,520	1,550	1,500	[2] 5,350
Female	do	430	410	410	470	[2] 1,950
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total. [3]	do	40,795	40,381	40,178	37,463	30,353
Manufacturing	do	15,048	14,967	14,763	13,059	10,078
Mining	do	819	828	827	802	845
Construction [4]	do	1,642	1,808	2,040	1,042	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,977	4,005	3,987	3,896	2,912
Trade	do	8,610	8,259	8,040	7,959	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	5,260	5,244	5,208	4,936	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction.	do	5,439	5,270	5,313	5,769	3,988
Military personnel	do	2,204	2,441	2,477	8,576	367
Production-worker employment:						
Manufacturing	do	12,281	12,218	12,026	10,519	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	326	334	334	333	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC).	do	1,353	1,382	1,376	1,397	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	2,060	2,503	2,624	2,028	[5] 2,248
Hours and earnings						
Average weekly earnings:						
Manufacturing		$46.86	$45.74	$45.68	$41.21	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining		-------	$61.49	$62.54	[6] $56.29	27.1
Retail trade		-------	$33.04	$33.19	[6] $28.88	43.0
Building construction (private)		$60.32	$57.65	$59.20	$51.85	32.6
Average weekly hours:						
Manufacturing	Hours	40.9	40.2	40.4	41.5	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining	do	-------	41.9	42.9	[6] 44.9	$23.88
Retail trade	do	-------	39.6	40.0	[6] 40.0	$21.17
Building construction (private)	do	38.4	37.2	38.8	37.1	$30.39
Average hourly earnings:						
Manufacturing		$1.145	$1.139	$1.130	$0.994	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining		-------	$1.473	$1.459	[6] $1.263	$0.886
Retail trade		-------	$0.918	$0.908	[6] $0.800	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.569	$1.549	$1.526	$1.397	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry		-------	$1.104	$1.093	[6] $0.951	$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1941.		-------	$1.106	$1.095	[6] $0.949	$0.640
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE).		[7] $4.83	-------	$4.94	[7] $4.40	[7] $1.53
Industrial injuries and labor turn-over						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing per million man-hours worked.		-------	-------	[8] 17.0	[8] 18.3	15.4
Labor turn-over per 100 employees in manufacturing:						
Total separations		4.3	4.9	6.3	5.9	[5] 3.5
Quits		2.9	3.7	4.7	4.0	[5] 0.7
Lay-offs		0.9	0.7	1.0	1.3	[5] 2.7
Total accessions		4.1	5.7	6.8	6.9	[5] 2.8
Labor-management disputes						
Work stoppages beginning in month:						
Number		180	310	450	134	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	95	450	290	50	98
All work stoppages during month:						
Number of man-days idle	do	3,065	4,750	4,500	7,718	1,484
Man-days idle as percent of available working time.		0.4	0.7	0.6	1.4	0.28

See footnotes at end of table

Current statistics of labor interest in selected periods [1]—Continued

Item	Unit or base period	1946			1945	1939: average for year
		December	November	October	December	
Prices						
Consumers' price index (moderate income families in large cities): All items.	1935–39=100	153.3	152.2	148.4	129.9	99.4
Food	1935–39=100	185.9	187.7	180.0	141.4	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	176.5	171.0	167.0	149.4	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100			[8] 108.8	[8] 108.3	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	115.5	114.8	114.4	110.3	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	177.1	171.0	167.6	148.3	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	136.1	132.5	130.8	124.8	100.7
Retail food price index (large cities): All foods.	1935–39=100	185.9	187.7	180.0	141.4	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	141.6	140.6	138.5	109.2	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	197.8	203.6	190.7	131.2	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	200.9	198.5	202.4	136.2	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	201.1	201.6	214.6	193.2	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	185.0	184.5	176.5	177.3	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	176.2	167.8	166.5	124.9	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	207.3	244.4	147.9	125.1	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	175.3	170.5	167.5	126.6	100.6
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100	[9] 140.9	[9] 139.7	[9] 134.1	107.1	77.1
All commodities other than farm products.	1926=100	[9] 134.8	[9] 132.9	[9] 127.1	101.6	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods.	1926=100	[9] 124.7	[9] 120.7	[9] 115.8	100.5	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	168.1	169.8	165.3	131.5	65.3
Foods	1926=100	160.1	165.4	157.9	108.6	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments (BFDC)	Millions	$15,895	$14,202	$14,673	$14,272	[5] $7,005
Consumer expenditures for goods and services (BFDC).	do			[10] $32,100	[10] $26,260	[10] $15,350
Retail sales (BFDC)	do	$10,282	$9,086	$8,911	$8,489	[5] $4,539
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total.	1935–39=100	176	182	184	161	100
Manufactures	1935–39=100	184	191	191	167	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	131	135	146	126	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons.	42,320	37,390	56,000	46,955	32,905
Car loadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	131	141	149	119	101
Electric energy (FPC): Total	Millions of kw.-hr.	24,849	23,943	24,430	22,014	([11])
Utilities (production for public use)	do	20,809	19,949	20,222	18,108	[5] 11,832
Industrial establishments	do	4,040	3,994	4,208	3,906	([11])
Construction						
Construction expenditures	Millions	$1,057	$1,144	$1,237	$552	[5] $527
Value of urban building construction started.	do	$226	$268	$335	$303	([11])
New nonfarm family dwelling units		35,200	46,600	60,200	29,500	[5] 41,200

[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] 10-month average—March to December 1940—not comparable with later figures. Revisions are in process.

[3] Excludes employees on public emergency work, these being included in unemployed civilian labor force. Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments differs from nonagricultural employment in civilian labor force mainly because of the inclusion in the latter of such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

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

[5] December.

[6] November.

[7] January.

[8] September.

[9] Includes current motor vehicle prices. See footnote on page 292 of this issue.

[10] Third quarter.

[11] Not available.

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Full Employment Patterns, 1950: Part 1[1]

By JEROME CORNFIELD, W. DUANE EVANS, and MARVIN HOFFENBERG, *of the Bureau of Labor Statistics*

The Problem of Full Employment

THE major economic problem of the United States in the decade preceding the outbreak of war in Europe was unemployment. By 1933 one-fourth of the labor force was unemployed, and even at the height of the subsequent recovery one out of every eight persons in the labor force was on emergency work or was seeking work.

Large scale unemployment may be regarded from different points of view—as under-utilization of human and material resources, as a maldistribution of the necessities and comforts of life, or perhaps most significantly as a cumulation of individual frustrations which may affect the very fabric of society, leading to political and social instability. Regardless of viewpoint, the achievement of high and stable levels of employment is clearly of paramount importance for the United States, and, because of the inevitable repercussions of domestic unemployment, for the rest of the world as well. Success in this endeavor will determine whether the period after full reconversion to peacetime production is to be one of expanding opportunity, security for the individual, and rising standards of living both here and abroad,

[1] This article (presented in two parts; part 2 will appear in the March issue) is a summary of a bulletin, to be published in the near future, entitled Full Employment Patterns, 1950: The Structure of the American Economy Under Full Employment Conditions, in which a more exhaustive discussion may be found. The study was prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division under the direction of W. Duane Evans, Chief. Extensive use was made of data and techniques developed in order divisions of the Bureau. Special mention should be made of the contributions of Dorothy S. Brady, Dorothy Durand, Alexander Findlay, Celia Star Gody, Stanley Lebergott, Lester Pearlman, and Charles D. Stewart. The study of interindustry relationships, basic to the analysis, was prepared for the Bureau under the direction of Prof. Wassily Leontief, of Harvard University. Data and techniques developed by Neal Potter of the Office of Price Administration, Richard Musgrave of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, Wylie M. Kilpatrick of the Bureau of the Census, George B. Galloway of the Twentieth Century Fund, and Werner Baer of the U. S. Tariff Commission were used in the preparation of the estimates. The uses to which the data have been put and the interpretations made are the responsibility of the authors.

or one of insecurity, low and possibly declining levels of living, and heightened tensions, both domestic and international. No more important domestic problem faces the Nation.

The present article is a summary of a comprehensive study which attempts to evaluate in quantitative terms what is involved in achieving and maintaining high and stable levels of employment after full adjustment to peacetime conditions. The year 1950 has been selected as a reference period for the analysis, because, while not too remote, it should nevertheless be relatively free of the present transitional disturbances.

Before proceeding with the analysis itself, one thing must be clearly stated. No unconditional forecasts for the year 1950 are presented at any place in the text. Specific quantitative assumptions regarding the size of various economic magnitudes in 1950 are made, and the purpose of the analysis is to investigate the logical consequences of these assumptions. As will appear, none of the assumptions is made arbitrarily, but there are varying likelihoods that the conditions they represent will actually prevail in 1950. Other assumptions may appear more reasonable to some readers, and a later repetition of the entire study, incorporating different assumptions, may be necessary to throw light on other problems and possibilities. To assist the reader in identifying the key assumptions as they appear in the text, they are numbered and italicized.

Framework of Analysis

We may recognize at the outset that the most important factors determining the characteristics of the American economy in the future will continue to be the habits, preferences, and behaviour of the American people. The present analysis is not concerned with any perfect or ideal economy, but rather with the kind which could develop in 1950 as a result of free and unrestricted choice. The past behaviour of the American people, as indicated by available statistics and studies, has been used throughout as a guide. For example, estimates of the size of the labor force in 1950 are based not on any preconceived notions with respect to the desirability or undesirability of having married women work, but rather on analysis of how many married women have entered the labor market in the past. Similarly, the estimates of consumer expenditure embody no judgments with respect to the relative virtues of thrift or extravagance; they are solely an attempt to appraise objectively the future preferences of the American people in terms of their past actions.

There are certain key aspects of our economic behaviour that will have a crucial effect on the kind of economy we have in 1950. The number of persons who are likely to be in the labor market seeking work

will obviously be of importance; the way in which their income is spent will affect both the over-all level of production and its distribution between industries. Another factor of importance is the level of productivity, which in turn depends to a considerable extent on the rapidity with which different industries modernize their plant and equipment. Working hours, the volume of foreign trade, and the level of government expenditures will each have their effect. The present study is essentially an attempt to project these and other factors to 1950 on the basis of past behaviour, and to put the separate analyses together by use of a consistent framework of analysis.

Chart 1 provides a graphic summary of the basic analytic framework used. At the beginning, the total number of jobs necessary to provide full employment in 1950 is estimated. After assuming wage rates, working hours, rates of taxation and other factor payments, estimates of total purchasing power—that is, the income accruing to consumers, business, and government—are obtained. The volume of purchasing power so derived is one of the important determinants of the final demand for goods and services.

From estimates of purchasing power, we proceed to estimates of demand for specific goods and services. The amount that consumers spend for the products of different industries will obviously be largely determined by the amount of income they receive. Business expenditure for capital goods is, in sharp contrast, determined by a variety of institutional and technological factors in addition to the volume of purchasing power. Other important components of demand not uniquely determined by current purchasing power are those of government and foreign countries Previous experience at various levels of activity and trade furnishes some guide for making reasonable assumptions on these points.

The estimates of demand obtained are in terms of final products. They show the demand for automobiles but not for steel, for shoes but not for leather, for residential construction but not for lumber. To proceed from demand for final products to demand for raw and intermediate goods as well, a special technique relating the two is required. By this means, estimates of total output of each industry implied by the derived level of demand are obtained.[2]

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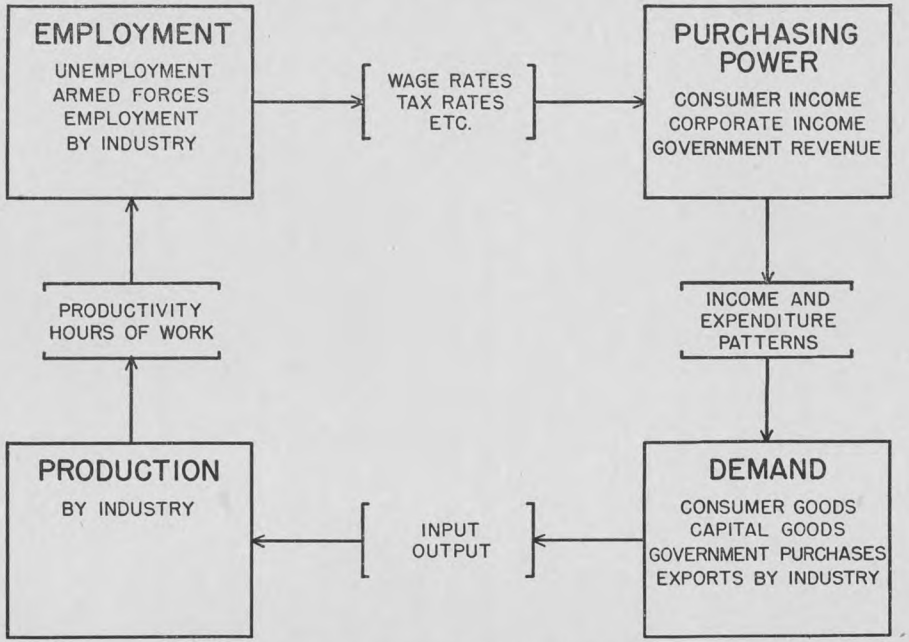
[2] The wage, tax, and profit rates originally specified are for the year 1950. Accordingly, the resulting estimates of income and demand for final goods are also in terms of 1950 price levels. To use these figures with other data, it is necessary to convert to a 1939 basis. This might appear to be an insuperable obstacle, but actually the basis for the conversion is implicit in the previous computations.

If the wage, tax, and profit position of an industry is fixed, its price level is determined except insofar as it purchases materials or services from other industries. If wage, tax, and profit levels are specified for all industries, then the price levels for all are also determined. The study of interindustry relations (p. 187) furnishes the materials needed to evaluate the price relatives for the separate industries.

CHART 1

INTERRELATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT, INCOME, DEMAND, AND PRODUCTION



Finally, the computed total outputs for the separate industries are converted by means of estimates of productivity and working hours into estimates of employment. Comparison of the volume of employment so derived with the volume initially assumed provides a measure of whether the level of demand may be expected to equal, fall short of, or exceed the full-employment level of supply. If the employment so derived falls short of full employment, a change must take place in the basic relationships and institutional factors which together determine the total volume of demand within the economy, or unemployment will ensue.

The computations to this point do not yield full employment, so one additional step is necessary to complete the framework of the analysis. The effect of any changes necessary to attain full employment will be to increase the estimated levels of consumption expenditure, of investment expenditure, or both. We may assume that the necessary alteration has been achieved by one route or the other, and bring the structure into balance by a partial repetition of the original computations. The results will give patterns in detail for an economy which is internally balanced, which provides 59 million civilian jobs, and which has a basic structure similar to that of the United States. The differences between these patterns and our position today represent, subject to the limitations of the data used and the assumptions incorporated in the analysis, the changes which may be expected to take place if full employment is achieved in 1950.

Labor Force and the Composition of Civilian Employment

The labor force of the United States is subject to continuous long-term growth, partly because of population growth, and partly because of increased rates of participation in the labor force for many groups within the population. Thus, in 1900 only 19 percent of the women aged 20 to 64 were in the labor force; by 1940, participation had increased to 29 percent. Had the 1900 rate prevailed in 1940 the labor force would have been smaller by almost 4 million persons.

An appraisal of the strength of all the forces that may influence the size of the 1950 labor force has been undertaken by the U. S. Bureau of the Census.[3] This study indicates that the operation of normal prewar trends would result in a labor force of 61.5 million persons

[3] Normal Growth of the Labor Force in the United States: 1940 to 1950, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, June 12, 1944, Series P–44, No. 12. The projections given in the Census Bureau study refer to the last week in March, those in the text to the average for the year. Because of seasonal variation in the size of the labor force, the yearly average is about 1 million above that for March. Small adjustments have also been made for off-continent armed forces not included in the 1940 enumeration. An additional upward adjustment of 1 million to account for the effect of the Census Bureau's revision of procedures beginning in July 1945 has also been made.

by 1950, 6 million higher than in 1940. The effect of each of these trends is summarized in the following statement.

	Net change from 1940 (millions of persons)
Increase in population 14 years of age and over	+4.5
Increasing age of schooling	—.3
Earlier retirement	—.2
Decreasing participation of males 20 to 64 years of age	—.5
Increasing participation of females 20 to 64 years of age	+2.5
Net change, 1940 to 1950	+6.0
1940 labor force (actual)	55.5
1950 "normal" labor force (estimated)	61.5

These estimates are usually referred to as estimates of "normal" labor force because they make no allowance for possible disturbances introduced by the war. An appraisal of the wartime experience [4] suggests that 1.0 million workers may remain in addition to those composing the "normal" labor force, if reasonably full employment is attained by 1950. (I) *Deducting an allowance of 1.5 million for the size of the armed forces and 2.0 million for "minimum frictional" unemployment, it is concluded that full employment in 1950 will require about 59 million civilian jobs.*[5] (See tabulation following.)

	Millions of persons
1950 "normal" labor force	61.5
Net wartime entries expected to remain (add)	1.0
1950 labor force	62.5
Size of armed forces (deduct)	1.5
Minimum unemployment (deduct)	2.0
1950 civilian employment	59.0

Whether we actually attain this level of civilian employment depends on 1950 levels of production. The remainder of this analysis is devoted either directly or indirectly to determining this level of production. Before we proceed, however, we must note that there are important segments of the economy in which employment is to a considerable extent independent of production. This is true for agriculture, for most categories of self-employment, and for several others as well. The statement below summarizes estimates of the size of these semiautonomous components of the labor force in 1950. The remaining component consists of wage and salary jobs in private nonagricul-

[4] "Extra" Workers in the Postwar Labor Force, *in* Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (p. 841).

[5] For the convenience of the reader, major assumptions are italicized and numbered.

tural establishments. (II) *Full employment will involve filling 39 million such jobs.*

	Millions of persons
Civilian employment	59.0
Agricultural	8.0
Self-employed	4.6
Unpaid family workers	1.7
Wage and salary workers	1.7
Nonagricultural	51.0
Self-employed	6.0
Unpaid family workers	.4
Wage and salary workers	44.6
Domestics	2.0
Government employees	5.0
Adjustment for noncomparabilities [1]	—1.5
Employees in private establishments	39.1

[1] Estimates of the number of employees in different industries are usually obtained from reports of employers. Estimates of the size of the labor force, civilian employment, and unemployment, such as those used in this section, are based on statistics obtained by the Census Bureau by direct enumeration of individuals. From April 1940 to August 1945 the number of employees in nonagricultural establishments as estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from employer reports and by the Census Bureau from direct enumeration have differed by several millions. To proceed from estimates of the labor force to estimates of employment in different industries it is therefore necessary to use an arbitrary adjustment factor which allows for those differences.

Productivity in 1950

The level of production that must be attained if the economy is to employ 39 million people in private nonagricultural establishments will depend on how much each person produces, i. e., on productivity. The past peacetime record on productivity is one of fairly continuous small increases from year to year. In all manufacturing industries combined, output per wage-earner man-hour increased at a rate slightly above 3 percent per year during the period 1919–39. In mining, the annual rate of increase was about 3 percent. The small year-to-year gains in productivity resulted in an impressive advance for the 20-year period. An annual rate of increase of 3 percent implies an increase in output per man-hour of 80 percent over a 20-year period.

The steady upward movement of productivity reflects the influence of a large number of small changes—technical developments, the accumulation of capital equipment, improvements in organization, better management, improved working and living conditions, the reduction in working hours, and the like. The most important of these factors are technical developments and improvements in the character of capital equipment. Thus, fundamentally, advance in productivity arises from increasing technical knowledge and the application of this knowledge to economic activity.

The broad trends in productivity conceal important differences among individual industries. In some industries, man-hour output has not changed significantly over a long period of time. These are generally the older industries with a mature technology, in which the volume of output has not expanded or has actually declined. In the manufacture of bread and bakery products, for example, output per man-hour in 1940 was only 3 percent higher than in 1924. Other industries show rapid increases in productivity during the period when production is expanding and new production techniques are being evolved, but more modest progress thereafter. In the automobile industry, output per man-hour increased strikingly during the twenties, with a total advance of 134 percent between 1919 and 1929. From 1929 to 1939, however, the increase was only 19 percent.[6] It is of interest to note that peak production for the entire period was achieved in 1929. Still other industries have experienced rapid advances in man-hour output which have continued up to the present and there is, in these cases, no reason to assume any decline in the rate of progress in the near future, once transitional adjustments are made. In rayon manufacture, productivity doubled between 1929 and 1934 and very nearly doubled again from 1934 to 1939.

It is clear that the past experience of individual industries should be of considerable assistance in estimating future levels of productivity. For example, it is reasonable to assume that man-hour output in rayon manufacture will increase substantially by 1950, and that in the automobile industry the gains will be more modest. Of course, estimates can only be made of general levels, since short-term fluctuations can occur for a variety of reasons. The actual level of man-hour output achieved in an industry at any particular time will also depend on such factors as the volume of production, degree of utilization of capacity, composition of the work force, labor turn-over, hours and shift arrangements, and the state of labor relations.

The estimates shown in table 1 are not forecasts of productivity for 1950. The figures for each group are uniformly based on an extrapolation of trends for the component industries. In particular, the probable effects of new techniques developed as a result of the war may not be fully taken into account. A forecast of productivity in 1950 for a particular industry would require, in addition to an examination

[6] The very substantial improvements in quality are not reflected in the productivity index. It is clear that if it were possible to take account of quality changes, the gain from 1929 to 1939 would be considerably higher, for the average car produced in the late thirties was heavier and incorporated more extra equipment than its predecessors. Nevertheless, this factor does not affect the conclusion that the rate of progress during the thirties was slower than in the twenties, for the improvements in quality during the twenties (likewise not reflected in the productivity figures) were, if anything, greater than those made in the later period.

of earlier experience, a detailed analysis of possible changes in production techniques, probable amounts of reequipment, alterations in products made, and the availability of new or better materials.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated change in productivity, 1939–50, by industry group* [1]

Industry group	Output per man-hour, 1950 (1939=100)	Industry group	Output per man-hour, 1950 (1939=100)
Manufacturing:		Manufacturing—Continued.	
Iron and steel and their products	124	Food	119
Electrical machinery	130	Tobacco	117
Machinery, except electrical	128	Paper and allied products	134
Transportation equipment, including automobiles	136	Printing, publishing, and allied industries	124
Nonferrous metals and their products	114	Chemicals and allied products	144
Lumber and timber basic products	121	Products of petroleum and coal	138
Furniture and finished lumber products	118	Rubber products	128
Stone, clay, and glass products	126	Miscellaneous	123
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	128	Mining	125
Apparel and other finished textile products	123	Transportation	142
Leather and leather products	128	Public utilities	141
		Trade	119
		Finance, services, and miscellaneous	115
		Construction	109

[1] These estimates are not forecasts for 1950. The figures for each group are based on extrapolation of trends for the component industries. In particular, probable effects of new techniques developed as a result of the war may not be fully taken into account. A forecast for a particular industry would require, in addition to an examination of earlier experience, a detailed analysis of possible changes in production techniques, probable amounts of reequipment, alterations in products made, and the availability of new or better materials.

(III) *For most of the separate industries, the increase assumed between 1939 and 1950 is from 20 to 30 percent.* However, there is wide variation among the estimates for the separate industries, reflecting divergent trends in the past. In those few industries which show no upward trend in recent years, it is assumed that productivity will be at the 1939 level, and in several other industries the estimates imply only small increases. On the other hand, increases estimated for other industries range up to 90 percent.

The projections made for 1950 are felt to be quite "conservative," in the sense that the assumed productivity gains for 1939–50 are not exceedingly large; the percentage increases are generally smaller than those which occurred over the period 1929–39.

The National Income and Its Distribution

Production depends on demand, the most important component of which is consumer demand. But consumer demand does not arise in a vacuum; it depends on the level and distribution of consumer income. Income is a monetary magnitude, however, and is dependent on the wage rates (and consequently prices) in which it is expressed. (IV) *It has been assumed for convenience that wage rates in 1950 will be*

approximately 15 percent above their level in May 1946.[7] (V) *It has been further assumed that prewar working hours will prevail in 1950.* Together, these assumptions imply a full employment wage and salary income of 122.8 billion dollars in 1950. Past relations between wage and salary payments and other forms of income provide estimates of the other components of national income. These estimates are summarized in table 2. Some of the components are at their wartime level, others are well above it. In particular, total wage and salary income exceeds the 1944 level by 11 percent, while dividends, because

TABLE 2.—*National income and gross national product, 1950, 1945, and 1941*[1]

[In billions]

No.	Item	1950[2]	1945	1941
1	Wages and salaries	$122.8	$111.4	$60.8
2	Supplements to wages and salaries	5.4	3.1	3.7
3	Total compensation of employees (1+2)	128.2	114.5	64.5
4	Corporate net income (5+6)	14.9	9.0	8.5
5	Dividends	10.9	4.5	4.5
6	Undistributed profits	4.0	4.5	4.0
7	Entrepreneurial net income (8+9)	27.0	25.6	15.8
8	Agriculture	14.0	12.5	6.3
9	Nonagriculture	13.0	13.1	9.6
10	Interest	} 14.7	11.8	8.0
11	Net rents and royalties			
12	National income (3+4+7+10+11)	184.8	161.0	96.9
13	Undistributed profits (deduct)	4.0	4.5	4.0
14	Employers' social security contributions (deduct)[3]	5.1	} 3.8	2.6
15	Employees' social security contributions (deduct)[3]	3.1		
16	Transfer payments (add)	5.4	8.1	2.5
17	Income payments (12−13−14−15+16)	178.0	160.7	92.7
18	Personal taxes (deduct)	16.1	21.0	4.0
19	Disposable income (17−18)	161.9	139.7	88.7
20	Depreciation and other reserves (add)	11.6	9.8	9.1
21	Business taxes (add)	19.1	28.6	18.5
22	Inventory revaluation	----	(4)	−3.2
23	Adjustment for discrepancies	----	−2.0	−1.1
24	Gross national product (12+20+21+22+23)	215.5	197.3	120.2

[1] Totals may not add because of rounding.
[2] See full study for details of assumptions. The relationship of the parts has been estimated. The dollar magnitudes should be regarded as assumed. They are *not* forecasts.
[3] Includes contributions to government retirement funds.
[4] Less than $50,000,000.

of the removal of excess profits taxes, are more than double this level. The total income, 185 billion dollars, exceeds the wartime peak by a substantial margin.

The huge magnitude of the national income aggregates is likely to conceal the fact that low incomes may be far from uncommon even under full employment. It is necessary in any event to estimate the distribution of consumer units (that is, families as well as single individuals who do not pool their incomes or expenditures with

[7] The actual wage level assumed is not of critical importance for the present study. A higher wage level assumption would give a higher national income figure, but would also increase the price levels in which it is expressed. Since the dollar magnitudes involved in the analysis are reduced to 1939 price levels at a later stage in the analysis, the effect on the final results of assuming higher or lower wage levels would be slight. The important assumption is that the difference between industries in average wage levels is the same in 1950 as in May 1946.

others) by size of income in order to examine the probable volume and distribution of consumer expenditures, required at a later stage in the analysis. But these same estimates, based on previous and current experience, are also useful in appraising the human impact of even the high levels of national income derived above. The estimates imply that one-sixth of all consumer units will receive incomes of less than $1,500, and one-twelfth of them incomes below $1,000 (table 3). Even though the total volume of civilian goods for 1950 implied by the assumptions far exceeds that characterizing the most prosperous prewar years, it appears that large numbers of American families might still receive incomes which could not purchase the goods and services required to maintain a satisfactory or desirable standard of living.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated distribution of consuming units by size of money income, 1950, 1942, and 1935–36* [1]

Money income class	Millions of consuming units [1]		
	1950 (estimated)	1942 [2]	1935–36 [3]
All incomes	45.0	41.2	39.4
Under $500	1.1	3.5	6.7
$500–$999	2.7	6.6	11.7
$1,000–$1,499	3.7	6.6	8.7
$1,500–$1,999	5.0	6.0	5.2
$2,000–$2,999	10.9	7.9	4.4
$3,000–$4,999	14.2	7.3	1.8
$5,000 and over	7.4	3.3	.9

[1] Consuming units are families whose members pool incomes and expenditures, and individuals who do not pool income and expenditures with other persons.
[2] Office of Price Administration, Civilian Spending and Savings, 1941 and 1942.
[3] National Resources Committee, Consumer Incomes in the United States, Washington, 1938.

Government Expenditures and Revenues

Normal government operations at all levels, Federal, State and local, have an important effect on the level of employment. Government wage and salary and "transfer" payments provide one of the sources of demand for consumer goods and services. Purchases of materials and finished goods for government purposes provide a market for the products of many industries, and for some, like shipbuilding, aircraft, and construction, a very important one. Taxes levied on business enterprises enter costs and affect either selling prices, payments to factors of production, or both. Taxes on individuals determine how much of their income they are free to spend for goods and services.

Because of these effects, it is necessary to prepare detailed estimates of probable levels of government expenditure and revenue. Eventually, the decisions that will determine actual expenditure and revenue in 1950 will be made legislatively. The present estimates are consequently neither forecasts, a statement of present government inten-

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tions, nor a model of an ideal structure of government revenue and expenditure. They are best interpreted as an approximate picture of what might happen under full employment conditions in 1950 if there were no basic change in the scope of government activities from the prewar period, except those alterations which are an aftermath of the war itself.

(VI) *Three assumptions are basic to the present estimates:*

1. *The scope of government activity in 1950 will be substantially that prevailing in prewar years.*

2. *Government expenditures and revenues will be in balance.*

3. *No reduction in the size of the debt will be attempted during 1950.*

These are neither forecasts nor statements of objectives which are necessarily desirable. Essentially we wish to know the inflationary or deflationary prospects for 1950 under these assumptions.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Federal, State, and local expenditures for calendar year 1950, and actual expenditures, fiscal year 1941*

[In billions]

Type of expenditure	Federal		State and local	
	1950	1941	1950	1941
Defense	[1] $5.6	$5.8		
Compensation of employees [2]	4.7	3.5	$8.5	$4.5
Interest payments	5.6	1.1	.5	.6
Construction	2.0	.9	2.6	2.1
Other payments for goods and services [3]	.9	.9	.9	.7
Total entering gross national product	[4] 18.8	12.2	12.5	7.9
Social security	6.1	1.4	2.3	1.8
Benefits and public assistance	2.1	.6	1.0	1.2
Administration	.1	.1	.1	.1
Additions to reserves	3.9	.7	1.2	.5
Veterans' payments	2.0	.4		
Miscellaneous	.6	.6	.4	1.2
Total not entering gross national product	8.7	2.4	2.7	3.0
Total outlays	27.5	14.6	[4] 15.1	10.9

[1] Includes $0.1 billion construction; excludes payments to civilian personnel of defense agencies but includes payments to armed forces personnel.
[2] Includes government contribution to employee retirement funds and payments to civilian personnel of defense agencies.
[3] Includes farm benefit payments and purchases of private output.
[4] Does not add exactly to detailed figures shown, because of rounding of data.

Retention of the prewar scope of government activities does not mean that expenditures will remain at prewar levels. National defense will cost more; interest on the national debt will have increased; payments of social security benefits and additions to reserves will, under existing legislation, be higher. Total outlays are estimated at 42.6 billion dollars—27.5 billion Federal and 15.1 billion State and local. This compares with a total outlay of 17.8 billion dollars in 1939 and 25.5 billion in 1941 (table 4).

The estimates imply that government will take for its own use a smaller part of the private product than in any peacetime year since 1930. Excluding defense expenditures, the percentage is less than the portion used by government in 1929. As a market for the private segment, government purchases are set at approximately 5 percent of private output, as contrasted with about 6½ percent in the thirties and 4½ percent in the twenties.

Under full employment conditions, a Federal budget of 27 billion dollars can be balanced with prewar tax rates. A first approximation to total revenues, using the 1941 tax structure, yields a surplus of about 4 billion dollars. (VII) *A tax structure with 1939 excise rates, 1940 corporate income tax rates, personal income tax rates between 1940 and 1941 rates, and 1939 rates for all other taxes except social security gives the required revenues.* This tax structure has been arbitrarily assumed to yield neither surplus nor deficit. The details of the estimates are shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Federal, State, and local revenues, estimated for calendar year 1950, and actual for 1942 fiscal and 1939 calendar years*

[In billions]

Source of revenue	Federal			State and local		
	1950	1942	1939	1950	1942	1939
Total revenue	$27.5	$16.9	$5.5	$15.1	$10.7	$9.7
Personal income	12.2	[1] 3.8	.9	.7	.3	.2
Estate and gift	.5	.4	.4	.1	.1	.1
Corporate income	5.1	[1] 7.6	1.0	.7	.3	.1
Customs	.7	.4	.3			
Property				5.1	4.6	4.3
Liquor and tobacco	2.0	1.8				
Gasoline	.5	.4		1.6	1.0	.8
General sales			2.1	1.2	.6	.5
Other excises	.9	1.2		.7	.4	.4
Miscellaneous				1.9	1.0	
Social security	5.6	1.2	.8	1.7	1.1	3.2
Nontax revenues				1.3	1.4	

[1] Tax accruals for 1941.

In summary, even in the absence of any expansion in the scope of government activity, expenditures may be expected to exceed prewar levels by substantial margins. Given full employment conditions, however, it should be possible to finance the increased expenditure with a tax structure departing but little from that prevailing before the war.

The 1950 Level of Prices

Consumer expenditure of one dollar will generate some employment, but the amount depends (among other things) on the prices in which that expenditure is expressed. These prices will in turn be determined by prevailing levels of labor productivity, wage and salary and other factor payments, and the level of output. The manner in which the

1950 level of prices is determined by each of these variables, while not without interest, is omitted from the present discussion. The results are summarized in table 6. They show that at full employment levels of output in 1950 the higher wage rates and higher rates of return on investment that have been assumed could be maintained at a price level no higher than that prevailing in the summer of 1946.

TABLE 6.—*Price level, estimated for 1950, and actual for 1945, 1944, and 1941* [1]

[1939=100]

Item	1950 [2]		1945 (actual)	1944 (actual)	1941 (actual)
	Consumption model	Investment model			
Consumers' purchases	[3] 131	[3] 137	129	126	106
Producers' durables	131	129	114	113	108
Construction	[4] 135	[4] 135	139	124	112
Exports	128	132	135	133	113
All items	131	136	130	126	107

[1] The price level for 1950 is not a forecast, but the level of prices implied by the income payments in table 2 and a full employment level of output.

[2] The indexes for 1950 are not strictly comparable with those for 1945 and prior years in respect to consumers' purchases and construction. The different models of a full employment economy have been investigated, one obtained from an augmented volume of consumer demand, the other from an augmented volume of investment demand. For a more complete explanation see part 2.

[3] Includes price changes on expenditures by farm and small-city families which have been excluded by the Bureau of Labor Statistics Index of Consumers' Prices for 1945 and prior years.

[4] Includes maintenance, which has been excluded from the historical series for 1945 and prior years.

There are two reasons for this. First, at considerably higher levels of output many fixed costs, such as depreciation and interest, can be spread over a larger volume, thus reducing unit costs. Second, the productivity advances assumed offset to a considerable extent the increases in wage rates incorporated in the analysis.

The results are not, of course, a forecast of the actual level of 1950 prices. The benefits of technological advance may take the form of higher pay to workers, improvements in the quality of goods sold, lower prices, or any combination of these. The price estimates may thus be interpreted to show that in 1950, under full employment conditions, 1946 rates of remuneration will be compatible with lowered prices, or 1946 prices will be compatible with increased rates of remuneration, but they are not intended to suggest which outcome is the more likely one.

Consumer Demand

The possibility of achieving full employment in the coming years will be decisively affected by future levels of consumer demand. There are two key facts that must be remembered in appraising the effect of consumer expenditure on the level of employment. First, as consumer income increases, expenditure tends to increase as well, but usually not to the full extent of the income increase. Second, as in-

come increases, expenditure for certain types of goods tends to increase less rapidly than for others. Expenditure for food, for example, does not increase as rapidly as that for passenger cars.

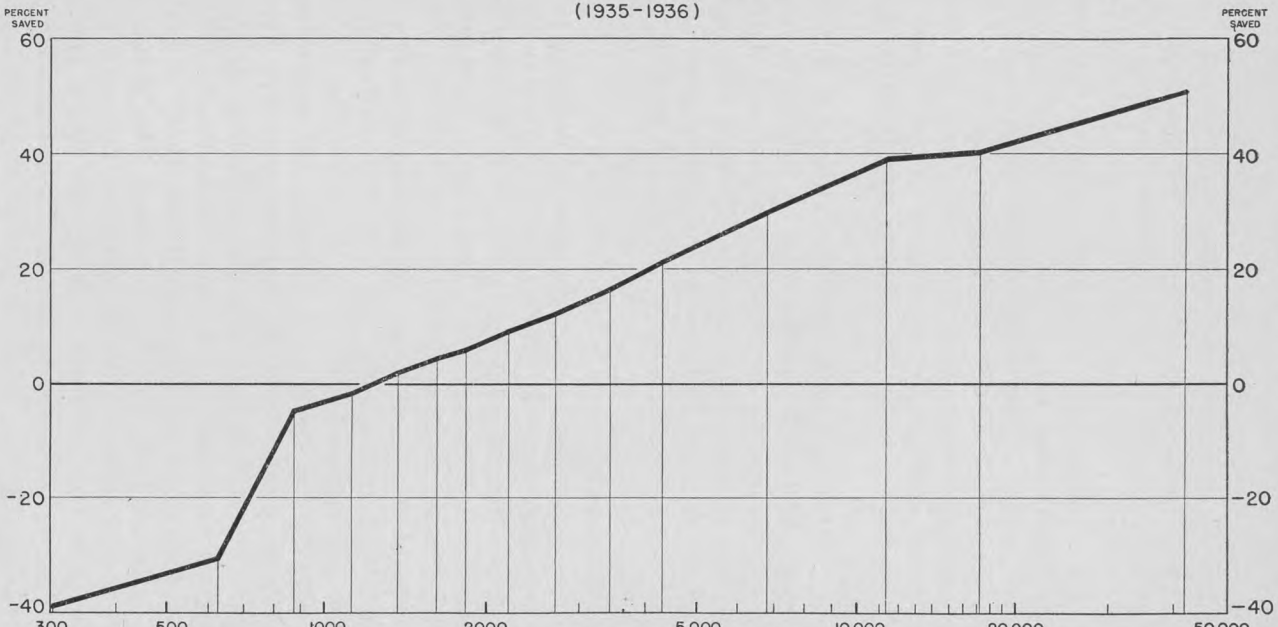
It is helpful in an initial consideration of the subject to inspect the way in which families with incomes of different sizes divide that income between expenditure and savings. The differences in this division provide an indication of the effect of income on consumption, although these differences at the different income levels are of course affected by factors other than income. Chart 2 indicates the extent to which the percent of income saved was itself a function of income in the prewar period. Families with incomes below $1,250 incurred deficits, but as income rose above that amount, savings increased quite rapidly. At incomes of $2,500, 10 percent of that income was being saved; at incomes of $5,000, 20 percent; and at $20,000, more than 40 percent.

These data strongly suggest that the high level of income to be expected under full employment conditions is likely to be associated with a very high level of savings, both relative and absolute, if the prewar pattern of expenditure prevails. Thus, in 1950 more than 15 percent of all families will, under the present assumptions, have incomes of $5,000 or more (table 3) and, if prewar expenditure habits persist, will as a group save more than one-third of their income. These savings rates, when combined with the estimated 1950 income distribution, imply that more than one-fifth of a full employment income might be saved. This compares with 11 percent in 1929, 16 percent in 1941, and is only slightly below the abnormally high wartime levels of 1943 and 1944. This calculation is only approximate since it makes no allowance for several important factors. The result, nevertheless, suggests that the problem of finding outlets for expanded savings in the form of a high and continuing volume of investment may become acute.

This conclusion assumes a continuation of prewar expenditure habits into the postwar period. Expenditure habits have changed in the past, however, and there is no compelling reason to believe that they will not change in the future. Chart 4, for example, summarizes the rate of savings at each income level in four different periods, 1901, 1917–19, 1935–36, and 1941. The income levels are all expressed in constant 1935–39 dollars. The pattern of change shown by these four studies is striking. In 1901 a family with an income of $2,000 (measured in 1935–39 dollars) saved 20 percent of that income; in 1917–19, about 14 percent; in 1935–36, about 4 percent; and in 1941, about 3.5 percent. The differences in percent of income saved are particularly marked between the two earlier and

CHART 2

PERCENT OF INCOME SAVED
BY INCOME LEVEL
(1935-1936)



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

SOURCE: NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMITTEE

the two later periods. For all income levels taken together the differences averaged well over 10 points.

Over shorter periods of time, however, the relationship between consumer income and expenditure is remarkably stable. Studies of family expenditures are not made at sufficiently frequent intervals to study this short-run stability directly. It is possible to study it indirectly, however. If we assume that the division of income between expenditure and savings was the same at each income level for each year during the period 1929–41, then it is possible to estimate (in conjunction with independent estimates of the number of families at each income level in each of the years) the aggregate volume of consumer expenditure implied by this assumption. But direct measurement of the aggregate volume of consumer expenditure has been undertaken by the Department of Commerce. Comparison of the actual volume of consumer expenditure with estimates of the volume derived on the assumption of a constant income-expenditure relationship consequently provides a check on the accuracy of this assumption.

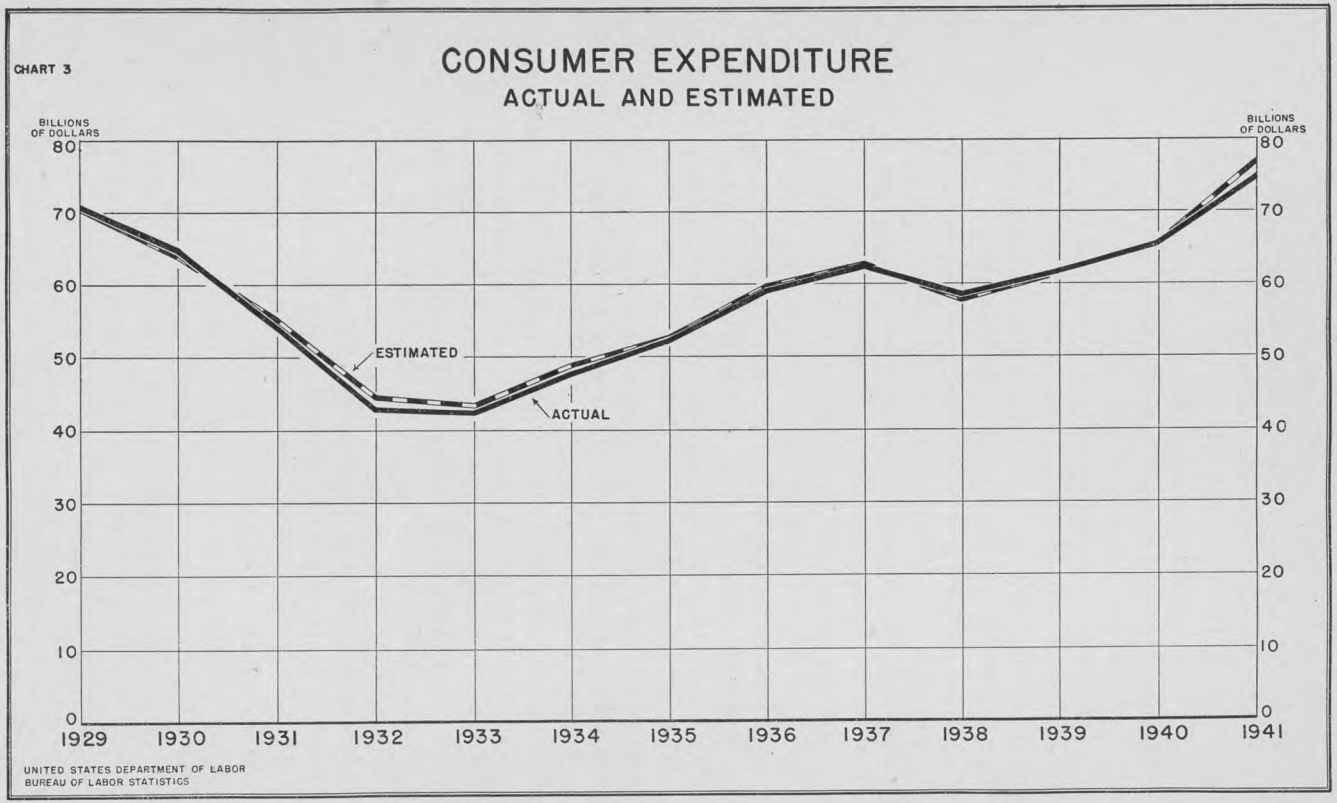
Chart 3 shows the results of this check. It compares the actual volume of consumer expenditure by years during the period 1929–41 with the expenditures which could have been inferred from the known levels of consumer income and the patterns of consumer expenditure by income level in 1935–36. The maximum discrepancy between actual and estimated is less than 5 percent. The closeness of the agreement affords strong evidence for the stability of expenditure habits during this period.

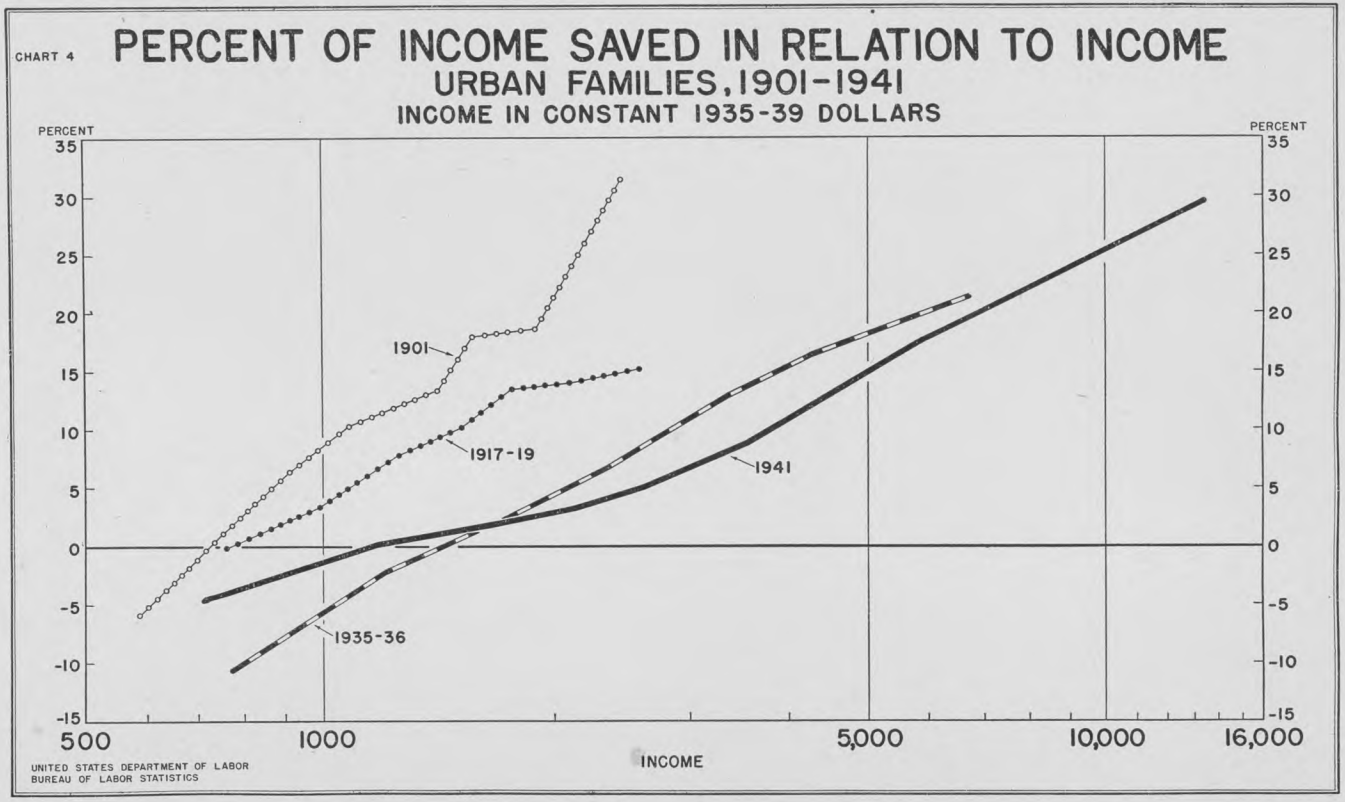
Whether prewar expenditure habits will persist into the postwar period or whether we will witness a resumption of the secular decrease in the rate of savings at each income level is a subject on which no unconditional forecast can be made. It is possible, however, to estimate the volume of consumer expenditure in 1950 if there is no change in prewar expenditure habits and to estimate its effects on the level of employment. It is also possible to estimate the amount by which expenditure must exceed this level if we are to have full employment.

(VIII) *The initial estimate of 1950 consumer expenditure is based on the assumption that the prewar relation between income and expenditure will prevail in the postwar period.*

As a measure of the prewar expenditure pattern the results of a study of family expenditures in 1941 have been used.[8] The data have been retabulated, however, to show expenditures for the products of the different industries, rather than expenditures within the usual

[8] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bull. No. 822: Family Spending and Saving in Wartime; U. S. Department of Agriculture, Misc. Pub. No. 520: Rural Family Spending and Saving in Wartime, and Misc. Pub. No. 550: Family Food Consumption in the United States, Spring 1942.





budgetary categories. They have also been adjusted for the 1950 level of taxes and the estimated prices. Levels of consumer expenditures for the products of each industry derived on this basis are summarized in table 7. They indicate that even after correcting for change in the price level, consumer demand would, with no alteration in basic

TABLE 7.—*Consumer demand, by industry, 1939 and estimated for 1950* [1]

[In millions]

Industry	1950, estimated in—		1939
	1950 prices	1939 prices	
Total consumer demand	$117,176	$89,834	$60,279
Agriculture and fishing	5,858	3,799	3,103
Food processing	18,804	14,888	10,491
Ferrous metals	3	2	1
Shipbuilding	44	28	11
Agricultural machinery	27	21	12
Engines and turbines	24	18	10
Motor vehicles	3,264	2,536	1,237
Transportation equipment, not elsewhere classified	78	65	31
Industrial and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	307	248	192
Merchandising and service machines	153	113	81
Electrical equipment	1,058	829	547
Iron and steel, not elsewhere classified	117	89	50
Nonferrous metals and their products	59	49	35
Nonmetallic minerals and their products	281	214	126
Petroleum production and refining	3,480	3,000	1,918
Coal mining and manufactured solid fuel	978	782	599
Manufactured gas and electric power	1,742	1,742	1,043
Communications	905	814	547
Chemicals	1,633	1,466	985
Furniture and other manufactures of wood	1,164	831	586
Wood pulp and paper	228	182	128
Printing and publishing	1,193	907	609
Textile-mill products	1,268	957	810
Apparel and finished textiles	7,089	4,896	3,384
Leather and leather products	1,612	1,143	854
Rubber	350	312	223
All other manufacturing	1,542	1,203	697
Miscellaneous transportation	1,882	1,543	1,130
Steam railroads	1,613	1,405	689
Trade	24,039	17,294	11,291
Business and personal services	27,103	21,476	14,707
Eating and drinking places	9,279	6,982	4,152

[1] Expenditures are measured at producers' prices plus transportation costs. Trade margins, which are thus excluded, are entered as a purchase from trade.

habits, exceed the 1939 level by 50 percent. The magnitude of the increase varies, of course, from industry to industry. The demand for agricultural products increases by only one-fourth, for services by about one-half, but the demand for automotive products more than doubles.

Investment Demand

Before we can estimate the volume and distribution of employment occasioned by this level of consumer demand it is necessary to consider one other type of demand, that for investment goods. In the present analysis this is considered to be composed of four components, pro-

ducers' durable equipment, construction, inventories, and all goods for export. The characteristic that distinguishes this type of demand from that for consumer goods is that the demand initially is not for the goods themselves but for the services that they will render over their entire period of life. A slight drop in the demand for services currently rendered by capital goods is thus likely to result in a pronounced drop in the demand for their current production. The well-known contrast between the great instability in output and employment in the capital goods industries and the relative stability in industries producing consumer goods and services is a direct consequence of this fact.

Because the demand for capital goods is unstable, no simple set of relations, such as those used for estimating consumer expenditure, will provide a sound basis for estimating demand in 1950. The present estimates are based upon a variety of sources and considerations.

PRODUCERS' DURABLE EQUIPMENT

(IX) *The present estimate of nongovernment purchases of producers' durable equipment in 1950 is essentially that made in 1941, by both public and private agencies.* It excludes, however, public outlays for military products such as aircraft, combat motor vehicles, and ships made in that year, but includes both public and private outlays for the facilities necessary to produce these end products. Table 8 shows the estimated distribution of such outlays by industry of final fabrication.

TABLE 8.—*Private demand for producers' durable equipment, 1939 and estimated for 1950* [1]

[In millions]

Industry	1950, estimated in—		1939
	1950 prices	1939 prices	
Total	$12,160	$9,458	$4,613
Shipbuilding	154	97	140
Agricultural machinery	800	623	307
Engines and turbines	80	61	30
Motor vehicles	1,789	1,390	685
Aircraft	294	362	38
Transportation equipment, not elsewhere classified	390	325	160
Industrial and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	2,193	1,774	874
Machine tools	647	491	242
Merchandising and service machines	438	325	160
Electrical equipment, not elsewhere classified	1,142	895	441
Iron and steel, not elsewhere classified	431	329	162
Nonferrous metals and their products	5	4	2
Nonmetallic minerals and their products	93	71	35
Chemicals	20	18	9
Lumber and timber products	11	8	4
Furniture and other manufactures of wood	594	424	209
Textile-mill products	73	55	27
Leather and leather products	74	53	26
Rubber	116	104	51
All other manufacturing	424	331	163
Trade	2,394	1,721	848

[1] Expenditures are measured at producers' prices plus transportation costs. Trade margins on producers' durable equipment, which are thus excluded, are entered as a purchase from trade.

With the exception of aircraft and ships, the pattern is much the same as that prevailing in 1939, but the total level is much higher. The estimate for aircraft reflects the expectations of the aviation industry [9] while that for shipbuilding is based on preliminary work done for the Twentieth Century Fund's study on postwar requirements for transportation.

CONSTRUCTION

The present estimates are based upon a study of the volume of postwar construction prepared in the Division of Construction and Public Employment of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They are best described as "essentially an informed estimate based on information from a wide variety of sources and on an analysis of controlling social and economic conditions." [10] The estimates obtained on this basis are shown in table 9. (X) *They provide for a 90-percent increase over 1939 and an almost threefold increase over the level prevailing in the final war year.* Such a level can be attained by 1950 only if the rate of expansion of construction activity in the coming years exceeds that of the period 1921–25.

TABLE 9.—*Private demand for construction, 1939 and estimated for 1950* [1]

[In millions]

Type of construction	1950, estimated in—		1939
	1950 prices	1939 prices	
Total, all types	$14,329	$10,584	$5,642
New construction	10,138	7,488	3,794
Residential nonfarm	4,370	3,228	1,860
Commercial	1,499	1,107	300
Industrial	861	636	234
Other building	536	396	228
Farm	588	434	425
Utility	2,284	1,687	747
Maintenance	4,191	3,096	1,848

[1] These estimates are based upon those given in Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 825 but will not agree exactly because of differences in concept and definition.

EXPORTS

The demand of foreign countries for domestically produced goods is determined to a considerable extent by the volume of goods the United States is willing to import. The volume of imports will in turn be determined largely by the level at which the economy is operating. In the past, fluctuations in the physical volume of imports have closely paralleled fluctuations in the physical volume of industrial production (chart 5). This similarity in fluctuation seems to have

[9] Let's Be Practical About Postwar Plane Markets, *in* Aviation, December 1945 (p. 115).
[10] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bull. No. 825: Probable Volume of Postwar Construction.

persisted even during a period in which there were sharp changes in tariff legislation and import prices, and in which reciprocal trade agreements were being developed and extended.

Table 10 shows the level and composition of imports to be expected under full employment conditions in 1950. (XI) *It is derived by assuming a continuation of the prewar relationship between imports and domestic output for most commodities.* The volume of commodity imports derived on this basis is 6.1 billion dollars. (XII) *An export balance of 2 billion dollars, more than twice that prevailing in the twenties, has been assumed for 1950.* After adjusting for the effects

TABLE 10.—*Imports and exports of merchandise, 1939 and estimated for 1950*

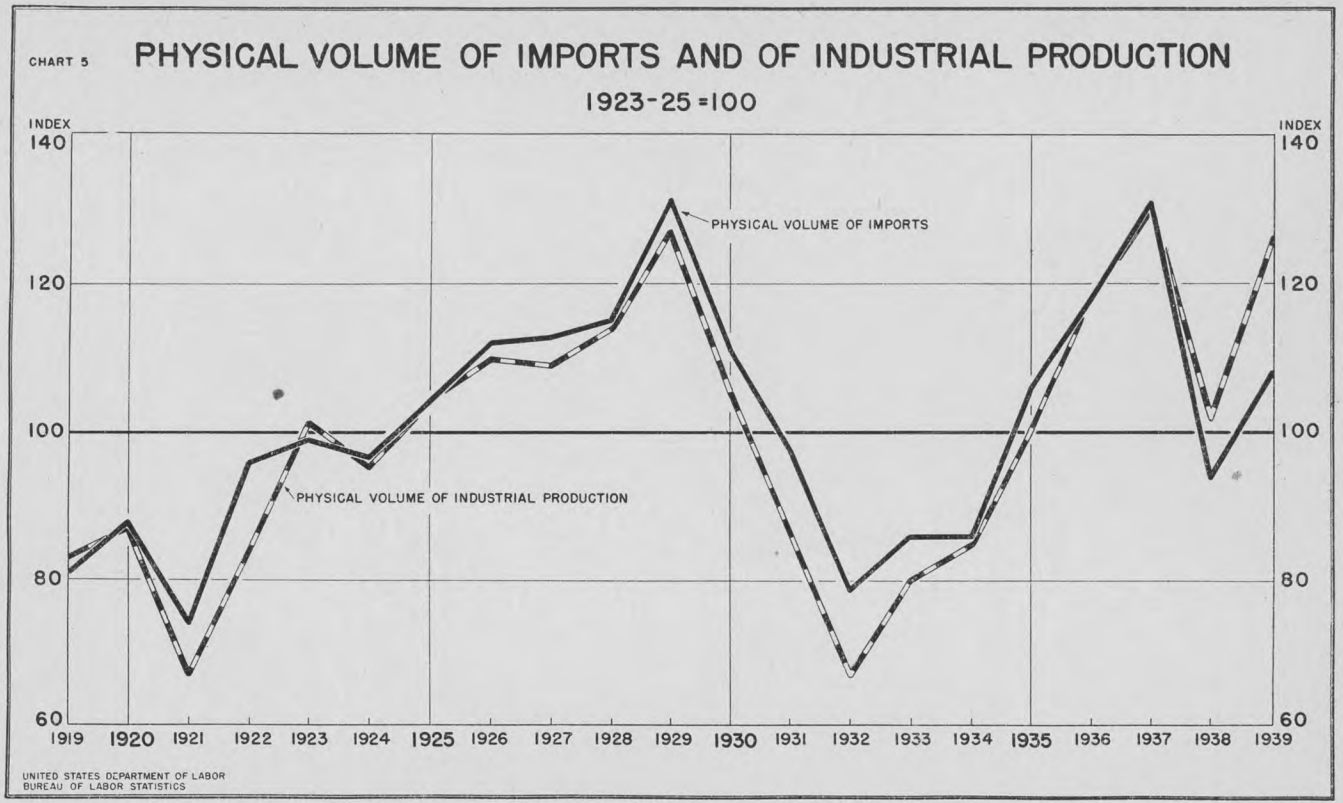
[In millions]

Industry	Imports [1]			Exports [2]		
	1950, estimated in—		1939	1950, estimated in—		1939
	1950 prices	1939 prices		1950 prices	1939 prices	
Total, all industries	$6,112	$4,785	$2,827	$8,473	$6,595	$3,205
Agriculture and fishing	869	564	337	1,317	854	415
Food processing	1,780	1,410	824	644	510	248
Ferrous metals	52	41	22	406	317	154
Iron and steel foundry products				19	14	7
Shipbuilding				13	8	4
Agricultural machinery	5	4	2	172	134	65
Engines and turbines	2	2	1	30	23	11
Motor vehicles	6	5	2	599	465	226
Aircraft				145	179	87
Transportation equipment, not elsewhere classified	3	2	1	22	19	9
Industrial and heating equipment	18	15	8	387	313	152
Machine tools	3	2	1	301	228	111
Merchandising and service machines				97	72	35
Electrical equipment	12	10	5	278	218	106
Iron and steel, not elsewhere classified	19	14	8	178	136	66
Nonferrous metals and their products	863	712	331	389	321	156
Nonmetallic minerals and their products	141	108	63	162	123	60
Petroleum production and refining	96	83	40	998	860	418
Coal mining and manufactured solid fuel	11	9	5	175	140	68
Manufactured gas and electric power	46	52	27			
Chemicals	338	304	161	459	412	200
Lumber and timber products	79	57	35	125	91	44
Furniture and other manufactures of wood	20	14	8	46	33	16
Wood pulp and paper	460	367	206	99	78	38
Printing and publishing	23	18	10	68	51	25
Textile-mill products	518	391	306	264	200	97
Apparel and other finished textile products	153	106	54	83	58	28
Leather and leather products	50	36	21	70	49	24
Rubber	199	176	196	78	70	34
All other manufacturing	161	126	61	148	115	56
Trade [2]				701	504	245
Unallocated	185	157	92			

[1] In most cases imported commodities are allocated to the domestic industry producing similar commodities rather than to the industry using them. Thus, newsprint is allocated to wood pulp and paper rather than to printing and publishing. In a few specific cases this procedure has not been followed and imports have been allocated to the using industry. Silk, rubber, and coffee are the only important examples. Trade with Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and other noncontiguous territories has been treated as foreign commerce for this purpose. Imports of monetary gold and silver are excluded.

