

Monthly Labor Review

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This Issue in Brief . . .

TABLES SHOWING how people of various income groups spend their money hold a fascination even for persons who abhor statistics generally. *FAMILY INCOME AND EXPENDITURES IN 1947* (p. 389) is based on studies made in Washington, D. C., Richmond, Va., and Manchester, N. H. Some of the findings: Washington—For families with incomes under \$10,000, food took 31.5 percent, but the \$1,000–\$2,000 group spent nearly 43 percent to feed itself (the corresponding figure for Negroes was about 46 percent); Richmond—Housing expenditures for Negro families were generally less, proportionately, than those for whites, the opposite of the Washington situation; Manchester—The range in the proportion of income spent for food was narrower, despite higher prices, than in the other two cities, and among single consumers there was an average net deficit of \$129 as contrasted with Washington and Richmond.

Social workers as a rule are among the persistent users of income and expenditure data. In *SALARIES OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN MICHIGAN* (p. 398) some 2,000 of them have their own wages scrutinized. In November 1948 they averaged \$3,100 per year in salary, but about 1 out of every 8 men received salaries of \$5,000 or more. Supervisors and executives in private agencies on the average were better paid than their counterparts working for government agencies. Those with long-term experience or graduate-study credit in social work tended to be the better paid. The workweek was typically 40 hours and paid vacations and sick leave were the almost universal practice. The workers studied expressed major dissatisfaction concerning provision for pay increases, reimbursement for professional expenses, and promotion opportunities.

The *SOUTH KOREAN WAGE EARNER SINCE LIBERATION* (p. 401) presents a plight which commands the attention of both students of expendi-

ture statistics and social workers. While “unemployment” in Oriental society has connotations differing from our own concepts, the best local estimates indicate from 1 to 2 million out of work in a labor force of unknown dimensions but probably exceeding 5 million. The wages of the family head account for only about one-fourth of the required family income. The deficit is made up by other working members of the family, illegal bonuses, loans, black-market activity, and sales of possessions. Indeed, the wages of the chief breadwinner were inadequate to win the bread: food constituted 42 percent of family expenditures. Actually, the main wage earner received barely enough to cover the family expenditures for fuel and utilities, which in South Korea account for more than a fifth of the family budget. While the Military Government between 1945 and 1948 did institute many labor reforms, including child labor regulations and limitations on working hours, the effectiveness of labor’s right to organize and bargain has been impeded by general preoccupation with the struggle against Communist control of the unions.

AFTER EVEN A BRIEF GLANCE at the bleak Korean situation, what Americans have grown to consider merely routine advances in living standards take on aspects of near-opulence. Consider (entirely apart from the question of absolute and relative improvement) just the evidence of progress implicit in *WAGE CHRONOLOGY No. 5: CHRYSLER CORPORATION, 1939–48* (p. 411); or in the 15-point *LEGISLATIVE PROGRAM OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR* (p. 421), coupled with the more specialized *ADVISORY COUNCIL REPORT ON UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE* (p. 422) which would bring job insurance coverage to 7 million additional workers.

Progress in standards is often the result of joint labor-management action. The most fruitful ventures in this type of cooperation have been made in industrial safety. An excellent example is found in *JOINT SAFETY PROGRAM: A CASE STUDY IN COOPERATION* (p. 430). The Textile Workers Union of American (CIO) and the Forstmann Woolen Co. in a combined effort reduced accident frequency by 84 percent. The article not only points up the results of the program but gives the organizational and operational detail which made it work.

The Labor Month in Review

ECONOMIC CHANGES during March 1949 were for the most part relatively small but, on balance, were probably still on the down side. The unemployment situation was largely unchanged. Total employment increased with seasonal expansion in agriculture and the outdoor industries. Production was lower than in February although output of the important heavy durable goods industries continued near capacity. Prices, on the average, were relatively stable between February and March, although many decreases in industrial prices were being reported. The Housing and Rent Act of 1949, approved on March 30, extends rent controls to June 30, 1950. No final action was taken on Federal labor legislation.

Average earnings were little changed in February or March. Except for the railroad settlement, wage agreements reported in March were mainly for small groups of workers. The outstanding settlement was the long-standing dispute between the railroads and the nonoperating unions. The 2-week "memorial holiday" of the coal miners was the most important work stoppage.

Unemployment Unchanged

Although scattered reports of small-scale layoffs continued to be reported during March, the upward trend in unemployment noted since the fall months appeared to have been halted. At slightly less than 3.2 million, unemployment in early March was approximately 50,000 less than a month earlier, according to the Census Bureau's Monthly Report on the Labor Force. However, the March level was more than 700,000 above that of a year ago.

The seasonal expansion of employment in agriculture and other outdoor industries, where weather conditions permitted, counterbalanced the effect of further contraction in other fields of activity. Total employment in March increased by almost half a million to 57.6 million—300,000 more than a year ago. Most of the gain occurred in farm employment, which at 7.4 million was about one-half million more than in March 1948. Nonfarm employment, at 50.3 millions, was

slightly above the February level but somewhat lower than a year ago.

Wage Developments

Reports on hours and earnings in manufacturing for February show little change from January. Gross weekly earnings in manufacturing as a whole were down slightly to \$54.25, mostly as a result of shorter workweeks in a number of industries. Lower weekly hours were reported in February in establishments in the iron and steel, automobile, nonferrous metals, and lumber groups. This resulted in a 50-cent decline in average weekly earnings for the durable goods group of industries to \$58. In the nondurable goods group, expanded seasonal activity in apparel and leather increased average hours from 38.7 to 39.0 and average weekly earnings by about 20 cents to \$50.30.

The major union contracts for 1949 have not yet been reached for negotiation, but a fair number of new agreements, generally covering smaller groups of workers, were signed during the month. Some recent contracts have incorporated health and welfare plans, provisions which are currently being given more emphasis in union bargaining. Wage increases were reported in March for building-service workers in New York City, construction workers in some smaller cities, and workers in some establishments in the printing, chemical, metalworking, trucking, air transportation, and public utility fields.

Industrial Relations

One of the most important union contracts in American railroad history was signed during the month by the railroads and the 16 nonoperating unions, representing almost 1,000,000 workers. The dispute which had lasted almost a year, was settled on the terms recommended by the Presidential fact-finding board on December 17, 1948. After the parties failed to accept the board's recommendations, negotiations were resumed and in the final stage of the settlement the parties agreed to ask the board members to reconvene to mediate the unsettled issues.

Employees affected under the contract will receive an hourly pay increase of 7 cents, retroactive to October 1, 1948. On September 1, 1949, the workers will go on a 40-hour week at the same pay as for the present 48 hour week.

The only work stoppage of national importance

during March was the "memorial" holiday taken by the United Mine Workers. This stoppage was largely responsible for increasing time lost through work stoppages from 650,000 man-days in February to about 3,000,000 during March. Acting under a clause in its contract permitting memorial periods, the union ordered all miners east of the Mississippi River to observe a 2-week memorial period beginning March 14. The statement of the UMW president, John L. Lewis, addressed to the miners, protested the appointment of James Boyd as director of the Department of the Interior's Bureau of Mines and asked them to mourn the injuries and deaths of 55,000 miners during 1948.

Stoppages in New York City affected port warehouse workers, employees of the Railway Express Agency, and grave diggers in two cemeteries. The operations of the Wabash Railroad were interrupted for a week by a strike of 3,500 workers, members of the 4 unaffiliated operating railway brotherhoods.

Federal labor legislation was still under discussion in the Congress. The Administration-sponsored labor bill which would repeal the Taft-Hartley Act and reenact the Wagner Act with amendments was reported out of the committees of both Houses of Congress without change. Amendments to the Fair Labor Standards Act which, among other things, would raise the minimum wage to 75 cents an hour, were reported out by the House Committee on Education and Labor. A bill for a labor extension service was reported out by the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare.

Rent Controls Extended

The new rent control act provides that rent ceilings shall be set at levels which yield a fair net operating income. The act also allows individual cities, towns, or villages to terminate rent control in their own locality upon approval of the Governor. State legislatures may also decontrol rents in an entire State or any part of a State. The Housing Expediter is given power to regulate evictions, authority which was not in the 1947 and 1948 acts.

Price developments during March were marked by comparative stability in retail food prices other than fresh fruits and vegetables, which advanced markedly. There was also a more widespread, although small, downward movement of industrial

prices. The month ended with prices of farm products about unchanged from the beginning, but with wholesale food prices and prices of other commodities fractionally lower. Textile products again showed a significant decline over the month, while metals and metal products (particularly nonferrous) and building materials prices also moved downward.

The normal seasonal upward movement in retail food prices was intensified by the effect of this year's bad weather on the winter crop of fresh fruits and vegetables.

In the largest monthly decrease recorded since the Bureau of Labor Statistics began to calculate its consumers' price index on a monthly basis in late 1940, the index declined 1.1 percent between January 15 and February 15, 1949. After five consecutive months of decrease the index on February 15 was 169.0 percent of the 1935-39 average, 0.9 percent higher than a year ago, but still 71 percent above the prewar level of August 1939. Chiefly responsible for the decrease from January to February was a drop of 2.5 percent in food prices. There were small declines for apparel and housefurnishings.

The substantial drop in food prices, much more than the usual seasonal decline, marked the seventh consecutive monthly decrease. The food index on February 15 was 199.7 percent of the 1935-39 average, 8 percent below the July 1948 peak, and 2½ percent lower than a year ago. Significant reductions were reported in the prices of eggs, fats and oils, and various types of meats. Fresh fruits and vegetable prices rose more than seasonally because of continued cold weather in early crop areas.

The index of apparel prices declined 0.7 percent from mid-January to mid-February. Continued price decreases for many articles of cotton apparel, including work clothing, reflected general declines in the cotton market. There were further price reductions for women's nylon hose, rayon house-dresses and slips. Apparel prices in February 1949 were lower than in January in 8 of the 10 cities surveyed both months and lower than in November 1948 in all 18 cities surveyed.

Prices of housefurnishings averaged 0.5 percent lower than in January. Furniture sales were featured in February all over the country, reflecting plentiful supplies and consumer resistance to high presale prices.

Family Income and Expenditures in 1947

Analysis of Spending Patterns by Income Group
for Families of Two or More Persons and Single Consumers
in Washington, D. C., Richmond, Va., and Manchester, N. H.

Helen M. Humes¹

INFORMATION ON 1947 family expenditures and savings in relation to incomes,² in Washington, Richmond, and Manchester, was obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the spring of 1948. The surveys included as economic families, persons living together during 1947 who pooled incomes and shared expenses, and individuals who lived independently as single consumers.

Each family covered gave a detailed report of its expenditures and savings for the year and reported its income from all sources, as well as deductions from income for items such as taxes, retirement, and insurance. In analysis of the expenditure information, families were classified by the amount of total net income (after payment of personal taxes—Federal, State, and local income, poll, and personal property—and occupational expenses), since this most nearly represents spendable income. Because of differences in living arrangements and spending patterns between families of two or more persons and single consumers, data for the two groups are summarized separately.

¹ Of the Division of Prices and Cost of Living.

For a description of the procedures used in these surveys, see p. 434 of this issue.

² Beginning with 1945 data, the Bureau each year has made studies of income and expenditures in 3 different cities of the 34 covered by the consumers' price index. The purpose is to obtain data necessary to check prices of goods and services, and weighting patterns, used in calculation of the index. Data for 1945 (for Birmingham, Ala., Indianapolis, Ind., and Portland, Oreg.) are published in the Monthly Labor Review, June 1948 (pp. 622-626). Data for 1946 (for Milwaukee, Wis., Scranton, Pa., and Savannah, Ga.) are available in mimeographed tables. Expenditure surveys for 1948 data are currently being conducted in Detroit, Mich., Denver, Colo., and Houston, Tex.

In 1947, according to these surveys, 97 percent of families of two or more persons in the Washington and Richmond areas had incomes under \$10,000 after payment of personal taxes, and 96 percent of such families in Manchester had incomes under \$7,500.³ Net incomes in 1947 of families with incomes under \$10,000 averaged \$4,610 in Washington⁴ and \$3,594 in Richmond; families with incomes under \$7,500 in Manchester averaged \$3,408.

Family income represents the sum of all types of income received by the family's members during 1947: wage and salary earnings, entrepreneurial net income or withdrawals, and non-earned income from all sources (exclusive of inheritances, large gifts, and lump-sum insurance settlements). Washington and Richmond families with net incomes under \$10,000 had averages of 1.7 and 1.6 earners per family, respectively. Manchester families with net incomes under \$7,500 had an average of 1.8 earners per family.

These families, averaging 3.3 persons in each city, had money receipts from such sources as inheritances, lump-sum insurance settlements, terminal leave payments, etc., amounting to \$94 in

³ Both income and expenditure data obtained from the very-high-income families in surveys of this type are subject, it has been found, to substantial errors of under-reporting. The varied expenditure patterns of such families make results obtained from small samples open to serious question as to reliability of the averages to represent all such families. Therefore, the combined income and expenditure averages in this report relate only to families with net incomes under \$10,000 in Washington, D. C., and Richmond, Va., and to families with net incomes under \$7,500 in Manchester, N. H.

⁴ For discussion of Washington income data, see p. 434.

Washington, \$88 in Richmond, and \$40 in Manchester. Washington and Richmond families reported net surpluses (i. e., increase in savings or decrease in liabilities) of \$36 and \$260, respectively, for the year, but Manchester families reported an average deficit (i. e., increased indebtedness or use of previous savings) of \$148. Although families on the average had net surpluses in Washington and Richmond, data for individual income classes show that net deficits were reported for all income classes under \$6,000 in Washington and for income classes between \$1,000 and \$3,000 in Richmond. In Manchester, net deficits for the year were reported for all income classes under \$5,000.

The deficits resulted in part from heavy purchases of durable goods such as automobiles and household equipment, and in part from higher prices paid for items of day-to-day family maintenance, such as food and clothing. The relatively small deficits reported in Richmond are in line with results obtained in previous surveys in southern cities, where credit facilities for large purchases are not generally available to the low-income groups.

Substantial amounts were paid by families in these cities during the year in income, poll, and personal-property taxes, an average of \$503 in Washington, \$368 in Richmond, and \$279 in Manchester. Also, as is typical of American families, substantial payments for life-insurance premiums were reported by families in all income classes. Average premium payments for families with incomes under \$10,000 were \$297 in Washington and \$210 in Richmond, and for families with incomes under \$7,500 in Manchester, \$146. Insurance payments are given as expenditures in the accompanying tables, although they are in a sense savings. If they were so classified, some part of the payments might be added to the surplus or subtracted from the deficit in evaluating a family's financial status for the year.

Washington and Richmond families gave an average of \$214 and \$200, respectively, for gifts to persons outside the family and contributions to social, educational, religious, and similar organizations. Manchester families averaged \$124 for these items.

Current Consumption Expenditures

Family expenditure patterns in 1947 reflected the general economic conditions of that year which marked the transition from wartime to postwar economy. Price controls and war production shortages no longer existed, but they had been replaced by persistently increasing prices and shortages caused by reconversion problems and unprecedented demand for consumer goods of all kinds. In 1947, incomes reached new high levels, consumers held substantial amounts of liquid savings, and, toward the end of the year, consumer credit controls were relaxed. All these factors, combined with the pressure of earlier deferment of expenditures, contributed to the unusually large expenditures for automobiles, housefurnishings and equipment, etc., and to the substantial deficits reported.




The 1947 expenditure data for these three cities are the Bureau's first information on postwar expenditure patterns of city families. The last such data for these cities were obtained for 1933 and 1934.⁵ Any comparison of 1947 expenditures with information for 1934 must take into consideration the general economic conditions prevailing in the respective periods. In contrast to the conditions in 1947, the year of 1934 was characterized by low incomes and a high rate of unemployment. It was also a period when supplies of low-priced goods exceeded demand.

In order to evaluate properly differences in the expenditure patterns shown by the two surveys, comparisons must be made for families at comparable economic levels. The economic conditions prevailing at the time of the two surveys make this difficult. Because of increases in incomes, and unequal rises in retail prices of various consumption items, comparison of data for families of the same income class results in comparing families that have very different relative positions in the income scale or differ widely in occupational and other characteristics, such as family size, ages of members, or number of earners. For example,

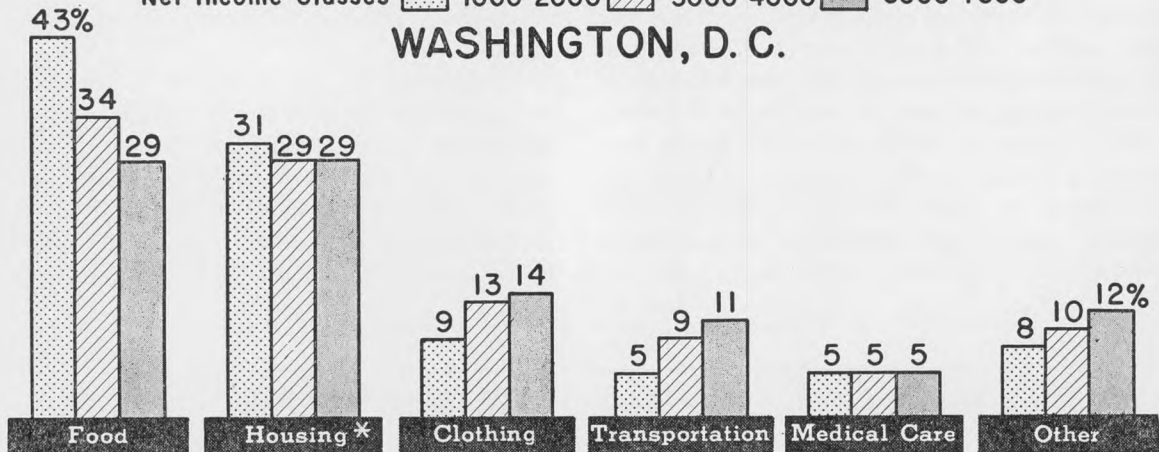
⁵ For information covering Federal employees in Washington, D. C., for 1933, see *Changes in Cost of Living of Federal Employees in the District of Columbia*, Monthly Labor Review, July 1934; covering Richmond, Va., for 1934, see *Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in Twelve Cities of the South—BLS Bulletin No. 640*; covering Manchester, N. H., for 1934, see *Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in the North Atlantic Region—BLS Bulletin No. 637*.

Spending Patterns of Families in Three Cities, 1947, in Selected Income Classes

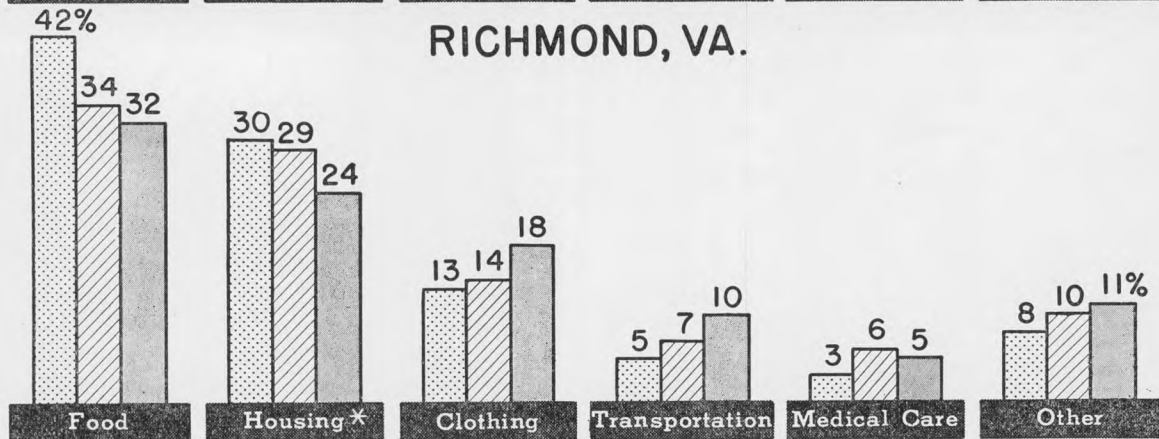
Percent of Total Expenditures for Current Consumption Allocated to Major Groups of Goods and Services

Net Income Classes  \$1000-2000  \$3000-4000  \$6000-7500

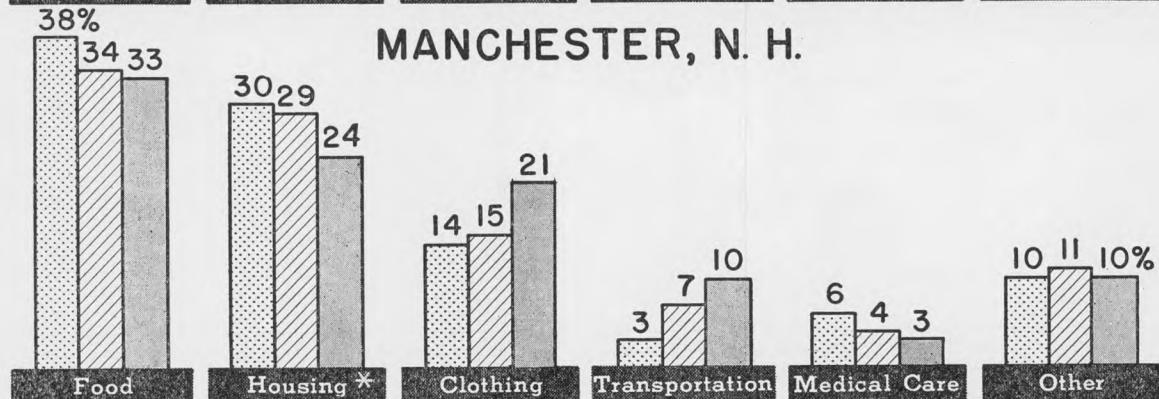
WASHINGTON, D. C.



RICHMOND, VA.



MANCHESTER, N. H.



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Labor Statistics

*Includes housing, fuel, light, refrigeration, household operation, housefurnishing.

many families of full-time employed wage earners in 1934-36 had incomes of less than \$1,000. In 1947, because of high wages, good employment conditions, longer workweek, and increase in the number of family members who were employed, practically no wage-earner families were in the less-than-\$1,000-income class except casual earners.

The problem of determining 1947 economic levels equivalent to those of 1934 is not merely a matter of finding an appropriate means of deflating 1947 incomes to 1934 dollars (although this operation presents certain technical difficulties). The deflating technique would provide a way of comparing expenditure patterns of 1947 families with expenditures of 1934 families having equiva-

lent purchasing power; but it does not follow that the two groups would have comparable economic status. Both income distribution and income level have changed since 1934, and the significant changes in employment, occupation, ages, and family size and composition, at various income levels, have affected patterns of consumption and expenditure.

In addition to the economic factors affecting comparison of data for the two surveys, important differences existed between survey procedures used in the two periods. The 1934 studies in Richmond and Manchester were limited to families of employed wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers, and the 1933 study in Washing-

TABLE 1.—Washington, D. C.—All families of 2 or more persons: Average money income, expenditures, and savings, by net income class, 1947

Item	All families: Annual money income after personal taxes ¹									
	Under \$1,000	\$1,000 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$4,000	\$4,000 to \$5,000	\$5,000 to \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$7,500	\$7,500 to \$10,000	\$10,000 and over	Under \$10,000
Percent of families in each class.....	0.3	5.1	16.5	19.8	14.4	18.1	15.0	7.7	3.1	96.9
Average family size ²	(*)	2.7	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.8	4.0	3.3
Expenditures for current consumption.....	(*)	\$1,507	\$2,713	\$3,396	\$4,414	\$4,984	\$5,576	\$7,222	\$8,946	\$4,257
Food ³	(*)	641	1,048	1,170	1,361	1,520	1,591	1,987	2,142	1,342
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	(*)	351	539	646	726	856	918	960	1,624	729
Household operation.....	(*)	82	132	165	253	294	357	524	828	250
Furnishings and equipment.....	(*)	31	76	189	155	234	346	469	519	210
Clothing.....	(*)	128	287	439	542	710	793	1,091	1,240	567
Automobile.....	(*)	24	131	182	553	490	470	1,010	860	388
Other transportation.....	(*)	50	77	105	94	125	147	142	106	108
Medical care.....	(*)	81	185	158	236	240	291	277	390	215
Personal care.....	(*)	35	65	85	95	117	126	172	223	99
Recreation.....	(*)	29	65	119	224	197	280	327	523	176
Tobacco.....	(*)	38	51	60	54	75	64	90	81	62
Reading.....	(*)	13	23	35	40	45	48	68	60	39
Education.....	(*)	3	12	13	27	30	58	79	114	29
Other.....	(*)	1	22	30	54	51	87	26	236	43
Gifts and contributions.....	(*)	50	70	134	199	268	365	455	693	214
Insurance.....	(*)	101	130	198	303	362	434	621	801	297
Net surplus.....	(*)	0	0	0	0	0	511	504	936	36
Personal taxes ⁵	(*)	55	131	284	428	645	998	1,019	1,495	503
Money income ¹	(*)	1,525	2,598	3,529	4,472	5,429	6,741	8,104	11,334	4,610
Other money receipts ⁶	(*)	11	36	31	125	38	82	530	0	94
Net deficit.....	(*)	100	165	48	164	81	0	0	0	0
Balancing difference ⁷	(*)	-22	-114	-120	-155	-66	-63	-168	-42	-100
Percent of expenditures for current consumption.....	(*)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food ³	(*)	42.5	38.7	34.4	30.9	30.5	28.6	27.5	23.9	31.5
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	(*)	23.3	19.9	19.0	16.5	17.2	16.5	13.3	18.1	17.1
Household operation.....	(*)	5.4	4.9	4.9	5.7	5.9	6.4	7.3	9.3	5.9
Furnishings and equipment.....	(*)	2.1	2.8	5.5	3.5	4.7	6.2	6.5	5.8	4.9
Clothing.....	(*)	8.5	10.6	12.9	12.3	14.3	14.2	15.1	13.9	13.3
Automobile.....	(*)	1.6	4.8	5.4	12.5	9.8	8.4	14.0	9.6	9.1
Other transportation.....	(*)	3.3	2.8	3.1	2.1	2.5	2.6	2.0	1.2	2.6
Medical care.....	(*)	5.4	6.8	4.7	5.3	4.8	5.2	3.8	4.4	5.1
Personal care.....	(*)	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.3
Recreation.....	(*)	1.9	2.4	3.5	5.1	4.0	5.0	4.5	5.8	4.1
Tobacco.....	(*)	2.5	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.2	.9	1.5
Reading.....	(*)	.9	.8	1.0	.9	.9	.9	.9	.7	.9
Education.....	(*)	.2	.4	.4	.6	.6	1.0	1.1	1.3	.7
Other.....	(*)	.1	.8	.9	1.2	1.0	1.6	.4	2.6	1.0

¹ Families are classified by total money income from wages, salaries, self-employment, receipts from roomers and boarders, rents, interest, dividends, etc., after payment of personal taxes (Federal and State income, poll, and personal property) and occupational expenses.

² Family size is based on equivalent persons, with 52 weeks of family membership considered equivalent to 1 person, 26 weeks equivalent to 0.5 person, etc.

³ Includes expenditures for alcoholic beverages.

⁴ Includes rents for tenant-occupied dwellings and for lodging away from home, and current operation expenses of home owners. Excludes principal payments on mortgages on owned homes.

⁵ Includes Federal and State income, poll, and personal property taxes. Excludes inheritance and gift taxes.

⁶ Includes inheritances, large gifts, lump-sum settlements from accident or health policies, and terminal leave payments received upon discharge from the armed forces, which were not considered current income.

⁷ Represents the average net difference between reported money receipts and reported money disbursements (i. e. money income, other money receipts, and net deficit minus expenditures for current consumption, gifts and contributions, insurance, and net surplus).

*Number of families in this income class not sufficient for reliable average.

TABLE 2.—Washington, D. C.—White and Negro families of 2 or more persons: Average money income, expenditures, and savings, by net income class, 1947

Item	White families: Annual money income after personal taxes										Negro families: Annual money income after personal taxes ¹					
	Under \$1,000	\$1,000 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$4,000	\$4,000 to \$5,000	\$5,000 to \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$7,500	\$7,500 to \$10,000	\$10,000 and over	Under \$10,000	Under \$1,000	\$1,000 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$4,000	\$4,000 and over	Under \$4,000
Percent of families in each class	(†)	1.9	11.7	18.0	16.5	20.4	18.4	9.2	3.9	96.1	1.5	17.9	35.8	26.9	17.9	82.1
Average family size ²	(*)	2.5	3.6	3.1	3.4	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.0	3.3	2.8	3.2	4.1	4.0	3.4	
Expenditures for current consumption	(*)	\$1,759	\$2,896	\$3,475	\$4,468	\$4,996	\$5,592	\$7,329	\$8,946	\$4,636	(*)	\$1,400	\$2,474	\$3,196	\$4,498	\$2,439
Food ³	(*)	638	1,063	1,167	1,372	1,491	1,594	2,010	2,142	1,410	(*)	642	1,029	1,178	1,541	979
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	(*)	345	567	634	751	875	927	960	1,624	779	(*)	353	501	681	614	522
Household operation	(*)	155	155	177	264	300	361	531	828	284	(*)	51	103	134	215	100
Furnishings and equipment	(*)	68	96	192	155	222	344	488	519	235	(*)	16	49	182	259	85
Clothing	(*)	149	265	439	537	684	797	1,097	1,240	612	(*)	119	315	440	793	308
Automobile	(*)	56	173	214	544	539	480	1,052	860	463	(*)	10	76	97	245	67
Other transportation	(*)	59	73	105	99	120	147	145	106	114	(*)	46	82	106	116	81
Medical care	(*)	149	266	185	247	249	275	274	390	244	(*)	52	80	88	239	75
Personal care	(*)	33	62	82	95	116	127	174	223	103	(*)	36	68	94	111	68
Recreation	(*)	46	80	134	230	194	283	330	523	202	(*)	22	45	79	195	50
Tobacco	(*)	26	44	60	52	77	62	89	81	63	(*)	43	61	61	75	56
Reading	(*)	19	28	42	41	46	48	70	60	44	(*)	10	17	17	34	15
Education	(*)	11	1	17	29	32	59	82	114	34	(*)	0	27	2	7	12
Other	(*)	5	23	27	52	51	88	27	236	47	(*)	0	21	37	54	21
Gifts and contributions	(*)	34	79	151	190	280	370	471	693	246	(*)	57	60	91	196	68
Insurance	(*)	169	158	209	311	365	435	638	801	337	(*)	73	93	168	287	114
Net surplus	(*)	0	0	0	0	0	507	425	936	8	(*)	9	48	211	373	92
Personal taxes ⁵	(*)	13	133	299	432	673	1,005	1,035	1,495	581	(*)	72	128	243	434	151
Money income ¹	(*)	1,511	2,590	3,534	4,484	5,419	6,752	8,129	11,334	4,997	(*)	1,531	2,609	3,517	5,343	2,633
Other money receipts ⁶	(*)	38	55	34	137	37	84	552	0	114	(*)	0	12	26	21	14
Net deficit	(*)	361	329	146	171	122	0	0	0	0	(*)	0	0	0	0	0
Balancing difference ⁷	(*)	-52	-159	-121	-177	-63	-68	-182	-42	-116	(*)	-8	-54	-123	+10	-66
Percent of expenditures for current consumption	(*)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(*)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food ³	(*)	36.2	36.7	33.6	30.8	29.9	28.5	27.4	23.9	30.4	(*)	45.9	41.6	36.8	34.2	40.1
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	(*)	19.6	19.5	18.2	16.8	17.6	16.5	13.1	18.1	16.8	(*)	25.2	20.3	21.3	13.6	21.4
Household operation	(*)	8.8	5.4	5.1	5.9	6.0	6.4	7.2	9.3	6.1	(*)	3.6	4.2	4.2	4.8	4.1
Furnishings and equipment	(*)	3.9	3.3	5.5	3.5	4.4	6.2	6.7	5.8	5.1	(*)	1.1	2.0	5.7	5.8	3.5
Clothing	(*)	8.5	9.2	12.6	12.0	13.7	14.2	14.9	13.9	13.2	(*)	8.5	12.7	13.8	17.6	12.6
Automobile	(*)	3.2	6.0	6.2	12.2	10.8	8.6	14.4	9.6	10.0	(*)	.7	3.1	3.0	5.4	2.7
Other transportation	(*)	3.3	2.5	3.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.0	1.2	2.5	(*)	3.3	3.3	3.3	2.6	3.3
Medical care	(*)	8.5	9.2	5.3	5.5	5.0	4.9	3.7	4.4	5.3	(*)	3.7	3.2	2.8	5.3	3.1
Personal care	(*)	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.3	(*)	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.5	2.8
Recreation	(*)	2.6	2.8	3.9	5.1	3.9	5.1	4.5	5.8	4.3	(*)	1.6	1.8	2.5	4.3	2.1
Tobacco	(*)	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.2	.9	1.4	(*)	3.1	2.5	1.9	1.7	2.3
Reading	(*)	1.1	1.0	1.2	.9	.9	.9	1.0	.7	.9	(*)	.7	.7	.5	.8	.6
Education	(*)	.6	(†)	.5	.6	.6	1.1	1.1	1.3	.7	(*)	0	1.1	.1	.2	.5
Other	(*)	.3	.8	.8	1.2	1.0	1.6	.4	2.6	1.0	(*)	0	.8	1.2	1.2	.9

See table 1, p. 392, for footnotes 1 to 7.