[2] All entries are expressed at producers' prices plus transportation costs. The entry for trade covers trade margins on goods handled by export firms. Trade with Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and other noncontiguous territories has been treated as foreign commerce for this purpose.

CHART 5



of certain service transactions, such as shipping and insurance, an estimate of 8.5 billion dollars for the 1950 volume of merchandise exports is obtained. Even when expressed in 1939 prices this is more than twice the 1939 export volume.

INVENTORIES

(XIII) *A net inventory change of 2 billion dollars has been assumed.* In the years 1922–29 inventories increased by about 1 billion dollars a year. Larger average annual increases would clearly be required to sustain the higher annual volume of production in the postwar years.

Interindustry Relations

If the preceding estimates of government demand, consumer demand, and investment demand are added together industry by industry, we obtain the aggregate final demand for the products of each industry in 1950. For some industries, e. g., apparel and eating and drinking places, the 1950 demand of final purchasers will be substantially equal to the output of the industry. For other industries—steel works and rolling mills, bituminous coal mines, and railroads—demand of final purchasers will constitute only a fraction of total output. Such industries produce goods and services primarily sold to other industries and not to final purchasers. Some method is required to estimate the output of raw materials, intermediate goods, and services required to satisfy the demand for finished products.

Final demand for passenger cars, for example, implies a certain level of steel output. Somewhat more than 2 tons of ingot steel must be produced for one passenger car. Thus, 6 million passenger cars would require more than 12 million tons of ingot steel. Similarly, in 1939, 4 to 5 pounds of cotton were required for the average tire. But it would require 30 million tires and hence 300 thousand bales of cotton to satisfy the requirements for 6 million passenger cars (exclusive of cotton requirements for upholstery, etc.).

If sufficient information were available on the material requirements for each of the different final products, it should be possible to work backward and so compute all the material requirements implied by a given level of demand for finished goods. The basis for computations of this character is provided by a study of interindustry relations in 1939 prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. It shows the amount bought by each industry during that year from each of the other industries. (XIV) *To the extent that material requirements per unit of output in 1950 will not be substantially different from those prevailing in 1939 (with certain obvious adjustments in some special cases), this study provides the basis for proceeding from demand by final purchasers to the output of raw materials and intermediate goods.*

The Deficiency in Demand

If we can proceed from demand to output, we can, by use of the productivity and working hours assumptions previously made, proceed to estimate employment in each industry. The initial question we must ask is whether the resulting level of employment is equal to that with which we started.

There is no logical reason why the initially assumed and finally derived employment totals should be equal. The estimates of final demand are based on a series of assumptions with respect to the scope of government activity, the pattern of consumer expenditure, and the level of investment activity. These assumptions may or may not be compatible with the existence of full employment. If they are not, the finally derived level of employment should be less than or greater than that initially assumed. For this reason, an employment gap is something more than a summation of statistical errors. Essentially, it indicates the extent to which prewar consumption habits, the estimated volume of capital formation, and the assumed level of government operations are inconsistent with the achievement of full employment.

The first column of table 11 summarizes the estimates of final demand in 1950 made up to this point. The second column shows the comparable figures for 1939. The last two columns show the volume of employment required to satisfy this level of final demand. Thus, 1939 consumer demand amounted to 60.3 billion dollars and required the employment of 19.2 million persons. The most important result in the table is that, within the stated assumptions, the volume of employment required to satisfy the 1950 final demand (estimated previously) is 34.4 million, as compared with 39.1 million required if full employment is to be achieved (see p. 169). The assumed level of final demand is not high enough to give us full employment. One or more of the components of final demand must be increased if private nonagricultural enterprises are to furnish the required total of 39 million jobs to wage and salary workers. Furthermore, sufficient additional demand must be found to create almost as much employment as will be generated both on and off site by the entire volume of construction estimated for 1950.

The difference of 4.7 million does not at first sight appear excessive. Even if we add to it the 2 million "frictionally" unemployed with which we started, 6.7 million unemployed, while considerably higher than most people would consider desirable, still might not appear completely intolerable as measured against the experience of the thirties. Actually, this gap is not a measure of the unemployment which would result if all the assumptions were in fact realized. A

TABLE 11.—*Final demand and employment, 1939 and estimated for 1950*

Type of final demand	Final demand (billions of 1939 dollars)		Employees (millions) in private nonagricultural establishments	
	1950, estimated	1939, actual	1950, estimated	1939, actual
Total demand	128.4	81.2	34.4	26.4
Consumption	89.8	60.3	23.4	19.2
Producers' durable equipment	9.5	4.6	2.8	1.7
Construction [1]	14.9	10.1	4.7	3.7
Exports [2]	6.8	3.3	1.7	1.0
Government and miscellaneous [3]	7.4	2.9	1.3	.4
Other [4]			.5	.4

[1] Government and private, new and maintenance.
[2] Includes certain service items in addition to merchandise exports
[3] Includes government nonconstruction purchases, consumption expenditures of soldiers, and inventory change.
[4] Includes an adjustment for certain industries not included in the interindustry relations study as well as deductions for government activities (such as the Government Printing Office) classified with private enterprises.

final demand of 128.4 billion dollars was derived on the assumption that only 2 million workers would be unemployed. The present results show that such a final demand actually implies 6.7 million unemployed. A recalculation of the entire analysis starting with this unemployment would yield new results with lower total demand and greater unemployment. Repeating the process, we would eventually obtain initial and final figures which were in full agreement. There is little point in carrying this process through. It is enough to discover that the institutional patterns incorporated in the analysis do not provide economic equilibrium at the desired full employment levels.

This conclusion is, of course, based on a series of assumptions, some of which, as we have seen, are surrounded by a considerable area of doubt. There is no firm basis for forecasting the actual level of full employment consumer demand. The volume of capital equipment required to produce a full employment output cannot be accurately determined. Other important determinants are also subject to a greater or lesser error in estimation. Even with such statistical qualifications, however, the results seem to provide a firm base for this statement. The amount of investment activity which can reasonably be anticipated for 1950 does not appear to be sufficient to absorb the volume of savings to be anticipated under full employment conditions, if the prewar schedule of consumer preferences remains unchanged.

This is by no means a trivial conclusion. Full employment in 1950 is not a foregone certainty. If full employment is to be achieved in 1950, the level of demand for either consumer goods or investment goods, or both, must be higher. Planning by business, labor, and government on the basis of prewar concepts of normalcy may result in serious unemployment.

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In the immediate reconversion period, none of the assumptions which lead to this conclusion actually holds. Government expenditure is at considerably higher levels than has been assumed; consumers are spending a higher percentage of their income than the prewar pattern would indicate; demand for producers' durable equipment, new construction, exports, and inventories is reinforced by the shortages accumulated during the war years; productivity is at lower levels than have been assumed for 1950.

The assumptions are likely to become increasingly realistic with the passage of time, however. Productivity will increase; the backlog demand of both business and consumers will eventually be satisfied; government expenditures will continue to decline. Unless some change not embodied in the given assumptions is introduced into the picture, the purely hypothetical results obtained may therefore approach reality. Whether an acute problem is likely to arise in 1947, 1950, or 1955 cannot be decided on the basis of the present analysis. It is a fair inference, nevertheless, that the present favorable levels of employment and production should not lead to complacency with respect to the future.

Union Health and Welfare Plans

EDITOR'S NOTE.—*The following two articles discuss different aspects of health and welfare plans for workers. The first article on collective-bargaining developments in this field brings up to date information collected by the Bureau's Industrial Relations Branch relative to numbers of workers and industries covered and the unions involved. It also notes several of the medical service plans entailing a health center and the recently established United Mine Workers' program. The second article, written by Nathaniel M. Minkoff, secretary-treasurer of the New York Dressmakers' Joint Board, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (AFL), treats principally of the experience of that organization with its own program and emphasizes some of the administrative problems which that union and all unions must encounter and solve. Sample provisions from a few contracts and a bibliography on the subject are appended to the first article. Both articles will be jointly reprinted.*

COLLECTIVE-BARGAINING DEVELOPMENTS IN HEALTH AND WELFARE PLANS [1]

WORKERS covered by some type of health-benefit [2] plans negotiated by employer and union more than doubled in number since 1945, as revealed by recent estimates made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In 1945, some 600,000 workers were so included; at present (early 1947) approximately 1,250,000 are covered. Except for a few outstanding instances, including coal mining, the plans were negotiated by the same unions studied in the 1945 report, and are merely extensions of their programs.[3]

The principal industries in which a large proportion of workers (totaling approximately 1,100,000) are covered by some type of

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Branch by Lucy M. Kramer, with the assistance of Rose Theodore, under the direction of Harold S. Roberts.

[2] See Health-Benefit Programs Established Through Collective Bargaining, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 841 (reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1945).

[3] Most of the plans described in the 1945 Bureau of Labor Statistics report have been negotiated by the following unions: International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (AFL); Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America (CIO); United Hatters, Cap, and Millinery Workers' International Union (AFL); Textile Workers' Union of America (CIO); United Textile Workers of America (AFL); International Fur and Leather Workers' Union of America (CIO); United Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers of America (CIO); Upholsterers' International Union of North America (AFL); United Furniture Workers of America (CIO); Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America (CIO); Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and Bartenders' International League of America (AFL); United Paperworkers (CIO); United Retail, Wholesale, and Department Store Employees of America (CIO); Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway, and Motor Coach Employees of America (AFL). Additional unions which have recently included health-benefit plans in their collective bargaining agreements are: Building Service Employees' International Union (AFL); Progressive Mine Workers (Independent); United Mine Workers (AFL); United Office and Professional Workers (CIO); Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers (AFL); and United Association of Plumbers and Steamfitters AFL).

health benefit plan are clothing (men's and women's), textiles, and coal mining. Other industries in which a part of the workers are covered (totaling over 100,000) are building trades; fur and leather; furniture; hotel; laundry, cleaning, and dyeing; machinery (particularly electrical); office; paper; retail and wholesale trade; shipbuilding; and street and electric railway.

Although extensive employee coverage is found at the present time in only three industries, there are an increasing number and variety of industries in which some proportion of the workers are covered.

Types of Health Benefit Plans

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL

In the Bureau's 1945 study of health benefit plans established through collective bargaining agreements, it was found that there were three types of benefit plans—(1) those administered by the union solely, (2) plans administered jointly, and (3) programs administered by a private insurance company wherein the employer pays the premium directly or into a special premium fund. Most of the plans studied were financed entirely by the employer. This was true of all union-administered plans, of almost all jointly administered programs, and of more than half the plans administered by insurance companies.

Most of the agreements stipulate a specific percentage of the employer's pay roll (usually 2 or 3 percent) to be paid into the fund. If the contribution is not specified, the employer either defrays all expenses or supplements employee contributions as required. The health-benefit plans included weekly cash benefits during illness and disability caused by nonoccupational accidents, hospital and surgical expenses, and sometimes payment of doctor bills. In most cases dental care and preventive medicine were not usually included.

UNION HEALTH CENTERS

The first Union Health Center of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (AFL) was established in 1912 in New York City, and still functions. In addition to furnishing medical care to garment workers at the Center, it inspects sick-benefit plans and serves as a health education center. It is concerned primarily with ambulatory cases—in the nature of a clinic. It does not offer service to the families, nor complete medical service to the members, and its financing varies with the craft.[4] In addition to cash benefit payments, and clinical medical services, the program provides some preventive

[4] Health Program of International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, by L. Price, in Monthly Labor Review, October 1939; The Employee's Viewpoint on Group Hospitalization and Medical Care, by A. Held, American Management Association (New York, 1946, Insurance Pamphlet No. 65).

medical care. The eye conservation plan, which provides that every shop is to be visited and each worker examined, is unique.[5] For 17 years the Center also provided dental care, but discontinued this service for organizational reasons.

The New York Union Health Center, administered and financed to some extent jointly by labor and management, was not the result of collective bargaining originally. Similar health centers, however, have been established recently, through such negotiations, in Philadelphia, Fall River, Boston, and other smaller communities throughout the country.[6] Furthermore, when the joint labor-management health programs were incorporated into collective agreements in the needle trades in recent years, the health center became the central agency for the administration of the health-benefit program. Until 1943 the New York Center was financed by local union contributions. Since the incorporation of health-benefit funds (financed by employer contribution) into the agreements, however, a large part of the Center's financial support has come from these funds.

ST. LOUIS PLAN

A recent health-benefit plan negotiated by the St. Louis Joint Council, United Retail, Wholesale, and Department Store Employees (CIO), referred to as the St. Louis Plan, is of interest in that a health institute was established, through employer contribution, which offers complete medical services. Every medical bill of members and their families, for service in the home, hospital, or clinic, is to be met by the St. Louis Labor Health Institute. The organizational plans as outlined in 1945 would open the institute not only to union members and their nonvoting families, but also to outsiders as nonvoting approved participants. This may result in a union health-benefit plan that will include many unions jointly in the St. Louis area.

COAL MINERS' WELFARE FUNDS

In coal mining, both anthracite and bituminous, the coal miners secured, as a result of negotiations in May and June 1946, provisions in their current agreements whereby about 450,000 miners (375,000 bituminous, 75,000 anthracite) in 3,000 mines in 23 States are to achieve a considerable measure of security through the operation of three welfare funds.[7]

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[5] Social Welfare Through Collective Bargaining, by Julius Hochman (1945), *in* Collective Bargaining Negotiations and Contracts (p. 13:101), Bureau of National Affairs, Washington.

[6] A. Held, op. cit. (p. 25); J. Hochman, op. cit. (p. 13:106); Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 841, op. cit. (p. 15).

[7] For a brief discussion of the 1946 soft-coal negotiations and agreement, see The Changing Status of Bituminous Coal Miners, by Witt Bowden, Monthly Labor Review, August 1946 (reprinted as Bulletin No. 882). See also New York Times, June 27, 1946. The provisions of the health and welfare program of the contract are given in detail on pp. 197-199 of this issue.

In the soft-coal industry (Government operated), one fund, designated as a "welfare and retirement fund," is to be raised by levying a tax of 5 cents on each ton of soft coal produced. It is to be administered by three trustees—one appointed by the U. S. Coal Mines Administrator, one by the union, and one jointly. A second fund, designated as a "medical and hospital fund," is to be accumulated from wage deductions presently being checked off from miners' wages, or authorized in the future by the union. This fund is to be turned over to the union, and is to be administered by trustees appointed by the president of the United Mine Workers of America (AFL). The agreement calls for cooperation between the trustees of the two funds.

For the anthracite industry, a fund is to be raised similarly by a tax of 5 cents on each ton. This is a welfare and retirement fund, and is to be administered by three trustees—two to be appointed by the president of the United Mine Workers and one by the operators.

The technique of levying a tax on coal produced for the establishment and maintenance of a welfare fund is one that has been in existence in countries other than the United States for a number of years: Great Britain has had such a practice since 1920, New Zealand since 1925, the Netherlands since 1936, and British India and Spain more recently.[8]

Current Interest in Welfare Negotiations

Some voluntary prepaid medical-care plans,[9] entirely employer-sponsored or sponsored entirely by unions (as consumers), were in existence for many years prior to World War II—in at least one outstanding case such a plan was included in an agreement as a result of an arbitration award as far back as 1926.[10] It was during the recent war period, however, that the inclusion of health-benefit plans in union agreements gained headway.

Whether it was the national wage stabilization policy primarily which encouraged health and welfare benefits in lieu of wage increases

[8] Welfare Provisions for Miners in Six Foreign Countries, Monthly Labor Review, June 1946.

[9] Voluntary prepaid medical-care plans may be classified, according to Margaret C. Klem, Chief of the Medical Economics Section of the Social Security Administration, into six types: industrial, medical-society, or consumer-sponsored plans, private group clinics, Government plans, and Farm Security Administration plans.

Industrial plans, those established in connection with industry, and consumer-sponsored plans established by labor organizations, are the two types pertinent to the current analysis.

Industrial plans include those initiated by the employer alone, as well as plans put into effect by collective bargaining. Of the 115 industrial medical-care plans studied in 1945 by Margaret C. Klem, in 19 the costs were borne entirely by the employer, in 49 entirely by employee pay-roll deduction, and in 47 by the two jointly. (Prepayment Medical Care Organizations, Social Security Board, Washington, 1945, Bureau Memo. No. 55, p. 4.)

[10] In 1926, the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway employees secured from the Chicago Rapid Transit Co. a clause requiring the latter to bear the entire sickness and life insurance for its employees. (Beneficial Activities of American Trade-Unions, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 465, 1928, p. 31.)

during this period, or the necessity to maintain and increase wartime production by reducing the loss of man-hours caused by illness, or the heightened social awareness of the need for security for the wage earner, the fact remains that at the present time an increasing number of unions have such health and welfare clauses in their contracts, or have indicated their desire to negotiate for such provisions.

The potential role of health and welfare plans in collective bargaining was apparent in the last convention of the American Federation of Labor, held in Chicago in October 1946, when President Green, in his keynote speech, stated:

> I say to you * * * that that objective [the creation of welfare funds] will now be the objective of organizations affiliated with the American Federation of Labor; we must establish in this Nation security in every condition of life—old age, illness, and infirmity—and in addition we must provide hospitalization and nursing facilities and medical care for every man and woman in the United States.[11]

The Congress of Industrial Organizations, at its recent convention held in Atlantic City in November 1946, adopted a broad resolution on various aspects of security through collective bargaining, which concluded:

> The CIO intends immediately to develop a broad program so that workers may be given a rounded protection in their living standards through collective bargaining contracts providing for adequate pension plans, health insurance plans, group hospitalization plans, and the guaranteed minimum annual wage.[12]

Current demands for inclusion of employee welfare clauses in union agreements are recognized by management. Research services used largely by employers [13] each have devoted considerable space in their current loose-leaf publications on labor relations to employee welfare and health-benefit plans in collective bargaining—the techniques of bargaining, the types of plans, the coverage, etc.[14]

The March 1946 conference of the American Management Association devoted time to trends in employee benefits, and heard a detailed report by Adolph Held, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union official, on the Employee's Viewpoint on Group Hospitalization and Medical Care,[15] based on his experience as director of the Inter-

[11] Report of Proceedings of the Sixty-fifth Convention of the American Federation of Labor, for October 7-17, 1946 (p. 12).

[12] See Resolution No. 34, in Daily Proceedings of the Eighth Constitutional Convention of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, for November 20, 1946 (p. 5).

[13] See services of Research Institute of America (New York); Bureau of National Affairs (Washington); Prentice-Hall (New York).

[14] The RIA Labor Coordinator (Vol. 2, p. 38,005) in its Employee Welfare section, reminds management that "employee welfare plans are no longer fringe issues. You must be prepared when union demands are made. What factors do you have to consider in evaluating a plan? Do you know the union arguments in favor of these plans, and, what's more, do you know the answers? Can you include your nonunion employees in a plan the union wants, and how is this done?"

See also footnote 5.

[15] Trends in Workmen's Compensation and Employee Benefits, American Management Association, New York, 1946 (Insurance Series No. 65).

national Ladies' Garment Workers' Union Welfare and Health Benefits Department.

At the recent meeting of the American Medical Association on industrial health, held in Boston, a panel discussion was devoted to New Horizons in Industrial Health and Welfare, in which health-benefit plans played a large part, particularly those achieved through collective bargaining.[16] The American Medical Association, in its November 30, 1946, issue of the Journal, devoted to industrial health, editorializes as follows:

> In spite of impending legislation, health and welfare are likely to be important factors in future collective bargaining. Labor may ask for greater direct participation not only in industrial medical service but in plans for general medical care. Both the Council on Industrial Health and the Council on Medical Service [of the Association] have been actively concerned with the medical implications in the coal-mine wage agreement and the probable extension of similar contracts to other occupational groups. Herein lie many opportunities for constructive medical leadership.[17]

Outlook for Health Benefit Plans

There is no doubt, from past practice and current statements of unions, from recent management concern with welfare funds and their bargaining importance, from recent interest of the medical profession in the role of labor and management in industrial health, from the general interest of a considerable portion of the public in the Nation's health,[18] that welfare funds and health benefits will play an increasingly important role in future contract negotiations.

The increasing importance of welfare funds is generally accepted. However, the trend in financing such funds is not so clearly defined as to the relation of the employer-to-employee-contribution. The establishment and extension of welfare funds through employer contributions were given impetus during the war years. In many instances, these payments were made in lieu of wage increases,[19] and employers generally assumed full financial responsibility.

Postwar conditions may put a new emphasis, not so much on welfare funds, but on their financing. With the elimination of the wage stabilization policy, with an increased labor force, and with the modification in tax exemption, the question which may receive greater

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[16] See Journal of American Medical Association, November 30, 1946, for complete texts of the papers read by Rear Admiral Joel T. Boone on Industrial Health; Andrew Fletcher, of the Industrial Hygiene Foundation, on Management in Medical Plans; Boris Stern, of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, on Labor and Management at the Conference Table.

[17] *Idem*, p. 788.

[18] Witness the wide interest in the Murray-Wagner-Dingell national health bill in the last Congress, and the activities of individuals and organizations interested in a Government-sponsored health-insurance program.

[19] See The Administration, Under Collective Bargaining, of Welfare Plans Based on Employer Contributions, by David J. Farber, U. S. National Wage Stabilization Board, Washington, 1946.

attention in future negotiations may be the relative proportions in employer-employee contributions to welfare funds.

Sample Welfare Clauses in Specific Agreements

PHILADELPHIA BEDDING MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATION AND UPHOLSTERERS' INTERNATIONAL UNION OF NORTH AMERICA (AFL)

The employer hereby agrees to pay to the Upholsters' International Union Social Security Department, each and every month, in advance, between the first and fifth day of every month, beginning with _____ 19__; a sum equaling 3 percent of the gross wages earned by his employee-members of this union. The said sum of 3 percent shall be calculated on the basis of the total aggregate wages earned by said employee-members during the pay periods of 4 or 5 weeks, terminating during the preceding calendar month.

The above described sum of 3 percent shall be paid by the employer as a contribution to the Social Security Fund of the Upholsterers' International Union of North America above described. In consideration for the payment of said contribution, the union agrees to extend, beginning the same date the employer's first contribution is due as set forth in the preceding paragraph, the benefits of said fund to said employee-members, in accordance with the rules and bylaws under which said fund is administered, and in accordance with the general laws of the International.

The union has contracted or will contract for the issuance of a blanket-coverage insurance policy or policies to provide for the payment of the various benefits as therein provided; a policy now being in force with the _____ Co. It is agreed that the premiums for the maintenance of a group policy or policies on behalf of the employee-members shall be paid out of the periodic contributions paid by the employer as above described. The rights and duties of all parties, including the union, the employer, and the employee-members, shall be governed by the provisions of said blanket coverage policy.

The union agrees that the program of social security benefits hereinabove described shall be maintained in full force and effect for the entire period of time during which this supplemental agreement is in effect and the terms hereof fully complied with in all respects by the employer.

The 3 percent contribution of the employer to the social security plan is not to be increased during the life of this agreement; if the cost to the union is decreased, then the contribution by the employer is to be reduced by an equivalent amount. Two-thirds of the entire contribution is to go toward the payment of accident and health insurance covered by the provisions of said policy, and the remaining one-third of the entire contribution goes toward the payment of death benefits as provided by the Social Security Department of the union and for the administrative expenses of said department.

U. S. COAL MINES ADMINISTRATOR AND UNITED MINE WORKERS OF AMERICA (AFL)

[Bituminous-coal mines]

Health and welfare program

There is hereby provided a health and welfare program in broad outline—and it is recognized that many important details remain to be filled in—such program to consist of three parts, as follows:

(a) *A welfare and retirement fund.*—A welfare and retirement fund is hereby created, and there shall be paid into said fund by the operating managers 5 cents per ton on each ton of coal produced for use or for sale. This fund shall be

managed by three trustees, one appointed by the Coal Mines Administrator, one appointed by the president of the United Mine Workers, and the third chosen by the other two. The fund shall be used for making payments to miners, and their dependents and survivors, with respect to (1) wage loss not otherwise compensated at all or adequately under the provisions of Federal or State law and resulting from sickness (temporary disability), permanent disability, death, or retirement, and (2) other related welfare purposes, as determined by the trustees. Subject to the stated purposes of the fund, the trustees shall have full authority with respect to questions of coverage and eligibility, priorities among classes of benefits, amounts of benefits, methods of providing or arranging for provision of benefits, and all related matters.

The Coal Mines Administrator will instruct the operating managers that the obligation to make payments to the welfare and retirement fund becomes effective with reference to coal produced on and after June 1, 1946; the first actual payment is to be made on August 15, 1946, covering the period from June 1 to July 15; the second payment to be made on September 15, covering the period from July 15 to August 31; and thereafter payments are to be made on the 15th day of each month covering the preceding month.

(b) *A medical and hospital fund.*—There shall be created a medical and hospital fund, to be administered by trustees appointed by the president of the United Mine Workers. This fund shall be accumulated from the wage deductions presently being made and such as may hereafter be authorized by the union and its members for medical, hospital, and related purposes. The trustees shall administer this fund to provide, or to arrange, for the availability of medical, hospital, and related services for the miners and their dependents. The money in this fund shall be used for the indicated purposes at the discretion of the trustees of the fund; and the trustees shall provide for such regional or local variations and adjustments in wage deductions, benefits and other practices, and transfers of funds to local unions, as may be necessary and as are in accordance with agreements made within the framework of the union's organization.

The Coal Mines Administrator agrees (after the trustees make arrangements satisfactory to the Coal Mines Administrator) to direct each operating manager to turn over to this fund, or to such local unions as the trustees of the fund may direct, all such wage deductions, beginning with a stated date to be agreed upon by the Administrator and the president of the United Mine Workers: Provided, however, that the United Mine Workers shall first obtain the consent of the affected employees to such turn-over. The Coal Mines Administrator will cooperate fully with the United Mine Workers to the end that there may be terminated as rapidly as may be practicable any existing agreements that earmark the expenditure of such wage deductions, except as the continuation of such agreements may be approved by the trustees of the fund.

Present practices with respect to wage deductions and their use for provision of medical, hospital, and related services shall continue until such date or dates as may be agreed upon by the Coal Mines Administrator and the president of the United Mine Workers.

(c) *Coordination of the welfare and retirement fund and the medical and hospital fund.*—The Coal Mines Administrator and the United Mine Workers agree to use their good offices to assure that trustees of the two funds described above will cooperate in and coordinate the development of policies and working agreements necessary for the effective operation of each fund toward achieving the result that each fund will, to the maximum degree practicable, operate to complement the other.

Survey of medical and sanitary facilities

The Coal Mines Administrator undertakes to have made a comprehensive survey and study of the hospital and medical facilities, medical treatment, sanitary, and housing conditions in the coal-mining areas. The purpose of this survey will be to determine the character and scope of improvements which should be made to provide the mine workers of the Nation with medical, housing, and sanitary facilities conforming to recognized American standards.

STANDARD CONTRACT: MEN'S AND BOYS' CLOTHING MANUFACTURERS AND AMALGAMATED CLOTHING WORKERS OF AMERICA (CIO)

Commencing on the pay day for the week of December 10, 1945, and weekly thereafter, the employer shall pay to the trustees (hereinafter called the trustees) designated under a new agreement and declaration of trust dated as of December 10, 1945 (a copy of which said new agreement and declaration of trust dated as of December 10, 1945, has been exhibited to the employer and approved by the employer) the terms and provisions of which new agreement and declaration of trust are herein specifically incorporated by reference, sums of money determined as follows:

(a) Two percent of the wages payable for the preceding pay period to all the employees of the employer, plus

(b) Three percent of the wages payable for the preceding pay period to those employees of the employer who are members of the union.

All of the foregoing sums shall be administered and expended by the trustees pursuant to the provisions of the said new agreement and declaration of trust (dated as of December 10, 1945) for the purpose of providing benefits upon their retirement because of old-age, and life, accident and health insurance, and such other forms of group insurance for medical care and hospitalization as the trustees may reasonably determine, to members of the union employed by the employer, and members of the union employed by other employers who are members of the group embraced within the general plan in the men's and boys' clothing industry.

The employer shall furnish to the trustees, upon request, such information and reports as they may require in the performance of their duties under any of the agreements and declarations of trust. The trustees, or any authorized agent or representative of the trustees, shall have the right at all reasonable times during business hours to enter upon the premises of the employer and to examine and copy such of the books, records, papers, and reports of the employer as may be necessary to permit the trustees to determine whether the employer is fully complying with the provisions of paragraph 3 [above].

No employee shall have the option to receive instead of the benefits provided for by any of the agreements and declarations of trust any part of the contribution of the employer. No employee shall have the right to assign any benefits to which he may be or become entitled under any of the agreements and declarations of trust or to receive a cash consideration in lieu of such benefits either upon termination of the trust therein created, or through severance of employment or otherwise.

* * * * * * *

In the event that the union receives written notice from one or more of the trustees, designated by the trustees for that purpose, that the employer has failed to pay in full any sum due the trustees under paragraph 3 and that such failure has continued for 5 days, the union may direct its members to discontinue work in the plant of the employer and to discontinue work upon clothing being manufactured for the employer by contractors until all sums due from the employer

under paragraph 3 above have been paid in full. The remedy provided for in this subparagraph shall be in addition to all other remedies available to the union and the trustees and may be exercised by the union, anything in the collective bargaining agreement to the contrary notwithstanding.

The trustees, in their own names as trustees, may institute or intervene in any proceeding at law, in equity, or in bankruptcy for the purpose of effectuating the collection of any sums due to them from the employer under the provisions of paragraph 3.

In the event that legislation is enacted by the Federal Government levying a tax or other exaction upon the employer for the purpose of establishing a federally administered system of life, health, accident, medical care, or hospitalization insurance under which the employees of the employer are insured, the employer shall be credited against the sums payable under paragraph 3 for each pay period, with the amount of such tax or exaction, payable by him for such pay period, provided that the amount of such credit shall in no event exceed 2 percent of the wages payable to the employees of the employer for such pay period.

ATLANTIC COTTON FELT CO., NEWARK, N. J., AND UNITED FURNITURE WORKERS OF AMERICA (CIO)

The employer hereby agrees, as long as this agreement remains in force, to contribute monthly on or before the _____ day of each month, commencing with the effective date of this agreement to _____ as trustees of United Furniture Workers Insurance Fund, a sum equal to 3 percent of the previous month's production pay roll, to be used by said trustees for the sole benefits of the employees covered by this agreement for the purchase of group life insurance, group accidental death and dismemberment insurance, group accident and health insurance, hospitalization insurance, and group surgical insurance, in accordance with the schedule of such respective forms of insurance attached hereto entitled "Schedule of Amounts of Insurance." It is further understood and agreed that these contributions to the above-mentioned trustees will be held and managed by them under the terms of a trust agreement drawn between the union and said trustees. (It is further understood and agreed that the employer shall be under no obligation to see to the application of moneys paid to the trustees pursuant to this paragraph for the purposes and uses above mentioned; but the union, nevertheless, agrees to render reports at regular intervals to the employer respecting application of the moneys received and benefits paid.)

The employer agrees to make available to the union or the trustees above-named any and all records of employees hired, classifications of employees, names, social security numbers and amount of wages paid, and social security pay roll records, that the union or the trustees may require in connection with the sound and efficient operation of the trust fund above mentioned, or that may be required by the insurance companies covering the employee.

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TRADE-UNION WELFARE PROGRAMS [1]

By NATHANIEL M. MINKOFF, *Secretary-Treasurer, Joint Board Dressmakers' Union, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union*

Development of the Movement

GROWING preoccupation of unions with health and welfare programs is not a new departure in labor policy; this preoccupation dates back to the early days of trade-unionism in this country.

The first organizations of workers in the United States, as in Great Britain, were generally mutual aid associations, such as loan, sick benefit, or burial societies. Overt organization for collective bargaining was still forbidden by law, and these mutual aid groups, almost from the start, assumed what today would be called "industrial

[1] This article deals primarily with the experience of the New York Dress Joint Board of the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union.
The views expressed are those of the author and are not necessarily shared by the Bureau.

functions," in addition to the narrower tasks of providing the mutual aid for which they were ostensibly formed. It was these mutual aid groups which initiated the modern labor movement, and from them the trade-unions of today have derived the habit of referring fraternally to members as brothers and sisters, as well as some of the ceremonials and rituals of initiation and procedure.

With time and favoring circumstance, the essentially industrial character of these organizations became explicit. The Philadelphia Typographical Society, for instance, organized in 1802, was incorporated in 1810 as a benevolent society. In 1833 it gave way to the Philadelphia Typographical Society whose "primary and paramount intention" was "the determination and support of adequate wages for journeymen printers." The Pennsylvania Society of Journeymen Cabinetmakers of Philadelphia (1806) was likewise formed for purely benevolent purposes. In 1829, the society constitutionally established itself "as a criterion for workmen to endeavor to settle all disputes arising between them and their employers." The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen was formed as late as 1873 as a benevolent society, and it was not until 12 years later that it assumed its role as a labor union. The Iron Molders' Union, established in 1859, operated an extensive benefit system before it assumed industrial functions. Curiously enough, all benefits were suspended by this union in 1880 on the ground that such features interfered with the industrial tasks of the organization. After a decade, however, the welfare program was resumed.

Other groups, organized in later years as labor unions in the modern sense, soon expanded their activities to include welfare programs. The Barbers' Union, set up in 1887, initiated its benefit program in 1893. The Tobacco Workers, organized in 1895, established its sick benefit program in 1896. The Plumbers' Union (1889) established its benefits in 1903. In one way or another, welfare and mutual aid programs became a recognized feature of American trade-unionism and helped greatly to give it a much needed stability in its early days.

By the end of the First World War, however, trade-union welfare activities were definitely on the decline. The attitude of the topmost labor leadership was troubled and unfriendly. In 1930, Matthew Woll stated:

> Benefit systems, where they are still in operation, are a constant source of trouble. They are encountering all of the troubles that beset unscientific institutions. Their assessments must be raised constantly to meet rising ages, and increases of assessments are always resented. All manner of complications result. * * * Few union operations are today productive of as much woe and uncertainty as the benefit systems that remain in operation.[2]

[2] Why Trade-Union Group Insurance Rather Than a Benefit Plan? (*In* The American Photo-Engraver, April 1930.)

Daniel J. Tobin, president of the Teamsters' Union, said very much the same thing in recent years:

> Our advice to local unions is to keep away from the sick benefit and from the unemployment benefit as much as possible. * * * Local unions should not overload themselves with liabilities during these prosperous days. Build up your treasuries. Remember there are lean years ahead of us.[3]

Welfare programs had come to be regarded as of little importance when, in the early 1930's, union leaders, in launching their campaign to organize the mass-production industries, found to their dismay that in many instances workers were reluctant to join bona fide unions because their own "company unions" were providing them with various forms of health and welfare benefits and recreational facilities which the bona fide unions could not match. Hence, those unions which succeeded in organizing mass-production industries had to promise their newly organized members, in addition to increased earnings and shorter hours, the continuation of the welfare features to which they had become accustomed. Thus, a number of labor unions unexpectedly and sometimes unwillingly undertook social welfare programs quite out of line with their general outlook.

Stimulus Under Little Steel Formula

At this point a basic change in the nature of "union welfare programs" took place. Hitherto, the term implied plans financed by the workers themselves, through regular payments or assessments; henceforth it was to mean funds and programs financed—in part at least—by the employers, in accordance with an understanding reached through collective bargaining and often embodied in the collective agreement. The limitation of wage increases during World War II under the Little Steel Formula greatly promoted this development. Beyond the 15 percent increase above January 1941 levels authorized for direct wage increases, it was possible to obtain indirect increases in the form of "fringe adjustments" including employer-financed health, welfare, and vacation plans. As E. E. Witte, of the National War Labor Board, explained:

> It is clear from all these cases that the Board will not normally order an employer to institute a group insurance plan or direct the liberalization of a plan in existence. Each case, however, will be judged on its own facts, and where it is clearly necessary in the interests of a fair and equitable disposition of the dispute to require the employer to institute or liberalize a group insurance plan, the Board will so direct.[4]

Under the pressure of the war, and in view of the high profits which industry was earning, management was not averse to this directive.

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[3] International Teamster, April 1944.

[4] Daily Report on Labor-Management Problems, No. 76 (Bureau of National Affairs), April 13, 1945.

As a result, union welfare programs were initiated in many segments of the trade-union movement.

Present-Day Types of Programs

The type of welfare program in operation today varies with the circumstances in the particular industry or locality in which it functions. In some instances—for example, the erstwhile Kaiser shipbuilding enterprise on the West Coast—the program is financed entirely by deductions from the workers' earnings, but is managed exclusively by the company. The Endicott Johnson Co. of Binghamton, N. Y., has a different approach: It not only assumes the entire administration of the plan, but also furnishes all the finances as well. A third type is that maintained by the Consolidated Edison Co. of New York, whereby the program is financed by contributions from both the employees and the employer, although administration is the exclusive prerogative of the company. The fourth kind—which will be discussed here in detail—is that of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union local unions. Here the programs are financed entirely by management, but the day-to-day administration is left to the union, subject to review of a council on which the employers are represented.

Ladies' Garment Workers' Health and Welfare Programs

History.—The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union entered the field of welfare programs soon after the historic cloakmakers' strike of 1910. Several local unions, notably Pressers' Local 35 and Cloak Tailors' Local 9, both of New York City, established tuberculosis benefit funds, to which each member contributed a dollar a year. Workers found suffering from tuberculosis were eligible to a cash benefit of $100, or a sojourn in the country for a minimum period of 10 weeks at the full expense of the union.

Not so long ago, it will be recalled, the needle trades constituted a thoroughly sweated industry, giving rise to the term "sweatshop". Not much attention was paid to the plight of the workers except by the weak and struggling unions (which, single-handedly, were unable to do much), and by a few reformers. Most of the garment factories in New York City were located in the tenement slums of the East Side; building piled upon building without vacant space for admitting sunshine, light, or air. Sanitary facilities were lacking. The long hours of employment and low wages compelled many workers to use the factory as a lodging. Employers did not object to this arrangement, because it saved them the expense of a watchman. There were no factory laws to observe.

Under these conditions, it was inevitable that tuberculosis should become the chief occupational disease in the garment industry. Such an environment also led to one of the most disastrous industrial catastrophes known in our country, wherein 147 young women workers lost their lives in a fire which broke out in the Triangle Waist Shop in March 1911. It was definitely established, at the criminal trial which followed, that the owners had the factory doors (including those leading to the fire escapes) locked during working hours.

These startling facts came to light as a result of an industry-wide investigation conducted by the United States Public Health Service in 1912 in cooperation with the Joint Board of Sanitary Control. This unique institution came into being as a result of the signing of the "protocol of peace," which followed the prolonged and bitter general strike of the coat and suit makers of New York in 1910. Its main objectives were the elimination of dreaded sweatshop conditions and of fire hazards.

Louis D. Brandeis, Louis Marshall, and Hamilton Holt were the chief architects of this idea. The Board was originally administered by representatives of the employers, the workers, and the public, the latter consisting of Dr. William J. Schieffelin, Lillian D. Wald, and Dr. Henry Moskowitz. Its medical director, the late Dr. George M. Price, succeeded several years thereafter in interesting the parties not only in the maintenance and observance of more desirable working conditions, but also in the improvement of the health of the workers.

UNION HEALTH CENTER

Thus, from a small beginning involving only a few thousand workers, a huge institution today, known as the Union Health Center,[5] was created. It is owned and operated on a nonprofit basis by the ILGWU. Housed at present in its own modern, fireproof 27-story building, it is serving the needs of the 150,000 ILGWU members located in the New York area. In 1945, it rendered no less than 164,636 medical services to 28,056 patients. During the same year, it handled a total of 11,881 disability cases, to whom it rendered 24,652 services. The institution is at present under the directorship of Dr. Leo Price, son of the founder and first administrator of the Center. It has a medical staff of about 100, with a lay staff of over 150.

From the public health standpoint, the Union Health Center is unique. It was the first institution of its kind in the country, and its director is frequently called into consultation by government bureaus and other agencies interested in public health problems.

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[5] See Monthly Labor Review, October 1939 (p. 811), for description of the ILGWU health program.

GROWTH OF PROGRAM

In the years that followed, local unions of the ILGWU began to inaugurate first a tuberculosis benefit fund and later a limited form of sickness insurance. Both of these benefits were financed by a 35-cent monthly stamp paid by the workers. The actual amount of benefits varied, but the high point was reached in the payment of $150 to tubercular members and a weekly sick benefit of $7 for a period of 8 to 10 weeks.

At the present time, the great majority of the ILGWU's 350,000 members, distributed in 420 separate local unions in 275 communities in 35 States and Canada, enjoy some form of health and welfare benefit.

New York Dress Joint Board

The largest single unit in this integrated union welfare program of the ILGWU is the New York Dress Joint Board, which includes three local unions (22, 60, and 89), with a membership of approximately 60,000. (Cutters Local 10, though part of the Joint Board, is for the present not participating in the program.)

When the collective agreement between the Dress Joint Board and the employers' associations in the New York dress industry was renewed on May 6, 1944, a new clause was included providing for a 3½-percent pay roll contribution by the employers to maintain a health and welfare program. The funds, according to the terms of the agreement, "shall be used exclusively for the members of the union and for the payment of the operating and administrative expenses thereof."

"The health fund," by further provision of the agreement, "shall be administered by the Joint Board, and the Joint Board shall determine what proportionate amount of the health fund shall be allocated for health benefit and what proportionate amount shall be allocated for vacation benefit. With respect to health benefits, the parties hereby create a council consisting of two representatives of the Affiliated Association, two of the National Association, and two of the Popular Association, and six representatives of the Joint Board of the Dress and Waistmakers' Union, which shall be presided over by the Impartial Chairman. The council shall have the right to determine the types and amounts of health benefits which the members of the union shall receive and which, however, shall not exceed the total amount allocated by the union for health benefit. The Joint Board shall file with the council any rules and regulations relating to health benefits which it may adopt, and amendments which it may make thereto, and shall report periodically to the council the accomplishments of the health fund with respect to health and vacation

benefits. With respect to vacation benefits, the parties agree that the Joint Board shall have the right to adopt rules and regulations in connection therewith and to establish the eligibility of members of the union for benefits and the amounts of benefits to be paid them."

TYPES OF BENEFITS PAID BY THE BOARD

Benefits currently paid by the New York Dress Joint Board are as follows:

(1) *Cash benefit.*—Members who are ill and unable to work are entitled to a cash benefit of $15 a week for a period of 10 weeks each calendar year. It is paid upon certification by the medical department of the union (Union Health Center), and continues as long as the member is unable to work, up to 10 weeks.

(2) *Hospitalization.*—Members are entitled to a benefit of $5 per day for each day of hospitalization up to 60 days in any calendar year.

(3) *Surgery benefit.*—The union pays every member undergoing a surgical operation a sum varying from $10 to $50, depending upon the nature of the operation.

(4) *Medical credits.*—In addition to all the above benefits, every member of the union is entitled to $25-a-year medical service at the Union Health Center for general medical examination, special laboratory tests, or X-ray.

(5) *Maternity assistance.*—A $50 maternity benefit is paid members upon presentation of a board of health birth certificate. The plan is being enlarged to include stillbirths, etc.

(6) *Eye conservation program.*—Every member is entitled to free and unlimited eye treatment and to free eyeglasses.

(7) *Tuberculosis benefit.*—Members who are found to have tuberculosis are sent, at the expense of the fund, to any one of the many tuberculosis sanitariums with which it is affiliated, and are kept there until their health is fully restored. Those desiring to withdraw from membership and take care of their health independently of the fund's provisions are allowed a cash settlement of $250. The obvious difference in cost between an unlimited stay in a recognized health institution with all costs (including regular sick benefit and personal expenses) paid by the fund, and the alternative of $250 allowed a sick member who undertakes his own cure, is intended to deter members from asking for cash settlements and to encourage them to enter an institution where the chances for the arrest of the illness and its ultimate cure are so much better.

(8) *Vacation benefit.*—Every member of the union, employed or available for employment in the industry, is entitled to a cash vacation benefit ranging from $33 to $48, depending upon the particular craft of the worker. This sum is payable on the first of June of each year.

(9) *Death benefit.*—In addition to the $150 lump-sum death benefit paid by the home office of the ILGWU, for which the individual member pays $1 a year, most of the local unions pay an additional $150 without any contribution from the members. Death benefits, it should be noted, are not financed from the Joint Board Health Fund, but by the members' contributions supplemented by the local treasuries.

COST OF BOARD'S HEALTH AND WELFARE PROGRAM

The size and scope of the New York Dress Joint Board health and welfare system are indicated by the payment, during the first 8 months of 1946, of over $600,000 for seven kinds of health benefits (as shown by the following table) and of more than 2 million dollars in vacation benefits in 1946.

Comparative amount of health benefits paid during first 8 months of 1945 and 1946

Type of benefit	First 8 months		Increase	
	1946	1945	Amount	Percent
Total amount paid	$624,199.42	$393,072.37	$231,127.05	58.8
Cash benefits	397,042.50	288,224.05	108,818.45	37.8
Hospitalization benefit	82,168.00	40,015.00	42,153.00	105.3
Surgery benefit	16,980.00		16,980.00	100.0
Medical credit	83,434.87	37,638.75	45,796.12	121.7
Maternity assistance	6,725.00		6,725.00	100.0
Eye conservation program	32,941.95	25,608.57	7,333.38	28.6
Tuberculosis benefit	4,907.10	1,586.00	3,321.10	209.4

Per capita costs.—On the basis of the foregoing figures, it is estimated that the average cost in *health benefits* alone, excluding medical and general administration, is over $16 per member per year.

The cost is not uniform for the three local unions involved in the foregoing table. Thus, Local 22, with a dues paying membership of 25,671, runs its various forms of benefits at an annual cost of $19.36. Local 89, with a membership of 30,405, averages $12.69, and Local 60, with 2,766 members, averages $19.34. The wide difference in costs between Local 89 and the other two locals is attributable largely to the fact that the former is composed of a considerably younger element; moreover, the whole benefit system is more recent in this union than in the other locals, with the result that its membership is not yet fully aware of what it has to offer, and so does not take the same advantages of the program as do the other two unions.

Actual *per capita costs* in *cash sick benefits*, including the medical fees involved in the examination of sick members, are as follows:

	1946	*1945*
Local 22	$11.15	$8.43
Local 60	10.52	8.44
Local 89	8.45	6.34

Cost of medical benefits (on a per capita basis) are distributed as follows:

	1946	*1945*
Local 22	$3.29	$1.64
Local 60	3.43	1.69
Local 89	.99	.32
	Claim rate per 1,000 (percent)	
Local 22	16⅔	12⅗
Local 60	16⅓	12⅗
Local 89	10⅘	8⅗

General administration, including complete supervision as well as audit of employers' books, runs at the rate of 5 percent of gross collections.

A further examination of the foregoing table (p. 208) shows that as the health fund becomes better known to the members, payments increase correspondingly. This fact accounts for the 29 percent rise in the eye conservation program, wherein no change in benefit rate was made between the first and second year of operation.

Increases in the other parts of the program are due primarily to the change in schedules which went into effect on April 1, 1946, whereby the weekly rate of cash benefit was increased from $12 to $15, the hospitalization benefit from $3 to $5 per day and from 20 to 60 days per year, and medical credits from $15 to $25 per year. Two entirely new benefit forms were added—surgery benefit and maternity assistance.

There was also a substantial increase in the *vacation benefit* paid this year. From a preliminary report recently made available, it is evident that, although the total amount disbursed for vacation benefit for the full year ending May 30, 1945, amounted to $1,476,709.90, the vacation benefit paid out for the year ending May 30, 1946, amounted to at least $2,069,254.46, an increase of over 40 percent. This advance is explained in part by the fact that vacation benefits were increased by $10, and in part by the rise in the number of claimants (51,077 to 53,503) for the benefit. The average cost of this type of benefit was about $39 per member during the 1946 period indicated.

The administrators of the health fund are not disturbed by these increases. The industry is still operating at a good pace and the receipts in 1946 not only compared well with the previous year but also showed an increase of 13.9 percent, as of August 1, 1946. As a result of the added income, the health fund has been in a position to put away a substantial reserve, from which it expects to be able to increase current benefits still further and gradually add new forms of benefits.

The types of benefits herein described are determined by the experience which the union has gained from the operations of similar funds during the past 30 years and are also geared to the revenue

derived during the past year. As already indicated, systematic upward readjustment is anticipated. Knowing the character of the industry—its sharp seasonal fluctuations and general instability—the union administration is taking a most careful attitude with respect to scales of payment since it does not want ever to be in a position which necessitates reduction in benefits.

HOW BENEFITS ARE PAID

We were faced with the problem of how to pay benefits. Instead of establishing a completely new department, with an individual record for each of the 60,000 dues-paying members, which would have required continuous posting of the members' records, we agreed to utilize the already existing sick-benefit departments of the individual locals and their records. Thus, members who take sick report directly to the local to which they belong. The health fund department of the locals, in accordance with uniform rules and regulations, then notifies the Union Health Center of the case. The member is examined within 3 days, and if disability is established, the first week's benefit is paid on the tenth day following the receipt of the report of illness. Thereafter, weekly checks are mailed upon the seventh day.

At the conclusion of each month, the local health fund departments submit detailed statements of disbursements to the secretary-treasurer of the Joint Board Health Fund Committee, who reimburses such amounts to the local health funds, subject to audit.

Any member who feels that he has been deprived of his rights or that he has not been paid in full for his disability, has ample opportunity to lay his grievance before his elected local officer. He can explain, in a language which both understand, his particular claim. He thus has the satisfaction of "talking it out" with the chief administrator of his local union, rather than having to be content with a mute, stereotyped form reply.

If he is still dissatisfied, he has an opportunity to appear before a committee on claims, which meets regularly in the office of the union. This committee is composed of two rank-and-file members from each of the affiliated local unions, and is presided over by the secretary-treasurer of the Joint Board. The rules and regulations of the health fund empower this committee to make whatever adjustments the facts would seem to justify.

In this fashion, we have established a machinery which allows for a centrally controlled administration and at the same time offers wide flexibility, giving the local unions a substantial degree of autonomy and the individual member a feeling that he is not hopelessly removed from the administration of his union and its funds.

Other Considerations

EMPLOYERS' COOPERATION

Obviously the comprehensive health and welfare program here outlined could not have been undertaken without the security and strong organization which the ILGWU has been able to develop in the past 30 years. When a trade-union must devote all of its energies and resources in struggling for adequate wages and decent working conditions, it has neither the time nor the means to think in terms of social welfare programs. Once it has achieved a substantial degree of unionization and control over workers in the industry, it can undertake these "extracurricular" activities, which then become a legitimate part of its industrial program.

In fairness to the employers in our industry, it should be said that they, too, are entitled to credit for the inauguration and development of our welfare program. In the course of the past 30 years of collective bargaining these employers have learned to recognize a responsibility beyond providing adequate earnings and decent working conditions to the men and women in their employ. They have become acquainted at first hand with the social and economic value of human welfare.

WIDE ACCEPTANCE OF UNION WELFARE PROVISIONS

Encouraged by the success which the ILGWU has scored in the field of social welfare, many other unions have, in recent years, succeeded in incorporating similar provisions in their collective agreements. Among them are the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America (CIO), including its New York and Chicago divisions; Federation of Dyers, Finishers, Printers, and Bleachers of America (CIO); United Furniture Workers of America (CIO); United Hatters, Cap, and Millinery Workers' International Union (AFL); Upholsterers' International Union of North America (AFL); New York Hotel Trades Council;[6] Chain Service Restaurant Employees' Union;[6] International Jewelry Workers' Union (AFL); International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers (CIO); and International Printing Pressmen's and Assistants' Union of North America (AFL). More recently this movement was spurred by the United Mine Workers of America (AFL), which in a recent agreement has provided for a minimum of social security for the hundreds of thousands of coal miners. Because of the grave industrial hazards to which miners are always exposed, this form of protection would have been desirable even before the garment workers and others began to enjoy it. Henceforth welfare benefits become an important issue in em-

[6] Members of the Hotel and Restaurant Employees International Alliance (AFL) in Greater New York.

ployer-employee negotiations. This was made clear by President William L. Green in his report to the convention of the American Federation of Labor held in Chicago in October 1946.[7]

EFFECT OF PROGRAM ON UNION

What has been the effect of this welfare program upon the organization? Does it make for a stronger union? Definitely, yes. Among the chief factors making for the strength and effectiveness of the ILGWU have been its comprehensive benefit services, including, of course, its highly developed educational and cultural program.

In the early stages of the ILGWU, its membership was in a constant state of flux. The industry in all its branches was sharply seasonal. Shop strikes would break out on the eve of every season. The workers would obtain some wage increases here and there, only to see them disappear several weeks later. There was nothing to bind the garment worker to his union. He would join and drop out at frequent intervals. The turn-over in membership was tremendous.

With the introduction of the benefit system conditions changed radically. Today the person who joins the ILGWU has every good reason to maintain his membership even in slack periods. He no longer drops his membership at the end of the busy season as he did formerly, because today his membership is a form of security against illness, unemployment, accident, and death. This makes for stability, organizational strength, and effectiveness on the industrial field and gives the union real capacity for expansion.

New Programs Create New Problems

The administration of union health and welfare plans carries with it certain new responsibilities and creates certain new problems which are already beginning to make themselves felt.

1. I should like to stress particularly the need for actuarial experience and guidance in the operation of welfare programs. Heretofore, unions have relied on whatever data they were able to obtain from governmental and private sources, together with their own meager information acquired in the course of experience. Benefit scales have been fixed simply on the basis of availability of funds. Little account has been taken of such facts as the increasing age of the membership and the consequent higher incidence of illness. Will the unions be in a financial position to pay the present benefits in the years ahead, when the needs will become greater and the means more limited? This is but one example of the kind of questions that must be considered. So many factors are involved that, unless the actuarial aspect is properly handled, the entire program may be jeopardized.

[7] See p. 195 of this issue for statement from Mr. Green's report,

2. It appears to me that the trade-unions ought to begin pooling their experience with a view to setting up definite criteria to enable welfare programs to stand the strains and stresses inevitable under our present economic set-up. It is my feeling that the more efficiently and the more scientifically our funds are administered, the more likely we are to preserve their voluntary character.

3. Another problem which has come to the fore is that of investment. The profitable and secure investment of union health funds, as well as of union funds in general, constitutes a tremendous responsibility upon union leadership. Because persons directly in charge of union funds are free from the governmental restrictions to which most of the nonprofit fraternal organizations, savings banks, and insurance companies are subject, they have to use extreme prudence and care. Investment is a study in itself, and few of the union officials in charge of funds are trained in it. What may appear as a sound proposition to one man may be discarded by another for the sake of an additional fractional percent of interest. Most funds have met the problem by limiting investment to the purchase of Federal, State, and municipal bonds. This seems to be a fairly safe course to follow, and one which will not subject the administrator to criticism in the event the bonds drop in value. But even here there are elements of danger. Some municipalities and States represent a better risk than others. Standards should be set up as to types of investment. The question of maturities is similarly important. Portfolios must be so arranged that advantage is taken of changed financial conditions. It is a mistake to think that, once a Government bond is bought, it must be kept to maturity.

4. The complete segregation of health and welfare funds from the general funds of the union is not only desirable but absolutely necessary. It has already been noted that some unions were at times compelled to suspend or entirely liquidate their health and sick benefit programs because of industrial conflicts that completely drained their resources. No union can consider itself forever immune from labor-management clashes. Unless the health and welfare funds are properly segregated, there is danger that they may be used, directly or indirectly, for general union activity. In this connection, there comes to mind an incident in the course of one of our perennial strikes in the late 1920's. When I told the strike committee that the money to which reference was made was the property of the sick-benefit fund one of the strike leaders told me, "If we don't win this strike, there'll be no union and no sick fund." To this I replied, "As long as there is this sick fund, something will always be left of the union." Experience not only in the ILGWU but in many other sections of the labor movement has proved these words correct.

In the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and all its affiliates segregation of funds is an established and fixed policy. Its supreme governing body—the general executive board—has long ago laid down the law that in no instance and under no circumstances are funds to be intermingled.

Needless to say, trade-unions have entered the field of social welfare out of sheer necessity. The attitude of some employers with respect to the health and welfare of their workers and the past inadequacy of governmental plans left them no other course. However, it is hoped that the social security program of the Federal Government, which now offers only a limited form of protection, will eventually embrace all forms of sickness insurance and medical, mental, hospital, surgical, dental, and prenatal care. When this happens, some unions will gladly turn over their responsibilities to the Government and continue to pioneer in other fields of social reform and economic justice.

How well the Government will run this program, no one can tell. Some trade-unionists do not relish the idea of exposing their members to the potential red tape of bureaucratic management. When we reach that point, it may be well to rely upon the experience which the European trade-unionists had in this respect. In pre-Hitler Germany and Austria, as well as in the Scandanavian countries, welfare funds, under the name of "Arbeiter-Kranken und Sterbe-Kasse," functioned very satisfactorily on a tripartite basis—Government, industry, and labor. It may be that we can do the same, and with our American ingenuity, may be able to improve upon it. But I am not prepared to formulate any definite program of administration. We lack sufficient experience to come to definite conclusions. We should, however, endeavor to develop a workable and, above all, a humane approach to the problem. In the administration of health and welfare programs, we are constantly dealing with sick and disabled people. To restore them to health and at the same time help them retain their human dignity is a task worthy of our best talents and attention.

Wartime and Postwar Experiences of Connecticut Small-Arms Workers [1]

CONTINUING its 150-year old tradition, Connecticut during World War II was a leading producer of small arms. Not only has it supplied military weapons in large quantities in times of war, but in peacetime it has been in the foreground as a manufacturer of service, sporting, and target rifles and pistols. Times of war, of course, brought about the most rapid expansion followed by sharp contractions as the industry returned to filling peacetime market needs. During World War II employment increased over 150 percent between 1939 and the summer of 1943, the peak period when about 40,000 workers (8 percent of the total employed in manufacturing in Connecticut) were engaged in small-arms production. Between 1943 and 1945 there was a decline of more than 35 percent and further losses followed thereafter.

Postwar Adjustments

In the spring of 1945 when the Bureau of Labor Statistics first made its survey of 300 war workers employed by three large producers of small arms in New Haven and Hartford,[2] the tide of wartime expansion had already turned. When the same workers were restudied in the winter of 1945–46, 20 percent were unemployed and seeking work. Six months later, the employment situation had improved considerably; the jobless represented 7 percent of the total which was still higher than the corresponding rate, 5 percent, for the civilian labor force as a whole. Slightly over a fourth of the wartime small-arms workers were still with their same employers as in April 1945 (table 1).

Those 45 years of age or over were apparently having greater difficulty than younger persons in finding suitable employment—9 percent of the former in contrast with 6 percent of the latter were unemployed in June 1946. It is interesting, however, that of those employed, considerably more older than younger persons were retained by their wartime employers. This is probably attributable to the fact that a relatively larger number of the older workers were among the more highly skilled, some of them with long experience in the industry.

Improved employment opportunities in June resulted in fewer women being out of work and seeking jobs, while more had withdrawn

[1] Prepared by William E. Northey, Jr., of the Boston Regional Office of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] This random sample of 300 workers included 100 from each of the three plants. All plant departments and occupations were considered in the selection and proportionate representation was given to men and women. Of the 300 workers covered in the spring of 1945, 247 or 82 percent were men and 53 or 18 percent were women.

TABLE 1.—*Employment status of 294 small-arms workers, by age and sex, June 1946*

Employment status	Percentage distribution of workers—				
	All workers	By age		By sex	
		Under 45	45 and over	Men	Women
With same employer as in spring 1945	28	17	41	26	38
With different employer	48	59	36	53	26
Self-employed	7	8	6	8	2
Unemployed and seeking work	7	6	9	6	13
In armed forces	1	1		1	
Not seeking work	8	8	7	5	21
Not reported	1	1	1	1	
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Number of workers	[1] 294	155	139	241	53

[1] Of the original 300 workers, 3 had died since first interviewed in April 1945 and 3 others could not be loca ed.

from the labor market compared with the situation 6 months earlier. In January, approximately a fourth of the women reported they were jobless compared to 13 percent in June. Withdrawals from the labor market accounted for only 5 percent of the women in the beginning of the year in contrast to 21 percent 6 months later. As might be expected, more women than men were unemployed or had retired from gainful employment.

With the end of war work, average weekly earnings declined from about $69 to $46, a loss of a third, between the spring of 1945 and the winter of 1945–46. Subsequent wage rate increases had the effect of lifting weekly pay by approximately $1.60—an increase that was probably nullified by the advance in the prices of living essentials (table 2).

Workers who remained with their wartime employers fared considerably better than those who left to take jobs elsewhere. Based on the figures given in table 2, a decline in weekly pay between April 1945 and June 1946 of nearly $7 (a 12-percent loss in earnings) is

TABLE 2.—*Average weekly gross earnings and weekly hours for 113 identical small-arms workers in 4 periods*

Item	Number of workers	1941		Spring 1945		Winter 1945–46		June 1946	
		Gross earnings	Hours	Gross earnings	Hours	Gross earnings	Hours	Gross earnings	Hours
Total, identical workers	113	$35.28	49.2	$68.85	50.2	$45.97	47.2	$47.58	45.4
With same employer	30	41.66	47.4	56.53	52.3	53.61	50.1	49.71	44.7
With different employer	83	32.97	49.9	73.30	49.5	43.22	46.1	46.80	45.6
Under 45 years	61	32.81	49.5	73.06	49.6	45.80	46.5	48.04	44.9
45 years and over	52	38.18	48.9	63.90	51.0	46.20	48.0	47.03	46.0

shown for the first group as against $26.50 (a 36-percent loss) for the latter group. Obviously, the latter group included many workers who found it necessary to transfer to other industries and to other types of work in which compensation was much lower than in their wartime jobs. Moreover, in these peacetime jobs, many workers were not employed overtime or on late shifts and consequently did not have their earnings augmented by premium pay.

Weekly earnings of the older men did not drop as much as those of the younger, largely because more of the older men were retained by their wartime employers and more of them held skilled jobs. A little over a year after they were first interviewed, men 45 years of age and over showed a 26-percent decline in weekly pay as against a 34-percent drop for those under 45.

One of the reasons for the postwar decline in earnings is indicated by table 3 which shows the employment status of workers by industry group. In June 1946, only 56 percent of the small-arms workers were still in manufacturing. Agriculture and mining, which together accounted for a little over 2 percent of the workers in January 1941, had not as of June 1946 regained even this small prewar proportion. Aside from these two fields, the distribution of workers among the major industry divisions was essentially the same in June 1946 as in January 1941.

The shifting of workers among occupational groups appears to have been more marked than the interindustry movements. The self-employed were a considerably larger unit (9 percent) after the war than before (5 percent). White-collar workers doing clerical or sales work showed a decline from 11 to 9 percent, but the professional

TABLE 3.—*Employment status of small-arms workers, by industry group, January 1941 and June 1946*

Industry group	Number of workers		Percentage distribution	
	January 1941	June 1946	January 1941	June 1946
Total	300	[1] 294	100	100
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	7	2	2	1
Mining	1		[2]	
Construction	21	18	7	6
Manufacturing	172	164	57	56
Wholesale and retail trade	23	20	8	7
Finance, insurance, and real estate	1	6	[2]	2
Transportation, communication, and public utilities	6	7	2	2
Services	31	25	10	9
Government	5	5	2	2
In armed forces	1	2	[2]	1
Not seeking work	23	22	8	7
Unemployed	9	21	3	7
Not reported		4		1

[1] Since first survey, 3 workers died and 3 could not be located.
[2] Less than a half of 1 percent.

and semiprofessional group retained its proportional importance (1 percent). Craftsmen and manual workers accounted for 78 percent of the workers studied before the war and 74 percent afterwards—a relatively small change. However, within this group a fair amount of shifting among skill levels is evident (see table 4). Comparing June 1946 with the prewar situation, the skilled component remained relatively constant, but there were fewer semiskilled and more unskilled workers. Compared with the wartime situation, the alignment after the war shows a small increase in the skilled group, a large addition to the unskilled, and a diminution in the semiskilled.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage distribution of craftsmen and manual workers, specified periods*

Class of worker	Prewar [1]	Wartime [2]	Postwar [3]
Skilled	37	27	33
Semiskilled	57	68	49
Unskilled	6	5	18
Total	100	100	100
Number of workers	225	279	180

[1] Based on workers having employment experience prior to January 1941.
[2] As of April 1945.
[3] As of June 1946; includes only employed workers.

Postwar movements out of Connecticut were even smaller than wartime in-migration, despite the high unemployment rate (20 percent) in the winter of 1945–46. When the 300 small-arms workers were first studied (April 1945), it was found that only 10 percent had moved from one community to another after 1941 in order to seek work or to obtain jobs already offered. Most of these workers came from other States. More than a year later (June 1946), the migrants accounted for only 6 percent of the total, and only about half (9 workers) left Connecticut. The fact that the great majority were long-time residents of this State probably explains the absence of any considerable out-migration. In addition, reconversion in this highly industrialized area must have fostered the hope that alternative desirable jobs would soon become available. From the improved employment situation observed in June 1946 it would appear that, at least temporarily, the workers' expectations in this respect were not ill-founded.

The Small-Arms Worker

In the spring of 1945 the average age of the men studied was 46; the women were 13 years younger. About three-fourths of the men were between 30 and 60 years of age and 16 percent were at least 60. Among the women, approximately two-fifths were in the age group 35 to 55 and only 6 percent were older. The withdrawal of younger men into the armed forces during the war years undoubtedly acted to

widen the age spread between men and women at home. Moreover, many of the younger women, whose entrance into the labor market would have come later under peacetime conditions, were attracted by the opportunities afforded by war work. A relatively larger number of older men than older women were probably also drawn into the labor force during the war.

The financial responsibilities of these workers varied considerably. More than 9 out of 10 men were the chief supporters of families having 2 or more persons; only 3 percent of the men, compared with 44 percent of the women, were living in families of which they were not the heads. Only 63 of the 300 workers studied, chiefly women, reported having no dependents. Among the men, over a third had 1 dependent, a fourth had at least 2 dependents, and nearly 30 percent had 3 or more. As might be expected, a larger number of men than women were the only employed members of their families. Only one worker, a man, reported that there were more than 4 employed persons in his family.

Prewar and Wartime Work Experience

In the production of small arms, the great majority (two-thirds) of the 300 workers held semiskilled jobs, while approximately a fourth were skilled and about 5 percent unskilled. About a fifth of the women but only about 3 percent of the men were employed in plant clerical occupations, performing the work of production and stock clerks, timekeepers, and similar groups.

Half the workers did not go beyond the eighth grade, about two-fifths completed one or more years of high school, and only about 5 percent had some college education. When age was related to education, both men and women between the ages of 21 and 45 showed longer formal schooling than those over 45.

Trade or vocational training taken prior to 1941 was reported by 27 percent of the men and 6 percent of the women. During the war less than 5 percent of the workers received any formal vocational training reflecting, in all probability, that a larger number had previous acquaintance with the type of work required in small-arms production and that others were trained on the job.

For the most part it can be said that the small-arms worker was prepared for his post through earlier experience in this or other industries. Three-fourths of the men and more than four-fifths of the women reported that in their usual peacetime employments they had been craftsmen or manual workers. Within this broad group, approximately half the men and practically all the women usually held semiskilled jobs. It is of interest that all but 10 workers (4 men and 6 women) had had employment experience before January 1941.

THE SHIFT TO WAR JOBS

Viewed in terms of broad levels of skill, a rough correlation was apparent between the workers' prewar usual occupations and those adopted during wartime. Of the 95 men with experience in semiskilled work prior to January 1941, 85 were employed in this grade in a small-arms plant in the spring of 1945. Similarly, 30 out of 36 women showed no change of occupational skill. Of the 82 men usually employed in skilled jobs, 61 showed no change, 20 moved down into the semiskilled group, and 1 into the unskilled. It may be pointed out that the acceptance of a job at a lower level of skill did not always entail a reduction in earnings or even in hourly wage rates. Workers who came from lower-wage industries often realized higher wages even though they accepted a job which did not fully utilize their acquired skills.

Four workers who had been farmers became semiskilled manual workers in the factory while those who were normally small businessmen became either skilled or semiskilled manual workers. Although all the women who had been clerks performed the same type of work, most of the men who had held the same type of job or who had been salesmen took semiskilled manual jobs.

Manufacturing industries and, in particular, machinery and ordnance producing establishments, were the sources from which the greatest number of the workers were drawn. Wholesale and retail trade yielded about 9 percent of the men but only one woman. The service trades, including hotels, laundries, advertising, and other personal and business services, were reported as areas of usual employment by another 9 percent of the men, and by about 8 percent of the women. Three men were normally employed in finance, insurance, and real estate, and one man had been a miner.

WARTIME CHANGES IN JOBS AND EMPLOYERS

During the war, workers changed jobs more frequently than they changed employers. Of the 300 workers included in this survey, almost 80 percent of the men and 87 percent of the women changed jobs between January 1941 and the spring of 1945. By contrast, only 56 and 53 percent of the men and women, respectively, changed employers. The largest number of men (85) made one-job change, while the largest number of women (15) made two-job changes. No man changed jobs more than 5 times, and only one woman had held as many as 7 jobs.

The reasons for the greater number of job than employer changes are fairly well known. The shortage of experienced workers encouraged upgrading of workers to an extent and at a rate uncommon in peacetime. Changes in production schedules because of alterations

in specifications and output called for reshuffling of the labor force in many instances. Some workers, of course, changed jobs for personal reasons—certain tasks were too fatiguing or too hazardous or simply unpleasant.

Only men came to the production of small arms from the three industrial groups comprising agriculture (in which 4 percent of the men were usually employed), transportation and communication, and other public utilities (another 4 percent), and construction (9 percent).

UNIONIZATION

Among the new experiences undertaken by many wartime workers was membership in a labor union. In April 1945, of the 300 workers studied, 235 were union members but well over one-half had not belonged to such an organization at any time prior to 1941. The proportion of women with no union experience before the war was only slightly higher than that of men. Of the 65 workers who at the time of survey were not union members, 14 had previously had such an affiliation.

Wartime Wages

In April 1945 straight-time hourly earnings, exclusive of premium overtime pay, averaged at least $1.00 for two-thirds of the small-arms workers, including over 70 percent of the men and 38 percent of the women. A fifth of all the workers, all but two of whom were men, had hourly earnings of $1.50 or more. At the low end of the wage scale, 3 workers earned less than 60 cents. The sharp differences in pay between men and women represent, in large part, differences in types of work performed.

It was possible to measure the changes in hourly rates of pay from 1941 to April 1945 for 237 workers; 63 either did not report their earlier earnings or they had entered the labor market at various times during the war years. The changes in hourly rates were as follows:

	Number	*Percent*
Decrease	19	8
No change	13	5
Increase less than 25 percent	50	21
Increase of 25 to 50 percent	20	13
Increase of 50 to 75 percent	29	12
Increase of 75 to 100 percent	17	7
Increase of 100 percent or more	79	34
Total	237	100

Of the 19 workers who had their rates cut during the war, only 1 was a woman. Moreover, a proportionately larger number of women than men had their rates increased, owing largely, to the compara-

tively lower wage level of women at the beginning of the war. Three-fourths of the men, who in January 1941 earned less than 70 cents, earned $1.00 an hour or better in April 1945. Almost two-thirds of the women with prewar rates of less than 60 cents earned between 90 cents and $1.30 at their small-arms jobs.

The average increase in straight-time rates for the 237 workers was 39 cents—40 cents for men and 35 cents for women. Despite the greater percentage increase for women, their rates in April 1945 were still considerably below those of men.

Approximately half of the 237 reporting workers showed at least a 50-percent advance in hourly rates compared with two-thirds who had comparable gains in gross weekly earnings. The percentage increase in gross weekly earnings was greater than the rise in hourly rates as a result of the lengthened workweek and premium payments for overtime.

Gross weekly earnings in April 1945 averaged $66.75. The greatest concentration of workers, 23 percent, was between $50 and $60 a week, 13 percent earned between $40 and $50, and an equal proportion between $20 and $40. Only eight workers, all men, reported earnings of $100 or more a week (table 5).

Income and social-security taxes and union dues deducted approximated 14 percent of the worker's average gross weekly earnings; the income tax accounted for all but 1 percent of the total deductions. Union members received larger gross and net weekly earnings than nonunion workers, largely because women formed a greater proportion of all nonunion workers in the plant than they did of all union workers. Of the 235 workers who were union members, only 13 percent were

TABLE 5.—*Classified straight-time hourly rates and gross weekly earnings of 300 small-arms workers, April 1945*

Straight-time hourly rate [1]	Total	Men	Women
Total	300	247	53
Under 60 cents	3	------	3
60 and under 70 cents	9	2	7
70 and under 80 cents	26	22	4
80 and under 90 cents	24	16	8
90 cents and under $1	38	27	11
$1 and under $1.10	42	33	9
$1.10 and under $1.20	31	25	6
$1.20 and under $1.30	27	24	3
$1.30 and under $1.40	17	17	------
$1.40 and under $1.50	20	20	------
$1.50 and over	63	61	2

Gross weekly earnings [2]	Total	Men	Women
Total	300	247	53
Under $25	1	------	1
$25 and under $30	1	1	------
$30 and under $35	2	1	1
$35 and under $40	15	9	6
$40 and under $45	14	11	3
$45 and under $50	25	18	7
$50 and under $55	30	20	10
$55 and under $60	38	27	11
$60 and under $65	26	22	4
$65 and under $70	30	25	5
$70 and under $75	20	17	3
$75 and under $80	26	26	------
$80 and under $85	21	20	1
$85 and under $90	20	19	1
$90 and under $95	14	14	------
$95 and under $100	9	9	------
$100 and over	8	8	------

[1] Excludes premium pay for overtime and night-shift differentials.
[2] Prior to deductions for social security and income tax and union dues.

women whereas of the 65 nonunion workers about 35 percent were women.

Workers with two dependents, both men and women, had the highest gross weekly earnings. Owing largely to the nature of the income-tax deductions, net weekly earnings increased in direct proportion to the number of dependents. Thus, men with five or more dependents, who grossed about $2 less per week than those with two dependents, had about $7.40 more in net weekly earnings. Men with no dependents received the smallest gross as well as net weekly earnings. While this was not true of women, the small number in the sample limits any generalization.

The differential in gross weekly earnings between skilled and semiskilled workers was approximately $2 for men and $2.50 for women. Weekly earnings for unskilled, clerical, and service workers, however, were considerably lower. Men in unskilled jobs averaged about $24 less than skilled workers, while women showed a differential of approximately $14 between the two grades. The percentage of deductions for income taxes, social security, and union dues was approximately the same for all grades of craftsmen and manual workers but somewhat lower for clerical and service workers.

In nearly all cases gross weekly earnings included premium overtime payments for work performed after 40 hours a week or 8 hours a day. For a fourth of the men and half of the women the normal week in April 1945 exceeded 52 hours.

In general, on an annual basis, workers earned more in 1944 than in 1943. Of the 281 workers for whom data were available, 76 percent averaged $2,500 or more in 1943 compared with 82 percent in the following year. It may be noted, however, that more workers reported incomes of $5,000 or over in 1943 than in 1944 (table 6).

TABLE 6.—*Classified annual wage income of 281 small-arms workers, 1943 and 1944*

Income class	Total		Men		Women	
	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944
Total workers reporting for both 1943 and 1944	[1] 281	281	232	232	49	49
Under $500	1				1	
$500 and under $1,000	4	2	2		2	2
$1,000 and under $1,500	6	2	5	1	1	1
$1,500 and under $2,000	13	10	7	4	6	6
$2,000 and under $2,500	44	37	22	19	22	18
$2,500 and under $3,000	50	61	40	45	10	16
$3,000 and under $3,500	57	54	53	50	4	4
$3,500 and under $4,000	49	48	46	46	3	2
$4,000 and under $4,500	24	35	24	35		
$4,500 and under $5,000	17	21	17	21		
$5,000 and over	16	11	16	11		

[1] Information unavailable for 7 men and 2 women.

Addendum: The Changing Status of Bituminous-Coal Miners, 1937–46

Attention has been called to the fact that, in the August 1946 Monthly Labor Review, the article on the changing status of bituminous-coal miners did not, in the discussion on principal issues in the 1946 contract negotiations (pp. 170–171), present the Operators' Negotiating Committee counterproposals of March 25. Although these proposals are listed in the subsequent Bulletin No. 882, based on the Review article, they are repeated in this issue of the Review as a matter of record. The counterproposals of that date included increases in wages consistent with public wage-price policy; study of a plan for a joint fund, to be independently administered, for mitigating hardships resulting from accidents; acceptance of optional as well as compulsory provisions of State workmen's compensation laws; joint study of State mining laws affecting safety; strengthening of penalties against violation of agreements; and transfer to union agents of all funds collected from miners for payment of medical and related costs when the local unions are dissatisfied with existing administration of such funds.

Wage and Hour Statistics

The Hired Farm Work Force in 1945 [1]

THE HIGHLY FLUID character of the hired farm labor force, owing primarily to the seasonality of labor demands in farming, is indicated by the results of a sample survey made in January 1946 by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. This survey, designed to provide information on the labor-force characteristics and wages of all persons who had done any farm work for wages during 1945, furnishes a cross-sectional view of the make-up of the hired farm labor population.

Types of Farm Wage Workers in 1945

Full-time hired farm laborers, numerically, constituted a minor part of the wage workers in agriculture in 1945. The majority of those reporting farm work shifted from hired work on farms to low-income nonagricultural occupations and more largely to farm operation (especially in the case of share croppers and other tenants of the South). In consequence, it is impossible to delineate the farm labor population as a fixed group.

The survey was restricted to persons 14 years of age and over who were in the noninstitutional civilian population in the United States in January 1946. Among this group, 3.2 million had done some farm work for wages during 1945. In addition, it is estimated that 0.8 million to 1 million other persons not covered in the survey [2] did farm work for wages, raising the total to an estimated 4 million. This total of 4 million or more persons exceeds greatly the 1945 average number of 2.1 million hired farm workers, as estimated by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Moreover, it is far above the year's seasonal peak figure, since not all these persons were employed at hired farm work in any single week.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff by Marilyn Sworzyn. This article is a summary of the study, Employment and Wages of the Hired Farm Working Force in 1945 (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, June 1946; mimeographed). See New Programs for Farm Labor Statistics, page 231 of this issue.

[2] These included children under 14 years of age; persons inducted into the armed forces during 1945 who were still in service in January 1946; persons who died during the year; prisoners of war; imported foreign workers who had left the country by January 1946; inmates of institutions; and some migratory workers who may have been "on the move" during the survey week.

Farm wage and employment conditions are not adequately described by over-all averages because of the diversity of the groups included. It is important, therefore, to examine the characteristics of the various groups who composed the 3.2 million farm wage workers included in the survey. (See table 1.) It should be emphasized that the characteristics of the farm labor force in the wartime year 1945, when the unsatiated demand for farm products and the shortage of farm labor sent farm wages and income to record heights, are not necessarily typical of the farm work force in an ordinary peacetime year.

The major portion of the hired farm labor force in 1945 was composed of small farmers, share croppers, and members of their families who worked at times for wages on other farms; sons, daughters, and wives of farm operators who paid cash wages to family members; local school youths who did a few weeks or months of farm work in summer; and persons in nearby villages and towns who worked most of the year in nonfarm jobs. Migratory farm workers and regular hired hands, the two major groups popularly viewed as the hired farm labor force, together probably made up considerably less than a fourth of the 1945 wage workers covered in the special survey.

TABLE 1.—*Farm wage workers in 1945 classified by employment status in January 1946* [1]

Employment status in January 1946 of persons who worked for wages on farms in 1945	Both sexes		Males						Females	
			Total		Less than 150 days worked [2]		150 or more days worked			
	Number (thousands)	Percent	Number (thousands)	Percent	Number (thousands)	Percent	Number (thousands)	Percent	Number (thousands)	Percent
Total farm wage workers	3,212	100	2,375	100	1,657	100	718	100	837	100
In the labor force	2,279	71	2,035	86	1,329	80	706	98	244	29
Employed in agriculture	1,640	51	1,548	65	924	56	624	87	92	11
Employed in nonagriculture	563	18	413	18	346	20	67	9	150	18
Unemployed	76	2	74	3	59	4	(3)	------	(3)	------
Not in the labor force	933	29	340	14	328	20	(3)	------	593	71

[1] Source: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Employment and Wages of the Hired Farm Working Force in 1945, June 1946; mimeographed. Estimates relate to persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian noninstitutional population in January 1946, who did farm work for wages in 1945.

[2] Includes 9,000 males for whom information on number of days worked was not obtained.

[3] Estimated as less than 50,000.

Only 935,000 of the 3,200,000 farm wage workers were still working for wages on farms during the second week of January 1946, a month in which hired farm employment is usually at its lowest level. The largest single group of persons who had worked for wages in 1945, but who were no longer so employed in January 1946, consisted of 589,000 farm operators (including sharecroppers) who reported that they were self-employed in January on their farms (owned or rented). In addition, 116,000 persons in farm operators' households, who had

done farm work for wages in 1945, were doing unpaid work on the family farm in January 1946.

Almost all the farm operators who reported having done some farm work for wages had worked less than half the year at hired farm work in 1945. The importance of the group which shifts from farm operator to hired farm worker status in the course of a year is evidenced by the fact that 24 percent of all men who did some work on farms for wages in 1945 reported themselves as self-employed on their farms in January 1946.

The second largest group among those who had been farm wage workers during some part of 1945, but were not hired farm workers at the time of the survey in January 1946, were the 563,000 employed in nonagricultural pursuits. Of this total 150,000 were engaged in manufacturing and 90,000 were employed in forestry, fishing, mining, and construction combined; 90,000 in domestic service; and the same number in trade. Very few of the workers who were engaged in nonfarm occupations in January had worked as much as 6 months at farm wage work in 1945.

Compared with the ages of most other occupational groups, the hired farm working force of 1945 was relatively young. Children between 14 and 17 years made up more than a fifth of all wage workers covered in the survey. Forty-seven percent of all the females were under 25 years of age, compared with 32 percent of all males. Approximately 37 percent were in the age group 14 to 24. Less than half as many were in the next group aged 25 to 34, and in each succeeding 10-year age group the number became smaller. Only 18 percent of the males were aged 35 to 44 years, the age group in which earnings were the highest.

The greater proportion of those employed for wages on farms in 1945 worked for short periods, due in part to seasonal demands. About two out of every five spent less than 25 days at hired farm work. Only about 17 percent reported 250 days' work or more (approximately full-time work) and four-fifths of this group were males. All told, only 25 percent spent as much as half of the year (150 days) in hired farm work.

About 76,000 unemployed were among the 1945 farm wage workers still in the labor force in January 1946. Although this group was relatively small, it was undoubtedly larger in prewar years when the level of unemployment nationally was appreciably above the 2,290,000 of January 1946.

Far greater in number than those unemployed in January 1946 were the 933,000 who had withdrawn from the labor force. Of these, about 371,000 were women who were engaged in their own housework,

328,000 children who were in school, and 227,000 who for a variety of reasons were neither working nor seeking work.

Seventy percent of the 3.2 million persons reporting some farm work during 1945 were still living on farms in midwinter 1946. Persons living in nonfarm rural areas accounted for another 20 percent.

Only 44 percent of the farm wage workers in 1945 were heads of households; a fourth of the total were women and girls. Veterans of World War II comprised only about 5 percent of the total hired farm working force in 1945, but the monthly surveys of the Bureau of the Census indicated rapid increases in the employment of veterans on farms during the first half of 1946.

About 31 percent of the 1945 agricultural wage workers did hired work on more than one farm during the course of the year. Almost a fifth reported working on three or more farms, but only 23 percent of this group had more than 3 months of farm wage work. The extent of migration was probably appreciably less in 1945 than in prewar years, owing to the fuller utilization of seasonal workers made possible by an extensive farm labor program of routing, transporting, and placing approximately 250,000 prisoners of war and imported foreign workers, not included in the survey.

Wages of Hired Farm Workers in 1945

The 17 percent of hired workers who worked on farms the full course of the year (250 days or more) put in 57 percent of the total man-days and received 54 percent of the total cash wages in 1945. Although in terms of total wage costs the wages of this group were the most significant, the survey is of special interest from the viewpoint of farm income and employment because of the light it throws on the employment and wages of the seasonal and part-time workers. The latter group constituted over four-fifths of the hired farm work force in 1945.

Those who did hired farm work for only a short period during the year averaged higher daily cash wages than those who worked the year round (table 2). In 1945, the cash wage per day of those who worked less than a month averaged $4.20, those who worked more than a month but less than half the year averaged $3.35, while those who worked 6 months or more averaged $2.75. Among the causes of these differences are no doubt the seasonal rise in wage rates during peak demands for labor and the relatively small value of perquisites of seasonal workers. For example, for the group of year-round male workers covered in the survey, the average value of perquisites more than offset the relatively low average cash wage received by this group.

TABLE 2.—*Days of work and cash wages earned by hired farm workers in 1945* [1]

Days of farm work in 1945	Both sexes			Males			Females		
	Average days of farm wage work	Average cash farm wages		Average days of farm wage work	Average cash farm wages		Average days of farm wage work	Average cash farm wages	
		Total	Per day worked		Total	Per day worked		Total	Per day worked
Total [2]	95	$284	$3.00	115	$353	$3.10	39	$93	$2.35
Under 25 days	11	45	4.20	11	54	5.00	11	31	2.80
25–149 days	59	197	3.35	62	220	3.55	53	143	2.70
150–249 days	195	524	2.70	199	571	2.85	174	290	1.70
250 days and over	321	914	2.85	321	923	2.85	(3)	(3)	(3)

Source: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Employment and Wages of the Hired Farm Working Force, in 1945, June 1946; mimeographed.

[1] Estimates relate to persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian noninstitutional population in January 1946, who did farm work for wages in 1945.

[2] Total covered in survey who reported both on time worked and on cash wages.

[3] Averages not shown because fewer than 50,000 female workers were estimated as working 250 days and over.

In spite of the fact that a greater proportion of the women worked for very short periods, their average daily cash wage was only $2.40, or 23 percent under the average of $3.10 for men. The disparity was greater for short-time workers than for all workers. An important factor in the lower national average for women is that women agricultural workers are heavily concentrated in the South, where farm wages are lower than in other major regions.

Only 1 percent of the workers included in the survey earned as much as $2,000 in cash wages in 1945. Two-fifths of the male workers and nearly three-fourths of the female workers earned less than $100 in cash farm wages. Those in the lowest brackets were mostly part-year workers.

The annual earnings of the majority of full-year workers did not even approach the $2,400 a year ceiling set in the general farm wage-stabilization program. For example, half of the group working 250 days or more made less than $815 in cash wages during the year. Only 6 percent made $2,000 or more.

Perquisites Received by Hired Farm Workers in 1945

For many years prior to the survey under discussion, no new information had been obtained on a Nation-wide basis regarding the frequency with which farmers furnish noncash wages or perquisites and their value. This led to divergent opinions as to the importance of such practices as they affect wages both as cost to the farmer and as income to the worker.

The survey of January 1946 throws light on the extent and size of noncash as well as cash wages. One of the uses of such data is to aid in comparisons of agricultural and nonagricultural wages.[3]

TABLE 3.—*Average wages and value of major perquisites received by farm wage workers in 1945* [1]

Workers by sex and number of farms worked on in 1945	Average farm wages of—						
	All workers			Workers reporting major perquisites			Workers reporting no major perquisites—Cash wages
	Total [2]	Cash wages	Value of major perquisites	Total [2]	Cash wages	Value of major perquisites	
Total workers	$324	$284	$44	$622	$476	$146	$202
Males	407	354	58	666	511	155	261
Females	97	92	5	173	123	50	89
Worked on 1 or 2 farms	336	292	50	653	497	156	196
Worked on 3 or more farms	262	249	14	390	324	66	229

[1] Source: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Employment and Wages of the Hired Farm Working Force in 1935, June 1946; mimeographed. Estimates relate to persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian noninstitutional population in January 1946, who did farm work for wages in 1945.

[2] Total farm wages as used here represent only the sum of the cash wages and the value of the major perquisites (housing, lodging, meals, or farm products) furnished the worker without charge. The total does not include any earnings in 1945 from nonfarm work or self-employment. The averages shown in the first column are not exactly equal to the sum of the averages shown in the next two columns because they are based on slightly different numbers of workers reporting cash wages and value of major perquisite items.

The January 1946 survey revealed that only 29 percent of the 1945 farm wage workers reported they were furnished at least one of three major perquisites (housing, meals, and farm products) without charge by farm operators who employed them (table 3). Seventy-one percent of all hired farm laborers who worked at least 250 days during 1945 reported receipt of one or more major perquisites, in contrast to only 14 percent of those who worked for less than 1 month.

About 35 percent of the men reported receipt of perquisites in contrast to only 10 percent of the women. Perquisites were less frequently given migratory workers than those who worked on one farm.

Housing and meals or one of the two were furnished an estimated 865,000 farm wage workers for a part of 1945. Of this group 200,000 were also provided food products by the operator without charge. Another 50,000 workers who did not get housing were given food products from the farm.

The 916,000 workers receiving one or more of the major perquisites reported an average value of $146 for the perquisites provided during the year. This amount was equal to 31 percent of their average cash wages of $476 received for farm work.

[3] The valuations of perquisites were obtained from the worker or a person in the worker's household reporting for the worker. The instructions specified that valuations of perquisites furnished should be made on the basis of rents or prices the worker would have had to pay if he had rented or purchased the same services or products of the same quality in the locality where he worked.

When related to the total number of persons who did farm work during the year, the average value of perquisites is far below $146. On the average, all persons who worked on farms for wages during 1945 received a noncash wage of $44 ($9 worth of farm products and $35 in lodging and meals). The two together were only 14 percent of the average wage of all workers, including both cash and perquisites.

The average cash wage of workers receiving perquisites ($476) was more than twice as great as the average for workers not reporting perquisites. This was mainly because most of those who receive perquisites are regular workers. For example, although males who worked as much as 250 days represented only about two-fifths of the workers reporting perquisites, they received almost three-fourths of the value of lodging, meals, and farm products.

New Programs for Farm Labor Statistics

In 1945 the Bureau of Agricultural Economics inaugurated two new types of farm labor surveys. These new programs make available for the first time periodic farm wage and labor force statistics on a basis that will facilitate comparisons not previously possible between farm and nonfarm wages and employment. The new surveys are of special importance in view of the attention being focused on the interrelationship between the employment and earnings of hired farm and nonfarm workers. This increasing interest results broadly from two factors.

First, there is growing recognition of the fact that the welfare of farm and nonfarm workers is interdependent. In times of declining industrial production and employment, for example, the reduced demand for farm products and the decline in nonfarm employment opportunities exert downward pressures on farm wages and income. Nonfarm workers seeking farm employment intensify the competition for farm jobs. The dearth of nonfarm employment opportunities for farm workers in turn compels a greater proportion of the farm population to remain on the land, thus aggravating the unbalance between farm population and resources. Second, the recent growth of large-scale commercialized farming, requiring sizable groups of hired workers, has led to the concentration of the hired farm work force on a comparatively small proportion of farms. This trend, accompanied by growing unionization in agriculture, has brought into closer relationship the employment and wages of certain segments of the farm and nonfarm work force.

The historical farm wage rate series, published quarterly since 1923 and earlier on an annual basis by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, are based on tabulations by a group of farmers known as "crop

reporters" who report through mail questionnaires the average wage for their locality. Wage data in the historical series are limited to rates per month and per day with and without board. Piece rates are indirectly covered through an instruction to the crop reporter to include average daily earnings of piece workers in reporting the daily rate. The value of perquisites is not included in the wage rate.

In the new program, however, data are obtained on the time worked and wages of individual workers, in addition to the wage rate. Data are also available from time to time on perquisites or noncash wages. These throw new light on the wage structure in agriculture.

It stands to reason that the farmer can report more accurately a particular wage rate in a specified week for a worker whom he employs than he can report the level of farm wage rates being paid on the farms in his locality, as required in the historical series. Moreover, wage data based on individual reports reveals wage variations as well as averages. Similar information has been available for a long time for nonagricultural industries, but not for agriculture.

In addition, in the new series the data on time worked and cash earnings of each worker makes possible the conversion of any type of wage rate into its hourly or daily cash equivalent wage. Thus, an average wage can be computed for a group of workers doing different types of work. In turn, this permits wage comparisons among groups of hired workers classified according to age, sex, race, type of work, and duration of employment, which are essential for the analysis of wage differentials and for comparisons between agricultural and nonagricultural wages and employment.

The new surveys are of two types. The first type, entitled "Survey of Wages and Wage Rates in Agriculture," covers two different kinds of data, including (1) surveys, made at irregular intervals, of wages and wage rates of seasonal farm workers in special crop areas in various States; and (2) a quarterly national enumerative sample survey, with regional break-downs, of wages and related data reported by approximately 20,000 farmers for each hired worker in their employ during the reporting week. The second type, an annual national sample survey by the Bureau of the Census for the BAE, is made to determine wages and labor-force characteristics of individuals who have done any farm work for wages during the year.

The results of the first of the surveys of wages and wage rates of seasonal farm workers in special crop areas were published in May 1945. By the end of 1946, surveys had been completed covering various crop areas predominantly in California, but also in about 15 other States. No special crop area surveys are planned for 1947.

The three enumerative national wage surveys made in 1945 were conducted in March, May, and September. A special study relating

to perquisites scheduled for release early in 1947, was made in connection with the May survey. Only one national survey was completed in 1946 (July). Beginning in 1947, however, quarterly national surveys are planned. Preliminary results of the July survey appeared in the September issue of Farm Labor, a monthly release of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

The first annual sample survey by the Bureau of the Census for the BAE was taken in January 1946. Approximately 25,000 households, the coverage used in the monthly survey of the labor force, were canvassed for information on the employment, wages, and perquisites for each person in the household who reported that he or she had done some farm work for wages in 1945. The annual study, in contrast to the surveys of wages and wage rates, is focused on important worker characteristics such as age, sex, veteran status, residence, and employment status. The data obtained from this survey casts new light on the make-up of the entire farm working force during the course of a year. The major results of this first annual survey are summarized in the preceding article (page 225).

Erratum: The Physically Impaired Worker in Industry

In the December 1946 issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 919, third line), reference is made to World War I; it should be World War II.

Economic Policy

President's Economic Report to Congress [1]

PRESIDENT TRUMAN, in his first economic report to Congress,[2] referred to the high employment level of 1946 and advocated measures for the maintenance of the country's unprecedented strength and prosperity throughout 1947. He stated that economic collapse and stagnation such as started in 1929 need not and must not happen again.

Review of 1946

At the 1946 peak, the aggregate number in employment—58 million civilians and including the military over 60 million—substantially met the objectives of the Employment Act. Total production also reached a peacetime record volume in 1946—about 50 percent above the 1939 predefense volume and 15 percent below the wartime high. This indicates, the President stated, that once peacetime production is in full swing, the standard of living will far surpass anything previously experienced.

After price controls were eased and then dropped, the price level rose substantially. The price rise in the second half of 1946 reduced purchasing power, and commensurate increases in income were not granted to the mass of the people. Business profits increased during the year, and removal of the excess profits tax added further to profits after taxes. Between industries and between firms, profits were extremely uneven, and it must be remembered that the business dollar, like the consumer dollar, shrank owing to the price rise. Nevertheless, business generally is receiving exceptional profits.

Since the last predefense year of 1939, the economic budget (which shows the distribution of income and expenditures among consumers, business, and Government, and imports and exports) has been transformed. The significant feature is that the great increase in the

[1] The Economic Report of the President Transmitted to the Congress on January 8, 1947. Washington, 1947.

[2] Under the terms of the Employment Act of 1946, Public Law No. 304 (79th Cong., 2d sess.), the President is required to make such a report; for discussion, see Monthly Labor Review, April 1946 (p. 586). The Council of Economic Advisers, which is to assist and advise the President in the preparation of the report, issued its first report in December 1946; a summary of this report appears in the Monthly Labor Review, January 1947 (p. 43)

total economic budget reflects the change from an economy of substantial unemployment and moderate production to one of unparalled employment and production. Progress has been such that thinking for the future cannot be based on the distant past. As a point of departure, tentative estimates were cited of the rates of expenditures and receipts in the economic budget at the end of 1946. At that time Government expenditures had been reduced; business expenditures had been increased; consumer expenditures had been raised, but largely because of the price rise; and consumer incomes which had risen less than expenditures actually declined in real terms. Such trends made the position of consumers of central importance in a consideration of 1947 prospects, the President concluded.

Goals for 1947

The employment, production, and purchasing power needed to carry out the policy of the Employment Act were stated to be as follows: "The purposes of the act would be substantially achieved if during 1947 we sustain employment at about the 1946 levels or slightly higher . . . It is not yet clear that our basic industries are fully adjusted to a 200-billion-dollar peacetime economy . . . Perhaps an over-all increase of 5 percent might be a reasonable objective for maximum production. . . . Only through adjustments both in the price and pay structure, made with discriminating regard for specific circumstances rather than on an over-all national basis, can we achieve a sustained demand for the maximum output which the American economy is able to produce this year."

FAVORABLE AND UNFAVORABLE FACTORS IN 1947

Consumer demand has both favorable and unfavorable prospects. A high demand for items that have been scarce—including housing, automobiles, appliances, and many housefurnishings—is expected to continue. Availability of such durable goods will result in a smaller proportion of consumer expenditures for nondurable goods. This, in turn, will have the favorable effect of tending to reduce prices for the latter goods in 1947.

"Disposable" income (after taxes) was 145 billion dollars in 1946—an average of $1,026 per capita (compared with an average of $497 a year in 1935–39). Even though higher prices absorbed a large part of this increase, real purchasing power in 1946 substantially exceeded the average in the prewar period, and the average family was buying more food, clothing, and other things than before. This and other consumption—particularly of durable goods—must be maintained and expanded in 1947, if the year is to be one of maximum production.

Disturbing trends in consumer purchasing power are the decline in weekly take-home pay of the average factory worker, who could buy only about as much with $46 in October 1946 as he bought with $35 in April 1942; the drop of savings by the end of 1946 to 10 percent of disposable income (little more than the 1935–39 proportion) from 28 percent in the war year 1944; and the recent rapid increase in installment and credit buying.

Business investment at least equal to the annual rate prevailing in the last quarter of 1946 is desirable to maintain maximum production and employment in 1947. Abundant aggregate funds, including ample bank credit, and the profit outlook favor the necessary investment. The fear of a general drop in consumer demand and a recurrence of serious labor-management disputes could adversely affect business confidence and thus business demand.

About the same net balance of international transactions is anticipated in 1947 as in 1946. The intense demand of foreign countries for United States goods has been a factor in the high level of employment, production, and purchasing power in this country. Receipts from foreign sources have run at about 15 billion dollars a year compared with a 4-billion-dollar prewar average. If recession of domestic demand occurred, exports could be increased to meet unsatisfied foreign demand. But, if fears increase concerning this country's willingness and ability to buy and lend abroad, foreign countries may stretch out their dollar resources over a longer period. Such action would reduce exports from the United States.

Revenue policies are designed to balance the budget and achieve a surplus toward the retirement of the national debt. The President anticipated a net reduction of about 5 billion dollars in governmental expenditures in 1947.

Recommendations of the President

With the removal of emergency price controls, business, labor, farmers, and consumers have the main responsibility for prices and wages. "The Government can point out dangers seen from the perspective of the whole economy," but others must apply the correctives in large part. In the immediate future, price reductions are especially needed, the President said, on many items of food, clothing, housefurnishings, and building materials, for which prices have risen out of line. Timely and orderly reduction will sustain rather than destroy markets. Farmers' prices will fall somewhat from the high level of 1946, but existing price supports afford protection against a severe decline. Labor should refrain from demanding excessive wage increases—for its own protection and that of the country. No uniform rule can govern price or wage questions; adjustments of both must be made with discrimination.

The Government will help to maintain wages and prices in balance by avoiding procurement policies that would stimulate price increases or prevent reductions; by speedier disposal of surplus goods; and by vigorous application of the antitrust laws. In addition, legislative action was recommended to continue rent control, to raise wages under the Fair Labor Standards Act, to adjust social-security benefits, and to speed house construction. While the President urged retention of 1946 taxes, he asked for careful study in preparation for wise action at a future time.

On labor-management relations, reference was made to the proposals in the message of the President dealing with the state of the Nation.[3] However, the need for labor-management cooperation and for sound collective bargaining was reiterated.

Long-range programs should provide for utilization of the productive potential to prevent this country from returning to an unstable 100-billion-dollar economy when it has the possibilities and requirements of a sustained 200-billion-dollar economy.

In making maximum use of the labor force—the Nation's greatest productive asset—the workers' standards of health, education, security, and personal and political freedom must be protected. Skills should be developed and used and discrimination of all kinds abolished.

Under the free-enterprise system, private enterprise can be relied on to expand the productive base of the economy. Nation-wide concerted action is needed also to remove the fear that, periodically, demand will be inadequate to absorb maximum production. Government can furnish the greatest incentive by helping to prevent depressions. In the agricultural field, the Government's aim should be to use the resources effectively and to conserve them; to preserve the family sized farm and to prevent another agricultural depression; to encourage plenty and not scarcity; and to support farm incomes at reasonable levels. The Government should examine the contribution it can make toward regional development. Federal programs of grants-in-aid to State and local governments have an important function. Public works expenditures are large, but the President stated that their value as a force for stabilizing the entire economy has been overemphasized in recent years. On research and patents, he stated: "The continuance of a research program of large magnitude for many years to come, together with the fact that many of the inventions resulting from it will be patentable, calls for action to protect the public interest in inventions and discoveries resulting from expenditures of public funds."

[3] For a summary, see Labor Recommendations in President's Message to Congress, p. 255 of this issue.

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Encouragement of free competitive enterprise is imperative, the President stated, and urged extended legislation in this field as well as for provision of increased appropriations to enforce existing antitrust laws. Attention was also directed to the need for affirmative action to enlarge the opportunities for efficient and enterprising small businesses.

The recommended program for the promotion of welfare, health, and security included increases in the amount and duration of unemployment benefits; extension of coverage of old-age and survivors' insurance and extension of unemployment compensation to employees of all establishments, regardless of size, in the industries now covered; and a program of medical care and disability benefits. From an economic standpoint, the President stated, it would be desirable to finance a part of the social-security system from the general budget, and he asked that Congress consider the economic and social aspects of various methods of taxation for this purpose.

In the long run, the President stated, this country can sell to others only if it buys from them or invests funds abroad. Both foreign trade and foreign investment are vital to maintenance of a dynamic economy at home. Many countries are fearful of economic depression in the United States as a threat to themselves. Many might prefer economic insulation and smaller trade to a close relation with an unstable United States; however, closer relations with a stable American economy operating at high levels would be chosen in preference to either of the foregoing alternatives. Fostering of international cooperation that has already started, he continued, will depend to a great extent on this country's attitude in connection with the reciprocal tariff negotiations scheduled for 1947.

A blending of all practical programs in wise proportions is needed for the successful stabilization of the economy at the highest feasible levels. The foregoing long-range policies are designed to strengthen the structure of the economy and reinforce it to resist economic fluctuations. Continuing policy is necessarily of a long-term character, stated the President, and, "fortunately, we have time in which to plan deliberately and wisely, and in which to secure the cooperation of all our citizens in driving toward our common goal."

Labor Policies and Programs in Japan Under the Occupation[1]

THE basic objective of the new labor policy in Japan, as stated in the Final Report of the Advisory Committee on Labor in Japan,[2] is the "development and consolidation of a new dignity and status for labor." This is regarded by the Committee as not only in the economic interest of the millions of Japanese wage earners, but also necessary to the evolution of a peaceful and democratic nation and to safeguard against any future revival of militarism and autocracy.

The development of new labor programs and institutions in Japan ranks with the other major political, economic, and social reforms which are now being undertaken in that country, such as the realignment of political forces, the destruction of the monopolies, educational reform, and land reform.

The Committee recognized the interconnection between these various spheres as follows: "Labor policies and programs in Japan cannot be isolated from the framework of social and economic institutions in which such programs must operate." It was further stated that in labor matters, as in all other fields, "laws and regulations, policy statements, and operating procedures are no more than a blueprint from which a living and growing program can be constructed."

In almost all of the proposals, emphasis was placed on the need for education in labor matters of Japanese workers, employers, and Government officials. The development of a complete and adequate labor program is a long-range process. Any progress toward such a goal should be viewed against the background of conditions in Japan at the end of World War II:

> After a decade of suppression, there were no genuine labor unions in existence; such basic rights as freedom of speech and self-organization were denied; prewar labor leaders had been liquidated or silenced; and all normal means of expression for workers had been blocked by police surveillance, repressive laws, and the Government-sponsored "labor front" organizations. Employers and workers were totally unprepared for democratic labor relations, and Government agencies were ill-equipped for their new tasks. In such circumstances, neither a mature and balanced labor movement nor a perfect system of labor laws and administration could be created overnight.

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[1] Prepared by Oscar Weigert of the Bureau's Foreign Labor Conditions Staff.

[2] Final Report of the Advisory Committee on Labor: Labor Policies and Programs in Japan. Tokyo, General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, 1946. The Committee was recruited by request of the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in Japan early in 1946 and made its investigation between February and July 1946. Members of the Committee were Paul L. Stanchfield, chairman; Benjamin Aaron, John R. Abersold, Leonard Appel, Lyle S. Carlock, Edward D. Hollander, William H. McPherson, Helen Mears, John J. Murphy, Tillman M. Sogge, Oscar Weigert, and J. Fletcher Wellemeyer.

Under the new labor policy the destructive effects of war must be overcome. It is even more important to do away with the whole dead weight of a feudal tradition which survived in Japan underneath the veneer of westernization and which was expressed in the growing industrial segment of Japanese society in a peculiar paternalistic ideology, based upon "the family system." [3] The Committee recognized that the Japanese tradition in labor matters cannot simply be replaced by a ready-made western scheme; the real issue is to find a healthy balance between existing institutions and practices and the standards and practices which the West has to offer. Accordingly, "basic principles and objectives will be much the same—but the precise form and institutional machinery for furthering these objectives cannot be expected to be identical."

In line with the general policies of the occupation the Committee considered it particularly important that the Japanese themselves should work out the details of future labor programs through democratic processes. From the Occupation Forces the Committee expected constant vigilance and detailed attention to assure that desirable changes are not blocked by political forces related to the old regime; that government labor agencies are properly organized and adequately staffed; that unsympathetic personnel are excluded; that adequate channels of education and opinion are kept open for workers and employers; and that undemocratic tendencies in unions and management do not reappear.

Beyond such measures of control and support of Japanese initiative, the Committee considered it to be the function of the Occupation Forces (1) to indicate the general direction which changes of labor law and policy should take and (2) to intervene in emergency situations necessarily arising under the unsettled conditions of the postwar period. The primary concern of the Committee was to help in defining long-range policies, but a challenge was also created by current needs, resulting from such factors as the inflation of the currency, the critical food situation, the lack of housing facilities, and the influx of millions of repatriates. The menace of large-scale unemployment in the future cannot even be estimated as long as no decisions have been reached on Japan's economic future.

When the Committee began its studies in February 1946, a great deal of the ground work for new labor programs had already been laid by directives issued in Washington and in Tokyo. Repressive laws and other barriers to democratic labor organization had been removed; the right of unionization and of collective bargaining had been established, for the first time in Japanese history, by the Trade Union Act

[3] For a discussion of the family system (*Kazoku Seido*) and its application in industry, see Industrial Labor in Japan (International Labor Office, Studies and Reports Series A, No. 37, Geneva, 1933, p. 46).

of December 1945; the growth of trade-unions and the practice of collective bargaining had been encouraged by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers;[4] and prewar protective labor legislation was reinstated. These early steps were a "sound basis" for the Committee's proposals.

A Program for Labor-Management Relations

Regarding labor-management relations, more than any other labor field, basic policies had already been defined when the Committee started its investigations. To carry out these policies, 11 major lines of action had been initiated by the Occupation Forces and, at its direction, by the Japanese Government. As summed up in the final report, they are:

(1) Recognition of the freedom of self-organization of industrial and agricultural workers.

(2) Provision of legal safeguards for workers' organizations in carrying out legitimate trade-union functions.

(3) Positive encouragement to the development of labor organizations, in the employment and labor policies of the Occupation Forces.

(4) The right of free assembly, speech, and press and access to broadcasting facilities for trade-unions.

(5) Abrogation of laws and regulations impeding the organization of unions or their legitimate activities.

(6) Release of persons imprisoned because of activity or "thought" in connection with trade-union activity.

(7) Dissolution of nationalistic workers' organizations, such as the "Sampo" and the "Romu Hokoku-Kai."

(8) Encouragement of collective bargaining between unions and employers.

(9) Establishment of machinery for dealing with industrial disputes which could not be settled by direct, voluntary negotiation.

(10) Recognition of the right to strike except when work stoppages would interfere with military operations or security, or directly prejudice the objectives of the Occupation.

(11) Abolition of Japanese Government agencies which had served to obstruct free labor organization and legitimate union activities, and elimination from labor administration of individuals who had held responsible positions in such agencies.

Under these policies, there were two main developments: legislation and growth of unionism. In both fields, the Committee analyzed the accomplishments and made recommendations for further progress.

[4] A report of General Headquarters in Tokyo dated June 30, 1946, on the treatment of workers' organizations in Japan after the surrender, is added as Appendix A to the Committee Report.

Trade-Union Act and Labor Relations Adjustment Act

The principal piece of postwar labor legislation—intended to be a Magna Charta of Labor-Management Relations—is the Trade-Union Act, passed by the Diet on December 21, 1945, and placed in effect, with its accompanying ordinance, on March 1, 1946. The chief purpose of this measure was to encourage the development of democratic trade-unions by establishing the right of organization and collective bargaining. Without doubt, it had been successful in attaining this goal. In the Committee's opinion, however, the law contains some provisions which appear inadequate or undesirable in comparison with corresponding legislation of other industrial countries. Such provisions would indeed be dangerous in some cases if they were administered by an unsympathetic Government. The Committee's main criticisms of the law are these:

(1) It does not fully prevent employer domination or influence over unions, through financial assistance or other means.

(2) It does not positively affirm the principle that the employer shall bargain collectively with his employees in good faith, in an honest attempt to reach agreement.

(3) The enforcement powers and procedures available to the labor relations committees—which are the tripartite bodies charged with carrying out the law—are inappropriate and insufficient.

(4) The majority-rule principle, which is essential to effective collective bargaining, is not embodied in the present law.

(5) The law places disproportionate emphasis on Government supervision and controls over trade-unions, and permits governmental interference to an extent not paralleled in most democratic countries.

(6) It contains a number of provisions which are superfluous rather than dangerous, but should be eliminated for the sake of simplicity.

These criticisms are based upon a theoretical evaluation of the law, upon the experience of the labor relations committees, and upon suggestions they submitted to the Advisory Committee. The Committee recommended therefore that amendments to the trade-union law should be drafted in the near future. It appears from a recent official Japanese statement that the Government has actually started the preparation of such a draft.

Meanwhile, the Trade-Union Act has already been supplemented by the Labor Relations Adjustment Act, passed by the Diet in September 1946 and put into force by imperial ordinance in October. The new act which supersedes the Labor Disputes Conciliation Act of 1926 [5] places the primary responsibility for settling labor disputes upon the parties involved. The Government may be called in to assist

[5] See Labor Conditions in Japan, Monthly Labor Review, October 1945 (p. 118).

them. Under the law machinery is provided for conciliation, mediation, and arbitration; arbitration is to be employed if both parties agree to it in advance, or if it is provided for in a collective agreement. Policemen, firemen, prison guards, and Government employees engaged in administrative or judicial work are forbidden to strike. A cooling-off period of 30 days after application for mediation is established for labor disputes in what is called public welfare work.[6]

Members of the Advisory Committee participated in the discussion of the bill, and the passage of legislation of this nature was regarded as desirable by the Committee. It expressed, however, the view that "the scope of compulsory arbitration should be kept to a minimum."

Unionism in Japan [7]

Outstanding among the Committee's findings was the spectacular growth of labor organizations in Japan after the defeat. The country had no genuine trade-unions in September 1945. Within 4 months, union membership had surpassed the prewar peak of 420,589 in 1936, as shown in official reports in the Japanese Labor Gazette. During the Committee's stay in Japan, total membership had risen to nearly 2.7 million persons in 7,357 registered unions.[8] About 30 percent of the nonagricultural workers were estimated to be organized at that time, compared with a prewar peak of 7.9 percent in 1931. Organization originated mostly within the individual plant, generally on the initiative of some of the employees, but sometimes on the initiative of the employer who wanted conformity with the prevailing trend.

At the time of the Committee's investigation, union federations were still in the early stages of development. Two national federations had been created on an interim basis—The National Federation of Labor (*Sodomei*) of which member unions are for the most part influenced by the Social Democratic Party, and the Japanese Congress of Industrial Unions (*Zew Nihon Zambetso Rodo Kumiai*) which includes among its members Communist-influenced unions. These political ties are frequently reflected in union policies, but both federations, according to the Committee's findings, include many unions which are not dominated by any political party, and member-

[6] Public Welfare Work, according to the legal definition, includes not only work in public utilities, but also in transportation, communication, public health, and medical treatment. The Government, in accordance with a body representing management, labor, and the public can extend the definition to any work "the stoppage of which will seriously affect the national economy or seriously endanger the daily life of the general public," but only for a limited time.

[7] For a short summary of earlier phases of unionism in Japan, see Labor Conditions in Japan, Monthly Labor Review, October 1945 (p. 660). For a detailed discussion see ILO, Industrial Labor in Japan, op. cit. (p. 86).

[8] Figures are for May 1, 1946. The unions continue to grow. The latest available Summation by the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 13 for October 1946, p. 164) reports more than 3.9 millions in 13,662 unions on September 1, 1946 (preliminary figures). Among them were 40,442 agricultural workers, organized in 230 unions.

ship in a union is usually open to all workers, regardless of political affiliation.

In August 1946, after the Committee had finished its work, both national federations held their formal inaugural conventions. According to an official United States report, Sodomei's convention reaffirmed its support of the Social Democratic Party and adopted a brief 3-point program calling for better working conditions, technological improvement of industry, and industrial democracy. The Congress of Industrial Unions in its convention stressed its political independence and accepted an 11-point program including a 40-hour week, an extensive social-insurance system, and rehabilitation of the economy. Both conventions adopted resolutions seeking membership in the World Federation of Trade Unions.[9] Subsequently, the congress tried to create a common front with the federation in some of the major labor disputes which at this time originated mostly with unions belonging to the congress and, later on, even offered to merge with the federation. The response of the national federation to all these approaches was generally negative.

Recently a third national federation—the All-Japanese Council of Unions (*Zew Nippon Rodo Kumiai Toitsu Sodouni*)—was formed and is trying to bring together the great number of nonaffiliated unions. Its program is reported as including unification of the labor movement, democratization of industry, autonomy in union administration, and elimination of interference by political parties in the trade-union movement.

In making recommendations on trade-unionism, the Committee took into account that the internal strength of the new Japanese unions is far below their external development. Most members, and even their leaders, have had little or no former experience in union activities. Many members of local unions continue to look to management for guidance and support. Local unions therefore frequently include high company officials in their membership, although such a practice is discouraged by the Trade Union Act.

The Committee found that some unions accept substantial employer contributions to their funds, to a point that such assistance threatens their independence. They did so largely because the genuine financial resources of the Japanese unions are almost everywhere entirely inadequate. Monthly union dues are not being adapted to keep pace with the strong inflationary trend. There seems to be no chance for the union movement to attain financial independence and stability without throughly revising its prevailing financial structure.

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[9] Summation by the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 11 for August 1946, p. 170).

Union independence seemed to be endangered also by a recent tendency of Japanese authorities, observed by the Committee, to revive police interference with labor organizations, particularly in connection with labor disputes. This attitude of the Japanese Government is a return to prewar practices but is clearly contradictory to the fundamental policies of the Occupation Forces. The Committee recommended that—

> police surveillance over labor be discontinued except for that normally required to police public meetings. The gathering of information with respect to labor should be a function of the projected Labor Ministry rather than the police. Except where violence to persons or malicious property damage is involved, infractions by trade-unions should be dealt with by civil rather than criminal action wherever possible.

On this issue, the Committee called for administrative action. Other union problems might be solved by the amendments to the Trade Union Act suggested by the Committee, and which are under consideration, as already stated. Equally important, in the Committee's opinion, are changes of attitudes and policies. They cannot be assured by amendments to statutes or by present administrative arrangements; education is necessary for union officials and members as well as for employers and Government labor administrators. Quite in accordance with the general point of view of the Japanese, the Committee found all these groups extremely eager for information about the experience of other industrial nations in union matters and prepared to learn from that experience. Considerable informational work had already been done by the General Headquarters Staff of the Supreme Commander. The expansion of this work and its closer coordination with the general development of labor policies and programs was strongly recommended, and the following warning note was given:

> The development of sound labor relations and mature and constructive organization of workers and employers will depend to a considerable extent on the slow, day-to-day process of education, and "learning by practice." Neither SCAP nor the Japanese Government should undertake to dominate this field, since what is needed is self-education rather than indoctrination from above. They should, however, provide a positive stimulus and opportunity for private educational activities and remove any obstacles which might impede the free dissemination of information and ideas.

Collective Agreements

Lack of experience and need for information and education are particularly evident in the field of collective bargaining, according to the Committee's findings. In prewar Japan, collective bargaining had developed even more slowly than trade-unionism. The largest

number of written collective agreements ever reported as being in force simultaneously was 122 in 1936 for the whole country; of the 136,000 workers then covered, 117,000 belonged to one industry, ocean shipping.[10] The lag between the growth of organizations and the number of collective agreements is again evident in the present phase of industrial relations, although substantial progress has been made recently. The Committee reported only 212 such agreements registered with the Welfare Ministry as of May 30, 1946. According to the latest available official Japanese statement, which has not yet been published, this number had grown to 1,501 as of October 1946. These agreements were spread more equally throughout the various industries than in the prewar period. The number of workers covered was reported as 1,131,179—more than a fourth of the workers estimated to be organized at this time.

The Committee found that, contrary to the practice in other countries, negotiations frequently do not result in a written agreement. Many unions are operating without any written agreement. Dispute settlement is often of an informal character and without specified duration.

As regards written agreements, certain typical weaknesses were observed which may be summed up as follows:

(1) All the agreements analyzed by the Committee covered only those terms of employment regarding which the union has sought some modification of existing practice. No comprehensive agreement covering all major terms of employment was found.

(2) The Committee noted a confusing tendency toward the conclusion of separate agreements on different, but interrelated, subjects by the same parties.

(3) Many agreements provide that the unions shall have a voice in certain types of decisions, e. g., hiring, firing, and transfer, but fail to set any definite standards with the result that negotiations become necessary in each individual case.

An illustration of the lack of precision prevailing in collective agreements is found in the frequent provisions for some degree of joint management of the enterprise. In most of these cases the agreement establishes some kind of a joint labor-management committee and gives an indication of the types of questions to be considered by such a committee; but the definition of the issues that are within the jurisdiction of the committee is usually vague, and in some cases it is not even specified whether the decisions of the committee shall be advisory or binding.[11]

[10] See Monthly Labor Review, October 1945 (p. 662).

[11] The creation by collective agreement of such joint committees, but also the confusion concerning their functions and rights, were already characteristic of industrial relations in the prewar period; see ILO, Industrial Labor in Japan, op. cit. (p. 59).

One of the most serious omissions in every labor agreement was the complete absence of any provision for special procedure in the peaceful settlement of disputes about the interpretation and application of agreements. This omission might be explained by a traditional Japanese inclination to avoid formal decisions about right and wrong in individual cases and to prefer the informal settlement of conflicts. Under modern industrial conditions, however, greater use of formal grievance machinery, established by the contract itself for this purpose, would seem to be extremely valuable.

The Committee recommended that "unions or employers be urged to incorporate the solution of every dispute involving general terms of employment in a signed agreement," in the belief that comprehensive agreements would gradually emerge from such limited agreements and that such a practice would "expedite the development of efficient labor relations."

Labor Disputes

Aside from its proposals concerning the labor disputes adjustments bill and the elimination of police activities in labor disputes, the Committee limited itself to an analysis of the facts regarding industrial disputes. Its main findings were (1) that "labor disputes have been far fewer in number than would normally be expected during a period of extensive unionization;"[12] (2) that those labor disputes that have occurred have seldom resulted in any significant interruption of production; and (3) that where work actually has been stopped such stoppages were usually only of short duration.

Instead of stopping work, unions have frequently used a unique method known as "production control," whereby the union temporarily operates the establishment and top management officials are either directed by the union or locked out. Considerable controversy has raged in Japanese circles about the legality of "production control." The Committee believed that the Japanese judiciary is the only proper agency to determine the legality of the "production control" technique under existing law; in the future its legality could, of course, be determined by legislation. The Committee endorsed the policy of the Occupation Forces in stating that "the question of government policy regarding the practice of production control as a

[12] Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 12 for September 1946, p. 154) shows 1,145 disputes, January through July 1946, distributed by industry as follows: Mining, 121; Manufacturing, 533; Transportation and Communication, 101; Teaching and liberal professions, 26; and Others, 364. These disputes involved 1,152,032 workers. A reliable, but not yet published, report indicates that a total of 1,900 labor disputes occurred from August 1945 through October 1946 with 1,744,428 workers involved. According to the Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 13 for October 1946, p. 166) the month of October 1946 was "marked by the most widespread strike activity since the surrender." In November, strikes fell sharply in number and importance.

strike technique is a matter for exclusive determination by the Japanese."[13]

A New Wage Policy for Japan

Proposals of the Committee as to wage policies in the present emergency are not included in the final report. They were directed toward the establishment of wage controls as part of a broader program which would combat all aspects of inflation and effectively stimulate production. In the Committee's opinion, fundamental changes of the whole wage structure will become necessary as the Japanese economy is stabilized. Preparatory to these changes, the Committee proposed two immediate legislative actions: (1) It recommended a legal minimum wage as part of the new protective labor legislation which is now under consideration and of which more will be said later on; and (2) it strongly urged a provision in the same statute forbidding wage discrimination against women.