* Number of families in this income class not sufficient for reliable averages.

† Less than 0.05 percent.

ton, D. C., included only Federal employees. The 1947 surveys included families and individuals of all occupational groups, employed as well as unemployed.

Washington. The average Washington family spent \$4,257, or 92 percent, of the family income for items consumed in family living. Food, which requires the largest dollar expenditure at each income level, cost on the average \$1,342, or 31.5 percent of total current consumption expenditures, for all families with incomes under \$10,000. Average cost of this item ranged from \$641, or 42.5 percent of total consumption expenditures, in the \$1,000 to \$2,000 income class, to \$1,987, or 27.5 percent, in the \$7,500 to \$10,000 class. These annual totals, when converted to cost per person per meal, ranged from approximately 22 cents for

the lowest-income class to approximately 48 cents for the highest, with the average at about 37 cents.

Housing costs, including the cost of rent, current maintenance costs to owners (such as taxes, insurance, interest on mortgages, and repair expenses), and fuel, light, and refrigeration, accounted for the second largest expenditure at all income levels except the \$7,500 to \$10,000 class. For the under-\$10,000 families, the 1947 average was \$729, or 17.1 percent of total consumption expenditure.

Clothing expenditures at an average of \$567 and transportation costs at \$496 were the next most important items in the budgets of families with net incomes under \$10,000. Expenditures for automobile transportation (i. e., purchase and maintenance), averaging \$388, were significantly larger in Washington than in the other two cities.

At the same income levels in Washington, table 2 indicates that Negro families in 1947 generally used a higher proportion of their total expenditure for food, housing, and clothing, and a substantially smaller proportion for automobile transportation, medical care, and recreation, than did white families. Actual dollar expenditures of Negro families for food, housing, and clothing were, however, very similar to those for white families. The higher percentage of expenditures for these items by Negro families resulted from the fact that white families had larger dollar expenditures for other consumption items, particularly automobile transportation, medical care, and recreation, and incurred debts or used previous savings to meet these larger expenditures.

Richmond. The average Richmond family in 1947 spent \$3,265, or 91 percent, of its income for current consumption items. Food expenditures accounted for 34.1 percent of total current consumption spending for the families in the "under \$10,000" income class, but ranged from 48.6 percent for families with incomes under \$1,000, to 23.4 percent for the \$7,500 to \$10,000 group. Cost per meal per person averaged 31 cents, ranging from 15 cents in the under-\$1,000 income class to 39 cents in the \$7,500 to \$10,000 group. Housing expenditures, including costs of fuel, light, and refrigeration, averaged \$542, or 16.7 percent of total consumption expenditures, ranging from 20.4 percent in the lowest-income group to 12.3 percent in the highest. Clothing expenditures, as is usu-

TABLE 3.—Richmond, Va.—All families of 2 or more persons: Average money income, expenditures, and savings, by net income class, 1947

Item	All families: Annual money income after personal taxes ¹									
	Under \$1,000	\$1,000 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$4,000	\$4,000 to \$5,000	\$5,000 to \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$7,500	\$7,500 to \$10,000	\$10,000 and over	Under \$10,000
Percent of families in each class.....	1.7	12.4	28.6	21.9	15.7	6.2	7.3	3.4	2.8	97.2
Average family size ²	2.3	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.8	3.3
Expenditures for current consumption.....	\$758	\$1,602	\$2,553	\$3,136	\$3,862	\$5,065	\$5,243	\$7,022	\$8,388	\$3,265
Food ³	368	677	990	1,057	1,304	1,496	1,647	1,640	2,059	1,110
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	155	321	441	555	583	701	689	1,497	1,028	542
Household operation.....	20	89	133	192	244	322	313	536	739	196
Furnishings and equipment.....	5	66	138	156	250	418	240	757	755	196
Clothing.....	90	201	331	450	557	715	946	1,111	1,470	472
Automobile.....	0	40	71	136	254	413	444	445	350	174
Other transportation.....	2	34	48	84	83	100	73	178	65	65
Medical care.....	26	46	132	188	204	352	275	303	858	174
Personal care.....	13	39	69	74	106	90	169	136	138	83
Recreation.....	14	24	73	128	130	217	239	345	433	119
Tobacco.....	55	39	50	57	80	72	85	58	101	59
Reading.....	10	16	25	29	36	51	48	70	74	31
Education.....	0	1	16	9	13	13	16	0	15	11
Other.....	0	9	36	21	18	143	32	51	190	33
Gifts and contributions.....	2	64	70	145	274	388	644	603	1,411	200
Insurance.....	18	72	127	221	259	320	416	560	810	210
Net surplus.....	18	0	0	332	323	181	1,153	1,304	982	260
Personal taxes ⁵	0	43	119	356	512	671	1,110	1,090	1,158	368
Money income ¹	715	1,632	2,495	3,475	4,396	5,427	6,619	8,624	11,190	3,594
Other money receipts ⁶	61	34	39	87	72	92	432	50	0	88
Net deficit.....	0	17	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Balancing difference ⁷	-20	-55	-186	-272	-250	-435	-505	-815	-401	-253
Percent of expenditures for current consumption.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food ³	48.6	42.3	38.7	33.7	33.8	29.5	31.5	23.4	24.5	34.1
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	20.4	20.0	17.2	17.7	15.1	13.8	13.1	21.4	12.3	16.7
Household operation.....	2.6	5.6	5.2	6.1	6.3	6.4	6.0	7.6	8.8	6.0
Furnishings and equipment.....	.7	4.1	5.4	5.0	6.5	8.3	4.6	10.8	9.0	6.0
Clothing.....	11.9	12.5	13.0	14.3	14.4	14.1	18.0	15.9	17.5	14.5
Automobile.....	0	2.5	2.8	4.3	6.6	8.2	8.5	6.3	4.2	5.3
Other transportation.....	.3	2.1	1.9	2.7	2.1	1.2	1.9	1.0	2.1	2.0
Medical care.....	3.4	2.9	5.2	6.0	5.3	6.9	5.2	4.3	10.2	5.3
Personal care.....	1.7	2.4	2.7	2.4	2.7	1.8	3.2	1.9	1.6	2.5
Recreation.....	1.8	1.5	2.9	4.1	3.4	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.2	3.6
Tobacco.....	7.3	2.4	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.4	1.6	.8	1.2	1.8
Reading.....	1.3	1.0	1.0	.9	.9	1.0	.9	1.0	.9	.9
Education.....	0	.1	.6	.3	.3	.3	.3	0	.2	.3
Other.....	0	.6	1.4	.7	.5	2.8	.6	.7	2.3	1.0

See table 1, p. 392, for footnotes 1 to 7.

TABLE 4.—Richmond, Va.—White and Negro families of 2 or more persons: Average money income, expenditures, and savings by net income class, 1947

Item	White families: Annual money income after personal taxes ¹										Negro families: Annual money income after personal taxes ¹	
	Under \$1,000	\$1,000 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$4,000	\$4,000 to \$5,000	\$5,000 to \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$7,500	\$7,500 to \$10,000	\$10,000 and over	Under \$10,000	Under \$3,000	\$3,000 and over
Percent of families in each class	(†)	4.6	25.4	26.2	18.5	7.7	10.0	3.8	3.8	96.2	79.2	20.8
Average family size ²	(*)	2.3	3.3	3.0	3.4	3.2	3.5	4.0	3.8	3.2	3.5	3.8
Expenditures for current consumption	(*)	\$1,631	\$2,699	\$3,144	\$3,831	\$4,973	\$5,243	\$7,312	\$8,388	\$3,616	\$1,883	\$4,007
Food ³	(*)	472	1,008	1,066	1,279	1,426	1,647	1,753	2,059	1,179	827	1,303
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	(*)	391	494	580	594	725	689	1,315	1,028	603	311	630
Household operation	(*)	138	157	197	263	329	313	601	739	235	78	160
Furnishings and equipment	(*)	70	156	141	212	424	240	778	755	211	82	433
Clothing	(*)	165	323	420	512	735	946	1,198	1,470	511	270	736
Automobile	(*)	145	92	151	288	445	444	520	350	230	18	34
Other transportation	(*)	37	47	82	79	50	100	88	178	70	39	103
Medical care	(*)	54	161	199	229	283	275	363	858	209	62	164
Personal care	(*)	43	63	74	102	84	169	152	138	89	56	104
Recreation	(*)	31	88	130	127	214	239	391	433	142	34	138
Tobacco	(*)	49	52	50	75	56	85	67	101	60	43	111
Reading	(*)	17	27	30	37	48	48	75	74	35	18	34
Education	(*)	0	15	7	15	10	16	0	15	11	8	15
Other	(*)	19	16	17	19	144	32	61	190	31	37	42
Gifts and contributions	(*)	100	79	149	285	379	644	642	1,411	244	48	214
Insurance	(*)	45	114	215	258	331	416	641	810	236	109	249
Net surplus	(*)	0	0	333	297	286	1,153	1,016	982	301	54	511
Personal taxes ⁵	(*)	60	181	363	518	735	1,110	1,172	1,158	458	66	381
Money income ¹	(*)	1,678	2,522	3,478	4,379	5,464	6,619	8,555	11,190	4,002	1,960	4,589
Other money receipts ⁶	(*)	125	24	96	76	102	432	60	0	109	36	18
Net deficit	(*)	29	116	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Balancing difference ⁷	(*)	+56	-230	-267	-216	-403	-405	-996	-401	-286	-98	-374
Percent of expenditures for current consumption	(*)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food ³	(*)	28.9	37.3	33.9	30.4	28.7	31.4	24.0	24.5	32.6	43.9	32.5
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	(*)	24.0	18.3	18.4	15.5	14.6	13.1	18.0	12.3	16.7	16.5	15.7
Household operation	(*)	8.5	5.8	6.3	6.9	6.6	6.0	8.2	8.8	6.5	4.1	4.0
Furnishings and equipment	(*)	4.3	5.8	4.5	5.5	8.5	4.6	10.0	9.0	5.8	4.3	10.8
Clothing	(*)	10.1	12.0	13.4	13.4	14.8	18.0	16.4	17.5	14.1	14.3	18.4
Automobile	(*)	8.9	3.4	4.8	7.5	8.9	8.5	7.1	4.2	6.4	1.0	.8
Other transportation	(*)	2.3	1.7	2.6	2.0	1.0	1.9	1.2	2.1	1.9	2.1	2.6
Medical care	(*)	3.3	6.0	6.3	6.0	5.7	5.3	5.0	10.2	5.8	3.3	4.1
Personal care	(*)	2.6	2.3	2.4	2.7	1.7	3.2	2.1	1.6	2.5	3.0	2.6
Recreation	(*)	1.9	3.3	4.1	3.3	4.3	4.6	5.3	5.2	3.9	1.8	3.4
Tobacco	(*)	3.0	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.1	1.6	.9	1.2	1.7	2.3	2.8
Reading	(*)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	.9	1.0	.9	1.0	1.0	.8
Education	(*)	0	.6	.2	.4	.2	.3	0	.2	.3	.4	.4
Other	(*)	1.2	.6	.5	.5	2.9	.6	.8	2.3	.8	2.0	1.1

See table 1, p. 392, for footnotes 1 to 7.
 (*) Number of families in this income class not sufficient for reliable averages.
 (†) Less than 0.05 percent.

ally the case, accounted for an increasing proportion of the total expenditures as incomes increased. They amounted to 11.9 percent for families with incomes under \$1,000, and 18.0 percent for those in the \$6,000 to \$7,500 income class. The average for all families with incomes under \$10,000, was \$472 or 14.5 percent. Expenditures for household operation and those for household operation each accounted for 6.0 percent of total consumption expenditures, and exceeded by a small amount the expenditures for automobile transportation (i. e. purchase and maintenance.)

Expenditure patterns for white families and Negro families in Richmond were similar to those in Washington. The Negro families in Richmond spent a higher proportion of total expenditures for food and clothing, and substantially less for automobile transportation and medical care, than

did white families at similar income levels. Housing expenditures for Negro families in Richmond were proportionately somewhat less than those of white families of comparable income levels. In Washington, the opposite was true. The extent to which these differences in housing expenditures are due to differences in quality of the housing occupied has not been ascertained.

Manchester. In Manchester, expenditures for items of current consumption in 1947 averaged \$3,424, or 100.5 percent of the income of families with net incomes below \$7,500. For food, these families spent on an average \$1,182, or 34.6 percent of total consumption expenditures; the proportions ranged from 37.8 percent in the \$1,000 to \$2,000 income class to 30.3 percent in the highest-income class. Despite the fact that retail food prices in

TABLE 5.—Manchester, N. H.—All families of 2 or more persons: Average money income, expenditures, and savings, by net income class, 1947

Item	All families: Annual money income after personal taxes ¹								
	Under \$1,000	\$1,000 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$3,000	\$3,000 to \$4,000	\$4,000 to \$5,000	\$5,000 to \$6,000	\$6,000 to \$7,500	\$7,500 and over	Under \$7,500
Percent of families in each class.....	2.6	10.5	25.8	29.0	15.8	7.9	4.7	3.7	96.3
Average family size ²	2.8	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.4	3.3
Expenditures for current consumption.....	\$1,346	\$2,201	\$2,783	\$3,324	\$4,325	\$4,988	\$5,759	\$5,752	\$3,424
Food ³	448	832	981	1,134	1,529	1,612	1,877	1,748	1,182
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ⁴	299	460	507	546	620	631	731	727	548
Household operation.....	64	86	98	158	135	231	183	288	135
Furnishings and equipment.....	88	114	197	250	256	318	432	254	232
Clothing.....	237	297	389	497	711	1,047	1,226	1,062	555
Automobile.....	60	17	136	188	348	217	487	722	195
Other transportation.....	16	53	48	54	62	112	85	58	59
Medical care.....	29	132	139	140	176	190	154	281	147
Personal care.....	19	44	64	75	93	129	158	130	79
Recreation.....	18	84	93	136	200	268	273	183	144
Tobacco.....	34	41	66	79	74	130	65	81	73
Reading.....	18	21	29	36	38	50	43	59	34
Education.....	1	3	11	6	40	17	8	73	13
Other.....	15	17	25	25	43	36	37	86	28
Gifts and contributions.....	38	61	112	133	140	134	256	488	124
Insurance.....	33	83	111	150	171	211	314	567	146
Net surplus.....	0	0	0	0	0	189	449	1,610	0
Personal taxes ⁵	2	79	150	292	365	553	750	886	279
Money income ¹	742	1,711	2,534	3,429	4,432	5,426	6,499	8,477	3,408
Other money receipts ⁶	140	9	37	70	5	3	69	0	40
Net deficit.....	477	506	346	34	91	0	0	0	148
Balancing difference ⁷	-58	-119	-89	-74	-108	-93	-210	+60	-98
Percent of expenditures for current consumption.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food ³	33.3	37.8	35.3	34.1	35.4	32.3	32.6	30.3	34.6
Housing, fuel, light and refrigeration ⁴	22.2	20.8	18.2	16.4	14.4	12.7	12.7	12.6	16.0
Household operation.....	4.8	3.9	3.5	4.7	3.1	4.6	3.2	5.0	3.9
Furnishings and equipment.....	6.5	5.2	7.1	7.5	5.9	6.4	7.6	4.4	6.8
Clothing.....	17.6	13.5	14.0	14.9	16.4	21.0	21.3	18.5	16.2
Automobile.....	4.5	.8	4.9	5.7	8.0	4.4	8.5	12.6	5.7
Other transportation.....	1.2	2.4	1.7	1.6	1.4	2.2	1.5	1.0	1.7
Medical care.....	2.2	6.0	5.0	4.2	4.1	3.8	2.7	4.9	4.3
Personal care.....	1.4	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.3	2.3
Recreation.....	1.3	3.8	3.3	4.1	4.6	5.4	4.7	3.2	4.2
Tobacco.....	2.5	1.9	2.4	2.4	1.7	2.6	1.1	1.4	2.1
Reading.....	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.1	.9	1.0	.7	1.0	1.0
Education.....	.1	.1	.4	.2	.9	.3	.1	1.3	.4
Other.....	1.1	.8	.9	.8	1.0	.7	.6	1.5	.8

See table 1, p. 392, for footnotes 1 to 7.

Manchester in 1947 were somewhat higher than those in either of the other two cities, the range in the proportions spent at the various income levels was narrower than in either Washington or Richmond. (This was probably because Manchester families had greater opportunities to supplement purchased food by home-grown foods.) The average cost per person per meal in Manchester was 33 cents for families with incomes under \$7,500, ranging from 15 cents for the lowest-income families to 42 cents for families with incomes from \$6,000 to \$7,500.

Clothing expenditures, averaging \$555, or 16.2

percent of consumption expenditures, were second in importance in the Manchester spending pattern in 1947. For families with incomes over \$5,000, expenditures for clothing were of considerably greater importance than those for housing.

Housing expenditures averaged \$548, or 16.0 percent of total expenditures, and ranged from 22 percent in the lowest-income class to 12.5 percent in the highest. As in Richmond, household furnishings and equipment and transportation were next in importance, accounting respectively for 6.8 percent and for 7.4 percent of current spending.

Single Consumer Patterns

The income and expenditure data for single consumers reflect some marked differences in the spending patterns of the three cities.

The average income of single consumers in Washington was \$2,542 after payment of personal taxes averaging \$306; and in Richmond, \$2,489 after taxes averaging \$310. The average net income of single consumers in Manchester was \$1,068, after taxes averaging \$92.

In Washington and Richmond, single consumers reported average net surpluses for the year of \$56 and \$88, respectively, but in Manchester they reported an average net deficit of \$119 for 1947. (Families of two or more in Manchester also had deficits.) As might be expected because of their lower income, Manchester single consumers devoted a considerably larger proportion of their expenditures to food—39.7 percent, as compared with 29.1 and 29.7 percent, respectively, in Washington, D. C., and Richmond. Housing expenditures accounted for 23 percent of total spending in each of the three cities. The need for a greater variety of clothing in Manchester because of climatic conditions is reflected in the relative importance of expenditures for clothing to total expenditures. Although the percentage of expenditures for clothing usually increases as incomes increase, the highest proportion spent for clothing—15.0 percent—was reported in Manchester, where single consumers had substantially lower incomes than in either of the other two cities; the respective percentages of clothing expenditures in Washington and Richmond were 12.1 and 10.2. Transportation and recreation expenses were actually and relatively smaller in Manchester than in either of the other cities.

TABLE 6.—All single consumers: Average money income, expenditures, and savings, 1947

Item	Washington, D. C.	Rich- mond, Va.	Man- chester, N. H.
Expenditures for current consumption.....	\$2,188	\$1,984	\$1,123
Food ¹	636	590	445
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ²	511	467	262
Household operation.....	118	165	55
Furnishings and equipment.....	56	71	22
Clothing.....	263	204	168
Automobile.....	112	146	23
Other transportation.....	97	59	15
Medical care.....	117	59	38
Personal care.....	59	30	23
Recreation.....	85	79	20
Tobacco.....	29	22	24
Reading.....	25	23	14
Education.....	12	0	0
Other.....	68	69	14
Gifts and contributions.....	202	401	74
Insurance.....	112	83	23
Net surplus.....	56	88	0
Personal taxes ³	306	310	92
Money income ⁴	2,542	2,489	1,068
Other money receipts ⁵	32	2	1
Net deficit.....	0	0	119
Balancing difference ⁶	+16	-65	-32
Percent of expenditures for current consumption.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food ¹	29.1	29.7	39.7
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration ²	23.4	23.5	23.4
Household operation.....	5.4	8.3	4.9
Furnishings and equipment.....	2.6	3.6	2.0
Clothing.....	12.1	10.2	15.0
Automobile.....	5.1	7.4	2.0
Other transportation.....	4.4	3.0	1.3
Medical care.....	5.3	3.0	3.4
Personal care.....	2.7	1.5	2.0
Recreation.....	3.9	4.0	1.8
Tobacco.....	1.3	1.1	2.1
Reading.....	1.1	1.2	1.2
Education.....	.5	0	0
Other.....	3.1	3.5	1.2

¹ Includes expenditures for alcoholic beverages.

² Includes rents for tenant-occupied dwellings and for lodging away from home, and current operation expenses of home owners. Excludes principal payments on mortgages on owned homes.

³ Includes Federal and State income, poll, and personal property taxes. Excludes inheritance and gift taxes.

⁴ Total money income from wages, salaries, self-employment, receipts from roomers and boarders, rents, interest, dividends, etc., after payment of personal taxes (Federal and State income, poll, and personal property) and occupational expenses.

⁵ Includes inheritances, large gifts, lump sum settlements from accident or health policies, and terminal leave payments received upon discharge from the armed forces, which were not considered current income.

⁶ Represents the average net difference between reported money receipts and reported money disbursements (i. e. money income, other money receipts, and net deficit minus expenditures for current consumption, gifts and contributions, insurance, and net surplus).

⁷ Recomputed using average for all income classes for income class \$4,000-\$5,000 where expenditure of \$1,099 for domestic service by one person was not considered typical.

Salaries of Social Workers in Michigan, 1948

LILY MARY DAVID¹

SOCIAL WORKERS ARE ENGAGED in a wide variety of activities, most of which involve guidance and assistance to individuals and groups. A relatively large number of these workers are employed in public assistance programs; others are engaged in such activities as child welfare, probation and parole, aiding the mentally ill and the physically handicapped, and group work (for example in settlements and youth programs).

Despite the fact that the social work profession employs many thousand workers, little information is available regarding their salaries and working conditions. This article gives a general picture of the economic status of such workers in the State of Michigan.

Annual Salaries

The average annual salary² for social work positions in Michigan in November 1948 amounted to \$3,100 (see table 1). One out of four workers in

¹ Of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis.

Data summarized in this article were collected in a survey conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the National Council on Social Work Education in November 1948. The information was obtained by means of a questionnaire sent to all persons (except members of Catholic orders) known to be employed full time in social work positions in Michigan. Usable replies were received from 1,986 workers—57 percent of the approximately 3,500 to whom questionnaires were addressed. (In addition, about 125 questionnaires were returned because the people to whom they were sent had left their positions.) The survey was limited to Michigan because a list of names of people in social work positions in that State was available. The list was obtained from a census of social workers conducted in Michigan, by the American Association of Social Workers, late in 1947.

² All averages used are medians (the value below and above which equal numbers of the replies fall). Medians were used in order to minimize the influence of errors likely to arise in replies to a mail questionnaire.

Information on salaries refers to the annual rate in effect in November 1948, and not to actual earnings during the entire year.

such positions was receiving less than \$2,650 a year, and a corresponding proportion more than \$3,850. The average for men was \$3,700, that for women \$2,880. The higher earnings of men were traceable partly to differences in pay for the same type of position, and partly to employment of men in the more responsible positions in greater proportions than women. In some positions, earnings of men were a fourth above those of women, although a slightly higher proportion of women than of men reported graduate study in social work.

TABLE 1.—Annual salaries in Michigan social work positions, by sex, 1948¹

Annual salaries ¹	Percent of—		
	All workers	Men	Women
Under \$1,800	0.6	0.8	0.5
\$1,800—\$1,899	.8	.6	1.0
\$1,900—\$1,999	.8	—	1.3
\$2,000—\$2,099	.8	.8	.9
\$2,100—\$2,199	2.2	.5	3.1
\$2,200—\$2,299	1.0	.7	1.3
\$2,300—\$2,399	.8	.7	1.1
\$2,400—\$2,499	6.8	4.3	8.0
\$2,500—\$2,599	5.8	2.8	7.0
\$2,600—\$2,699	13.5	4.7	17.6
\$2,700—\$2,799	4.5	3.1	5.4
\$2,800—\$2,899	5.6	3.7	6.8
\$2,900—\$2,999	1.9	1.2	2.4
\$3,000—\$3,099	4.3	4.4	4.1
\$3,100—\$3,199	3.3	2.4	3.7
\$3,200—\$3,299	2.5	3.0	2.4
\$3,300—\$3,399	3.8	4.1	3.5
\$3,400—\$3,499	3.9	3.7	4.1
\$3,500—\$3,599	2.6	3.1	2.4
\$3,600—\$3,699	3.1	5.0	2.3
\$3,700—\$3,799	2.9	4.0	2.5
\$3,800—\$3,899	4.4	6.5	3.2
\$3,900—\$3,999	1.5	2.1	1.2
\$4,000—\$4,099	5.3	7.6	4.0
\$4,100—\$4,199	.9	1.2	.7
\$4,200—\$4,299	1.4	2.7	.6
\$4,300—\$4,399	1.4	2.0	1.0
\$4,400—\$4,499	1.1	2.0	.7
\$4,500—\$4,599	1.2	2.0	.8
\$4,600—\$4,699	.9	1.8	.3
\$4,700—\$4,799	2.2	3.3	1.5
\$4,800—\$4,899	1.0	1.5	.7
\$4,900—\$4,999	.6	.8	.5
\$5,000—\$5,499	2.3	4.0	1.6
\$5,500—\$5,999	1.1	1.4	1.0
\$6,000—\$6,499	.8	1.8	.2
\$6,500—\$6,999	.7	1.8	1
\$7,000—\$7,499	.3	.5	.2
\$7,500—\$7,999	.4	1.0	.2
\$8,000—\$8,499	.2	.7	—
\$8,500—\$8,999	.2	.5	.1
\$9,000—\$9,499	(2)	.1	—
\$9,500—\$9,999	.3	.7	—
\$10,000 and over	.3	.8	—
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Average, ³ all workers	\$3,100	\$3,700	\$2,880

¹ Annual salaries in effect in November 1948. Salaries do not include cash equivalent of any maintenance provided by employer.

² Less than 0.05 of 1 percent.

³ Median.

Average salaries varied with level of responsibility, from about \$2,700 and \$2,900, respectively, for those working directly with individuals and

groups, to \$4,100 for executives. Probably because they were concentrated in agencies with relatively large budgets, persons performing such staff services as research without supervisory duties had higher salaries than the average supervisor.

TABLE 2.—Average¹ annual salaries in social work positions at selected levels of responsibility, by type of employer and sex, Michigan 1948²

Level of responsibility	Average ¹ annual salary		
	All workers	Men	Women
<i>All agencies</i>			
Workers providing—			
Direct services to individuals.....	\$2,700	\$3,320	\$2,640
Services to groups.....	2,900	3,400	2,700
Workers with other nonsupervisory duties.....	3,800	3,800	3,850
Supervisors.....	3,540	3,910	3,420
Executives.....	4,100	4,500	3,680
<i>Government agencies</i>			
Workers providing—			
Direct services to individuals.....	2,730	3,360	2,640
Services to groups.....	3,200	(³)	(³)
Workers with other nonsupervisory duties.....	3,800	3,500	(³)
Supervisors.....	3,420	3,960	3,420
Executives.....	4,020	4,020	4,000
<i>Private agencies</i>			
Workers providing—			
Direct services to individuals.....	2,700	3,180	2,640
Services to groups.....	2,800	3,420	2,700
Workers with other nonsupervisory duties.....	3,740	3,800	(³)
Supervisors.....	3,820	3,770	3,820
Executives.....	4,200	4,600	3,620

¹ Median.

² Annual salaries in effect in November 1948. Salaries do not include cash equivalent of any maintenance provided by employer.

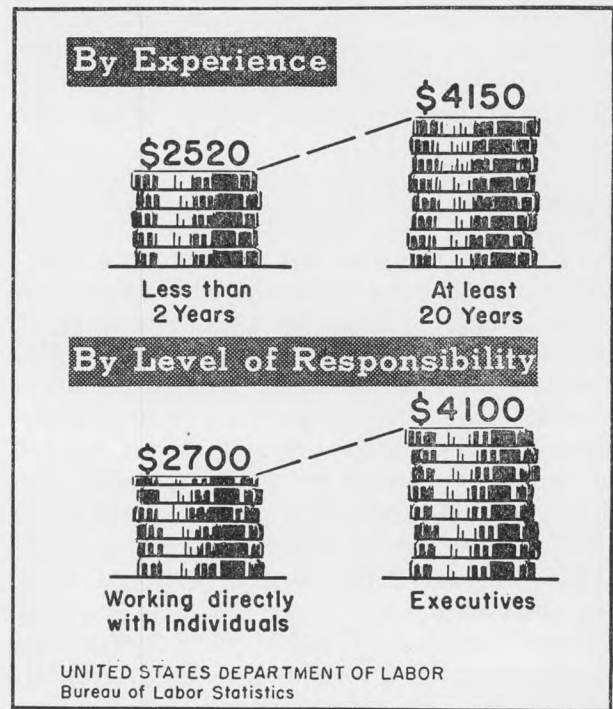
³ Insufficient number of replies to justify presentation of an average.

Salaries tended to increase with experience and those for workers with graduate-study credit tended to be higher than for other workers. Annual averages ranged from \$2,500 for workers with less than 2 years' experience to \$4,150 for those with at least 20 years' experience in social work. For workers with no graduate social work education, average annual salaries were about \$700 below those of workers with some graduate education. In the latter group, workers who reported some full-time social-work training earned more on the average than those who reported only part-time work. There was also a tendency, which was not entirely consistent, for salaries to be related to the amount of full-time social-work education. So far as general education is concerned, workers with graduate study earned more than those with no graduate study, but the amount of undergraduate education apparently had little or no effect on the earnings of those reporting no graduate study of any kind.

No consistent salary variation between government and private agencies was reported. Indeed, for the largest single group within the profession—workers providing direct services to individuals—average salaries in government and private organizations were practically identical. Within communities of comparable size, however, salaries tended to be higher in government work.

Detroit salaries were higher than those paid elsewhere in the State in both government and private agencies. With this exception, no marked and consistent variation was found in average salaries by size of community.

Average Salary Range of Social Workers, Michigan, November 1948



Only a small proportion of the workers were provided with any form of maintenance by the employing agency. One meal a day was the most usual supplementary maintenance furnished. Private agencies gave maintenance somewhat more commonly than public agencies. About 1 in 4 social workers in private organizations, compared with 1 out of 20 in public agencies, received some supplementary maintenance. The most usual supplements in private agencies were either board and room or one meal a day.

Hours of Work and Overtime Pay

The most typical scheduled workweek was 40 hours, two-thirds of all workers studied being on this schedule. Four-fifths of the government employees, compared with about three-eighths of the workers in nongovernmental organizations, were on a 40-hour week. Scheduled weekly hours of private agency employees varied more than those of government workers; in private organizations, an eighth of the workers reported schedules of more than 48 hours, and almost a fifth reported 37½ hours.

About 7 out of 10 workers stated that they were sometimes required to work beyond the normal weekly schedule, and half of these reported that they received some compensation for overtime. Typically, the compensation took the form of time off rather than additional cash pay. Overtime work was reported by a larger proportion of employees in private agencies than in government agencies.

Supplementary Benefits

Paid vacations and sick leave after a year's service are provided for almost all social workers in Michigan. In 1948, the most common provision, for both vacation and sick leave, was 1 day a month. The next most frequent provision was 2 workweeks. Private agencies were more liberal than government in vacation allowances; over half of the private-agency workers, compared with about 1 in 14 government workers, reported at least a 4-week annual vacation.

Roughly two-thirds of the Michigan social workers were women. More than a third of these workers were married, and about half stated that they were entitled to maternity leave, typically without pay. Such leave was much more common

in government than in nongovernmental agencies.

About six out of seven social workers stated that they were covered by some sort of retirement plan. Other types of insurance were less common, being reported by one out of three workers, with life insurance the most usual type. Government agencies provided retirement pensions somewhat more frequently and other insurance plans somewhat less frequently than did private agencies.

Opinions of the Workers

What did the workers who participated in the study of salaries and working conditions in Michigan social work think of these conditions, and of their positions in general? What were their major sources of complaint?

Expressions of opinion indicate that, of about 20 aspects of social work, most of the dissatisfaction centered around salaries and closely related subjects—provision for pay increases, reimbursement for professional expenses, and opportunities for promotion. The next most common causes of complaint were the inadequacy of stenographic and clerical help, physical working conditions, and lack of opportunities for participation in determining agency policies. There was greater satisfaction with sick-leave provisions, which appeared to be relatively liberal, than with vacation policies. General satisfaction was expressed regarding length of the workweek, the job as a whole, professional contacts, and opportunities for attending professional conferences. Some of the workers covered by retirement-pension provisions expressed dissatisfaction with regard to these arrangements. It is not known whether the dissatisfaction resulted from the amount of the benefits, the fact that they would presumably be lost if workers transferred to other agencies, or other causes.

The South Korean Wage Earner Since the Liberation

J. L. KAUKONEN ¹

SOUTH KOREA faced the necessity of industrial rehabilitation after 40 years of Japanese domination ended by liberation in 1945. A major continuing problem has been to replace skilled Japanese labor and managerial staff, included among the 750,000 Japanese who were repatriated during 1945 and 1946. Adjustments have also been required owing to the loss of Japanese sources of raw materials, financial resources, and markets, and similar dislocations resulting from the spread of Communist control—for example, in North Korea, Manchuria, and China.

Continuance of the north-south split ² has left South Korea with a considerably increased population and reduced industrial resources. North Korea has the greater part of the metal industries and almost complete monopoly in the generation of electric power and in the production of fertilizer.

¹ Of the Bureau's Office of Foreign Labor Conditions.

² As a result of a wartime Allied agreement, Korea was divided into Russian and American zones along the 38th parallel, a division which survived the end of the American occupation on August 15, 1948. The agreement was intended only to facilitate the surrender of Japanese troops in Korea to the Allied Powers. However, this military line of convenience immediately became an international barrier, which has never been bridged despite repeated American attempts to negotiate broad-scale agreements to unify the two sections and to achieve a free flow of transportation, power, communications, and goods between all parts of Korea. The Russians early forbade trade across the line except for specified goods for which they negotiated with the American Command. Throughout the occupation, intercourse between the southern (American controlled) and northern (Russian controlled) zones was limited to occasional exchange of mail, military liaison between the two commands, movement of persons in large part from north or south, and an exchange of goods and services limited principally to electric power moving south, and certain goods moving north in exchange.

After a brief initial period of direct control, the United States Army Military Government worked through the South Korean Interim Government. A Department of Labor was established (on July 23, 1946); operation of industrial plants was assigned to the Department of Commerce, under the direction of the United States Military Governor. The latter department assigned Korean managers to operate industrial plants, wherever it was possible to find technically qualified personnel and the necessary materials for plant operation. In some cases, United States advisors assisted the plant managers.

Syngman Rhee was inaugurated as president on August 15, 1948, the third anniversary of liberation. Although a small number of United States representatives continue to serve the newly established Republic of Korea under the ECA economic aid program, the Military Government ceased to exist.

Population and Labor Force

It is estimated that the population of South Korea alone increased by more than 5 million in the 8 years from 1940 to 1948, compared with an increase of 4½ million in all of Korea in the 15 years before 1940. Population data for specified years, 1925-48, are as follows:

	<i>All of Korea</i> ¹	<i>South Korea</i> ²
1925.....	19, 020, 000	-----
1930.....	20, 438, 000	-----
1935.....	22, 208, 000	-----
1940.....	23, 547, 000	14, 969, 000
1944.....	-----	15, 877, 000
1946.....	-----	19, 369, 000
1948.....	-----	20, 200, 000

¹ Korea's Population and Labor Force, Department of Labor, USAMGIK, Seoul, Korea, August 1946. These figures are based on official Japanese censuses for the years cited.

² Report to the National Economic Board of the Committee on Population and Census Statistics, May 1948, quoted from Monthly Report, National Economic Board, May 1948.

Although data on the Korean labor force available for analysis are incomplete, they indicate that a substantial degree of industrial development had taken place under the Japanese and that, although Korea is a predominantly agricultural nation, industrial wage earners constitute a substantial part of the total population. According to the 1944 Government-General Census for Korea, a total of about 5 million Koreans (20 percent of the population) depended at least in part on wages from mining, manufacturing, com-

munications, and commercial enterprises. No data were available on employment in home industries and small handicraft shops. A census of manufacturing for 1944 gives the number of firms and employment in manufacturing. (See table 1.) Although the numbers of firms and employees were greater in the south than in the north in the metal and chemical industries, utilities, and lumber and wood products industries, the large establishments were in the north.

TABLE 1.—Census of manufactures, North and South Korea, 1944¹

Industry group	Number of firms			Number of employees		
	North Korea	South Korea	Total	North Korea	South Korea	Total
Total manufacturing	3, 721	8, 580	12, 301	176, 512	244, 717	421, 229
Metal industries.....	199	420	619	43, 531	17, 992	61, 523
Machines and tools.....	397	829	1, 226	20, 673	43, 375	64, 048
Chemical industries.....	230	789	1, 019	37, 100	33, 238	70, 338
Gas, water, and electricity.....	69	71	140	4, 849	2, 876	7, 725
Ceramics and cements.....	597	1, 355	1, 952	20, 356	23, 836	44, 192
Textiles.....	642	1, 440	2, 082	18, 909	62, 532	81, 441
Lumber and wood products.....	596	1, 203	1, 799	15, 520	15, 162	30, 682
Food processing.....	561	1, 429	1, 990	9, 763	26, 243	36, 006
Printing and binding.....	172	414	586	2, 390	7, 731	10, 121
Miscellaneous.....	258	630	888	3, 421	11, 732	15, 153

¹ This census of manufacturing was prepared from Japanese sources by the Census Division, Office of Administration, USAMGIK.

In November 1946, an Industrial Labor Force and Wage Survey of South Korea was undertaken by the Census Division of the Interim Government. This survey, although subject to many limitations, is important as a general indication of the extent to which South Korean industrial employment had declined since 1944.³ The number of establishments actually in operation and the number of laborers employed in November 1946, by industry group, are as follows:

	Number of—	
	Factories	Laborers
Metal.....	499	8, 966
Machines and tools.....	878	17, 394
Chemicals.....	574	19, 171
Electricity, gas, and water..	78	2, 711
Ceramics and cement.....	731	9, 693
Textiles.....	615	36, 269
Lumber and woodworking..	584	6, 502
Food processing.....	726	8, 383
Printing and binding.....	233	4, 450
Engineering and construction.....	175	5, 598
Others.....	156	2, 932
Total.....	15, 249	122, 159

¹ Of these plants, 4,795 employed more than 5 workers and less than 50, and 454 plants employed more than 50 workers.

In addition to the laborers enumerated in this survey, it is reported that there were 8,990 technicians in these plants in 1946. The work of the technicians is not clearly defined, and many of them may have functioned as skilled workers or as foremen. In the 1944 census they would probably have been listed among the employees of industrial plants.

In any case, it is clear that there had been a drastic reduction in the number of plants and industrial workers employed in South Korea between 1944 and the fall of 1946.

No attempt was made in the 1946 survey to find out what had become of the industrial workers no longer reported as employed in industry in 1946. Probably, a substantial portion of the more than 100,000 who were working in South Korean industry in 1944 and not in 1946 were absorbed by agriculture, and others may have found a new livelihood in black-market operations or perhaps other commercial or quasi-commercial employment. Many of them were probably among the 750,000 Japanese who were sent to Japan in 1945-46.

Of the group classified as laborers, 40 percent had no formal education and more than 50 percent had gone only to primary school. All those classified as technicians had at least primary school education and one-third had gone beyond that level.

Lack of technical education, as much as lack of supplies and machinery, has made development of an industrial economy in South Korea difficult. Some progress has been made through American-initiated programs for technical training, but the gap between need and accomplishment is still great. Under United States auspices, the Department of Education undertook a vocational education program, and an agency called the Agricultural Improvement Service has made substantial progress in technical agricultural education. A Technological Training Board has started numerous in-service training programs, and a

³ This survey, covering all operating plants with more than five employees (exclusive of a small number of government monopoly industries such as salt, tobacco, ginseng, and the like) was carried out with questionnaires prepared by the Koreans in the Census Division of the Interim Government using the industrial classifications of the Japanese Census of 1944. The provincial offices of the Interim Government Department of Home Affairs were responsible for the field work and supervised the activities of the local community heads whose staffs visited the plants studied. The report was issued by the National Economic Board.

small number of Koreans are being trained in the United States.

The nature of the labor force in 1948, at the end of the United States Occupation, was never measured quantitatively because of the shortage of statisticians and persons equipped to do field interviewing. In June 1948, it was estimated that the maximum number of workers employed in the Government-controlled (formerly Japanese-owned) plants was 250,000, but there was no statistical basis for calculating the trend from the fall of 1946. It was also estimated that an equal number were employed by the national and provincial governments. Employment in industry under private control was much less than that under Government control, although no statistics are available to show the distribution.

Little reliable information is available on the extent of employment and unemployment generally in Korea. Estimates prepared by the Korean Department of Labor indicated that unemployment ranged from 1 to 2 million people. No quantitative method exists for determining the extent, if any, to which "unemployment" in an Oriental society like South Korea's corresponds to that defined as "unemployment" in the United States. About all that can be said is that unskilled manpower was far too plentiful in terms of the country's other industrial resources, and the influx of refugees from the north complicated the problem.

The North Koreans sought refuge in the south for a variety of reasons: food was thought to be more plentiful than in the north; Russian-sponsored regimentation; and expropriation of property. There was also evidence that the migrants included some Communist agents who had been sent south to spread Communist propaganda. Their absorption into the southern half was difficult. In agriculture, the labor supply was already plentiful, while the opportunities for industrial employment were negligible because of shortages of raw materials and engineering, supervisory, and technical personnel.

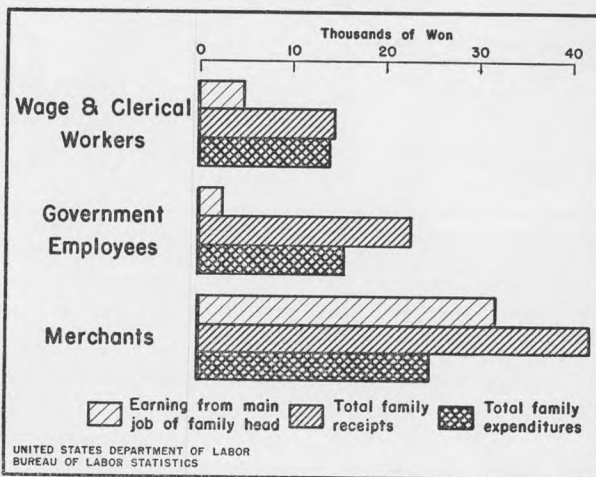
Until the number of refugees began to reach floodtide proportions early in 1947, their distribution throughout the provinces was left to chance. Refugee camps were then established near the border, and an attempt was made to distribute migrants to the various provinces according to a plan based on their estimated capacity to absorb

additional people. Skilled workers were few and there was no clearing house to indicate specifically where skills were needed. The absorption of the refugees, except for governmental relief and welfare, was therefore left largely to chance. Many refugees, shipped to the provinces upon entry, found their way to Seoul (the capital) and Pusan (South Korea's major port at the tip of the peninsula), which put a heavy strain on housing and relief facilities. It is not known how many were employed and how many were not.

Wages, Living Costs, and Consumption Levels

The great mass of the Korean people who depended on agriculture for its livelihood was relatively well off in a period of scarcity of consumer goods with consequently spiraling prices. Those in the urban population who depended on industrial wages for their livelihood and who were

Average Family Receipts and Expenditures in South Korea, March 1948



employed in Government or in the Government-controlled (former Japanese) industries, were caught in an economic squeeze early in the Occupation. After a short period in which a "free market" was permitted to function, the Military Government embarked on a program of controlled prices for essential goods and services. But prices for these items were adjusted upward periodically, while wages, frozen in June 1946, were adjusted only once, in March 1947.

Studies carried out by the National Economic Board in the fall of 1947 and the spring of 1948

indicated that the wages of a family head accounted roughly for only one-fourth of the income his family needed to live on. The balance was made up by wages of other family members, illegal bonuses, loans, sales of possessions, receipts from debts, black-market activities, and the like.

Summary data (table 2) for March 1948, typical of other months studied, illustrates the wage earner's status. While reports from individual families in this survey cannot be considered accurate in all details, it is believed that there was no bias in the reporting errors on earnings and that the averages are generally accurate. In addition, the wage data shown in table 2 were verified by special wage studies in selected plants and industries in the late spring and summer of 1948.

TABLE 2.—Average family receipts and expenditures in South Korea, March 1948¹

Item	Average income from main occupation	Average family receipts from all sources	Average family expenditures	Percent of surplus or deficit ²
	Won	Won	Won	
Wage and clerical workers ²	4,850	14,399	13,957	+3.0
Government employees ²	2,456	22,590	15,519	+31.3
Clerical.....	1,972	11,032	10,884	+1.3
Supervisory clerical.....	2,545	18,477	16,650	+9.9
Administrative.....	3,291	51,872	23,096	+55.5
Merchants.....	31,665	41,818	24,810	+40.7
Unlicensed.....	9,062	17,020	15,420	+9.4
Licensed.....	60,869	73,812	37,296	+49.5
All occupations.....	6,256	18,015	15,130	+21.6
All wage earners.....	4,507	15,801	14,224	+10.0

¹ Source: Income and Expenditure Study, Wage Stabilization Committee, National Economic Board, March 1948. (Based on an occupational sample covering 1,034 families with 5,347 members in all but one of the provinces.)

² The official exchange rate at the time of the study was 50 won to \$1 (U. S. currency); unofficial black-market rates ranged from 500 to 1,000 won to \$1.

³ Clerks, clerk supervisors, skilled and unskilled workers in public utilities, transportation, building construction, and mining.

Average receipts for all wage earners covered by the study were distributed as follows:

	Percent
Main occupation of household head.....	28.1
Receipts from—	
Debts incurred.....	27.3
Sales of possessions.....	21.0
Other wages.....	9.0
Company bonuses.....	3.4
Home industry.....	3.0
Investment.....	3.6
Gifts.....	2.8
Other sources.....	1.8
Total.....	100.0

This pattern recurred consistently during the months in which income and expenditure studies were carried out. It seems doubtful that a Korean

wage earner's family was able to obtain almost half its total receipts month after month from borrowing and the sale of possessions.

It seems likely that illegal bonuses in kind, which were known to be paid frequently in the consumer goods industries, and profits from black-market operations were reported as proceeds of loans and sale of possessions. This reasoning was substantiated by actual observation of these practices in many Government-controlled industries and within Government itself.

Following is a break-down of family expenditures by major groups of commodities and services for all wage earners during March 1948:

	Percent of total
Food.....	41.8
Clothing.....	9.6
Housing.....	5.1
Fuel, light, and water.....	20.6
Education.....	4.9
Recreation.....	1.3
Medicine.....	4.6
Taxes.....	1.6
Transportation.....	0.6
Tobacco.....	5.9
Others.....	4.0
Total.....	100.0

Subject to seasonal variations, this pattern was also considered generally valid. Except for wage earners engaged in mining, expenditures for fuel and utilities were substantially higher in the winter months. But even in other months, fuel and utilities accounted for a major part of a family's expenditures. Coal and wood were perpetually in such short supply that even twigs and grasses on the barren hills were systematically harvested. Korean coal is of low quality and it was formerly made into briquets with a binder imported from Japan; this binder was not available in sufficient quantities during the United States Occupation and coal imports were much smaller than requirements. The cost of fuel was therefore extremely high.

The general conclusion which was inevitable from these data on family receipts and expenditures was that an unsound system of wage-price relationship had been permitted to develop.

The Military Government and the South Korean Interim Government in the spring and summer of 1948 attempted to alleviate the plight of the wage earner in Government-controlled enterprises. As

a first step, the program involved adjusting wages upward in Government departments and offices in textile mills, utilities, mining, manufacturing, and other industries. These adjustments were made in the summer of 1948. The next step in the wage program was to have been quarterly adjustments pegged to consumer-price indexes which were to be developed. With the end of the Occupation, the wage problem fell to the new Korean Government.

No information is available in Washington as to its wage policy.

Labor Legislation and Standards

Labor legislation enacted under the auspices of the Military Government was substantial in coverage. Ordinance No. 19 of October 30, 1945, undertook to relieve "labor from the condition of absolute servitude," characteristic of Japanese rule. An added provision, however, stated that labor disputes would be settled by mediation boards whose decision would be final and that strikes were prohibited pending those decisions. A further prohibition outlawed strikes in essential industries. On December 8, 1945, Ordinance No. 34 established one national and separate provincial mediation boards, and Ordinance No. 97 established a Department of Labor on July 23, 1946, and gave labor the right to organize and bargain collectively.⁴ Ordinance No. 112, as modified by Public Act No. 4, effective June 18, 1947, aimed at eliminating the labor of children under 12 years of age in all industries and of female children under the age of 18 years in dangerous or heavy industries. On November 7, 1946, Ordinance No. 121 fixed a maximum workweek of 48 hours, with time and a half for work up to 60 hours; work beyond that limit was to be permitted only under emergency conditions. Other laws gave the Department of Public Health and Welfare certain responsibilities in developing programs for public assistance, child welfare, and protection of women in industry. No legislation was passed concerning workmen's compensation for industrial accidents or occupational disease but, under existing custom varying from industry to industry, some unsystematic provision was

made for payment of compensation to workers incurring accidents at work.

The child labor ordinance, although enforced in part, was unenforceable in many fields because Korean tradition made certain jobs unacceptable for adults and also because factory equipment was efficient only with child labor. This was particularly true in textile mills. The maximum hours law did not represent a major enforcement problem because, with shortages of power, raw materials, and replacement parts, production in many industries never reached a full 48 hours a week. Little action was taken in the general field of social security. Nor was a comprehensive industrial safety program carried out. Most of these shortcomings had their origin in the fact that the country's industries were not functioning effectively, and that shortages of industrial raw materials and skilled technical help were constant and almost universal.

The development of labor's right to organize and bargain collectively (implicit in ordinances Nos. 19 and 97) was hampered by the labor unions' intense concern with political affairs, the Communists' attempts to gain control of the labor movement, and both American and Korean officials' concern with the responsibilities of the growth of Communist influence.

Maintenance of order and the prevention of demonstrations which might endanger the security of the Occupation was a major goal of the United States Military Government. Police permission was required for meetings. It was not customarily granted to, nor often sought by, labor groups suspected of being in sympathy with the Communists. In addition, the police carried on an active campaign of surveillance against groups which were considered actively or potentially dissident, and a number of the labor unions were included in these categories.

Industrial Relations

Another problem faced by the United States was the establishment of governmental machinery to take over after the Japanese surrender. In the immediate postwar period, the Americans also had to contend with conflicting pressures from the Korean groups striving for governmental power. Furthermore, Government controlled the country's major productive resources. Complicating

⁴ With the establishment of the Republic of Korea, the Department of Labor ceased to exist. Its functions were placed in the Ministry of Social Welfare which is responsible for labor, as well as for public health and welfare.

these problems was constant Communist activity such as riots and attacks on the police, which made maintenance of order difficult. In some instances, the disorders were directly inspired by Communists. In others, Communists took advantage of local grievances and fanned the trouble to riot proportions. The result was that relations between capital and labor as they are understood in the West were impossible.

Governmental intervention in industrial relations had legal sanction in the ordinances which stated that disputes arising over terms and conditions of work would be settled by mediation boards whose decision would be final and binding on all parties, and which outlawed strikes in government-controlled essential industries.

The Role of Labor Unions

Labor unions did not play an important role in industrial relations during the American Occupation. This situation had its origin in numerous factors. The Koreans had never developed a democratic labor tradition. The Japanese, whose rule had been harshly suppressive in character, had maintained for themselves a virtual monopoly of industrial skills. Once they were gone, the overriding problem was to get industrial production underway in the south of Korea (which was only half a country) where people whose skills in the aggregate were insufficient.

Inexperienced industrially, "liberated" but disunited because of the Russian-imposed barrier, Korean groups, including labor unions, were often more preoccupied with political than with economic matters.

The All Korea Council of Labor Unions (Chung Pyung) fell early into the Communist orbit, and was driven underground in the fall of 1946, through police arrests of its leaders and lock-outs of many of its members. The union's demands in the railroad strike of September 1946, which resulted in its gradual suppression, were motivated politically as much as economically and evidence

existed that its leadership was engaged in a Communist-developed plan to paralyze the entire country. The Great Korean Independent Labor League (No Chong or Tai Han), which was organized to combat the influence of Chung Pyung, did not take on any attributes of a labor union for a long time because its primary goals were the fight against Communism generally and the acceleration of production. Gradually, however, in a few fields such as utilities, transportation, and in the major ports, the league took on some labor union characteristics. In Pusan, the country's major port, for example, the local stevedore union worked successfully toward rationalization of the stevedoring contractor system and the labor force. In general, however, the League never successfully differentiated between its economic and its political goals.

There is no way of determining membership strength of the two labor federations. When the All Korea Council of Labor Unions went underground in the fall of 1946, it claimed a total membership of about 250,000. In June 1948, the Great Korean Independent Labor League claimed a total membership of slightly more than a million, but the Interim Department of Labor's estimate was no more than 250,000. Even this seems high in view of the data on total industrial employment.

Except for an agreement with the management of the government-controlled Seoul Electric Co., collective bargaining has not been widely practiced. Its practice was in effect prohibited by Government control over wages in that portion of industry subject to control, and by the ban on strikes in essential industries. When disputes between workers and management became critical, solutions were found either through compulsory arbitration by mediation boards, Military Government orders, intercession by the Labor Department, or occasionally through the appointment of special fact-finding boards who heard disputes and acted in an advisory capacity to the Military Governor who thereupon made decisions settling the disputes.

Summaries of Studies and Reports

Developments in Consumers' Co-ops in 1948¹

FOR THE CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT as a whole, the picture in 1948 was one of generally favorable operations, though with larger and more frequent areas of difficulty. The wholesales in 1947 had warned their member associations that retail distributive cooperatives were facing "the toughest competitive battle in years" and this proved to be the case. Although the supply situation had greatly improved, prices were uncertain and net margins narrowed. The more stringent business conditions also revealed many instances of undercapitalization, membership apathy and resultant lack of patronage and support, and weakness in management, sometimes of fatal proportions. Many of the stable and successful cooperatives found their earnings smaller than in previous years.

Among the wholesale cooperatives, one of the most important activities consisted of steps to insure adequate supplies of petroleum products through the purchase of sources of crude oil. Several wholesales extended their holdings of producing oil wells and oil-bearing land.

Credit unions appear to have had another successful year, bringing membership, loans, and assets to new high levels. Scattered reports indicate that insurance associations also had a good year.

One of the most significant events of 1948 was the holding of the sixteenth biennial congress of the Cooperative League of the U. S. A., bringing together delegates from distributive, housing, health, and other cooperatives from all over the United States.

¹ Prepared by Florence E. Parker of the Bureau's Office of Program Planning. A somewhat more detailed report will appear later in bulletin form.

Cooperative Congress

The sixteenth biennial cooperative congress was held in Minneapolis, November 9-11. It was preceded by the convention of the Cooperative Health Federation.

The League president praised the starting of cooperatives by labor-union members, as a great step in cementing "the social and economic bonds between farmers and labor." He recommended establishment of a national research organization for cooperatives.

The national secretary warned that "the next few years will decide whether cooperatives in America are to remain a comparatively small segment of our economy and national life" or whether they are to become a "vital and significant factor." He pointed out that their fate will be decided primarily by the following factors: (1) The success of cooperative business enterprise, (2) the relations of cooperative members with their fellow citizens in the local communities, (3) the effectiveness of their national public relations program, and (4) the general attitude of the American Nation toward cooperatives, and the consequent action of the United States Government with respect to them.

Relative to petroleum, the congress adopted resolutions (a) recommending that the Cooperative League make a national survey to determine the 5-year requirements of cooperatives with respect to crude-oil refining and distribution, and the cost and means of financing such a 5-year program, reporting from time to time to the league board and finally to the next cooperative congress; (b) urging the Federal Government to foster the development of synthetic fuels and to pass legislation enabling cooperatives to participate in such a program; (c) opposing any legislation quit-claiming to the States the tideland oil, and urging the Eighty-first Congress to pass legislation providing

for equitable access to such oil and for its conservation; and (d) supporting the request of the International Cooperative Alliance for a United Nations study of international oil resources and distribution.²

On the subject of taxation, the congress reaffirmed "the fundamental right of any group to conduct a nonprofit business and to refund its earnings to the patrons without taxation of such refunds," and urged the President and the Congress of the United States to appoint a tax commission to examine and reconstruct the national tax structure. It also authorized the appointment of a league committee composed of tax experts and others to study the subject.

Regarding finance, the congress recommended the elimination of credit business in cooperatives, formation of community cooperative credit unions, establishment of regional cooperative lending agencies and of loan-rediscout facilities, and functioning of the National Cooperative Finance Association as a brokerage agency for the sale and exchange of cooperative securities.

A resolution on public relations noted that the objective should be to inform the public that cooperatives furnish the means to benefit both producers and consumers; authorized conferences on area, regional, national, or other bases; and urged coordination of the testimony of nonfarm groups before the United States Congress.

Local Associations

For the stable consumers' cooperative associations, 1948 appears to have been a year fairly satisfactory from the standpoint of supply of goods and volume of business done, but yielding in many cases lower operating savings. However, retail earnings were supplemented for a substantial proportion of the associations by patronage refunds from the district and regional wholesales. Exceptions were those wholesales dealing largely or mainly in food; these, it appears, again suffered losses.

New departments or services were added by many retail cooperatives. Some of the expansion was part of the present trend toward larger premises (preferably with parking space), permitting operation of complete food, produce, and meat departments, and, in some cases, appliance and service departments. Other associations

closed departments which were "in the red"; notable among these were many electrical-appliance departments.

A rather large number of cooperatives disposed of one or more of their branches during the past year. Many of these branches were closed, but some became independent associations.

In the local distributive field, 1948 ushered in a comparatively small group of newly formed associations. Reports received thus far indicate that these were hardly sufficient in number to offset the dissolutions, which continued at an unusually high rate during the year. Many in the latter group were associations which had never been large enough for efficient operation, and some probably should never have been started. The urban associations—especially those handling food only—accounted for a large proportion of the failures. Among the new cooperatives which went into operation in 1948 were those of industrial workers in Bastrop, La., and Baytown, Tex. New Negro associations were reported in Kansas City and St. Louis, Mo., and New York City. Others already were in successful operation in Chicago, Ill., Gary, Ind., Inkster, Mich., and Richmond, Va.

Two department-store organizations, financed by the Consumer Distribution Corporation (established by the late E. A. Filene, of Boston), opened in March and November, respectively, in Arlington, Va., and Providence, R. I. Eventually, it is planned, these enterprises will become genuinely cooperative, as members purchase share capital, thus retiring the corporation's investment.

Associations operating warehouse-type units, handling only a few hundred items, are more than holding their own, recent reports indicate. The Motor City Consumers Cooperative (Detroit) opened a second unit in November. Other such warehouses were in operation in Flint and Pontiac, Mich. All these organizations have had the support of organized labor, especially of the automobile workers. Plans for similar distribution centers are reported from Grand Rapids and Muskegon, Mich., and Toledo, Ohio. Advantages claimed for this type of retailing are reduction in handling costs and in investment in fixtures and equipment, and rapid turn-over of goods, resulting in greater savings for patrons.

Of the two union-supported stores in the Hampton Roads (Va.) area, that at Hampton, whose

²See Monthly Labor Review, December 1948, p. 600.

first month's sales (in November 1947) averaged \$8,000 per week "in an area that had had no co-operative and had never seen a co-op label," was by the end of its first year doing a business of over \$16,000 per week. The other, at Newport News, which had sales of nearly \$19,000 in its first 3 days of business, had succeeded so well that by the end of 1948 it had added a clothes and appliance department to its supermarket and had an option on a site for a second store.

An encouraging sign is the tendency to delay opening any kind of business enterprise until adequate capital, sufficient membership, and suitable facilities are obtained.

Health Plans

At the first annual meeting of the Cooperative Health Federation of America, which preceded the congress of the Cooperative League in November, the need for State and Federal legislation authorizing and protecting consumer-controlled medical-care plans was emphasized. Only Wisconsin now has legislation approaching the standards contained in the Federation's model bill. About 30 States have laws which prohibit consumer-controlled or community-sponsored plans and reserve to the medical profession the operation of group prepayment plans.

The principal obstacles to the growth of cooperative health plans, according to the report of the Federation's executive secretary, are (1) misunderstanding by the organized medical profession of the cooperatives' aims and purposes, (2) discrimination against physicians who participate in cooperative plans and threats of discrimination against those contemplating such participation, (3) "restrictive legislation denying the people the right even to organize for the promotion of their own health care," and (4) a lack of information among the public about the benefits of cooperative health plans. It was felt that joint meetings with representatives of the American Medical Association had resulted in some progress in remedying the first two situations mentioned above. Thus, "voluntary prepayment group health plans" were recognized in the report of the National Health Assembly³ as the "best available

means at this time of bringing about improved distribution of medical care, particularly in rural areas"; an exchange of information on aims, purposes, and standards between the American Medical Association and the Federation was agreed upon; the Puget Sound cooperative was placed on the American Medical Association's "approved" list; and cooperative hospitals were admitted to membership in the Texas Hospital Association.

Nevertheless, local associations were still reporting discrimination at the county level and difficulty in recruiting medical staff because of opposition by organized medicine.

The cooperative health convention went on record as favoring a revision of the financing formula of the Hospital Construction Act, to make Federal funds more easily available to areas of greatest need and to require that bona fide consumer representatives be included on State hospital councils.

Other resolutions asked Group Health Mutual of St. Paul (an insurance association providing cash indemnity benefits for sickness and hospital costs) to prepare a proposal for supplemental insurance coverages for local direct-service plans; directed the Cooperative Health Federation's board of directors to investigate the feasibility of establishing a publication dealing with medical subjects of interest to member associations; and urged that provision for supplementary medical care of employees be made an integral part of collective bargaining.

Two regional bodies were formed during 1948 to further the expansion of cooperative local health service in the Puget Sound and Lake Superior districts. In the Puget Sound area, a plan has been worked out for integrated coverage of the whole region by nine plans, each serving a "medical trade area"; Group Health Cooperative, Seattle, took the first step in this plan by establishing a branch clinic in the nearby town of Renton. A similar plan is being worked out for the Lake Superior district, under the leadership of the Health Center Services Committee, St. Paul.

Among the local associations, Group Health Association (Washington, D. C.) reported a membership of 6,500 and (including their dependents) 15,500 participants; this organization opened a 12-chair dental clinic in December 1948, the first such plan on a cooperative basis to come to the attention of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

³ This was a conference of many agencies and groups concerned with health matters, called by the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency at the request of President Truman; it was held May 1-4, 1948.

Group Health Cooperative of Puget Sound (Seattle) reported a membership of 2,900 families and 12,000 industrial workers—a total of 25,000 participants. Arrowhead Health Center (Duluth, Minn.) reported a membership of 1,400, with 3,800 participants. Organization of hospital and medical-care associations was under way in several places in Wisconsin, as a result of the 1947 enabling act, and one hospital (at Wild Rose) was already in operation.

Group Health Mutual of St. Paul reported a total coverage of some 75,000, under its individual and group policies.

Of 101 cooperative hospital associations reported as having been chartered by the end of 1948, the cooperative features or the entire project had been abandoned in 29 because of inability to raise funds, local opposition or disinterest, or other reasons. Altogether, 28 hospitals were in operation (8 more than at the end of 1947), and 21 others were known to be in various stages of progress (buying land, collecting funds, building their hospital, etc.). The exact status of the other 23 organizations at the end of the year was not known. Texas was far in the lead, with 38 associations (13 of these had hospitals actually in operation).

Housing Associations

Thirteen of the housing groups formed within the past few years had one or more houses or units built or under construction at the end of 1948. Of the 1,767 dwelling units planned by these associations, 571 were either finished or under construction. Two additional associations (with 1,209 units planned) were building their first group of houses, but did not report the number involved. Four other housing organizations were in process of constructing apartment-house projects, expecting eventually to provide 2,700 living units. Mutual housing associations had been successful in reaching agreement with the Federal Public Housing Administration to take over 8 public wartime housing projects involving over 5,500 dwelling units; 3 other projects (with 830 units) were in process of negotiation and financing.

Group Housing Association (Washington, D. C.), whose Bannockburn project has been in process for some time, broke ground for its first group of 24 houses early in January 1949. Its entire proj-

ect, if local zoning regulations can be modified, will include a whole community with varied types of dwellings (single-family, semidetached, and apartment-house units).

Eight other projects (with 1,900 units planned), for most of which land has been acquired, have been halted at various stages of progress by high prices, financing difficulties, legal troubles, etc.

It appears that few of the housing associations will be all-the-way cooperatives, with the associations retaining titles to the entire properties. Most of them (owing, in some instances, to inability to obtain financing on the fully cooperative basis) provide for individual titles to land and dwellings. In such co-venture associations, the cooperative itself will disappear once it has served the purpose for which it was formed, such as buying land, obtaining plans, buying materials, equipment, fixtures, etc. Where there are playgrounds, community buildings, or other real estate used for the welfare of the whole group, the cooperative may be retained to hold title to and manage the property.

At a Midwest meeting held in June 1949, co-operators and housing experts reached the conclusion that present high costs preclude the building of any 2-bedroom dwelling at a price within the means of a family with an annual income of \$3,500 or less. A possible solution of such a family's problem was thought to be the construction of an exterior (or "shell") dwelling, which the family could then finish inside by its own labor. In fact, some of the projects are known to be using self-help methods, with the members doing a large share of the work themselves.