The low level of wages and salaries in Japan was a frequent subject of international discussion in the prewar period. The average wage of Japanese industrial workers for some years preceding World War II was approximately 2 yen a day.[14]

Evidence exists, in the Committee's opinion, that wage rates and earnings were maintained at low levels in spite of relatively high productivity. This was the policy of the dominant group in Japan which sought to stimulate exports of Japanese products in order to further its militaristic goals. The demand for armament production led, on the other hand, to the establishment of minimum wage rates in certain industries by wartime statutes which had not yet been repealed. However, no effort is being made to enforce these provisions. Prices and costs of living have increased so considerably under the impact of inflation that levels set in 1940 are now entirely unrealistic.[15] No definite wage level can be established before the present inflation is ended. Then, Japanese labor must be protected against a return of the traditional policy of substandard wages, and a sound minimum wage will be of vital concern. The legal authorization for the program recommended by the Committee should be broad and flexible. Preparation for application by the Japanese Government should include an

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[13] A remarkable case of production control was reported in the Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 12 for September 1946, p. 156). In this case, the employer had shut down operations as unprofitable. After a period of "production control," the company acknowledged that the union had demonstrated the possibility of profitable operation. Management resumed production under an agreement providing for a joint management-labor council.

[14] See Monthly Labor Review, October 1945 (p. 655). This wage was roughly equivalent to $1.00 in United States currency at the prewar parity rate.

[15] According to the Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 13 for October 1946, p. 169) "wage earners' income generally was still far below the cost of living" in October 1946.

intensive study of all the questions of method and of substance inherent in a national minimum wage policy.

The general practice of paying lower wages to women than to men, even when the duties of the job are identical, appeared to the Committee as "one of the worst features of Japan's traditional wage structure." Up to about 1930, the number of women in factory employment in Japan exceeded that of men; even in 1937, when the armament industries already outranked the textile industries, more than 40 percent of all factory workers were women. During all these years, women's wage rates and earnings were substantially lower than those of men, not only in national averages, but also within individual industries and occupations.[16]

Numerous economic and social reasons accounted for this pronounced discrimination against female workers. It is closely connected with the subordinate position which women traditionally have in Japan. By asking for a statute establishing the principle of equal pay, the Committee acted in accordance with the general objectives of the occupation.

Basic wage rates in most Japanese industries also vary according to age, marital status, and length of service. The basic wage rate, on the other hand, often represents only a minor portion of total earnings, because of the payment of several varieties of special allowances and bonuses. Particularly frequent are family allowances for workers who have large families to support; premiums for length of service; payments for regular attendance at work; and, lately, also special "price allowances" designed to compensate for the increasing cost of living. In addition, several types of quarterly or semiannual bonuses are being paid, frequently not on any rational basis or in accordance with any established plan, but—as stated by the Committee—"governed by the whim of the employer."

Other complicating factors are the frequent use of payments in kind and the provision, especially in the textile industry, of board and lodging as part of compensation.

The complexity of the Japanese wage structure is only partly the result of wartime measures and of inflation. Wage supplements of various forms were prevalent in the prewar period as were also payments in kind and provision of board and lodging.[17] The wage structure reflects the feudal philosophy of wages, aiming not so much at

[16] Monthly Labor Review, October 1945 (p. 655), gives the average daily wage of males as about $1.25 and that of females as about 75 cents or less for some years preceding World War II; detailed figures of male and female wages within industries are given in table 5 (p. 656) and in ILO, Industrial Labor in Japan, op. cit. (p. 200). In August 1946, average daily wages in manufacturing were 26.42 yen for male workers and 11.74 yen for female workers, according to Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 13 for October 1946, p. 170). No exchange rate has as yet been established for the yen.

[17] See ILO, Industrial Labor in Japan, op. cit. (p. 196 ff.).

compensation for the productive effort as at assuring the subsistence—on a very low level—of the employee and his family, and at rewarding him for his loyalty to the employer. The complexities of this system "not only tend to confuse collective bargaining but also—especially through age and sex differentials—to encourage excessive use of child labor and women at substandard wages."

While the Committee left the details of the necessary reform to be worked out after further studies, its general conclusions were stated in the following way:

> Two long-range goals—to be achieved mainly by means other than legislation—should be (a) to simplify the wage and salary structure by minimizing the importance of special allowances not included in the basic wage, and (b) to tie the basic wage rate as closely as possible to the nature of the work performed, rather than to personal characteristics such as age and sex, etc. It is recognized that family allowances and other special payments may be necessary and useful during the present emergency; but after the emergency, the Committee believes that a sound economy will be best promoted by relating compensation as closely as possible to individual productivity.

If the bonus system survives in some form—it seems to be particularly rooted in the Japanese tradition—it should be regularized and embodied in profit-sharing plans or in other contractual arrangements.

The Future of Protective Labor Legislation

The Committee found that the extensive and complex body of protective labor laws and regulations evolved in Japan over a period of several decades had been largely suspended during wartime. These rules have been restored to their prewar status—on paper, at least. Their provisions cover most of the subjects dealt with by protective legislation in other industial countries, such as safety and hygiene, standard clauses for labor contracts, hours of work, rest periods and rest days, and special measures for the protection of working women and children.

The scope of enterprises and workers covered is, however, limited. Labor protection in manufacturing is better developed than in the other broad segments of industry but applies (with some exceptions) only to workers in factories employing 10 or more persons. Thus, the large proportion of the Japanese labor force employed in small workshops is excluded from protection. The labor standards established are very low, compared with those in western countries and in the draft conventions and recommendations of the International Labor Organization. The present Factory Act, for instance, fixes no limit on working time except that women and young persons under the age of 16 years may not do actual work for more than 10 hours a day in the shops covered by the law. The weekly hours are not specifically limited, and only 2 rest days are prescribed in every month.

The limited scope and the low standards of protection reflect the spirit and the social and economic conditions of prewar Japan: the prevailing paternalistic philosophy, which based the worker's well-being upon his employer's good intentions (*Onjo Shugi*, literally, "warmheartedness"); the composition of the Japanese labor force, recruited mostly from the rural population, largely girls and women, accustomed to exacting working conditions and to frugal ways of living; and an economic policy of low production costs in the interest of fostering exports.

The Committee reached four general conclusions:

(1) Administration and enforcement machinery must be rebuilt from the ground up, if the program is to exist in more than name. Inadequate even before the war, the present machinery is hopelessly ineffective. More adequate budgets and personnel, stronger enforcement powers, and fundamental administrative changes are indispensable.

(2) Coverage should be extended to important groups of workers who are now largely or wholly unprotected. Especially important is the present exclusion of small factories and work shops, which include a large fraction of Japan's manufacturing workers; workers in many other important industries, also, now lack protection.

(3) The basic human rights of workers have never, because of Japan's feudal and paternalistic background, been properly recognized or protected. The mobility and dignity of labor should be assured by adequate standards covering such matters as labor contracts, industrial discipline, apprenticeship, involuntary servitude, and dormitories.

(4) Other basic standards—covering such matters as working hours, safety and sanitation, child labor, and the protection of women workers—should be raised to a level compatible with the new status of labor in Japan.

In its specific proposals, the Committee also dealt with amendments to the existing laws which were prepared by the Japanese Welfare Ministry and are intended to form the draft of a new Labor Standards Act.[18] In the Committee's opinion, one of the main issues raised by such legislation might be the maintenance of—

a proper balance between two somewhat contrary objectives . . . the goal of extending protection to as many groups of workers as possible and the practical problem of applying immediate measures to those enterprises in which effective enforcement can be reasonably expected. Likewise, the program adopted must be realistic in terms of the current economic emergency; there will be some measures that are entirely practicable in the long run, but cannot be rigidly enforced so long as acute shortages of materials, equipment, and supplies continue.

The Committee itself was divided in its attitude as to one of the most important provisions of the proposed legislation—the legal definition of maximum work hours. Regarding the establishment of a standard workday and workweek, at least in manufacturing, the members were in agreement. A majority considered the 8-hour day

[18] Public hearings on the draft were held in September 1946 according to Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 14 for November 1946, p. 163).

and the 48-hour week as immediately feasible; others believed a longer workday might be necessary during the present emergency. The Committee was unanimous again in favoring the legal requirement of, at least, 1 day of rest a week; legal restrictions of child labor; more extended protection of women; and other provisions which would strengthen the status and the dignity of labor.

Employment Policies and the Future of the Public Employment Service

Measures for labor protection—such as shortening of the work hours, controlling and restricting the employment of women, and raising the minimum age of child labor—also affect the size of the labor supply and may be used continuously to limit the number of persons in the labor force. In the Committee's opinion, however, they should be used for such a purpose only if no way can be found to assure the productive use of all available manpower, and thus prevent mass unemployment.

The Committee believed that Japan's success in overcoming her immediate economic problems and rebuilding a healthy economy will depend largely on the constructive use of her labor resources. As the Committee sees it, this goal can be reached only by careful planning, flexibly adjusted to whatever limits are placed on the economy by reparations policies, use of natural resources, and export-import possibilities. Within these limits, the policy should aim at the highest possible level of production consistent with the materials and facilities available. A program of public works administered to dovetail with fluctuations in private employment would be an important part of such a long-range employment policy.

A public works scheme is also basic to the short-range employment program recommended by the Committee. The exact extent of unemployment, as of the spring of 1946, could not be determined, because its volume was partly concealed (1) by the large exodus from the cities which had swollen the farm population far beyond agricultural labor needs, and (2) by the great numbers of people in the cities formerly engaged in productive occupations whose incomes are now derived from nonproductive trading. But unemployment was already considerable, and the Committee expected it to become dangerously high during the long postponed reconversion of Japanese industry. It will be increased by the millions of repatriates who will create an additional source of labor supply.[19]

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[19] According to the Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 11 for August 1946, p. 174), the Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare estimated that by the end of 1946 the number of unemployed would approximate 6,800,000. The highest prewar unemployment figure was officially reported as 471,000 in 1931. In 1939, it had dropped to 185,000 (Monthly Labor Review, October 1945, p. 654).

It seemed evident to the Committee that private employment could not absorb the available labor supply in the immediate future. The Committee therefore called for "an aggressive program of public works to use idle labor in ways which will aid in the production or distribution of essential commodities, especially food, clothing, shelter, and fuel." The Committee also developed principles for the execution of such a program, based partly upon the American experience of the 1930's. In the meantime these principles have been accepted by the Japanese Government. However, according to available information, the program itself was delayed by financial considerations but now seems to be getting into action.[20]

According to the Committee's recommendations, the public employment service should be important in any phase of the employment program. The Japanese system of public labor exchanges dates back to 1921. Its development was fostered by a growing public control of private recruitment agencies.[21] The final report states that members of the Committee found local employment offices to be operating surprisingly well, considering the extremely difficult circumstances. However, the existing organization of public employment offices should be strengthened, both by more adequate budgets and by improved administrative control and supervision.

The Committee expressed its opposition to a placement monopoly by the public employment offices which apparently existed during wartime. It assumed that labor bosses and recruiting agents (the traditional employment agents in Japan) would prove themselves "uneconomic and archaic" if the facilities of the employment offices were sufficiently expanded in scope and efficiency, but that the way should be left open for individual recruitment and job seeking.

The Committee's detailed findings and recommendations on the employment service were immediately placed in the hands of the Japanese Government and are being used for developing and strengthening this service.

Changes in Labor Administration

Labor programs of the importance and character indicated above can succeed only if two forces are in operation: (1) Labor and management must learn to develop indispensable initiative; and (2) Government must be qualified and willing to support and control this initiative within the framework of broader national policies. To fulfill its functions, the Japanese Government should develop adequate machinery for labor administration. In the Committee's

[20] Summation of Non-Military Activities in Japan (No. 12 for September 1946, p. 158).

[21] For details see ILO, Industrial Labor in Japan, op. cit. (p. 159).

opinion, the present machinery is in "need of thorough overhauling" on the national as well as on the local level.

In every democratic modern industrial nation, effective labor administration has required the establishment of a single agency, responsible for all functions involved in a comprehensive labor program, and not required to deal with unrelated functions. To assure that labor considerations are effectively presented and have adequate weight in the development of national policies, this agency should be, and almost invariably is, of cabinet rank. Japan's present administrative structure does not meet this standard.

Nationally, most labor functions are located in two of the seven bureaus of the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare. Certain functions are, however, performed by other ministries in connection with specific industries or groups of employees. The Transportation Ministry, for example, is responsible for maritime workers and railroad employees; the Ministry of Commerce and Industry administers labor programs in coal mining and in Government monopolies. The Committee strongly urged the establishment of a strong and independent Ministry of Labor to which the labor functions of the Ministry of Public Health and Welfare and of the other ministries concerned should be transferred.

The Committee presented, at the same time, recommendations on the internal organization of such a Labor Ministry, based upon discussions in which Japanese officials participated. No decision appears to have been made as yet on the creation of a Labor Ministry, which was frequently demanded in the prewar period by Japanese liberals and Japanese labor.[22]

The local administration of labor matters is handled at present by units in the prefectural governments, which are administratively controlled by the Home Ministry. The Committee recommends that the local and intermediate levels of labor administration shall be part of, and directly responsible to, the new Labor Ministry.

Finally, the Committee stated that "nationally and locally, some provision should be made for the participation of representatives of workers, employers, and the general public in the development and interpretation of policies." Such provision seems particularly needed in a country like Japan with its pattern of bureaucratic direction and centralization.

[22] Industrial Labor in Japan, op. cit. (p. 152). The Committee considered such a step as "indispensable if the present defects and weaknesses of Japanese labor administration are to be corrected."

Industrial Relations

Labor Recommendations in President's Message to Congress

In his message to Congress on the state of the Union, the President referred to the strife that had characterized labor-management relations in 1946,[1] but "we must not, however, adopt punitive legislation." Management shared with labor the responsibility for failure to reach agreements whereby strikes would have been averted. For this reason, it must be realized that "industrial peace cannot be achieved merely by laws directed against labor unions." Collective bargaining for the determination of wages and working conditions—which has been established as a national policy in the past decade and a half—should be continued and strengthened. To correct certain abuses and to provide additional governmental assistance in the bargaining process, legislation is needed. Attention should also be given to the causes of labor-management difficulties.

Specifically, a 4-point program to reduce industrial strife was urged, as follows: (1) The early enactment of legislation to prevent certain unjustifiable practices; (2) the extension of facilities within the United States Department of Labor for assisting collective bargaining; (3) the broadening of social legislation to alleviate the causes of workers' insecurity; and (4) the appointment by Congress of a temporary joint commission to inquire into the entire field of labor-management relations.

The President recommended legislation to prevent jurisdictional disputes whereby the public and the employer are injured because of "a collision between rival unions," which he called indefensible. Legislation is also desirable to prevent strikes by minority unions to compel employers to deal with them, in spite of the legal requirement under the National Labor Relations Act that employers must bargain with the majority union. Provision must also be made for peaceful and binding determination of questions as to labor-union jurisdiction in the performance of particular tasks.

A secondary boycott which is used to further jurisdictional disputes or to compel employers to violate the terms of the NLRA was pointed

[1] White House release of January 6, 1947.

out as being unjustifiable. However, the President stated that not all secondary boycotts are unjustifiable and that there should not be a blanket prohibition against boycotts. Legislation should prohibit secondary boycotts in pursuance of unjustifiable objectives, but should not impair the right of unions to preserve their existence and their gains made through collective bargaining.

Regarding the practice of using economic force by either labor or management to decide issues arising out of the interpretation of existing contracts, the President stated, that should be corrected. Under the most enlightened union-management relationships, disputes over the interpretation of contract terms are settled peaceably by negotiation and arbitration between the parties. For the settlement of disputes concerning the interpretation of existing agreements, machinery should be provided by law; either party could apply to such a body for final and binding arbitration.

Lack of clear understanding by labor and management as to their responsibility for settling disputes through their own negotiations was cited by the President as one obstacle to the avoidance of labor strife. Extension of facilities within the Department of Labor for aid in the collective-bargaining process and integration of governmental machinery would facilitate and expedite the settlement of disputes. Such governmental machinery is needed to provide mediation, voluntary arbitration, and finally, if appropriate, ascertainment of the facts of the dispute and a report to the public.

A broadened program of social legislation to alleviate the causes of workers' insecurity in an industrial society would supplement labor-relations legislation in the solution of labor-management difficulties. According to the President's statement, "the Congress should consider the extension and broadening of our Social Security System, better housing, a comprehensive national health program, and provision for a fair minimum wage."

A commission to inquire into labor-management relations was recommended by the President, its membership to consist of 20 persons of whom 12 would be chosen by Congress from the members of both parties in the House of Representatives and the Senate and 8 would be appointed by the President to represent the public, management, and labor. The commission should be charged with investigating and making recommendations upon (1) the special and unique problem of Nation-wide strikes in vital industries affecting the public interest; (2) the best methods and procedures for carrying out the collective-bargaining process; and (3) the underlying causes of labor-management disputes. The President recommended that this commission should make its first report not later than March 15, 1947, and that specific legislative proposals should be included.

Jobs Covered by Collective Bargaining, U. S. Offshore Merchant Marine, February 1946[1]

APPROXIMATELY 9 out of 10 jobs of licensed or unlicensed personnel aboard vessels in the U. S. offshore merchant marine were covered by collective bargaining agreements in February 1946, according to a study of the extent of job coverage by collective bargaining on vessels controlled by the War Shipping Administration. Since WSA ships represented 94 percent of the total active U. S. merchant fleet of vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over at that time, information on them offers a fairly complete picture of the extent of collective bargaining in the U. S. merchant marine. It is believed that complete data on offshore merchant vessels would indicate a slightly lower figure than 91 percent, the estimated proportion of jobs on WSA-controlled ships covered by signed union agreements or by certifications of unions as bargaining agents. Ships under private operation at that time, representing approximately 6 percent of the U. S. active merchant fleet, were not as extensively organized as the WSA vessels.

The extent of collective bargaining on WSA-controlled vessels has increased steadily in the past 2 years. The proportion of jobs covered in February 1946, 91.3 percent, compares with 84.9 percent in June 1945 and 80.5 percent in February 1944.

The total number of jobs on these vessels in February 1946 was estimated at 164,900.[2] Among the 150,600 jobs on which formal collective bargaining was in effect, only 2 percent represented jobs covered by certifications of unions as bargaining agents by the National Labor Relations Board. The remaining jobs were under union control through signed agreements with the shipping companies acting as operating agents of the WSA.

Organization was more extensive on cargo types than on tankers, as the following estimates for February 1946 show:

	Total jobs on WSA vessels	*Jobs controlled by unions*	
		Number	*Percent*
All classes of vessels	164, 900	150, 600	91. 3
Cargo [1]	141, 600	134, 300	94. 8
Tanker	23, 300	16, 300	69. 7

[1] Cargo vessels include passenger and combination passenger and freight vessels, used as troop and cargo carriers.

[1] Prepared by Herman M. Sturm in the Planning and Control Office, Division of Recruitment and Manning, U. S. Maritime Commission. Among sources utilized in preparing estimates were All Vessels under the Control of War Shipping Administration (Report 190–92, as of January 15, 1946), prepared by the Division of Operations; Agents of War Shipping Administration and their Union Agreements as of February 1, 1946, prepared by the Labor Agreements Division; manning tables derived from tabulations of seamen engaged on U. S. flag vessels, prepared by the Division of Economics and Statistics, U. S. Maritime Commission.

[2] This does not include cadet trainees, who are not covered in collective bargaining negotiations. The total number of men actually engaged on U. S. flag WSA vessels in February was approximately 157,300. The difference is accounted for primarily by vessels in process of being withdrawn from active service.

Changes in the size and operating control of the merchant fleet since February 1946 have been very considerable. Although the number of ships remaining active has fallen off, private operations have increased greatly, compared with the number of Government-operated ships; many vessels have been laid up, and others are being converted into other types or scrapped. The resulting decline in employment, however, will probably not seriously alter the over-all extent of union job control in the offshore merchant marine, nor the relative bargaining strength of individual organizations.

Principal Labor Organizations Represented

Licensed deck and engine officers.—The National Organization Masters, Mates and Pilots of America (MMP) is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Its membership is limited to licensed deck personnel, and includes officers aboard vessels operating off the Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf coasts. The National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association (MEBA) is affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Its jurisdiction covers licensed engine department personnel aboard vessels operating off all three coasts. The United Licensed Officers of the U. S. A. (ULO), which was unaffiliated in February 1946, includes both deck and engine officers, and membership is concentrated mainly on vessels berthing at Atlantic Coast ports. The ULO became affiliated with District 50 of the United Mine Workers (AFL) in November 1946.

Radio officers.—The principal radio officers' organizations are the American Communications Association (Marine Division) and the Radio Officers Union of the Commercial Telegraphers Union. The former (ACA) is affiliated with the CIO; and the latter (CTU) is an AFL affiliate. Both organizations have Nation-wide jurisdictions.

Pursers.—The principal union of pursers is the American Merchant Marine Staff Officers Association (AMMSOA), affiliated with the AFL.

Unlicensed personnel.—The National Maritime Union of America (NMU) is affiliated with the CIO. The union has contracts mainly with Atlantic and Gulf shipping companies; its jurisdiction includes unlicensed deck, engine, and steward department personnel. The Seafarers International Union (SIU) is an AFL affiliate covering seamen in the unlicensed deck, engine, and steward departments. SIU agreements cover mainly vessels in Atlantic and Gulf Coast shipping; on the Pacific Coast the Sailors Union of the Pacific (SUP), affiliated with the SIU, covers unlicensed deck personnel, and in a few companies, unlicensed members of the engine and stewards' departments. The National Union of Marine Cooks and Stewards (MCS) is a CIO

affiliate covering stewards, cooks, bakers, messmen, and similar steward-department ratings, on vessels operated by Pacific Coast companies. The Pacific Coast Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders, and Wipers Association (MFOWW) is an unaffiliated union covering unlicensed engine department personnel, on vessels of Pacific Coast shipping lines.

Subsequent sections present estimates comparing the extent of job coverage or control by each of these organizations. In comparing figures for organizations, it is essential to bear in mind that size is not always the most important factor in analyzing particular collective bargaining situations. Various other factors, such as the effect of affiliated relationships, regional concentrations, and rival jurisdictions, are often of equal or greater importance.

Of particular significance is the fact that representation is spread among many organizations on a single ship. Vessels of some West Coast steamship companies, for example, were manned by MMP deck officers, MEBA engine officers, ACA radio officers, AMMSOA pursers, SUP unlicensed deck personnel, MFOWW unlicensed engine personnel, and MCS steward-department men. Vessels of other operators may have the CTU as the representative of the radio officers, or the NMU or SIU as the sole bargaining agent for unlicensed men. In still other cases some of the occupational groups may be covered by agreements with one of these organizations and others may be completely without collective bargaining representation.

Union Coverage by Ratings

Union coverage of jobs through signed agreements or NLRB certifications varied among ratings groups from 34 to 96 percent; the lowest coverage was among pursers and the highest among radio officers.

	Total jobs	*Jobs covered by 11 principal unions*	
		Number	*Percent*
All ratings groups	164, 900	150, 600	91. 3
Licensed deck and engine	31, 800	27, 600	87. 1
Pursers	3, 100	1, 100	33. 9
Radio officers	4, 300	4, 100	96. 0
Unlicensed deck, engine, and steward	125, 700	117, 800	93. 8

The proportion of each union's coverage of ratings groups is shown in table 1. It should be emphasized that these figures do not represent the membership strength of the unions, but their job control or coverage. The table, which compares percentage control of single department unions separately from those of multi-department unions,

illustrates the difficulty, because of overlapping, in making comparisons of control among unions. This is especially true of unlicensed personnel groups. For example, the NMU share of unlicensed deck, engine, and steward jobs was 61,900, or 49 percent of the total of these groups. In comparison, the SIU-SUP share was 32,000, or 25.5 percent of this total. However, the MFOWW and MCS likewise represented substantial proportions of the men in the engine and steward departments, respectively, but the percentages are not comparable with figures for the NMU or SIU-SUP, which include all three departments in their jurisdiction.

TABLE 1.—*Job coverage by principal unions engaged in collective bargaining and by ratings groups, WSA vessels, February 1946*

Ratings groups	Number of jobs	Single-department unions			Multi-department unions		
		Name of union	Job coverage [1]		Name of union	Job coverage [1]	
			Number	Percent		Number	Percent
All ratings	164,900						
Licensed deck	16,200	MMP	13,100	81.3	ULO	1,400	4.4
Licensed engine	15,600	MEBA	13,100	84.0			
Pursers	3,100	AMMSOA	1,100	33.9			
Radio	4,300	ACA	2,800	64.8			
		CTU	1,300	31.2			
Unlicensed deck	43,700				NMU	61,900	49.2
Unlicensed engine	44,000	MFOWW	12,800	29.1	SIU-SUP	32,000	25.5
Steward department	38,000	MCS	11,100	29.3			

[1] Figures for each organization are estimates of the number of jobs covered both by signed union agreement and by NLRB certifications.

Union Coverage (All Jobs) by Organization and Affiliation

The distribution of union coverage on all jobs, regardless of occupational or department jurisdictional lines, is shown in table 2. In 1946, the NMU had 37 percent as its share of the total jobs on WSA vessels, followed by the SIU–SUP with 19.5 percent. The NMP and MEBA each negotiated for about 8 percent of the jobs in the industry, and other organizations represented smaller numbers of jobs.

TABLE 2.—*Union coverage of all jobs aboard WSA vessels, by organization, February 1946*

Organization	Jobs	Percent	Organization	Jobs	Percent
MMP	13,100	7.9	SIU-SUP	32,000	19.5
MEBA	13,100	7.9	MFOWW	12,800	7.8
ULO	1,400	.9	MCS	11,100	6.7
AMMSOA	1,100	.6	Other [1]	14,300	8.7
ACA	2,800	1.7			
CTU	1,300	.8	Total	164,900	100.0
NMU	61,900	37.5			

[1] Includes minor independent organizations and unorganized.

As the following figures show, CIO unions controlled roughly twice as many jobs as AFL groups in February 1946:

	Percent
CIO (MEBA, ACA, NMU, MCS)	53. 8
AFL (MMP, AMMSOA, CTU, SIU–SUP)	28. 8
Unaffiliated (ULO, MFOWW)	8. 7
Other (including unorganized)	8. 7
Total	100. 0

An estimated 14,300 jobs, or 8.7 percent of the total on WSA vessels, were not covered by formal collective-bargaining procedures in February 1946, or were covered by agreements with 8 smaller independent organizations, each of which, according to available information, had contracts with but one company. The number of jobs for which these organizations had agreements on WSA-controlled ships was approximately 2,400. The single-firm unions are strongest on tanker vessels, a large proportion of which had been returned to private-company operation in February 1946. Altogether there are at least 15 separate unions of this type, 7 of which represented employees of companies operating non-WSA vessels which were not covered in the above figures. It is estimated that the total number of jobs covered by the single-firm unions, including those on both WSA and privately controlled vessels, was 5,000 in February 1946.

Labor-Management Disputes

Controversies and Significant Developments, January 1947

THE DISPUTES picture in the first month of 1947 was in marked contrast to that which existed in January 1946. Few strikes of more than minor local importance occurred during January 1947. The total number of workers involved in work stoppages at any one time during the month seldom exceeded 60,000 as against a peak figure of approximately 1,600,000 at the convergence of the steel, electrical, automobile, and meat-packing strikes of late January 1946. Idleness occasioned by labor-management controversies this January was only about one-fifteenth as great as in the corresponding month of last year.

Perhaps even more significant was the tenor and temper of collective-bargaining negotiations manifested by labor and management alike in January 1947. Outstanding in this category was the agreement, on January 24, of the United Steelworkers (CIO) and the United States Steel Corp., to extend the contract provisions of their agreement from its original expiration date of February 15 to April 30. This step was taken, company and union officials explained, in the "joint interest in maintaining peaceful industrial relations" and to permit greater time to discuss proposed contract changes. Almost simultaneously with the announcement that the steel negotiations would take a more leisurely course, the United Automobile Workers (CIO) stated that its contract with the Chrysler Corp. had been extended for 1 month from its late January expiration date.

The American Federation of Labor, through statements of its leaders, heralded 1947 as a "year of opportunity." In the January issue of the Federation's Labor's Monthly Survey, the AFL declared: "This is to be a year of promise and of danger for American workers. Promise: Because wise policies can raise workers' living standards to the highest level ever reached. Danger: Because industry has a difficult adjustment to make this year; hasty and irresponsible action by unions or employers could bring about a depression with widespread loss of jobs and incomes for workers. Hasty action by Congress could destroy workers' freedom and limit collective bargaining.

If ever there was a year which called for good judgment and economic statesmanship on the part of unions, employers, and Congressmen it is 1947."

President Truman, at a special press conference February 1, 1947, declared that "we have had good labor news during the past 10 days." He followed this observation with an announcement of a comprehensive plan to preserve industrial peace in the construction industry developed by the Associated General Contractors and the AFL Building and Construction Trades Department. A few days earlier, Secretary of Labor Schwellenbach, testifying before the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, stated that if labor and management are given a reasonable opportunity to work out their problems between themselves a repetition of the widespread controversies which prevailed in the final months of 1945 and early 1946 is not likely to reoccur. In this connection, also, the Bureau of Labor Statistics in releasing preliminary estimates of work stoppages in 1946 (see below) observed that if the industrial disputes pattern of 1919–20, following World War I, constitutes a parallel for the period following the recent war, the Nation, during 1947, may expect somewhat fewer work stoppages and a substantial drop in the number of large strikes.

Review of Work Stoppages in 1946

About 4,700 work stoppages due to labor-management disputes occurred in 1946, according to preliminary estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These stoppages involved approximately 4,650,000 workers and resulted in about 113,000,000 man-days of idleness in the plants or establishments directly affected by the controversies. For the year as a whole, time lost as a direct result of stoppages amounted to about 1.5 percent of the total estimated working time.

Wages were the paramount issue in most controversies. Preservation of "take-home" pay was emphasized in many reconversion wage disputes while later in the year, after the easing and subsequent abandonment of price controls, demands for pay increases to match rising living costs became more frequent.

In the preceding year, 4,750 work stoppages, involving 3,467,000 workers, were recorded. Lost-time in 1945 was estimated at 38,025,000 man-days.

February marked the crest of reconversion labor-management disputes in 1946. During that month, the large stoppages in steel, electrical manufacturing, and automobiles brought the lost-time figure to approximately 23,000,000 man-days. Later stoppages, notably bituminous coal in April–May and again in November–December, and

the maritime disputes in the autumn, also contributed substantially to the year's total idleness.

Strike activity declined to its lowest level of the year in December when only 180 new stoppages occurred. These disputes involved but 95,000 workers. Including disputes continued from earlier months, a total of 400 stoppages involving approximately 525,000 workers were in effect at one time or another during December. Idleness for December was estimated at 3,065,000 man-days, less than any month since the end of the war.

Monthly trend in work stoppages, 1946 [1]

Month	Stoppages beginning in month		Man-days idle (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of estimated working time (all industries)
January	325	1,400,000	19,750,000	3.1
February	275	130,000	23,000,000	4.2
March	420	165,000	13,825,000	2.3
April	495	575,000	15,550,000	2.4
May	380	560,000	12,360,000	1.9
June	375	175,000	4,475,000	.7
July	525	190,000	3,300,000	.5
August	515	240,000	3,425,000	.5
September	450	380,000	5,000,000	.8
October	450	290,000	4,500,000	.6
November	310	450,000	4,750,000	.7
December	180	95,000	3,065,000	.4

[1] Data are preliminary and subject to revision. Figures for some months have been adjusted on the basis of later information received. The statistics include all known work stoppages, arising out of labor-management disputes, involving six or more workers and continuing as long as a full day or shift. Figures on "workers involved" and "man-days idle" cover all workers made idle in establishments directly involved in a stoppage. They do not measure the indirect or secondary effects on other establishments or industries whose employees are made idle as a result of material or service shortages.

Activities of the U. S. Conciliation Service in December 1946

DURING December 1946 the United States Conciliation Service terminated 1,021 disputes involving 373,118 employees—approximately 1 percent fewer than were closed in the previous month.

The number of threatened stoppages and controversies terminated increased about 5 percent over November while the number of work stoppages settled declined more than 15 percent. The latter decline is a result of the comparatively few work stoppages which began during November and December.

In December more than 76 percent of all work stoppages terminated involved the issue of wages. Stoppages caused by unresolved grievances accounted for 9.8 percent of the total stoppages terminated, as compared with 11.1 percent in November and 18.4 percent in October.

Cases closed by the U. S. Conciliation Service in December 1946, by type of situation and type of disposition

Method of handling	Total		Work stoppages		Threatened work stoppages		controversies		Other situations	
	Cases	Workers	Cases	Workers	Cases	Workers	Cases	Workers	Cases	Workers
All methods	1,221	409,698	235	177,993	446	135,518	336	59,404	204	36,783
Settled by conciliation	841	315 533	200	172,843	375	90,701	266	51,989	------	-------
Dispute called off	70	20,169	8	918	33	17,374	29	1,877	------	-------
Unable to adjust	22	1,571	10	1,232	6	162	6	177	------	-------
Referred to NLRB and other agencies	51	6 328	15	2,285	23	3,103	13	910	------	-------
Referred to arbitration	33	29,314	2	715	9	24,178	22	4,421	------	-------
Consent elections and union memberships	4	203	------	-------	------	-------	------	-------	4	203
Decisions rendered in arbitration	[1] 64	8,036	------	-------	------	-------	------	-------	64	8 036
Technical services completed	33	3,960	------	-------	------	-------	------	-------	33	3,960
Miscellaneous services	103	24,584	------	-------	------	-------	------	-------	103	24,584

[1] This figure includes 3 arbitration cases in which settlements other than arbitration decisions were made.

Mediation Experts Accept Service With U. S. Conciliation Service [1]

TWENTY-SIX nationally known experts in labor relations have consented to act as a panel of special conciliators in major industrial disputes for the Conciliation Service of the U. S. Department of Labor. Each conciliator will be assigned to a particular dispute in accordance with his background and experience for handling the problems in the particular industry or area in which the controversy arises, and his work will supplement that of the regular Conciliation staff. The appointees have agreed to leave their permanent pursuits, on call.

Creation of the panel implements the first step of a four-point program for expanding the Government's voluntary mediation machinery. This program was recently recommended to the Service by its bipartite Labor-Management Advisory Committee, in a statement of policy which had been concurred in unanimously. The plan also provides for the use of tripartite mediation, voluntary arbitration, and emergency boards of inquiry.[2]

The special conciliation panel consists of the following members:

Aaron, Benjamin, Los Angeles, Calif., attorney. Formerly, Executive Secretary, National War Labor Board, and Chairman, U. S. Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Boards in Pacific Gas and Electric, and Coos Bay cases.

[1] U. S. Department of Labor, Press release, January 5. 1947 (S47-735).

[2] See Labor-Management Policy for U. S. Conciliation Service, Monthly Labor Review, January 1947 (p. 81).

Davis, William H., New York, N. Y., attorney, and member, New York City Board of Transportation. Formerly, Chairman, National War Labor Board, and Director of Office of Economic Stabilization.

Dewey, James, Chester, Pa., member, Pennsylvania State Mediation Board. Former member of staff, U. S. Conciliation Service.

Feinsinger, Nathan P., Madison, Wis., professor of law, University of Wisconsin Law School. Formerly, public member, National War Labor Board, Chairman, President's Fact-Finding Board for Steel Industry, and Chairman, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Boards in Pacific Gas and Electric, and Milwaukee Gas Light cases.

Fly, James Lawrence, New York, N. Y., attorney. Formerly, Chairman, Federal Communications Commission, and Chairman, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Board for West Coast Longshore Industry.

Fox, Noel, Muskegon, Mich., attorney. Former member of Michigan State Mediation Board and of regular staff, U. S. Conciliation Service.

Garrison, Lloyd K., New York, N. Y., attorney. Formerly, Chairman, National War Labor Board, dean of law school, University of Wisconsin, and Chairman, President's Fact-Finding Board in General Motors case.

Graham, Frank P., Chapel Hill, N. C., president, University of North Carolina. Formerly, public member, National War Labor Board, and Chairman, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Board for Oil Industry.

Harbison, Frederick H., Chicago, Ill., executive officer, Industrial Relations Center, University of Chicago. Formerly, public member, Chicago Regional War Labor Board.

Hepburn, William, Tuscaloosa, Ala., professor of law, University of Alabama. Formerly, vice chairman, Atlanta Regional War Labor Board.

Hopkins, William S., Stanford, Calif., professor of labor economics, Stanford University. Formerly, public member, San Francisco Regional War Labor Board.

Keenan, Joseph, Chicago, Ill. Formerly, Vice Chairman of War Production Board.

Kerr, Clark, Berkeley, Calif,. professor, School of Business Administration, University of California, and Impartial Chairman, West Coast Longshore Industry. Formerly, member, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Boards for Meat Packing, Pacific Gas and Light cases.

Kestnbaum, Meyer, Chicago, Ill., president, Hart, Schaffner & Marx. Formerly, public representative, National War Labor Board panels.

Leiserson, William M., Washington, D. C., director, Labor Organization Study, with Johns Hopkins University. Formerly, member, National Labor Relations Board, and Chairman, National Mediation Board.

McGrady, Edward F., Camden, N. J., vice president in charge of labor relations, R. C. A. Former Assistant Secretary of Labor (United States).

Meyer, Arthur S., New York, N. Y., chairman, New York State Mediation Board.

Morley, Frank V., New York, N. Y., publisher. Formerly, associate public member, National War Labor Board.

Seward, Ralph T., Detroit, Mich., Umpire of General Motors Corp. and United Automobile Workers of America (CIO). Formerly, associate member, National War Labor Board.

Shulman, Harry, New Haven, Conn., professor of law, Yale University, and Permanent Umpire, Ford Motor Co. and United Automobile Workers of America (CIO).

Simkin, William E., Philadelphia, Pa., umpire and arbitrator for various textile and shipbuilding companies. Formerly, Chairman, Shipbuilding Commission, and Co-Chairman, Steel Commission, National War Labor Board, and Chairman, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Board in Greyhound Bus case.

Taylor, George, Philadelphia, Pa., professor of industrial relations, Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, and Chairman, Advisory Committee, Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion. Formerly, Chairman, National War Labor Board.

Wallen, Saul, Boston, Mass., arbitrator. Formerly Chairman, Boston Regional War Labor Board, Chairman, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Board in Western Union case, and member of Board of Greyhound Bus case.

Witte, Edwin E., Madison, Wis., professor of economics, University of Wisconsin. Formerly, public member, National War Labor Board, and Chairman, Secretary of Labor's Fact-Finding Board for Meat Packing Industry.

Wolf, Harry D., Chapel Hill, N. C., professor of economics, University of North Carolina. Formerly, public member, Atlanta Regional War Labor Board.

Wolff, David A., Detroit, Mich., attorney; Umpire, Chrysler Motor Corp. and United Automobile Workers of America (CIO); formerly, Chairman Automotive Panel, Detroit Regional War Labor Board.

Labor Laws and Decisions

Thirteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation

For the first time international as well as domestic labor standards were high-lighted at the Thirteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation called by the Secretary of Labor, L. B. Schwellenbach, in Washington, December 2, 3, and 4, 1946.

The Conference was attended by representatives from 43 States and by representatives from Alaska and the District of Columbia. The delegates, numbering nearly 200, included State labor commissioners and other State officials, as well as representatives of organized labor.

The Secretary of Labor, in his opening address, reviewed progress during the past year in labor legislation and administration. He discussed continuing problems of wage earners in our postwar economy, reported on the expanded activities of the United States Department of Labor, and outlined the services available to States through the Department's various bureaus. In commenting on the increased activities of the Department, the Secretary said:

> International developments in the labor, economic, and social fields vitally affect the American worker. Participation by the United States in all phases of international relations is growing fast, as we all know. Consequently there has been a substantial increase in the duties and responsibilities of the Department of Labor in connection with international problems.

Assistant Secretary David A. Morse, who has assumed responsibility for the Department's international affairs, discussed that program and especially the responsibility of the United States toward the International Labor Organization. This Government has ratified few international treaties or conventions of this Organization, largely because the labor standards they embody are set in this country by State rather than Federal law.

The Conference endorsed increased participation by States in the ILO program as proposed in pending amendments to the ILO constitution. It urged the United States Department of Labor to bring together a representative group of employers and workers with a committee of State labor commissioners to determine which ILO conventions or treaties are appropriate for submission to the States and to recommend ways and means of securing State action.

Committee Reports

Recommendations for improving labor standards, which were made by five committees, appointed at the Conference, are summarized below.

Safety and health and workmen's compensation.—Increased accident frequency rates since VJ-day have made it imperative that steps be taken to reduce this accident toll which results in the loss of thousands of lives and costs workers and employers an estimated 3½ billion dollars a year. It was recommended that State labor departments be given sufficient personnel and adequate appropriations to render effective service to industrial establishments. Specific recommendations regarding safety and health included the development of a uniform safety code for the expanding construction industry, where accident rates are high, and the maritime industry, whose workers generally are not covered by State or Federal safety codes.

The Conference urged States not having code-making authority to seek it in 1947 legislative sessions; elimination of conflicts between State codes and machine guarding at the source; and improvement of industrial hygiene and sanitation services, to be administered by State labor departments.

Although workmen's compensation laws have been in effect more than 30 years, 50 percent of the workers are still unprotected by this type of social insurance. The Conference proposed broader coverage of workmen's compensation laws and higher maximum benefits. Lifetime payments to employees who have sustained permanent total disability through work injuries, and payment of death benefits to widows and to dependent children under 18, were urged. Other recommendations were made for unlimited medical benefits, establishment of second-injury funds, double compensation for injuries to illegally employed minors, and correlation of the functions of workmen's compensation and rehabilitation agencies.

Employment service and unemployment compensation.—The Conference delegates recommended that reasonably uniform standards and procedures should be strengthened by Federal-State cooperation in order that this country shall continue to have a Nation-wide network of public employment offices. The following recommendations were made with regard to the employment service offices, whose principal duties will be to maintain a high level of postwar employment: Equal referral opportunities based on occupational qualifications, without regard to sex, creed, or color; no referral to positions left vacant by a labor dispute; and referral of workers to most suitable and desirable jobs, regardless of State boundaries. It was also recommended that States having large minority group populations should employ minority group personnel on their employment service staffs.

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It was recommended that unemployment compensation benefits be increased to bring maximum weekly payments to $25, payable for 26 weeks, and that payments be extended to cover all employees now excluded, including those of municipal, county, State, and Federal Governments, and to provide temporary benefits for seamen previously employed by the War Shipping Administration. The extension also would cover persons voluntarily separated for good cause, provide for payment of temporary disability insurance where State plans or laws authorize, and remove experience rating provisions from State unemployment compensation laws.

Labor education.—Recognizing that labor education is one of the most successful means of achieving intelligent industrial relations, the Conference endorsed the Division of Labor Standards' Labor Education Service—expanded after a recommendation made at last year's Conference—and recommended increased appropriations for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1947, for the operation of the service. This service prepares basic teaching guides on labor legislation, history and economics, grievance procedure, and other aspects of contract administration. It also assists universities, unions, and other groups engaged in labor legislation to develop their own programs.

Migratory workers.—Seasonal labor demands of certain industries require great numbers of workers at certain times of the year, but very few at other periods. These migratory workers are in special need of the legal protection denied them. Though their employment is irregular and their wages low, they are not generally protected by minimum-wage, wage-payment, and wage-collection laws.

The Conference stated that migratory workers should have protection under State and Federal law equal to that afforded other workers. It was recommended that legislation be passed to give the necessary authority to State labor departments and the United States Department of Labor to carry out a program of protective measures for migratory workers.

Regulation of wages and hours.—Because delegates considered the present 40-cent Federal minimum wage inadequate to cope with the increased cost of living, the Conference recommended that the minimum be increased. The Conference also urged a Federal statute of limitations on the filing of wage claims, with similar limitations in State laws. It was further recommended that the Act be extended to cover all children employed in establishments engaged in or producing for interstate commerce.

Other recommendations called for State wage and hour laws for all workers, elimination of industrial home work, and provision for equal pay for women. These recommendations called for limiting working

hours to 8 a day and 48 a week for women with special limitations for minors. It was proposed that night work for both men and women be reduced to the minimum necessary for essential processes and services, and in industries where night work is practiced, it was recommended that more desirable working conditions and shift differentials in pay rates be provided.

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor [1]

District Court Rulings in United Mine Workers Case

ON NOVEMBER 18, 1946, the Federal District Court of the District of Columbia, acting on an application by the Federal Government, issued a temporary restraining order [2] forbidding Mr. John L. Lewis and the United Mine Workers from continuing in effect their notice of November 15, 1946, purporting to terminate the so-called Krug-Lewis agreement as of midnight November 20, 1946. In its review of the facts as they appeared in the complaint, the restraining order emphasized the fact that it has been the practice of the United Mine Workers to refuse to work in the mines while there is no contract in effect, and that if such a stoppage of bituminous-coal production should occur it would interfere with governmental functions and adversely affect the public interest. The restraining order also specifically forbade the defendants' calling a strike.

On November 21, 1946, after the miners had walked out, the United States filed a petition with the district court for a rule to show cause why the defendants should not be punished for contempt, alleging that they had willfully disobeyed the temporary restraining order. The court ordered the defendants to appear on November 25, 1946. After the defendants appeared, and the court found that their reply had not purged the alleged contempt, it was ordered that the matter be set for trial on November 27, 1946.

On November 26, 1946, the defendants filed a motion to vacate the rule to show cause, alleging, among other things, that under the Norris La Guardia Act the district court had no jurisdiction to issue an injunction in a cause arising out of a labor dispute. The court, however, on November 29, 1946, denied the defendants' motion.[2] Speak-

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

[2] *United States* v. *United Mine Workers of America et al.*, U. S. D. C. D. C., Nov. 29, 1946; Dec. 3, 1946; and Dec. 4, 1946.

ing on the question of whether the Norris-La Guardia Act was applicable in this case, the court referred to the legislative history of that act, which, in the view of the court, discloses the fact that amendments specifically omitting the United States Government from its operation had been rejected because of the belief that the Government was amply protected by one of the general principles of law with regard to the interpretation of statutes. The principle is that when, in a piece of legislation, the Government is not specifically mentioned or included by necessary implication, the language of the act does not apply to the Government. Therefore, the court held that it had the right to enjoin a labor union which, in its opinion, was about to do something against the public interest.

After a trial on the charge of contempt, the defendants were found guilty and fined.[2] In its findings of fact, the court reviewed the Government's seizure of the mines under the War Labor Disputes Act, the subsequent Krug-Lewis agreement, the negotiations leading to notice that the agreement was terminated, and the issuance by the court of the restraining order. The court pointed out that the refusal to terminate the notice that the contract was no longer in force had perpetrated the work stoppages, and that these work stoppages if allowed to continue would result in irreparable injury to the public interest. It held that the defendants had violated the restraining order and had interfered with the exercise by the United States of its sovereign functions.

On December 4, 1946, the temporary restraining order was made a preliminary injunction [2] in an opinion patterned largely after the one holding the defendants in contempt. At this writing, the United States Supreme Court has agreed to review the case, including the issue of whether the district court's restraining order and preliminary injunction violated the Constitution and the Norris-LaGuardia Act.

Fair Labor Standards Act

Executive exemptions.—A number of recent decisions have dealt with the application of that provision of the Fair Labor Standards Act which exempts from coverage by the act "any employee employed in a bona fide executive . . . capacity." In a case arising in a Wisconsin court,[3] it was held that the exemption did not apply to an employee in charge of plant guards, with the title of "lieutenant," as the facts indicated that this employee spent 50 percent of his time in making inspectional tours, standing guard at gates, and other work

[2] *United States* v. *United Mine Workers of America et al.*, U. S. D. C. D. C., Nov. 29, 1946; Dec. 3, 1946; and Dec. 4, 1946.

[3] *Katchel* v. *Northern Engraving and Manufacturing Co.* (Wis. Sup. Ct., Dec. 18, 1946.

of the same nature as that performed by the nonexempt guards working under his direction.[4]

On the other hand, in a case involving a claim for overtime compensation by a highly specialized supervisor of a machine-tool operation, the court held that the executive exemption was applicable even though the employee in question did a considerable amount of manual work.[5] The court held that most of manual work involved the setting up of machine operations and was an integral part of the employee's supervisory duties, and that the work performed of the same nature as that performed by other workers in the department did not exceed 20 percent of the workweek. It was likewise held that the requirements of the executive exemption were met in the cases of officers of a company fire department[6] and an assistant superintendent of employees on a highway construction job.[7]

Home workers.—Two recent cases in a Federal district court in Indiana, involving similar facts, held workers performing work in their homes for a company producing goods in interstate commerce to be employees and not independent contractors within the meaning of the Fair Labor Standards Act.[8] In these cases the companies were engaged in the manufacture of paper novelties, tags, and other converted paper products. The printing operations required were done in the company's plants. The folding, cutting, sewing, and assembling, however, was done by workers who picked up the items at the plant and worked on them at their homes, following the company's specifications, and using the company's materials but their own machines. On these facts the court ruled in both cases that the workers were covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act, and the Wage and Hour Administrator was entitled to an injunction requiring compliance with the minimum wage and maximum hour provisions of that act.

Employees of intrastate power company.—A circuit court of appeals has upheld the ruling of a lower court in deciding that the employees of an intrastate light and power cooperative supplying electrical energy to local consumers, some of whom were producing goods for interstate commerce, were engaged in the production of goods for commerce and were therefore covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act.[9]

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[4] Under the regulations of the Wage and Hour Administrator, in order to qualify as an executive the time spent in duties of the same nature as those performed by nonexempt employees must not exceed 20 percent of the number of hours worked in the workweek by nonexempt employees.

[5] *Langford* v. *Republic Drill and Tool Co.*, U. S. D. C. N. D. Ill., Dec. 4, 1946.

[6] *McGregor* v. *Trojan Power Co.*, U. S. D. C. N. D. Ohio, Dec. 3, 1946.

[7] *Burns* v. *Metcalfe Construction Co.*, U. S. D. C. W. D. Mo. Nov., 27, 1946.

[8] *Walling* v. *Muncie Novelty Co.*, U. S. D. C. S. D. Ind., Dec. 16, 1946; *Walling* v. *A. B. C. Novelty Co.*, U. S. D. C. S. D., Ind., Dec. 16, 1946.

[9] *Meeker Cooperative Light Corp.* v. *Walling*, C. C. A. 8th, Dec. 17, 1946.

National Labor Relations Act

Post-election challenges.—The United States Supreme Court upheld the National Labor Relations Board in its practice of refusing to entertain post-election challenges to the eligibility of a voter who has participated in a consent election.[10]

A consent election had been held to determine whether the employees desired to be represented by the union. At the polling place both the employer and the union had observers to challenge the eligibility of any voter. The result of the election was a victory for the union by a 1-vote margin. Thereafter, the company refused to bargain with the union, contending that 1 of the votes was cast by a person who was not an employee of the company at the time of the election. The Board ordered the employer to cease and desist from his refusal to bargain, but this order was reversed by the Circuit Court of Appeals on the ground that an employer may refuse to bargain with a union that has not been elected by a majority of those who were in fact employees at the time of the election.

In reversing this decision, the Supreme Court held that the refusal to accept post-election challenges is within the wide degree of discretion entrusted to the Board under the National Labor Relations Act in establishing the procedure for insuring fair and free choice of bargaining representatives. The court pointed out that the rule that once a ballot has been cast its validity cannot later be challenged has been widely followed in political and corporate elections, and it is particularly appropriate in labor-representation elections because of the great need for stability in industrial relations.

In a dissenting opinion, Mr. Justice Jackson contended that the Board's rule provided adequate protection for the employer and the union, but no such protection for the employees who were opposed to the union. The majority opinion stated that there was no evidence that such employees had not been permitted to challenge the eligibility of any voter. It pointed out that the representatives of the Board were bound to perform their electoral functions on behalf of all employees, including those with antiunion sentiments, and that "in the absence of any evidence that such representatives discriminated against the antiunion employees in preparing the eligibility list or in raising timely eligibility issues, we cannot say that those employees were inadequately represented."

Closed shop and dual unionism.—The discharge of an employee, on the demand of a union with which the employer has a closed-shop contract, because the employee acted as an observer for a rival union in a representation election and was therefore expelled from the union,

[10] *National Labor Relations Board* v. *A. J. Tower Co.*, U. S. Sup. Ct., Dec. 23, 1946.

constitutes an unfair labor practice. Such was the holding of the Circuit Court of Appeals at San Francisco in a recent case,[11] which upheld the view taken by the National Labor Relations Board in the latest group of cases on this point. The court pointed out that the sanction of closed-shop agreements provided in the act does not permit arrangements which make it impossible for rival unions to compete for representation. Dual unionism, in which an employee maintains membership in the existing union in order to retain his job under the closed-shop contract, but participates in the activities of a rival union which he desires to see prevail in a representation election, is frequently necessary and proper, the court stated. It held that the Board's interpretation of the closed-shop provision of the act "in addition to confirming the democratic process in bargaining-agency elections, prevents the use of the proviso for the perpetuation of a particular union's control of the employees once it enters into a closed-shop contract with their employer." It therefore ruled that the discharge of an employee for dual unionism was discriminatory and in violation of the act.

Status of informal committees.—The question of whether a loosely formed employees' committee may constitute a labor organization within the meaning of the act was raised in a recent circuit court case.[12] In that case the employees had created a number of committees composed of foremen and nonsupervisory employees, for the purpose of petitioning the employer for increased wages and improved working conditions. There was no formal organization, constitution, bylaws, or collection of dues. The court held that since these committees existed for the purpose of representing employees and participating in their behalf with the management in matters concerning wages, working conditions, and grievances, they were labor organizations under the National Labor Relations Act. As such the admitted domination and support of these committees by the employer was held to violate section 8 (2) of the act.

Selective Training and Service Act

Award of arbitrator not effective.—It was held in two recent cases [13] that an award of an arbitrator in grievance proceedings under a contract between the union and the company has no legal effect upon the rights of veterans under the reemployment provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act. In both cases the court set aside an arbitration award in which it was held that preference was to be given to

[11] *Local Lumber and Sawmill Workers* v. *N. L. R. B.*, U. S. C. C. A. (9), Nov. 22, 1946.
[12] *N. L. R. B.* v. *American Furnace Co.*, U. S. C. C. A. (7) Dec. 4, 1946.
[13] *Koury* v. *Elastic Stop Nut Corp.*, U. S. D. C. N. J., Oct. 1, 1946; *DiMaggio* v. *Elastic Stop Nut Corp.* U. S. D. C. N. J., Oct. 1, 1946.

union officials under the contract between the union and the company, in spite of the fact that such union officials had less actual seniority than the veterans.

Death of owner and sale of business.—The reemployment rights of a veteran, a Federal district court ruled, do not survive the death of the owner of the business and a bona fide sale of such business.[14] In holding that a veteran was not entitled to reemployment by the purchasers of a business, who had abolished his position, the court distinguished this case from one in which there is no change in ownership but a mere transfer of certain operations, or one in which there is a mere change in the form of the ownership for the purpose of depriving the veteran of his reemployment rights.

Federal Communications Act

Amendment of 1946 declared unconstitutional.—The act of 1946 [15] which amends the Federal Communications Act of 1934 by making it a criminal offense to use pressure upon a broadcasting business to employ persons "in excess of the number needed to perform actual services" was declared unconstitutional by a Federal district court.[16]

The grounds upon which the court held the statute in conflict with the Constitution were that the act (1) is so framed as to create indefiniteness in the definition of a criminal offense, thus violating the fifth amendment (the court specifically referred to the necessary vagueness in the meaning of "needed to perform actual services"); (2) makes peaceful picketing, in order to enforce a request that more employees be hired, unlawful, thus violating the first amendment (peaceful picketing has been held to be protected by the free speech clause); (3) contains a restriction on the employment of labor, thus violating the thirteenth amendment; and (4) discriminates, without adequate basis, against employees of broadcasting stations, thus violating the fifth amendment.

Decisions of State Courts

Picketing.—A number of recent cases arising in State courts have dealt with the legality of various activities involving picketing in a labor dispute.

Both the picketing of the employer in order to obtain a closed shop and the picketing of the employer's customers were held to be lawful, in a decision by the Superior Court in Maine.[17] In refusing to enjoin

[14] *McFadden* v. *Dienelt*, U. S. D. C. N. D. Cal., Dec. 4, 1946.
[15] Public Law 344, 79th Cong.
[16] *U. S.* v. *Petrillo*, U. S. D. C. N. D. Ill., Dec. 2, 1946.
[17] *Twitchell-Champlin Co.* v. *Conary*, Maine Sup. Ct., Oct. 29, 1946.

this picketing, the court held that a closed shop is a proper objective of concerted labor activities, even when undertaken by a union that represents none of the employees of the employer. In addition the court, relying on several decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court in recent years, ruled that the picketing was protected under the free speech clause of the Constitution. With reference to the picketing of customers of the employer, the court held that union engaged in a labor dispute with an employer may lawfully follow the subject matter of its dispute by peacefully picketing the premises of third parties who transact business with the employer.

In a case in which a labor union instituted the mass picketing of a railroad in order to compel the railroad to refuse to handle the products of lumber mills with which the union was engaged in a dispute, a California court issued an injunction against the picketing.[18] It held that the means employed, namely mass picketing, was productive of violence and hence unlawful. It further held that the objective of the union activity was likewise unlawful in that it would result, if successful, in a violation of the railroad's statutory duty to handle freight without discrimination.

Mass picketing was likewise condemned in a recent New Jersey case.[19] In granting an injunction restraining the number and placement of pickets, the court pointed out that "coercive" picketing is not protected by free speech. In answer to the contention that the injunction violated the State Anti-Injunction Act, the court ruled that the act was purely procedural and did not change the substantive law with respect to the issuance of injunctions in labor disputes.

In the first of a group of cases filed by various movie producers against a carpenters' union, seeking to enjoin violent picketing in connection with a jurisdictional dipsute, a lower California court dismissed a motion on the part of the union to dissolve a temporary injunction that had been issued.[20] The contention of the union was that the company was not entitled to equitable relief in the form of an injunction because of the doctrine that one cannot come into a court of equity with "unclean hands." The union alleged that the company had formed a conspiracy with other companies in discriminatively discharging their members and refusing to bargain collectively. The court held, however, that the alleged conspiracy did not pertain to the subject matter of the injunction and did not bar its issuance.

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[18] *Northwestern Pacific R. R. Co.* v. *Lumber and Sawmill Workers Union*, Calif. Sup. Ct. Sonoma County, Nov. 1, 1946.

[19] *Westinghouse Electric Corp.* v. *United Electrical Radio and Machine Workers*, N. J. Ct. of Err. and App., Dec. 5, 1946.

[20] *Warner Bros. Pictures* v. *United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners*, Calif. Sup. Ct., Los Angeles County, Nov. 25, 1946.

Prices and Cost of Living

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

RETAIL PRICES of goods and services purchased by moderate-income city families rose 0.7 percent between mid-November and mid-December 1946—the smallest monthly increase since June 15, 1946. This over-all rise brought the consumers' price index to 153.3 (1935–39=100) on December 15, 1946—15 percent higher than in mid-June 1946, 18 percent higher than a year ago, and 55.5 percent above the August

[1] The "consumers' price index for moderate-income families in large cities," formerly known as the "cost of living index," measures average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents and services, weighted by quantities bought by families of wage earners and moderate-income workers in large cities in 1934–36. The items priced for the index constituted about 70 percent of the expenditures of city families whose incomes averaged $1,524 in 1934–36.

Since May 1944 a statement has been included in the monthly report on the consumers' price index, giving a brief explanation of the index. This statement pointed out that during the war changes in the quality and the availability of consumer goods, the underreporting of over-ceiling prices, and the disappearance of special sales were not fully reflected in the indexes.

Beginning with the release of the August 1945 consumers' price index, this statement was enlarged to summarize the findings of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living. The committee had estimated in November 1944 that the index understated the rise in retail prices between January 1941 and September 1944 by a maximum of 3 to 4 points, and that if small cities were included in the national average, another ½ point would be added. In December 1945, the Stabilization Director, in connection with Executive Orders 9599 and 9651, indicated that if account were taken of continued deterioration of quality and unavailability of merchandise between September 1944 and September 1945, the over-all allowance for the period from January 1941 to September 1945 would total approximately 5 points for large and small cities combined.

A further statement on this subject will be available in the near future.

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 2. They were estimated for January 1, 1941, the base date for determining allowable "cost of living" wage increases under the Little Steel formula and under the wage-price policy of February 1946. January 1, 1941, indexes in tables 1 and 2 have been estimated by assuming an even rate of change from December 15, 1940, to the next pricing date.

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.

1939 level. Prices for food, the most important part of the family budget, dropped 1.0 percent, but prices for all other major groups of living essentials surveyed advanced sharply. In the first full month after the end of price control, prices for clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services increased 3.0 percent on the average.