The Federal Housing Act, as amended in 1948 (Pub. 901, 80th Cong., 2d sess.), provides for FHA mortgage insurance, of not over 90 percent of the value, for nonprofit cooperative housing projects (95 percent, if the membership consists primarily of veterans of World War II). By the end of 1948, it appeared that only one such project had actually been approved for FHA insurance. The resumption of the previous 10-percent-down-payment requirement on public housing projects and on the so-called "greenbelt towns," and the authorization of FHA insurance on them, has again brought the purchase of such projects within the means of mutual housing organizations of project residents.

Wage Chronology No. 5: Chrysler Corporation, 1939-48¹

THE FIRST AGREEMENT between the Chrysler Corporation and the United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (UAW-CIO) was entered into on April 6, 1937. The first agreement to include provisions affecting wages or wage practices became effective on November 29, 1939. This chronology traces the general changes in wage rates and related wage practices from that date. Thus, the provisions of this agreement do not necessarily indicate changes in the conditions of employment that existed prior to November 29, 1939.

The current agreement covers approximately 73,000 workers in the corporation's Detroit plants known as Chrysler-Jefferson, Chrysler-Kercheval, Dodge Main, Dodge Forge, Dodge Truck, De Soto,

¹ Prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics by Philip Arnow. For purpose and scope of wage chronology series, see Monthly Labor Review, December 1948. Reprints of chronologies are available upon request.

Highland Park, Plymouth, Amplex-Harper, and Lynch Road, and in the plants in Marysville, Mich.; Los Angeles and San Leandro, Calif.; and New Castle, Evansville, and Kokomo, Ind. The Evansville and Kokomo plants, however, were first covered by the agreements in 1941 and 1942, respectively, the Lynch Road plant in April 1947, and the San Leandro plant in January 1949. During World War II, the Tank Arsenal and the De Soto Bomber Plant in Detroit, and the Dodge-Chicago plant were also covered.

The initial (1939) contract and succeeding ones have applied to all production and maintenance employees, excluding foremen, assistant foremen, timekeepers, plant protection employees, office and confidential salaried employees, and salaried engineers. Since 1940, the International Die Sinkers Conference has represented employees in this trade at the New Castle plant. In 1947, the International Union of Operating Engineers (AFL) was certified as bargaining agent for steam engineers in the De Soto plant. Since 1942, the UAW-CIO has had bargaining rights for various

A—General Wage Changes¹

Effective date	Provision	Application, exceptions, and other related matters
Nov. 29, 1939-----	3 cents an hour increase in Detroit and Los Angeles plants; 4 cents an hour increase in Marysville, New Castle, Evansville, and Kokomo plants.	
Dec. 19, 1940 (by agreement of Dec. 10, 1940).	2 cents an hour increase-----	
June 1, 1941 (by agreement of June 2, 1941).	8 cents an hour increase-----	Minimum hiring and job rates (applicable to lowest-paid classifications) increased by only 5 cents. Additional increase of 6 cents an hour to tool and die makers and specific classifications of skilled maintenance workers: machine repairmen, millwrights, and electricians. An average increase of 1½ cents provided for all other skilled maintenance and power-house employees.
June 1, 1942 (by directive orders of National War Labor Board, Oct. 2 and Oct. 24, 1942).	4 cents an hour increase-----	
Oct. 6, 1944 (by directive order of National War Labor Board, Apr. 12, 1945).	-----	
Jan. 28, 1946 (by agreement of Jan. 26, 1946).	18.5 cents an hour increase---	Increase of 5 cents an hour to skilled maintenance and power-house workers included in 1942 directive orders and interpretations.
Apr. 28, 1947 (by agreement of Apr. 26, 1947).	11.5 cents an hour increase---	
May 31, 1948 (by agreement of May 28, 1948).	13 cents an hour increase-----	Additional increases of 5 cents an hour to skilled maintenance and power-house workers; 4 cents an hour to all foundry classifications. Additional increase of 3 cents an hour to workers at minimum rates.

See footnotes on p. 413.

groups of timekeepers, office, cafeteria, and engineering employees, and, for a time, plant guards. The adjustments affecting these workers are omitted from this chronology.

The most recent agreement, entered into on

May 28, 1948, is to remain in effect until August 1, 1950. However, between June 15, 1949, and August 1, 1950, the agreement may be opened once by each party on the question of the general level of wage rates.

B—Hiring and Minimum Job Rates (Detroit Plants) ²

Effective date	Hiring rate	Minimum job rate attained after—	Minimum job rate	Effective date	Hiring rate	Minimum job rate attained after—	Minimum job rate
Nov. 29, 1939.....	\$0. 68	6 months.....	\$0. 78	Sept. 10, 1943 ³	\$0. 79	3 months.....	\$0. 89
Dec. 19, 1940.....	. 70	do.....	. 80	Jan. 28, 1946.....	. 975	do.....	1. 075
June 1, 1941.....	. 75	do.....	. 85	Apr. 28, 1947.....	1. 09	do.....	1. 19
June 1, 1942.....	. 79	do.....	. 89	May 31, 1948.....	1. 25	do.....	1. 35

C—Related Wage Practices ⁴

Effective date	Provision	Application, exceptions, and other related matters
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SHIFT PREMIUM PAY

Nov. 29, 1939.....	5 percent on 2d and 3d shifts.....	
Jan. 26, 1946.....	5 percent on 2d shift; 7.5 percent on 3d shift..	

OVERTIME PAY—DAILY AND WEEKLY

Nov. 29, 1939.....	Time and one-half for work in excess of 8 hours a day or 40 hours a week.	
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OVERTIME PAY—WEEK END ⁵

Nov. 29, 1939.....	Time and one-half for Saturday work in excess of 40 hours a week. Double time for work on Sunday.....	No employee was to be laid off during week to avoid overtime rates on Saturday. Employees on 7-day operations were to receive double time only for work on seventh consecutive day.
Sept. 10, 1943.....	Added: Time and one-half for the sixth consecutive day worked in the regularly scheduled workweek.	
Jan. 26, 1946.....		A full day's absence due to material shortages (not caused by labor disputes) was to be counted as a day worked for purposes of determining sixth day.

HOLIDAY PAY

Nov. 29, 1939.....	Double time for work on 6 specified holidays..	New Year's Day, Memorial Day, July 4, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas Day.
Apr. 26, 1947.....	6 paid holidays established for which workers with seniority were to receive 8 hours' straight-time pay. Double time (total) for holidays worked.	Holidays listed above. Those falling on Saturday were to be paid for.

See footnotes on p. 413.

C—Related Wage Practices—continued

Effective date	Provision	Application, exceptions, and other related matters
<i>PAY IN LIEU OF VACATION</i>		
Nov. 29, 1939-----	No provision for vacation payments-----	
Dec. 10, 1940-----	\$40 to hourly rated workers with 1 year's seniority on Dec. 1, 1940.	In lieu of vacation with pay for year 1941, payable in December 1940.
June 2, 1941-----	Vacation pay increased to \$45-----	In lieu of vacation with pay for year 1942, payable in December 1941.
Oct. 2, 1942-----	Added: Vacation pay of \$90 to workers with 5 or more years of seniority on Dec. 1, 1942.	In lieu of vacation with pay for 1943, payable in December 1942. In accordance with directive order of National War Labor Board. (Arrangement continued for vacation years 1944 and 1945.)
Jan. 26, 1946-----	Vacation pay increased to \$52.40 for workers with 1 to 5 years' seniority and to \$104.80 for those with 5 years' or more.	In lieu of vacation with pay for 1946, payable in May 1946.
Apr. 26, 1947-----	Vacation pay increased to \$57 and \$114, respectively.	In lieu of vacation with pay for 1947, payable in May 1947. (Arrangement continued for vacation year 1948.)
May 28, 1948-----	Vacation pay increased to \$62.20 and \$124.40, respectively.	In lieu of vacation with pay for 1949, payable in May 1949.
<i>REPORTING TIME</i>		
Nov. 29, 1939-----	2 hours' pay at regular rate when employee called in to work and no work available at regular job or other employment.	Not applicable when lack of work was due to labor dispute, fire, flood, or other cause beyond control of management.
Sept. 10, 1943-----	Reporting time increased from 2 to 3 hours---	
Apr. 26, 1947-----	Reporting time increased to 4 hours-----	
<i>PAID LUNCH PERIODS</i>		
Dec. 10, 1940-----	On full-time 3-shift operations, where shift did not exceed 8 hours, a one-quarter hour paid lunch period was to be provided for each shift.	Not applicable to shifts of 8 hours for which an additional period for lunch was maintained, or to shortened shifts allowing time for a lunch period.
<p>¹ General wage changes are construed as upward or downward changes that affect an entire establishment, bargaining unit, or substantial group of workers at one time. Not included within the term, and therefore omitted from this tabulation, are adjustments in individual rates (promotions, merit increases, etc.) and minor adjustments in wage structure (such as changes in specific classification rates) that do not have an immediate and noticeable effect on the general wage level of the establishment. (Examples of such omitted adjustments are increases in classification rates ranging from 2 to 10 cents an hour in 1947 and adjustments of from 5 to 10 cents in 1948.) The general wage changes listed above were the major adjustments made during the period covered. Because of the omission of the non-general changes, and</p> <p>because of other factors, the total of the general wage changes listed will not necessarily coincide with the amount of change in average hourly earnings over the same period.</p> <p>² Applicable to lowest-paid classifications. New hires advanced 5 cents an hour after the first 30 days.</p> <p>³ The agreement of this date provided for advancement of probationary employees to top rates of their respective classifications in 3 instead of 6 months.</p> <p>⁴ The last entry under each classification represents the most recent change.</p> <p>⁵ During the period covered by Executive Order 9240 (Oct. 1, 1942—Aug. 21, 1945), these provisions were modified in practice to conform to that order</p>		

Correction: Wage Chronology No. 4—Bituminous-Coal Mines, 1933-48

In the March 1949 issue of the Monthly Labor Review, page 307, the last two figures in the last column (headed July 1, 1948) of table 4 should read as follows for sand dryers, car cleaners, and other able-bodied labor: \$82.75 (instead of \$18.75) for full-time weekly earnings, 6-day week, and \$1.756 (instead of \$2.756) for straight-time hourly earnings.

West Coast Sawmilling: Earnings in August 1948¹

HOURLY EARNINGS of band-head-saw operators in West Coast sawmills averaged \$2.21 in August 1948, exclusive of overtime and shift premiums.² For head-sawyers using circular saws, the average was 5 cents higher. Only saw filers on bench work had higher levels of pay, averaging \$2.34, than the head-sawyers among the 33 selected sawmill occupational groups studied. Lumber stackers working in air-drying or storage operations, many of whom were paid on an incentive basis, also averaged over \$2. Janitors (mill clean-up men) and watchmen had the lowest pay, averaging \$1.43 and \$1.39 an hour, respectively.

Among logging occupations, rates of pay frequently exceeded the top rates in the sawmills. For example, hourly earnings of fallers using power equipment averaged \$3.36, and of those performing both falling and bucking with power-driven tools, \$3.23. Workers performing comparable operations by hand had respective averages of \$2.44 and \$2.01; hand buckers averaged \$2.55. Most of the falling and bucking crews were paid incentive rates. In addition to the aforementioned, earnings of high riggers (climbers), hook tenders (high lead), jammer engineers, and saw filers of power saws equaled or exceeded \$2 an hour. Drivers of light trucks (under 16,000 pounds) alone, of the 27 logging groups studied, averaged as little as \$1.55.

For all workers as a group, including those in establishments having their own logging crews, earnings averaged \$1.70 an hour. About 2 percent of the workers earned less than \$1.35 and a slightly larger proportion received at least \$3 an hour. Over 70 percent of all workers had earnings within a 40-cent range—between \$1.40 and \$1.80. The general level of earnings in those establishments without their own logging operations was lower than in the integrated companies (\$1.62 compared with \$1.73). This relationship

¹ Prepared by Kermit B. Mohn of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis. Collection of the data was directed by John L. Dana, the Bureau's Regional Wage Analyst in San Francisco.

The study covered 161 establishments employing approximately 49,000 workers. Included were independent sawmills as well as those having their own logging operations; independent or contract loggers were excluded.

² Earnings data include payments under incentive systems but exclude nonproduction bonuses as well as overtime and shift premiums.

was primarily due to the higher wages paid in the logging segment. Rates of pay among mill jobs as between independent and integrated operations revealed no consistent pattern of variation.

Separate data were prepared for each of four important lumbering segments—Douglas Fir, Redwood, and two districts for Western Pine.³ Pay rates for the selected occupations were almost uniformly higher in the Douglas Fir area in both logging and sawmilling. The southern district of the Western Pine area ranked second, with Redwood next in line. Band-head-saw operators' earnings ranged from \$2.34 in Douglas Fir to \$2.07 in Western Pine (north), and janitors (mill clean-up men) earned from \$1.46 to \$1.38. Fallers and buckers (power) earned \$3.76 an hour, on the average, in Douglas Fir lumbering, \$3.29 in the southern district of Western Pine, \$2.92 in Redwood, and \$2.40 in the northern Western Pine district.

Interplant variations in occupational rates of pay did not appear to be greatly influenced by differences in establishment size, whether measured by sawmill capacity or total employment. Differences in occupational averages among various sized establishments for the lower-pay time-rated jobs frequently amounted to only a few cents an hour, but for jobs at the higher end of the wage structure the differences were slightly greater. In a number of instances this was due to incentive methods of wage payment and in others it probably was a result of special rates paid to workers in skilled occupations. Among these higher pay jobs, however, there appeared to be no consistent pattern of variation among the different sized establishments.

The similarity of the wage structures among different sized establishments was undoubtedly influenced to a certain extent by the standardization of the union agreements negotiated by various employer groups in the region. In all areas except Redwood, a substantial majority of the mills studied were covered by agreements.

³ The areas used in this study include: *Douglas Fir*—States of Washington and Oregon west of the Cascade mountains and the counties of Del Norte and Humboldt, in California; *Redwood*—the counties of Del Norte, Humboldt, Mendocino, and Sonoma in California; *Western Pine (north)*—State of Washington east of the Cascade mountains; the States of Idaho and Montana; and the following counties in Oregon—Baker, Gilliam, Hood River, Morrow, Sherman, Umatilla, Union, Wallowa, and Wasco; and *Western Pine (south)*—the counties of Crook, Deschutes, Grant, Harney, Jackson, Jefferson, Klamath, Lake, Malheur, and Wheeler in Oregon; and the State of California except the counties of Del Norte, Humboldt, Mendocino, and Sonoma.

Straight-time average hourly earnings¹ for selected occupations in West Coast sawmills, by area, August 1948

Occupation	West Coast		Average hourly earnings in—			
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Douglas Fir area	Redwood area	Western Pine area	
					Northern district	Southern district
<i>Logging</i>						
Blacksmiths, maintenance	52	\$1.72	\$1.80	(2)	\$1.61	\$1.73
Boom men	141	1.85	1.86	(2)		
Brakemen, railroad	172	1.59	1.65	(2)	(2)	1.54
Buckers, hand	1,292	2.55	2.64	(2)	(2)	2.24
Bulldozer operators	521	1.94	2.03	\$1.89	1.89	1.91
Cat drivers, skidding	1,001	1.90	2.01	1.86	1.82	1.87
Chokermen (choker setters)	2,237	1.62	1.66	1.58	1.58	1.60
Engineers, railroad	127	1.75	1.79	(2)	1.66	1.75
Fallers and buckers, hand	892	2.01	(2)	(2)	1.98	2.01
Fallers and buckers, power	1,758	3.23	3.76	2.92	2.40	3.29
Fallers, hand	309	2.44	2.44			
Fallers, power	608	3.36	3.45		2.40	3.21
Firemen, railroad	121	1.56	1.60	(2)	(2)	1.54
Gravel truck drivers	258	1.62	1.64	(2)	1.50	1.62
Ground loaders (second loaders)	990	1.70	1.76	1.63	1.76	1.66
Groundmen, rigging	256	1.74	1.79	1.61		1.60
Head loaders (top loaders)	455	1.93	1.97	1.77	1.87	1.94
High riggers (climbers)	80	2.17	2.23	(2)		(2)
Hook tenders, high lead	204	2.16	2.19	1.96	(2)	1.93
Jammer engineers	536	2.05	2.15	1.76	1.86	2.03
Log scalers	478	1.74	1.91	1.76	1.38	1.70
Mechanics, automotive (garage mechanics)	572	1.81	1.88	1.77	1.67	1.82
Saw filers, cross-cut saws	95	1.95	2.10	(2)	1.60	1.88
Saw filers, power saws	106	2.00	2.11	1.74	(2)	2.07
Truck drivers, logging-heavy, over 30,000 pounds	1,010	1.68	1.71	1.68	1.53	1.73
Truck drivers, logging-medium, 16,000-30,000 pounds	320	1.64	1.73	(2)	1.51	1.72
Truck drivers, logging-light, under 16,000 pounds	84	1.55	(2)	(2)	1.45	(2)
<i>Sawmilling</i>						
Band-head-saw operators	531	2.21	2.34	2.15	2.07	2.20
Blacksmiths, maintenance	141	1.74	1.79	1.70	1.65	1.75
Block setters	896	1.67	1.66	1.54	1.61	1.73
Carrier drivers	1,194	1.60	1.62	1.54	1.54	1.60
Circular-head-saw operators	304	2.26	2.30	(2)	2.15	2.29
Cut-off saw operators (treadle operated or swinging)	513	1.56	1.55	1.74	1.42	1.60
Dry-kiln operators	207	1.70	1.69	(2)	1.61	1.76
Edgermen	1,062	1.73	1.78	1.73	1.62	1.73
End lift truck operators	596	1.59	1.63	1.54	1.49	1.61
Firemen, stationary boiler	1,306	1.52	1.54	1.50	1.45	1.53
Graders, lumber (green chain)	723	1.71	1.69	1.69	1.63	1.77
Graders, planed lumber	973	1.73	1.70	1.61	1.57	1.87
Janitors (mill clean-up men)	1,552	1.43	1.46	1.38	1.38	1.40
Loaders, car and truck	2,326	1.90	1.95	1.95	1.77	1.83
Log deckmen	631	1.51	1.53	1.46	1.45	1.53
Lumber stackers, air-drying or storage	1,101	2.10	2.47	1.68	1.84	2.16
Lumber stackers, kiln drying	1,127	1.88	1.66	1.77	1.87	2.08
Machinists, maintenance	511	1.78	1.80	1.71	1.68	1.83
Mechanics, automotive	266	1.72	1.78	1.66	1.56	1.74
Millwrights	1,136	1.79	1.82	1.72	1.68	1.78
Off-bearers, head rig	847	1.51	1.55	1.47	1.44	1.51
Off-bearers, machine	1,872	1.46	1.49	1.54	1.41	1.46
Planer operators (set-up and operate)	309	1.70	1.79	(2)	1.57	1.70
Planer operators (feed only)	1,061	1.52	1.56	1.57	1.44	1.51
Pondmen and yardmen	1,686	1.54	1.58	1.51	1.45	1.53
Saw filers, bench work	422	2.34	2.33	2.09	2.19	2.60
Saw filers, fitters and helpers	359	1.71	1.75	1.59	1.65	1.72
Set-up men, woodworking machines	392	1.80	1.85	1.82	1.72	1.72
Sorters, green chain	4,472	1.57	1.52	1.59	1.50	1.80
Sorters, rough dry lumber	1,167	1.62	1.55	1.82	1.45	1.74
Tallymen	970	1.61	1.64	1.58	1.55	1.57
Trimmermen, all types ³	934	1.60	1.64	1.57	1.51	1.60
1 saw operations (1 man)	146	1.52	1.53	(2)	1.45	
2 or 3 saw operations (1 man)	95	1.54	(2)	(2)	1.54	1.50
4-10 saw operations (1 man)	87	1.57			1.52	1.59
11 or more saw operations (trimmermen and 1 helper)	76	1.61	(2)		(2)	1.63
11 or more saw operations (trimmermen and 1 helper)	162	1.66	1.72	(2)	(2)	1.57
11 or more saw operations (trimmermen and 2 helpers)	91	1.67	1.74	(2)	1.53	(2)
Classification not available	249	1.62	1.64	1.57	1.50	1.64
Watchmen	1,416	1.39	1.44	1.37	1.32	1.33

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.

² Insufficient number of workers and/or plants to justify presentation of an average.

³ Includes data for types not shown separately.

Related Wage Practices

In August 1948, the 40-hour workweek was scheduled in about three-fourths of the mills studied. Longer workweeks, with 48 hours being most frequent, were reported in the remainder of the establishments. About 42 percent of the mills operated a second shift, all but a few of which paid a differential, generally amounting to less than 5 cents an hour. Only 9 percent of the workers were employed on the second shift. Third shifts were in operation in only 8 of the 161 mills studied.

Vacations with pay after 1 year of service were provided for nonoffice workers by about seven-eighths of all establishments studied. In all except one case, the vacation period was 1 week. Paid vacations were least frequently granted in the northern district of the Western Pine area. Paid holidays for plant workers were practically nonexistent, with only two mills reporting this practice.

About a third of the establishments had life insurance plans for their nonoffice workers and slightly less than a fourth provided health insurance. Only one company reported a retirement pension plan for these workers. Nonproduction bonuses for plant workers existed in 10 percent of the companies. In most of these cases, the bonuses were paid at Christmas time.

Wood and Upholstered Furniture: Earnings in September 1948

EARNINGS OF MEN employed in 12 wood-furniture plant occupations in Los Angeles ranged from \$1.22 to \$1.70 an hour in September 1948 (table 1).² Hourly averages for individual jobs were from 8 to 33 cents lower in Chicago—the

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Louis E. Badenhop. Data were collected by field representatives under the direction of the Bureau's regional wage analysts. The study was limited to plants with 21 or more workers in the wood household and office furniture industry, and to plants with 8 or more workers in the upholstered furniture industry. Greater detail on wages and wage practices for each area represented here is available on request.

² Earnings data represent average straight-time hourly earnings, including earnings under incentive pay plans but excluding premium pay for overtime and night work

area ranking next to Los Angeles among 10 leading wood-furniture production centers. In Grand Rapids (Mich.) and Rockford (Ill.) earnings were usually near the Chicago levels. These 4 areas, as well as Fitchburg-Gardner (Mass.) and Jamestown (N. Y.), seldom had job earnings averaging less than \$1.10 an hour. Among 3 southern areas (Martinsville, Va.; Morganton-Lenoir, N. C.; and Winston-Salem-High Point, N. C.), individual job averages rarely differed by more than 5 cents an hour and were usually below the \$1.10 level.

Earnings of men in 4 upholstered-furniture production areas were highest in New York, where hourly averages ranged from \$1.46 to \$2.52, and were lowest in Winston-Salem-High Point, where averages ranged from 82 cents to \$1.60 (table 2).

Off-bearers, the lowest-paid men's occupation in each area, averaged \$1.22 in Los Angeles wood-furniture plants; among the other areas, hourly earnings ranged from 76 cents in Morganton-Lenoir to 97 cents in Chicago. Among the higher-pay jobs, general maintenance men and hand shaper operators in Los Angeles averaged \$1.67 and \$1.70. In the other areas, averages for general maintenance men ranged from \$1.04 in Martinsville to \$1.37 in Grand Rapids, and for shaper operators from \$1.01 in Winston-Salem-High Point to \$1.38 in Chicago.

Upholsterers and cover cutters were among the highest paid men in upholstered-furniture plants; area averages of complete-suite upholsterers ranged from \$1.56 to \$2.43 and of cover cutters from \$1.31 to \$2.50. Earnings of furniture packers, representative of wages in the lower-pay jobs, ranged from 89 cents to \$1.46. In each of these comparisons, earnings were highest in New York and lowest in Winston-Salem-High Point.

Women plant workers accounted for a very small proportion of the labor force in both wood and upholstered furniture plants. Women hand sanders in nine wood-furniture areas earned from 70 cents in Morganton-Lenoir to \$1.26 in Los Angeles, and slightly over \$1 in Rockford and Chicago. A majority of the women plant workers in the upholstered-furniture industry were employed as cover sewers. Their earnings averaged \$1 or more in all areas, and as much as \$2.13 in New York.

Area averages of women hand bookkeepers were above \$1 in both industries. General stenographers and clerk-typists were also above the \$1 level

TABLE 1.—Average straight-time hourly earnings¹ in selected occupations in wood furniture establishments in selected areas, September 1948

Occupation and sex	Chicago, Ill.	Fitchburg-Gardner, Mass.	Grand Rapids, Mich.	Jamestown, N. Y.	Jasper-Tell City, Ind.	Los Angeles, Calif.	Martinsville, Va.	Morgantown-Lenoir, N. C.	Rockford, Ill.	Winston-Salem-High Point, N. C.
<i>Plant occupation</i>										
Men:										
Assemblers, case goods.....	\$1.43	\$1.15	\$1.41	\$1.41	\$1.28	\$1.51	\$0.93	\$0.98	\$1.35	\$0.95
Assemblers, chairs.....	1.38	1.11	1.33	(2)	(2)	1.46	(2)	.96	(2)	.94
Cut-off saw operators.....	1.32	.99	1.27	1.16	1.07	1.59	1.00	1.08	1.27	.97
Gluers, rough stock.....	1.18	1.17	1.16	1.16	1.04	1.39	.90	.91	1.12	.88
Maintenance men, general utility.....	1.34	1.15	1.37	1.28	1.06	1.67	1.04	1.10	1.31	1.13
Off-bearers, machine.....	.97	.87	.91	.92	.96	1.22	.80	.76	.94	.78
Packers, furniture.....	1.19	.92	1.17	1.12	1.05	1.46	.82	.86	1.11	.85
Rubbers, hand.....	1.30	1.33	1.31	1.49	(2)	1.46	.83	.85	1.24	.86
Sanders, belt.....	1.30	1.14	1.39	1.29	1.16	1.54	1.02	1.02	1.39	.96
Sanders, hand.....	1.14	(2)	1.12	1.20	1.10	1.29	.83	.81	1.25	.80
Shaper operators, hand, set-up and operate.....	1.38	1.16	1.36	1.25	1.11	1.70	1.04	1.03	1.47	1.01
Sprayers.....	1.34	1.27	1.38	1.45	1.20	1.60	.95	.99	1.42	.94
Women:										
Off-bearers, machine.....	.92	.74	.90	.86	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	.78
Sanders, hand.....	1.06	.98	.99	.83	.97	1.26	(2)	.70	1.02	.75
<i>Office occupation</i>										
Women:										
Bookkeepers, hand.....	1.28	1.03	1.31	(2)	1.10	1.69	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Clerk-typists.....	1.00	.78	.84	.78	.83	1.02	1.01	.82	1.02	.83
Stenographers, general.....	1.23	.87	1.17	.88	.89	1.20	1.16	.98	(2)	1.07

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.² Insufficient data to justify presentation of an average.

in upholstered-furniture plants in two of three areas; in wood furniture, general stenographers were in this category in five, and clerk-typists in three, of nine areas studied.

Comparisons of earnings for occupations included in both the 1947 and 1948 studies showed increases ranging from 5 to 15 percent in approximately two-thirds of the area averages in both industries. Areas with increases of at least 10 percent in more than half the jobs were Winston-

TABLE 2.—Average straight-time hourly earnings¹ in selected occupations in upholstered furniture establishments in selected areas, September 1948

Occupation and sex	Chicago, Ill.	Los Angeles, Calif.	New York, N. Y.	Winston-Salem-High Point, N. C.
<i>Plant occupation</i>				
Men:				
Cut-off saw operators.....	\$1.33	\$1.61	\$1.82	\$0.94
Cutters, cover.....	1.69	1.94	2.50	1.31
Frame makers.....	1.54	1.63	1.95	.96
Gluers, rough stock.....	1.22	1.47	(2)	.82
Maintenance men, general utility.....	1.30	1.55	(2)	1.16
Packers, furniture.....	1.27	1.31	1.46	.89
Upholsterers, chairs.....	(2)	2.23	(2)	1.60
Upholsterers, complete work.....	1.80	2.38	(2)	1.56
Upholsterers, section work.....	(2)	1.98	2.52	1.39
Women:				
Cutters, cover.....	(2)	1.70	(2)	1.06
Sewers, cover.....	1.33	1.45	2.13	1.00
<i>Office occupation</i>				
Women:				
Bookkeepers, hand.....	1.14	1.61	1.48	1.07
Clerk-typists.....	1.04	1.05	(2)	.71
Stenographers, general.....	1.17	1.17	(2)	.78

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.² Insufficient data to justify presentation of an average.

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Salem-High Point in both industries, and Chicago and Los Angeles in wood furniture. A few area averages in both industries showed declines—probably a result of turn-over in employment and of changes in work flow in incentive pay jobs.

Related Wage Practices

Over half the wood-furniture plants had work-week schedules of 44 or more hours for both men and women plant workers. All plants in Los Angeles and Martinsville and a high proportion in Winston-Salem-High Point had 40-hour schedules; and only Jamestown reported schedules of 50 or more hours for men and 48 or more for women in more than half the plants. In the upholstered-furniture industry, most New York plants had 35-hour schedules for both men and women; in the other three areas a 40-hour schedule predominated.

Paid vacations were provided plant workers in approximately seven-eighths of the wood-furniture plants and five-sixths of the upholstered-furniture plants. Those reporting no vacations with pay were primarily located in the Morgantown-Lenoir and Winston-Salem-High Point areas. In both industries practically all plants reporting formal paid vacation provisions allowed 1 week to plant workers after a year of service, except in New York where about two-thirds of the upholstered-furniture plants allowed 2 weeks. Office workers

were granted 2 weeks with pay in about two-fifths of the wood-furniture plants and three-fifths of the upholstered-furniture plants; practically all other plants limited the vacation to 1 week.

Typically, office workers in both industries were allowed either 5 or 6 holidays with pay in all areas except in New York upholstered-furniture plants, where the number reported varied from 5 to 14. For plant workers, no paid holidays were reported by about two-thirds of the wood-furniture plants and one-third of the upholstered-furniture plants. Of the plants which reported paid holidays for plant workers in both industries, most plants in Chicago allowed 6 days and in Los Angeles 2 or 3 days. In the wood-furniture industry, a few plants in Grand Rapids allowed 6 holidays; most of the others reporting paid holidays were in Fitchburg-Gardner, and in Morganton-Lenoir where approximately half the plants allowed from 1 to 4 days. Half the New York upholstered-furniture plants allowed 9, and the others from 5 to 10 holidays with pay.

Soap and Glycerin Manufacture: Earnings in August 1948¹

ABOUT A FIFTH of the workers in the soap and glycerin industry in August 1948 earned between \$1.50 and \$1.70 an hour, on a straight-time basis.² Hourly earnings in the industry as a whole ranged from 50 cents to more than \$2.50; less than 3 percent of the workers were paid under 90 cents, but for more than 8 percent earnings exceeded \$2. The national average for all plant workers was \$1.51. (See table 1.)

Skilled maintenance workers³—carpenters, electricians, machinists, and pipefitters—had the highest wage levels among the selected occupations

for which information was obtained. Average earnings for these jobs ranged from \$1.78 to \$1.86 (table 2). Men crutcher operators and pumpmen averaged \$1.72 and \$1.76, respectively, and firemen, slabbers, soap makers, and wrapping-machine operators averaged at least \$1.60. Packers were the lowest-paid men, their average earnings of \$1.23 being 35 cents below the average of \$1.58 for all men combined.

Women constituted less than a sixth of the plant labor force in soap and glycerin manufacture. Over a fourth of the women workers were soap packers with an average wage of \$1.16 an hour.

TABLE 1.—Percentage distribution of soap and glycerin plant workers by straight-time average hourly earnings,¹ United States and selected regions, August 1948

Average hourly earnings	United States ¹	Middle Atlantic	Great Lakes	Middle West	Pacific
50.0-54.9 cents	(³)		(³)		
55.0-59.9 cents	0.3			0.9	
60.0-64.9 cents	.2	0.3		.3	
65.0-69.9 cents	.3	.1	0.1	.5	
70.0-74.9 cents	.2	.2		.2	
75.0-79.9 cents	.5	.3	.2	1.5	0.1
80.0-84.9 cents	.5	.7		.6	
85.0-89.9 cents	.9	1.6	.6	.2	
90.0-94.9 cents	3.2	4.8	4.2	.5	
95.0-99.9 cents	1.3	3.1	.6	.3	.3
100.0-104.9 cents	3.6	7.6	2.4	1.2	
105.0-109.9 cents	2.8	4.8	3.1	.5	.1
110.0-114.9 cents	4.1	5.1	5.9	.4	.6
115.0-119.9 cents	2.3	4.3	2.4	.3	.2
120.0-124.9 cents	3.7	4.2	3.0	3.8	9.3
125.0-129.9 cents	4.9	4.9	4.8	1.0	5.9
130.0-134.9 cents	3.6	4.6	2.8	4.9	6.1
135.0-139.9 cents	4.2	4.3	3.4	2.4	16.8
140.0-144.9 cents	5.5	2.3	5.4	9.2	9.7
145.0-149.9 cents	6.1	1.4	5.4	8.1	11.1
150.0-159.9 cents	10.6	3.7	11.7	11.5	9.1
160.0-169.9 cents	10.7	3.6	14.4	11.8	4.7
170.0-179.9 cents	6.8	7.1	6.7	8.4	5.9
180.0-189.9 cents	8.4	6.5	10.5	14.4	3.9
190.0-199.9 cents	6.8	5.9	7.5	11.8	7.0
200.0-209.9 cents	4.3	8.2	3.0	4.5	3.2
210.0-219.9 cents	3.1	7.5	.9	1.2	3.7
220.0-229.9 cents	.8	1.9	.3		1.6
230.0-239.9 cents	.2	.5	.1		.5
240.0-249.9 cents	(³)	.1			
250.0 cents and over	.1	.4			.2
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	14,786	4,479	4,997	1,165	1,253
Over-all average hourly earnings ¹	\$1.51	\$1.50	\$1.51	\$1.59	\$1.54

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.

² Includes data for regions in addition to those shown separately.

³ Less than 0.05 of 1 percent.

The Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes regions each contained over 30 percent of the total employment in the industry. Although there was a difference of only 1 cent (\$1.50 in the former and \$1.51 in the latter) in the over-all average earnings for these two regions, actually there was little similarity in the wage levels for comparable occupations. Among 20 occupational groups (18 for men and 2 for women), the hourly averages were

¹ Prepared by Kermit B. Mohn of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis.

² Based on a mail questionnaire study of establishments employing 8 or more workers, whose major activity was the manufacture of soap in any form and the manufacture of crude and refined glycerin. Also included were a number of establishments manufacturing cleansers, washing powders, and washing compounds from purchased soap.

The form used in the study requested that all earnings data shown exclude overtime and shift premiums, but include earnings under incentive systems of wage payment.

³ Inasmuch as the material used in the study was obtained by mail questionnaire, no uniform set of job descriptions was used in classifying workers. Therefore, the same degree of comparability cannot be assumed to exist as in those Bureau studies made by field representatives using standard descriptions.

higher for 10 groups in the Middle Atlantic and for 10 in the Great Lakes region. Frequently the differences were quite sizable.

The Middle West and Pacific regions each had less than 10 percent of industry's total employment. The general levels of earnings, however, exceeded those in the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes regions. The over-all averages were \$1.59 in the Middle West and \$1.54 in the Pacific region.

Although over half of all soap and glycerin establishments within the scope of the study had between 8 and 50 employees, the bulk of the employment and production was concentrated in a relatively few large plants. Earnings appeared to be higher in large establishments, the highest

levels prevailing in plants with more than 250 workers. These differences, however, could not be attributed to size alone, inasmuch as the effect of the size factor could not be isolated from that of other factors, such as unionization which was generally more extensive in larger than in smaller establishments.

The 40-hour week was in effect in 73 percent of the establishments studied. In the remainder, the normal workweek ranged up to 48 hours.

Extra shifts were in operation in about 28 percent of the establishments, all of which paid wage differentials for the extra-shift work. Most frequently, these differentials amounted to either 5 or 10 cents an hour for the second shift and 10 cents for the third.

TABLE 2.—Average hourly wage rates (straight-time hourly earnings)¹ for selected occupations in soap and glycerin establishments, United States and selected regions, August 1948

Occupation and sex	United States ²		Middle Atlantic		Great Lakes		Middle West		Pacific	
	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Number of workers	Average hourly rate
<i>Men</i>										
Carpenters, maintenance.....	69	\$1.80	27	\$1.83	14	\$1.69	3	(³)	15	\$1.81
Crutcher operators.....	248	1.72	81	1.67	68	1.80	27	\$1.80	22	1.70
Driers.....	163	1.39	39	1.10	62	1.44	8	(³)	29	1.46
Electricians, maintenance.....	159	1.79	32	1.84	57	1.78	22	1.81	15	1.79
Firemen.....	279	1.65	114	1.71	71	1.59	29	1.73	20	1.80
Helpers, maintenance.....	169	1.51	15	1.23	66	1.55	12	1.47	28	1.56
Janitors.....	571	1.55	166	1.68	281	1.50	30	1.56	28	1.55
Machinists, maintenance.....	403	1.86	100	1.90	138	1.85	44	1.84	47	1.88
Packers, soap.....	174	1.23	56	1.04	67	1.35	-----	-----	28	1.39
Pipefitters.....	236	1.78	68	1.64	97	1.83	28	1.82	11	1.80
Press operators.....	141	1.33	62	1.16	31	1.45	9	(³)	3	(³)
Pumpmen.....	347	1.76	80	1.80	117	1.75	46	1.80	33	1.77
Slabbers.....	240	1.67	92	1.67	65	1.70	11	1.90	49	1.59
Soap makers.....	275	1.60	71	1.35	95	1.61	19	1.76	27	1.65
Truck drivers.....	110	1.45	34	1.43	34	1.41	17	1.49	1	(³)
Truckers, hand.....	90	1.25	19	.99	15	1.01	3	(³)	52	1.39
Warehousemen (shipping).....	269	1.43	59	1.33	61	1.45	17	1.45	1	(³)
Wrapping-machine operators.....	109	1.67	16	1.88	50	1.55	11	1.92	4	(³)
<i>Women</i>										
Packers, soap.....	645	1.16	167	1.16	171	1.12	19	1.24	119	1.21
Wrapping-machine operators.....	329	1.33	88	1.36	136	1.33	17	1.38	23	1.42

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night work.

² Includes data for regions in addition to those shown separately.

³ Insufficient number of workers to justify presentation of an average.

Local Transit Industry: Union Scales, October 1, 1948¹

UNION CONDUCTORS, motormen, and bus drivers had an average pay scale of \$1.38 an hour² on October 1, 1948, according to the annual Bureau of Labor Statistics survey.³ This was 10 percent above the previous year's average and brought the 1948 wage-rate index to a point about 78 percent above the June 1, 1939 base. Almost three-fourths of this increase took place since VJ-day.

Index (June 1, 1939=100)
Hourly wage rate

1940: June 1.....	101. 1
1941: June 1.....	104. 8
1942: July 1.....	112. 5
1943: July 1.....	119. 8
1944: July 1.....	120. 8
1945: July 1.....	122. 1
1946: July 1.....	143. 1
1947: Oct. 1.....	161. 5
1948: Oct. 1.....	177. 9

Hourly pay scales of local transit workers are usually flat hourly rates, the most important of which is a "maximum" scale ordinarily reached after 1 year of service with the company. Most agreements provide for an entrance rate, one or more intermediate rates, and a maximum rate.⁴ Although the period of time intervening between rate steps varies from city to city, the entrance rate is most frequently paid for the first 3 or 6 months, and the intermediate rate for the remainder of the first year of employment. Contracts in a few cities, including San Francisco, Providence, Reading (Pa.), and San Antonio, provide for only one scale, regardless of length of service.

¹ Prepared by James P. Corkery of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis. Detailed union scales by city and occupation will be presented in a forthcoming bulletin.

² This average is based on scales of rates paid to all transit operators in 75 cities, regardless of length of experience; individual rates are weighted by the number of union members working at each rate. In the index series, year-to-year changes are based on comparable quotations for each trade weighted by the membership for the current year.

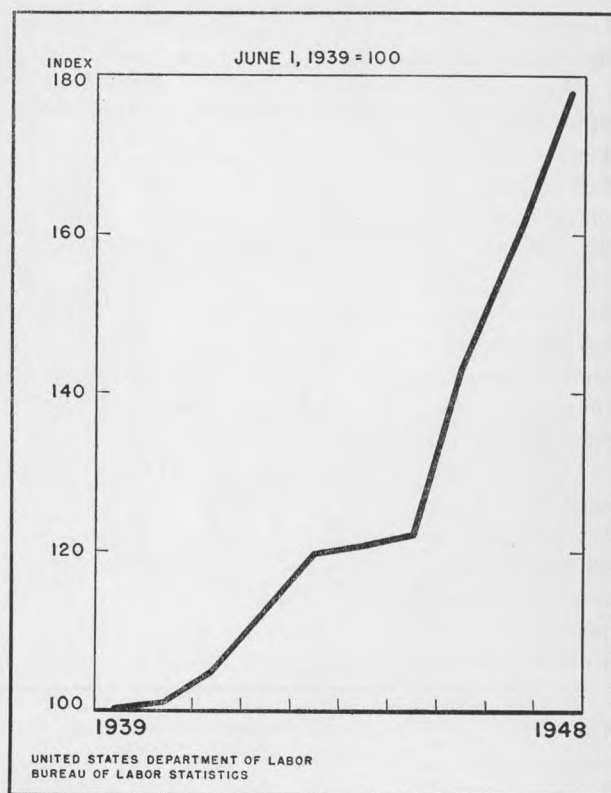
³ Information for this report is based on union wage scales in effect October 1, 1948, covering 107,933 local city transit operating employees in 75 cities. Trackmen and maintenance workers were not included in the study. Municipally owned intracity transit systems were included if unions acted as bargaining agents for the employees. Data were obtained primarily from local union officials through mail questionnaires, and in a few cities by personal visit of Bureau field representatives. Of the total union membership studied, 67 percent operated 1-man cars and busses; 21 percent, 2-man cars; and 12 percent were employed on elevated and subway lines.

⁴ This so-called maximum rate is really the minimum scale after a specified period of employment with the company, and is not a maximum rate in the sense that the company may not pay more.

Entrance rates for one-man car and bus operators ranged from 90 cents in Charlotte (N. C.), Wichita (Kans.), and Miami (Fla.), to \$1.53 an hour in Chicago; maximum rates for this classification varied from \$1.07 in Jackson (Miss.) to \$1.56 in Detroit. Hourly scales for 7 of every 10 of these workers ranged from \$1.25 to \$1.50.

For two-man surface car operators, the lowest entrance rate (\$1.09) was reported in Birmingham, and the highest (\$1.38) in Chicago. Ninety-four percent of all union motormen and conductors on two-man cars had scales from \$1.25 to \$1.50.

Hourly Wage Rates: Local Transit Operating Employees



Over two-fifths of all elevated and subway operating employees had pay scales varying from \$1.55 to \$1.60. In contrast, only 5 percent of all one-man car and bus operators and less than 1 percent of the two-man car operators had hourly rates of \$1.55 or more.

As in previous years, the highest scale reported was in Detroit, where "owl" car and bus operators received \$1.66 an hour—10 cents above the maximum rate for day runs.

In most cities, higher rates were specified for operators of one-man than for operators of two-man cars.⁵ Differentials ranged from 5 cents an hour in Atlanta and Baltimore to 13 cents in Los Angeles. However, in Milwaukee and San Francisco, identical rates were reported for busses and one- and two-man car operators.

Wage-Rate Changes, 1947 to 1948

Between October 1, 1947, and October 1, 1948, contract changes in 72 cities resulted in an average 10-percent increase in the hourly scales of all local transit operating employees. An average increase of 12 cents for one-man car and bus operators advanced their hourly wage level to \$1.37 on October 1, 1948. The average for two-man car operators was only slightly lower, \$1.36.

Wage scales of 9 of every 10 local transit operating employees were advanced during the year. The increases ranged from less than 5 to more than 35 percent; but only about 3 percent of the workers received advances of as much as 25 percent. The amount of increase for over two-fifths of the one-man car and bus operators and two-thirds of those operating two-man surface cars was from 5 to 10 percent. Another fourth of the one-man car operators and a fifth of the motormen and conductors on two-man cars received increases of from 10 to 15 percent.

Operators of elevated and subway lines, representing but a small portion of all transit workers studied, had increases of 17 percent over the year; these amounted to 21 cents and raised the hourly rate to \$1.44 on October 1, 1948. This change was primarily the result of a 24-cent increase granted to subway employees in New York City.

Boston, Birmingham, and San Francisco were the only cities in which pay scales remained unchanged between October 1, 1947, and October 1, 1948.

Pay Increases since October 1, 1948

Further increases in pay scales of local transit workers have been granted in several cities since the Bureau's survey on October 1, 1948. For example, effective in January 1949, about 3,000

⁵ Effective union scales were reported for two-man surface cars in only 13 of the 75 cities surveyed. Since the 1947 survey, operation of two-man surface cars has been discontinued in Cincinnati, Omaha, Reading (Pa.), and Washington, D. C.

local bus and streetcar operators in St. Louis and 1,500 in Kansas City were granted hourly wage increases of 13 and 11 cents, respectively. Union workers in Baltimore and Reading also benefited from a 10-cent hourly increase. Among several smaller wage adjustments were those of 5 cents granted to local transit employees in Cincinnati and in Miami.

Standard Schedule of Hours, October 1, 1948

The tendency to standardize the number of weekly hours worked before overtime is paid appears to be growing in the local transit industry in some cities. Contracts in the great majority of the cities covered in the Bureau's survey usually provided premium overtime rates after a definite number of hours per day or after the completion of scheduled runs. However, a fourth of the cities had a straight-time workweek of 40 hours; 44- or 48-hour weeks were typical of another small group. Daily overtime in most cities was paid after 8 or 8½ hours. In some cities such as Charleston (S. C.) and Charlotte (N. C.), the premium overtime rate did not become effective until after 9½ hours had been worked. Bus drivers in Chattanooga and Savannah and one-man car and bus operators in Syracuse (N. Y.) were paid overtime rates only after completion of regular scheduled runs.

Legislative Program of the Department of Labor

THE BASIC 15-point legislative program of the United States Department of Labor, as outlined in the thirty-sixth annual report of the Secretary of Labor for the fiscal year 1948, is designed to improve the economic status of those who work. Continuing studies of problems involving the welfare of the wage earners in the United States, made by the Department, have indicated the need for enactment of specific legislative proposals to meet these problems. This program contains the following points:

1. Repeal the Taft-Hartley Law and reenact the original Wagner Act; additional labor relations

legislation should be designed to promote the public interest and should be fair to labor and industry alike.

2. Increase the minimum wage under the Fair Labor Standards Act to at least 75 cents an hour with increases up to \$1 an hour on an industry basis through industry-committee procedure, and extend the act to large numbers of workers who either are not now covered or are now exempt; improve and extend bans on child labor under the act.

3. Provide Federal aid for labor education through a labor extension service in the Department of Labor.

4. Centralize Government labor functions in the Department of Labor and provide adequate appropriations for the Department to enable the proper discharge of its functions.

5. Control inflationary tendencies.

6. End job and wage discrimination against minority groups in interstate industries by enacting a sound fair employment practices act.

7. End wage discrimination against women workers and write into law the principle of equal pay for equal work for women in interstate industries.

8. Provide Federal aid to the States to promote industrial safety.

9. Enact a law establishing a fair policy for admitting displaced persons.

10. Amend the Social Security Act to provide higher old-age and survivors insurance and unemployment compensation and extend coverage of the act to a large number of people not now entitled to its benefits.

11. Provide for rehabilitation, job counseling, and placement for handicapped workers.

12. Create a commission to investigate the legal status of women and to recommend means of wiping out unfair laws and practices operating against them.

13. Promote in the United States the labor standards set by the International Labor Organization.

14. Regulate private employment agencies and labor contractors operating in interstate commerce.

15. Protect American workers working outside the country under Government contracts.

Advisory Council Report on Unemployment Insurance

MEASURES FOR STRENGTHENING the existing State-Federal system of unemployment insurance were recommended by the Advisory Council on Social Security in its final report to the Senate Committee on Finance.¹ Establishment of a single Federal system of unemployment insurance was favored by 5 of the 17 Council members. However, 4 of the dissenting members would join the majority in supporting the recommendations for improving the State-Federal system if Congress decided against a national program.

Under the Council's proposals, coverage would be extended to more than 7 million additional workers. The changes would also make possible more adequate benefits and financing, improve the methods and financial basis of administration in the States, and provide a more rational relationship of the contribution rate to the state of the national economy.

Coverage and Benefit Financing

Specifically, the Council favored immediate extension of the Federal Unemployment Tax Act to employees of small firms, nonprofit organizations (with certain exceptions), Federal civilian employees,² and members of the armed forces who do not come under the servicemen's readjustment allowance provisions. It also advocated restoration of specified borderline agricultural workers engaged in commercial operations. These additions would increase coverage to an estimated 85 percent of all individuals employed by others.

¹ Unemployment Insurance: A Report to the Senate Committee on Finance from the Advisory Council on Social Security (Senate Doc. No. 206, 80th Cong., 2d sess., Washington, [December] 1948.) The Advisory Council was appointed by the Committee on September 17, 1947, in accordance with Senate Resolution 141, 80th Cong., 1st sess. The other three reports in the series deal, respectively, with old-age and survivors insurance, permanent and total disability insurance, and public assistance. For summaries of the earlier reports (Sen. Docs. Nos. 149, 162, and 204, 80th Cong. 2d sess.), see Monthly Labor Review, June 1948, p. 641, August 1948, p. 146, and January 1949, p. 53. The Council, in its final report, also included a discussion on temporary-disability insurance, but made no recommendations.

² The States would be reimbursed for the amounts actually paid for benefits based on Federal employment. If employment under both the State and the Federal Government occurred during the base period, the wage credits would be combined and the States reimbursed proportionately. It was recommended that special provisions for federally employed maritime workers be extended until this proposal for covering all Federal employees should become effective.

More adequate benefits and financing would be provided by (1) setting a Federal minimum rate of contribution below which no further reduction could be made as a credit on account of State experience rating;³ (2) requiring employees, as well as employers, to contribute to the financing of the fund; (3) establishing a permanent Federal loan fund to assist the States in time of serious unemployment if their reserves for benefits should be threatened; and (4) increasing the maximum annual wage-base of covered workers from \$3,000 to \$4,200. (Tips would also be included as wages.)

The standard minimum Federal rate recommended, for employers and employees alike, is 0.75 percent of covered wages, or a total of 1.5 percent. The Federal tax rate would be subject to a maximum credit of 80 percent on account of contribution to a State fund. This would result in a minimum of 1.2 percent for the State rate (employers and employees combined). The present Federal rate under the Unemployment Tax Act is 3 percent, which may be offset up to 90 percent to cover contributions to a State system including State credits to employers through experience rating.

Because of reduction brought about by experience rating, 15 States in 1948 had average employer contribution rates of only 1 percent or less; the average for continental United States was 1.2 percent (the same amount that under the proposed plan could be credited, for combined contributions from employers and employees, to a State fund against the Federal rate). The 0.3 percent remaining for Federal rate income would be continued under the new standard.

Some States, the Council estimated, would have to charge rates higher than the State minimum suggested⁴ if they are to support an adequate system of benefits. "The Council's proposed minimum contribution rate is a return to the principle of assuring relative equality among employers in the various States. It will remove an important barrier to the liberalization of benefits by requiring

that all covered employers and employees throughout the Nation pay a minimum rate."

The proposal for a Federal minimum contribution rate was also intended to counteract the non-realistic tendency of fluctuations in the employer's rate of contribution with reference to economic conditions. Under State experience rating, these fluctuations tend to be inverse to the volume of employment, declining when employment is high and contributions to the unemployment fund are easiest to make, and increasing when the markets are falling. This failure to relate State rates to the needs of a changing economy was felt to have potentially serious implications.

Administrative Procedures

The Council carefully considered the imposition of Federal minimums concerning eligibility, duration of benefit, and benefit amount, but decided to leave these matters with the individual States. However, it recommended the adoption of a Federal standard on disqualification, which would bar the States from (1) reducing or canceling benefit rights as the result of disqualification for causes other than fraud or misrepresentation—the number of States following the practice had grown from 7 in 1937, to 22 in 1948; (2) disqualifying workers who are discharged because of inability to do the work; and (3) postponing benefits for more than 6 weeks as the result of disqualification, except when caused by fraud or misrepresentation.⁵

Other improvements in administration recommended by the Council concerned financing of administrative costs, interstate claims, the prompt payment of benefits, and the prevention of payment of unwarranted claims.

Changes in the present method of financing administrative costs, which would provide additional funds for State administration, were advocated by the Council which proposed that "income from the Federal Unemployment Tax Act should be dedicated to unemployment insurance purposes."

Believing "that it is possible to work out a more equitable protection for the interstate worker,"

³ Experience- or merit-rating provisions of State unemployment insurance laws permit a reduction in contribution rate to employers whose accounts have indicated a low unemployment risk, generally speaking.

⁴ In recommending the rate, the Council assumed that in meeting benefit costs, most States during the next 10 years would utilize a portion of their currently large reserves as well as contributions.

⁵ Disqualification provisions have been adopted by some State systems, according to the Council report, which deny benefits to individuals who are genuinely unemployed through no fault of their own and are ready, willing, and able to accept suitable work. In other States, unreasonable penalties have been attached to the qualifying acts.

the Council majority recommended that authority be given the Social Security Administration, in consultation with administrators of State programs of unemployment insurance, to establish standard procedures for combining the wage credits of a worker earned in more than one State and for processing interstate claims. It further proposed that all States should be required to follow these procedures "as a condition of receiving administrative grants." Similar procedure, in cooperation with the Railroad Retirement Board, was advocated for combining wage credits earned under the State systems and under the railroad system.

Study of Supplementary Plans

The Council also advocated that the Federal Security Agency be directed to study in detail the comparative merits during times of severe unemployment of (a) unemployment assistance, (b) extended unemployment insurance benefits, (c) work relief, and (d) other devices, including public works. This study, it specified, should be made in consultation with the Social Security Administration's Advisory Council on Employment Security, the Council of Economic Advisers, and the State employment security agencies. The agency should then formulate specific proposals for Federal measures to provide economic security in a depression for the unemployed who are not adequately protected by unemployment insurance.

Dissents Favoring a National Plan

The five members who preferred the establishment of a single Federal system to the current State-Federal system of unemployment compensation believed that unemployment is essentially a national problem, unsuited to State operation. They pointed out that workers in search of jobs and labor market areas cross State lines. Moreover, the maintenance of 51 separate systems, each with its own reserve, was considered to be actuarially unsound. Variations in benefit and contribution rates and in administration between States were held to be discriminating, and the trend was toward growing restrictions. One of the five members refused to sign the majority proposals on the ground that they did not contain sufficiently far-reaching improvements even under a continued State-Federal system.

Developments in the Profit-Sharing Movement

CONTINUED DEMANDS for wage increases and disturbed industrial relations have resulted in considerable interest in profit sharing during the postwar years as a means of insuring labor participation in increased prosperity. Three recent studies point out that the success or failure of such a plan depends primarily on the extent to which the plan, its operation, and the company's business and production problems are understood, the health of labor-management relations, and the degree of real participation and partnership in the enterprise.

Survey of Profit-Sharing Plans

One of the most significant developments in the growth of the profit-sharing movement during the past decade has been the more widespread adoption of deferred-distribution plans. Out of 167 active profit-sharing plans studied by the National Industrial Conference Board,¹ 100 or 60 percent were of this type. The remaining 67 plans were of the current-distribution type, in which cash payments are made periodically.

Under the deferred-distribution plan, employees or their beneficiaries receive their shares at some future time—termination of employment, permanent disability, retirement, or death. The employees' share of the profits is deposited in an irrevocable trust for this purpose. The greatest impetus was given to the growth of these plans by the fact that employers' contributions are deductible from taxable income currently, and employees' proceeds are not taxed until they are made available. A further impetus, the Board stated, was the changing concept of the purpose of profit sharing. During the war years, for example, profit-sharing retirement funds gained recognition because, in this way, employee pensions could be provided without the company assuming obligation for the fixed contributions required under an actuarially determined pension plan. All but 7

¹ Profit Sharing for Workers, by F. Beatrice Bower, Division of Personnel Administration, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. (New York). Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 97.

The survey is based on 202 profit-sharing plans, of which 167 are active and 35 have been abandoned. Over 300,000 workers were employed in companies reporting active plans

of the deferred-distribution plans provide for the individual employee's share to be distributed at a specified retirement age. In nearly half of these plans, the age specified is 65 years; in the remainder, it varies from "any time after 50" to 60 years for women and 65 years for men.

Profit-sharing plans, the Board found, were more prevalent in the small and medium-size establishments where workers may more readily see the connection between their actions and the profitability of the enterprise than they would in a larger firm.

Ten current-distribution and three deferred-distribution plans had been in operation over 25 years when the study was made. About three-fourths of the latter type were initiated in 1941-45. An industrial distribution of the plans shows the heaviest concentration in the machinery and the metals and metal products industries; about two-thirds of these were deferred-distribution plans.

Advantages of profit sharing most frequently mentioned by employers with active plans were improved employer-employee relations, increased interest in the business, improved efficiency, and lowered turn-over.

Dissatisfaction with the operation of profit-sharing plans was reported by about a third of the companies. The largest group of complaints was against unsatisfactory employee attitudes, such as taking the plan for granted, or not seeing the connection between their efforts and the profitability of the business.

Abandonments of profit-sharing plans were fairly low in 1947, compared with previous studies: 35 plans or 17 percent, nearly 60 percent in 1937, and over half in 1920 and 1924. Employer or employee dissatisfaction was responsible for about half of the 35 abandonments; the others were the result of lack of profits, Government restrictions, or wartime conditions. Nearly two-thirds of the abandoned plans had been in existence for 5 years or more, and a third for 10 years or more.

In the 1946 survey, the Board found that 11.5 percent of 3,498 establishments had profit-sharing plans as compared to 5.9 percent of 2,700 establishments in its 1939 survey. "While the companies were not identical in the two surveys," in the opinion of the Board, "the increase seems sufficiently large to indicate a definite trend."

Unions have been "traditionally opposed" to profit sharing, according to the Board's study.

Recently, however, several plans were inaugurated at union request. Very few profit-sharing plans were found to be incorporated in union agreements (8 percent). In the current study, such agreements had been negotiated by 25 percent of the companies with current-distribution plans and by 43 percent of those with deferred plans.

Case Studies Under Collective Bargaining

The fundamental prerequisite in a profit-sharing plan is that workers should have a sense of participation and partnership. This was brought out in an analysis of three such plans under collective bargaining.² With this fully developed, the author states, the kind of plan is of secondary importance. This was demonstrated in the history of the one successful plan among the three surveyed. The company and union had a healthy and stable relationship, with no work stoppages of any kind in 9 years of collective bargaining. The labor-management production committee, established in 1942, had been so successful in increasing efficiency during the war years that its members had a sincere desire to continue their efforts. Accordingly, management and union worked together for months studying profit-sharing plans already in operation and analyzing their own business and production facilities before adopting a plan.

The plan which was put into effect in 1945 used a ratio of labor costs to sales value of production. During the first year's operation, new and improved methods were introduced that greatly increased productive efficiency and more than doubled profits. Each employee's share in the benefits of increased efficiency was approximately 41 percent of his base wage or salary.

A change to a straight profit-sharing plan was mutually decided upon, however, and became effective January 1, 1946. Union as well as management recognized that factors inherent in the original application under certain conditions (such as improved equipment) might work a hardship on the company. The employees' share under the new method was 50 percent of profits before taxes for each month; the individual employee's

² Profit Sharing under Collective Bargaining: Three Case Studies, by Joseph N. Scanlon (formerly research director of United Steelworkers of America, CIO; currently teaching at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and with the Trade-Union Fellowship Program at Harvard University). In *Industrial and Labor Relations Review* (Ithaca, N. Y.), October 1943 (pp. 58-75).

proportionate share was calculated percentage-wise, and applied to his total earnings for the month in which the profit was earned. Under these conditions, the employees' share averaged 54 percent in 1946 and the company's profits, before taxes, were almost double those in 1945. Despite this change in method, cooperation and efficiency levels continued to expand and improve.

Of the two plans which Mr. Scanlon catalogs as failures, the method of application in one was a fixed amount, 5 cents per hour per employee, and in the other half of the profit over 4 percent of net worth. In the first instance, there was no incentive to increase the base minimum profit level. Relationship between employee efforts and returns from the plan had not been established. Furthermore, the bonus share remained constant even though company profits might greatly exceed the base. Both of these plans have come to be accepted as a part of the general wage structure. These plans, it is pointed out, should not be charged as failures against profit sharing. The reasons for considering them failures is that neither case comprehended the need for developing a sense of partnership and participation essential to enhance profit-making possibilities. One of the companies sponsored the plan for the sole purpose of preventing its employees from joining a bona fide trade-union; in this it failed. The other plan was proposed shortly after a strike settlement; and, although sincerity of purpose could not be doubted, the basic factors of confidence and a stable relationship essential to successful development were lacking.

Economic and Legal Aspects ³

In addition to the incentive that profit sharing gives to production, another economic advantage, according to Mr. Simons, is that it provides a possible solution to the problem of the "inelasticity of wages." This is "one of the most dangerous things in our economy" because of the fact that prices and profits can be adjusted more rapidly than wages. If labor shares in the profits, the increased costs in living can be met; the situation automatically adjusts itself when the "inevitable reversal" comes. When prices and profits decline, share

³Economic and Legal Aspects of Profit-Sharing Plans, by Gustave Simons (member of New York Bar, and member of Federal Tax Forum, and chairman of Economic and Legal Problems in Marketing Group, American Marketing Association). In *Industrial and Labor Relations Review* (Ithaca, N. Y.), October 1948 (pp. 76-89).

payments to labor also decline, but "management is not left holding the bag. On the other hand, labor loses nothing on the uphill side and can be treated more generously than would be the case with fixed wage increases." The profit-sharing trust fund, Mr. Simons points out, has an added psychological advantage in its long-term benefits which continue even though profits may temporarily cease.

Certain legal restrictions must be met before profit-sharing plans can qualify under Government regulations. For example, a profit-sharing plan primarily intended to provide disability benefits, or severance benefits, is not valid under Treasury rulings. However, if a plan is carefully drawn, the profit-sharing trust fund can provide disability benefits, severance pay, and guaranteed annual wages, despite these limitations. To accomplish this the coverage must be sufficiently broad with a certain discretion as to the nature of the benefits.

Holiday Practices in Industry, 1948

AN INCREASING TENDENCY to grant unworked holidays with pay to hourly workers was noted by the National Industrial Conference Board in summarizing the results of its 1948 survey of holiday practices.¹ Of the 265 companies² cooperating in the survey, over three-fourths were granting one or more unworked paid holidays to hourly workers, as compared with slightly more than two-fifths of the 254 companies cooperating in 1946 and fewer than 10 percent of the 446 reporting in 1936. All the companies gave unworked paid holidays to salaried employees in 1948. In 3 out of 4 companies, the number of holidays was the same for hourly and salaried employees; in the remaining companies, salaried employees received more holidays, but in only a few cases was the difference greater than 3 for the year.

Six unworked paid holidays were the most common in 1948, being specified for hourly workers by

¹National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. *Studies in Personnel Policy*, No. 99: *Holiday Practices*. New York, 1948.

²The cooperating companies included 224 manufacturing and 41 non-manufacturing firms.

64.7 percent, and for salaried employees by 57.2 percent, of the companies granting paid holidays. In 1946, five or fewer such holidays were the rule in 26 percent, and six in 44 percent, of the companies; only 15 percent were giving five or fewer holidays in 1948. There appeared to be no trend toward allowing more than six per year.

Unionization appeared to have little effect on holiday policies: 75.8 percent of the unionized companies, and 73.2 percent of those not unionized, granted one or more paid holidays. Size of company also seemed to have little effect, although companies with 5,000 or more employees showed the "least deviation from the pattern of six annual holidays."

In individual industries, public utilities seemed to be most liberal in regard to paid holidays, over half of the 13 companies in this field granting seven or more during the year. None of the companies covered in the shipbuilding industry, and none of those producing iron and steel, granted paid holidays.

Specific eligibility requirements for paid holidays for hourly workers were reported by 88.4 percent of the companies granting such holidays, and for salaried employees, by 37.0 percent. Nearly 40 percent had a minimum service requirement for hourly workers, and 11.2 percent for salaried workers. An attendance requirement for hourly workers was reported by 94.6 percent of the companies having eligibility rules, and for salaried workers by 83.7 percent. Attendance requirements varied, but the most common was that employees were to be at work on the scheduled workday before and/or after a holiday. Some types of absences on these days, however, were excused by the majority of the companies. In most instances, pay for an unworked holiday was not forfeited because of authenticated illness, death in immediate family, or jury duty.

If a holiday fell on Sunday, the following Monday was observed as the holiday by over 90 percent of the companies granting paid holidays, the usual pay and eligibility rules being applied. When it fell on Saturday, however, 62.6 percent gave neither time off nor pay to hourly workers if Saturday was normally not a scheduled workday; 23.2 percent paid hourly workers for the unworked Saturday even if it was not a scheduled workday; and 8.9 percent gave an additional day off with pay.

When a holiday occurred during an employee's regular vacation, an additional day's vacation with pay was granted to hourly workers by 46.3 percent of the companies with paid holidays and to salaried workers by 52.6 percent. An additional day's pay but no extra time off was allowed hourly workers by 29.5 percent, while 21.0 percent gave no additional time or pay.