The food bill for city workers' families declined 1.0 percent. Retail prices for lard, oleomargarine, all red meats, cheese, citrus fruit, green beans, and lettuce which were lower on December 15 than on November 15, more than offset the continued advances in the retail prices of cereal and bakery products, butter and milk, canned and dried fruits and vegetables, coffee, and sugar.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of consumers' prices for moderate-income families and percent changes, Dec. 15, 1946, compared with earlier periods*

Group	Dec. 15, 1946	Nov. 15, 1946	Dec. 15, 1945	Aug. 15, 1945	Jan. 1, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Wage base date	Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)					
All items	153.3	R152.2	129.9	129.3	100.8	98.6
Food	185.9	187.7	141.4	140.9	97.6	93.5
Clothing	176.5	R171.0	149.4	146.4	101.2	100.3
Rent			108.3		105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	115.5	R114.8	110.3	111.4	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	92.0	91.8	94.0	95.2	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	138.3	R137.2	126.1	127.2	104.0	96.3
Housefurnishings	177.1	R171.0	148.3	146.0	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous	136.1	R132.5	124.8	124.5	100.8	100.4
	Percent change to Dec. 15, 1946					
All items		0.7	18.0	18.6	52.1	55.5
Food		−1.0	31.5	31.9	90.5	98.8
Clothing		3.2	18.1	20.6	74.4	76.0
Rent [1]					3.1	3.8
Fuel, electricity, and ice		.6	4.7	3.7	14.6	18.5
Gas and electricity		.2	−2.1	−3.4	−5.6	−7.1
Other fuels and ice		.8	9.7	8.7	33.0	43.6
Housefurnishings		3.6	19.4	21.3	76.7	76.0
Miscellaneous		2.7	9.1	9.3	33.7	35.6

[1] Percent change to Sept. 15, 1946.

Clothing prices for moderate-income families rose 3.2 percent during the first full month following the removal of price controls. Practically all types of clothing and shoes increased in price. Leather footwear led the upswing, with men's and women's shoes advancing 9 and 7 percent, respectively. Prices were higher for men's overcoats and suits, work clothing, and other cotton apparel and for most women's clothing items. Women's rayon dresses and underwear prices had the largest increases; retail prices of nylon stockings also advanced although supplies had improved markedly. Prices for women's coats dropped slightly in mid-December because of seasonal sales.

Housefurnishings prices advanced 3.6 percent between mid-November and mid-December. Most items in this group were higher, and increases were attributed to higher cost of merchandise for new stock. Washing machines, electric and gas refrigerators, and other household appliances advanced in price more rapidly than furniture, after the removal of price controls.

TABLE 2.—*Percent change in consumers' price index from specified dates to Dec. 15, 1946, by cities*

City	Nov. 15, 1946	Dec. 15, 1945	Aug. 15, 1945	Jan. 1, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939
	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Wage base date	Month before war in Europe
Average	0.7	18.0	18.6	52.1	55.5
Atlanta, Ga	----------	18.6	18.7	56.1	59.0
Baltimore, Md	.5	17.5	17.4	54.6	57.8
Birmingham, Ala	.4	18.7	18.4	56.0	60.9
Boston, Mass	1.4	18.7	17.9	49.5	52.6
Buffalo, N. Y	1.4	16.9	17.2	48.9	54.0
Chicago, Ill	.3	19.5	19.6	51.2	55.0
Cincinnati, Ohio	—.1	17.9	18.1	53.3	56.9
Cleveland, Ohio	1.4	18.1	18.2	53.1	56.2
Denver, Colo	.4	18.9	19.4	52.5	54.7
Detroit, Mich	.7	16.6	16.7	51.6	55.4
Houston, Tex	1.5	19.6	19.5	49.3	51.2
Indianapolis, Ind	----------	18.3	18.6	51.2	57.3
Jacksonville, Fla	----------	15.6	15.3	55.8	61.2
Kansas City, Mo	.1	14.8	15.2	49.4	49.1
Los Angeles, Calif	0	15.6	17.9	50.7	53.7
Manchester, N. H	----------	19.5	19.3	56.2	60.0
Memphis, Tenn	----------	17.3	18.0	56.6	59.8
Milwaukee, Wis	----------	18.4	18.7	51.8	55.3
Minneapolis, Minn	.6	18.7	19.9	47.1	50.2
Mobile, Ala	----------	17.2	16.5	53.0	55.8
New Orleans, La	----------	22.2	21.0	60.2	63.4
New York, N. Y	.6	18.4	19.4	53.7	56.8
Norfolk, Va	----------	17.6	17.9	56.7	61.1
Philadelphia, Pa	1.3	18.6	18.8	53.7	55.9
Pittsburgh, Pa	1.0	18.7	19.4	53.6	57.9
Portland, Maine	----------	18.0	17.5	51.5	53.7
Portland, Oreg	----------	14.9	16.2	54.7	57.6
Richmond, Va	----------	18.1	18.4	49.9	52.3
St. Louis, Mo	.4	17.8	18.6	49.7	54.1
San Francisco, Calif	.8	18.1	21.1	57.6	61.5
Savannah, Ga	.2	17.8	17.3	60.0	63.3
Scranton, Pa	----------	20.2	20.7	55.2	60.4
Seattle, Wash	1.2	16.7	18.3	54.0	56.7
Washington, D. C	1.1	17.0	17.9	52.2	54.2

Miscellaneous goods and services cost rose 2.7 percent, as the cost of medical care, particularly hospital rates, continued to increase. Higher prices for automobiles, newspapers, motion picture admissions, barber and beauty shop rates, and tobacco also contributed to this advance. Prices of laundry services and cleaning supplies jumped sharply between mid-November and mid-December.

Fuel, electricity, and ice costs rose 0.6 percent on the average. Retail prices of coal increased in most cities in advance of the January freight rate increase and as supplies were reduced because of the coal strike. Fuel oil prices moved up 2.4 percent following increases for crude oil in November. The cost of gas to consumers in Portland, Oreg., rose 9 percent after a rate change on December 5.

Rents were not surveyed in December 1946.

TABLE 3.—*Percent change in consumers' price index, Nov. 15 to Dec. 15, 1946, by cities and groups of items*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice			House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
				Total	Gas and electricity	Other fuels and ice		
Average	0.7	−1.0	3.2	0.6	0.2	0.8	3.6	2.7
Atlanta, Ga		−1.7		6.4	.1	9.4		
Baltimore, Md	.5	−1.4	4.0	.1	0	.1	2.7	3.1
Birmingham, Ala	.4	−2.5	4.0	0	0	0	5.0	3.0
Boston, Mass	1.4	.2	2.2	1.0	1.8	.7	4.1	5.2
Buffalo, N. Y	1.4	.2	3.8	.3	0	.5	2.8	3.1
Chicago, Ill	.3	−1.3	3.1	1.4	0	2.4	4.3	1.8
Cincinnati, Ohio	−.1	−1.6	1.4	.1	0	.1	.3	1.9
Cleveland, Ohio	1.4	−.9	6.2	1.6	0	2.9	5.2	3.0
Denver, Colo	.4	−1.1	2.6	1.1	0	1.9	2.0	1.6
Detroit, Mich	.7	−1.3	3.7	.3	.4	.3	1.1	3.2
Houston, Tex	1.5	−.1	4.7	0	0	0	4.7	2.5
Indianapolis, Ind		−1.6		.6	0	.8		
Jacksonville, Fla		−2.2		2.2	0	3.3		
Kansas City, Mo	.1	−1.5	1.9	.1	0	.1	2.5	1.3
Los Angeles, Calif	0	−1.5	2.6	0	0	.1	4.1	.6
Manchester, N. H		.6		.8	−.3	1.1		
Memphis, Tenn		−.6		.7	0	.9		
Milwaukee, Wis		−2.4		.1	−.1	.2		
Minneapolis, Minn	.6	−.8	1.8	.5	0	.8	1.4	2.4
Mobile, Ala		−1.4		.1	0	.2		
New Orleans, La		−2.4		.2	0	.5		
New York, N. Y	.6	−1.3	2.8	.1	0	.2	3.7	3.9
Norfolk, Va		−1.0		0	0	0		
Philadelphia, Pa	1.3	.1	4.6	.1	0	.1	3.9	3.2
Pittsburgh, Pa	1.0	−.4	1.4	−.1	−.1	0	4.9	4.0
Portland, Maine		.9		.8	.2	1.0		
Portland, Oreg		.6		2.2	3.7	1.2		
Richmond, Va		−.9		.4	0	.6		
St. Louis, Mo	.4	−1.3	2.4	0	0	0	4.6	2.0
San Francisco, Calif	.8	−.3	3.2	.2	0	1.0	5.2	1.5
Savannah, Ga	.2	−1.7	3.0	1.2	0	1.6	4.8	1.8
Scranton, Pa		−.2		−.2	0	−.2		
Seattle, Wash	1.2	.7	2.6	.8	0	1.2	5.5	1.4
Washington, D. C	1.1	−.4	4.4	.5	0	.8	4.8	1.5

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of consumers' prices for moderate-income families in large cities, 1935 to December 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	129.9	141.0	149.7	(1)	110.8	148.8	125.4
Feb. 15	129.6	139.6	150.5	(1)	111.0	149.7	125.6
Mar. 15	130.2	140.1	153.1	108.4	110.5	150.2	125.9
Apr. 15	131.1	141.7	154.5	(1)	110.4	152.0	126.7
May 15	131.7	142.6	155.7	(1)	110.3	153.7	127.2
June 15	133.3	145.6	157.2	108.5	110.5	156.1	127.9
July 15	141.2	165.7	158.7	(1)	113.3	157.9	128.2
Aug. 15	144.1	171.2	161.2	108.7	113.7	160.0	129.8
Sept. 15	145.9	174.1	165.9	108.8	114.4	165.6	129.9
Oct. 15	148.6	180.0	168.1	(1)	114.4	168.5	131.0
Nov. 15	152.2	187.7	171.0	(1)	114.8	171.0	132.5
Dec. 15	153.3	185.9	176.5	(1)	115.5	177.1	136.1

[1] Rents not surveyed in this month.

Retail Prices of Food in December 1946

RETAIL prices of food in December 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, by commodity groups, in specified periods*

Commodity group	Nov. 15, 1946, to Dec. 15, 1946	Dec. 15, 1945, to Dec. 15, 1946	Aug. 15, 1945, to Dec. 15, 1946	Jan. 15, 1941, to Dec. 15, 1946	Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 15, 1946
All foods	−1.0	+31.5	+31.9	+90.1	+98.8
Cereals and bakery products	+.7	+29.7	+29.8	+49.2	+51.6
Meats	−2.8	+50.8	+50.1	+95.6	+106.7
Beef and veal	−1.8	+58.6	+58.3	+71.5	+88.4
Pork	−6.7	+71.7	+71.7	+124.5	+119.7
Lamb	−3.2	+45.7	+45.7	+101.4	+101.2
Chickens	+.3	+23.7	+20.4	+94.9	+100.2
Fish, fresh and canned	+1.0	+20.7	+22.9	+125.4	+168.7
Dairy products	+1.2	+47.5	+50.6	+91.2	+115.8
Eggs	−.2	+4.1	+17.3	+106.5	+121.7
Fruits and vegetables	+.3	+4.3	+.8	+98.3	+100.2
Fresh	−.9	−4.1	−8.0	+93.4	+94.6
Canned	+2.9	+32.5	+32.5	+88.8	+88.4
Dried	+6.5	+58.9	+59.0	+169.1	+196.8
Beverages	+5.0	+41.1	+41.3	+93.8	+85.7
Fats and oils	−15.2	+65.7	+67.2	+158.2	+145.3
Sugar and sweets	+2.8	+38.5	+38.5	+83.9	+83.4

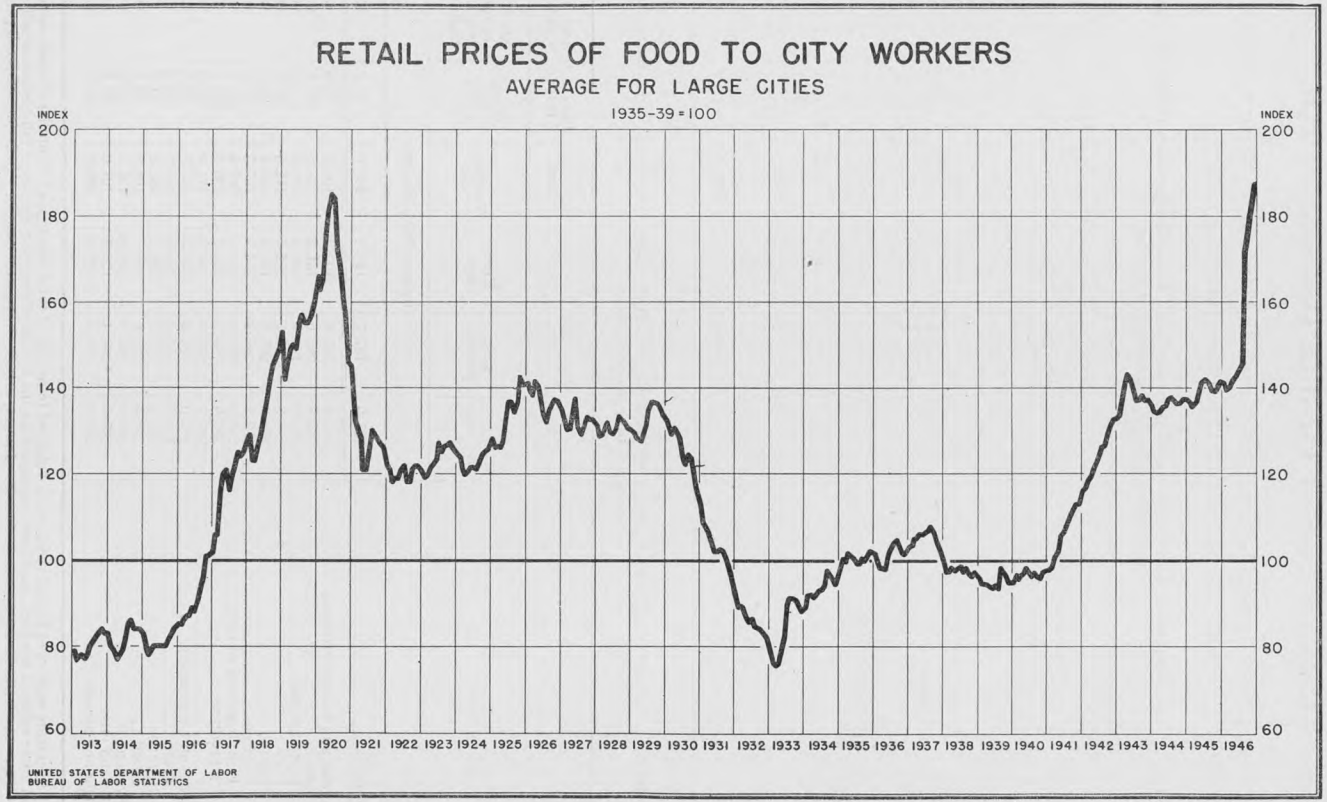
TABLE 2.—*Indexes of retail prices of food in 56 large cities combined,*[1] *by commodity groups, on specified dates*

Commodity group	Dec. 15, 1946	Nov. 15, 1946	Dec. 15, 1945	Aug. 15, 1945	Jan. 15, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Wage base date[2]	Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)					
All foods	185.9	187.7	141.4	140.9	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	141.6	140.6	109.2	109.1	94.9	93.4
Meats	197.8	203.6	131.2	131.8	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	187.6	191.0	118.3	118.5	109.4	99.6
Pork	193.3	207.1	112.6	112.6	86.1	88.0
Lamb	198.8	205.4	136.4	136.4	98.7	98.8
Chickens	189.4	188.9	153.1	157.3	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	267.6	265.0	221.7	217.8	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	200.9	198.5	136.2	133.4	105.1	93.1
Eggs	201.1	201.6	193.2	171.4	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	185.0	184.5	177.3	183.5	93.3	92.4
Fresh	180.6	182.3	188.4	196.2	93.4	92.8
Canned	172.6	167.7	130.3	130.3	91.4	91.6
Dried	268.0	251.6	168.7	168.6	99.6	90.3
Beverages	176.2	167.8	124.9	124.7	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	207.3	[3] 244.4	125.1	124.0	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	175.3	170.5	126.6	126.6	95.3	95.6

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

[2] The wage formulas apply to Jan. 1, 1941. Jan. 15, 1941, is the nearest date for which data on retail prices of individual foods have been computed.

[3] Revised.



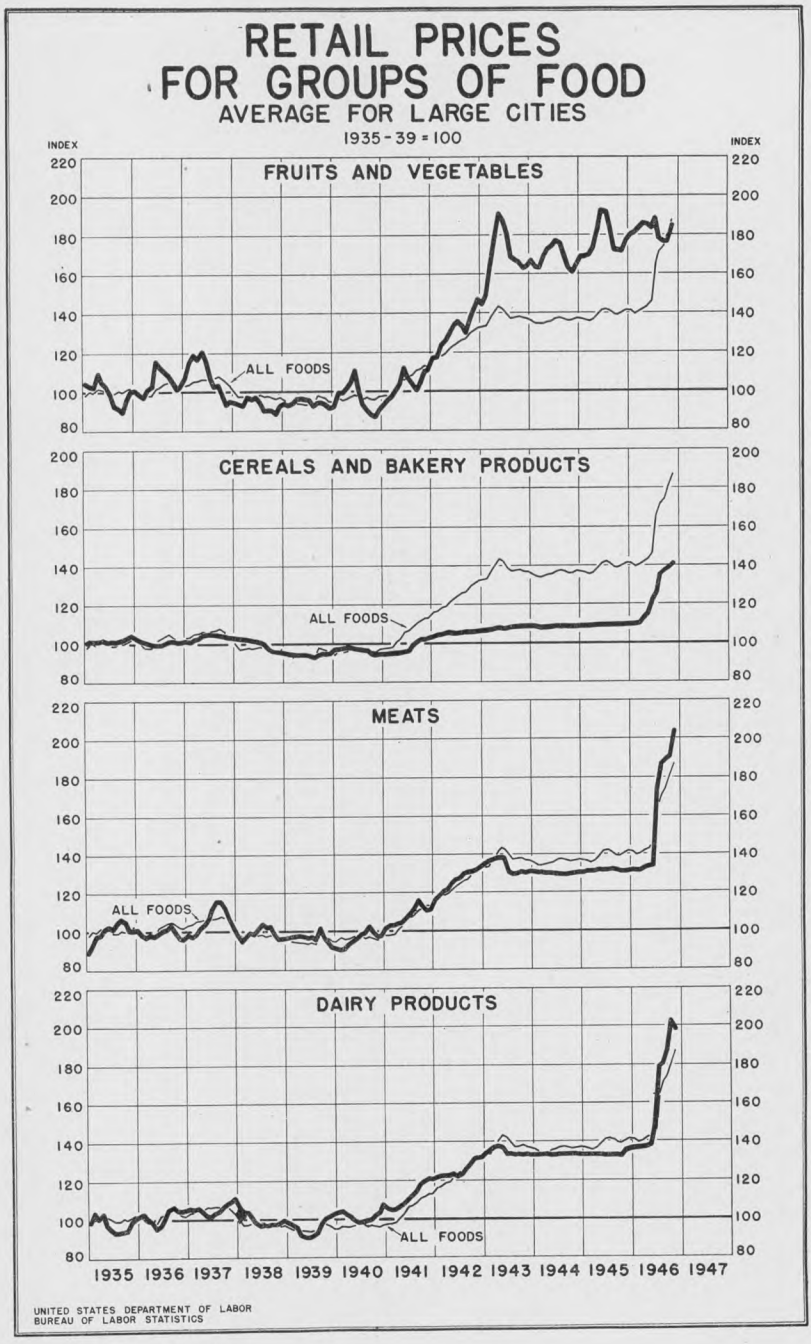


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TABLE 3.—*Average retail prices of 70 foods in 56 large cities combined, December 1946, compared with earlier months*

Article	Dec. 15, 1946	Nov. 15, 1946	Dec. 15, 1945	Aug. 15, 1945	Jan. 15, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Wage base date [1]	Month before war in Europe
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat—5 pounds	41.1	40.7	32.0	32.2	20.7	17.9
Macaroni—pound	19.0	18.7	15.6	15.8	13.8	14.0
Corn flakes—11 ounces	12.0	11.8	9.2	9.2	9.8	9.7
Corn meal—pound	9.0	9.0	6.5	6.4	4.2	4.0
Rice [2]—do	16.3	16.4	12.9	13.0	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats—do	10.7	10.7	10.4	10.4	7.1	7.1
Bakery products:						
Bread, white—do	11.5	11.5	8.8	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat—do	12.6	12.4	9.7	9.7	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye—do	13.4	13.2	10.0	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies—do	(5)	37.2	29.0	28.6	25.1	(3)
Soda crackers—do	24.5	24.2	18.8	18.9	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak—do	64.3	65.6	40.9	40.9	38.6	36.4
Rib roast—do	55.2	55.9	33.0	33.0	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast—do	46.3	47.1	28.3	28.4	25.2	22.5
Liver—do	52.7	53.5	37.3	36.9	(3)	(3)
Hamburger—do	41.4	43.1	27.5	27.4	(3)	(3)
Veal:						
Cutlets—do	69.7	70.3	44.7	44.4	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [2]—do	52.3	53.2	35.9	34.3	(3)	(3)
Pork:						
Chops—do	57.7	66.5	37.3	37.2	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced—do	75.2	76.1	41.2	41.2	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced—do	83.7	84.8	49.8	49.4	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole—do	65.3	67.3	35.0	34.5	26.2	27.4
Salt pork—do	50.3	52.8	21.9	22.0	16.7	15.4
Sausage [2]—do	55.0	57.4	38.8	38.7	(3)	(3)
Lamb:						
Leg—do	59.4	62.3	40.3	40.5	27.8	27.6
Rib chops—do	65.6	66.6	45.6	46.0	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens—do	57.2	57.0	46.9	47.6	31.1	30.9
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)—do	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Salmon, pink—16-ounce can	(5)	31.1	23.2	23.4	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [2]—do	(5)	52.1	40.9	39.7	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:						
Butter—pound	91.5	88.6	54.7	49.9	38.0	30.7
Cheese—do	65.8	69.6	35.5	35.7	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)—quart	20.3	20.0	15.6	15.6	13.0	12.0
Milk, fresh (store)—do	19.4	19.2	14.5	14.5	11.9	11.0
Milk, evaporated—14½-ounce can	14.0	13.9	9.9	10.1	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh—dozen	69.8	69.9	68.2	60.6	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits:						
Apples—pound	12.4	12.0	14.3	13.1	5.2	4.4
Bananas—do	14.5	13.7	10.5	10.5	6.6	6.1
Oranges—dozen	42.6	48.9	49.1	51.3	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [2]—each	8.1	8.9	9.0	11.0	(3)	(3)
Fresh vegetables:						
Beans, green—pound	20.0	22.7	19.6	18.7	14.0	7.2
Cabbage—do	5.4	5.1	5.0	6.0	3.4	3.9
Carrots—bunch	9.6	9.5	8.9	9.1	6.0	4.6
Lettuce—head	12.6	13.2	12.7	12.5	8.4	8.4
Onions—pound	4.8	4.6	7.2	7.9	3.6	3.6
Potatoes—15 pounds	61.4	60.9	64.3	73.8	29.2	34.4
Spinach—pound	11.6	10.6	11.3	11.6	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes—do	10.0	9.4	9.3	11.4	5.0	5.5
Canned fruits:						
Peaches—No. 2½ can	32.1	31.8	27.8	27.2	16.5	17.1
Pineapple—do	(5)	31.2	26.4	26.3	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice—No. 2 can	13.2	14.8	14.3	14.4	(3)	(3)
Canned vegetables:						
Beans, green—do	15.8	15.7	13.3	13.2	10.0	10.0
Corn—do	17.9	17.3	14.8	14.8	10.7	10.4
Peas—do	15.8	15.6	13.4	13.2	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes—do	21.1	20.0	12.5	12.2	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [2]—11-ounce can	14.3	14.1	13.2	13.2	(3)	(3)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average retail prices of 70 foods in 56 large cities combined, December 1946, compared with earlier months*—Continued

Article	Dec. 15, 1946 This month	Nov. 15, 1946 Last month	Dec. 15, 1945 Year ago	Aug. 15, 1945 VJ-day	Jan. 15, 1941 Wage base date [1]	Aug. 15, 1939 Month before war in Europe
Fruits and Vegetables—Continued	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Dried fruits: Prunes—pound	25.6	23.8	17.4	17.4	9.6	8.8
Dried vegetables: Navy beans—do	21.1	20.2	11.3	11.5	6.5	5.8
Beverages:						
Coffee—do	44.1	41.9	30.7	30.5	20.7	22.3
Tea—¼ pound	24.1	24.1	24.0	24.2	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [2]—½ pound	12.5	12.1	10.4	10.4	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:						
Lard—pound	35.1	52.6	18.7	18.8	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard:						
In cartons—do	[5]	41.3	19.8	20.0	11.3	11.7
In other containers—do	44.3	44.9	24.5	24.5	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing—pint	39.3	38.3	25.6	24.2	20.1	[3]
Oleomargarine—pound	42.5	42.5	23.7	23.9	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter—do	35.4	35.2	31.0	28.6	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [2]—pint	48.3	46.6	29.8	30.5	[3]	[3]
Sugar and sweets:						
Sugar—pound	9.4	9.1	6.7	6.7	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup—24 ounces	19.4	19.8	15.7	15.8	13.6	13.7
Molasses [2]—16 fluid ounces	21.0	20.8	20.4	20.4	17.3	17.6

[1] The wage formulas apply to January 1, 1941. January 15, 1941, is the nearest date for which data on retail prices of individual foods have been computed.
[2] Not included in index.
[3] Not priced.
[4] Composite price not computed.
[5] Not available.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of average retail prices of all foods, by cities,*[1] *on specified dates*

City	Dec. 15, 1946 This month	Nov. 15, 1946 Last month	Dec. 15, 1945 Year ago	Aug. 15, 1945 VJ-day	Jan. 15, 1941 Wage base date [2]	Aug. 15, 1939 Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)					
United States	185.9	187.7	141.4	140.9	97.8	93.5
Atlanta, Ga	188.7	192.0	141.6	142.1	94.3	92.5
Baltimore, Md	192.3	195.1	148.1	149.1	97.9	94.7
Birmingham, Ala	198.4	203.5	145.2	147.5	96.0	90.7
Boston, Mass	178.1	177.8	134.5	135.7	95.2	93 5
Bridgeport, Conn	180.7	179.5	136.8	137.4	96.5	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y	175.8	175.4	137.6	138.4	100.2	94.5
Butte, Mont	180.2	180.8	139.2	138.7	98.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa [3]	192.7	192.1	144.3	145.3	95.9	----
Charleston, S. C	184.2	188.2	138.9	139.7	95.9	95.1
Chicago, Ill	187.0	189.4	139.3	139.2	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio	184.0	187.0	138.7	140.0	96.5	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio	191.4	193.1	144.8	145.6	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	174.0	179.4	133.5	134.0	93.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex	187.1	188.7	137.5	138.9	92.6	91.7
Denver, Colo	190.6	192.7	141.7	139.3	94.8	92.7
Detroit, Mich	179.2	181.6	138.3	138.4	97.0	90.6
Fall River, Mass	177.2	182.6	134.8	134.1	97.5	95.4
Houston, Tex	189.9	190.0	140.9	141.2	102.6	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind	184.3	187.3	137.7	137.7	98.2	90.7
Jackson, Miss. [3]	200.8	203.4	150.0	151.2	105.3	----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of average retail prices of all foods, by cities,*[1] *on specified dates*—Con.

City	Dec. 15, 1946	Nov. 15, 1946	Dec. 15, 1945	Aug. 15, 1945	Jan. 15, 1941	Aug. 15, 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Wage-base date [1]	Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)					
Jacksonville, Fla	194.8	199.1	150.7	152.0	98.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo	175.4	178.0	135.3	135.4	92.4	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn.[3]	220.4	226.5	159.8	160.6	97.1	----------
Little Rock, Ark	184.8	186.3	139.8	140.4	95.6	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif	195.1	198.1	150.9	145.9	101.8	94.6
Louisville, Ky	178.6	184.9	135.2	135.0	95.5	92.1
Manchester, N. H	186.7	185.6	137.3	136.4	96.6	94.9
Memphis, Tenn	206.0	207.3	151.8	150.9	94.2	89.7
Milwaukee, Wis	179.7	184.1	139.1	139.4	95.9	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn	180.2	181.7	135.1	133.2	99.0	95.0
Mobile, Ala	191.0	193.8	148.9	152.3	97.9	95.5
Newark, N. J	180.4	181.7	144.0	143.4	98.8	95.6
New Haven, Conn	179.1	179.0	135.8	137.2	95.7	93.7
New Orleans, La	202.4	207.4	152.7	156.5	101.9	97.6
New York, N. Y	186.1	188.6	143.3	141.7	99.5	95.8
Norfolk, Va	195.0	197.0	145.2	146.1	95.8	93.6
Omaha, Nebr	182.9	184.1	134.5	131.8	97.9	92.3
Peoria, Ill	186.2	190.3	145.7	145.9	99.0	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa	181.8	181.6	138.7	138.9	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa	187.7	188.5	140.3	141.3	98.0	92.5
Portland, Maine	180.5	178.9	135.2	135.7	95.3	95.9
Portland, Oreg	196.0	194.8	153.9	150.9	101.7	96.1
Providence, R. I	184.0	186.7	140.3	141.6	96.3	93.7
Richmond, Va	186.5	188.2	138.6	138.3	93.7	92.2
Rochester, N. Y	176.8	176.9	137.7	137.8	99.9	92.3
St. Louis, Mo	189.3	191.8	144.1	144.0	99.2	93.8
St. Paul, Minn	177.7	180.1	133.7	132.1	98.6	94.3
Salt Lake City, Utah	190.6	191.9	146.5	143.9	97.5	94.6
San Francisco, Calif	204.6	205.2	154.1	147.1	99.6	93.8
Savannah, Ga	205.8	209.4	154.4	157.5	100.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa	185.2	185.6	141.3	141.3	97.5	92.1
Seattle, Wash	195.9	194.6	149.6	145.8	101.0	94.5
Springfield, Ill	191.6	194.9	146.5	146.1	96.2	94.1
Washington, D. C	186.1	186.8	140.9	141.7	97.7	94.1
Wichita, Kans.[3]	195.5	198.5	152.1	149.8	97.2	----------
Winston-Salem, N. C.[3]	195.3	200.0	142.3	143.4	93.7	----------

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by families of wage earners and low-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

[2] The wage formulas apply to January 1, 1941. January 15, 1941, is the nearest date for which data on retail prices of individual foods have been computed.

[3] June 1940=100.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of retail food prices in 56 large cities combined, 1913 to December 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	1930	126.0				
1914	81.8	1931	103.9	*1945*		*1946*	
1915	80.9	1932	86.5	January	137.3	January	141.0
1916	90.8	1933	84.1	February	136.5	February	139.6
1917	116.9	1934	93.7	March	135.9	March	140.1
1918	134.4	1935	100.4	April	136.6	April	141.7
1919	149.8	1936	101.3	May	138.8	May	142.6
1920	168.8	1937	105.3	June	141.1	June	145.6
1921	128.3	1938	97.8	July	141.7	July	165.7
1922	119.9	1939	95.2	August	140.9	August	171.2
1923	124.0	1940	96.6	September	139.4	September	174.1
1924	122.8	1941	105.5	October	139.3	October	180.0
1925	132.9	1942	123.9	November	140.1	November	187.7
1926	137.4	1943	138.0	December	141.4	December	185.9
1927	132.3	1944	136.1				
1928	130.8	1945	139.1				
1929	132.5						

Wholesale Prices in December and Year 1946

ADVANCES for nonagricultural commodities were responsible for an increase of 0.9 percent in average primary market prices in December 1946. Prices of agricultural commodities declined from November peaks. The Bureau of Labor Statistics general index of commodity prices in primary markets reached a new postwar high—140.9 percent of the 1926 average; this was 31.6 percent above December 1945 and 87.9 percent above August 1939 levels.

The advance over the year, most of which occurred in the last 6 months, was greater than in any year since World War I and many times the moderate rises of the three preceding years. From June 1946 to December 1946, wholesale prices increased 24.8 percent.[1]

Average prices of all commodities other than farm products and foods rose 3.3 percent in December, reaching a year-end level 55.7 percent higher than at the beginning of the war. Prices of farm products and foods were lower. Raw materials declined fractionally, while semimanufactured and manufactured products increased 5.5 and 0.7 percent, respectively.

Building materials led the price advance in December 1946 with an average rise of 8.5 percent. Lumber prices (with sharp increases for Southern pine, Douglas fir, and other types) rose 18.3 percent to a level higher than their World War I postwar peak and more than 2½ times as high as in August 1939. There also were substantial advances, reflecting higher costs, for pigments and mixed paints, plumbing and heating fixtures, and other miscellaneous building materials, particularly metallic products.

[1] A review of the year will be published in the March 1947 issue of the Monthly Labor Review and a brief preliminary statement, which is available upon request, was issued in mimeographed form on December 30, 1946.

Average prices of chemicals and allied products in December 1946 were 5.7 percent higher than in November, largely reflecting the sharp increases for some scarce commodities which occurred in mid-November, immediately after decontrol.

Price increases in all subgroups contributed to the 3.5-percent rise for metals and metal products. Following their initial advance after decontrol in November, there were further sharp increases for basic nonferrous metals, with lead and tin prices reaching all-time peaks, and antimony, copper, nickel, and zinc prices also advancing. Pig iron prices increased, and a general readjustment of base prices and extras in the steel industry caused increases of varying amounts for major semifinished and finished steel products.

The rise of 2.3 percent in the index of miscellaneous commodities was due primarily to higher prices for wood pulp, paper, and boxboard and soap. Higher domestic quotations for wood pulp followed recent Canadian increases. Price advances for boxboard and paper reflected increased costs. Acute scarcity combined with higher production costs resulted in increases ranging from 4½ percent to more than 20 percent for soaps. Cattle feed prices dropped 8.1 percent, with increased supplies of feed corn.

In the fuel and lighting materials group, which rose 1.7 percent in December, bituminous-coal prices increased 1.1 percent as mines raised prices of stoker coal, in heavy demand, to cover higher costs of crushing. Higher crude oil prices were reflected in increased prices for fuel oil, gasoline, and kerosene. Realized prices for natural and manufactured gas were higher.

Except for raw silk, prices of most textile products advanced in December. New allotments of men's underwear were made at substantially higher levels. Price increases for rayon staple and filament yarn immediately following decontrol in November resulted in higher average prices for December. Cotton goods, clothing, artificial leather, and woolen and worsted goods advanced in price, largely reflecting higher manufacturing costs. Prices of burlap, raw jute and jute yarn, and manila hemp increased. Lack of demand for manufactured silk products, particularly hosiery, at prevailing high prices, was responsible for lower raw-silk prices.

Small increases for a number of commodities, including furniture and furnishings, accounted for the 1.7-percent rise for housefurnishings goods, as manufacturers continued to adjust prices upward following decontrol.

As a group, hides and leather prices rose 2.4 percent in December. The increases for shoes and leather, reflecting earlier cost increases, more than offset the continued declines for hides which amounted to as much as 15 percent for cow hides.

In contrast to the general upward trend, prices of agricultural commodities declined in December. As a group, farm products were down 1.0 percent. Ample supplies of the new crop were responsible for lower corn quotations. Buyers' resistance to high prices of meats following decontrol brought general declines for livestock. Fresh fruits and vegetables decreased on the average and egg prices were seasonally lower. Spot cotton prices increased and quotations for domestic wool advanced as the Commodity Credit Corporation raised its selling prices to cover parity. There also were increases in domestic prices for foreign wools following advances in foreign markets. Since August 1939 the index for farm products advanced 175.6 percent—a greater increase than for any other major group.

Foods were down 3.2 percent as a group to a level 47.4 percent above a year earlier and 138.2 percent above August 1939. On the average, meat prices dropped 7.2 percent reflecting good supplies. Poultry prices advanced. Dairy products dropped 1.6 percent during the month as fluid milk declined seasonally at Chicago and cheese prices decreased substantially. Most cereal products increased during the month, reflecting good export demand. Wheat flour prices averaged 4.5 percent higher and rye flour was up more than 9 percent. Among other foods, there were sharp price increases for cocoa beans and certain fats and oils. Sugar prices advanced under the terms of an agreement with Cuban producers linking prices to the Bureau's retail food index. Substantial declines from recent high levels occurred for black pepper, lard, and edible tallow.

Index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities and percentage changes for various periods are shown in table 1. Annual index numbers for selected years are shown in table 2.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities, December 1946 compared with previous months*

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent changes to December 1946 from—		
	December 1946	November 1946	December 1945	August 1939	November 1946	December 1945	August 1939
All commodities	[1] 140.9	[1][2] 139.7	107.1	75.0	+0.9	+31.6	+87.9
Farm products	168.1	169.8	131.5	61.0	−1.0	+27.8	+175.6
Grains	163.0	165.4	133.2	51.5	−1.5	+22.4	+216.5
Livestock and poultry	194.7	197.4	129.6	66.0	−1.4	+50.2	+195.0
Other farm products	152.5	153.3	131.3	60.1	−.5	+16.1	+153.7
Foods	160.1	165.4	108.6	67.2	−3.2	+47.4	+138.2
Dairy products	180.0	182.9	113.8	67.9	−1.6	+58.2	+165.1
Cereal products	139.5	136.1	95.7	71.9	+2.5	+45.8	+94.0
Fruits and vegetables	134.5	139.5	128.7	58.5	−3.6	+4.5	+129.9
Meats	188.2	202.8	107.9	73.7	−7.2	+74.4	+155.4
Other foods	139.0	141.4	100.6	60.3	−1.7	+38.2	+130.5
Hides and leather products	176.7	172.5	118.9	92.7	+2.4	+48.6	+90.6
Shoes	169.9	162.9	126.9	100.8	+4.3	+33.9	+68.6
Hides and skins	216.5	221.0	117.6	77.2	−2.0	+84.1	+180.4
Leather	185.0	178.1	104.1	84.0	+3.9	+77.7	+120.2
Other leather products	123.6	123.5	115.2	97.1	+.1	+7.3	+27.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities, December 1946 compared with previous months*—Continued

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent changes to December 1946 from—		
	December 1946	November 1946	December 1945	August 1939	November 1946	December 1945	August 1939
Textile products	134.7	131.3	101.4	67.8	+2.6	+32.8	+98.7
Clothing	129.8	127.9	107.4	81.5	+1.5	+20.9	+59.3
Cotton goods	181.6	174.7	125.5	65.5	+3.9	+44.7	+177.3
Hosiery and underwear	96.9	89.3	73.5	61.5	+8.5	+31.8	+57.6
Rayon	33.8	30.2	30.2	28.5	+11.9	+11.9	+18.6
Silk	103.2	115.0	(3)	44.3	−10.3	-------	+133.0
Woolen and worsted goods	119.0	117.7	112.7	75.5	+1.1	+5.6	+57.6
Other textile products	168.1	161.3	101.9	63.7	+4.2	+65.0	+163.9
Fuel and lighting materials	96.1	94.5	84.8	72.6	+1.7	+13.3	+32.4
Anthracite	113.7	113.5	103.4	72.1	+.2	+10.0	+57.7
Bituminous coal	138.9	137.4	125.0	96.0	+1.1	+11.1	+44.7
Coke	147.5	147.5	134.9	104.2	0	+9.3	+41.6
Electricity	(3)	(3)	68.7	75.8	-------	-------	-------
Gas	(3)	84.4	77.7	86.7	-------	-------	-------
Petroleum and products	75.8	73.4	61.6	51.7	+3.3	+23.1	+46.6
Metals and metal products	[1] 134.7	[1 2] 130.2	105.6	93.2	+3.5	+27.6	+44.5
Agricultural implements	117.1	112.5	98.1	93.5	+4.1	+19.4	+25.2
Farm machinery	118.6	113.8	99.1	94.7	+4.2	+19.7	+25.2
Iron and steel	117.4	114.0	101.0	95.1	+3.0	+16.2	+23.4
Motor vehicles	[1] 151.0	[1 2] 148.2	112.8	92.5	+1.9	-------	-------
Nonferrous metals	129.3	118.4	85.8	74.6	+9.2	+50.7	+73.3
Plumbing and heating	114.9	107.2	95.0	79.3	+7.2	+20.9	+44.9
Building materials	157.8	145.5	119.5	89.6	+8.5	+32.1	+76.1
Brick and tile	130.0	129.1	116.7	90.5	+.7	+11.4	+43.6
Cement	106.9	107.0	100.5	91.3	−.1	+6.4	+17.1
Lumber	227.2	192.1	157.8	90.1	+18.3	+44.0	+152.2
Paint and paint materials	155.4	151.3	107.8	82.1	+2.7	+44.2	+89.3
Plumbing and heating	114.9	107.2	95.0	79.3	+7.2	+20.9	+44.9
Structural steel	120.1	120.1	107.3	107.3	0	+11.9	+11.9
Other building materials	131.8	125.3	105.9	89.5	+5.2	+24.5	+47.3
Chemicals and allied products	125.7	118.9	96.1	74.2	+5.7	+30.8	+69.4
Chemicals	111.8	106.9	97.1	83.8	+4.6	+15.1	+33.4
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	181.2	152.8	112.3	77.1	+18.6	+61.4	+135.0
Fertilizer materials	95.1	96.3	81.9	65.5	−1.2	+16.1	+45.2
Mixed fertilizer	93.6	91.1	86.6	73.1	+2.7	+8.1	+28.0
Oils and fats	203.0	191.0	102.0	40.6	+6.3	+99.0	+400.0
Housefurnishings goods	120.2	118.2	104.7	85.6	+1.7	+14.8	+40.4
Furnishings	126.3	124.4	107.9	90.0	+1.5	+17.1	+40.3
Furniture	113.9	111.8	101.6	81.1	+1.9	+12.1	+40.4
Miscellaneous	108.9	106.5	94.8	73.3	+2.3	+14.9	+48.6
Automobile tires-tubes	73.0	73.0	73.0	60.5	0	0	+20.7
Cattle feed	193.8	210.8	159.6	68.4	−8.1	+21.4	+183.3
Paper and pulp	136.4	127.7	109.3	80.0	+6.8	+24.8	+70.5
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	46.2	34.9	0	0	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	117.0	113.3	98.9	81.3	+3.3	+18.3	+43.9
Raw materials	153.2	153.4	119.2	66.5	−.1	+28.5	+130.4
Semimanufactured products	136.2	129.1	97.6	74.5	+5.5	+39.5	+82.8
Manufactured products	[1] 135.7	[1 2] 134.7	102.5	79.1	+.7	+32.4	+71.6
All commodities other than farm products	[1] 134.8	[1 2] 132.9	101.6	77.9	+1.4	+32.7	+73.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	[1] 124.7	[1 2] 120.7	100.5	80.1	+3.3	+24.1	+55.7

[1] Includes current motor vehicle prices.

Motor vehicles.—The rate of production of motor vehicles in October 1946 exceeded the monthly average rate of civilian production in 1941, and in accordance with the announcement made in the September release the Bureau introduced current prices for motor vehicles in the October calculations. During the war, motor vehicles were not produced for general civilian sale and the Bureau carried April 1942 prices forward in each computation through September 1946.

If April 1942 prices of motor vehicles had been used after September 1946, the indexes for the groups of which motor vehicles is a component would have been:

	Indexes (1926=100)		
	November	*December*	*Year 1946*
All commodities	137.9	139.0	120.7
Metals and metal products	117.0	120.5	112.3
Manufactured products	131.7	132.5	115.4
All commodities other than farm products	130.7	132.4	114.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	117.8	121.6	108.8

These special indexes will be published as long as the need for them continues.

[2] Revised.

[3] Not available.

TABLE 2.—*Annual index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities*

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	1946	1945	1944	1943	1942	1941	1939	1929
All commodities	[1] 121.1	105.8	104.0	103.1	98.8	87.3	77.1	95.3
Farm products	148.9	128.2	123.3	122.6	105.9	82.4	65.3	104.9
Grains	155.6	129.7	126.9	116.3	92.9	76.9	58.6	97.4
Livestock and poultry	155.6	132.5	124.6	128.7	117.8	91.6	72.2	106.1
Other farm products	142.0	124.3	120.7	119.8	101.6	77.8	62.6	106.6
Foods	130.7	106.2	104.9	106.6	99.6	82.7	70.4	99.9
Dairy products	145.8	111.1	110.5	111.1	100.0	87.3	69.5	105.6
Cereal products	114.5	95.2	94.8	93.7	89.2	80.7	74.8	88.0
Fruits and vegetables	129.9	122.8	121.3	121.3	95.5	67.5	62.0	97.8
Meats	145.9	107.8	106.1	110.3	111.8	90.4	77.2	109.1
Other foods	111.9	96.6	95.0	97.3	92.3	78.9	64.1	93.9
Hides and leather products	137.2	118.1	116.7	117.5	117.7	108.3	95.6	109.1
Shoes	141.7	126.4	126.3	126.4	125.7	113.5	102.6	106.3
Hides and skins	147.4	117.0	109.9	114.7	117.6	108.4	84.6	112.7
Leather	128.6	102.2	101.3	101.3	101.3	97.9	87.5	113.2
Other leather products	117.0	115.2	115.2	115.2	114.9	104.7	97.1	106.4
Textile products	116.3	100.1	98.4	97.4	96.9	84.8	69.7	90.4
Clothing	119.3	107.4	107.1	107.0	106.9	92.6	82.0	90.0
Cotton goods	150.5	121.4	115.7	112.7	112.4	94.2	67.2	98.8
Hosiery and underwear	82.1	71.7	70.9	70.8	70.5	63.1	61.4	88.5
Silk	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	46.1	82.7
Rayon	30.7	30.2	30.2	30.3	30.3	29.7	28.8	68.4
Woolen and worsted goods	115.7	112.7	112.7	112.5	110.4	96.6	79.8	88.3
Other textile products	122.8	101.1	100.6	98.8	97.9	90.7	69.2	93.1
Fuel and lighting materials	90.1	84.0	83.0	80.8	78.5	76.2	73.1	83.0
Anthracite	109.0	99.0	95.6	90.4	85.5	82.7	75.8	90.1
Bituminous coal	132.5	123.1	120.3	116.1	109.7	104.3	97.5	91.3
Coke	140.4	132.5	130.3	122.7	122.1	119.3	105.6	84.6
Electricity	[2]	62.3	59.6	59.5	63.8	68.3	78.6	94.5
Gas	[2]	77.7	77.2	76.5	78.4	78.6	84.1	93.1
Petroleum products	67.5	63.5	63.9	62.5	59.8	57.0	52.2	71.3
Metals and metal products	[1] 115.5	104.7	103.8	103.8	103.8	99.4	94.4	100.5
Agricultural implements	105.5	97.8	97.3	96.9	96.9	93.5	93.4	98.7
Farm machinery	106.7	98.8	98.4	98.0	98.0	94.5	94.6	98.0
Iron and steel	110.3	99.2	97.2	97.2	97.2	96.4	95.8	94.9
Motor vehicles	[1] [2]	112.8	112.8	112.8	112.7	103.3	93.4	100.0
Nonferrous metals	99.7	85.8	85.8	86.0	85.7	84.4	78.0	106.1
Plumbing and heating	103.8	93.4	92.2	90.7	95.4	84.8	79.2	95.0
Building materials	132.6	117.8	115.5	111.4	110.2	103.2	90.5	95.4
Brick and tile	122.9	112.4	101.7	99.1	98.0	93.7	91.4	94.3
Cement	104.1	99.4	95.8	93.8	94.0	92.0	91.3	89.0
Lumber	178.4	155.1	[3] 153.3	[3] 141.4	133.0	122.5	93.2	93.8
Paint and paint materials	118.5	106.9	105.2	102.3	100.3	91.4	82.8	94.9
Plumbing and heating	103.8	93.4	92.2	90.7	95.4	84.8	79.2	95.0
Structural steel	118.4	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	98.1
Other building materials	118.6	104.4	103.1	102.0	103.5	98.3	90.3	97.7
Chemicals and allied products	101.4	95.2	[3] 95.2	[3] 94.9	[3] 95.5	[3] 84.4	76.0	94.0
Chemicals	99.8	96.1	96.1	96.5	96.2	87.2	84.7	99.7
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	120.8	109.0	[3] 108.8	[3] 106.2	[3] 116.0	[3] 102.6	78.2	66.8
Fertilizer materials	87.4	81.6	81.3	80.0	78.7	73.5	67.9	95.6
Mixed fertilizers	88.2	86.6	86.4	86.1	82.7	76.0	73.0	95.2
Oils and fats	119.1	102.0	102.0	101.9	105.1	77.6	48.4	89.0
Housefurnishing goods	111.6	104.5	104.3	102.7	102.4	94.3	86.3	94.3
Furnishings	116.6	107.6	107.3	107.2	107.3	99.9	91.1	93.6
Furniture	106.4	101.5	101.4	98.1	97.4	88.4	81.3	95.0
Miscellaneous	100.3	94.7	93.6	92.2	89.7	82.0	74.8	82.6
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	73.0	73.0	72.5	61.0	59.5	54.5
Cattle feed	191.1	159.6	159.6	152.7	134.4	101.2	83.3	121.6
Paper and pulp	119.4	108.8	107.1	104.1	100.8	98.2	82.4	88.9
Crude rubber	46.2	46.2	46.2	46.2	46.3	46.1	37.2	42.3
Other miscellaneous	104.3	98.9	97.0	95.8	93.4	87.8	82.6	98.4
Raw materials	134.7	116.8	113.2	112.1	100.6	83.5	70.2	97.5
Semimanufactured articles	110.8	95.9	94.1	92.9	92.6	86.9	77.0	93.9
Manufactured products	[1] 116.1	101.8	100.8	100.1	98.6	89.1	80.4	94.5
All commodities other than farm products	[1] 114.9	100.8	99.6	98.7	97.0	88.3	79.5	93.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	[1] 109.5	99.7	98.5	96.9	95.5	89.0	81.3	91.6

[1] See footnote 1, table 1. [2] Data not available. [3] Revised.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to December 1946

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1945, and by months from December 1945 to December 1946 are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*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											
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
March	133.4	109.4	119.8	104.7	85.0	108.4	124.9	96.0	106.9	95.6	108.9
April	135.4	110.8	119.8	107.9	86.0	108.8	126.5	96.1	107.5	95.7	110.2
May	137.5	111.5	120.4	108.8	86.1	109.4	127.8	96.5	108.3	97.0	111.0
June	140.1	112.9	122.4	109.2	87.8	112.2	129.9	96.4	110.4	98.5	112.9
July	157.0	140.2	141.2	118.1	90.3	113.3	132.1	99.3	111.9	101.3	124.7
August	161.0	149.0	138.9	124.0	94.4	114.0	132.7	98.4	112.6	102.0	129.1
September	154.3	131.9	141.6	125.7	94.3	114.2	133.8	98.4	113.6	102.1	124.0
October	165.3	157.9	142.4	128.6	94.2	125.8	134.8	99.9	115.3	104.0	134.1
November	169.8	165.4	172.5	131.3	94.5	130.2	145.5	118.9	118.2	106.5	139.7
December	168.1	160.1	176.7	134.7	96.1	134.7	157.8	125.7	120.2	108.9	140.9

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 4 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 and 11 of Wholesale Prices, July–December and year 1943 (Bulletin No. 785).

TABLE 4.—*Index numbers of wholesale prices by special groups of commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*1946*					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	January	118.3	97.6	102.9	101.9	100.8
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	February	118.9	98.8	103.4	102.5	101.3
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	March	120.5	100.4	104.5	103.4	102.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	April	122.2	101.1	105.5	104.5	103.3
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	May	123.6	101.9	106.1	105.1	103.9
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	June	126.3	105.7	107.3	106.7	105.6
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	July	141.7	110.2	118.9	117.5	109.5
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	August	145.7	111.9	123.9	121.9	111.6
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	September	141.4	115.0	117.2	117.2	112.2
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	October	148.7	118.2	129.6	127.1	115.8
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	November	153.4	129.1	134.7	132.9	120.7
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5	December	153.2	136.2	135.7	134.8	124.7
1945	116.8	95.9	101.8	100.8	99.7						
1945											
December	119.2	97.6	102.5	101.6	100.5						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during November and December 1946 are shown by the index numbers in table 5. 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 5.—*Weekly index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, November and December 1946*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Dec. 28	Dec. 21	Dec. 14	Dec. 7	Nov. 30	Nov. 23	Nov. 16	Nov. 9	Nov. 2
All commodities	139.6	139.8	139.7	139.1	139.1	137.3	135.8	134.8	134.8
Farm products	167.7	170.7	168.7	169.2	170.3	172.1	167.3	166.0	166.5
Foods	159.1	159.5	161.3	161.7	163.6	165.0	164.1	162.5	165.9
Hides and leather products	171.3	170.9	170.7	166.9	165.0	158.6	159.2	158.7	143.3
Textile products	133.3	132.8	132.5	131.7	130.7	129.6	129.5	130.2	127.3
Fuel and lighting materials	97.0	96.9	96.1	96.0	95.8	94.9	94.8	94.7	94.8
Metals and metal products	133.9	133.3	132.7	132.2	131.8	117.2	116.3	114.4	114.4
Building materials	154.6	151.9	151.1	145.2	144.3	142.0	140.4	140.0	137.4
Chemicals and allied products	126.1	125.6	125.4	124.0	123.7	123.1	122.3	110.2	103.5
Housefurnishing goods	120.5	120.5	120.0	118.7	118.3	118.0	117.6	117.5	117.3
Miscellaneous	107.7	108.1	107.9	106.9	106.7	106.1	104.6	104.9	105.4
Raw materials	154.2	155.5	154.3	154.4	154.8	155.3	152.6	152.2	150.9
Semimanufactured articles	135.0	134.4	133.7	131.6	130.2	128.2	125.9	122.4	120.6
Manufactured products	134.5	134.2	134.8	134.0	134.1	131.1	130.4	129.5	130.4
All commodities other than farm products	133.5	133.0	133.4	132.5	132.3	129.7	129.0	128.0	127.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	123.9	123.4	122.9	121.6	121.1	116.9	116.2	115.5	114.0

Construction

Construction Activity—November 1946–January 1947 and Outlook for Year 1947

Progress of the Housing Program

MORE NEW permanent homes (58,000) were completed in December than in any other month in 1946. By the end of the year completions were nearing the half-million mark (about 454,000), and another third of a million new permanent dwellings (344,000) were under construction. Almost three-fourths of the units completed in 1946 were started in the same year.

TABLE 1.—*Number of family dwelling units or equivalent living accommodations started and completed in nonfarm areas* [1], *by months, 1946, and outlook for 1947*

Year and month	Estimated number of units					
	Started			Completed		
	Total	New permanent family dwellings [2]	Other [3 4]	Total	New permanent family dwellings [5]	Other [4 6]
1946: Total	1,003,600	670,900	332,700	661,900	453,800	208,100
January	49,500	36,100	13,400	24,900	18,700	6,200
February	56,100	43,100	13,000	28,000	20,300	7,700
March	86,400	60,400	26,000	31,200	22,600	8,600
April	97,600	66,100	31,500	35,600	26,400	9,200
May	105,600	67,600	38,000	39,900	30,300	9,600
June	93,700	63,600	30,100	46,600	34,900	11,700
July	108,100	64,300	43,800	54,300	41,000	13,300
August	106,500	64,400	42,100	59,300	42,200	17,100
September	103,600	57,100	46,500	81,200	49,800	31,400
October	80,200	58,100	22,100	84,800	54,500	30,300
November	63,900	49,700	14,200	82,800	55,100	27,700
December	52,400	40,400	12,000	93,300	58,000	35,300
1947: Outlook		1,000,000			950,000	

[1] Excludes military barracks.

[2] Includes 8,027 permanent units started by New York Housing Authority, and 37,200 prefabricated units (National Housing Agency estimate).

[3] Covers 64,500 privately financed converted units; 191,000 Federal (Mead-Lanham temporary housing programs) re-use units (147,300 family dwellings and 43,700 dormitory equivalents—Federal Public Housing estimates); 48,000 trailers (Bureau of the Census); and 29,200 family and dormitory equivalent units financed by various State and local public bodies and educational institutions (not included under the Federal Mead-Lanham temporary housing program).

[4] A small proportion of new permanent units provided in the local emergency program now included under "other," will be shown for all months in both the started and completed columns for new permanent housing in future publications of this table.

[5] Break-down not available for conventional and prefabricated units.

[6] Covers 45,300 conversion units, 101,900 re-use units, 48,000 trailers, and 12,900 local emergency units.

According to revised estimates, 40,400 permanent homes were started in December, all of which were privately financed. This is about 9,000 less than were begun in November.

A total of 670,900 new permanent dwellings (both publicly and privately financed) were started during the year 1946, and it is anticipated that 1947 starts will approximate 1 million. Completions in the coming year are expected to reach 950,000. About a fifth of the dwellings started in 1947 will be in multifamily structures (which are usually built to rent), compared with less than a tenth last year.

The new permanent housing discussed here accounts for about two-thirds of all the units begun and completed during the Veterans' Emergency Housing Program. In addition to the new permanent units, the VEHP includes conversion, trailer, dormitory, and temporary re-use accommodations.

Total Construction Activity

Construction activity continued to decline in January 1947, according to preliminary estimates. Total construction employment (1,728,000 workers) and expenditures for all work put in place (976 million dollars) were both 8 percent below December 1946 levels. All of the major categories of construction shared in the downtrend.

It is believed that January will be the low point in construction activity in 1947. The 1,350,000 workers employed on the site of new construction in the first month of the year is expected to increase to over 2½ million at the peak of the 1947 program next September. This exceeds last year's top on-site employment figure by three-quarters of a million workers and approaches the high levels of the twenties.

Probably more than half the workers at the job site this coming September will be skilled (including foremen) and about 40 percent of the skilled workers will be carpenters. Last summer there were slightly more than 900,000 skilled workers employed on new construction, compared with the million and a quarter expected at the 1947 peak.

About 35 percent of the manpower required for this year's construction peak will be used on nonfarm housing, 30 percent on nonresidential building, and 35 percent on nonbuilding and farm construction. Employment on the site of residential building, which demands a larger proportion of skilled craftsmen than any other type of construction, is expected to rise from a low of about 485,000 in January 1947 to around 925,000 in September; nonresidential building site employment probably will range from 490,000 to 780,000.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated construction employment [1] in the United States, by months, January 1946–January 1947*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands of persons)													
	1946 [2]													Jan. 1947 [3]
	Average for year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	
All types	1,890	1,223	1,364	1,465	1,686	1,912	2,079	2,181	2,308	2,277	2,250	2,057	1,875	1,728
New construction	1,621	1,004	1,128	1,226	1,424	1,631	1,785	1,888	2,019	1,990	1,952	1,779	1,627	1,520
Private construction	1,285	820	942	1,036	1,200	1,359	1,462	1,504	1,577	1,505	1,452	1,327	1,233	1,159
Residential (nonfarm) building	511	274	335	385	475	558	603	612	636	616	595	548	495	465
Nonresidential building	557	407	477	489	533	581	616	628	642	615	607	560	537	497
Farm construction	63	18	17	31	44	65	87	107	128	106	85	42	21	21
Public utilities	154	121	113	131	148	155	156	157	171	168	165	177	180	176
Public construction [4]	336	184	186	190	224	272	323	384	442	485	500	452	394	361
Residential building	65	8	9	15	23	35	50	70	94	115	128	127	113	100
Nonresidential building	65	79	74	65	62	66	63	59	66	68	67	60	50	47
Reclamation	10	7	7	7	8	9	10	10	10	11	10	12	13	12
River, harbor and flood control	24	20	18	18	18	20	22	22	26	28	33	33	29	28
Streets and highways	106	31	36	41	62	87	114	140	156	169	169	146	122	107
All others [5]	66	39	42	44	51	55	64	83	90	94	93	74	67	67
Minor building repairs	269	219	236	239	262	281	294	293	289	287	298	278	248	208
Residential	83	60	74	79	90	100	98	92	87	84	82	75	67	52
Nonresidential	122	115	119	115	117	127	136	137	132	126	125	114	102	102
Farm construction	64	44	43	45	55	54	60	64	70	77	91	89	79	54

[1] Estimates include wage earners, salaried employees, and special trades contractors actively engaged on new construction, additions and alterations, and on repair work of the type usually covered by building permits, whether performed under contract or by force-account. (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.) These figures should not be confused with those included in the Bureau's nonagricultural employment series, which covers only employees of construction contractors and Federal force-account workers, and excludes force-account workers of State and local governments, public utilities, and private firms.

[2] Revised.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] Includes the following force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government: December 1945, 18,200; October 1946, 21,100; November 1946, 20,000; December 1946, 19,000.

[5] Includes airports, water supply and sewage disposal systems, electrification projects, community buildings, and miscellaneous public service enterprises.

Expenditures for new construction, which amounted to 847 million dollars in January, are also expected to reach peak (1.7 billion dollars) in September. For the entire year 1947, they will probably total close to 15½ billion dollars—the greatest dollar volume for any 12-month period in the country's history. This does not mean, however, that the physical volume of construction will also reach an unprecedented high in 1947, since it will take more dollars than in former years to pay for the necessary lumber, brick, wages, blueprints, etc. The marked decline in the purchasing power of the construction dollar is reflected in the fact that the same amount of work estimated to cost 15.4 billion dollars in 1947 could have been done in 1939 for approximately 9.3 billion dollars.

It is anticpiated that 1947 expenditures will be 15 percent above the dollar volume in 1942—the previous peak year, when the war construction program was at its height. However, if expenditures in both years were to be deflated to the 1939 level of construction prices, the 1947 program would be 10 percent below that carried out in 1942.

The 1947 expenditures for new construction will be more than 50 percent above the 1946 figure. Almost all categories of construction will share in the gain, but nonfarm home building will claim the greatest number of dollars in the coming year—6 billion dollars. Nonresidential building, at 5 billion dollars, will be a close second. Each of these categories totaled 3⅔ billion dollars last year. Highway construction is expected to advance from 829 million dollars in 1946 to 1.5 billion dollars, and public utilities construction from 851 million to 1.3 billion dollars.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of estimated on-site employment on new construction, by type of construction, selected months, 1946–47*

Type of construction	Estimated employment (in thousands)			
	1946		1947	
	January (Low) [1]	August (Peak) [1]	January (Low) [1]	September (Expected peak) [1]
All new construction	871	1,770	1,350	2,540
Private	708	1,373	1,025	1,930
Public	163	397	325	610
Residential (nonfarm) building	241	625	485	925
Private	234	544	398	915
Public	7	81	87	10
Nonresidential (nonfarm) building	417	605	490	780
Private	348	548	450	645
Public	69	57	40	135
All other	213	540	375	835
Private	126	281	177	370
Public	87	259	198	465

[1] Low and peak refer only to "all new construction."

TABLE 4.—*Estimated construction expenditures,*[1] *by months, January 1946–January 1947*

Type of construction	Expenditures (in millions)													
	1946 [2]													Jan. 1947 [3]
	Total	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	
Total construction	$11,926	$591	$627	$728	$853	$975	$1,078	$1,162	$1,236	$1,238	$1,237	$1,144	$1,057	$976
New construction [4]	10,122	476	510	601	710	822	916	999	1,069	1,067	1,064	980	908	847
Private construction	7,868	387	430	499	586	669	734	773	809	787	770	732	692	648
Residential building (nonfarm)	3,303	136	159	195	244	288	317	329	345	340	330	320	300	275
Nonresidential	3,355	189	212	231	255	280	305	318	322	317	320	309	297	280
Industrial	1,692	100	108	113	119	127	138	149	160	168	172	171	167	161
Commercial	1,115	59	71	82	96	109	118	117	107	96	93	87	80	71
All other	548	30	33	36	40	44	49	52	55	53	55	51	50	48
Farm construction	350	8	8	14	20	30	40	50	60	50	40	20	10	10
Public utilities	860	54	51	59	67	71	72	76	82	80	80	83	85	83
Public construction	2,254	89	80	102	124	153	182	226	260	280	294	248	216	199
Residential building	377	3	5	9	11	20	23	31	41	53	63	63	55	50
Nonresidential building (except military and naval facilities)	316	25	21	23	22	23	26	30	32	35	31	26	22	21
Industrial facilities [5]	81	9	7	7	6	6	6	6	7	9	8	6	4	4
All other	235	16	14	16	16	17	20	24	25	26	23	20	18	17
Military and naval facilities	186	18	13	13	15	14	14	14	18	16	20	16	15	14
Highway	822	18	19	28	42	57	73	94	105	108	115	88	75	65
Other public	553	25	22	29	34	39	46	57	64	68	65	55	49	49
Federal [6]	272	12	12	15	18	20	21	27	30	32	32	28	25	25
State and local [7]	281	13	10	14	16	19	25	30	34	36	33	27	24	24
Minor building repairs [8]	1,804	115	117	127	143	153	162	163	167	171	173	164	149	129
Residential	521	30	35	40	46	51	52	48	47	47	47	43	35	32
Nonresidential	753	55	53	56	59	64	68	70	70	69	66	63	60	57
Farm construction	530	30	29	31	38	38	42	45	50	55	60	58	54	40

[1] Estimated construction expenditures represent the monetary value of work put in place in continental United States during the period indicated. These figures should not be confused with the data on value of construction reported in the table on urban building construction (table 6).

[3] Revised.

[2] Preliminary.

[4] Estimates of new construction were prepared jointly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Office of Domestic Commerce (a successor to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce) and include expenditures for new construction, major additions, and alterations.

[5] Expenditures for floating dry docks and facilities for the production of atomic bombs are excluded.

[6] Mainly river, harbor, flood control, reclamation, and power projects.

[7] Includes water supply, sewage disposal, and miscellaneous public-service enterprises.

[8] Covers privately financed structural repairs of the type for which building permits are generally required.

Private funds used for new construction this year will amount to 11.7 billion dollars and public expenditures are expected to total 3.7 billion dollars. Comparable figures for last year were 7.9 billion and 2.3 billion dollars.

All figures on the outlook for construction activity in 1947 are based on the supposition that an improved flow of materials will result in more efficient building operations, including the better utilization of labor. Thus, any further rises in material prices or wage rates will be offset to a large degree, keeping construction costs on the whole at about current levels. It is also assumed that nonresidential building construction will be allowed to increase substantially, and that no major business recession or important work stoppages affecting construction will occur in 1947.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated expenditures* [1] *for new construction, 1946 and 1947*

Type of construction	Expenditures (in millions)					
	1947 outlook					1946 estimate
	First quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter	Fourth quarter	Total	
New construction	$2,545	$3,475	$4,900	$4,480	$15,400	$10,131
Private construction	1,950	2,605	3,690	3,455	11,700	7,868
Residential (nonfarm) building	855	1,275	1,885	1,735	5,750	3,303
Nonresidential (nonfarm) building	820	935	1,235	1,260	4,250	3,364
Industrial	485	520	595	600	2,200	1,699
Commercial	195	260	430	465	1,350	1,115
All other	140	155	210	195	700	550
Farm construction	35	100	180	85	400	350
Public utilities	240	295	390	375	1,300	851
Public construction	595	870	1,210	1,025	3,700	2,263
Residential (nonfarm) building	120	45	20	15	200	379
Nonresidential (nonfarm) building	85	165	260	240	750	317
Industrial [2]	20	25	30	25	100	82
Educational	30	55	85	80	250	101
Hospital and institution	20	55	90	85	250	85
Other	15	30	55	50	150	49
Military and naval	40	60	80	70	250	185
Highway	200	360	525	415	1,500	829
Conservation and development	75	100	125	100	400	242
Sewage and water	45	75	95	85	300	194
Public service enterprise	20	30	50	50	150	87
Miscellaneous Federal	10	35	55	50	150	30

[1] See footnote 1, table 4.
[2] Expenditures for floating dry docks and for facilities to produce atomic bombs are excluded.

Urban Building

In December 1946, permit valuations of urban building construction (including the value of Federal construction contracts awarded) amounted to 226 million dollars—one-fifth less than the November total. Almost all of the 42-million-dollar drop during the month occurred in home construction, which fell from 150 million to 109 million dollars. The 75 million dollars estimated for nonresidential building was only slightly under the preceding month's figure, and

additions, alterations, and repair work, at 42 million dollars, was practically unchanged.

Only 2 percent of the urban building valuations in December 1946 were made up of Federal contract awards (nonresidential building claiming the major portion), compared with 15 percent last August when the Federal Mead-Lanham temporary housing program was at its height.

Urban building permit valuations for 1946 were more than double the total for 1945. In fact, the cumulative total of 4.7 billion dollars for the calendar year 1946 was the highest for any 12-month period since the twenties. However, while non-Federal (private and State and local government) work rose from 1.9 billion dollars in 1945 to 4.3 billion dollars, Federal building, at 381 million dollars, was only a little above the 250 million dollars reported in 1945.

TABLE 6.—*Permit valuation [1] of urban building construction,[2] by class of construction and by source of funds, selected months, 1945–46, and years 1945–46*

Class of construction	Valuation (in millions)				
	1946		December 1945 [4]	1946 [3]	1945 [4]
	December [3]	November [4]			
	Total				
All building construction	$226	$268	$303	$4,658	$2,127
New residential [5]	109	150	102	2,442	769
New nonresidential	75	77	152	1,451	848
Additions, alterations, and repairs	42	41	49	765	510
	Non-Federal				
All building construction	221	263	301	4,277	1,877
New residential [5]	109	150	101	2,135	737
New nonresidential	71	73	152	1,415	660
Additions, alterations, and repairs	41	40	48	727	480
	Federal				
All building construction	5	5	2	[6] 381	250
New residential [5]	0	(7)	1	[6] 307	32
New nonresidential	4	4	0	36	188
Additions, alterations, and repairs	1	1	1	38	30

[1] Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.

[2] Estimates of non-Federal (private, and State and local government) urban building construction are based upon building-permit reports received from places containing about 85 percent of the urban population of the country; estimates of federally financed projects are compiled from notifications of construction contracts awarded, which are obtained from other Federal agencies.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] Revised.

[5] Includes value of dormitories and other nonhousekeeping residential buildings in addition to housekeeping units.

[6] Includes $45,188,850, the estimated cost of 8,027 dwelling units contained in the New York City Housing Authority projects.

[7] Less than $500,000.

TABLE 7.—*Estimated number and permit valuation [1] of new dwelling units scheduled to be started in all urban areas,[2] selected months 1945–46, and years 1945–46*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	1946		December 1945 [4]	1946 [3]	1945 [4]
	December [3]	November [4]			
	Number of dwelling units				
All dwellings	21,348	28,661	19,906	520,922	162,175
Privately financed	21,348	28,539	19,256	426,214	150,712
1-family	17,458	23,747	15,494	357,947	125,495
2-family [5]	971	1,594	1,241	24,125	9,248
Multifamily [6]	2,919	3,198	2,521	44,142	15,969
Federally financed [7]	0	122	650	[7] 94,708	11,463
	Valuation (in thousands)				
All dwellings	$108,130	$149,542	$96,443	$2,387,906	[4] $752,571
Privately financed	108,130	149,298	95,040	2,101,623	723,229
1-family	92,297	126,949	80,639	1,829,203	636,616
2-family [5]	4,396	7,397	4,275	102,056	31,728
Multifamily [6]	11,437	14,952	10,126	170,364	54,885
Federally financed [7]	0	244	1,403	[7] 286,283	29,342

[1] Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.
[2] See table 6, footnote 2, for source of urban estimates.
[3] Preliminary.
[4] Revised.
[5] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[6] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.
[7] For number of, and estimated cost of, dwelling units contained in New York City Housing Authority projects, but included here with federally financed housing, see table 6, footnote 6.

Hours and Earnings

November marked the beginning of a seasonal drop in construction workers' weekly earnings on privately financed work, following the 6-year peak reached in October. The slight rise in average hourly earnings over the month did not offset the general decline in the average workweek which led to lower average weekly pay for all except workers employed by excavation and foundation contractors. Armistice Day fell within the week for which data were reported, and its observance in many sections of the country contributed to the curtailed workweek. Earnings and hours reported are for all classes of workers—skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled.

Workers engaged on private building construction had a shorter average workweek in November (37.2 hours) than at any time during 1946, while their average weekly pay decreased from the 6-year peak of $59.20 in October to $57.65. Hourly earnings for these workers continued to rise during November in the case of most trades, reaching the highest level since January 1940, when monthly data first became available. Although weekly pay declined from October, it was still substantially more in November 1946 for all reporting trades in building construction than for the same month in 1945.

For nonbuilding construction, fewer hours worked and reduced weekly pay reflected the seasonal downtrend, although average hourly earnings rose slightly.

TABLE 8.—*Average hours and earnings on private construction projects for selected types of work, November 1945, and October and November 1946* [1]

Type of work	Average hours per week			Average weekly earnings [2]			Average hourly earnings		
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Nov. 1945	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Nov. 1945	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Nov. 1945
All types of work	37.6	39.2	(3)	$57.38	$58.93	(3)	$1.527	$1.505	(3)
Building construction	37.2	38.8	37.1	57.65	59.20	$51.64	1.549	1.526	$1.391
General contractors	36.8	38.5	36.5	54.68	56.39	48.77	1.485	1.463	1.336
Special building trades [4]	37.7	39.1	37.5	61.11	62.39	53.90	1.622	1.596	1.437
Plumbing and heating	38.6	40.1	39.2	62.62	63.89	55.41	1.620	1.593	1.413
Painting and decorating	35.2	38.4	37.5	57.39	62.16	55.45	1.629	1.620	1.480
Electrical work	39.8	40.8	39.7	69.63	70.59	62.15	1.750	1.732	1.565
Masonry	37.4	38.0	33.9	57.56	58.70	48.64	1.541	1.544	1.418
Plastering and lathing	35.3	38.5	33.8	63.13	66.43	53.22	1.788	1.727	1.576
Carpentry	38.3	39.1	39.4	57.64	59.95	54.26	1.504	1.531	1.378
Roofing and sheet metal	36.1	37.5	35.1	50.95	54.33	46.51	1.413	1.448	1.323
Excavation and foundation	36.4	37.9	35.6	52.10	51.85	46.56	1.431	1.369	1.306
Nonbuilding construction	39.2	41.0	(3)	56.13	57.59	(3)	1.433	1.403	(3)
Highway and street	39.0	40.9	(3)	53.24	54.41	(3)	1.366	1.330	(3)
Heavy construction	39.0	41.0	(3)	57.41	59.56	(3)	1.470	1.453	(3)
Other	39.8	41.3	(3)	54.96	55.02	(3)	1.381	1.331	(3)

[1] Includes all firms reporting during the months shown (over 11,000) but not necessarily identical establishments; covers all classes of workers—skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled.

[2] Hourly earnings when multiplied by weekly hours of work may not exactly equal weekly earnings because of rounding.

[3] Not available prior to February 1946.

[4] Includes types not shown separately.

Trends of Employment and Labor Turn-Over

Employment in Southern Manufactures [1]

WORLD WAR II expansion and subsequent contraction of the number of persons employed in manufacturing industries in the South closely paralleled the movement of manufacturing employment in the United States as a whole.[2] In 1939, just as hostilities were beginning in Europe and before the effect of lend-lease production was felt in this country, factory employment in the South approximated 1,658,000 and in the United States as a whole, over 10,000,000 (tables 1 and 2).

By January 1943, at the end of 1 year of full-scale war production, employment in the Southern States had increased 60 percent as compared with about a 64-percent rise for the Nation. By November 1943—the wartime peak in manufacturing employment for both the Southern region and the United States—those employed in the South numbered 2,836,000. The gain was 71 percent as compared with a national increase of about 76 percent over the prewar period.

An even greater similarity of trend was apparent in the later war years. In August 1944, both the South and the United States as a whole had an employment level 68 percent above that of 1939. By VJ-day, in spite of cut-backs and contract cancellations, factory employment for both the United States and the Southern States was about 50 percent above the prewar level.

Immediate contraction of employment at the war's end was not as severe in the South as in the Nation as a whole. The 2,248,000 workers in the South in September 1945 represented a decrease of less than 9 percent between August and September compared with a national decline of over 12 percent. Also, at the time of the postwar low, in February 1946, the South's factory employment was 32 percent above prewar as compared with only 24 percent in the Nation.

[1] Prepared in the Employment Statistics Division of the Bureau's Employment and Occupational Outlook Branch by Eleanora H. Barnes under the direction of Clara F. Schloss.

[2] For the purpose of this article "employment" is construed as total manufacturing employment; that is, covering all production and nonproduction workers in private manufacturing industries.

The term "South" refers to the 13 States of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia. Detailed estimates of factory employment by State and by industry are available on a monthly basis as part of the Bureau's expanded program in the field of employment statistics.

Following the postwar low, the South did not gain as rapidly as the Nation. August 1946 manufacturing employment of 2,315,000 was 40 percent above the prewar level, whereas the national increase was 44 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Estimates of total manufacturing employment in the South for selected months, by State*

[In thousands]

State	Prewar employment [1]	January 1943	November 1943 [2]	August 1945	September 1945
South: Total	1,657.5	2,656.3	2,836.1	2,462.8	2,247.9
Alabama	144.2	259.9	256 1	221.3	199.0
Florida	66.9	122.8	140.8	100.0	82.8
Georgia	192.7	288.7	314.4	276.0	248.4
Mississippi	56.7	94.2	96.4	83.0	79.9
North Carolina	305.3	400.2	393.7	350.9	340.7
South Carolina	139.6	190.7	189.1	169.4	165.5
Tennessee	172.2	242.2	265.9	252.0	233.9
Virginia	164.8	234.2	228.4	200.4	187.6
Kentucky	79.9	122.4	137.8	127.8	115.5
Arkansas	41.9	75.0	80.2	74.3	69.4
Louisiana	88.7	151.3	183.1	153.5	143.2
Oklahoma	38.2	84.9	107.5	86.2	62.0
Texas	166.4	389.8	442.7	368.0	320.0

State	1946							
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August
South: Total	2,207.7	2,183.8	2,226.6	2,233.3	2,238.0	2,260.9	2,280.2	2,315.3
Alabama	196.0	179.9	199.3	201.1	201.3	202.4	208.3	210.3
Florida	83.0	83.0	81.2	79.0	77.9	76.8	73.9	74.3
Georgia	243.8	244.3	242.6	244.0	245.7	247.1	253.4	259.5
Mississippi	82.6	81.8	81.0	81.7	81.4	83.4	83.7	87.0
North Carolina	346.3	352.1	359.3	358.5	357.5	360.9	358.1	358.9
South Carolina	171.8	175.1	175.8	176.6	178.4	179.8	180.0	183.9
Tennessee	226.3	220.8	226.0	229.7	232.1	235.0	240 2	244.8
Virginia	191.7	192.6	194.8	195.1	193.5	197.3	200.2	205.0
Kentucky	117.5	112.6	115.7	118.3	119.8	121.9	123.6	125.4
Arkansas	61.9	64.4	68.5	66.2	66.0	65.5	65.6	67.8
Louisiana	128.4	128.7	131.3	132.8	132.9	132.9	132.4	128.0
Oklahoma	56.4	54.5	54.1	52.7	51.7	52.8	52.5	54.7
Texas	302.0	294.0	297.0	297.9	299.8	305.1	308.3	315.7

[1] Prewar estimates for Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia are based on unemployment compensation data of the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, average for the third quarter of 1939. Prewar estimates for Kentucky are based on unemployment compensation data, annual average for 1939. Tennessee estimates are based on unemployment compensation data, average for the third quarter of 1940. Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas prewar estimates are based on Census Bureau data for 1939 and are not strictly comparable with data for later periods.

[2] Month of wartime peak employment in the South.

Position of the South in the Nation's Economy

Despite the increase in industrialization during wartime, the relative position of the South in the Nation's economy [3] remained approximately the same (table 3). During the period of peak wartime employment, southern industry expanded slightly less rapidly than in the United States as a whole, but by 1945 it had again returned to the prewar ratio where it remained. The South has not materially

[3] See section I—The rise of industry in the South, in forthcoming bulletin (No. 898) on Labor in the South.

increased its share of the Nation's total employment. However, the anticipated 17-percent increase in the South's labor supply from 1940 to 1950, coupled with the war-induced greater diversification of industry, and larger reservoir of skilled workers, all give promise of a brighter industrial future.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated employment*[1] *in manufacturing industries in the United States, by industry, for selected periods*

Industry	Employment (in thousands)					Percent of total				
	1939	1943	1944	1945	1946[2]	1939	1943	1944	1945	1946[2]
All manufacturing	10,078	17,381	17,111	15,060	13,695	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Iron and steel and their products	1,171	2,034	2,015	1,786	1,528	11.6	11.7	11.8	11.9	11.2
Electrical machinery	355	914	967	815	608	3.5	5.0	5.7	5.4	4.4
Machinery, except electrical	690	1,585	1,553	1,385	1,259	6.8	9.1	9.1	9.2	9.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	193	2,951	2,899	1,797	614	1.9	17.0	16.9	11.9	4.5
Automobiles	466	845	877	726	724	4.6	4.9	5.1	4.8	5.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	283	525	513	450	407	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Lumber and timber basic products	465	589	569	562	627	4.6	3.4	3.3	3.7	4.6
Furniture and finished lumber products	385	429	413	396	439	3.8	2.5	2.4	2.6	3.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	349	422	395	381	438	3.5	2.4	2.3	2.5	3.2
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,235	1,330	1,228	1,173	1,281	12.3	7.7	7.2	7.8	9.4
Apparel and other finished products	894	1,080	1,055	1,044	1,149	8.9	6.2	6.2	6.9	8.4
Leather and leather products	383	378	356	353	391	3.8	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.8
Food	1,192	1,418	1,455	1,440	1,451	11.8	8.2	8.5	9.6	10.6
Tobacco manufactures	105	103	96	95	97	1.0	.6	.6	.6	.7
Paper and allied products	320	389	388	387	431	3.2	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	561	549	551	555	619	5.6	3.2	3.2	3.7	4.5
Chemicals and allied products	421	873	810	769	633	4.2	5.0	4.7	5.1	4.6
Products of petroleum and coal	147	170	183	191	208	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.5
Rubber products	150	231	247	243	270	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.6	2.0
Miscellaneous industries	311	563	543	513	523	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.8

[1] Since January 1943, the Bureau has been receiving employer reports covering total employment as well as production workers. Nonproduction worker estimates for each group have been based on the monthly changes shown by the nonproduction worker segment of these reports. Before 1943, various estimating methods were used to obtain total employment from the production worker series. For this reason, the series, in some groups, may not be consistent prior to 1943. Both production and nonproduction worker series have been adjusted to employment data made available annually by the Federal Security Agency.
[2] 8-month average.

Major Components of Southern Manufacturing

In the prewar period, the nondurable goods group, heavily weighted by the textile industry, furnished over two-thirds of the employment in the South. Expansion in war industries—primarily shipbuilding and aircraft—increased the relative importance of employment in the durable-goods group to about 46 percent of total in 1943; but by 1946 the prewar ratio was again approached. While the relatively stable nondurable-goods industries employed more workers even during the war peak than the durable-goods industries, the more than doubling of durable-goods employment and subsequent deflation governed the over-all pattern of employment.

Major Industry Groups—South Compared With the Nation

The similarity of industrial development in the South and the Nation during the war years tends to minimize the possibility that expansion of war facilities in the South resulted in a permanent relative gain in manufacturing employment. There has, however, been a broadening of the importance of southern industries in the Nation's economy. In 1939, almost half of the workers in the lumber industry and over two-fifths of those in the tobacco and the textile-mill products groups were in the Southern States (tables 2 and 3). The southern sections of the petroleum, furniture, and chemical industries each employed about a fourth of the United States total for these industries. The only other really important industry was food processing which employed over a sixth of the United States total. At the 1943 peak, the South accounted for an even greater share of those employed in each of these outstanding groups with the exception of chemicals. In addition, such manufacturing groups as transportation equipment and paper also had over 15 percent of their employees located in the South and 8 of the remaining 11 smaller groups increased in importance.

TABLE 3.—*Manufacturing employment in the South as percent of United States total, by industry group, for selected periods*

Industry	Percent of United States total				
	1939 [1]	1943	1944	1945	1946 [2]
South: All manufacturing	16.4	15.9	16.1	16.4	16.4
Iron and steel and their products	7.2	9.1	10.2	9.3	7.1
Electrical machinery	.6	1.1	1.5	1.8	1.4
Machinery, except electrical	4.2	4.4	5.0	5.5	5.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	9.3	15.6	16.2	15.9	13.7
Automobiles	1.8	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.6
Nonferrous metals and their products	5.7	8.5	8.3	8.4	9.6
Lumber and timber basic products	47.2	55.0	52.8	49.9	47.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	25.2	28.1	28.3	28.5	27.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	14.8	13.5	12.8	12.9	12.9
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	41.2	47.5	47.2	46.3	45.1
Apparel and other finished textile products	10.1	12.5	12.8	12.5	11.3
Leather and leather products	5.0	6.0	6.3	6.6	6.9
Food	17.1	19.2	19.4	19.3	19.0
Tobacco manufactures	44.7	47.3	49.9	51.2	50.7
Paper and allied products	12.4	15.8	15.7	15.0	15.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	9.9	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.8
Chemicals and allied products	23.9	19.7	23.1	24.7	24.2
Products of petroleum and coal	26.9	36.1	36.5	36.6	34.1
Rubber products	3.5	5.1	6.5	6.3	5.9
Miscellaneous industries	[3] 6.4	2.8	3.3	3.4	3.5

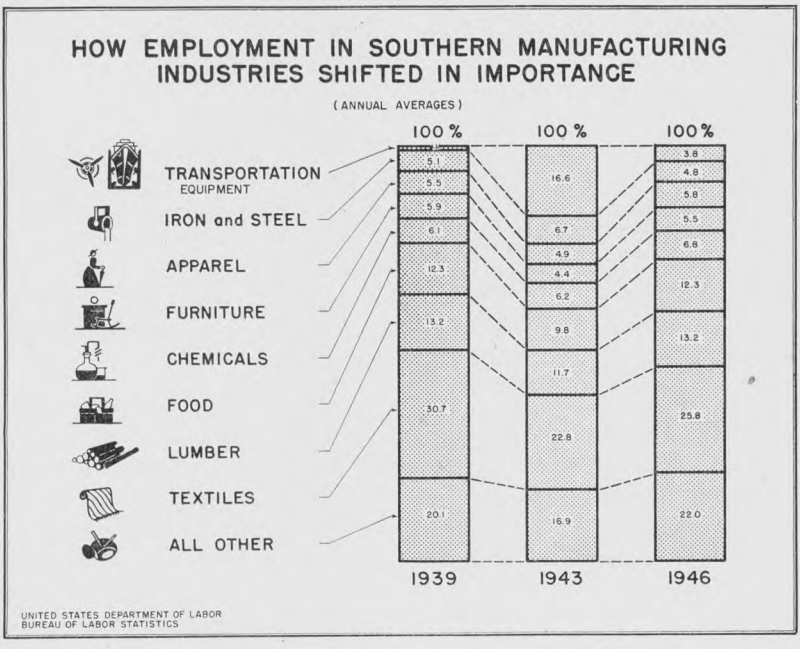
[1] See table 1, footnote 1, for date of 1939 regional estimates. See table 2, footnote 1, for basis of 1939 United States estimates.
[2] 8-month average.
[3] Not strictly comparable with later periods.

Much of the diversification acquired during the war period was carried over into 1946. Whereas in 1939, 5 of the 20 major manufacturing groups had 5 percent or less of their employment in the South,

only 3 were in this position in 1946. The southern industry groups that had always loomed large in the national economy continued to hold their own; the increased importance of many of the other industrial groups makes the South less vulnerable to economic disturbances. Such diversification makes for a healthier postwar situation.

Trend of Employment in the South, by Industry Group

War expansion caused many changes in the industry group pattern within the Southern Region. The largest group was textile-mill products which in 1939 furnished only slightly less than a third of all factory employment (table 4). The lumber and food-processing groups were next and together employed about a fourth of the total. Chemical products, furniture, apparel, and the iron and steel products groups accounted for another fourth.



By 1943, all groups showed aggregate increases in average employment varying from a few hundred in the automobile industry to a gain of 443,000 in the transportation-equipment group. The outstanding relative and aggregate increases occurred, of course, in transportation equipment; this group rose to second place in 1943 when it accounted for one-sixth of all workers. Because of the absorption of such a large part of the labor supply in transportation-equipment manufacture, the only other increases in this period

were in such war-essential groups as iron and steel products, the machinery groups, nonferrous metals, and chemical and rubber products.

TABLE 4.—*Manufacturing employment in the South, by major industry groups, for selected periods*

Industry	Employment (in thousands)					Percent of total				
	Prewar [1]	1943	1944	1945	1946 [2]	Prewar	1943	1944	1945	1946 [2]
All manufacturing	1,657.5	2,769.8	2,761.8	2,467.0	2,243.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Durable goods	526.7	1,280.9	1,287.3	1,033.1	792.9	31.8	46.2	46.6	41.9	35.3
Nondurable goods	1,130.8	1,488.9	1,474.5	1,433.9	1,450.3	68.2	53.8	53.4	58.1	64.7
Iron and steel and their products	84.7	185.4	204.9	165.9	108.0	5.1	6.7	7.4	6.7	4.8
Electrical machinery	2.0	10.3	14.7	14.3	8.8	.1	.4	.5	.6	.4
Machinery, except electrical	29.3	69.2	78.3	76.2	66.1	1.8	2.4	2.8	3.1	2.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	18.0	461.0	468.4	285.5	83.9	1.1	16.6	17.0	11.6	3.8
Automobiles	8.5	8.8	11.2	11.1	11.4	.5	.3	.4	.4	.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	16.0	44.6	42.7	37.7	39.2	1.0	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.8
Lumber and timber basic products	219.5	323.9	300.7	280.3	296.1	13.2	11.7	10.9	11.4	13.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	97.1	120.5	116.8	112.8	122.7	5.9	4.4	4.2	4.6	5.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	51.5	57.1	50.5	49.3	56.6	3.1	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.5
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	509.5	631.2	580.1	543.4	578.3	30.7	22.8	21.0	22.0	25.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	90.5	135.3	135.1	130.4	129.4	5.5	4.9	4.9	5.3	5.8
Leather and leather products	19.0	22.5	22.5	23.2	27.0	1.1	.8	.8	.9	1.2
Food	204.3	271.7	281.6	278.2	276.4	12.3	9.8	10.2	11.3	12.3
Tobacco manufactures	46.9	48.7	47.9	48.6	49.2	2.8	1.8	1.7	2.0	2.2
Paper and allied products	39.6	61.3	60.9	58.1	64.7	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.9
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	55.6	57.7	58.3	59.5	67.0	3.4	2.1	2.1	2.4	3.0
Chemicals and allied products	100.8	171.7	187.5	189.6	153.4	6.1	6.2	6.8	7.7	6.8
Products of petroleum and coal	39.6	61.3	66.8	70.0	70.0	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.8	3.1
Rubber products	5.3	11.8	16.0	15.3	15.9	.3	.4	.6	.6	.7
Miscellaneous industries	[3] 19.8	15.9	17.7	17.5	17.9	1.2	.6	.7	.7	.8

[1] See table 1, footnote 1, for date of prewar estimates.
[2] 8-month average.
[3] Not strictly comparable with later periods.

In 1946, the aggregate average employment in all industry groups, except miscellaneous industries, was above the prewar level and for 10 of the major groups was above the 1943 levels. As regards total regional employment, the largest relative decrease between 1939 and 1946 was in textile-mill products—from 31 to 26 percent (chart 2).

Postwar Highlight in Southern Employment

A year after the war's end, the employment total of 2,315,000 for the South represented an over-all net decrease of 148,000 or 6 percent (table 5). Only six major groups—transportation equipment, electrical machinery, iron and steel, automobiles, chemical products, and machinery except electrical—employed fewer people in August 1946 than on VJ-day. Contractions in the shipbuilding and aircraft industries alone accounted for almost 70 percent of the gross decrease. Disregarding this expected sharp contraction in the transportation-equipment group, the employment rise for the year is about 3 percent.

TABLE 5.—*Estimates of total manufacturing employment in the South for selected months, by industry* [1]

[In thousands]

Industry	Prewar employment [2]	January 1943	November 1943 [3]	August 1945	September 1945
South: All manufacturing	1,657.5	2,656.3	2,836.1	2,462.8	2,247.9
Durable goods	526.7	1,184.9	1,336.3	1,044.1	842.9
Nondurable goods	1,130.8	1,471.4	1,499.8	1,418.7	1,405.0
Iron and steel and their products	84.7	187.5	192.1	161.0	111.1
Electrical machinery	2.1	8.5	12.3	17.1	11.9
Machinery, except electrical	29.3	62.0	74.6	76.3	63.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	18.0	365.4	508.7	285.5	174.8
Automobiles	8.5	6.7	11.1	16.7	11.0
Nonferrous metals and their products	16.0	42.5	46.7	38.5	30.1
Lumber and timber basic products	219.5	333.5	319.7	286.6	279.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	97.1	119.4	117.4	112.5	111.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	51.5	59.4	53.7	49.9	49.1
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	509.5	641.0	615.6	535.4	532.1
Apparel and other finished textile products	90.5	137.7	133.8	128.9	124.9
Leather and leather products	19.0	22.6	22.2	23.1	21.7
Food	204.3	248.8	282.9	279.7	292.1
Tobacco manufactures	46.9	49.9	49.2	47.8	49.4
Paper and allied products	39.6	60.1	62.9	57.1	57.2
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	55.6	57.8	57.8	58.6	59.3
Chemicals and allied products	100.8	170.8	182.4	184.2	168.6
Products of petroleum and coal	39.6	59.7	60.7	71.4	69.0
Rubber products	5.2	8.8	15.2	15.1	14.7
Miscellaneous industries	[4] 19.8	14.2	17.1	17.4	16.0

Industry	1946							
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August
South: All manufacturing	2,207.7	2,183.8	2,226.6	2,233.3	2,238.0	2,260.9	2,280.2	2,315.3
Durable goods	782.0	744.0	774.7	786.8	794.8	808.8	819.9	832.2
Nondurable goods	1,425.7	1,439.8	1,451.9	1,446.5	1,443.2	1,452.1	1,460.3	1,483.1
Iron and steel and their products	107.4	79.9	107.2	112.1	112.2	111.8	115.9	117.2
Electrical machinery	8.4	8.5	8.3	8.8	8.6	8.9	9.2	9.6
Machinery, except electrical	67.2	63.8	64.1	64.7	66.4	67.4	66.8	68.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	99.7	91.4	83.3	81.7	81.8	78.8	78.2	77.1
Automobiles	10.2	10.1	10.4	11.3	11.6	12.4	12.6	12.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	35.4	30.3	37.2	38.6	39.9	42.8	44.6	45.0
Lumber and timber basic products	281.9	285.4	287.3	291.1	295.6	303.4	309.8	314.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	119.1	120.0	120.9	121.9	122.7	125.2	124.8	127.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	52.7	54.6	56.0	56.6	56.0	58.1	58.0	60.8
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	559.8	570.9	576.6	578.1	578.8	585.4	585.1	591.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	125.7	129.3	130.5	128.1	127.8	130.8	130.1	132.7
Leather and leather products	25.5	26.5	26.8	27.5	27.4	27.5	27.7	27.5
Food	277.8	274.9	276.9	273.3	274.1	272.3	278.1	284.4
Tobacco manufactures	48.1	48.3	48.2	48.7	49.2	50.1	50.5	51.3
Paper and allied products	61.8	62.3	63.4	64.5	64.8	65.8	66.9	67.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	64.4	65.7	66.8	67.1	67.7	67.9	68.0	68.3
Chemicals and allied products	159.3	158.0	159.0	155.1	148.5	147.3	147.9	152.5
Products of petroleum and coal	69.9	70.1	69.8	70.5	71.2	71.4	72.1	72.5
Rubber products	16.1	16.0	16.0	15.8	15.8	15.8	15.8	16.0
Miscellaneous industries	17.3	17.8	17.9	17.8	17.9	17.8	18.1	18.8

[1] Estimates for industry groups are adjusted to levels indicated by 1944 unemployment compensation data of the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

[2] See table 1, footnote 1, for date and source of prewar data.

[3] Month of wartime peak employment in the South.

[4] Not strictly comparable with later periods.

Immediate reductions in employment in the 1 month following VJ-day amounted to an over-all loss of 215,000 workers, or 9 percent of all employment. The most severe cut occurred in the transportation-equipment group in which almost 40 percent were laid off. Employment was reduced by about one-third in the iron and steel, electrical machinery, and automobile groups; the chemical-products group declined by 15,000 or more than 8 percent. An offsetting seasonal gain of over 4 percent in the food processing industry and slight increases in the tobacco, paper, and printing industries were the only upward tendencies.

Owing to the Nation-wide steel strike, employment in the South, as in the Nation, reached a postwar low in February 1946 despite the fact that many industries were already well established in their reconversion adjustment. Only the iron and steel, machinery, transportation-equipment, automobiles, chemical products, tobacco, and the seasonally affected food groups continued at a lower employment level than in the September 1945 cut-back period.

From the February low to August 1946, declines were limited to the transportation-equipment and chemical-products groups. As the employment drop for the chemical products group was partially seasonal, the major single retarding factor in the recent employment upswing in the South was the continuing contraction in shipbuilding and aircraft.

Postwar Highlights—South and United States, by Industry Group

The employment changes in industry groups in the South in the first year of peace were somewhat akin to those in the United States. For both the United States and the South, iron and steel, the machinery groups, transportation equipment, and chemicals showed employment losses. But most of the percentage decreases were less severe nationally than in the region. In nine groups, national gains were greater than those in the South. In five—nonferrous metals, leather, miscellaneous, paper, and printing and publishing—the South showed greater proportionate increases over the period than the Nation. Although the South's automobile industry was small, it was the one industry in the region which showed an opposite trend to that in the Nation.

Employment in Southern States

The manufacturing economy of component States of the Southern Region was affected in varying ways by wartime expansion. Expansion of plant facilities in the less industrialized States brought later, and for the most part, proportionately greater peak employment. As the war ended, many of these shifts in importance and in industrial pattern were not maintained.

TRENDS—STATES COMPARED WITH REGION

In the prewar period, North Carolina—with an average employment accounting for about 18 percent of all manufacturing workers in the Southern Region—was the most highly industrialized State. Georgia with nearly 12 percent and Tennessee with over 10 percent were next in importance. Texas with 10 percent was a close fourth (table 6).

TABLE 6.—*Manufacturing employment in the Southern States by region and by State, for selected periods*

Region and State	Employment (in thousands)					Percent of total				
	Prewar [1]	1943	1944	1945	1946 [2]	Prewar	1943	1944	1945	1946 [2]
Southern States	1,657.5	2,769.8	2,761.8	2,467.0	2,243.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southeastern States	1,322.3	2,002.5	1,980.8	1,790.7	1,690.4	79.8	72.3	71.7	72.6	75.4
Alabama	144.2	258.5	251.7	223.4	199.8	8.7	9.3	9.1	9.1	8.9
Florida	66.9	136.0	135.3	103.2	78.6	4.1	4.9	4.9	4.2	3.6
Georgia	192.7	302.9	307.4	271.7	247.5	11.6	10.9	11.1	11.0	11.0
Mississippi	56.7	95.1	95.6	85.1	82.8	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.7
North Carolina	305.3	399.9	383.2	353.0	356.5	18.4	14.4	13.9	14.3	15.9
South Carolina	139.6	191.8	180.0	170.5	177.7	8.4	6.9	6.5	6.9	7.9
Tennessee	172.2	255.9	271.1	255.5	231.9	10.4	9.2	9.8	10.4	10.3
Virginia	164.8	231.9	220.2	202.0	196.3	9.9	8.4	8.0	8.2	8.8
Kentucky	79.9	130.5	136.3	126.3	119.3	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.1	5.3
Southwestern States	335.2	767.3	781.0	676.3	552.8	20.2	27.7	28.3	27.4	24.6
Arkansas	41.9	76.7	77.0	71.3	65.8	2.5	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9
Louisiana	88.7	166.1	177.1	153.9	130.8	5.4	6.0	6.4	6.2	5.8
Oklahoma	38.2	99.7	101.9	86.6	53.7	2.3	3.6	3.7	3.5	2.4
Texas	166.4	424.8	425.0	364 5	302.5	10.0	15.3	15.4	14.8	13.5

[1] See table 1, footnote 1, for date and source of prewar data.
[2] 8-month average.

By 1943, interstate relationships had changed. The average number of persons in manufacturing in Texas had more than doubled, and Texas was the leading manufacturing State in the region. With an aggregate gain of even less than a third, North Carolina dropped to second place. All States experienced some wartime expansion, but increases were proportionately smaller in Georgia, Tennessee, South Carolina, and Virginia (in addition to North Carolina) in the southeastern group of States than elsewhere. For all these States, the relative decrease in industrial importance was continued into the postwar period.

In addition to Texas, all of the other Southwestern States—Oklahoma, Louisiana, and Arkansas—and Florida and Alabama in the Southeast, had a greater share of regional employment in 1943 than in 1939. Further gains for Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana occurred in 1944, while in Arkansas the rise continued even in 1945; Kentucky and Mississippi had a greater proportional employment in 1946 than at any other time.

The States of the Southwest were less industrialized before the war than those in the Southeast. The influx of war facilities and contracts raised the proportion of regional employment in the South-

west from about 20 percent in 1939 to 28 percent in 1944. On the basis of the record for the first 8 months of 1946, the Southwestern States have declined from this peak position, but they still employ a fourth of the South's factory workers.

Based on the same 8-month average in 1946, each of the States in the Southwest and Alabama, Mississippi, and Kentucky in the Southeast showed proportional increases over the 1939 relationship. It seems, therefore, that the Southwest and some of the smaller industrial States of the Southeast have maintained their increased share of southern manufacturing employment.

OUTSTANDING INDUSTRIES IN THE SOUTH

The considerable importance of the textile-mill products group in the manufacturing economy of the South is well known. Also important are lumber, food processing, chemicals, apparel, furniture, iron and steel, and—during the war and postwar period—transportation equipment. Contrary to a general impression, the tobacco industry in the South actually accounts for only about 2 percent of total manufacturing employment. However, this industry is significant in furnishing work in such States as North Carolina, Virginia, Florida, and Kentucky.

Textile-mill products.—The largest single industry group in the South—textile-mill products—employed about 30 percent of all factory workers in the prewar period and about 25 percent of all southern industrial workers in 1946 (based on an 8-month average). Employment in the group increased 24 percent from 1939 to the peak year of 1943 and, despite declines after 1943, rose over 13 percent between 1939 and 1946; most States participated in the increase.

Little change occurred in the relative standing of the States in the industry. In 1946, about 213,000 or well over one-third of the employment waslocated in North Carolina. South Carolina with 120,000 ranked second and Georgia with 103,000 ranked third.

Although textile-mill products (with cotton textiles as the primary industry) formed the largest single employing group in the entire southern region, 96 percent of the group employment was concentrated in only six States—Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

Lumber and timber basic products.—Lumber—the second largest industry group in the South—accounted for about an eighth of those employed in the region both in 1939 and after the war. Distribution was fairly even among 11 of the 13 Southern States in 1939; Oklahoma and Kentucky had only small numbers in the group. Alabama ranked first in 1939 with 27,000 workers or about an eighth of the industry total. North Carolina had 25,000 and Mississippi 23,000

persons so employed and the remaining 8 States had from 14,000 to 20,000.

The industry—comprising primarily logging camps and sawmills—increased almost a half in size by the peak year 1943 in spite of labor recruitment difficulties; 1946 employment still exceeded the prewar level by over a third. Only Florida and Oklahoma showed decreases for the entire period. Alabama alone of all the States showed a gain in 1946 over its war peak average. Employment in this State in the lumber group totaled 42,000 workers, a slight relative increase. Georgia, which ranked eighth in 1939, had more than doubled its employment and risen to second place in the industry in 1946. In the latter year, 11 percent of the total lumber group workers were in Georgia.

Food.—Food processing was the third outstanding industry of the South and a little over an eighth of all workers were in this group in both 1939 and 1946. The group was of considerable size in all States in the South. However, in 1939, one-fifth of its workers were concentrated in Texas and one-eighth in Louisiana.

Between 1939 and 1946, food-processing employment had increased one-third and all States shared in the gain. In Texas, the rise was over a half to 59,400 and in Louisiana more than a third to 34,500. Kentucky, Arkansas, and Louisiana each employed more food-processing workers on an average in 1946 than at any time in the entire period.

Chemicals and allied products.—The chemical-products group accounted for 100,800 workers in 1939—slightly more than 6 percent of regional employment. With many industries within the group requiring new plant facilities for full war production, the peak of 189,600 did not occur until 1945. By 1946, employment had decreased but was still 52 percent above the prewar level.

Owing to the diversity of the industries in the group,[4] it is not practicable to generalize on the causes of regional changes. However, the changes in Tennessee and Virginia, which together comprised about 45 percent of the regional group employment in 1939 and 52 percent in 1946, strongly influenced the over-all pattern.

Employment in the chemical group in Tennessee rose from 23,400 in 1939 to a peak of 61,500 in 1945. In 1946, the number was almost double the prewar total for the State and had risen from 23 to 30 percent of the regional total for the group. The development of the Oak Ridge atomic bomb plant and increases in the production of industrial chemicals were mainly responsible.

In Virginia, the number rose to 34,000—about a 54-percent increase—between 1939 and 1946. Production of rayon fibers fur-

[4] Fissionable materials, explosives, industrial chemicals, synthetic rubber, rayon fibers, animal and vegetable oils, and fertilizer make up the group.

nished the largest segment of employment in the group throughout the entire period, but its importance was reduced during wartime when the production of industrial chemicals increased.

Apparel and other finished textile products.—The fifth largest industrial group in the South was apparel, which employed 129,400 workers making up 6 percent of regional employment in 1946. The gain was 43 percent from the prewar level. Georgia accounted for about a fifth of the South's apparel workers in the prewar period, and only about a sixth by 1946. Texas had first place in 1946 with an employment total of 22,000, and Tennessee averaged 20,100 workers. These three States together accounted for approximately half of the total workers in the apparel group.

Furniture and finished lumber products.—The furniture products group averaged 122,700 workers in 1946—only slightly fewer workers than the apparel group. The 1946 level was about a fourth higher than before the war and was the peak for the entire period covered.

In 1946 furniture plants in North Carolina (producing primarily household furniture, mattresses, and bedsprings), with 28,300, employed 23 percent of the southern group total. Virginia and Tennessee ranked second and third in 1946 and with North Carolina comprised nearly half of the furniture group.

Iron and steel products.—The iron and steel products group accounted for about 5 percent of total manufacturing employment in the South in 1939; the percentage rose to 7 in 1944 when wartime expansions more than doubled such employment. After the war ended, iron and steel plants retained approximately the same proportion of workers as in the prewar period. The four States of Alabama, Tennessee, Texas, and Kentucky had over three-fourths of the regional total in the iron and steel group in 1946. Alabama ranked first, with almost 42 percent of the total, in 1939; but by 1946 the percentage had dropped to 34. In Texas, the number of persons so engaged more than doubled between 1939 and 1946, and the proportion increased from 7.7 to 14.5 percent of the regional group.

Transportation equipment (except automobiles).—Employment in the transportation-equipment group—primarily aircraft and shipbuilding industries—amounted to only 1 percent of the total for manufacturing in the South in 1939. Tremendous war expansion of these industries, from 18,000 in 1939 to 468,000 in 1944, raised the proportion to 17 percent. By 1946, the total had receded to less than 4 percent of regional employment.

In the prewar period, Virginia had the only sizable transportation-equipment group in the South, employing 9,700 or over half of such workers in the region. By 1944, the Virginia total had tripled, but because of the tremendous expansions in all but one of the Southern

States, Virginia ranked seventh, following Texas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Alabama, and Oklahoma. But in 1946, only Texas—with 27 percent of the total in this group—outranked Virginia.

CONTINUED EMPLOYMENT EXPANSION

Continued expansion in southern manufacturing employment is indicated by estimates for both September and October 1946. Between August and October 1946, 20,000 workers were added. Florida, Virginia, and Alabama absorbed most of these workers by adding about 5,000 or more each in this 2-month interval. Only 4 of the 13 Southern States failed to share in the increase.

Labor Force, December 1946

WHO IS COUNTED IN THE LABOR FORCE

Labor force.—Persons 14 years of age and over who are employed or unemployed during the census week (the week containing the eighth day of the month).

Employed.—Those who, during the census week (1) work full or part time for pay or profit; (2) work without pay in a family enterprise (farm or business) at least 15 hours; or (3) have a job but do not work because of illness, vacation, labor-management dispute, bad weather, or lay-off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days.

Unemployed.—Those not working, but seeking a job.

The civilian labor force declined by 540,000 between November and December 1946 to a total of 58,430,000, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Employment dropped by 730,000 during the month, while unemployment rose by 190,000 to reach 2,120,000.

Most of the increase in unemployment between November and December occurred among veterans. This probably reflected delays in hiring persons entering the labor market around the time of the coal strike which ended just before the census week. The November to December increase in the number of unemployed persons reversed the downward movement of the past 5 months. Unemployment in December 1946 was 150,000 above the year-ago level, but 580,000 below the March 1946 peak.

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The decline in employment during the month took place primarily in agriculture. A drop of 690,000 in the number of farm workers between November and December was seasonal in character, as farming activities slackened with the approach of winter. Agricultural employment in December—7,210,000—was 2,800,000 below the seasonal high point of last June.

Nonagricultural employment declined by 40,000 during the month, in contrast to the usual seasonal rise at this time of year. This contraseasonal drop probably reflected (1) the depressing effects on employment arising from the coal dispute and (2) the fact that hiring for the Christmas season was carried on particularly early this year, as indicated by an increase of 730,000 in nonagricultural employment between October and November.

The level of nonfarm employment, 49,100,000, in December 1946, was 5,100,000 above the level a year previous—an increase of 5,520,000 men was partially offset by a decrease of 420,000 women.

Total labor force in the United States, classified by employment status, hours worked, and sex, November and December 1946 and December 1945

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number of persons 14 years of age and over [1] (in thousands)								
	Total, both sexes			Male			Female		
	November 1946	December 1946	December 1945	November 1946	December 1946	December 1945	November 1946	December 1946	December 1945
Total labor force [2]	60,980	60,320	60,920	43,940	43,860	43,560	17,040	16,460	17,360
Civilian labor force	58,970	58,430	53,130	41,950	41,990	35,950	17,020	16,440	17,180
Unemployment	1,930	2,120	1,970	1,520	1,690	1,500	410	430	470
Employment	57,040	56,310	51,160	40,430	40,300	34,450	16,610	16,010	16,710
Nonagricultural	49,140	49,100	44,000	34,050	34,010	28,490	15,090	15,090	15,510
Worked 35 hours or more	41,800	42,120	36,330	30,140	30,290	24,550	11,660	11,830	11,780
Worked 15–34 hours	4,730	4,290	4,460	2,390	2,120	2,090	2,340	2,170	2,370
Worked 1–14 hours [3]	1,270	1,350	1,400	590	600	580	680	750	820
With a job but not at work [4]	1,340	1,340	1,810	930	1,000	1,270	410	340	540
Agricultural	7,900	7,210	7,160	6,380	6,290	5,960	1,520	920	1,200
Worked 35 hours or more	6,020	5,150	4,800	5,360	4,860	4,400	660	290	400
Worked 15–34 hours	1,560	1,450	1,780	780	950	1,150	780	500	630
Worked 1–14 hours [3]	160	320	330	(*)	220	220	(*)	100	110
With a job but not at work [4]	160	290	250	150	260	190	(*)	(*)	(*)

[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 table 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.

Summary of Employment Reports for December 1946

AN EMPLOYMENT GAIN of 414,000 during December 1946 raised employment in nonagricultural establishments to 40,795,000. In mid-December the number of nonagricultural employees was only 44,000 below the wartime peak of December 1943. The Bureau's figures exclude self-employed persons and domestic servants.

A comparison with December 1943 reflects the return to a peacetime economy. While manufacturing and government have shown substantial declines, contract construction, trade, and the finance-service-miscellaneous divisions have each added about 1,000,000 or more workers.

The November-December 1946 rise of 414,000 employees reflects primarily seasonal gains of 341,000 in trade and 169,000 in government, the latter comprising chiefly Christmas post office "temporaries." Lesser gains were also reported in the finance, service, and miscellaneous group and in manufacturing. The only sizable drop was in contract construction which decreased by 166,000 between November and December, making a total decline of 461,000 for that group in the last 3 months.

Industrial and Business Employment

Employment in manufacturing industries rose by 63,000 between November and December, most of this rise taking place in the nondurable or light industry groups. The durable goods group of industries showed a net gain of 10,000 in employment, despite a substantial decline of 14,000 in iron and steel (blast furnaces) and a slight drop in the automobile industry—both occasioned by the coal shortage.

The largest single gain in manufacturing employment was in the apparel group, reflecting the beginning of the spring season in plants making higher-priced dresses and suits. The textile group, which still has a heavy unsatisfied demand, reported the next largest employment gain—12,000. The textile and apparel groups together employed about 2,351,000 workers in December, about 19 percent of the manufacturing production workers.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated number of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by industry division*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	Dec. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Dec. 1945
Total estimated employment [1]	40,795	40,381	40,178	37,463
Manufacturing [2]	15,048	14,967	14,763	13,059
Mining	819	828	827	802
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,642	1,808	2,040	1,042
Transportation and public utilities	3,977	4,005	3,987	3,896
Trade	8,610	8,259	8,040	7,959
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	5,260	5,244	5,208	4,936
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,439	5,270	5,313	5,769

[1] Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who worked or received pay 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 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and are comparable with the production-worker estimates shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*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)	
	Dec. 1946	Dec. 1945	Dec. 1946	Dec. 1945
All manufacturing	12,281	10,519	149.9	128.4
Durable goods	6,223	5,097	172.3	141.2
Nondurable goods	6,058	5,422	132.2	118.4
Iron and steel and their products	1,462	1,294	147.4	130.5
Electrical machinery	575	484	222.0	186.9
Machinery, except electrical	1,117	914	211.3	172.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	456	536	287.2	338.0
Automobiles	745	388	185.1	96.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	410	326	178.9	142.2
Lumber and timber basic products	639	499	151.9	118.6
Furniture and finished lumber products	407	336	123.9	102.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	412	320	140.5	109.1
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,252	1,113	109.4	97.3
Apparel and other finished textile products	1,099	938	139.2	118.9
Leather and leather products	360	330	103.6	95.2
Food	1,121	1,078	131.2	126.2
Tobacco manufactures	92	82	98.3	87.8
Paper and allied products	383	335	144.3	126.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	403	355	122.8	108.1
Chemicals and allied products	504	488	174.9	169.2
Products of petroleum and coal	150	140	142.1	132.3
Rubber products	248	203	204.7	168.2
Miscellaneous industries	446	360	182.1	147.3

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

Public Employment

The down-trend which has characterized the movement of total Federal employment thus far in the postwar period, was temporarily interrupted in December 1946 by the hiring of temporary postal clerks to handle the large volume of Christmas mailings. This increase, an

estimated 236,000, augmented by smaller-than-usual monthly employment gains on the part of the Veterans Administration and War Assets Administration, was offset to the extent of 75,000 by declines in other Federal departments and agencies, led by the War Department (with a decline of 47,000 employees) and the Labor Department (which lost 23,000 employment-office employees to the State governments on November 16).

The net increase of 161,000 resulting from these and smaller shifts brought total Federal employment in December 1946 to 2.6 million, of which the war agencies and Veterans Administration together constituted 54 percent and the Post Office Department 26 percent. The remaining 20 percent included employees of the executive departments other than the War, Navy, and Post Office Departments, employees of the Federal Security, Federal Works, and National Housing Agencies, Federal Reserve banks, members of Congress and their employees, the judges and other employees of the Federal courts, and employees of a number of small independent peacetime agencies.

The year 1946 closed with an over-all employment decline of 870,000, composed of a net decline of 986,000 in war agencies and of 16,000 in peacetime agencies except the Veterans Administration, which increased by 133,000.

Although employment of veterans in the executive branch of the Government in continental United States has declined somewhat from its peak in August 1946 (whether for voluntary or involuntary reasons is not known), it has increased almost 60 percent since December 1945. This is in contrast with a decline of 38 percent in the nonveteran group in the same year period.

Since February 1946 when a break-down of these veteran-and-nonveteran employee figures by men and women first became available, the employment of men veterans increased 31 percent and of women veterans 57 percent, whereas the employment of nonveteran men declined 32 percent and of nonveteran women 35 percent. Veteran men now constitute 53 percent of all men employed in the executive branch in domestic areas and veteran women constitute 7 percent of the women.

Federal pay rolls, which have included two biweekly pay periods for most employees each month since July 1945, except in December 1945 and June and November 1946 when they included three biweekly pay periods, cover the calendar month beginning December 1946. A method of adjusting the pay rolls to a calendar month basis for the period July 1945–November 1946 is being worked out and the adjusted figures will be available shortly.

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 both the executive branch (tables 3 and 4) and in construction employment (table 2 in the section, Construction).

Military personnel and pay figures are reported monthly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics but are published here only quarterly.

Mimeographed tables giving civilian employment and military personnel and pay, monthly, 1939 to date, and civilian pay rolls, monthly, 1943 to date, are available upon request.

TABLE 3.—*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]						
December 1939	1,014,917	981,404	937,391	127,174	5,583	2,359	25,571
December 1940	1,212,931	1,178,221	1,106,162	153,491	5,932	2,391	26,387
December 1941	1,730,850	1,691,833	1,558,071	201,390	6,202	2,582	30,233
December 1942	3,020,077	2,977,033	2,736,555	287,924	6,353	2,617	34,074
December 1943	3,482,925	3,437,764	3,041,577	270,137	6,116	2,655	36,390
December 1944	3,702,940	3,659,220	3,147,367	260,922	6,203	2,646	34,871
December 1945	3,431,746	3,388,037	2,678,565	233,762	6,384	2,991	34,334
October 1946 [4]	2,434,015	2,391,478	2,084,103	225,862	6,902	3,061	32,574
November 1946 [4] [5]	2,400,500	2,357,838	2,049,287	224,742	6,896	3,079	32,687
December 1946 [5]	2,561,362	2,519,031	2,220,561	226,460	6,806	3,061	32,464
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [6]						
December 1943	$703,279	$695,364	$634,338	$55,241	$1,577	$767	$5,571
December 1944	708,831	700,870	643,641	55,445	1,513	779	5,669
December 1945 [5]	703,503	695,089	648,746	73,960	1,822	1,135	5,457
October 1946 [5]	544,105	535,074	499,545	57,848	2,115	1,083	5,833
November 1946 [5]	627,765	617,845	578,343	76,969	2,364	1,488	6,068
December 1946 [5]	566,920	557,560	521,519	60,355	2,169	1,248	5,943

[1] Includes employees on force-account construction. Beginning July 1945, data include clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.

[2] Data are for employees of the Panama Railroad Co., the Federal Reserve banks, and banks of the Farm Credit Administration. Data for other Government corporations are included under the executive service.

[3] Employment is as of the first of the calendar month.

[4] A downward revision of 6,000 to 37,000 in employment in the Post Office Department which affects data for October 1945–November 1946 has been taken into account in the data for other agencies.

[5] Subject to revision.

[6] Starting December 1946, pay rolls cover the entire calendar month. Previously, pay rolls were for all pay periods ending within the calendar month, or 4 four weeks for months starting July 1945, except for December 1945, June and November 1946 when pay rolls included pay for 6 weeks for most employees.