Practically all companies allowed "regular" pay for unworked holidays, and nearly all granted premium pay for time worked on holidays. Hourly workers were paid double time by 66.8 percent of the companies, double time and a half by 20.0 percent, and triple time by 7.4 percent for work on holidays. Salaried employees also usually received extra pay for holiday work, the most typical amount being the regular salary for the day plus straight time for the hours actually worked.

Beveridge Report on Voluntary Action¹

LORD BEVERIDGE has stated the case for voluntary action² in achieving social advance. His conclusions appeared in 1948—6 years after the issuance of his social security report which was the basis for broadening the public program of social protection in Great Britain through cooperation between the State and the individual.³ The author's conviction of the need for a combined State and private program was brought out in his earlier report, when he said: "The State in organizing security should not stifle incentive, opportunity, responsibility; in establishing a national minimum, it should leave room and encouragement for voluntary action by each individual to provide more than that minimum for himself and

¹ Voluntary Action: A Report on Methods of Social Advance, by William Beveridge, London, George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1948.

² According to the author, "the term 'Voluntary Action,' as used here means private action, that is to say action not under the directions of any authority wielding the power of the State. A study of Voluntary Action, without further limitation, would be as wide as life itself, covering all the undirected activities of individual citizens in their homes as well as outside their homes. This study is confined to Voluntary Action for a public purpose—for social advance. Its theme is Voluntary Action outside each citizen's home for improving the conditions of life for him and for his fellows."

³ For a summary of the 1942 Beveridge Report, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 272).

his family." In concentrating attention on voluntary efforts, he has now added: "Voluntary action outside one's home, individually and in association with other citizens, for bettering one's own life and that of one's fellows, are the distinguishing marks of a free society." Independence of voluntary action does not mean that there is not the closest cooperation between public and voluntary agencies. On the contrary, such cooperation is one of the special features of British public life.

Existing Voluntary Services

Descriptive material in the volume on voluntary action traces the history, existing status, and, insofar as possible, membership and financial statistics of the major voluntary agencies that have been developed in Great Britain. Included are those agencies established for mutual aid and also as a form of philanthropy. The motive of the first form of assistance, according to Lord Beveridge, arises from the individual's sense of his own need and that of others for security against misfortune and the realization that by helping others all may help themselves. The second is motivated by social conscience on the part of individuals who are unwilling to accept comforts without alleviating some of the ills of others.

Of the mutual aid bodies—which include friendly societies, trade-unions, building societies, housing societies, social clubs, consumers' co-ops, trustee savings banks, and hospital contributory schemes—the first are the most fully dealt with by the author. The reasons cited are that these societies have not received the attention they deserve and that the making of the study originated in a friendly society.

Legislation adopted in 1793 to encourage the friendly society in Britain defined it as "a society of good fellowship for the purpose of raising from time to time, by voluntary contributions, a stock or fund for the mutual relief and maintenance of all and every the members thereof, in old age, sickness, and infirmity, or for the relief of widows and children of deceased members." In essence, the members of a friendly society pay money into a common fund regularly in order to be able to draw on the fund when they are in need. Societies are divided roughly between those that pay sick benefits and those that do not. The

provision of sick benefits has placed heavy administrative duties on the societies, the successful solution of which has been their outstanding contribution to social advance. The friendly societies have been the democratic pioneers of mutual insurance. Moreover, they have been social clubs, they have dealt with the general welfare of their members, and "they have been channel for the spirit of voluntary service."

At different times, legislation has both favored and hampered the growth of friendly societies. Cooperative arrangements in administering sickness benefits that were entered by the Government (under its sickness insurance system) and the friendly societies in 1911 were abandoned in 1946. In their place, the Government is establishing its own complete and exclusive administrative machinery. In this situation, Lord Beveridge states: "The greatest danger * * * is not on the side of the friendly societies. * * * Will the State be able to create a machine capable of doing what the affiliated orders did in the most difficult of all forms of social insurance, of combining soundness with sympathy in administration of cash benefits to the sick?"

The variety of institutions established because of philanthropic motives is wide but no numerical estimate is available of the total scale of such action. Only the main types are described, such as residential settlements, urban and rural amenities, women's organizations, youth organizations, and family welfare bodies, and a few instances of their work are cited. Another of these agencies—the charitable trust—is given special attention because (like the friendly society) it has been neglected, in the author's opinion.

Early charitable trusts were for the most part small, local, and were devoted to definite purposes. Problems that arose in their administration were largely those that resulted from changed conditions. Within the past 50 to 60 years, a new type of trust has been established in Britain. Large amounts of money are involved and the expenditures are not restricted to any given purpose. The five foundations of this kind and the year of establishment are the City Parochial Foundation of 1891; the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust of 1913; the Pilgrim Trust of 1930; the King George Jubilee Trust of 1935, and the Nuffield Foundation of 1943. Their combined incomes aggregate something like £750,000 a year (roughly \$3,000,-

0). In addition, the King Edward's Hospital and for London dating from 1897 and the Royal Commission for the Great Exhibition of 1851 handle over £150,000 a year (roughly \$600,000). This is money "in living hands not dead hands, in private hands not those of the state, but for public purposes * * * for experiment and pioneering by Voluntary Action." In the opinion of the author, however, the availability of these funds does not reduce the need for a complete overhaul of the charitable trusts that have come down from the past and of the law under which future trusts may be created.

Personal thrift and the business motive, in addition to the two main motives of mutual aid and of philanthropy already discussed, round out the subjects in this study. Some of the most interesting forms of voluntary association of citizens are motivated by personal thrift, that is the desire of the individual to save in order to have money at his own command and to obtain personal independence. The business motive, that is, earning a livelihood or obtaining personal gain in meeting the needs of others, in combination with the motive of mutual aid or personal thrift have resulted in the establishment of extremely significant organizations.

Recommendations for Voluntary Services

Increasing leisure of wage earners and the growing complexities of modern life contribute to the need for an expansion of voluntary action. The author points out that the last stage in totalitarianism would result if the State planned every citizen's leisure. But he warns against tolerance by the State of organized gambling and wasteful use of leisure. He recommends that the Government should seek to guide the individual through the complexities of modern life indirectly rather than directly, by making use of voluntary action. In this connection, education in its widest sense is urged.

No discussion of the future of all forms of voluntary action with which the volume deals is attempted by the author. He refers to the notable contribution of the cooperative movement to the economic organization of Britain and points to the great educational and social purposes of which this association of nine million citizens might be the instrument. Trade-union effort in improving

the position of members with respect to wages and working conditions far outweighs their effort in protecting members in time of sickness, old age, etc. It is even more important, in the opinion of the author, "to preserve genuine educated democracy in the choice of trade-union leaders," owing to the enlarged political power of these organizations.

An eight-point program is recommended for the State in relation to voluntary action: (1) Cooperation of Public Authorities and Voluntary Agencies; (2) A Friendly Societies Act; (3) A Royal Commission on Charitable Trusts; (4) Reexamination of Taxation of Voluntary Agencies; (5) An Enquiry as to the Physically Handicapped; (6) A Minister-Guardian of Voluntary Action; (7) Specialized Staff Training; (8) Continuance and Extension of Public Grants to Voluntary Agencies.

Points (1), (7), and (8) represent policies already accepted and those remaining are departures from existing policies but follow established lines.

In conclusion as to the State and voluntary action, Lord Beveridge adds:

The State should encourage Voluntary Action of all kinds for social advance. In respect of that form of Voluntary Action for Mutual Aid which is the starting-point of this Report—the friendly societies—the State should make amends for damage to them in the past by a generous agreed measure of legislation opening the road to new service in the future. It should remove difficulties in the way of the other forms of Mutual Aid discussed in this Report. It should in every field of its growing activity use where it can, without destroying their freedom and their spirit, the voluntary agencies for social advance, born of social conscience and of philanthropy. This is one of the marks of a free society.

He continues that " * * * the aim of the first [Beveridge] report, of putting first things first, cannot be accomplished simply by redistribution of purchasing power. * * * If we are really to put first things first, bread and health for all at all times before cake and circuses for anybody, we must go beyond the simple redistribution of money. * * * It is necessary to face two new difficulties in the way of doing this. First, it involves making and keeping something other than pursuit of gain as the dominant force in society. * * * Second, with the passage from class rule to representative democracy, little can be done except by influencing directly, not a few leaders, but the mass of the people."

Joint Safety Program: A Case Study in Cooperation

THE SAFETY PROGRAM adopted in mid-1945 by Local 656 of the Textile Workers Union of America (CIO) and the Forstmann Woolen Co., of Passaic, N. J., has contributed to a lower accident rate, according to a recent study;¹ this company has also had "exceptionally good" industrial relations since the signing of a contract with the union in August 1944.

Over a 4-year period, the accident-frequency rate² dropped 84 percent—from a peak of 9.36 for 1943 to a low of 1.46 for 1947.³ With the formation of the joint safety program in 1945, the accident-frequency rate for that year fell 47 percent—from 8.66 to 4.55. The severity rate⁴ also showed marked improvement throughout these periods.

In 1935, however, the company had established an organized safety program among its supervisory force; and for the next 5 years noteworthy progress was made in reducing accidents. But during the war years 1941–43, when production problems were paramount and workers largely unskilled, the relative number of disabling injuries mounted, reaching an all-time high in 1943.

When management accepted the offer of union cooperation to prevent accidents in early 1945, it laid down two conditions: That final responsibility for safety (including final decisions on safety matters) remain in the hands of management; and that no office-holding union member serve on any safety committee, the purpose being to keep safety activities out of the area of controversy and separate from the grievance procedure.

The collective agreement between the union and the company does not provide for a joint safety program, nor does it contain the "safety and health" clause frequently found in such agreements. However, a constitution and bylaws, formulated and revised by joint action, prescribe

¹ The Joint Safety Program of the Forstmann Woolen Co. and Local 656, Textile Workers Union of America (CIO). Rutgers University, Institute of Management and Labor Relations, New Brunswick, N. J., 1948. (Case Studies of Cooperation Between Labor and Management, No. 1.)

² Number of disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked.

³ The annual rate for the woolen and worsted textile manufacturing industry in the United States in 1947 was 18.6, according to the annual survey of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (See Monthly Labor Review, November 1948, p. 508.)

⁴ Average number of days lost, because of disabling injuries, per 1,000 employee-hours worked.

in detail the purposes, organization, and procedures of the joint safety program.

Program Organization and Procedure

The formal work of the program is conducted by a joint council and 16 departmental joint committees. Each holds separate monthly meetings. The council supervises the work of the individual committees. Council members serve for 12 months; their terms are staggered, and no second term is permitted until all who are eligible have served. This diffusion of experience also extends to the departmental joint committees. Union members on these committees serve only 6 months, so as to permit participation by as many employees as possible; foremen serve 12 months.

The council and committees are in reality a training center in safety for their members; at any given time there are 39 union members serving in one capacity or another, and an equal number from management. Union members are paid for all time spent at meetings of the joint program, even when overtime is involved. The flow of suggestions and related information and education forms a continuous process through a wide variety of devices, and results in the securing and maintaining of broad worker interest and participation in safety.

Potential Areas of Disagreement

Although no formal grievances have been presented by the union on the subject of safety during the 4 years of collective bargaining, the survey analyzes five areas of possible friction.

(1) Enforcement of safety rules has occasioned no discharges and no serious disagreements, because of the joint approach. The union has taken a leading part in helping "to correct violators," so that discipline on the part of management has not been required; for instance, it has assisted materially in reducing horseplay and in stimulating the use of safety goggles.

(2) In placing disabled workers, the word of the medical department has generally been accepted as to the proper time for injured employees to return to work and in determining the type of work they are able to perform. Disputes on these matters have been settled in fairly short

order. Greater leeway in the retention of seniority is given to an employee transferred for medical or physical reasons to a new seniority area than to one experiencing an ordinary transfer.

(3) The management lays great emphasis on the importance of prompt action. Under company policy, any suggestion accepted under the joint safety program must be put into effect as soon as possible, otherwise prompt explanation must be given together with a statement as to when action is to be expected; prompt explanation is also required in case of a rejected suggestion.

(4) Certain union requests for wider plant inspection by safety representatives and advance reports on accidents for its joint council representatives had not been granted at the time of the study.

(5) The union has been vigorous in presenting its members' claims for workmen's compensation, yet its representatives on the joint safety program do not become involved directly in compensation hearings. Individuals representing the union in these two functions are not the same—in line with the agreed policy of keeping the joint safety program noncontroversial, but in contrast to company representation.

In spite of disagreements which inevitably have arisen and might arise, the study emphasizes the fact that "both parties agree, and the record indicates, that the joint safety program has been remarkably successful."

This procedure stands in the forefront as a means of securing and maintaining broad interest and participation in safety. It has proved to be by far the best way of securing suggestions from employees. Publicity on the subject of accident prevention, designed to promote safety consciousness on the part of all the employees, is handled most effectively under this program. Most of the issues concerned with the daily operation of the accident-prevention program are noncontroversial, and the joint safety program appears very well suited to handle such matters.

Factors in Success of Accident Prevention

The joint safety program, according to the study, is only one of three parts in the accident-prevention program at Forstmann, the others being (1) activities of the company's supervisory force, trained for many years to think in terms of safety and management's final responsibility for accident prevention, and (2) the collective-bargaining machinery.

Eight factors, listed in the following order, were given as predisposing to the success of accident prevention at Forstmann:

(1) The relatively noncontroversial character of the subject of accident prevention.

(2) A relatively peaceful and constructive background of industrial relations, which in turn appears to have been still further improved by the cooperation of union and management in this enterprise.

(3) Both parties seem to enjoy a feeling of security.

(4) General understanding of location of authority as between management and union; management consults with union representatives, whenever possible, on the soundness of decisions before putting them into effect.

(5) Ineligibility of union officers to serve as safety representatives in the joint programs, thus maintaining its noncontroversial character and keeping the formal meetings on the cooperative level, since controversies arising as to safety are settled informally.

(6) The considerable effort put into securing general employee interest and participation in safety. Attention is paid to the matter of keeping all employees informed about safety, with special attention to the systems of communicating with supervisors and safety representatives.

(7) Promptness with which suggestions are acted upon, on the whole.

(8) General attitude of management and union toward each other—their basic confidence and mutual respect, coupled with their objectivity in handling common problems—is probably the most important factor, according to the study.

Background Relationships

The Forstmann Co., for some years, has been a leading producer of better woven woolen and worsted fabrics. At the time of the study, somewhat fewer than 4,000 employees were in the bargaining unit. Acceptance of the union in 1944 and development of the joint safety program in 1945 occurred during relatively high levels of employment. Union security has progressed from maintenance-of-membership to full-fledged union-shop status, granted by management in 1947 on its own initiative. Arbitration is provided for in the contract (and functions under an impartial

chairman), but has been invoked in only one case. With the exception of a few departmental stoppages, no strike or lock-out has occurred since the recognition of the union.

It should be clear that this account of the joint safety program at the Forstmann Woolen Co., is a study of cooperation between management and labor under most favorable circumstances. This must be borne in mind in any attempt to apply the findings of this case study to the problem of promoting more general cooperation between management and labor.

* * * Even in the relatively noncontroversial field of accident prevention, successful cooperation comes only from the diligent application by both parties of the highest skill in human relations.

Atmospheric Control in Textile Mills: Proposed Trade-Union Standard

THE TEXTILE WORKERS UNION of America (CIO) has proposed a specific standard for temperature and humidity control in textile mills, in the interest of improved production and working conditions. It has also advocated the installation of adequate air conditioning in connection with the standard proposed, according to a report issued by the union for information and guidance of its members.¹

“Good controls of temperature and humidity,” the study emphasizes, “insure conditions for workers to produce their best in comfort and good health, and also provide the most advantageous conditions for efficient processing.”

The physiological effects of high temperatures and humidities upon the worker in the cotton textile industry had been fully explored, according to a study published in 1945, which stated: “There are plenty of data now available to show * * * that the efficiency of the worker * * * begins to fall off when the dry and wet bulb exceed certain combinations.”² According to the current study, the ability of textile workers to

¹ Air Conditioning in Textile Mills. The Case for Temperature and Humidity Control To Provide Comfort, Health, Safety, and Optimum Production. New York, Textile Workers Union of America (CIO), 1948. (Research Department Technical Report: Prepared by Franklin G. Bishop and Solomon Barkin.)

² Atmospheric Conditions in Cotton Textile Plants by Philip Drinker: Special Bulletin No. 18, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1945. (p. 5).

produce drops noticeably if air conditions rise above 80° ET (effective temperature). The range between the comfort level (about 70° ET) and the 80° limit permits the highest and the best-quality output. “Immediately above this range, output drops as much as 15 percent from the optimum in an 8-hour day, with some variation” depending on the nature of the work. From 87° to 94° ET, production falls very rapidly—as much as 50 percent below the optimum in an 8-hour day; and when the effective temperature reaches 94°, output is likely to drop 80 to 90 percent. On heavy jobs, the decline in productivity is earlier and more serious.

The relative humidity used for different fibers and processes were found, in the study reviewed, to range from 50 to 90 percent. Good textile processing requires a constant level of humidity in every operation, even though the actual level may vary from room to room. Careful temperature control is also crucial in some operations and desirable for all processes. A maximum of 80° ET, the report states, will assure satisfactory conditions for both the worker and the process.

Labor-Management Disputes in March 1949

THE NUMBER OF WORKERS idle during work stoppages increased substantially in March 1949 after 3 months in which comparatively small numbers were affected. Idleness, which ran below 1,000,000 man-days per month in December, January, and February, exceeded 3,000,000 man-days in March according to preliminary indications. The widespread memorial stoppage of coal miners, together with a suspension of Railway Express Agency operations in New York City and adjoining New Jersey areas, were the two largest factors in the month's idleness.

Coal Mining Stoppage

Invoking a clause in the agreement with mining operators providing that the union may designate memorial periods provided it shall give proper notice to each district, President John L. Lewis of the United Mine Workers of America issued a statement on March 11 as follows:

Exercising its contractual options, the United Mine Workers of America is authorizing a Memorial period during which a suspension of mining will occur. The authorization affects all bituminous coal and anthracite mines east of the Mississippi River. It is effective Monday, March 14, and production in the described area will resume Monday, March 28.

Mines in all States west of the Mississippi River are authorized to remain at work to avoid public hardship in areas where climatic conditions have recently been unfavorable.

This period of inaction will emphasize the Mineworkers' opposition to one Boyd, an incompetent, unqualified person who has usurped the office and functions of Director of the Federal Bureau of Mines without Senate confirmation as required by statute. Concurrently the Mineworkers will mourn the unnecessary slaughter of 55,115 men killed and injured in the calendar year 1948, during Boyd's incumbency of his usurped office. Meanwhile the Mineworkers will pray for relief from the monstrous and grotesque injustice of an ignorant and incompetent Boyd having the power to decide whether they shall live or continue to die in the mines.

Dr. James Boyd was appointed by President Truman as Director of the United States Bureau of Mines in August 1947. His confirmation by the United States Senate was still pending, however, at the time the stoppage began. On March 14 the Senate Interior and Insular Affairs Committee approved the nomination of Dr. Boyd by a 10 to 1 vote, and on March 23 his appointment was confirmed by the Senate.

On March 24, Mr. Lewis reaffirmed his original statement that work was to be resumed on Monday, March 28. The miners returned to their jobs, and production of coal was resumed on that date as scheduled.

Railway Express Agency Stoppage

On or about March 10 the Railway Express Agency distributed notices of termination of employment to approximately 9,000 employees in New York City and the northern New Jersey area, effective March 12. The action of the agency was based on an alleged slow-down of employees causing interruptions to service and congestion at company terminals. Members of the union involved—Botherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees (AFL)—were reported to have started the slow-down as a protest against alleged "stalling" by the company in negotiating a new contract. The union's principal demands were for a 5-day, 40-hour week in lieu of the existing

6-day, 44-hour week, with two consecutive days off, and a 25-cents-an-hour increase in wages.

Negotiations under the auspices of the National Mediation Board continued during the month, but the dispute was still not settled at the end of March. Developments in the meantime included (1) the placing of an embargo by the company on express shipments of less than carload lots into and out of New York City, (2) the filing of a \$5,000,000 damage suit by the company against the Clerks' Union, claiming that the slow-down was a violation of agreement, and (3) the picketing of agency depots.

Brief Strike on Wabash Railroad

An accumulation of grievances—some of long standing—provoked a walk-out of 3,500 operating employees of the Wabash Railroad on March 15 which stopped all service on the line. The unions involved were the four unaffiliated railroad Brotherhoods—Locomotive Engineers, Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen, Railroad Trainmen, and Railway Conductors.

The day the strike began President Truman created an emergency fact-finding board to investigate the issues. As the strike continued, the railroad, on March 18, began to lay off the 8,500 nonoperating employees.

An agreement was signed on March 22, settling many of the issues and providing a return to work while negotiations continued on those remaining, with the emergency board standing by to take jurisdiction over any problems the parties themselves could not settle.

Railroads and Nonoperating Employees

Agreement was reached on March 20 between the Nation's railroads and 16 nonoperating unions under the terms of which the workers will receive 48 hours' pay for 40 hours' work plus a 7-cents-an-hour wage increase. The agreement affects approximately 1,000,000 clerks, trackmen, shop mechanics, and other rail groups other than those who man the trains. The 40-hour week schedule will take effect September 1, 1949, while the pay increase of 7 cents an hour is retroactive to October 1, 1948. This settlement ended an 11-month dispute and incorporated the recommendations made December 17 by a presidential fact-finding board appointed under provisions of the *Railway Labor Act*.¹

¹ See *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1949, p. 58.

Technical Notes

Procedures Used in 1947 Family Expenditure Surveys¹

DATA OBTAINED by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1947 income, expenditures, and savings in Washington, Richmond, and Manchester are based on samples of families representative of all types of consumers.² Personal interviews with these families were conducted during February, March, and April, 1948. The sample units were selected by ratio from lists of dwellings prepared for the Bureau's Dwelling Unit Survey³ and supplemented by field investigation to include rooms in lodging houses, hotels, employee quarters of institutions, and new construction.

When a sample unit was found to house more than one "economic family," each family was included in the sample. The "economic family" may be either (1) a family of 2 or more persons dependent on a common or pooled income for the major items of expense, and usually living in the same household; or (2) a single consumer who lived as an independent economic family either in a separate household or as a roomer in a private home, lodging house, or hotel.

All relatives of the family head who ordinarily lived with the family, but were temporarily away from home at work or school, in a hospital, or on a visit, were included as family members provided they either contributed to the family income or received a large part of their support from family funds. Children away at school, who earned their living or lived on veteran education benefits, and persons in military service, living on military reservations, were not included as family members.

Related persons living in one household were

¹ Prepared by Helen M. Humes of the Bureau's Division of Prices and Cost of Living.

² See Family Income and Expenditures in 1947, p. 389 of this issue, for summary of survey findings.

³ For a detailed description of the sampling design, see The Rent Index—Part 2: Methodology of Measurement, Monthly Labor Review, January 1949; also reprinted as Serial No. R. 1947.

considered as forming two or more economic families only when the separation of finances was clearly defined.

To have been considered eligible for inclusion in the survey, it was necessary for the family to have existed as an economic family during all of 1947. Full-year economic families may have had part-year family members, i. e., persons who joined or left the family during 1947. Income and expenditures for part-year family members, for that part of 1947 when they were in the family, were combined with the data for the rest of the economic family.

Sample Size and Coverage

For Washington, the sample provided usable data for 323 economic families, of whom 273 were families of 2 or more persons and 50 were single consumers. The survey included the city proper and the suburban areas in Montgomery and Prince Georges Counties, Md., and Alexandria, Arlington County, and part of Fairfax County, Va.

The Richmond sample consisted of 196 economic families who were eligible for inclusion in the study and were willing and able to give a complete report (178 families of 2 or more persons and 18 single consumers). The survey included the city proper and the suburban areas located in Henrico and Chesterfield Counties, Va.

In Manchester, the sample provided complete reports for 236 economic families (190 families of 2 or more persons and 46 single consumers). Since there are no important concentrations of housing outside the city limits, the survey included only the city proper.

No substitutions were made for families or single consumers who refused information or who could not be contacted.

Income Data for Washington

The income data for the Washington, D. C., area (like those for the other two cities) are based on reports of gross income and of income after payment of personal taxes. These data were obtained in connection with the reports on expenditures and savings, primarily for use in classifying the summary expenditure data.

The Bureau of the Census, in February and March 1948, obtained data on 1947 gross money

income from a very much larger sample of Washington area families and individuals not in families. The income-size distributions obtained in the two sample surveys differ in some respects.

The differences result from underlying differences in the survey design, the most important of which are definition of the family, the number and type of questions asked to obtain the data, and sample size and coverage. The Census sample included all the Washington metropolitan area and covered 4,254 families and individuals. The expenditure survey covered the city and the urban fringe outside the district as defined for housing-market surveys, and used a sample consisting of 323 economic families.

The Census survey defined the family as a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage, or adoption, and residing together; single persons living with relatives were considered family members even though they did not pool their incomes or share expenses. The economic family as defined for the BLS survey included only persons who pooled incomes and shared expenses, regardless of relationship; related persons who handled their incomes and expenditures independently were considered separate economic families, even though they resided in the same dwelling.

The Census income data refer to families as they existed at the time of the survey in the spring of 1948. The BLS income data refer to families as they existed in 1947, including members who left the family after December 31, 1947, and excluding members who joined the family after that date.

The Census Bureau obtained a report of gross money income only, itemized by family member and general source classification, and the survey procedure did not afford an opportunity to check the income data reported. The BLS procedure obtained gross income itemized by family member and detailed source classification, as well as net income after deductions. Records were made of the amounts of the deductions, and these, together with the complete expenditure report, provided the basis for checking the incomes reported. Revisits were made to families whose income reports did not balance with their reports of expenditures and

⁴ Due to the difficulty experienced by respondents in accounting completely for receipts (i. e., income, other money receipts, and funds made available through liquidation of assets or through credit) and disbursements (i. e., outlays for current consumption, gifts and taxes, and money used to increase assets or decrease debts), a margin of tolerance was set up for discrepancies between the two. A schedule was considered acceptable if the difference was less than 10 percent of receipts or disbursements, whichever was the

savings or deficits within a 10-percent tolerance.⁴ These revisits frequently resulted in reports of additional income. It has been found that surveys of income made in connection with expenditure studies result in higher income reports than those obtained independently.

Because Washington expenditure data relate to the incomes obtained in the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey, summary expenditure data for combined income classes are based on income distributions obtained in that survey.⁵

Reliability of the Data

The data obtained in these surveys are based on reports from a sample of all families in each city, and are thus subject to sampling variability. The sampling variability of a percentage figure depends on both the size of the percentage and the size of the total on which it is based. The variability of an average depends on the size and shape of the distribution from which it is derived. These measures of sampling variability can be calculated through use of standard statistical formulae. However, in addition to sampling variability, the data are subject to errors of response and nonreporting. Most of the information given is based on memory rather than on records. Because of the tendency to forget irregular sources of income and some expenditures for day-to-day living essentials, the memory factor probably results in underestimates. Since such errors cannot be easily measured, no estimate of probable errors in the data has been made.

All averages are based on all families in the income class, regardless of whether or not they had expenditures for each particular item. In small samples in which data are subdivided by classes, some irregularities are to be expected, especially among items on which expenditures may vary substantially in amount or may occur at infrequent intervals—for example, medical care items. With few exceptions, adjustments are not made in the averages; any exceptions are noted in the statistical tables. Income-class averages are those yielded by the original reports.

larger. The "balancing difference" is the average net difference between reported money receipts (i. e., money income, other money receipts, and net deficit) and reported money disbursements (i. e., expenditures for current consumption, gifts and contributions, insurance, and net surplus).

⁵ For detailed income data, see U. S. Bureau of the Census, Consumer Income Report, Series P-60, No. 4.

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor¹

Wages and Hours²

Enforcement of Act, Civil Contempt. A February 1949 decision of the Supreme Court of the United States is important in enforcement of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The Court held³ an employer liable for civil contempt for disobeying a general decree enjoining violation of the wage, hour, and record-keeping provisions of the act although the plan adopted by the employer for payment of wages was not specifically enjoined.

The decree, issued by a district court in 1943, prohibited the employer from paying less than the minimum wage, and overtime compensation due under the act, to certain designated classes of employees, and from failing to keep records of their wages and hours. In 1946 the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division brought civil contempt proceedings against the employer for violating the decree. The district court found that the employer, in violation of the act, had set up a fictitious method of compensation without regard to hours actually worked; had adopted a plan giving a wage increase in the guise of a bonus, which was excluded from the regular rate for purposes of computing overtime; had classified some employees as administrative in plain violation of the Administrator's regulations; and had employed piece workers for more than 40 hours a

week without paying them overtime. This court found, however, that such violations did not constitute civil contempt, on the ground that they were not willful and were not specifically covered by the decree. The court of appeals affirmed the district court's decision.

Reversing this decision, the Supreme Court held that absence of willfulness was no defense against a remedial action for civil contempt. An action did not cease to be a violation of the law because it was perpetrated innocently. The fact that those specific violations were not singled out for mention in the injunction decree was likewise held no defense. The persistent violations in this case indicated that a decree in general terms had been necessary—otherwise the employer could, after each new decree, devise a new evasion. The employing company knew that it was taking a risk in adopting measures designed to avoid liability under the act. Moreover, it could have avoided this risk by petitioning the district court for a clarification of the order.

The Supreme Court held it was proper to order the employer in the contempt action to pay back wages and overtime pay to its employees as damages. The requirement was merely a method of enforcing the district court's decree.

Two justices dissented on the ground that the Court should be sparing in construing the extent of an injunction decree punishing contempt, when there was no trial by jury. These justices were of the opinion that the order of the district court was not sufficiently clear in its prohibition of the acts charged to make the employer committing them liable for contempt. Reference was made to the former abuse of injunctions of a general nature against labor unions, which the Norris-LaGuardia Act was designed to prevent.

Portal Act—Contract or Custom; de Minimis. Maintenance employees were required by their employer to report, dressed ready for work, in their respective shops at its plant at 7:55 a. m. each day, when they were to punch their time clocks. In computing their compensation, however, the employer did not include the period from 7:55 to 8 a. m. The employment contract with the union provided that employees required to work over 8 hours in any 1 day would be paid one and a half times their regular rate for all such overtime. The employees sued for overtime

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 or 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 This section is intended merely as a digest of some recent decisions involving the Fair Labor Standards Act and the Portal-to-Portal Act. It is not to be construed and may not be relied upon as interpretation of these acts by the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division or any agency of the Department of Labor.

³ *McComb v. Jacksonville Paper Co.* (U. S. Sup. Ct., Feb. 14, 1949).

compensation for work during the 5 minutes each day from 7:55 to 8 a. m. The employer argued that such claims were barred by the Portal-to-Portal Act of 1947 as relating to preliminary activities not compensable according to the employment contract or according to a custom or practice at the place of employment. The defense claimed also that insubstantial periods of time spent in preliminary activities need not be included for the purpose of computing overtime compensation. The district court upheld the employees.

The court of appeals⁴ approved the lower court's finding that the activities during the 5-minute period were compensable under the employment contract which provided for payment of overtime to employees required to work over 8 hours a day. Since the employees were required to report ready for work at the beginning of the 5-minute period, they were held required to work during that period within the meaning of the contract. But the appellate court also held that the time of 5 minutes was so insubstantial and insignificant that it need not be included in the statutory workweek for purposes of computing overtime compensation, and therefore upheld the employer.

The employees have filed a petition for a rehearing, in which the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division has joined, on the ground that the de minimis rule does not apply to a fixed period of time, no matter how small, as fixed periods are made compensable by the contract of employment.

Production of Goods for Commerce—Repair of Highways. Employees of a contractor—truck drivers and a mechanic working on truck maintenance and repair—were engaged in intrastate transportation of sand and gravel purchased from a local producer and used in maintenance and repair of the State highway system. The hauling for the State highway system constituted about a third of the contractor's total business. The employees' services were not segregated between this and other work. A district court held⁵ that the employees were engaged in commerce and production of goods for commerce within the meaning of the Fair Labor Standards Act, since the State highway system was used by vehicles engaged in interstate commerce as well as by those engaged

in intrastate commerce. They were, therefore, not exempt from the overtime provisions of the act.

Commerce—Retail Exemption. An automobile dealer was engaged in the business of selling and repairing trucks and truck parts purchased outside the State, to local customers engaged in commercial hauling. Some of the trucks purchased were used by the customers to transport goods across State lines. The dealer had five employees and his business amounted to over \$200,000 in 1 year.

The Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division sought to enjoin the dealer from violating the Fair Labor Standards Act. The Federal district court held⁶ that the employees of the dealer were engaged in commerce, since the goods they sold were purchased outside the State and could never be said to have left the stream of commerce prior to their sale to customers. The retail and service establishment employee exemption of section 13 (a) (2) was held inapplicable to these workers, who sold or repaired trucks for commercial users only.