TABLE 4.—*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]						
December 1939	981,404	237,416	204,048	33,368	743,988	733,343	10,645
December 1940	1,178,221	390,629	330,948	59,681	787,592	775,214	12,378
December 1941	1,691,833	793,089	673,036	120,053	898,744	885,035	13,709
December 1942	2,977,033	2,001,275	1,775,454	225,821	975,758	961,101	14,657
December 1943	3,437,764	2,397,840	2,018,676	379,164	1,039,924	1,022,901	17,023
December 1944	3,659,220	2,541,176	2,046,206	494,970	1,118,044	1,101,161	16,883
December 1945	3,388,037	2,162,351	1,476,439	685,912	1,225,686	1,202,126	23,560
October 1946 [6]	2,391,478	1,271,976	92,574	279,402	1,119,502	1,091,529	27,973
November 1946 [6 7]	2,357,838	1,229,368	949,115	280,253	1,128,470	1,100,172	28,298
December 1946 [7]	2,519,031	1,176,126	906,763	269,363	1,342,905	1,313,798	29,107
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [8]						
December 1943	$695,364	$514,131	$456,601	$57,530	$181,233	$177,737	$3,496
December 1944	700,870	509,619	455,993	53,626	191,251	187,648	3,603
December 1945 [7]	695,089	411,410	369,946	41,464	283,679	278,800	4,879
October 1946 [7]	535,074	275,644	245,917	29,727	259,430	253,628	5,802
November 1946 [7]	617,845	283,897	252,969	30,928	333,948	325,374	8,574
December 1946 [7]	557,560	258,882	229,189	29,693	298,678	292,329	6,349

[1] Includes employees on force-account construction.
[2] Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Price Decontrol Board, Philippine War Damage Commission, and the emergency war agencies.
[3] Beginning July 1945, data include clerks at third-class post offices who previously were working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.
[4] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.
[5] Employment is as of the first of the calendar month.
[6] A downward revision of 6,000 to 37,000 in employment of the Post Office Department which affects data for October 1945–November 1946 has been taken into account in the data for other agencies.
[7] Subject to revision.
[8] Starting December 1946, pay rolls cover the entire calendar month. Previously, pay rolls were for all pay periods ending within the calendar month, or for 4 weeks for months starting July 1945, except for December 1945, June and November 1946 when pay rolls included pay for 6 weeks for most employees.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, November 1946

MONTHLY reports on employment and pay rolls are presented below for more than 150 manufacturing industries and for 27 nonmanufacturing industries including water transportation and class I steam railroads. Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated number of production workers in manufacturing industries* [1]

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
All manufacturing	12,218	12,024	12,018	10,503
Durable goods	6,206	6,114	6,086	5,180
Nondurable goods	6,012	5,910	5,932	5,323
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,476	1,442	1,456	1,255
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	481.5	473.5	480.1	431.5
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	84.2	81.9	82.1	69.7
Malleable-iron castings	24.8	24.4	24.4	23.1
Steel castings	51.2	48.8	50.7	51.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	19.4	19.1	18.7	14.5
Tin cans and other tinware	41.2	42.2	44.8	35.2
Wire drawn from purchased rods	29.9	29.2	29.8	27.9
Wirework	40.9	41.3	41.3	30.6
Cutlery and edge tools	26.2	25.3	25.9	22.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	26.4	26.8	26.4	22.3
Hardware	49.5	48.3	47.4	34.5
Plumbers' supplies	29.3	23.5	28.1	18.9
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment not elsewhere classified	62.0	60.3	59.4	48.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	51.4	50.2	48.9	42.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	83.4	81.8	81.5	64.1
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	56.9	55.1	56.1	42.4
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	10.1	9.9	10.2	7.3
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	21.0	20.6	20.4	20.2
Forgings, iron and steel	26.7	26.4	26.2	24.2
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy-riveted	13.8	13.1	13.4	13.7
Screw-machine products and wood screws	29.3	29.0	28.5	25.3
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	6.3	6.3	6.2	5.9
Firearms	14.2	14.2	14.2	11.7
Electrical machinery	568	558	543	479
Electrical equipment	310.9	307.6	300.1	300.3
Radios and phonographs	92.1	88.7	85.2	57.3
Communication equipment	92.2	90.6	89.0	66.7
Machinery, except electrical	1,107	1,091	1,070	911
Machinery and machine-shop products	377.7	370.3	363.2	325.0
Engines and turbines	45.4	44.6	45.3	42.6
Tractors	53.7	53.7	52.0	50.5
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	43.5	42.3	41.2	37.6
Machine tools	59.7	62.0	62.0	52.1
Machine-tool accessories	52.8	52.2	51.5	45.6
Textile machinery	34.7	33.9	33.4	26.3
Pumps and pumping equipment	58.3	57.4	57.5	52.2
Typewriters	22.2	21.3	20.5	13.6
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	36.4	35.4	34.6	25.7
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	12.6	12.0	11.9	8.7
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	10.5	10.3	10.1	7.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	64.1	63.5	60.2	39.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	447	440	439	573
Locomotives	27.2	27.4	27.1	31.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	50.7	48.6	47.9	44.8
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	145.1	142.0	139.5	121.2
Aircraft engines	29.3	28.6	27.6	26.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	134.6	134.7	139.0	286.0
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	11.7	11.5	11.0	7.8
Automobiles	748	744	760	525
Nonferrous metals and their products	406	402	396	319
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	39.3	38.6	37.5	33.8
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	61.7	61.5	61.7	53.3
Clocks and watches	28.5	28.2	27.8	21.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	17.4	17.5	17.9	14.9
Silverware and plated ware	15.1	14.7	14.6	10.8
Lighting equipment	31.2	31.2	30.6	22.0
Aluminum manufactures	50.9	50.6	49.7	38.4
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	27.5	26.8	26.1	21.2
Lumber and timber basic products	642	633	627	484
Sawmills and logging camps	234.0	233.1	233.0	193.1
Planing and plywood mills	76.8	75.6	74.6	61.0

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated number of production workers in manufacturing industries*[1]—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
Durable goods—Continued				
Furniture and finished lumber products	401	393	388	321
Mattresses and bedsprings	23.8	22.8	22.7	15.3
Furniture	169.1	166.7	164.4	135.9
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	25.9	25.5	25.3	23.6
Caskets and other morticians' goods	13.9	13.1	13.2	12.0
Wood preserving	12.4	12.5	12.6	10.7
Wood, turned and shaped	23.2	22.9	22.8	20.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	411	411	407	313
Glass and glassware	104.5	105.4	104.3	76.7
Glass products made from purchased glass	12.8	12.4	12.0	10.8
Cement	28.7	28.6	28.9	20.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	62.3	63.6	63.4	46.9
Pottery and related products	48.6	48.2	48.0	39.7
Gypsum	6.3	5.9	5.9	4.6
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	11.0	10.8	10.8	9.5
Lime	9.0	9.0	8.9	7.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	17.2	17.2	17.4	13.2
Abrasives	20.0	19.8	19.3	16.3
Asbestos products	21.7	21.4	20.5	14.5
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,240	1,224	1,212	1,063
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	465.3	459.5	455.8	398.9
Cotton smallwares	14.3	14.5	14.3	13.1
Silk and rayon goods	94.8	93.8	93.0	84.5
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	162.2	160.5	159.7	143.0
Hosiery	117.5	115.8	113.8	101.7
Knitted cloth	11.2	11.2	11.2	10.4
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.5	30.8	30.4	28.3
Knitted underwear	35.6	35.2	34.9	33.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	64.8	64.1	64.1	54.0
Carpets and rugs, wool	25.7	25.0	24.6	18.4
Hats, fur-felt	11.7	11.5	11.3	9.8
Jute goods, except felts	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.6
Cordage and twine	15.2	15.4	15.2	14.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	1,083	1,085	1,068	930
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	204.3	199.6	197.1	177.4
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	56.8	54.8	54.4	50.5
Underwear and neckwear, men's	12.7	12.7	12.4	11.4
Work shirts	13.6	13.4	13.5	13.1
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	208.9	216.9	216.5	203.2
Corsets and allied garments	16.6	16.3	15.9	14.9
Millinery	16.5	19.0	19.2	17.9
Handkerchiefs	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	14.6	15.1	14.0	11.2
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	10.4	11.2	11.0	9.1
Textile bags	14.4	14.1	13.5	14.7
Leather and leather products	356	352	355	321
Leather	41.1	41.6	42.1	40.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	18.2	17.8	17.8	16.3
Boots and shoes	193.2	190.4	193.5	173.6
Leather gloves and mittens	10.9	11.0	11.0	10.9
Trunks and suitcases	14.6	14.7	14.6	11.8
Food	1,123	1,074	1,157	1,085
Slaughtering and meat packing	138.9	84.4	94.8	132.5
Butter	24.4	24.9	25.1	22.7
Condensed and evaporated milk	13.1	13.7	14.2	13.3
Ice cream	16.8	17.6	18.9	15.6
Flour	30.9	30.5	29.7	30.9
Feeds, prepared	21.8	21.7	21.0	23.5
Cereal preparations	11.0	10.8	10.9	9.1
Baking	249.0	241.3	241.4	254.3
Sugar refining, cane	12.1	11.1	12.3	12.3
Sugar, beet	21.9	19.5	8.0	23.0
Confectionery	57.1	55.8	52.2	55.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	23.2	23.0	24.1	23.6
Malt liquors	53.3	53.0	54.2	54.2
Canning and preserving	131.9	173.3	245.0	124.7

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated number of production workers in manufacturing industries*[1]—Con.

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Tobacco manufactures	91	89	87	83
Cigarettes	34.5	33.9	33.7	34.9
Cigars	42.3	41.4	40.0	34.5
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.0	7.8	7.6	8.4
Paper and allied products	379	372	368	326
Paper and pulp	169.7	167.7	167.7	148.2
Paper goods, other	48.2	47.2	46.6	43.2
Envelopes	10.9	10.5	10.4	9.6
Paper bags	15.3	15.0	14.7	13.2
Paper boxes	91.7	89.6	87.4	80.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	399	394	386	347
Newspapers and periodicals	135.0	133.9	131.7	119.8
Printing, book and job	165.0	163.2	159.3	142.6
Lithographing	30.3	29.9	29.5	26.0
Bookbinding	33.6	33.0	31.8	28.4
Chemicals and allied products	501	491	484	487
Paints, varnishes, and colors	35.9	36.0	36.0	31.7
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	53.5	53.1	52.1	48.0
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.4	12.6	12.2	12.4
Soap	13.6	13.7	14.2	13.6
Rayon and allied products	58.9	57.8	57.4	56.9
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	120.5	118.1	116.6	110.6
Explosives and safety fuses	12.6	12.9	12.8	26.2
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.8	5.3	5.7	5.5
Ammunition, small-arms	6.8	6.9	7.4	11.3
Fireworks	3.5	3.4	3.2	3.1
Cottonseed oil	20.4	17.4	13.0	20.6
Fertilizers	22.1	22.0	22.3	21.1
Products of petroleum and coal	151	151	152	139
Petroleum refining	99.1	99.2	99.8	95.1
Coke and byproducts	25.8	25.8	25.9	22.4
Paving materials	1.8	2.0	2.3	1.8
Roofing materials	12.7	12.6	12.6	9.8
Rubber products	245	240	233	194
Rubber tires and inner tubes	112.0	110.4	106.6	91.4
Rubber boots and shoes	19.2	18.4	18.1	15.4
Rubber goods, other	76.2	74.8	73.3	61.6
Miscellaneous industries	444	438	430	348
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire-control equipment	20.7	20.7	20.9	22.4
Photographic apparatus	25.4	25.3	25.3	21.5
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	21.6	21.5	21.2	19.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	9.9	9.7	9.4	5.6
Games, toys, and dolls	25.2	24.3	23.6	15.9
Buttons	10.2	10.6	10.6	9.2
Fire extinguishers	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.3

[1] November 1946 estimates are based on reports from 33,200 cooperating establishments covering 7,258,000 production workers. Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with the totals shown for the major industry groups.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of production-worker employment and pay rolls in manufacturing industries* [1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
All manufacturing	149.1	146.8	146.7	128.2	291.4	286.0	284.1	222.9
Durable goods	171.9	169.3	168.5	143.5	320.8	317.7	313.9	241.8
Nondurable goods	131.2	129.0	129.5	116.2	262.7	255.1	254.9	204.5
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	148.9	145.5	146.9	126.6	270.0	263.2	263.2	210.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	124.0	121.9	123.6	111.1	208.7	203.2	206.3	173.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	144.1	140.2	140.5	119.3	298.7	294.0	291.7	221.1
Malleable-iron castings	137.5	135.5	135.1	128.1	294.4	292.5	287.5	242.6
Steel castings	170.3	162.0	168.5	170.0	314.1	289.6	297.5	281.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	117.6	115.7	113.4	87.7	262.4	253.5	239.9	170.3
Tin cans and other tinware	129.7	132.9	141.1	110.8	230.4	248.8	274.1	185.5
Wire drawn from purchased rods	136.3	132.7	135.7	127.1	240.7	231.3	231.8	191.3
Wirework	134.6	135.9	136.0	100.8	261.7	265.1	270.9	190.5
Cutlery and edge tools	169.7	164.1	167.7	144.3	384.7	369.5	364.6	283.5
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	172.4	174.9	172.2	145.9	348.8	355.8	340.8	253.9
Hardware [2]	139.0	135.5	133.0	96.7	281.5	278.3	266.6	177.8
Plumbers' supplies	118.8	95.3	113.9	76.8	213.6	171.5	196.7	126.3
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	134.4	130.8	128.8	105.3	265.0	258.9	247.5	182.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	169.7	165.7	161.3	139.3	328.4	325.5	306.7	238.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	150.2	147.2	146.7	115.4	303.4	300.9	289.3	209.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal-work	160.3	155.2	157.9	119.5	275.3	273.9	274.8	187.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	130.1	127.4	131.3	94.2	246.0	241.2	250.1	155.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	147.1	143.8	142.9	141.3	270.3	253.9	246.2	259.4
Forgings, iron and steel	173.5	171.8	170.1	157.3	318.5	313.4	301.1	261.9
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy-riveted	164.9	156.3	159.9	163.6	294.7	261.9	279.9	260.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws	173.2	171.6	168.3	149.5	349.6	349.0	332.5	272.5
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	103.0	103.1	102.7	97.0	243.8	229.5	214.5	178.0
Firearms	283.2	284.3	284.1	233.2	571.2	553.2	573.2	418.9
Electrical machinery	219.2	215.2	209.4	184.9	400.6	393.1	382.7	301.9
Electrical equipment	172.0	170.1	166.0	166.1	308.3	303.7	297.7	264.9
Radios and phonographs [2]	211.7	203.8	195.7	131.8	426.7	406.4	390.0	237.5
Communication equipment	287.0	282.0	277.0	207.6	521.3	521.5	504.9	328.7
Machinery, except electrical	209.5	206.5	202.5	172.4	375.5	373.5	362.2	283.3
Machinery and machine-shop products	186.7	183.0	179.5	160.7	336.8	333.5	322.3	263.4
Engines and turbines	243.2	239.0	242.6	228.6	490.6	480.1	484.5	366.7
Tractors	171.6	171.8	166.4	161.3	269.9	269.0	254.1	228.8
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	156.3	152.1	148.1	135.3	280.7	277.2	269.8	230.9
Machine tools	162.9	169.2	169.2	142.4	282.7	291.9	285.5	233.0
Machine-tool accessories	209.8	207.5	204.8	181.2	341.6	341.5	336.0	269.9
Textile machinery	158.5	154.7	152.3	120.2	301.1	298.3	290.5	218.9
Pumps and pumping equipment	240.6	237.0	237.1	215.3	451.1	452.8	444.0	384.8
Typewriters	137.2	131.6	126.6	83.6	279.0	261.6	248.1	153.8
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	185.2	179.9	175.8	130.5	352.0	336.0	331.8	231.3
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	169.0	160.3	158.7	115.9	292.5	301.2	287.9	186.4
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	133.6	130.8	128.3	97.0	260.5	255.0	243.1	188.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	182.2	180.6	171.2	111.5	300.9	311.4	293.3	175.6
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	281.5	277.1	276.3	361.3	510.7	520.9	504.9	583.5
Locomotives	420.9	423.6	419.4	482.6	852.1	895.6	846.8	1021.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	206.6	198.1	195.4	182.8	411.2	387.9	364.5	302.5
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	365.7	357.8	351.6	305.6	671.8	672.6	663.9	506.6
Aircraft engines	329.0	321.8	310.5	300.3	477.6	530.2	507.8	389.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	194.3	194.5	200.8	413.0	338.2	355.2	346.6	637.9
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	168.1	165.0	158.0	112.3	318.4	317.5	290.9	186.1
Automobiles	185.9	185.0	188.8	130.5	310.9	307.5	318.2	192.2
Nonferrous metals and their products	177.3	175.4	172.9	139.3	333.2	326.3	319.6	243.5
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	142.1	139.9	135.6	122.3	256.8	250.6	247.1	214.5
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	158.8	158.4	159.0	137.4	291.4	286.6	284.7	238.7
Clocks and watches	140.5	138.8	136.8	108.1	311.4	301.6	289.7	199.3
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	120.5	120.9	123.8	102.9	229.0	235.7	237.3	179.3
Silverware and plated ware	124.3	121.6	120.0	88.8	258.9	257.5	250.9	173.5
Lighting equipment	152.5	152.3	149.2	107.5	271.2	264.6	260.6	177.7
Aluminum manufactures	216.3	214.9	211.0	162.9	373.7	362.0	358.1	253.9
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	146.9	142.9	139.3	112.9	285.6	284.6	261.7	200.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of production-worker employment and pay rolls in manufacturing industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
Durable goods—Continued								
Lumber and timber basic products	152.8	150.7	149.2	115.0	305.4	313.5	306.9	194.8
Sawmills and logging camps	81.3	80.9	80.9	67.1	162.5	168.9	168.1	114.0
Planing and plywood mills	105.7	104.1	102.7	83.9	204.7	208.1	199.6	137.3
Furniture and finished lumber products	122.1	119.8	118.2	97.7	256.8	252.7	243.4	173.2
Mattresses and bedsprings	129.8	124.3	123.6	83.2	258.6	251.8	238.4	137.8
Furniture	106.2	104.7	103.3	85.3	223.0	220.3	212.1	151.1
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	102.0	100.6	99.8	93.0	223.8	225.7	218.4	179.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	112.0	105.6	106.0	96.6	206.7	193.0	194.0	153.0
Wood preserving	110.6	111.3	111.9	94.8	270.6	268.5	265.3	205.3
Wood, turned and shaped	105.6	104.2	103.9	95.2	222.4	219.1	212.5	168.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	140.0	139.9	138.7	106.5	267.4	264.0	259.8	175.9
Glass and glassware	149.7	150.9	149.4	109.9	278.5	274.2	268.9	170.3
Glass products made from purchased glass	127.8	123.7	119.7	108.1	253.2	239.6	222.9	184.8
Cement	120.6	120.2	121.5	84.8	206.7	205.4	212.5	135.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	109.7	112.1	111.7	82.6	222.3	228.0	224.1	139.1
Pottery and related products	146.8	145.5	145.1	119.9	262.5	262.0	257.7	188.1
Gypsum	126.7	119.6	119.7	92.4	240.7	232.1	231.0	155.1
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	135.6	133.0	132.9	117.7	289.7	281.7	284.7	220.6
Lime	95.2	94.7	94.1	81.4	221.4	218.3	219.9	167.5
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	93.2	92.8	94.1	71.3	155.3	155.8	152.9	105.3
Abrasives	259.0	256.2	249.7	210.7	440.8	407.8	400.0	328.8
Asbestos products	136.6	134.7	129.0	91.1	295.4	289.5	273.7	175.9
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	108.4	107.0	106.0	92.9	247.9	242.9	237.2	174.8
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	117.5	116.0	115.1	100.7	293.5	285.4	281.7	199.9
Cotton smallwares	107.5	108.8	107.5	98.5	220.6	228.7	222.0	178.2
Silk and rayon goods	79.1	78.3	77.6	70.5	191.4	189.3	180.9	142.0
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	108.7	107.5	107.0	95.8	242.7	243.7	242.7	184.0
Hosiery	73.9	72.8	71.6	64.0	154.5	150.4	143.7	109.0
Knitted cloth	102.9	102.3	102.2	94.9	217.4	217.1	216.1	180.1
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	112.0	109.6	108.0	100.5	252.2	243.9	234.0	192.5
Knitted underwear	92.4	91.3	90.6	87.1	207.9	203.9	199.4	161.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	96.9	95.9	95.9	80.8	201.6	195.2	186.8	142.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	100.3	97.9	96.1	72.0	204.0	196.2	182.5	124.6
Hats, fur-felt	80.6	79.1	78.0	67.4	187.9	182.0	181.3	140.6
Jute goods, except felts	101.2	106.4	105.7	100.0	228.6	239.4	237.4	198.8
Cordage and twine	125.8	127.2	125.5	117.2	268.0	268.5	266.2	220.4
Apparel and other finished textile products	137.2	137.4	135.3	117.8	288.5	288.9	288.2	208.0
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	93.4	91.3	90.2	81.1	206.7	189.4	186.8	136.9
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	80.6	77.8	77.3	71.6	188.3	172.7	167.6	132.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	78.6	78.7	76.8	70.7	205.0	197.2	191.1	146.9
Work shirts	100.8	99.7	100.6	97.5	243.0	224.4	219.3	188.7
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	76.9	79.9	79.7	74.8	154.2	170.5	176.0	136.4
Corsets and allied garments [2]	88.3	86.8	84.6	79.2	182.1	177.1	166.2	142.7
Millinery	67.8	78.4	79.0	73.9	100.4	138.7	147.1	110.4
Handkerchiefs	50.2	48.6	46.7	53.0	118.0	108.8	100.7	98.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	86.1	89.2	82.9	66.2	191.2	196.9	176.1	129.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	98.0	105.1	103.7	85.2	207.0	200.2	218.1	149.9
Textile bags	120.3	117.4	112.2	122.7	231.5	224.1	210.0	206.1
Leather and leather products	102.5	101.5	102.4	92.5	201.0	198.1	203.3	165.3
Leather	87.0	88.1	89.1	86.2	160.8	158.7	160.2	146.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	96.5	94.6	94.2	86.4	170.9	170.0	170.5	138.0
Boots and shoes	88.6	87.3	88.8	79.6	178.8	175.4	182.4	145.7
Leather gloves and mittens	108.6	109.8	109.9	109.5	211.9	219.6	220.6	188.9
Trunks and suitcases	175.4	176.6	175.0	141.8	341.2	346.1	333.6	256.7
Food	131.4	125.7	135.4	127.0	248.1	228.6	242.7	214.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	115.3	70.0	78.6	110.0	215.7	110.5	118.2	185.2
Butter	136.1	138.5	139.8	126.5	243.4	256.1	258.7	203.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	135.4	140.7	146.6	137.5	253.7	264.9	279.9	223.5
Ice cream	107.2	111.9	120.2	99.4	183.2	194.9	204.0	151.6
Flour	124.8	123.3	119.9	124.9	254.1	255.1	249.1	212.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of production-worker employment and pay rolls in manufacturing industries* [1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food—Continued								
Feeds, prepared	141.8	140.7	136.2	152.6	272.3	268.2	261.1	267.9
Cereal preparations	147.0	145.1	146.0	122.0	271.6	274.7	269.6	211.9
Baking	107.9	104.6	104.6	110.2	199.0	190.8	187.5	181.4
Sugar refining, cane	85.2	78.3	86.9	87.1	141.0	123.7	138.3	125.9
Sugar, beet	210.3	187.0	76.9	220.9	424.9	310.1	152.4	361.9
Confectionery	114.9	112.1	104.9	111.3	226.9	212.1	204.4	197.6
Beverages, nonalcoholic	109.2	108.3	113.2	111.2	163.7	161.6	170.6	150.8
Malt liquors	147.6	146.7	150.2	150.2	236.9	235.4	244.2	225.2
Canning and preserving	98.1	128.9	182.2	92.7	212.9	324.7	466.8	179.4
Tobacco manufactures	97.6	95.8	93.5	89.2	212.7	207.4	196.0	172.2
Cigarettes	125.7	123.7	122.9	127.1	247.1	238.9	226.7	207.8
Cigars	83.0	81.4	78.6	67.7	194.3	191.7	180.9	148.7
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	87.0	85.6	82.8	91.5	166.7	160.0	150.7	150.5
Paper and allied products	142.9	140.2	138.6	122.9	273.9	265.8	257.1	211.0
Paper and pulp	123.5	122.0	122.0	107.8	240.2	234.9	228.0	190.0
Paper goods, other	127.9	125.5	123.8	114.7	240.7	233.5	225.8	185.6
Envelopes	125.0	121.3	119.3	110.5	229.3	212.9	207.9	176.8
Paper bags	137.8	135.2	132.3	118.8	262.3	258.6	249.8	215.2
Paper boxes	132.6	129.5	126.3	116.3	253.6	245.0	235.8	197.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	121.6	120.1	117.6	105.9	205.5	200.3	195.2	158.5
Newspapers and periodicals	113.7	112.8	111.0	101.0	182.0	178.9	175.6	138.3
Printing, book and job	130.6	129.2	126.1	112.9	227.9	220.8	215.8	178.1
Lithographing	116.5	115.1	113.6	100.1	196.1	191.4	185.2	157.1
Bookbinding	130.5	128.0	123.2	110.1	271.0	262.8	246.5	205.4
Chemicals and allied products	173.7	170.5	167.9	169.1	311.8	303.5	298.3	281.8
Paints, varnishes, and colors	127.7	127.9	127.8	112.6	208.2	204.8	201.7	174.7
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	195.4	193.8	190.0	175.3	341.9	331.9	316.8	268.7
Perfumes and cosmetics	120.0	121.8	118.0	119.7	215.5	212.7	195.2	183.0
Soap	100.4	100.8	104.5	100.1	169.7	169.0	173.2	161.9
Rayon and allied products	121.9	119.8	118.8	117.9	215.2	209.8	210.8	188.9
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	173.3	169.8	167.6	159.0	301.3	294.0	289.6	260.8
Explosives and safety fuses	174.1	178.2	176.9	360.7	282.4	292.4	292.9	527.2
Compressed and liquefied gases	145.6	133.1	143.7	138.9	241.8	219.4	240.8	225.3
Ammunition, small-arms	159.8	160.9	174.1	263.9	332.3	326.2	339.3	487.7
Fireworks	305.9	290.2	272.5	263.9	824.6	778.4	698.3	666.9
Cottonseed oil	134.0	114.7	85.6	135.7	338.5	275.4	196.5	305.8
Fertilizers	117.7	117.1	118.7	112.4	276.6	280.4	297.4	240.2
Products of petroleum and coal	142.6	142.8	143.8	131.3	245.7	245.8	250.3	222.9
Petroleum refining	136.0	136.2	137.0	130.6	226.9	228.2	232.7	215.5
Coke and byproducts	119.1	118.7	119.3	103.1	217.1	215.0	220.0	181.0
Paving materials	72.4	82.6	95.5	72.4	135.2	150.5	190.6	134.3
Roofing materials	157.2	157.1	156.6	122.2	313.8	303.5	298.6	219.3
Rubber products	202.9	198.7	192.8	160.1	385.1	368.5	370.9	257.8
Rubber tires and inner tubes	207.0	204.0	197.0	168.9	360.3	346.1	348.9	240.2
Rubber boots and shoes	129.6	123.9	121.9	104.1	253.7	214.8	245.8	193.5
Rubber goods, other	147.1	144.5	141.6	119.0	292.4	288.5	282.4	208.8
Miscellaneous industries	181.5	178.9	175.7	142.2	353.6	348.4	337.0	251.1
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire control equipment	186.9	187.3	188.8	202.3	331.9	332.0	330.7	324.6
Photographic apparatus	146.8	146.8	146.7	124.6	253.4	246.6	239.1	198.0
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	185.7	185.4	182.0	167.0	337.1	332.8	322.1	281.2
Pianos, organs, and parts	130.4	127.0	124.0	73.8	273.0	250.5	241.1	117.9
Games, toys, and dolls	135.2	130.4	126.3	85.3	289.7	275.4	260.4	153.8
Buttons	93.0	96.4	96.3	84.3	211.3	211.0	214.1	167.5
Fire extinguishers	214.4	205.0	212.3	229.8	435.1	399.6	414.7	459.3

[1] These indexes are based on reports from 33,200 cooperating establishments covering 7,258,000 full- and part-time production workers who worked or received pay during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of November 1946. Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1944 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:

Hardware.—June and August 1946 pay roll to 241.5 and 257.3, respectively.

Radios and phonographs.—August 1946 pay roll to 369.8.

Corsets and allied garments.—June, July, and August 1946 pay roll to 166.6, 154.4, and 161.2.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated number of employees in selected nonmanufacturing industries* [1]

Industry group and industry	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
Mining: [2]				
Anthracite	68.7	68.9	68.1	64.8
Bituminous coal	334	334	335	327
Metal	74.9	74.1	73.7	64.6
Iron	27.1	27.8	27.7	23.7
Copper	22.5	21.8	21.5	19.0
Lead and zinc	15.5	15.0	14.9	13.7
Gold and silver	7.4	7.2	7.2	6.0
Miscellaneous	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.2
Telephone	583	577	575	443
Telegraph [3]	40.9	41.5	42.2	47.0
Electric light and power	250	249	249	215
Street railways and busses	253	252	252	236
Hotels (year-round)	387	389	385	376
Power laundries	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Cleaning and dyeing	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Class I steam railroads [5]	1,382	1,376	1,363	1,406
Water transportation [6]	(7)	104	(6)	165

[1] See footnote 1, table 4.
[2] Data are for production workers only.
[3] Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters and of cable companies.
[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 the data. New series are being prepared.
[5] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[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 employment on vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy. Beginning with October 1946, data relate to the end of the preceding month. Data for the week ending nearest September 15th are not available.
[7] Not available.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of employment and pay rolls in selected nonmanufacturing industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry group and industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1945
Mining:								
Anthracite	82.9	83.2	82.2	78.2	182.3	199.9	194.0	144.5
Bituminous coal	90.0	90.1	90.5	88.2	233.1	237.1	234.9	212.8
Metal	84.9	83.9	83.5	73.2	147.8	148.0	147.0	117.2
Iron	134.9	138.7	138.1	118.0	241.9	252.4	253.3	191.8
Copper	94.4	91.2	90.0	79.7	170.7	167.1	163.1	129.6
Lead and zinc	99.4	96.3	95.6	87.9	192.1	188.5	188.0	167.6
Gold and silver	29.7	28.9	29.0	24.3	44.2	43.0	42.5	31.7
Miscellaneous	60.9	59.2	60.4	55.8	99.9	99.9	98.0	84.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic	101.2	101.7	102.5	85.0	222.4	227.6	227.9	163.2
Crude petroleum production [2]	93.0	93.4	93.9	86.7	155.1	150.1	147.9	140.0
Public utilities:								
Telephone	183.4	181.6	181.0	139.4	273.0	269.2	265.0	200.3
Telegraph	108.7	110.3	112.0	124.8	194.2	201.7	177.3	177.9
Electric light and power	102.5	102.0	101.9	88.1	157.6	155.3	153.3	126.7
Street railways and busses	130.6	130.3	129.9	121.7	210.9	212.6	207.9	179.1
Wholesale trade	112.7	110.7	109.4	101.8	189.7	184.5	182.8	155.2
Retail trade	117.2	112.2	109.8	106.2	191.5	182.5	180.8	151.9
Food	108.6	103.7	103.5	106.5	185.6	174.6	173.6	154.9
General merchandise	144.8	132.1	125.4	127.4	225.0	204.7	199.0	172.4
Apparel	124.3	120.1	116.7	117.1	207.9	201.5	197.8	175.2
Furniture and housefurnishings	85.5	83.1	81.5	69.4	148.6	139.8	139.1	103.8
Automotive	97.6	96.6	95.5	80.5	168.5	166.0	164.8	126.6
Lumber and building materials	115.2	113.8	113.8	101.0	191.9	192.3	190.0	150.7
Hotels (year-round) [3]	120.0	120.5	119.5	116.5	218.2	214.3	209.5	190.6
Power laundries	109.9	110.1	109.9	106.7	191.5	189 8	188.7	168.9
Cleaning and dyeing	123.0	126.1	125.6	120.6	217.0	225.7	225.6	193.5
Class I steam railroads [4]	139.9	139.3	138.0	142.4	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Water transportation [5]	(6)	199.2	(5)	315.1	(6)	422.6	(5)	582.1

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked or received pay during any part of 1 pay period ending nearest the 15th of November 1946, as follows:

Mining.—2,800 establishments, 338,000 production workers.
Public utilities.—2,800 establishments, 697,000 employees.
Wholesale trade.—11,800 establishments, 328,000 employees.
Retail trade.—39,000 establishments, 1,112,000 employees.
Hotels (year-round).—1,300 establishments, 137,000 employees.
Power laundries and cleaning and dyeing.—1,500 establishments, 72,000 production workers.

[2] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[3] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.
[4] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[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 employment on vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy. Beginning with October 1946, data relate to the end of the preceding month. Data for the week ending nearest September 15th are not available.
[6] Not available.

Labor Turn-Over[1] in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, November 1946

FOR EVERY 1,000 employees on factory pay rolls in November 1946, 37 quit, 7 were laid off, 4 were discharged, and 1 was separated for other reasons. Despite over-the-month declines in the quit and lay-off rates, they were still relatively high, indicating the continuation of a comparatively tight labor market.

Each major manufacturing group showed a lower quit rate in November than in October. Whereas in October, 5 industrial groups had quit rates above 50 per 1,000, in November, only the lumber and furniture groups (with rates of 61 and 55 per 1,000, respectively) were at this level. These groups normally show the highest quit rates among the manufacturing groups.

Transportation equipment and automobiles had lay-off rates of 36 and 17 per 1,000, respectively—the only manufacturing groups with rates above 10 per 1,000 employees. Among the mining industries, iron ore mines, seriously hampered by winter weather conditions, showed a rate of 11 per 1,000.

The hiring rate of 57 per 1,000, although the lowest for November in 5 years, was considerably higher than the prewar rate. In automobiles, iron and steel, and nonferrous metals, a reluctance to hire reflected the coal strike.

Women continued to be hired at a higher rate than men in manufacturing industries: 67 per 1,000 women; 53 per 1,000 men, but their quit rates continued generally higher than for men. Involuntary separation rates, representing mostly lay-offs and discharges were lower for women than for men in 11 of the last 12 months. In November involuntary separations were 10 per 1,000 women, and 13 per 1,000 men.

[1] Turn-over rates reflect conditions only in plants which were in operation, and should be used with caution because of the elimination from the over-all samples of plants involved in work stoppages.

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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	6.8	6.3	6.6	6.3	6.3	5.7	5.8	6.6	6.9	6.3	[2]4.9	------
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	4.3	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.6	5.3	5.3	4.7	[2]3.7	------
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	.5	.5	.4	.4	.4	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	[2].4	------
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	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.2	.6	.7	1.0	1.0	[2].7	------
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	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	[2].1	------
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	8.5	6.8	7.1	6.7	6.1	6.7	7.4	7.0	7.1	6.8	[2]5.7	------
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 production workers. 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. For the month of October, rates are based on reports from 6,900 establishments, employing 4,470,000 workers.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Including temporary (of more than 7 days' duration), 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] *November 1946* [2]

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October
Manufacturing												
Durable goods	5.1	6.5	3.6	4.6	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.2	0.1	0.2	5.3	6.9
Nondurable goods	4.6	5.7	3.8	4.6	.3	.4	.4	.6	.1	.1	6.0	6.7
Iron and steel and their products	4.4	5.3	3.4	4.1	.4	.4	.5	.6	.1	.2	4.5	5.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.2	3.7	2.6	3.1	.2	.2	.3	.2	.1	.2	2.9	4.0
Gray-iron castings	7.0	9.3	5.5	7.5	.7	.9	.6	.6	.2	.3	8.2	9.6
Malleable-iron castings	6.1	7.9	4.9	6.9	.5	.5	.5	.2	.2	.3	7.4	8.9
Steel castings	3.7	5.5	2.6	4.0	.3	.5	.7	.8	.1	.2	3.2	5.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.1	6.8	4.4	5.6	.3	.4	.3	.5	.1	.3	6.3	7.2
Tin cans and other tinware	7.4	9.7	4.6	6.4	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.7	[3]	.1	6.9	7.4
Wire products	4.2	5.1	3.4	3.6	.3	.3	.3	1.0	.2	.2	3.4	5.1
Cutlery and edge tools	5.8	6.2	4.1	4.7	1.5	1.3	.2	.1	[3]	.1	7.1	10.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	4.6	5.2	3.6	4.2	.5	.7	.3	.1	.2	.2	5.2	7.0
Hardware	5.6	7.5	4.6	5.7	.4	.5	.5	1.1	.1	.2	6.0	7.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	5.8	7.2	4.5	5.6	.7	.7	.5	.7	.1	.2	7.7	9.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly labor turn-over rates (per 100 employees) in selected groups and industries,*[1] *November 1946* [2]—Continued

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October
Manufacturing—Continued												
Iron and steel and their products—Con.												
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	6.1	6.4	5.0	5.3	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.2	8.6	8.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	6.2	9.5	4.9	6.5	.5	.6	.6	2.0	.2	.4	7.2	8.4
Fabricated structural metal products	5.3	6.8	3.8	5.0	.5	.6	.7	1.0	.3	.2	6.3	8.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	3.7	4.4	2.9	3.7	.3	.2	.3	.2	.2	.3	4.4	4.5
Forgings, iron and steel	4.1	4.4	2.3	3.5	.3	.2	1.4	.5	.1	.2	3.4	4.8
Electrical machinery [4]	4.5	5.3	3.5	4.0	.4	.4	.5	.7	.1	.2	5.6	6.7
Electrical equipment for industrial use	2.9	3.8	2.0	2.7	.2	.2	.5	.6	.2	.3	3.0	4.6
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	5.7	6.2	4.2	4.9	.7	.8	.7	.4	.1	.1	7.7	8.3
Communication equipment, except radios	(5)	3.4	(5)	2.8	(5)	.2	(5)	.2	(5)	.2	(5)	4.9
Machinery, except electrical	3.7	4.4	2.7	3.4	.4	.5	.5	.4	.1	.1	4.3	5.3
Engines and turbines	3.7	4.4	2.7	2.9	.6	.6	.3	.7	.1	.2	5.8	5.9
Agricultural machinery and tractors	3.6	4.7	2.9	3.8	.3	.5	.3	.2	.1	.2	3.8	4.8
Machine tools	2.9	3.0	1.9	2.3	.3	.2	.6	.4	.1	.1	2.5	3.2
Machine-tool accessories	3.9	4.5	2.7	3.3	.4	.6	.7	.5	.1	.1	4.4	5.2
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.5	4.3	2.9	3.8	.4	.3	.1	.1	.1	.1	3.8	5.1
General industrial machinery, except pumps	3.9	4.5	2.8	3.6	.5	.5	.5	.3	.1	.1	3.9	5.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.0	4.4	3.0	3.3	.6	.9	.3	.1	.1	.1	5.3	5.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.4	9.1	3.3	3.6	.4	.5	3.6	4.9	.1	.1	7.8	8.0
Aircraft	6.5	6.8	3.1	3.9	.3	.4	3.0	2.4	.1	.1	6.0	7.5
Aircraft parts, including engines	4.4	4.0	2.6	2.7	.5	.4	1.3	.9	(3)	(3)	5.7	6.4
Shipbuilding and repairs	11.7	15.2	4.2	4.0	.6	.7	6.8	10.4	.1	.1	11.5	9.6
Automobiles	5.6	9.5	3.2	5.1	.6	.7	1.7	3.5	.1	.2	4.1	6.9
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	5.8	9.9	3.3	5.5	.7	.7	1.7	3.6	.1	.1	3.7	6.4
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	5.6	8.4	3.1	4.3	.4	.6	1.9	3.2	.2	.3	4.9	7.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	4.5	5.9	3.3	4.7	.5	.6	.6	.5	.1	.1	5.3	7.2
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	3.4	3.8	2.5	3.0	.6	.5	.1	.1	.2	.2	4.4	5.8
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	2.9	4.4	2.5	4.0	.2	.3	.1	(3)	.1	.1	3.5	5.1
Lighting equipment	4.7	7.6	3.7	5.9	.3	.3	.6	1.2	.1	.2	6.1	6.7
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	4.3	5.9	3.4	4.9	.3	.5	.4	.3	.2	.2	5.1	6.9
Lumber and timber basic products	7.2	9.0	6.1	8.0	.4	.5	.6	.4	.1	.1	7.7	10.5
Sawmills	7.3	8.9	6.1	8.0	.5	.4	.6	.4	.1	.1	7.4	10.7
Planing and plywood mills	4.6	6.6	3.6	5.3	.4	.5	.5	.6	.1	.2	5.3	7.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	6.7	8.6	5.5	7.2	.6	.7	.5	.6	.1	.1	8.2	9.5
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	6.6	8.6	5.3	7.1	.7	.8	.5	.6	.1	.1	7.7	9.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	4.3	5.3	3.1	4.2	.5	.4	.5	.5	.2	.2	4.4	6.0
Glass and glass products	4.0	5.2	2.5	3.6	.6	.5	.7	.8	.2	.3	3.8	5.8
Cement	4.9	5.3	4.1	4.5	.6	.5	.1	.2	.1	.1	5.1	5.6
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	6.5	7.2	5.4	6.2	.8	.4	.3	.5	(3)	.1	7.2	7.4
Pottery and related products	3.5	4.8	2.9	4.1	.2	.3	.3	.3	.1	.1	4.2	6.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly labor turn-over rates (per 100 employees) in selected groups and industries,*[1] *November 1946* [2]—Continued

Industry group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October	November	October
Manufacturing—Continued												
Textile-mill products	4.8	5.5	4.1	4.8	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	5.8	6.5
Cotton	5.8	6.5	5.1	5.8	.4	.4	.2	.1	.1	.2	6.9	7.6
Silk and rayon goods	4.1	5.2	3.5	4.5	.2	.3	.3	.3	.1	.1	4.6	6.0
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	3.9	4.8	3.2	3.8	.4	.4	.2	.4	.1	.2	4.3	5.0
Hosiery, full-fashioned	2.6	3.7	2.3	3.2	.2	.3	.1	.1	(3)	.1	3.5	4.3
Hosiery, seamless	4.2	5.4	3.7	5.2	.2	.2	.3	(3)	(3)	(3)	5.5	6.8
Knitted underwear	4.5	5.6	4.0	5.1	.4	.3	.1	.1	(3)	.1	6.0	6.1
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	3.6	3.8	2.3	2.6	.7	.6	.4	.4	.2	.2	5.1	5.0
Apparel and other finished textile products	4.8	5.9	4.4	5.3	.2	.2	.2	.3	(3)	(3)	6.4	7.1
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	3.6	3.7	3.4	3.4	.1	.2	.1	.1	(3)	(3)	5.0	5.0
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	4.9	6.5	4.6	5.9	.2	.2	.1	.4	(3)	(3)	6.4	7.2
Leather and leather products	3.9	5.4	3.3	4.6	.2	.2	.3	.5	.1	.1	4.7	5.0
Leather	2.7	4.6	2.1	3.5	.2	.2	.3	.8	.1	.1	4.2	3.9
Boots and shoes	4.1	5.5	3.5	4.8	.2	.2	.3	.4	.1	.1	4.8	5.3
Food and kindred products	6.1	7.9	4.7	5.5	.6	.4	.7	1.8	.1	.2	9.4	9.4
Meat products	8.3	7.4	6.0	3.2	1.0	.3	1.1	3.5	.2	.4	19.3	35.4
Grain-mill products	5.9	8.0	4.3	6.2	.5	.4	1.1	1.2	(3)	.2	6.6	7.3
Tobacco manufactures	4.9	5.6	3.9	4.7	.3	.5	.5	.2	.2	.2	5.3	7.8
Paper and allied products	4.7	5.8	3.8	4.9	.5	.5	.2	.2	.2	.2	5.1	6.7
Paper and pulp	4.0	5.1	3.1	4.1	.5	.5	.2	.3	.2	.2	4.2	5.4
Paper boxes	7.2	8.2	6.1	7.2	.8	.7	.1	.1	.2	.2	7.8	10.2
Chemicals and allied products	2.6	3.3	1.8	2.4	.2	.3	.5	.4	.1	.2	2.8	4.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors	2.4	3.3	1.8	2.4	.2	.4	.4	.4	(3)	.1	3.0	3.0
Rayon and allied products	2.5	2.7	1.5	1.9	.2	.2	.6	.4	.2	.2	2.1	2.5
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	2.7	3.2	1.9	2.5	.2	.3	.5	.2	.1	.2	3.1	5.1
Products of petroleum and coal	1.5	1.8	.9	1.2	.1	.1	.4	.3	.1	.2	1.4	2.0
Petroleum refining	1.4	1.7	.8	1.1	.1	.1	.4	.3	.1	2	1.2	1.8
Rubber products	4.0	5.1	3.2	4.4	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	.2	4.6	6.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes	3.0	3.7	2.5	3.2	.2	.2	.2	.1	.1	.2	3.2	4.6
Rubber footwear and related products	5.2	6.7	4.4	6.1	.3	.2	.4	.3	.1	.1	6.6	7.0
Miscellaneous rubber industries	5.2	7.0	4.1	5.9	.5	.6	.4	.4	.2	.1	6.6	8.7
Miscellaneous industries	3.6	5.2	2.7	4.0	.3	.5	.5	.5	.1	.2	4.7	5.7
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining [6]	4.8	5.4	3.7	4.4	.3	.4	.6	.4	.2	.2	6.0	6.4
Iron-ore	3.5	2.8	1.8	1.8	.2	.1	1.1	.6	.4	.3	2.9	3.1
Copper-ore	5.2	6.8	4.5	6.0	.4	.5	.2	.2	.1	.1	7.4	9.1
Lead- and zinc-ore	4.9	5.6	3.9	5.0	.3	.4	.6	.1	.1	.1	6.9	6.9
Coal mining: [6]												
Anthracite	1.5	2.0	1.1	1.4	(3)	.1	.3	.4	.1	.1	1.7	2.2
Bituminous	(5)	3.9	(5)	3.3	(5)	.2	(5)	.2	(5)	.2	(5)	3.7
Public utilities:												
Telephone	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
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] Less than 0.05.

[4] November rates based on incomplete returns. [5] Not available.

[6] For the month of October rates for mining industries are based on reports from 500 establishments employing 231,000 persons.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly labor turn-over rates for men and women in all manufacturing and selected groups,*[1] *November 1946* [2]

Industry group	Men (per 100 men)						Women (per 100 women)					
	Total separation		Quit		Accession		Total separation		Quit		Accession	
	Nov.	Oct.	Nov.	Oct.	Nov.	Oct.	Nov.	Oct.	Nov.	Oct.	Nov.	Oct.
All manufacturing	4.6	5.8	3.3	4.3	5.3	6.5	5.7	6.9	4.7	5.7	6.7	7.6
Durable goods	5.0	6.3	3.5	4.6	5.3	6.7	5.7	6.6	4.2	5.1	5.7	7.7
Nondurable goods	3.9	4.8	3.0	3.7	5.3	6.0	5.6	7.1	4.9	5.9	7.0	7.6
Iron and steel and their products	4.5	5.5	3.5	4.2	4.8	5.9	5.7	6.6	4.5	4.8	5.4	7.0
Electrical machinery	3.4	4.4	2.6	3.0	4.5	5.3	6.6	7.0	5.1	5.8	7.6	9.0
Machinery, except electrical	3.6	4.3	2.5	3.2	4.1	5.0	4.0	4.9	2.9	3.8	4.6	5.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.7	9.1	3.4	3.7	8.3	7.9	5.3	6.7	2.7	3.8	4.4	6.4
Automobiles	5.2	7.6	3.2	5.0	3.9	6.5	6.5	7.8	3.1	4.3	4.4	8.6
Nonferrous metals and their products	4.2	5.9	3.1	4.5	5.2	7.1	5.2	6.1	4.1	5.1	5.6	7.7
Lumber and timber basic products	7.3	9.2	6.1	8.2	8.0	10.9	6.2	6.1	5.1	5.5	3.2	5.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	6.6	8.8	5.5	7.2	8.2	9.6	7.0	8.5	5.6	7.2	7.7	9.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	4.1	5.2	3.0	4.1	4.4	5.9	4.8	5.6	3.5	4.7	4.2	6.6
Textile-mill products	4.5	5.2	3.7	4.4	5.7	6.3	5.1	5.9	4.5	5.4	5.8	6.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	2.7	3.9	2.4	3.6	5.0	4.6	5.3	6.2	4.8	5.6	6.4	7.4
Leather and leather products	3.1	4.4	2.6	3.8	4.3	4.5	4.7	6.5	4.1	5.9	5.2	6.0
Food and kindred products	5.2	6.2	3.8	4.3	7.9	8.7	8.9	12.3	7.7	8.7	14.3	11.3
Tobacco manufactures	3.7	4.6	2.6	3.6	3.6	6.6	5.7	6.1	4.7	5.4	6.2	8.4
Paper and allied products	4.2	5.3	3.3	4.3	4.9	6.2	6.2	7.6	5.2	7.1	6.0	8.2
Chemicals and allied products	2.4	3.0	1.6	2.2	2.6	4.0	3.5	4.7	2.5	3.4	3.7	4.6
Products of petroleum and coal	1.4	1.7	.8	1.1	1.3	1.8	3.5	4.1	2.7	3.1	3.4	4.4
Rubber products	3.6	4.8	2.9	4.0	4.3	5.9	4.9	6.2	4.0	5.5	5.5	7.1
Miscellaneous industries	3.2	4.8	2.3	3.6	4.5	5.0	4.4	6.2	3.4	4.8	5.0	6.9

[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. Rates for October are based on 6,800 reports covering 4,242,000 employees.

[2] Preliminary figures.

Trends of Earnings and Hours

Summary of Earnings and Hours Data for November 1946

WEEKLY EARNINGS in manufacturing industries averaged $46.83 in December 1946, only 64 cents below peak wartime earnings (January 1945), according to preliminary estimates. Hourly earnings, which have risen to $1.15 are primarily responsible for maintaining this high level of weekly earnings. The average workweek was 40.9 hours, the longest since January 1946, but 4½ hours less than in January 1945.

Preliminary averages for December are as follows:

	Weekly earnings	*Weekly hours*	*Hourly earnings (in cents)*
All manufacturing	$46. 86	40. 9	114. 5
Durable goods	49. 51	40. 8	121. 2
Nondurable goods	44. 14	41. 0	107. 6

Final figures for November indicate that despite plant closings on Armistice Day, and time out in some plants on election day, average weekly earnings in manufacturing as a whole were slightly higher than in October. In the durable goods group, the drop of one-half hour in the workweek was offset by wage increases and premium pay for holiday work.

Among the nondurable goods industries, outstanding increases in weekly earnings occurred in plants producing pianos, organs, and parts, and in the slaughtering and meat packing industry. November weekly earnings in the pianos, organs, and parts industry averaged $51.09, an increase of $2.78 over the month. Hourly earnings in this industry advanced almost 6½ cents since September, reflecting in part additional overtime work as production schedules were stepped up to meet increased demand for the industry's products.

In slaughtering and meat packing plants, which reported one of the largest over-the-month increases in weekly earnings of all manufacturing industries, earnings rose to $51.15, a gain of $8.09. Hours also rose from 37.5 in October to 44.9 in November, marking, in addition to the normal seasonal upturn, the full effect of the removal of OPA controls.

Brokerage, and bituminous and anthracite coal mining averaged the highest weekly earnings in November among the nonmanufacturing industries ($62.00, $61.49, and $56.57, respectively). These levels were lower than in October, due to the decline of commissions on brokerage sales, holiday shut-downs in coal mines on Armistice and election days, and the persistent shortages in some areas of railroad cars for transporting coal.

The most significant increase in hourly earnings among nonmanufacturing industries was reported by the telegraph industry where earnings jumped from 91 cents an hour in September to $1.06 in November. While this rise reflects wage rate increases granted in October, further gains are pending.

Earnings and hours in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries

MANUFACTURING

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$45.74	$45.68	$45.39	40.2	40.4	40.3	113.9	113.0	112.6
Durable goods	48.53	48.81	48.36	40.1	40.6	40.3	121.0	120.2	120.1
Nondurable goods	42.86	42.44	42.34	40.2	40.2	40.3	106.5	105.5	105.0
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	49.90	49.90	49.29	40.0	40.3	39.7	124.7	123.9	124.1
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	50.72	50.39	50.28	38.7	38.7	38.0	130.9	130.3	132.5
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	52.80	53.36	52.58	41.8	42.8	42.3	126.3	124.8	124.3
Malleable-iron castings	51.74	52.27	51.50	40.4	40.9	40.7	128.2	127.7	126.6
Steel castings	51.91	50.25	49.28	39.9	38.8	38.3	129.6	129.1	128.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	45.92	45.23	43.67	43.0	42.3	40.7	106.7	106.8	107.1
Tin cans and other tinware	42.58	44.68	46.22	39.0	40.8	41.9	109.1	110.0	111.1
Wirework	48.85	49.09	49.89	40.6	40.9	41.3	119.8	119.4	120.7
Cutlery and edge tools	47.65	47.45	45.83	43.5	43.7	43.0	109.7	108.5	106.5
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	49.03	49.01	47.59	42.4	42.9	42.5	115.8	114.1	112.1
Hardware [2]	45.59	46.24	45.11	41.0	41.9	41.2	111.0	110.5	109.5
Plumbers' supplies	47.51	48.88	45.63	40.1	41.2	39.4	118.0	117.9	115.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment not elsewhere classified	48.73	48.89	47.36	40.6	41.0	40.2	119.8	119.2	117.8
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	50.69	51.45	49.72	40.7	41.1	40.8	125.1	125.2	121.9
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	46.58	47.15	45.49	39.9	40.9	39.6	116.4	115.5	115.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	48.06	49.74	48.85	39.6	41.0	40.6	121.3	121.4	120.3
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	51.70	51.68	52.13	41.0	41.6	41.1	126.8	125.0	126.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	48.87	46.89	45.70	41.0	39.7	38.9	118.9	117.6	116.7
Forgings, iron and steel	55.51	55.16	53.52	39.9	40.2	39.5	139.8	138.0	136.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws	51.50	52.13	50.57	42.5	43.3	42.3	121.2	120.4	119.6
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	51.54	48.46	45.46	43.3	42.1	39.8	119.1	115.0	114.3
Firearms	53.17	51.10	53.30	40.8	40.7	42.3	130.4	125.6	125.9
Electrical machinery	48.36	48.34	48.31	40.6	40.7	40.8	119.2	118.7	118.5
Electrical equipment	49.42	49.21	49.24	40.3	40.4	40.5	122.2	121.5	121.4
Radios and phonographs [2]	43.12	42.66	42.63	39.9	39.8	40.0	108.0	107.1	106.6
Communication equipment	50.71	51.46	50.60	42.1	42.7	42.2	120.1	120.4	119.9
Machinery, except electrical	51.96	52.47	51.74	40.9	41.5	41.1	127.1	126.5	126.0
Machinery and machine-shop products	51.38	51.91	51.05	41.1	41.6	41.2	124.9	124.5	123.8
Engines and turbines	55.90	55.43	55.26	40.6	41.1	40.5	137.2	136.7	136.5
Tractors	52.53	52.28	51.21	40.3	40.2	39.3	130.4	130.2	130.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	50.09	51.00	51.09	39.8	40.4	40.4	126.8	126.7	126.9
Machine tools	55.63	55.61	54.45	42.5	42.6	41.9	131.7	130.6	130.0

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and hours in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946
Durable goods—Continued									
Machinery, except electrical—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Machine-tool accessories	$55.87	$56.47	$56.28	41.2	41.7	41.5	136.4	136.2	136.0
Textile machinery	49.60	50.26	49.43	41.8	42.9	42.6	118.6	117.3	116.1
Typewriters	48.98	47.89	47.19	42.1	41.9	41.7	116.5	114.3	113.2
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	58.42	57.34	57.91	41.8	42.3	42.6	140.2	136.6	137.0
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	45.68	49.60	47.87	39.8	42.7	41.7	115.2	116.1	114.7
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	52.63	52.63	51.15	40.8	41.2	40.4	129.1	128.2	127.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	47.67	49.71	49.54	38.3	40.2	40.1	124.3	123.7	123.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	52.35	54.24	52.65	38.4	40.0	38.8	136.2	135.7	135.6
Locomotives	58.05	60.63	57.92	40.5	41.6	39.6	143.2	145.6	146.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	52.68	51.81	49.38	41.3	41.8	39.9	127.7	124.1	123.8
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	52.53	53.50	53.73	39.6	40.5	40.6	132.0	131.9	132.3
Aircraft engines	50.81	57.46	56.93	37.0	42.1	41.9	137.3	136.4	135.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	51.42	54.01	50.91	35.7	37.7	35.7	144.1	143.2	142.6
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	52.39	53.24	50.95	41.2	42.6	41.2	127.0	125.0	123.8
Automobiles	52.99	52.63	53.37	38.0	38.2	38.5	139.5	137.7	138.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	49.35	48.97	48.55	41.1	41.0	40.7	120.2	119.4	119.2
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	48.09	47.81	48.65	40.0	40.1	40.3	120.9	119.7	120.8
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	52.56	51.94	51.39	41.0	40.7	40.7	128.3	127.5	126.4
Clocks and watches	45.73	44.81	43.68	41.6	41.6	41.0	109.9	107.8	106.4
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	48.49	49.95	48.93	42.6	43.7	43.5	115.2	114.9	112.4
Silverware and plated ware	55.47	56.42	55.48	44.9	46.1	45.9	123.2	122.2	121.0
Lighting equipment	46.77	45.85	46.10	39.7	38.9	39.1	118.1	117.9	117.8
Aluminum manufactures	48.21	46.90	47.32	40.3	39.7	39.5	119.4	118.1	119.7
Lumber and timber basic products	37.68	39.16	38.73	40.5	41.9	41.4	93.0	93.5	93.5
Sawmills and logging camps	36.26	37.87	37.69	40.1	41.5	41.2	90.5	91.3	91.5
Planing and plywood mills	41.79	43.19	42.04	41.9	43.1	42.2	100.2	100.1	99.5
Furniture and finished lumber products	41.78	41.88	40.86	41.7	42.2	41.8	100.1	99.3	97.7
Furniture	42.31	42.59	41.62	41.4	41.8	41.6	102.8	101.9	100.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods	42.82	42.62	42.74	41.9	42.5	42.8	102.4	100.2	100.2
Wood preserving	39.35	38.68	38.01	42.4	42.1	41.5	93.2	91.9	91.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	44.94	44.48	44.03	40.3	40.6	40.5	111.6	109.6	108.7
Glass and glassware	46.75	45.71	45.29	39.0	39.4	39.5	120.0	116.1	114.7
Glass products made from purchased glass	41.26	40.29	38.88	41.1	40.9	40.5	97.6	96.4	93.8
Cement	46.18	46.02	47.03	42.2	42.4	42.9	109.5	108.5	109.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	42.08	42.25	41.28	40.3	40.9	40.3	103.5	102.7	102.0
Pottery and related products	41.57	41.89	41.33	37.9	38.4	38.2	110.0	109.6	108.6
Gypsum	49.68	50.75	50.46	45.4	47.0	46.6	108.8	107.9	108.4
Lime	45.69	45.12	45.66	46.2	46.6	46.9	98.8	96.6	97.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	42.76	44.18	42.64	41.7	42.9	41.6	103.2	102.6	102.2
Abrasives	48.54	45.11	45.35	39.9	38.1	38.0	121.1	118.5	119.4
Asbestos products	50.18	49.81	49.19	41.9	42.0	42.9	119.8	118.9	114.5
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	38.38	38.09	37.54	40.2	40.2	40.0	95.5	94.8	94.0
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	36.14	35.57	35.35	40.3	39.9	39.8	89.8	89.2	88.8
Cotton smallwares	38.09	39.00	38.33	39.7	40.6	40.5	96.1	96.1	94.7
Silk and rayon goods	38.69	38.67	37.20	41.1	41.6	40.4	94.1	93.1	92.2
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	41.67	42.40	42.44	40.1	40.9	41.1	103.8	103.7	103.4
Hosiery	38.22	37.65	36.65	38.4	38.3	37.7	99.5	98.2	97.4
Knitted cloth	39.61	39.94	39.85	40.8	41.7	41.9	96.7	95.7	95.1
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	37.14	36.69	35.84	39.5	39.4	38.6	93.0	92.2	91.8
Knitted underwear	33.16	33.05	32.70	38.7	38.4	38.1	85.5	85.5	85.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	43.54	42.69	40.72	42.2	42.3	41.4	103.3	100.8	98.3
Carpets and rugs, wool	46.83	46.01	43.72	41.2	41.1	41.3	113.9	112.2	106.1
Hats, fur-felt	53.77	52.92	53.25	40.2	40.6	40.9	130.9	130.2	130.0
Jute goods, except felts	39.68	39.52	39.47	43.8	43.7	44.0	92.0	91.8	91.2
Cordage and twine	37.94	37.63	37.86	40.3	40.9	41.4	94.3	92.2	91.4

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and hours in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946
Nondurable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Apparel and other finished textile products	$36.55	$36.68	$37.25	36.6	36.8	36.9	99.9	99.7	101.0
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	41.39	38.89	39.14	37.8	37.7	37.7	108.6	102.4	102.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	31.83	30.32	29.62	37.6	37.5	37.0	84.5	80.6	79.9
Underwear and neckwear, men's	34.59	33.46	33.13	38.9	37.7	37.9	89.2	88.5	87.5
Work shirts	25.97	24.28	23.55	36.4	35.1	34.5	71.6	69.4	68.2
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	43.21	46.25	47.82	34.8	35.5	35.8	120.9	126.6	130.0
Corsets and allied garments [2]	35.36	35.02	33.72	38.5	38.7	38.2	91.9	90.7	88.5
Millinery	36.09	43.15	45.40	28.8	32.3	33.2	104.5	110.9	112.2
Handerchiefs	30.88	29.44	28.36	36.9	36.0	35.0	83.9	81.9	81.2
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	29.88	29.73	28.31	35.9	36.5	35.8	82.3	81.6	79.9
Housefurnishings other than curtains, etc	36.69	33.06	36.36	40.0	36.4	38.9	91.3	90.3	93.6
Textile bags	33.96	33.68	33.03	40.2	40.0	39.7	84.4	84.1	83.1
Leather and leather products	37.19	37.07	37.49	37.1	37.5	38.2	100.4	98.7	98.2
Leather	45.98	44.78	44.60	40.2	39.7	39.5	114.4	112.9	112.9
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	35.80	36.24	36.48	37.4	38.7	39.0	96.1	93.6	93.8
Boots and shoes	35.85	35.65	36.18	36.2	36.8	37.9	97.8	96.0	95.5
Leather gloves and mittens	32.73	33.71	33.68	35.8	37.0	37.0	92.8	91.9	91.9
Trunks and suitcases	40.56	40.85	39.56	39.9	40.0	39.3	101.6	102.0	100.2
Food	44.83	43.85	43.59	42.8	42.4	43.0	104.7	103.5	101.3
Slaughtering and meat packing	51.15	43.06	41.11	44.9	37.5	35.9	113.7	114.7	114.4
Butter	39.91	41.40	41.38	44.3	46.2	46.7	89.9	89.4	88.2
Condensed and evaporated milk	43.16	43.41	43.95	46.3	46.7	47.6	93.3	92.9	92.4
Ice cream	46.86	47.54	46.48	46.0	47.6	46.8	97.6	96.8	95.6
Flour	51.18	52.01	52.21	47.8	48.5	49.1	107.3	107.4	106.4
Cereal preparations	47.12	48.28	47.15	40.7	42.0	42.4	115.7	114.9	111.2
Baking	46.01	45.45	44.60	44.0	43.6	44.5	104.5	104.2	100.3
Sugar refining, cane	39.92	38.38	38.35	39.4	37.7	37.9	101.2	101.7	101.2
Sugar beet	49.78	40.86	48.87	48.6	40.5	42.8	102.1	100.9	114.1
Confectionery	36.79	35.04	36.14	39.8	39.5	40.0	90.5	87.4	87.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	39.75	39.30	39.87	42.4	42.4	43.9	92.5	91.8	90.4
Malt liquors	56.84	56.57	57.45	42.5	42.5	42.7	133.0	133.0	134.4
Canning and preserving	35.31	40.82	41.50	37.2	41.7	43.5	95.3	98.3	96.0
Tobacco manufactures	36.66	36.47	35.25	39.7	40.3	39.5	92.4	90.5	89.3
Cigarettes	41.74	41.08	39.25	41.1	41.6	40.3	101.5	98.8	97.4
Cigars	33.27	33.48	32.69	38.6	39.6	39.0	85.7	84.4	83.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	33.58	32.66	31.87	39.2	38.7	38.0	85.7	84.4	83.9
Paper and allied products	46.06	45.58	44.57	43.3	43.4	43.0	106.4	105.0	103.7
Paper and pulp	49.48	49.05	47.55	44.5	44.5	43.8	111.1	110.2	108.5
Envelopes	44.25	42.15	41.60	42.6	42.6	42.6	102.8	98.1	97.6
Paper bags	38.32	38.52	37.89	40.1	40.8	40.9	95.7	94.6	93.1
Paper boxes	42.55	42.02	41.53	42.3	42.5	42.2	100.7	99.0	98.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	55.04	54.30	53.96	41.0	41.0	41.0	134.2	132.5	131.5
Newspapers and periodicals	60.81	60.28	60.04	39.2	39.3	39.4	152.5	151.1	149.5
Printing, book and job	52.61	51.50	51.50	42.0	41.7	42.0	125.9	123.8	123.2
Lithographing	55.76	55.08	53.99	42.9	43.4	42.9	129.9	127.0	125.8
Chemicals and allied products	45.88	45.49	45.41	41.2	41.3	40.9	111.3	110.3	111.0
Paints, varnishes, and colors	48.16	47.07	46.52	41.8	41.6	41.4	115.4	113.4	112.4
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	41.06	39.91	39.05	40.2	40.2	39.5	101.9	99.0	98.7
Soap	48.20	47.85	47.30	40.9	41.0	40.5	117.8	116.6	116.7
Rayon and allied products	43.31	42.98	43.55	39.1	39.2	39.3	110.7	109.7	110.7
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	52.96	52.87	52.61	41.1	41.4	41.1	128.8	127.8	128.1
Explosives and safety fuses	49.49	50.26	50.98	40.0	40.7	41.3	124.3	123.4	123.3
Ammunition, small-arms	46.98	45.80	44.05	40.9	40.4	39.1	114.8	113.3	112.7
Cottonseed oil	35.14	33.30	31.93	52.1	51.3	49.9	67.2	64.9	64.0
Fertilizers	33.02	33.87	35.62	40.1	41.0	42.3	82.3	82.7	84.2
Products of petroleum and coal	54.47	54.36	55.25	40.3	40.4	40.4	135.0	134.7	136.8
Petroleum refining	57.11	57.32	58.35	40.0	40.2	40.2	142.9	142.8	145.3
Coke and byproducts	46.29	46.00	47.07	39.5	39.2	39.4	117.4	117.4	119.1
Roofing materials	51.07	49.46	48.82	44.5	44.2	43.6	114.9	112.0	112.0
Rubber products	52.98	51.74	53.69	40.1	39.4	40.6	132.2	131.3	132.3
Rubber tires and inner tubes	58.87	57.38	59.89	39.0	38.2	39.6	150.3	149.2	150.7
Rubber boots and shoes	43.80	38.93	45.27	40.4	37.3	41.5	108.3	104.3	109.1
Rubber goods, other	46.86	47.00	47.01	41.5	41.6	41.8	113.1	113.0	112.5

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and hours in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry group and industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946	Nov. 1946	Oct. 1946	Sept. 1946
Nondurable goods—Continuen							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Miscellaneous industries	$44.97	$45.03	$44.25	41.0	41.4	41.1	109.7	108.8	107.6
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire control equipment	51.08	51.23	50.43	40.1	40.4	40.3	124.9	124.6	124.3
Pianos, organs, and parts	51.09	48.31	47.73	43.0	42.0	42.2	119.8	115.1	113.4

NONMANUFACTURING

Mining:							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Anthracite	$56.57	$61.82	$60.67	35.7	39.2	37.7	158.2	159.3	161.1
Bituminous coal	61.49	62.54	61.65	41.9	42.9	41.8	147.3	145.9	148.1
Metal	49.01	49.63	49.53	40.2	41.0	40.6	122.0	121.0	122.0
Iron	47.35	48.06	48.45	39.2	40.3	39.8	120.8	119.3	121.9
Copper	51.01	51.66	51.09	41.9	42.3	41.9	121.7	122.0	122.1
Lead and zinc	48.48	49.23	49.47	39.4	40.2	40.3	123.5	122.4	122.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic	47.52	48.28	47.97	45.2	46.1	46.1	105.2	104.7	104.2
Crude petroleum production	55.78	53.72	53.19	41.7	41.2	39.9	133.6	130.8	133.4
Public utilities:									
Telephone	44.40	44.30	44.10	39.3	39.1	38.5	113.1	113.7	114.8
Telegraph [3]	46.25	47.37	40.98	43.5	44.4	44.8	106.3	106.7	91.4
Electric light and power	53.61	53.18	52.78	41.6	41.9	41.0	130.2	128.4	129.1
Street railways and busses	55.06	55.62	54.50	47.3	47.6	47.5	113.8	113.2	111.0
Trade:									
Wholesale	49.80	49.44	49.54	41.6	41.9	41.8	118.6	117.2	117.9
Retail	33.04	33.19	33.76	39.6	40.0	40.8	91.8	90.8	90.8
Food	40.42	40.16	40.08	40.3	41.0	41.0	97.0	94.4	94.0
General merchandise	27.63	27.65	28.57	35.1	35.5	36.7	76.4	76.0	75.6
Apparel	34.74	34.98	35.26	36.3	36.5	37.2	96.7	96.0	95.4
Furniture and housefurnishings	47.26	45.84	46.59	43.6	43.3	43.9	110.1	107.4	108.0
Automotive	49.06	48.82	49.15	46.1	46.1	46.5	108.6	107.9	107.7
Lumber and building materials	43.32	43.70	43.60	42.3	43.1	43.1	104.1	103.3	102.4
Hotels (year-round) [4]	27.77	27.17	26.98	44.5	44.1	43.5	62.9	61.9	62.0
Power laundries	31.05	30.52	30.45	42.6	43.0	42.9	72.9	70.8	70.8
Cleaning and dyeing	35.32	35.81	35.81	41.9	42.2	42.9	85.4	85.4	83.9
Brokerage	62.00	62.24	63.50	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Insurance	51.24	51.20	50.63	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-tim employees who worked or received pay during any part of 1 pay period ending nearest the 15th of November 1946. The figures shown below relate to firms reporting man-hour data in all cases except brokerage and insurance, weekly earnings are based on a slightly larger sample (see footnote 1 in tables 1 and 4).

Manufacturing.—32,100 establishments, 7,119,000 production workers.
Mining.—2,600 establishments, 302,000 production workers.
Public utilities.—6,400 establishments, 649,000 employees.
Wholesale trade.—8,900 establishments, 245,000 employees.
Retail trade.—27,700 establishments, 769,000 employees.
Hotels (year-round).—900 establishments, 83,000 employees.
Power laundries and cleaning and dyeing.—1,300 establishments, 61,000 production workers.
Brokerage and insurance.—3,800 establishments, 164,000 employees.

For manufacturing, mining, power laundries, and cleaning and dyeing industries, the data relate to production workers only. For the remaining industries the data relate to all employees except high paid executives and officials. 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:
Hardware.—June and July 1946 to $42.79 and $43.75; June to 40.8 hours.
Radios and phonographs.—August 1946 to $41.54 and 39.8 hours.
Corsets and allied garments.—June and July 1946 to $33.67 and $32.68; 87.4 and 86.7 cents. New series beginning August 1946; not comparable with previously published data. New August data are $32.99 and 85.8 cents. Comparable July data are $32.21 and 85.2 cents.

[3] Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies. October data are revised to reflect wage-rate increases.

[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.

[5] Not available.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to November 1946

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to November 1946.[1] The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $45.74 in November 1946—97.2 percent above the average in January 1939, 71.7 percent above January 1941, and 17.6 percent above October 1942. Weekly earnings for November 1946 increased 12.2 percent above November 1945, however, the average weekly earnings are still below the war-time peak of $47.50 in January 1945, as the result of shorter working hours and shifts of workers from the high paid war industries to the lower paid consumer goods industries.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 113.9 cents in November 1946—80.2 percent above the average in January 1939, 66.8 percent above January 1941, and 27.5 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 November 1946 was 110.6 cents per hour; this was 72.5 percent above January 1939, 66.6 percent above January 1941, and 37.1 percent above October 1942.

[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 preceding table.

Earnings of factory workers in selected months, 1939 to November 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	45.45	50.66	38.59	1.033	1.127	.902	.933	1.017	.842
October	40.97	44.23	37.76	.985	1.063	.909	.942	1.014	.863
December	41.21	44.08	38.52	.994	1.066	.927	.957	1.028	.880
1946: January	41.15	43.67	38.75	1.004	1.070	.941	.970	1.037	.895
April	42.88	45.71	40.13	1.058	1.131	.988	1.027	1.102	.946
July	43.38	46.24	40.46	1.093	1.177	1.009	1.067	1.155	.970
September	45.39	48.39	42.34	1.126	1.201	1.050	1.094	1.172	1.008
October [2]	45.68	48.81	42.44	1.130	1.202	1.055	1.095	1.169	1.013
November [2]	45.74	48.53	42.86	1.139	1.210	1.065	1.106	1.181	1.023

[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.

Labor Chronology

Chronology of Labor Events, October–December 1946

1946 OCTOBER

Oct. 1. The second maritime strike within a month started when the contracts expired between ship operators and the National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association (CIO), the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union (CIO), and the Masters, Mates and Pilots of America (AFL) (see Chron. items for Aug. 24 and Sept. 30, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946). (Source: CIO News, Oct. 21, 1946, p. 8.)

On October 22, the MEBA and the Atlantic and Gulf Coast shipowners signed an agreement which granted preferential hiring, maintenance of membership, a requirement that all engineers must be union members, and a 15-percent general wage increase. (Source: CIO News, Oct. 28, 1946, p. 10.)

On October 28, the MMP (AFL) announced the ratification of an agreement with Atlantic and Gulf Coast operators, whereby wages were increased 15 percent, provision was made for preferential hiring, and the union was recognized as the sole representative of licensed deck officers. Maintenance of membership was applied to mates, but masters were excluded from the requirement that they be members of the union.

On November 19, the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union (CIO) ratified an agreement with the West Coast operators, whereby wages were increased 11 percent for longshoremen and 15 percent for engine room officers.

On November 20, the members of the MMP (AFL) picketed West Coast ships to "protect the interests" of the deck officers until the membership voted on the latest offer made by the Pacific American Shipowners Association.

On November 23, the members of the MMP (AFL) voted to return to work, thus removing the last barrier to settlement of the 54-day West Coast maritime strike. The agreement provided for a 15-percent wage increase and a union-security clause stipulating seniority rights, nondiscrimination, and consideration of union members in the hiring of deck officers for offshore vessels. (Source: Daily press; for discussion, see MLR, Nov. 1946, p. 777, and Dec. 1946, p. 968.)

Oct. 7. The AFL opened its sixty-fifth convention. Action included a demand for termination of the National Wage Stabilization Board; a request for a special session of Congress to enact the Wagner-Ellender-Taft housing bill; and reaffirmation of support to the 5-day, 30-hour week. (Source: American Federationist, Nov. 1946, p. 3.)

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Oct. 8. The NWSB, in connection with the case of Parke, Davis and Co. and United Gas, Coke and Chemical Workers of America, Local 176 (CIO), and United Automobile Workers, Local 114 (CIO), announced the broadening of its policy in specific cases involving correction of gross inequities between wage rates in plants in the same or related industries. It was decided to consider "the general picture of related wage movements which had occurred before June 30, 1946," even though the increases used for comparative purposes had not received approval in whole or in part for price-relief purposes. Previously, the Board limited its comparisons of gross inequities in specific cases to wage increases in other segments of the industry or related industries which it had already approved. The change in interpretation was made necessary by three developments that took place after February 14 (see Chron. item for Feb. 14, 1946, MLR, May 1946). These were (1) "Progressive decontrol" of industries, which automatically obviates approval of wage increases; (2) granting by controlled industries of wage increases which were absorbed in whole or in part by the employer; and (3) a recent amendment to the Office of Economic Stabilization regulations, recognizing the principle that, in Government cost cases, consideration should be given to increases already in effect in other segments of the industry (see Chron. item for Aug. 24, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946). (Source: NWSB–101.)

Oct. 14. The President stated: "There is only one remedy left—that is to lift controls on meat." A meat shortage had occurred after the Price Decontrol Board (see Chron. item for July 25, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946) restored price controls on August 20, as a result of a hearing which indicated a necessity for price ceilings, following a 2-month period in which meat was free from control. Decontrol of meat, the President added, would necessitate acceleration of the program for lifting controls on other commodities. (Source: White House release of Oct. 14, 1946.)

On October 15, the Administrator of the Office of Price Administration announced the decontrol of prices of livestock, meat, and food and feed products thereof. (Source: OPA–6884.)

On October 23, the OPA Administrator announced that the prices of most foods would be decontrolled the following day. At the same time price controls were lifted from all sales of food and beverages by restaurants and other sellers. Sugar and sugar solutions (including syrup and molasses), corn sugar and corn syrup, rough and finished rice, and all oils, edible and inedible, remained under control. (Source: OPA–6905 and 6905a.)

On October 29, the OPA Administrator announced that an extensive list of consumer durable goods would be decontrolled at midnight. Included were radios, lamps, small electrical appliances, kitchenware, and glassware. (Source: OPA–6917.)

On October 30, the OPA Administrator added shoes, hides, skins, and leather to the list of commodities freed from price control. (Source: OPA release of Oct. 30, 1946.)

1946

Oct. 14 (con.) On October 31, approximately 10 percent, by dollar volume, of total clothing was released from price control. Most widely used types of apparel affected were men's and women's hats, neckties, bathing suits and trunks, some fabric gloves, handbags, and men's and boys' scarfs and mufflers. (Source: OPA–6922.) The OPA Administrator announced that 1,642 local price-control boards would be closed on November 4, 1946. (Source: OPA–6924.)

On November 9, the President announced the decontrol of prices with the exception of the controls on rents, sugar, and rice. The decontrol was to become effective on the following day (see MLR, Dec. 1946, p. 977, for discussion). (Source: White House release of Nov. 9, 1946.)

On November 14, the Price Decontrol Board (see Chron. item for July 25, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946) advised the President of plans to maintain only a skeleton force, in view of the President's action of November 9 in decontrolling practically all commodities. (Source: White House release of Nov. 14, 1946.)

Oct. 15. The brakemen and ticket collectors, represented by the Railroad Workers Industrial Union (division of District 50, United Mine Workers of America), reached an agreement with the Long Island Railroad whereby a compromise was reached in settlement of a dispute which threatened to end in a strike (see Chron. item for Aug. 22, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946). The agreement provided for an increase of 18½ cents an hour in pay, which had been established as a pattern for railroad wage-rate increases (see Chron. item for May 25, 1946, MLR, Aug. 1946), and for a number of changes in working rules governing purely local conditions. (Source: Labor, Oct. 19, 1946, p. 3.)

Oct. 15. The Preparatory Committee of the International Conference on Trade and Employment held its first meeting in London. In general, a "Suggested Charter for an International Trade Organization of the United Nations," which the United States Government published in September 1946, formed the basis for discussion. The draft covered employment, commercial policy, cartels, commodity arrangements, and organizational matters; a chapter on economic development was added at the London meeting. About 85 percent of the provisions which it was anticipated might be included in a charter were agreed upon. However, this does not constitute a final commitment. The remaining provisions were not agreed upon owing to time limitations, and were referred to an interim drafting committee (to meet in New York in January 1947) and to the second meeting of the Preparatory Committee scheduled to convene in Geneva in April 1947. When established, the International Trade Organization will be an intergovernmental specialized agency having a relation to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations similar to that of the International Labor Organization (see Chron. item for Nov. 14, this issue). (Source: BLS records.)

1946

Oct. 21. The president of the UMWA (AFL) asked for a conference with the Secretary of the Interior, to be held on November 1, 1946. He stated that the Government had not lived up to its part of the contract with the UMWA (see Chron. item for May 29, 1946, MLR, Aug. 1946), in that (1) pro rata vacation provisions were not applied retroactively, and (2) the 5-cent royalty payment was improperly based on salable coal and not upon gross mined tonnage. The request was made that negotiations should be reopened on wage and other issues, in accordance with the provision for 10 days' notice of a new negotiating conference. (Source: American Federation of Labor Weekly News Letter of Oct. 22, 1946, and NAM Law Dept. Weekly Digest of Labor Rulings and Decisions of Oct. 26, 1946.) He also held that the old contract with the operators, which expired March 31, 1946 (see Chron. item for Mar. 31, 1946, MLR, May 1946) remained effective with respect to termination of the agreement with the Government; i. e., that after 15 days of negotiation, either party might terminate it by giving 5 days' notice. (Source: United Mine Workers Journal of Nov. 1, 1946, and daily press.)

On November 15, President Truman issued a statement urging the president of the UMWA to reconsider their rejection of the proposal of November 14 by the Secretary of the Interior for negotiation during a 60-day truce. The UMWA again rejected the proposal and gave notice of termination of contract effective 5 days later. (White House release of Nov. 15, 1946, and U. S. Dept. of the Interior release 9462.)

On November 16, the Coal Mines Administrator issued an order. It stated that the Government had lived up to the contract with the UMWA and would continue to do so. The formal opinion of the Attorney General was quoted in which he ruled that said contract cannot be terminated or modified except by mutual consent under section 5 of the War Labor Disputes Act. The order also stated: "The Coal Mines Administrator has not consented to termination or modification nor has a petition been presented under section 5 of the War Labor Disputes Act." (Source: Federal Register, Vol. 11, p. 13,630.)

On November 18, the Judge of the District Court of the United States for the District of Columbia issued an order restraining the defendants (the UMWA and its president) from issuing or publicizing any notice "that or to the effect that the Krug-Lewis agreement has been, is, or will at some future date be terminated * * *." The restraining order was to expire on November 27, 1946, unless extended, and hearings were to be held on that date (for discussion, see p. 271, this issue).

On November 21, the miners remained away from their work. The Judge ordered the UMWA, an unincorporated association, and John L. Lewis, individually and as president of the UMWA, to appear before that court on November 25, 1946, to show cause why they should not be punished for contempt of court.

1946

Oct. 21 (con.) On November 25, the Judge ordered the president of the UMWA and the UMWA to stand trial for contempt of court on November 27.

On November 27, hearings began. The Judge extended for 10 days the order restraining the president of the UMWA.

On December 3, the Judge found the president of the UMWA and the UMWA guilty of civil and criminal contempt of court.

On December 4, the Judge levied a fine of $3,500,000 on the UMWA ($250,000 a day for the 14 days of the work stoppage) and of $10,000 on the UMWA president, and also signed a temporary injunction whereby the same restraints contained in the temporary restraining order were continued indefinitely.

On December 6, the Federal Government asked the Supreme Court for immediate review of the contempt case.

On December 7, the president of the UMWA directed all miners to resume work until midnight of March 31, 1947, under the wages, working hours, and conditions of employment in existence on and before November 20, 1946. He stated that the injunction had reached the Supreme Court and that the fitting respect due the dignity of this high tribunal imperatively required that during its period of deliberation, the Court should be free from public pressure. He added that the country needed coal during this period. (Source: United Mine Workers Journal of Dec. 15, 1946, and daily press. For summary, see MLR, Dec. 1946, p. 967.)

Oct. 28. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Division of Statistical Standards of the Bureau of the Budget convened a conference on productivity in Washington, D. C. The conference was devoted to discussion of productivity concepts and measurements, the current state of knowledge regarding productivity, the adequacy of present research programs, the needs for additional productivity measures, the presentation of productivity measurements, and related questions. Participants emphasized that many different factors affect output per man-hour and that many different types of productivity measures are needed for different purposes. The participants agreed that the work of the conference should be continued in some form and referred details to the executive committee which planned the conference. (Source: BLS records.)

Oct. 28. The 58-day New York City trucking strike ended when the International Brotherhood of Teamsters (AFL) and several employers who held out against the pattern settlement on September 17, 1946 (see Chron. item for Sept. 17, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946), signed agreements whereby drivers were granted a wage increase of 31 cents an hour and a 40-hour week. (Source: AFL Weekly News Letter of Oct. 29, 1946, and daily press.)

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1946

Oct. 28 (con.) On November 3, the 51-day strike of United Parcel Service truck drivers in New York City, which affected deliveries of 375 department stores, was ended. The plan for settlement presented by the New York City Division of Labor Relations (see Chron. item for Sept. 22, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946) was accepted, whereby the workweek was reduced to 40 hours from 45 and weekly pay was increased by $5.50. Local 804 of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters (AFL), having 2,500 members, was the largest of the 4 unions involved in the dispute. (Source: AFL Weekly News Service of Nov. 5, 1946, and daily press.)

Oct. 30. The Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor called a conference to discuss current matters of importance regarding women's employment and conditions of work. In addressing women union leaders at the conference, the Secretary of Labor stated: "Now is the time to push for elimination of discrimination against women workers and to gain headway in improving their wages and working conditions." (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor releases WB47–92 and WB47–95.)

Oct. 31. The Secretary of Labor announced the selection of arbitrators in the dispute between the Duquesne Light and Power Co. of Pittsburgh and the Independent Association of Employees. (Source: Daily press.)

On September 10, the Pennsylvania Common Pleas Court in Pittsburgh, Pa., had issued an injunction against the Independent Association of Employees representing 3,600 employees of the Duquesne Light Co., to call off their scheduled strike. The officers of the parent Standard Gas and Electric Co. were ordered to enter bona fide negotiations with the union and to work out a sound and permanent labor policy which will prevent the recurrence of disputes between them and their employees. (Source: Conference Board Management Record of Oct. 1946, p. 350.)

On September 24, when the union went on strike in spite of the restraining order, the president of the union was sentenced to a year's imprisonment.

On September 26, the Common Pleas Court withdrew the temporary injunction at the city's request and the union president was set free. (Source: Newsweek of Oct. 7, 1946, pp. 31 and 32; for discussion, see MLR, Oct. 1946, p. 593.)

On October 15, the Independent Association of Employees won an election (supervised by the National Labor Relations Board) which established it as the bargaining agency for the employees of the Duquesne Light Co.

On October 20, the 27-day strike of the Independent Association of Employees against the Duquesne Light Co. ended with a decision to arbitrate the dispute. (Source: Daily press.)

NOVEMBER

Nov. 5. The closed shop was outlawed by referendum vote in the States of Arizona, Nebraska, and South Dakota. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter 19 LRRM, pp. 3003–3004.)

1946

Nov. 6. The NWSB announced the approval of hourly wage increases of from 10 to 16½ cents for 7,000 New York City employees of the Western Union Telegraph Co., as agreed upon by the company and the American Communications Association (CIO). The approval followed joint submission by the two parties concerned of an application based upon recommendations of a fact-finding board. The increases were 10 cents an hour for messengers and 16½ cents for nonmessengers, of which 12½ cents is to be applied across the board and 4 cents will be used to correct inequities. (Source: NWSB–108.)

On October 7, the NWSB approved wage increases affecting 53,300 employees, which were agreed upon by the Western Union Telegraph Co. and the National Coordinating Board (AFL). By the terms of the agreement an additional across-the-board increase of 13 cents an hour was granted for all nonmessenger employees, and a 3½-cents-an-hour fund was established for these employees to enable the parties to correct inequities within the rate structure; for some 12,000 messengers employed by the firm, an increase of 10 cents hourly was provided. The agreement varied from the recommendations of the fact-finding board for the industry only in respect to the distribution of the increase to nonmessengers. (Source: NWSB–100.)

On July 11, the Secretary of Labor issued two orders whereby a fact-finding board was established to investigate wage disputes between the Western Union Telegraph Co. and its employees represented by the National Coordinating Board (AFL) and the American Communications Association (CIO), respectively. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release of July 11, 1946.)

On August 30, the fact-finding board recommended a general wage increase of 12½ cents an hour for all nonmessenger employees (plus a sum averaging a 4-cents-an-hour allowance to correct inequities) and 10 cents an hour for messengers. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release of Aug. 30, 1946.)

Nov. 9. The President, by Executive Order No. 9801, provided for the termination of all controls for the stabilization of wages and salaries under the Stabilization Act of 1942, as amended (see Chron. item for July 25, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946), including any Executive order or regulation issued thereunder. Decontrol did not affect "the statutory provision governing changes in terms and conditions of employment in plants operated by the Government pursuant to the War Labor Disputes Act." (Source: White House releases of Nov. 9, 1946; for summary see MLR, Dec. 1946, p. 977.) The President stated that the removal of price controls left no basis or necessity for the continuation of wage controls, which operated, in most industries, only as an adjunct to price controls (see Chron. item for Oct. 14, this issue). (Source: White House release of Nov. 9, 1946.)

On November 10, the chairman of the NWSB announced plans for speedy liquidation of the Board and its field offices, owing to the President's action in discontinuing all wage and salary controls. (Source: NWSB–110.)

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1946

Nov. 9 (con.) On November 20, the NWSB announced that enforcement of wage violation cases by tripartite regional wage stabilization boards would end on January 15, 1947. The responsibility for completion of the program with respect to offenses committed prior to November 9, 1946, the date of the Executive order removing wage controls, was to be lodged in an agency other than the NWSB, after the dead-line date. (Source: NWSB–109.)

Nov. 14. The Veterans Administration announced the denial of readjustment allowances under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act (GI bill of rights) (see Chron. item for June 22, 1944, MLR, Sept. 1944) to certain veterans who were out of work during the General Motors strike (see Chron. item for Mar. 13, 1946, MLR, May 1946). The law provides that a veteran is disqualified for a readjustment allowance on account of unemployment which results from a stoppage of work because of a labor dispute, if he is directly interested or participating in the dispute or belongs to a grade or class of workers so involved. The VA decision covered 3 employees of a GM plant in Michigan, who "contended that the primary cause of their unemployment was material shortages and other circumstances for which they had no responsibility." (Source: Veterans Administration release of Nov. 14, 1946.)

Nov. 14. The International Labor Organization's Industrial Committee on Textiles met at Brussels, Belgium.

On November 25, the ILO's Internal Committee on Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works met at Brussels, Belgium, (Source: ILO press releases.)

On December 14, the United Nations General Assembly voted approval of an agreement bringing the ILO into official relationship with the UN. (Source: United Nations Weekly Bulletin of Dec. 14, 1946, p. 49.)

Nov. 16. The 26-day strike of 1,400 members of the Air Line Pilots Association against the Transcontinental and Western Air, Inc. (also known as Trans World Airline) ended when the parties agreed to arbitrate their differences. (Source: Labor, Nov. 23, 1946, p. 1.)

On May 7, the President, by Executive Order No. 9719, had created an emergency board to investigate disputes between TWA and 12 other carriers, and certain of their employees represented by the Air Line Pilots Association, International (AFL) (Source: Federal Register, Vol. 11, p. 5053), thereby averting a strike of air line pilots. (Source: Daily press.)

On July 8, the emergency board recommended a schedule of wage increases. (Source: White House release, Report to the President by the Emergency Board, July 8, 1946.)

On October 21, the strike of 1,400 members of the Air Line Pilots Association, International (AFL), against TWA, was called on the issue of higher wages for pilots and co-pilots (for discussion, see MLR, Nov. 1946, p. 779). (Source: Labor, Oct. 26, 1946, p. 3, AFL Weekly News Service, Oct. 22, 1946, p. 1; and daily press.)

1946

Nov. 18. The eighth annual convention of the CIO opened. Resolutions were adopted calling for a continued battle against the use of injunctions in labor disputes, and for repeal of the Smith-Connally Act, and expressing opposition to efforts of the Communist Party or other political parties and their adherents to interfere in the affairs of the CIO. (CIO News, Nov. 25, 1946.)

Nov. 24. The Secretary of Labor announced the formation of a Joint Trade-Union Advisory Committee on International Affairs. Membership consists of 10 union officials—4 representatives each of the AFL and the CIO, and 1 each from the Railroad Brotherhoods and the Railway Labor Executives' Association. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release S47–551.)

On December 12, the Department of Labor convened an organization meeting of its Joint Trade-Union Advisory Committee on International Affairs. A standing committee of 4 members was named to assist the Department through monthly meetings and to be available for day-to-day advice as problems arise. Meetings of the Joint Committee are to be held 4 times a year. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release S47–646.)

DECEMBER

Dec. 2. The Secretary of Labor convened the Thirteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release S47–614; for discussion, see p. 268, this issue.)

Dec. 4. The President, in appraising the success of the housing program of the National Housing Expediter (see Chron. item for Feb. 7, 1946, MLR, May 1946), stated: "It has now become clear that 1,000,000 dwelling units will have been put under construction and some 700,000 completed by the end of 1946." (Source: White House release of Dec. 4, 1946.)

On December 14, the President announced the relaxation of restrictions on home building. Veterans' preference was retained for every dwelling unit constructed for sale or rent. However, any person who wishes to build a home for his own use may do so, subject to restrictions. House construction will be authorized by Federal permits. The proposed dwelling must be designed for year-round use; total floor area will be restricted; and for rental housing projects, the maximum rents, excluding charges for services, will not exceed $80 per unit as a project average. Rentals will also be established for individual houses built for rental purposes. (Source: White House release of Dec. 14, 1946; for discussion, see MLR, Jan. 1947, p. 119.)

1946

Dec. 5. The Board of Directors of the National Association of Manufacturers passed and submitted to the membership for approval a statement of basic principles for good labor relations and sound collective bargaining. Included are high wages based on high productivity; working conditions that safeguard the employee; as great a degree of employment stabilization as possible; and a spirit of management-labor cooperation. The Association advocates provision of obligation by law for employers and employees to bargain collectively in good faith (provided a majority of the employees in an appropriate unit wish to be represented by the union) and to adhere to the terms of collective-bargaining agreements. Monopolistic practices were condemned; collective bargaining between employers and foremen and compulsion upon an employee either to join or refrain from joining a union, were opposed; and certain limitations on strikes were advocated. (Labor Relations Reporter, Vol. 19, p. 73.)

Dec. 5. The President, by Executive Order No. 9808, established the President's Committee on Civil Rights, consisting of 15 members. "The Committee is authorized on behalf of the President to inquire into and to determine whether and in what respect current law-enforcement measures and the authority and means possessed by Federal, State, and local governments may be strengthened and improved to safeguard the civil rights of the people." After making a written report of its studies to the President and making recommendations for the protection of the civil rights of the people of the United States, the Committee is to cease to exist, unless otherwise determined by further Executive order. (Source: Federal Register, Vol. 11, p. 14153.)

Dec. 11. Robert R. Nathan Associates, Inc., released a report on "A National Wage Policy for 1947," which was prepared at the request of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. The conclusion was reached by the authors of the report, that "on the average, in all manufacturing, an increase of about 21 percent in weekly earnings—without any increase in prices—would have been required in October 1946, to bring real weekly earnings back to the January 1945 level. By the end of 1946, with the present trend of prices, an increase of about 23 percent will be required. . . . In manufacturing industries alone, the end of 1946 level of corporate profits after taxes will support a *21 percent* increase in the earnings of production workers, without any further increase in productivity, without any further expansion in volume, and without reducing the return after taxes on net worth to a rate below that of 1936–39. In total corporate enterprise . . . it may reasonably be conjectured that total corporate business can support a *25 percent* increase." (Source: Robert R. Nathan Associates, Inc., A National Wage Policy for 1947, Washington, December 1946.)

1946

Dec. 11 (Con.) On December 18, the director of the economic research department of the United States Chamber of Commerce stated that, through use of selected statistics, an attempt was being made to convince the public that profits and prices have overtaken wages. He denied this premise, and added that marginal producers might be squeezed out by the cost of higher wages, and this would help to bring about the very concentration of wealth into fewer companies "which we all oppose." (Source: Business Action of Dec. 23, 1946, p. 4.)

On December 30, the chief economist of the National Association of Manufacturers stated that a second round of general wage increases would mean a proportionate rise in prices which would check the decline in cost of living that had already started. He predicted a substantial decline in cost of living "if wages are held at their present level and if reliance is put on competition and buyer resistance." (Source: Daily press.)

Dec. 12. The President, by Executive Order No. 9809, created the Office of Temporary Controls, to be headed by the Temporary Controls Administrator. The order provided for immediate consolidation of the Offices of War Mobilization and Reconversion, of Economic Stabilization and of Price Administration (see Chron. item for July 25, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946), and the Civilian Production Administration, into the Office of Temporary Controls. Provision was made for the National Wage Stabilization Board (see Chron. item for Jan. 2, 1946, MLR, May 1946) to be terminated on February 24, 1947, and for the transfer of any pending enforcement matters and any violation cases which may subsequently be disclosed, to the Bureau of Internal Revenue of the Department of the Treasury. (Sources: White House release of Dec. 12, 1946; Federal Register, Vol. 11, p. 14281, and NWSB 47-1067.)

Dec. 12. The Director of the United States Conciliation Service named the members of a labor-management assembly for the Philadelphia area (eastern Pa., southern N. J., Del., and most of Md.). The assembly, established to aid in maintaining industrial peace, is to work with the Philadelphia office of the Conciliation Service. Of the 24 members, 10 represent management and 5 each the AFL and CIO; and 4 are attorneys, 2 each representing management and labor.

On December 23, the assembly held its first meeting in Philadelphia, and pledged support to the program of the Conciliation Service in minimizing work stoppages and in ending strikes in vital industries. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release of Dec. 23, 1946; and daily press.)

1946

Dec. 15. The Director of the United States Conciliation Service made public a statement of policy adopted unanimously by the Service's 8-man Labor-Management Advisory Committee (see Chron. item for Aug. 21, 1946, MLR, Nov. 1946) in which the faith of labor and management in the American system of free collective bargaining is reaffirmed, and the development of 4 mediation techniques is recommended. (Source: U. S. Dept. of Labor release S47–648; for discussion, see MLR, Jan. 1947, p. 81.)

Dec. 23. The Supreme Court in the case of *National Labor Relations Board* v. *A. J. Tower Co.* decided that the NLRB may refuse to accept an employer's post-election challenge to eligibility of a voter who participated in a consent election to determine the bargaining agent of employees, although such voter's ballot may have been essential to result of the election. (Source: U. S. Law Week, of Dec. 24, 1946, 15 LW 4093.)

Dec. 31. The President proclaimed the cessation of hostilities of World War II to be effective at 12 o'clock noon. By this action, Government powers under some 20 statutes was terminated at once; such terminations included the plant-seizure provisions of the War Labor Disputes (Smith-Connally) Act (see Chron. item for June 25, 1943, MLR, Aug. 1943; for discussion, see MLR, Aug. 1943, p. 305). Government powers under some 33 other statutes are to be terminated at a later date, generally at the end of 6 months from the date of the proclamation. (Source: White House releases of Dec. 31, 1946.)

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

February 1947

Child Labor and Youth Employment

Child labor—in the first year after the war. Annual report of National Child Labor Committee, for year ending September 30, 1946. New York, 1946. 17 pp. (Publication No. 397.)

Children in migratory agricultural families. By Ione L. Clinton. Washington, Federal Security Agency and U. S. Department of Labor, 1946. 13 pp., illus. Free.

Brings together four articles originally published in The Child. One deals with child labor in agriculture.

Age certificates are the employer's protection under the Fair Labor Standards Act. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch, 1946. Folder. (Child-labor series, No. 28.) Free.

16-year minimum age for employment—a postwar goal for protection of the Nation's children. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch, 1946. Folder. 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Educational and employment opportunities for youth. Report and recommendations of the Interagency Committee on Youth Employment and Education. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch, 1946. 15 pp.; processed. Free.

Occupational hazards to young workers, Report No. 7: The operation of hoisting apparatus. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch, 1946. 37 pp. (Child-labor series, No. 11.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Cooperative Movement

It happened in Taos. By J. T. Reid. Albuquerque, University of New Mexico Press, 1946. 118 pp., illus. $2.50.

Account of a project operated among, and largely by, the Indians and Spanish-speaking people of Taos County, New Mexico, to raise working and living standards through cooperative planning and action. One of the phases of this project was the health work carried on through an organization formed for the purpose, the Taos County Cooperative Health Association, characterized in the report as "by far the most elaborate and important accomplishment of the project."

So shines a good deed: Cooperatives in Edenton inspired by success of Tyrrell. Charlottesville, University of Virginia, 1946. 7 pp. (Extension Division bull., New Dominion series, No. 81.)

Describes cooperative activities among Negroes in Edenton and Tyrrell County, North Carolina.

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.

Annual report of the [Massachusetts] Commissioner of Banks, for the year ending December 31, 1945, Part IV, relating to credit unions. Boston, Department of Banking and Insurance, 1946. 52 pp. (Public document No. 8.)

Organizing and incorporating a cooperative. By Lyman S. Hulbert. [Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture], 1946. 13 pp.; mimeographed.

Danish consumers' cooperative societies during five years of occupation. Copenhagen, Danish Cooperative Wholesale Society, 1946. 10 pp.; processed.

Details the conditions under which cooperatives had to work during the German occupation of Denmark and how they were met, and gives statistics of operation, mostly for the 6-year period 1940–45.

Economic and Social Problems

Industrial progress and economic research. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, Industrial Research Department, 1946. 40 pp., charts.

The first part of the report outlines a series of studies of conditions of economic progress at the industrial level, to be made by the Industrial Research Department. The second part reviews its 25 years of research accomplishment and lists the publications (the majority on labor subjects) in which most of the results have been published.

Labor policies of the National Defense Advisory Commission and the Office of Production Management, May 1940 to April 1942. By Richard J. Purcell. Washington, U. S. Civilian Production Administration, Bureau of Demobilization, 1946. 247 pp.; processed. (Historical reports on war administration: War Production Board; Special study No. 23.)

Labor problems. By W. V. Owen. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1946. 570 pp., bibliography. $4.50.

Using the labor-market approach, the author surveys the principles and problems of labor economics. The book, largely analytical rather than descriptive, is intended as a college text.

Nationalization of key industries in eastern Europe. By Samuel L. Sharp. Washington, Foundation for Foreign Affairs, 1946. 81 pp. (Pamphlet No. 1.) 25 cents.

Discussion of the reasons for and the extent and results of nationalization measures in eastern Europe, primarily in Czechoslovakia and Poland.

The Japanese war economy, 1940–45. By Jerome B. Cohen. (*In* Far Eastern Survey, Institute of Pacific Relations, American Council, New York, December 4, 1946, pp. 361–370. 25 cents.)

Reviews economic developments in Japan during the prewar decade and in wartime, with some attention to the structure of the Japanese labor force.

Education and Training

Training for industrial employment. London, Institute of Labor Management, [1946?]. 65 pp. 2s. 6d.

Training for the catering industry. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1946. 12 pp. 3d. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Un aspect essentiel de l'éducation ouvrière: La formation des cadres syndicaux. By Jean Bruhat. (*In* Revue Française du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Sécurité Sociale, Paris, November 1946, pp. 645–657.)

Survey of workers' training carried on by the French General Confederation of Labor (C. G. T.), including an outline of subjects covered in the courses for training labor members of works committees in industrial and other enterprises, and information on the policy for short-term training courses for technicians and foremen given in a number of local federations and unions.

Employment, Unemployment, and Employment Services

Employment outlook in foundry occupations. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 55 pp., charts, illus. (Bull. No. 880; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, December 1945 and April 1946, with additional data.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Förändringarna i sysselsättningen åren 1940–46. By Per Holm. (*In* Sociala Meddelanden, Nr. 11, Socialstyrelsen, Stockholm, 1946, pp. 831–844.)
Shows changes in employment in Sweden, 1940–46.

I was one of the unemployed. By Max Cohen. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1945. 244 pp. 7s. 6d.
Introduced with a foreword by Sir William Beveridge, this personal account of the vicissitudes of a young worker thrown on the labor market in 1932 vividly portrays the varied evils of unemployment, including effect on family relations, loss of self-respect, effect on habits of work, etc. It also gives an individual's experience with the operation of the system of unemployment compensation then in effect in Great Britain.

Labor exchanges abroad. (*In* Employment Service Review, U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Service, Washington, January 1947, pp. 3–15. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)
Brief descriptions of the employment services, and their history, in five countries—Canada, Chile, Germany, Great Britain, and Japan.

Housing

National housing emergency, 1946–47. By L. B. Wheildon. Washington, (1205 19th Street NW.), Editorial Research Reports, 1946. 20 pp. (Vol. II, 1946, No. 24.) $1.
The Truman housing program is discussed against the background of the Wyatt housing program and its achievements and failures.

The Detroit plan: A program for blight elimination. Detroit, Detroit Housing Commission, 1946. 18 pp., plans, illus.
Simplified outline of Detroit's current experiment in clearing slums.

Elapsed time and cost in residential construction. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 1849; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, September 1946.) Free.

Conversion of existing houses [in Great Britain]. Report of the subcommittee of the Central Housing Advisory Committee, [Ministry of Health]. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1945. 52 pp., plans. 1s. net.

Immigration

The Immigration laws of the United States—an outline. By Albert E. Reitzel. (*In* Virginia Law Review, Charlottesville, November 1946, pp. 1099–1162. $1.)

Immigration of refugees. By Kendrick Lee. Washington (1205 19th Street NW.), Editorial Research Reports, 1946. 14 pp. (Vol. II, 1946, No. 22.) $1.
Review of proposals for liberalizing the immigration policy of the United States or further restricting immigration, and of the respective attitudes of labor unions and other organized groups.

Report of the [Australian] Commonwealth Immigration Advisory Committee. Canberra, 1946. 50 pp.
This report, by a Government-labor-employer committee, describes the trends toward migration to Australia from Great Britain and northern Europe, and submits recommendations of Australian labor and employer groups concerning immigration into their country.

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Injuries and accident causes in the brewing industry, 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 70 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 884.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Studies on explosives and explosions, fiscal year 1945. By Wilbert J. Huff. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1946. 57 pp., bibliography, charts; processed. (Report of investigations, No. 4031.) Free.

Annual summary of injuries in the petroleum industry, for 1945. New York, American Petroleum Institute, Department of Accident Prevention, 1946. 20 pp., chart.

Petroleum safety orders—refining, transportation, and handling—effective July 13, 1946. San Francisco and Los Angeles, California Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Industrial Safety, 1946. 49 pp.

Summary and analysis of accidents on steam railways in the United States subject to the Interstate Commerce Act, calendar year 1945. Washington, U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics, 1946. 118 pp. (Accident bull. No. 114.) 40 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Surface construction without accidents. Boston, American Mutual Liability Insurance Co., 1946. 81 pp., bibliography, forms, illus.

Accident-prevention guide prepared for the use of contractors on various types of street and road jobs or airport runway construction.

Industrial Relations

Arbitration of grievances. By William E. Simkin and Van Dusen Kennedy. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1946. 39 pp. (Bull. No. 82.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Labor relations and the public. Edited by Herman Feldman. (*In* The Annals, Vol. 248, American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, November 1946, pp. 1–198. $2 (paper) or $2.50 (cloth) to nonmembers.)

Selected reading list on industrial relations for supervisors. Pasadena, California Institute of Technology, Industrial Relations Section, October 1946. 8 pp. Single copies free.

Union-management cooperation in production. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, November 1946. 4 pp. (Selected references, No. 12.)

When employees organize: What employers should know and how they can utilize National Labor Relations Board procedures. Deep River, Conn., National Foremen's Institute, Inc., 1946. 33 pp.

Review of labor-management disputes, 1946. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1947. 11 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Labor participation in industrial management in European countries. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 1866; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, November 1946.) Free.

Conflits du travail en France pendant le 2e trimestre de l'année 1946. (*In* Revue Française du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Sécurité Sociale, Paris, October 1946, pp. 624–629.)

Second of a new series of reports compiled from information which labor inspectors are required to furnish to the Ministry of Labor and Social Security. Shows the number of labor conflicts, number of establishments affected, total workers employed in the establishments and number participating in the conflicts, and the number of work-days lost, with considerable detail on duration, origin, and results of the strikes.

"Production control" in Japan. By Beatrice G. Reubens. (*In* Far Eastern Survey, Institute of Pacific Relations, American Council, New York, November 6, 1946, pp. 344–347. 25 cents.)

Discusses a new technique in labor disputes, recently developed by the Japanese labor unions, under which the workers seize and operate the establishments until the disputes are settled.

Industry Reports

Le problème de la main-d'œuvre dans les charbonnages belges. (*In* Revue du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale de Belgique, Brussels, July-August 1946, pp. 729–738, charts.)

Study of manpower, production, and other problems, and of achievements, in the "battle of coal" in Belgium.

Board of Trade working party reports: Furniture. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1946. 209 pp., charts. 3s. 6d. net.

The report gives some attention to labor matters, such as employment, productivity of labor, and welfare and labor standards, in the furniture industry.

Ministry of Fuel and Power, statistical digest, 1945. London, Ministry of Fuel and Power, 1946. 114 pp. (Cmd. 6920.) 2s. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

This issue of the digest contains much material not included in earlier issues, particularly on output and labor force in coal mining. The section on coal mining includes data on size of mines, output, number of workers employed, recruitment and wastage of manpower, age and occupational distribution of workers, attendance and absenteeism, persons killed and injured, overtime, earnings per man-shift and per week from 1938 through 1945, colliery canteens, and pithead baths. Other sections of the report deal, in less detail, with gas and electricity, coke ovens, and petroleum products.

Labor Legislation

Federal labor laws and agencies—a guide for shop stewards and supervisors. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1946. 78 pp. (Bull. No. 79.)

Labor and the law. By Charles O. Gregory. New York, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1946. 467 pp. $5.

Deals with the development of labor-relations law in the United States and the problems involved, with particular reference to the activities of trade unions, collective bargaining under the National Labor Relations Act, and decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court. Each chapter has detailed citations of cases on the topics discussed. The final chapter points out problems of the immediate future.

The law governing labor disputes and collective bargaining [in the United States]—1946 cumulative supplement. By Ludwig Teller. New York, Baker, Voorhis & Co., Inc., 1946. In 3 parts, 132, 323, 202 pp. $15.

Résumé of the proceedings of the thirteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation, [Washington], December 2–4, 1946. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1946. 42 pp. (Bull. No. 85.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Économie et législation industrielles. By Robert Mossé. Aubier and Paris, Éditions Montaigne, [1940]. 402 pp., bibliographical footnotes.

A well-organized study of labor legislation in France in its relation to general economic life, sufficiently comprehensive to form a reference handbook on contemporary social law. Covers relations between employers and employees, including wages, individual labor contracts, etc.; relations between labor groups; employment and unemployment; Government regulation of labor, including hours of work; and certain aspects of social insurance. Contains sections on collective agreements, industrial disputes, and conciliation and arbitration which are of significance today.

A guide to the provisions of the Factories Act, [Great Britain, 1937] regarding hours and holidays of women and young persons. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1946. 12 pp. 2d. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Labor Organizations and Activities

Forty-fourth annual directory of labor organizations in Massachusetts, 1946 (with statistics of membership, 1941–45). Boston, Department of Labor and Industries, 1946. 116 pp. (Labor bull. No. 192; Public doc. No. 15.)

Labor unions and labor policy. By Leo Wolman. (*In* Yale Review, Vol. XXXVI, No. 2, New Haven, Conn., winter 1947, pp. 231–241. $1.)

Critical discussion of trade-union policies and of the causes of present-day labor troubles that stem, in the author's opinion, largely from the National Labor Relations Act. Amendment of this Act and of certain other laws are steps which he believes would lead to improvement in labor relations.

Unionization of professional engineers and chemists. By Herbert R. Northrup. New York, Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1946. 50 pp. (Industrial relations monograph No. 12.) $1.50.

In addition to examining the union movement among professional engineers and chemists, the author attempts to clarify issues involved in collective bargaining with these groups.

Problemas de la unidad obrera en America. By Juan Arévalo and others. Habana, Instituto de Estudios y de Acción Social, 1946. 62 pp. 20 centavos.

Discussion of the proposed inter-American labor organization to be affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

Vida sindical y vida económica en la República Dominicana. By Juan Arévalo and Felipe Zapata. Habana, Instituto de Estudios y de Acción Social, 1946. 50 pp.

The first part of this pamphlet is a report on the labor movement in the Dominican Republic as of late 1945.

The general council's report to the 78th annual [meeting of the British Trades Union] Congress, Brighton, October 21–25, 1946. London, Trades Union Congress, 1946. 254 pp.

Important sections of the report deal with trade unions and the postwar period, education, wages councils, and international developments. The part played by the Trades Union Congress in shaping the new legislation on social insurance and workmen's compensation is told in a section on safety and welfare. The varied and inclusive program of workers' education carried on by the trade unions is described, and a memorandum for the Central Advisory Council for Education (England), submitted by the Trades Union Council, and dealing with trade-union attitudes towards general education, is reproduced in full. Measures taken by the unions on problems arising out of the transition from war to peace, both in Britain and abroad, are discussed.

The labor movement in Italy. By Humbert L. Gualtieri. New York, S. F. Vanni, 1946. 326 pp., bibliography. $5.

Detailed and documented history of the origin and growth of labor organization in Italy from the beginning, in the middle of the nineteenth century, to 1904, covering, among other phases, the work of the early leaders and the evolution of workmen's mutual aid societies, chambers of labor, and farmers' leagues.

Rapport van de commissie tot onderzoek van het vraagstuk van de bedrijfstaksgewijze organisatie der werknemersvakbeweging. Utrecht, Raad van Vakcentralen, 1946. 39 pp.

Report of a committee appointed to study the regrouping of Netherlands trade unions on an industrial basis, which has received the concurrence of the three trade-union federations in that country.

Report of 16th annual conference of South African Trades and Labor Council, Durban, April 22–26, 1946. Johannesburg, South African Trades and Labor Council, 1946. 52 pp.

Medical Care and Health Insurance

Health insurance in the United States. By Nathan Sinai, Odin W. Anderson, Melvin L. Dollar. New York, Commonwealth Fund, 1946. 115 pp., bibliography. $1.50.

The authors trace the movement for health insurance in the United States since 1910, and the attitudes of government, professional, and lay groups. Characteristic features and problems of voluntary plans, as exemplified by the Blue Cross hospital plans and plans sponsored by medical societies, are analyzed and the question raised as to whether such programs can face and overcome their difficulties rapidly enough to meet the demand for a national health-insurance program.

Cash sickness benefits. Fourth report of the New Jersey State Commission on Postwar Economic Welfare. Trenton, 1946. 68 pp., charts.

The commission was instructed to make a study of an unemployment-sickness compensation program for the State and to consider a proposed act for a publicly "operated" system as a starting point. In this report it recommends a publicly "supervised" plan instead, and submits draft bills and other data. A statutory minimum scale of benefits would be established within the framework of private enterprise.

Medical care for the people of New York State. Report of New York State Legislative Commission on Medical Care. [Albany], 1946. 504 pp., maps; processed.

Contains majority and minority reports and recommendations of commission members; reports on studies of medical care and medical insurance, conducted by the director of the survey—a comprehensive body of factual material in both public and private fields; and the results of a survey of public opinion on medical insurance, by Surveys, Inc.

A reasonably comprehensive system of compulsory health insurance, to be supported by contributions of from 3 to 4 percent or individual or family income, was regarded by the commission as feasible.

Study shows prepay plan coverage. (*In* Medical Economics, Rutherford, N. J., December 1946, pp. 69–73, charts. 25 cents.)

Enrollment in 51 prepayment medical-care programs approved by medical societies in the United States was over 4 million, and participating physicians numbered 75,000, as of September 1, 1946, according to this study by Medical Economics. Individual plans are listed by location, year of organization, enrollment, and doctor participation.

Occupations and Occupational Adjustment

Changing your work? By J. Gustav White. New York, Association Press, 1946. 210 pp., bibliography. $2.50.

Against a background of extended experience as a vocational counselor, the author discusses the various factors that should be considered by those desirous of changing jobs, and makes suggestions as to methods of procedure. Many illustrative case histories are given throughout the book.

Job education: Finding and getting a job through planning. By Warren E. Benson. Boston, Bellman Publishing Co., Inc., 1946. 32 pp., bibliography. (Vocational and professional monographs, No. 75.) $1.

Concluding number in this series of monographs.

Ohio State and occupations. By Occupational Opportunities Service, Ohio State University. Columbus, Ohio State University Press, 1945. 198 pp. $1.50.

The duties of each of a long list of occupations in a wide range of fields are described, to assist students in planning their future training and careers.

Office Workers

Administering the office union contract. New York, American Management Association, 1946. 30 pp. (Office management series, No. 116.)

Incentives and work standards in the office. New York, American Management Association, 1946. 30 pp. (Office management series, No. 115.)

One of the three articles in the pamphlet is on "The impact of wage rates on the labor market," by A. Ford Hinrichs, formerly Acting Commissioner of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Know your white-collar worker. New York, Labor Relations Institute, 1946. 51 pp.

Lists grievances and reasons for discontent among white-collar workers and makes suggestions looking toward good employee relations and efficient office procedure.

Vacations for office workers. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policy-Holders Service Bureau, Group Insurance Division, [1947?]. 44 pp.

Based on a survey of vacation policies in 1946 for office employees of 102 companies in a wide range of fields.

Wages of office workers in metalworking industries, January 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 7 pp. (Bull. No. 886; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1946.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Production and Productivity of Labor

The facts of productivity. By Ewan Clague. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 11 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Address by U. S. Commissioner of Labor Statistics at annual meeting of Society for the Advancement of Management, New York, December 6, 1946.

Productivity and progress. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1946. 35 pp., charts.

Productivity is discussed in relation to its effects on national well-being, particularly on the wages, working hours, and living standards of workers. The study emphasizes the view that rising productivity has been a product of a "free" economy.

Social Security

Proposals for health, old-age, and unemployment insurance—a comparison of the 1943 and 1945 Wagner-Murray bills. By Earl E. Muntz. New York and Washington, American Enterprise Association, Inc., 1946. 87 pp. (National economic problems, No. 418.) 50 cents.

Contains also a comparative summary of the two bills and the Social Security Act.

Social insurance financing in relation to consumer income and expenditures. By S. J. Mushkin, Anne Scitovszky, Leila N. Small. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1946. 105 pp., charts; processed. (Bureau memorandum No. 63.)

Analysis of the financial effects on the national economy of insurance programs under the present Social Security Act (prior to amendment in 1946) and under a more comprehensive plan (proposed in the Wagner-Murray-Dingell bills of 1943 and 1945). Under various assumptions of employment, national income, and wages, estimates are made for an early year in the 1950's and for a later period. Contributions and benefits are distributed by income class, etc.

A guide to the National Insurance Act, [Great Britain], 1946. By Alban Gordon. London, Labor Party, 1946. 36 pp. 6d.

Simple explanation of the principal provisions of the new social-security system in Great Britain, showing coverage, types of benefits, contributions, and methods of financing and administering the Act. A historical section reviews the development of such legislation since the Elizabethan Poor Law.

Bases de la seguridad social en Guatemala. By Oscar Barahona Streber and J. Walter Dittel. Ciudad de Guatemala, 1946. 215 pp., charts.
Detailed study of social-security development in Guatemala.

Social security monetary benefits and war pensions in New Zealand (1946 edition). Wellington, Social Security Department, 1946. 51 pp.

Codigo de seguridad social, [México], comentado y concordado. México, D. F., Universidad Nacional, Instituto de Derecho Comparado, 1946. 203 pp.

International action toward social security for seamen. By Ida C. Merriam. (*In* Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Washington, August 1946, pp. 17-28. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)
Discusses minimum standards for social security for seamen adopted (in conventions and recommendations) by the maritime session of the International Labor Conference at Seattle in June 1946. Existing provisions for seamen on United States ships are also considered.

Wages and Hours of Labor

The significance of current trends in prices, wages, and productivity. By Ewan Clague. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1947. 11 pp.; mimeographed. Free.
Address by U. S. Commissioner of Labor Statistics at joint meeting of Chicago Chamber of Commerce and Chicago chapter of American Statistical Association, January 9, 1947.

The Nathan report: An appraisal of Robert R. Nathan's "A national wage policy for 1947." New York, National Association of Manufacturers, Research Department, December 1946. 32 pp.; mimeographed.
A brief note on the Nathan report was carried in the Monthly Labor Review for January 1947 in the section on "Recent publications of labor interest" (under wages and hours of labor).

A second round of wage increases—prelude to price increases: The fallacies of the Nathan-CIO assertions. By Emerson P. Schmidt. (*In* Business Action, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, December 23, 1946, pp. 4-6.)

Reconversion and the Fair Labor Standards Act. Annual report of Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, U. S. Department of Labor, fiscal year 1946. Washington, 1947. 98 pp., charts; mimeographed.
Review of the problems and work of the Divisions, during and since the war, in administering the Fair Labor Standards and Public Contracts Acts, with recommendations by the Administrator. One of his specific recommendations, of particular interest at this time, is that the Fair Labor Standards Act be amended to include a 3-year statute of limitations with respect to employee suits for back wages and damages.

Average hourly earnings in selected industries and occupations, by region, 1945–46. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 80 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Trends in urban wage rates, April 1946. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 12 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 891; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, November 1946.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Union wages and hours in the baking industry, July 1, 1945. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 64 pp., chart. (Bull. No. 871; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, March 1946, with additional data.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Employment and earnings in the Philadelphia knitted-outerwear industry, 1944 and 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 6 pp. (Bull. No. 887; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1946.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wages and employment in the public utility industries. By Edward Neuner, Jr. (*In* Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics, Madison, Wis., November 1946, pp. 363–380, charts. $1.50.)

Data on hours, earnings, and employment in a group of industries subject to regulatory commissions as to rates charged consumers. The author emphasizes the effects of the relative inflexibility of wages.

Salaries, as of August 1, 1946, in St. Louis social and health agencies, according to standard job descriptions. St. Louis, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, Research Bureau, 1946. 189 pp., charts; processed. $1.

Data on salary changes in major fields of work since January 1, 1941, are included.

Salaries and working conditions of firemen in various Virginia fire departments, [1946]. Richmond, League of Virginia Municipalities, 1946. 13 pp.; mimeographed. (Report No. 296.) 50 cents (free to Virginia municipal officials).

Wage rates and hours of labor in Canada, 1944. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1946. 105 pp. (Report No. 27; issued as a supplement to Labor Gazette, October 1946.)

Index numbers show the trend of wage rates for certain major industry groups from 1901 to 1944. Money wage rates are given for occupations in manufacturing, mining, logging, construction, transportation, and telephone communication, 1943 and 1944, and in retail and wholesale trade and certain services, 1944, together with data on hours of labor in 1944. An appendix gives wages in agriculture, 1943–45.

General Reports

Who's who in labor. New York, Dryden Press, 1946. 480 pp. $12.

The first issue of a new labor who's who, containing authorized biographies of the men and women who lead labor in the United States and Canada and of those who deal with labor, together with a glossary of labor terminology, a chronology of labor legislation, a directory of the labor press, a list of educational directors, a list of the international labor unions, and the constitutions of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

Basic statistics on Puerto Rico. Compiled and edited by S. L. Descartes. Washington, D. C., Office of Puerto Rico, 1946. 103 pp.

Includes statistics, for various dates, of employment, wages and hours, family incomes and expenditures, prices, and food supply and consumption.

Mensaje del Excelentisimo Señor Presidente de la Nación, Gral. Edelmiro J. Farrell, y memoria del segundo año de labor, segundo aniversario del gobierno de la revolución, 1943–4 de junio–1945, República Argentina. [Buenos Aires, 1945?] 477 pp.

Contains a summary of the Farrell regime's achievements in the fields of labor and social welfare.

National economy of Argentina. By John F. Hennessey, Jr. Washington, Pan American Union, 1946. 98 pp., bibliography. (Commercial Pan America, July–August 1946.)

Index numbers of employment and wages paid in leading industries, 1941–45, of cost of living, 1938–45, and of wholesale prices in Buenos Aires, 1938–45, are among the data presented.

Labor report, [Australia], 1944. Canberra, Bureau of Census and Statistics, 1946. 161 pp. (No. 34.) 3s.6d. net, Commonwealth Government Printer, Canberra.

Covers employment and unemployment, wages and hours, unemployment and sickness benefits, retail and wholesale prices, industrial disputes, industrial accidents, and labor organizations. Some of the index numbers of retail prices and data on employment and unemployment are brought down to 1945.

Anuario general de estadística, Colombia, 1944. Bogota, Contraloría General de la República, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, 1946. 642 pp.

This general statistical yearbook includes data on cost of living in Bogotá and Medellín, cooperatives, industrial production, immigration, and emigration, and indexes of prices and wages.

La Fédération Française—contacts et civilisations d'outre-mer. By Jean de la Roche and Jean Gottman. Montreal, Éditions de l'Arbre, 1945. 642 pp., illus.

Comprehensive survey of the overseas areas of the French nation, covering geographic and human characteristics, economic life, administrative organization, and political and social problems. Includes much data not available elsewhere within two covers.

Medical science and physical education in industry. Fourth part of interim report by Research Board for the Correlation of Medical Science and Physical Education, [London?]. London, Ling Physical Education Association, 1946. 88 pp. 2s.

Deals with various questions pertaining to industrial workers in Great Britain, such as nutrition (canteens, etc.), vocational orientation, recreation, health services, and rehabilitation of substandard and disabled workers.

Memoria de labores, septiembre de 1945—agosto de 1946. México, D. F. Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, 1946. 347 pp.

Yearbook of the Mexican Department of Labor detailing accomplishments of its various branches and giving labor statistics.

Report of New Zealand Department of Labor for year ended March 31, 1946. Wellington, 1946. 45 pp. 1s.

Information given includes minimum-wage rates for various occupations, operations under different labor laws, new legislation, and names of registered employer and worker organizations.

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