Exemption of Executive Employees. A circuit court of appeals considered⁷ the application of section 13 (a) (1) of the Fair Labor Standards Act exempting employees "employed in a bona fide executive * * * capacity." The chief building-maintenance engineer of a department store engaged in the manufacture and sale of women's clothing sued his employer for overtime compensation. The employer disclaimed liability on the grounds that (1) the engineer was not engaged in commerce or the production of goods for commerce, (2) he was exempt as an employee of a retail and service establishment, and (3) he was exempt as an executive employee. The district court upheld the employer.

The court of appeals overruled the lower court on all three grounds. As 40 percent of the annual gross sales of clothing manufactured by the employer were shipped out of the State, the employer was clearly engaged in the production of goods for commerce. The retail exemption was held inapplicable to employees whose activities were not separated between manufacturing and selling

⁴ *Frank v. Wilson & Co.* (U. S. C. C. A. (7th), Feb. 10, 1949).

⁵ *McComb v. Carter* (U. S. D. C., E. D. Va., July 31, 1948).

⁶ *McComb v. Deibert* (U. S. D. C., E. D. Pa., Feb. 14, 1949).

⁷ *Grant v. Bergdorf & Goodman* (U. S. C. C. A. (7th), Jan. 28, 1949).

carried on in the same store building. The engineer was responsible for maintenance of the whole building.

The court ordered a new trial on the issue of whether the engineer was an executive. He admitted performing "minor supervisory duties," but claimed his main activity was maintenance and repair of the building and a major portion of his time was spent in manual labor. The regulations of the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division provided that to be exempt as an executive an employee must, among other things, be one "whose hours of work of the same nature as that performed by nonexempt employees do not exceed 20 percent of the number of hours worked in the workweek by nonexempt employees under his direction." The trial court had charged the jury that, even if the engineer performed manual work, if he alone could do it because of the special skill required, then the work was not of the same nature within the meaning of the regulation. The court of appeals held this charge to be error, since the nonexempt work referred to in the regulation did not refer only to work performed by others under the direction of the employee in question, but to all nonexempt work, which might be of any kind, including highly skilled work by all employees who were not directing others. The trial court was also held to have erred in charging that the nonexempt hours were to be measured as a percentage of the engineer's workweek, rather than of the workweek of the employees under his direction.

Labor Relations

State Jurisdiction To Prevent Intermittent Work Stoppages. The United States Supreme Court held⁸ that a State employment relations board was not prohibited by either the Federal Constitution or the National Labor Relations Act from ordering a labor union to cease instigating intermittent and unannounced work stoppages.

The stoppages represented a new technique openly adopted by a union as a means of bringing pressure against an employer. Twenty-six of the stoppages occurred during a 5-month period, with consequent disruption of work. Upon employer's request, the State board ordered the union to

cease engaging in concerted efforts to interfere with production by arbitrarily calling union meetings or causing other stoppages during scheduled working hours. It also ordered the union to cease engaging in other efforts to interfere with production, except by leaving the premises in an orderly manner and going on strike. The State supreme court upheld the order of the State board, but construed it to prevent only the acts in which the union had actually engaged.

In affirming the State court decision, the United States Supreme Court held that the order did not impose involuntary servitude (it did not prevent individual quitting of work), or invade rights of freedom of assembly, or interfere with the Federal power over commerce, but that it was a valid exercise of the State police power.

The Court rejected the union's contention that the order conflicted with provisions of the National Labor Relations Act either as originally enacted, or as amended in 1947. The action prohibited by the State board's order was held to be—along with other coercive tactics in labor controversies—in an area which had been left open for State control. The National Labor Relations Board was held to have power neither to approve nor to forbid the acts in question. No conflict existed between the order of the State board and the policy of the National Labor Relations Act, as would exist if a State board should select a bargaining representative. The work stoppages were held not to be protected by section 7 of the amended NLRA, which guaranteed to employees the right to self-organization and the right to engage in concerted activities for mutual aid and protection. Section 7, the Court said, did not make all concerted activities immune; it merely prevented discrimination against employees or unions because such activities were concerted. Activities, otherwise illegal, were not protected merely because they were performed in concert. Section 13, which stated that nothing in the act should be construed to limit the right to strike, was held to apply only to the National Labor Relations Act itself; it did not attempt to modify other laws concerning strikes or to make the right to strike absolute. Previous decisions of the Court were cited as establishing the State's power to prohibit strikes in certain instances.

Four justices dissented. Two thought the order of the State board to be in conflict with

⁸ *International Union United Automobile Workers of America (AFL) v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Board* (U. S. Sup. Ct., Feb. 28, 1949).

section 7, which had previously been held to protect "partial" strikes. Three justices believed the State Board's order to be in conflict with section 13, which they thought established a policy protecting the right to strike.

Interference—Refusal of Use of Company Auditorium. An employer's refusal to allow its auditorium, the only available meeting hall in a company town, to be used for a union meeting was held⁹ to be an unfair labor practice discriminatory against the union's organizing activities.

The employer rented the hall to a fraternal order with directions that no other organization be allowed to use it. In practice, however, this direction was not enforced, and many organizations used the hall. When, the union organizer first asked to be allowed to use the hall, the request was granted by the lessee but the permission was later canceled on request of the employer. The NLRB found the denial of the hall to the union to be discriminatory and ordered the employer to cease refusing its use to this or any other union. The court refused to enforce the Board's order. The United States Supreme Court reversed the appellate court's decision.

The Supreme Court held that the Board's order did not deprive the employer of its property without due process of law. Not every interference with property rights was protected by the fifth amendment, the Court stated, but "inconvenience or even some dislocation of property rights may be necessary to safeguard collective bargaining."

It was pointed out that the situation in a company-dominated town was very different from the situation in a large metropolitan area where the union could easily have secured access to another hall. The grant of facilities to the union could not have been held to be an attempt to dominate the union in violation of section 8 (a) (2) of the amended National Labor Relations Act, since the grant of a meeting place, by itself, had never been held to show company domination.

The Board's order as originally worded was so broad that it would have prohibited the denial of the hall to the union at any time, regardless of the employer's policy toward other organizations. Therefore, the Board was directed to modify its

order so that it would prevent only a discriminatory denial of the hall's use.

Two justices dissented, on the ground that denial of the hall was not discriminatory interference with union activities, but was merely a refusal to aid organizational activities. Employees were held to possess no rights in their employer's nonbusiness property.

Justice Jackson agreed with the Court insofar as it directed the employer to revoke its order that the lessee deny use of the hall to the union. But he thought the employer should be directed only to desist from interfering with the discretion of the lessee.

Free Speech in Labor Dispute—Sound Trucks. The United States Supreme Court upheld¹⁰ the constitutionality of a city ordinance prohibiting use upon the public streets of sound trucks and other devices from which are emitted "loud and raucous" noises.

The case arose upon the arrest of a person who used a sound truck in commenting upon a labor dispute. The majority of the Court held that the ordinance was a valid exercise of the local police power to prohibit nuisances. A previous decision¹¹ striking down an antinoise ordinance was distinguished from this instance, on the ground that in the former case the local chief of police was given discretion to censor such broadcasts without reference to any standards. In the instant case, the Court pointed out, all loud and raucous noises from sound trucks were prohibited. The right of free speech was held not to include the opportunity to gain the public's ear by objectionably amplified sound on the street. Four justices dissented on the ground that the ordinance was an unconstitutional abridgment of free speech, which was held to include modern methods of communication to the public.

Political Expenditures. The Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit held¹² that section 304 of the Labor Management Relations Act of 1947, which prohibits expenditures by a labor organization in connection with an election, primary, or convention for the selection of senators, congressmen, or

⁹ *National Labor Relations Board v. Stowe Spinning Co.* (U. S. Sup. Ct., Feb. 28, 1949).

¹⁰ *Kovacs v. Cooper* (U. S. Sup. Ct., Jan. 31, 1949).

¹¹ *Saia v. New York* (334 U. S. 558).

¹² *United States v. Painters Local Union No. 481* (U. S. C. C. A. (2d), Feb. 8, 1948).

Presidential and Vice-Presidential electors, did not apply to expenditures for a newspaper advertisement or radio program.

A union paid out of its general funds, derived from dues of members, for an advertisement in the Hartford Times—a daily newspaper of general circulation—and a broadcast over a commercial radio station. Both advertisement and broadcast advocated rejection of a certain candidate for the Presidential nomination and of six incumbent congressmen as candidates for reelection; both referred specifically to the State and National Republican conventions and to the National election to be held November 2, 1948.

The district court had held the union guilty of violating section 304. On the ground that the section was unconstitutional, the union appealed. The court of appeals refused to consider the question of constitutionality, but held that the act had not been violated, basing its ruling on a previous Supreme Court decision¹³ that publication of a political article in the CIO News did not violate the act. It was pointed out that fewer people probably were affected by the advertisement and the broadcast than by the CIO News article. The broadcast and advertisement were held to be natural modes of communication of the union's views, expenditures for which were authorized by vote at a regular union meeting. To the court there seemed to be no logical distinction between the two cases. Therefore the Supreme Court's warning that section 304 should not be interpreted to cause undue infringement of freedom of speech was held to be applicable to the case under consideration.

Non-Communist Affidavits. An interesting decision of the NLRB concerned the interpretation of the non-Communist affidavit provisions of the amended National Labor Relations Act.

The Board ruled¹⁴ that an organizing committee which had filed a representation petition was so closely connected with its parent federation, the CIO, that the latter's noncompliance with the non-Communist provisions was ground for dismissal of the petition. A previous ruling,¹⁵ in which the Board held that compliance by the parent federation was not required when the peti-

tioning local and its international or national affiliate had complied, concerned a different situation.

In the more recent case, the organizing committee had no constitution or bylaws of its own, but was governed by those of the CIO, and the committee's officers were appointed either by the CIO or by the CIO's appointees. Like international and national unions, the committee issued charters to locals in its own name, collected a per capita tax on dues raised by its locals and in turn paid a per capita tax to the CIO, contributed to a regional organizing campaign, maintained its own office and bank account, held its own conventions, sent delegates to the CIO conventions; its collective-bargaining agreements and strike orders required approval by the local membership. The Board recognized that an organizing committee might later become an international, but held it had not yet reached that status.

Two Board members, dissenting, pointed to the similarities between the committee and internationals and to the fact that internationals were also governed by the CIO's constitution. If the CIO's power to appoint officers of the committee were considered to make the latter subject to its will, the same could be said also of international unions whose officers were likewise officers of the parent.

Restraint or Coercion. A union's conduct during a strike in barring supervisors from a plant by force and intimidation in the presence of non-striking employees was ruled¹⁶ by the NLRB to be an unfair labor practice under section 8 (b) (1) (A). Use of force against the supervisors was held to contain an implied threat of force against the nonstrikers should they attempt to enter the plant. Other threats against supervisors, uttered when there were no nonstriking employees present and which nonstriking employees would not hear, were held not to constitute restraint or coercion.

In the same case, a threat against a nonstriker by a union official that "when we get in with the union you * * * won't have a job" was held to be coercive within the meaning of section 8 (b) (1) (A). Such a threat manifestly was calculated to have an effect on the listener, even though the union was incapable of carrying it out

¹³ *United States v. Congress of Industrial Organizations* (335 U. S. 106.—See Monthly Labor Review August 1948, p. 167).

¹⁴ *In re American Optical Co.* (81 NLRB No. —, Jan. 31, 1949).

¹⁵ *Matter of Northern Virginia Broadcasters, Inc.* (75 NLRB 11).

¹⁶ *In re United Furniture Workers of America, Local 509* (81 NLRB No. —, Feb. —, 1949).

because of provisions of the law that forbid discrimination against employees.

Both the local and the international union were held responsible for the acts of restraint or coercion, since officers of both were at the scene of the strike and it had been authorized by both organizations. The acts of violence or intimidation were held to have been within the scope of their authority. Moreover, since there had been consultation between the local and the international in carrying on the strike, each organization was held responsible, not only for actions of its own officers, but for actions of its affiliate's officers.

Secondary Boycott—Peaceful Picketing Not Protected Free Speech. An NLRB ruling held¹⁷ peaceful picketing and circulation of a blacklist by a union in furtherance of a secondary boycott to be an unfair labor practice under section 8 (b) (4) (A) of the amended National Labor Relations Act, and not protected free speech under section 8 (c).

The picketing was engaged in by members of a union which had a dispute with a manufacturer of prefabricated houses. It was directed against an employer, using materials supplied by the manufacturer, because he refused to cease using such materials. The employer was placed on the union's "We Do Not Patronize" list, which was circulated among all unions in the local building-trades council. Although picketing was wholly peaceful, truck drivers of several companies refused to deliver materials through the picket line.

Section 8 (b) (4) (A) was held to apply to peaceful picketing and circulation of a blacklist, because it made it an unfair labor practice to "induce or encourage," as well as to engage in, a secondary strike or boycott. The Board pointed out that the act described other unfair labor practices in stronger language, such as "restrain or coerce" employees, in section 8 (b) (1), and "cause or attempt to cause" an employer to discriminate against employees in section 8 (b) (2). Since threats and violence were already prohibited as a method of carrying out a strike by other provisions of section 8 (b), subsection (4) would have served no purpose if it had not been intended to prevent peaceful picketing. Not to have prohibited such picketing would have vitiated the purpose of the subsection, since peaceful picketing

was one of the most effective methods of boycott. For these reasons, section 8 (c), providing that the expression of views shall not constitute or be evidence of an unfair labor practice unless accompanied by threat of force or reprisal or promise of benefit, could not have been intended to protect peaceful picketing in a secondary boycott. Even peaceful picketing was not immune when performed in pursuance of an unlawful purpose. The legislative history of the Labor Management Relations Act was held to indicate that Congress intended to prohibit all forms of secondary strikes and boycotts, and that the objective, rather than the method of carrying on, a strike was the test of violation of section 8 (b) (4) (A). Section 8 (c) was ostensibly intended to apply to all unfair labor practices, but, as a general provision, it was held to be modified by the specific language of section 8 (b) (4).

Two Board members dissented on grounds which included the following: (1) The "expression of views" protected by section 8 (c) included peaceful picketing. (2) Provisions of that section were expressly made applicable to an unfair labor practice under any of the act's provisions. (3) The majority's opinion would read into section 8 (c) the words "except under section 8 (b) (4) (A)." It would mean the prohibition not only of picketing and blacklists, but of all types of advertising though far removed from the employer's place of business. (4) The legislative history of the act does not show an intention to prevent peaceful picketing in this instance. Thus, a proposal to prohibit picketing in certain cases was omitted from the conference report on the bill. Committee reports stated that the free speech provisions were intended to apply to both employers and unions. (5) The argument that the purpose of the secondary boycott prohibition might be defeated if peaceful picketing were permitted applies to other union unfair labor practices, such as to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate against employees for failure to join a union. If Congress was aware of the possible conflict between sections 8 (c) and 8 (b) (2), it was probably also aware of the conflict between sections 8 (c) and 8 (b) (4) and (6). Where there is a conflict between ambiguous and unambiguous terms of a statute, the unambiguous terms should prevail.

¹⁷ *In re Klassen & Hodgson, Inc.* (81 NLRB No. 127, Feb. 18, 1949).

Decisions of State Courts

Arkansas—Injunctions; Peaceful Picketing. A State supreme court¹⁸ directed a lower court to modify its order enjoining all picketing in the vicinity of a plant to permit peaceful picketing. More than 2 years had elapsed since the lower court had granted a temporary injunction. The supreme court stated that, in view of the systematic violence used by union members in carrying on a strike against the employer's plant, the lower court probably was justified in its original order enjoining all picketing. But the lower court, 20 months after its original order, had made the injunction permanent. The supreme court held that the presumption that the picketing would be violent no longer was justified and peaceful picketing could be permitted—predicated upon the assumption that pledges regarding lawful conduct would be faithfully observed.

Pennsylvania—Union Not Liable for Discharge. A union had a collective agreement with an employer permitting the union to encourage employees to join, but not requiring union membership as a condition of employment. An employee, who, despite frequent requests, had failed to become a member, was told by a union officer that if

he did not join, he would find his card missing from the company rack, which meant that he would lose his job. The employer's plant superintendent and the vice president were standing 8 feet away at the time, engaged in conversation of their own. A half hour later the plant superintendent went to the employee and told him that his card would "be pulled for not joining the union." The employee sued the union for damages caused by unlawful interference with his employment. The lower court granted the union's motion for nonsuit.

On appeal the decision was affirmed by the State supreme court¹⁹ on the ground that there was no evidence in the record to show that the union communicated its threats against the employee to the employer. The circumstantial evidence—the presence of the superintendent nearby while the union officer threatened the employee, followed shortly by the employee's dismissal by the superintendent—was held not to furnish adequate proof. Since the employee was employed at the will of the employer, he could be dismissed at any time with or without cause, and could be dismissed for his refusal to join a union. It was possible that the employer, in order to maintain harmonious labor relations, favored and encouraged membership in the union.

¹⁸ *Henderson v. Southern Cotton Oil Co.* (Ark. Supreme Ct., Jan. 24, 1949).

¹⁹ *Polk v. Steel Workers* (Pa. Sup. Ct., Jan. 3, 1949).

Chronology of Recent Labor Events

February 12, 1949

THE COMMUNICATIONS WORKERS OF AMERICA (Ind.) executive board recommended that its members should vote to join the Congress of Industrial Organizations (see Chron. item for Apr. 7, 1947, MLR, Aug. 1947). A 60-day referendum starting March 7 is to determine whether the union will join the CIO or will remain independent. (Source: CIO News, Feb. 21, 1949, and CWA release of Mar. 3, 1949.)

February 14

THE SUPREME COURT of the United States, in the case of *McComb, etc. v. Jacksonville Paper Co.*, ruled that absence of willfulness does not relieve an employer from civil contempt for disobeying a general decree enjoining the employer from violating minimum-wage, overtime, and record-keeping provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, vol. 23, No. 33, Feb. 21, 1949.)

THE PRESIDENT OF THE CIO addressed a letter to the presidents of the United Automobile, Aircraft & Agricultural Implement Workers of America and the United Farm Equipment & Metal Workers of America calling for the merger of the latter union with the UAW. He stated: "There can be no misunderstanding about the decision twice arrived at by the CIO executive board (see MLR, Jan. 1949, p. III and footnote, p. 11). * * * No consideration has or will be given to the formation or recognition of any new union in this field." (Source: UAW-CIO Public Relations Department release, Feb. 17, 1949.)

THE NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS BOARD, in the case of *Earl McMillan Co.*, held that an employer reconditioning automobile engines and using motor parts manufactured outside the State in which he operates may not be "engaged in commerce" within the meaning of the Fair Labor Standards Act, but is engaged in operations which "affect commerce," and is therefore subject to the jurisdiction of the NLRB. (Source: U. S. Law Week, vol. 17 LW, p. 2378.)

February 18

THE NLRB, in the case of *General Motors Corp. and International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (UAW-CIO)*, held that the employer's unilateral introduction of a group insurance plan, thus altering existing wages and conditions of employment without consulting the statutory bargaining representative, constituted a refusal to bargain. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, vol. 23 LRRM, p. 1422.)

February 20

The 10-day strike of Local 234 of the Transport Workers Union (CIO) against the Philadelphia Transportation Co. ended with acceptance of a wage increase of 8 cents an hour. (Source: BLS records.)

THE NLRB, in the case of *M. L. Townsend, Santa Maria, Calif.*, automobile dealer, and the *International Association of Machinists* (Ind.), announced a unanimous ruling that franchised dealers in new automobiles are subject to the Labor Management Relations Act of 1947. The Board's decision reversed a previous holding of one of its trial examiners that the dealer's activities did not affect interstate commerce within the meaning of the LMRA of 1947. (Source: NLRB release R-159, Feb. 20, 1949.)

February 22

THE NLRB, in the case of *Wadsworth Building Co., Inc. and Klassen & Hodgson, Inc. and Carpenters District Council of Kansas City and Walter A. Said*, issued its first ruling involving two "inconsistent" provisions of the LMRA of 1947. Provisions involved are (1) the so-called "free speech" clause (sec. 8c) which states that uncoercive expression of "any views, arguments, or opinion" or their dissemination is not an unfair practice, and (2) the secondary boycott clause (sec. 8b 4A) which forbids a union to "induce or encourage" employees to withhold their labor from one employer to bring pressure upon another. (Source: NLRB release R-160, Feb. 22, 1949.)

February 25

THE NLRB, in the case of *Smith Cabinet Manufacturing Co. and United Furniture Workers of America (CIO)*, and its *Salem Local No. 309*, held unanimously that under the LMRA of 1947 a union is responsible for strike violence directed or incited by that union. The Board ordered both the national union and its local, and 10 officials to cease restraining or coercing employees of the firm, and to post notices announcing that they would cease such activities. (Source: NLRB release R-161, Feb. 25, 1949.)

February 28

THE SUPREME COURT of the United States, in the cases of *International Union, UAW, AFL, Local 232, et al. v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Board et al.*, upheld the State's order directing the unions to cease interfering with production by suddenly and intermittently calling union meetings and inducing temporary work stoppages during regularly scheduled working hours. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, Extra Edition Bull., vol. 23, No. 35, Feb. 28, 1949, p. 1.)

THE SUPREME COURT of the United States, in the case of *NLRB v. Stowe Spinning Co., et al.*, held that the company's refusal to permit the union to use the company's hall for union meetings in a company town constituted discrimination against the union, in violation of section 8 [a] (1) of the National Labor Relations Act. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, Extra Edition Bull., vol. 23, No. 35, Feb. 28, 1949, p. 11.)

THE UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS, Seventh Circuit, in the case of *McComb v. Robert W. Hunt Co.*, held that the fact that an employer relied in good faith on an administrative ruling in failing to make overtime payments required by the Fair Labor Standards Act will not afford a good faith defense in an action brought by the Administrator to restrain violations of the law in the future. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, vol. 23, No. 37, Summary, p. 2, and 8 WH cases, p. 553.)

March 1

AN NLRB TRIAL EXAMINER, in the case of *H. MacCanlis Co. Inc.*, and *Wholesale and Warehouse Workers Union, Local 65 (Ind.)*, held that the union violated the LMRA of 1947 by physically forcing four of its members to attend a meeting at union headquarters. The meeting was called as part of an effort to prevent employees of the company and another firm from unseating Local 65 as their bargaining agent. (Source: NLRB release R-162, Mar. 1, 1949.)

March 3

THE NLRB, in the case of *Moore Drydock Co. and International Association of Machinists* and its *Lodge 68*, ruled 3 to 2 that, under the LMRA of 1947, the union was not lawfully entitled to force or require the company to assign machinists' work to their members rather than to members of any other labor organization. (Source: NLRB release R-163, Mar. 3, 1949.)

March 5

THE SENATE confirmed the nomination of Michael J. Galvin to be Under Secretary of Labor to succeed David A. Morse (see Chron. item for June 10, 1948, MLR, Aug. 1948). (Source: Congressional Record, vol. 95, No. 33, Mar. 5, 1949, p. 1964.)

March 6

THE NLRB, in the case of *Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Co. and Amalgamated Meat Cutters Union (AFL)*, announced its unanimous decision that a strike for a closed-shop clause in a union contract violates the provisions of the LMRA of 1947. (Source: NLRB release R-164, Mar. 7, 1949.)

March 7

THE SUPREME COURT of the United States, in the case of *Algoma Plywood and Veneer Co. v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Board*, held that the States may impose more stringent curbs on union security than those provided by the Federal Government. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, vol. 23, Extra Edition Bull., Mar. 7, 1949, p. 1.)

THE SUPREME COURT of the United States, in the case of *Foley Bros. Inc., et al v. Filardo* (a United States citizen employed by private contractors on United States Government construction in Iraq and Iran), unanimously held that the 8-hour day law is inapplicable to a contract for the construction of public works in a foreign country over which the United States has no direct legislative control. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, vol. 23, Extra Edition Bull., Mar. 7, 1949, p. 11.)

THE SUPREME COURT of the United States in the case of *Virmilya-Brown Co. Inc., v. Connell*, maintained the position taken in its December 6 decision (see Chron. item for Dec. 6, 1948, MLR, Jan. 1949) namely, that a United States military base in Bermuda was, for purposes of the Fair Labor Standards Act, a "possession" of this country where the 40-hour week and other requirements of that law are applicable. (Source: U. S. Law Week, 17 LW, p. 4250.)

March 11

THE PRESIDENT OF THE United Mine Workers of America (Ind.) announced a 2-week "memorial period during which a suspension of mining will occur." The stoppage was to begin on March 14 and to affect all bituminous-coal and anthracite mines east of the Mississippi River, he stated. (Source: UMW Journal, Mar. 15, 1949.)

AN NLRB TRIAL EXAMINER recommended that the Maine Fillet Co. should be required to withdraw all recognition from the Independent Federation of Labor. He stated that the company's president originally founded the union and that the company dominated and supported it. The union was stated to be guilty of interfering with the right of the firm's employees to self-organization. (Source: NLRB release R-166, Mar. 11, 1949.)

Publications of Labor Interest

Special Reviews

Workers Wanted: A Study of Employers' Hiring Policies, Preferences, and Practices in New Haven and Charlotte. By E. William Noland and E. Wight Bakke. New York, Harper & Bros., 1949. 233 pp. (Yale Labor and Management Center Series.) \$3.

In this volume an attempt is made to measure scientifically the criteria by which New Haven, Conn., and Atlanta, Ga., employers judge and select job applicants. A separate analysis is made for each of five groups of employees—production workers, common labor, service and maintenance workers, routine clerical workers, and executive and administrative assistants. The results disclose points of likeness and dissimilarity between the qualifications that employers stated to be essential in the two cities and in the five groups of occupations. However, the authors themselves regard their study as supplying only “hypotheses” which are “legitimately suggested by the evidence concerning hiring policy and practice,” and not as affording conclusions.

Management's choices of personnel were far from personal selections. In exercising their hiring functions, employers perform an assigned role in society and fulfill one of the institutional requirements of productive enterprise and the community. They are inclined to take the line of least resistance. They reduce their risks by hiring candidates who “stand in with” their working force, that is, who are like their present employees. Employers tend to accept employee evaluations “concerning characteristics presumably revealed by groups of people: all women, all men; all Negroes, all whites; all Jews, all gentiles; all churchgoers, all nonchurchgoers; all Native Americans, all foreign-born; all conservatives, all radicals; all young people, all aged; and so on.” It is not possible to wish or legislate away such commonly accepted evaluations of individuals by their affiliations rather than by their personal qualifications.

A painstaking point by point tabulation of characteristics desired in workers—such as stability of character, reliability, good appearance, capacity for teamwork, and loyalty—is made. However, the conclusions which point out deep rooted motivations of human beings stand out in *Workers Wanted*. —M. H. S.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. When data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

The Role of Collective Bargaining in a Democracy. By Herman Lazarus and Joseph P. Goldberg. Washington, Public Affairs Institute, 1949. 72 pp., bibliography. (Report No. 3.) 50 cents.

As stated by the authors, this brief study is “intended merely as a guide with which the questioning public can approach the issue of a constructive labor policy.” The origins, characteristics, and motivations of trade-unions are analyzed to provide a back drop against which the usual charges against unions may be examined in their proper perspective. The Taft-Hartley Act, they assert, is not the proper approach to such a constructive labor policy. That act resulted from “attacks on trade-unions” during the postwar period which were “characterized by lack of perspective and balance.” They gave “the impression that the activities of unions are directed toward the creation of a gigantic ‘labor monopoly.’”

Taking issue with this premise, the authors charge that the provisions of the Taft-Hartley Act served “to inject artificial impediments into the collective bargaining process, to lay the basis for tipping the balance against labor unions, and to make the Government an intrusive factor in labor relations.” However, they maintain that the law did not come to grips with the real problem, which does not consist in devising means of dealing with monopoly-seeking unions. Rather, a procedure must be devised to establish a “constructive governmental policy” designed to answer the question, “How can the collective bargaining process be developed to make a maximum contribution to the public welfare?”

Messrs. Lazarus and Goldberg do not claim to have answered this question. In the last analysis, they contend, the answers must be arrived at by “representatives of management and labor, with governmental assistance.” They recommend adoption of the procedure used in drawing up the Railway Labor Act. This act, as first enacted in 1926, was the product of joint conferences between railway management executives and officials of unions involved. A labor program evolved from such a procedure would be accepted by both labor and management, the authors believe. The President and Congress would be called upon to evaluate and take action upon such a policy from the point of view of the public interest. —I. R.

Child and Youth Employment

Child Labor After Ten Years of Federal Regulation: Annual Report of National Child Labor Committee, for the Year Ending September 30, 1948. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1948. 21 pp. (Publication No. 399.)

Fair Labor Standards Act Seeks to Protect Children in Agricultural Jobs. By William R. McComb. (In *The Child*, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, Washington, January 1949, pp. 101-103. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

The author, whose division in the U. S. Department of Labor administers the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, states that it does not give all

children hired to work at agricultural jobs a chance to go to school full time. He suggests that the law be changed so as to prevent employment of children in agriculture during school hours.

Trends in Child Labor and Youth Employment. By Gertrude Folks Zimand. (In *Public Welfare*, Chicago, February 1949, pp. 33-37. 50 cents.)

The Protection of Young Workers Employed Underground in Coal Mines. Geneva, International Labor Office, 1948. 40 pp. 25 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of ILO.

Report prepared for third session of Coal Mines Committee, International Labor Organization, 1949.

Youth Problems: Child Labor and Institutional Services. Seattle, University of Washington, Bureau of Governmental Research and Services, 1948. 29 pp.; processed. (Report No. 97.)

Proceedings of the Local Action in Democracy Section, 13th Annual Institute of Government, 1948.

Cooperative Movement

State Councils and Associations of Farmer Cooperatives, 1947. By Jane L. Scearce. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Farm Credit Administration, Cooperative Research and Service Division, 1948. 65 pp., map, illus.; processed. (Miscellaneous Report No. 117.)

Gives individual descriptions of the organization and activities of 30 State councils; a few (in Minnesota, Texas, Vermont, and Wisconsin) admit nonfarm as well as farmers' cooperatives. These councils operate for the most part as public relations and educational organizations, as well as for the defense of cooperatives.

Vermont Cooperatives—Their Business Activities. By Thurston M. Adams. Burlington, University of Vermont and State Agricultural College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1948. 27 pp., maps, illus. (Bull. No. 540.)

The report notes that although there are several types of consumers' cooperatives in Vermont (such as store, electricity, cold-storage locker, credit union) membership consists largely of farmers. One section of the report describes the Vermont Cooperative Council, in which all types of associations are united for purposes of exchange of information, public relations, and coordination of activities.

Report of the Administrator of the Rural Electrification Administration, 1948. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1948. 26 pp., map. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Contains statistics on amount of REA loans made and results accomplished (in terms of miles of line energized and consumers connected) in 1947-48; discussion of some of the problems encountered (obtaining power, materials, etc.); and description of some of the ways in which REA cooperatives have improved working and living conditions in rural areas.

Ontario's Cooperatives, 1946-1947: A Survey of Cooperative Business Organizations in the Province of Ontario. By J. E. O'Meara. [Toronto, Ontario Department of Agriculture, Cooperation and Markets Branch?], 1948. 72 pp., map, charts, illus.

Discussion and statistics of cooperatives, covering types, services rendered, age, capitalization, membership, business practices, volume of business, etc.

Consumers Cooperation in Sweden. By Anders Hedberg. New York, National Cooperatives, 1948. 80 pp., diagrams, illus.

Concise account (in English) of Swedish consumers' cooperative organizations—retail distributive cooperatives, the wholesale society (Kooperativa Förbundet), and insurance societies—and of their activities. The latter include manufacture of various products by local and wholesale associations.

Economic and Social Problems

The Age of the Great Depression, 1929-41. By Dixon Wecter; edited by Arthur M. Schlesinger and Dixon Ryan Fox. New York, Macmillan Co., 1948. 434 pp., bibliography. (A History of American Life, Vol. 13.) \$5.

The editors of this latest volume of the History of American Life describe the author's point of view as follows: "Believing that the historian's function is to explain and interpret rather than to advocate, he seeks to give a sympathetic portrayal of both the Old Deal and the New." Nearly all phases of the life of the people are described by extensive use of contemporary references. The author's own reflections and interpretations are minimized. Several chapters have special labor interest. Among these are Unions on the March, Old Sections and New Regions, Youth in Search of a Chance, Age in Quest of Security, and The Consumer and Science. The last named chapter emphasizes "the shift from a producers' to a consumers' economy" and the resulting emphasis on research affecting production of consumer goods, dietary standards, and testing and standardization of products.

Foreign Economic Policy for the United States. Edited by Seymour E. Harris. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1948. 490 pp., charts. \$6.

Written by 24 experts, this volume contains a chapter on the economic organization of the United States for handling economic policy; accounts of individual countries and areas of special importance to our international policy; discussions of international economic agencies; five chapters on the European Recovery Program; and several contributions to the theory of international equilibrium.

The Economics of John Maynard Keynes: The Theory of a Monetary Economy. By Dudley Dillard. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948. 364 pp., bibliographies, diagrams. \$5 (\$3.75 to schools).

Exposition of the economics of John Maynard Keynes which focuses on the forces determining the volume of effective demand. The book follows the outline of the General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money and

refers to the other aspects of Keynes' work which contribute to his fundamental thesis. The writer concludes with an interpretation of the "economics of Keynes," with which the book is concerned (rather than with "Keynesian economics"). Chapter II, entitled "The Classical Background," provides the setting for Keynes' ideas.

A Survey of Contemporary Economics. Edited by Howard S. Ellis. Philadelphia, Blakiston Co. (for American Economic Association), 1948. 490 pp., bibliographical footnotes. \$4.75.

The volume consists of reviews by experts of developments in major fields of economic ideas and analytical techniques during the past 10 or 15 years. It is intended to provide an intelligible and reliable account of these developments and their applications to public policy. One of the 13 chapters is devoted to the economics of labor, and other chapters, such as the one on employment theory and business cycles, have special bearing on labor interests. The participation of the American Economic Association consisted of appointment in 1945 of a committee on the development of economic thinking and information and an appropriation of funds for use by the committee.

Discrimination in Employment—A Selected Bibliography. Chicago, American Council on Race Relations, 1949. 8 pp.; processed. (Bibliographic Series, No. 2.)

The Social Politics of FEPC: A Study in Reform Pressure Movements. By Louis Coleridge Kesselman. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1948. 253 pp., bibliography. \$3.50.

Account of the movement for a permanent national fair employment practice commission to combat racial discrimination against applicants for employment.

Southern Textile Communities. By William Hays Simpson. Charlotte, N. C., Dowd Press, Inc., 1948. 139 pp., bibliography.

Having decided that "our industrial communities are seriously misunderstood," the author outlines the historical setting of the mill towns and the facilities available to their residents. The conclusion is reached that the operators, "by virtue of their contributions to the recreational, educational, religious and other phases of life in mill villages, have aided greatly in the development of the people of the area."

Guaranteed Wage

Guaranteed Employment and Wage Plans: A Summary and Critique of the Latimer Report and Related Documents. By William A. Berridge and Cedric Wolfe. Washington, American Enterprise Association, Inc., 1948. 87 pp., bibliography. (National Economic Problems Series, No. 428.) 50 cents.

Wage Guarantee Plans: A Study of Employment Regularization. By Howard Wilson. Chicago, Economic Institute, 1948. 14 pp., bibliography. 35 cents.

Describes the Hormel, Procter & Gamble, and Nunn-Bush wage-guarantee plans as representative of numerous

plans already in operation. The successful employer-employee relationships promoted by these plans demonstrate, the author believes, what can be done by a preventive approach to industrial or labor problems.

Housing

Annual Report of the Commissioner of Housing to the Governor and the Legislature, [New York State], for Year Ending March 31, 1948. New York, Executive Department, Division of Housing, 1948. 108 pp., illus. (Legislative Doc. No. 14.)

New Homes for Old: Publicly Owned Housing in Tennessee. By William F. Larsen. Knoxville, University of Tennessee, Bureau of Public Administration, 1948. 81 pp., illus. (University of Tennessee Record, Extension Series, Vol. xxiv, No. 7.)

Covers the development and operational experience of local housing authorities in six Tennessee cities which engaged in federally-aided low-rent public housing programs during 1937-42.

Who Can Afford Our New Housing? By Miles L. Colean. Washington (815 15th Street NW.), Construction Industry Information Committee, [1948?]. 5 pp., chart.

The author draws on Federal statistics to show that private industry has built homes within the reach of at least three-fourths of the Nation's families, and that the family of average income was able to afford the average price of homes built in 1947.

Housing the Country Worker. By Michael F. Tilley. London, Faber and Faber, Ltd., 1947. 152 pp., plans, illus. 12s. 6d.

Discusses future of farming in Britain, rural location of industry, political and economic problems such as the "tied" cottage and cottage ownership, planning of a village as a social and economic unit, and specialized housing requirements of farmers and country people.

New Methods of House Construction. London, Ministry of Works, 1948. 36 pp., pasters, charts, illus. (National Building Studies, Special Report No. 4.) 1s. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Income

Analysis of Wisconsin Income. By Frank A. Hanna, Joseph E. Pechman, Sidney M. Lerner. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1948. 261 pp., charts. (Studies in Income and Wealth, Vol. 9.) \$3.50.

A study based largely on publications of the Wisconsin Tax Commission, which are described as the fullest and most detailed compilations ever made from income tax data. The central theme of the present volume is described as the personal distribution of income, or how the income derived from productive activity is divided among individual members of the community. Parts I and II deal, respectively, with income received in Wisconsin in 1936 and with patterns of income, including some reference to

changing patterns. Part III analyzes data for the period from 1929 to 1935.

National Income and Expenditure. By J. E. Meade and Richard Stone. Cambridge, England, Bowes & Bowes, 1948. 45 pp. 2s. 6d. net.

Describes the various meanings of the term national income and compares national income of the United States and the United Kingdom in terms of 5 different definitions, for the years 1938, 1943, and 1946. Similarly defines and compares national expenditures.

The Measurement of Colonial National Incomes: An Experiment. By Phyllis Deane. Cambridge, England, National Institute of Economic and Social Research, 1948. xvi, 173 pp., bibliography. (Occasional Papers, No. 12.) 12s. 6d. (\$3, Macmillan, New York).

Pioneer and exploratory study undertaken during the war to test the application, to primitive economies, of techniques developed for measurement of national income of the United Kingdom. Methods, sources, and possibilities of error are discussed in detail. Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, and Jamaica are the subjects of study. A foreword and a final chapter deal with methodological problems, and the usefulness of such studies for colonial administration and economic planning.

Industrial Accidents; Workmen's Compensation

Annual Report on Industrial Accidents in Illinois for 1947.

Chicago, Illinois State Department of Labor, Division of Statistics and Research, 1948. 149 pp.; processed.

Summary of industrial injuries reported in 1947 as compensable under the Workmen's Compensation and Occupational Diseases Acts, and of compensation cases closed in 1947.

Activities of the Health and Safety Division, Bureau of Mines, U. S. Department of the Interior, During the War Years, 1941-45. By D. Harrington. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1949. 40 pp., map, illus.; processed. (Information Circular No. 7487.)

National Directory of Safety Films, 1948-49 Edition. Prepared by National Safety Council in cooperation with Business Screen Magazine. Chicago, National Safety Council, Inc., 1948. 57 pp., illus. 25 cents.

Includes films on safety education in industry.

Measurement of the Slipperiness of Walkway Surfaces. By Percy A. Sigler, Martin N. Geib, Thomas H. Boone. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards, 1948. 8 pp., diagrams, illus. (Research Paper RP1879, Vol. 40.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Basic data requisite for establishing a safety code for walkway surfaces.

State Workmen's Compensation Laws as of October 1, 1948. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, 1948. 31 pp. (Bull. No. 99.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Industrial Hygiene

Environmental Cancer. By W. C. Hueper, M.D. Washington, Federal Security Agency, [National Cancer Institute, 1948?]. 19 pp., illus. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Discusses the causative factors in cancer, and emphasizes this hazard as the newest and one of the most ominous in the industrial environment. A program of "social and technical" controls over the hazards of exposure to carcinogenic agents is outlined.

Ionizing Radiation Injury—Its Diagnosis by Physical Examination and Clinical Laboratory Procedures. By Eugene P. Cronkite. (In Journal of American Medical Association, Chicago, February 5, 1949, pp. 366-369, chart. 35 cents.)

Outlines available knowledge concerning diagnosis of injury from ionizing radiation and points out that preventive measures are of prime importance, as injury manifestations appear relatively late. The author notes the rapid increase in sources of exposure with the growth in the use of the cyclotron in scientific research and the development of the atomic energy industry.

Occupation Marks and Other Physical Signs—A Guide to Personal Identification. By Francesco Ronchese, M.D. New York, Grune & Stratton, 1948. 181 pp., bibliography, illus. \$5.50.

Spectral-Transmissive Properties and Use of Eye-Protective Glasses. By Ralph Stair. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards, 1948. 34 pp., bibliography, charts. (Circular No. 471.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Data on protective glasses for industrial workers exposed to "ultraviolet, visible, or infrared energy," particularly welders, steel workers, and glass blowers; for night driving; and for other activities.

The Noise Hazard. By W. E. Grove, M.D. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, January 1949, pp. 25-28, charts. 75 cents.)

Advocates accurate audiometric preemployment and follow-up examinations, to prevent occupational injury to hearing.

Industrial Relations

Beyond Collective Bargaining. By Alexander R. Heron. Stanford, Calif., Stanford University Press, 1948. 214 pp. \$2.75.

The author's thesis is that there are a great many relationships involving employees and employers which are, and always should remain, beyond collective bargaining in their nature. Among these are hiring, inducting, and training new employees; safety; retirement and other "social security" plans; selecting supervisors; etc. Collective bargaining is "primarily a negative influence" in labor-management relations. What is needed in this area "beyond collective bargaining" is a spirit of understanding and cooperation, rather than the element of power associ-

ated with collective bargaining. Management must take the initiative in meeting and dealing constructively with the problems and issues raised by employees or their representatives affecting daily relations in the plant. The employer must "share his ideas, his hopes, his plans and his problems" with his employees if he wishes to build sound relations. Only in this practical way can he limit the scope of collective bargaining and create positive and dynamic cooperation.

Economic and Psychological Principles of Collective Bargaining. By W. V. Owen and H. F. Rothe. Chicago, Stevenson, Jordan & Harrison, Inc., 1948. 228 pp., bibliography; processed.

Part I deals with the individual, or psychological, aspects of collective bargaining, Part II with institutional aspects (e. g., management, unions, free enterprise), and Part III with "relationships of individuals to individuals, individuals to institutions, and of institutions to institutions."

Freedom and the Administrative State. By Joseph Rosenfarb. New York, Harper & Bros., 1948. 274 pp., bibliography. \$4.

Three of the 22 chapters are devoted to labor relations in the administrative state.

Government as Employer. By Sterling D. Spero. New York, Remsen Press, 1948. 497 pp. \$5.65.

A study of employer-employee relationships as they exist in Federal, State, county, and municipal government employment, with particular attention to the position and activities of labor unions.

Managers, Men, and Morale. By Wilfred B. D. Brown and Winifred Raphael. London, MacDonald & Evans, 1948. 163 pp. 10s. 6d.

The authors discuss, from a practical standpoint, management's problem of securing the responsible participation of workers in industry, and the relationship of various levels of management to top management and to the workers.

The Termination Report of the National War Labor Board: Industrial Disputes and Wage Stabilization in Wartime, January 12, 1942—December 31, 1945, Volume II, Appendixes to Volume I, Part I. Washington, 1948. 1,222 pp. \$2.50, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Contains basic statutes and executive orders; regulations and directives of the Director of Economic Stabilization; and general orders and selected opinions of the National War Labor Board, selected opinions and memoranda of its general counsel, and other material pertaining to over-all policy.

Labor and Social Legislation; Court Decisions

Annual Digest of State and Federal Labor Legislation, Enacted September 1, 1947, to November 15, 1948. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, 1949. 22 pp. (Bull. No. 101.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

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Federal Court Decisions on Labor, 1947-48. By Murray Edelman. Urbana, University of Illinois, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1948. 22 pp. (Publications Series A, Vol. 2, No. 5.) 5 cents.

Cases on Labor Law. By Archibald Cox. Brooklyn, Foundation Press, Inc., 1948. xxxv, 1,432 pp. (University Casebook Series.) \$8.50.

Part I consists of a historical introduction dealing with the development of the labor movement and labor law from the end of the Civil War to the 1930's. Parts II and III concern negotiation and administration of collective agreements and establishment by the National Labor Relations Act of collective bargaining rights. Parts IV and V deal with recourse to economic weapons and the individual worker's relation to the union.

Anti-Discrimination Legislation in the American States. By W. Brooke Graves. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service, November 1948. 92 pp., bibliography; processed. (Public Affairs Bull. No. 65.)

The historical background is briefly sketched. Provisions of the New York law of 1945 and its operation are summarized; less detailed information is given concerning the laws of Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Indiana, and Wisconsin.

Legislative Shackles on Featherbedding Practices. By William L. Brach. (In Cornell Law Quarterly, Vol. XXXIV, No. 2, Ithaca, N. Y., Winter 1948, pp. 255-263.)

Labor Management Relations Act, 1947

The Taft-Hartley Act. By Sumner H. Slichter. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., February 1949, pp. 1-31. \$1.25.)

Examines the terms and effects of the Taft-Hartley Act and the background in which it has operated, and concludes that Congress should be able to draft a much better law than either the Taft-Hartley Act or the Wagner Act.

The Taft-Hartley Act: A Year and a Half of Administrative and Judicial Construction. By Robert A. Levitt. (In New York University Law Quarterly Review, New York, January 1949, pp. 76-156. \$2.)

Labor Organizations

Annual Conventions of the AFL and CIO. By Nelson M. Bortz and Abraham Weiss. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1949. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 1948; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, January 1949.) Free.

Directory of Labor Unions in New York State. New York, State Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics, December 1948. 124 pp. (Special Bull. No. 223.) 75 cents.

A Directory of Government Employee Organizations in New York State, 1948 (Publication No. B-14, Nov. 1948, 67 pp., processed), is also available.

Labor Press in the United States. By James J. Bambrick, Jr. (In *Management Record*, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, December 1948, pp. 579-584.)

Lists publications issued by the principal national AFL, CIO, and independent unions.

Wobbly: The Rough-and-Tumble Story of an American Radical. By Ralph Chaplin. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1948. 435 pp., illus. \$5.

The story of the making of an American radical and of his long experience in the labor movement. As one of the leaders in the Industrial Workers of the World, Chaplin describes its struggles and its personalities.

Thirty-Seventh Annual Report on Labor Organization in Canada (for the Calendar Year 1947). Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1949. 96 pp., charts. 25 cents.

Directory of Employers' Associations, Trade Unions, Joint Organizations, etc., [Great Britain]. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1948. 190 pp. 3s. 6d. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Trades Councils Guide: A T. U. C. Handbook for Officers and Delegates of Trades Councils and Federations. London, Trades Union Congress, 1948. 38 pp. 6d.

Describes relationship of trades councils and federations of trades councils to the TUC, to local labor parties, and to national unions. Cautions trades councils against engaging in certain activities without due authorization. Over 500 trades councils in England and Wales are registered with the TUC and voluntarily accepting its rules and conditions; none is known to be functioning independently.

What Happened to the Trade Unions Behind the Iron Curtain. By International Labor Relations Committee, American Federation of Labor. New York, Free Trade Union Committee, AFL, 1948. 44 pp. 50 cents.

Collection of articles reprinted from the International Free Trade Union News describing how the Communists gained control of trade-unions and made them instruments of the state in the Soviet Union, the Baltic countries, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Hungary, and Rumania.

Medical Care; Sickness Insurance

Effect of Rising Hospital Costs on Group-Payment Plans. By C. Rufus Rorem. (In *American Journal of Public Health*, New York, January 1949, pp. 50-56. 70 cents.)

The writer holds that voluntary group-payment plans ought to pay the full costs of the hospital services provided to subscribers.

Studies in Disability Insurance: I, State and Federal Disability Insurance Systems; II, The Nature and Extent of Voluntary Disability Insurance in New York State. New York, Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics, 1949. 55 and 38 pp.; processed. (Publication No. B-16, Parts I and II.)

Sickness Benefits for Railroad Employees. By Daniel Carson. (In *American Economic Security*, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, December 1948, pp. 29-35. 25 cents.)

Covers the first year's operation (ending June 30, 1948) of the temporary disability insurance program under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act.

Annual Report of Department of National Health and Welfare, Canada, Fiscal Year Ended March 31, 1948. Ottawa, 1948. 185 pp.

Of particular interest among the matters reported upon are the health insurance studies made in connection with a civil service medical benefit scheme, studies under way for the purpose of developing a workable plan for an over-all Canadian health insurance program, and operations under the Family Allowances Act.

Minimum Wage

Recommendations on Minimum Wage Legislation. Report of the Committee on Minimum Wage of the Industrial Council, [New York State] Department of Labor, to the Industrial Commissioner. New York, Department of Labor, 1949. 26 pp.; processed.

State and Federal Minimum Wage Coverage in New York State, [April 1948]. New York, Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics, 1948. 20 pp.; processed. (Publication No. B-15.)

Old-Age Pensions

Current Trends in Public Pension Policies. By A. A. Weinberg. (In *Minnesota Municipalities*, Minneapolis, January 1949, pp. 12-17; February 1949, pp. 47-49. 25 cents each.)

Employee Retirement Plans. Chicago, Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Co., 1948. 67 pp.; charts; processed.

Consists of addresses, given by members of the bank staff, on various aspects of retirement and profit-sharing plans.

Present-Day [Company] Pension Problems. By Walter J. Couper. (In *Management Record*, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, January 1949, pp. 4-6.)

Retirement Plans in Indiana. By Eldon Howard Nyhart. Indianapolis, Indiana State Chamber of Commerce, 1948. 96 pp.; processed.

Study conducted among members of Indiana State Chamber of Commerce.

Pensamiento y Acción de la Cámara Gremial Durante el Periodo 1945-46. Buenos Aires, Secretaría de Trabajo y Previsión, Instituto Nacional de Previsión Social, 1948. 140 pp.

Description of the retirement laws and regulations of Argentina and of the activities of the agency administering them during the years 1945 and 1946.

Personnel and Industrial Management

Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. By Dale Yoder. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948. 894 pp., bibliographies, charts, forms. 3d ed. \$6.65 (\$5 to schools).

The Scope of Modern Personnel Administration. By Thomas G. Spates. New York, Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1948. 71 pp. (Reading Course in Executive Technique, Section III, Book 1.) \$1.

Middle Management: The Job of the Junior Administrator. By Mary Cushing Howard Niles. New York, Harper & Bros., 1949. 274 pp. Rev. ed. \$3.50.

Prices

The Consumers' Price Index: Report of the Joint [Congressional] Committee on the Economic Report, on the Consumers' Price Index of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Washington, 1949. 20 pp., bibliography. (Joint Committee Print, 80th Cong., 2d sess.)

Rent Component of the Consumers' Price Index [of the Bureau of Labor Statistics]. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1949. 16 pp., diagrams. (Serial No. R. 1947; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, December 1948 and January 1949.) Free.

Prices and Price Indexes, [Canada], 1944-47. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1948. 115 pp., charts. 25 cents.

The general wholesale price indexes go back to 1867, indexes of prices of commodities and services used by farmers to 1913, and cost of living indexes to 1913.

Social Security (General)

Readings in Social Security. Edited by William Haber and Wilbur J. Cohen. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948. xx, 634 pp., charts. \$7.65 (\$5.75 to schools).

Survivor Benefits: Characteristics of Awards. (In Monthly Review, U. S. Railroad Retirement Board, Chicago, January 1949, pp. 2-6.)

Survivors of 98,800 railroad employees were paid over 40.6 million dollars in benefits under the Railroad Retirement Act, from January 1, 1947, when the benefit program became effective, to June 30, 1948.

National Insurance and Industrial Injuries. By F. N. Ball. Leigh-on-Sea, England, Thames Bank Publishing Co., 1948. 508 pp. 50s.

Reprints the four acts passed by the British Parliament from 1944 to 1946 to implement the plan proposed by the Beveridge report on social security, and the regulations issued up to time of publication of the book. Supplementary material is being published in loose-leaf form. In the present volume, each act is preceded by notes on the history and intent of the legislation, a review of discussions concerning alternative methods of meeting the problems, and other data. The introduction by Sir David Maxwell Fyfe comments particularly upon changes made in the workmen's compensation system by the industrial injuries act of 1946.

Seafarers' Welfare: Some Postwar Developments. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, November 1948, pp. 625-636. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of ILO.)

Suggestion Systems

Putting Suggestion Systems to Work. By H. J. Richey. San Francisco, California Personnel Management Association, Research Division, 1948. 14 pp.; processed. (Management Report No. 24.) \$1.

Suggestion Plans for Employees. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, 1948. 46 pp., illus.

Analysis of suggestion plan policies and procedures of 45 companies in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing businesses, with statistics on results in 1946 and 1947.

Employees Suggestion Programs in the Iron and Steel Industry. New York, American Iron and Steel Institute, 1948. 92 pp., forms; processed.

Unemployment Insurance

Unemployment Insurance. A report to the Senate Committee on Finance from the Advisory Council on Social Security. Washington, 1948. 103 pp. (Senate Doc. No. 206, 80th Cong., 2d sess.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Summarized in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 422).

Unemployment Compensation in a Stable Economy. By H. W. Steinhaus. Chicago, Research Council for Economic Security, 1948. 14 pp., charts. (Publication No. 47.)

The author undertakes to show that unemployment compensation cannot be an instrument of social relief and at the same time a weapon with which to combat economic depression.

Report of the New York State Advisory Council on Placement and Unemployment Insurance for the Year 1948. New York, State Advisory Council on Placement and Unemployment Insurance, 1949. 38 pp. and appendixes; processed.

In addition to reviewing operations, the council makes legislative recommendations, including the extension of unemployment insurance to cover workers of firms with fewer than four employees. It emphasizes the crisis in the functioning of the State's employment security programs, caused by the inadequacy of Federal funds for their administration.

Vacations and Holidays

Holiday Practices. By John J. Speed. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1948. 36 pp., charts. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 99.)

Data from this report are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 426).

Paid Vacation and Sick Leave Provisions in Union Agreements, California, 1948. San Francisco, State Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Statistics and Research, 1948. 3 pp.; processed.

Wages, Salaries, and Hours of Labor

Clerical Salary Administration. Edited by Leonard W. Ferguson. New York, Life Office Management Association, 1948. 220 pp., bibliography.

Submits details of a wage and salary program based on job evaluation and employee appraisal.

Office Workers Salaries and Personnel Practices, San Francisco Bay Area, Mid-Year 1948. Oakland, Calif., United Employers, Inc., Research Department, 1948. 34 pp.

Clerical Salaries Analysis, 1948 (as at March 1, 1948). London, Office Management Association, Ltd., 1948. 71 pp., charts. 21s.

The data in this study of clerical salaries in Great Britain are presented by age and sex of workers, by industry group, and by locality. A brief summary of civil service pay scales in London is included.

Salaries of Village Officials in Michigan, [1948]. Ann Arbor, Michigan Municipal League, 1948. 20 pp.; processed. (Information Bull. No. 56.) 50 cents.

Wages and Hours in Hotels and Other Establishments Offering Lodging for Hire, New York State, 1947. New York Department of Labor, Division of Research and Statistics, 1948. 77 pp., charts; processed. (Publication No. B-13.)

Time Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor, [Great Britain], September 1, 1948. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1948. 177 pp. 3s net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Women in Industry

The Outlook for Women in Science. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1949. 78 pp., bibliography, charts, illus. (Bull. No. 223-1.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington. Summary report in a series of eight individual bulletins on future job opportunities for women in the physical and

biological sciences, mathematics, engineering, and architecture.

Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades. By Janet M. Hooks. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1947. 260 pp., bibliography, charts. (Bull. No. 218.) 45 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

General Reports

Thirty-Sixth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor, for Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1948. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, 1949. 104 pp. 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

A 15-point legislative program recommended in the report is reproduced in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 421).

Annual Report of the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Territory of Hawaii, July 1, 1947, to June 30, 1948. Honolulu, [1948]. 74 pp., charts.

Digest of Conference Discussions, Second Annual Conference on the Teaching of Labor Economics, Ithaca, N. Y., August 26-30, 1948. Ithaca, Cornell University, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, [1948?]. 99 pp., bibliography; processed.

"*Austria from Habsburg to Hitler*". By Charles A. Gulick. Berkeley and Los Angeles, University of California Press, 1948. 2 vols., 1,906 pp. \$20.

Comprehensive history of Austria from the end of the Habsburg Empire to the annexation by Hitler, analyzing the economic, social, and political changes which occurred during that period. Volume I, *Labor's Workshop of Democracy*, deals largely with the working-class movement, particularly the activities of the Social Democratic Party in the fields of social and labor legislation, finance, housing, welfare work, and education. Volume II, "*Fascism's Subversion of Democracy*," discusses the rise of Fascist organizations, the civil war of 1934, the theory of Austro-Marxism, and the workers' underground movement between 1934 and 1938.

Report of Conference on Joint Consultation, Training within Industry, Works Information, and Personnel Management, London, September 15, 1948. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1948. 55 pp. 1s net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

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NOTE.—Earlier figures in many of the series appearing in the following tables are shown in the Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1947 Edition (BLS Bulletin 916). The Handbook also contains descriptions of the techniques used in compiling these data and information on the coverage of the different series. For convenience in referring to the historical statistics, the tables in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review are keyed to tables in the Handbook.

<i>MLR table</i>	<i>Handbook table</i>	<i>MLR table</i>	<i>Handbook table</i>	<i>MLR table</i>	<i>Handbook table</i>	<i>MLR table</i>	<i>Handbook table</i>
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A-2	A-1	A-12	A-8	C-5	C-10	E-1	E-3
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A-4	(1)	A-14	A-7	D-1	D-1	F-2	H-2
A-5	A-2	A-15	A-9	D-2	D-2	F-3	H-4
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A-9	A-6	C-2	(1)	D-6	D-4		
A-10	(2)	C-3	C-2	D-7	D-5		

¹ New or revised series; not included in Handbook.

² Not included in 1947 edition of Handbook.

TABLE A-4: Estimated Number of Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Establishments for Selected States ¹

[In thousands]

Region and State	1949	1948											Annual average 1943	
	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.		Jan.
New England:														
Maine.....	251	262	263	269	275	280	276	270	259	253	261	261	264	301
Vermont ²	92	95	94	94	95	96	95	96	95	94	94	94	94	91
Massachusetts.....	1,680	1,754	1,727	1,732	1,735	1,726	1,714	1,731	1,720	1,701	1,711	1,706	*1,720	1,734
Rhode Island.....	275	287	288	288	288	285	286	287	287	288	290	289	289	313
Connecticut.....	751	788	775	776	771	761	762	766	768	773	773	*770	*771	799
Middle Atlantic:														
New York.....	5,483	5,699	5,649	*5,661	*5,653	*5,618	*5,599	*5,570	*5,521	*5,508	*5,538	*5,508	*5,517	5,268
New Jersey.....	1,537	1,586	1,585	1,594	1,604	1,599	1,589	1,592	1,576	1,568	1,563	1,553	1,561	1,732
Pennsylvania.....	3,581	3,701	3,671	3,668	3,660	3,627	3,586	3,609	3,579	3,522	3,584	3,543	3,506	3,480
East North Central:														
Indiana.....	1,176	1,226	1,215	1,220	1,237	1,203	1,205	1,207	1,197	1,183	1,194	1,180	1,186	1,191
Illinois.....	3,157	3,256	3,230	3,228	3,218	3,195	3,185	3,174	3,126	3,110	3,144	3,151	3,172	2,957
Wisconsin.....	971	1,006	1,000	1,003	1,018	1,007	1,016	993	977	973	974	972	971	885
West North Central:														
Minnesota.....	775	809	813	813	825	823	813	803	782	767	762	764	773	666
Missouri.....	1,112	1,158	1,144	1,153	1,144	1,141	1,140	1,139	1,126	1,120	1,120	1,114	1,125	1,081
Kansas.....	433	454	447	447	449	445	442	442	432	420	415	411	419	464
South Atlantic:														
Maryland.....	700	723	723	719	720	*714	*707	707	698	686	685	676	682	756
Georgia.....	729	753	751	753	749	747	736	742	739	738	740	731	737	733
East South Central:														
Tennessee.....	720	749	748	752	756	*755	743	743	740	733	734	721	720	669
West South Central:														
Arkansas.....	295	311	306	308	306	301	299	298	294	288	282	276	282	277
Oklahoma.....	462	486	472	472	475	469	467	470	459	452	456	432	439	436
Texas.....	1,760	1,808	1,777	1,768	1,758	1,746	1,740	1,725	1,702	1,693	1,670	1,664	1,677	1,644
Mountain:														
Montana.....	137	142	142	143	143	142	141	139	136	136	133	133	134	117
Idaho.....	124	131	132	*133	132	*121	121	118	*116	115	115	115	*117	101
Wyoming.....	74	78	79	83	87	87	85	82	75	72	70	69	70	64
New Mexico.....	126	130	129	129	*133	*132	*131	*130	*128	*124	*122	*120	*121	95
Arizona.....	155	159	156	156	154	153	155	156	156	156	155	155	155	142
Utah.....	168	184	186	191	195	189	189	184	180	171	173	171	173	³ 187
Nevada ²	46	48	48	48	49	50	50	49	48	48	47	47	48	55
Pacific:														
Washington.....	646	688	692	*704	*707	*693	*687	*671	*648	*665	*654	*642	*647	726
California.....	2,991	3,115	3,085	3,122	3,160	3,146	3,109	3,077	3,046	3,024	3,029	3,024	3,037	3,065

¹ Revised data in all except the first three columns are identified by an asterisk for the first month's publication of such data. Comparable series, January 1943 to date, are available upon request to U. S. Department of Labor or cooperating State agency. See table A-5 for addresses of cooperating State agencies.

² Does not include contract construction.

³ Average for 1943 may not be strictly comparable with current data.

TABLE A-12: Federal Civilian Employment by Branch and Agency Group ¹

Year and month	All branches	Executive ²				Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations ³
		Total	Defense agencies ⁴	Post Office Department ⁵	All other agencies			
Total (including areas outside continental United States)								
1939	968,596	935,493	207,979	319,474	408,040	5,373	2,260	25,470
1943	3,183,235	3,138,838	2,304,752	364,092	469,994	6,171	2,636	35,590
1948: February	1,986,946	1,947,317	895,850	427,480	623,987	7,101	3,470	29,068
March	1,996,306	1,956,507	897,917	431,691	626,899	7,217	3,462	29,120
April	2,010,189	1,970,562	903,814	438,824	627,924	7,186	3,461	28,980
May	2,025,801	1,986,188	909,885	442,661	633,642	7,257	3,468	28,888
June	2,038,194	1,998,797	916,864	442,588	639,345	7,308	3,459	28,630
July	2,065,672	2,026,086	919,784	452,932	653,370	7,305	3,477	28,804
August	2,073,728	2,034,538	924,555	455,549	654,434	7,341	3,495	28,354
September	2,083,630	2,044,087	933,214	457,003	653,870	7,377	3,485	28,681
October	2,076,035	2,036,951	931,918	458,414	646,619	7,355	3,500	28,229
November	2,078,661	2,039,218	934,609	459,685	645,024	7,443	3,537	28,463
December	2,380,239	2,340,902	937,178	759,268	644,456	7,343	3,512	28,482
1949: January	2,089,607	2,050,381	933,670	475,832	640,879	7,414	3,538	28,274
February	2,089,099	2,049,787	935,216	475,018	639,553	7,420	3,552	28,340
Continental United States								
1939	926,659	897,602	179,381	318,802	399,419	5,373	2,180	21,504
1943	2,913,534	2,875,928	2,057,696	363,297	454,935	6,171	2,546	28,889
1948: February	1,760,914	1,728,482	705,792	425,998	596,692	7,101	3,396	21,935
March	1,770,672	1,738,043	708,934	430,116	598,995	7,217	3,388	22,024
April	1,781,238	1,748,658	710,991	437,242	600,425	7,186	3,387	22,007
May	1,795,611	1,763,092	717,072	441,076	604,944	7,257	3,394	21,868
June	1,808,240	1,775,838	724,683	440,977	610,178	7,308	3,388	21,706
July	1,839,560	1,806,926	732,217	451,339	623,370	7,305	3,406	21,923
August	1,854,250	1,821,574	742,925	453,926	624,723	7,341	3,424	21,911
September	1,868,606	1,836,008	756,500	455,372	624,136	7,377	3,409	21,812
October	1,868,871	1,836,310	762,682	456,708	616,920	7,355	3,426	21,780
November	1,876,482	1,843,888	770,286	457,972	615,630	7,443	3,462	21,689
December	2,181,798	2,149,306	777,474	756,549	615,283	7,343	3,437	21,712
1949: January	1,896,032	1,863,569	777,679	474,096	611,794	7,414	3,463	21,586
February	1,897,725	1,865,196	781,956	473,285	609,955	7,420	3,476	21,633

¹ Employment represents an average for the year or is as of the first of the month. Data for the legislative and judicial branches and for all Government corporations except the Panama R. R. Co. are reported directly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data for the executive branch and for the Panama R. R. Co. are reported through the Civil Service Commission but differ from those published by the Civil Service Commission in the following respects: (1) Exclude seamen and trainees who are hired and paid by private steamship companies having contracts with the Maritime Commission, included by Civil Service Commission starting January 1947; (2) exclude substitute rural mail carriers, included by the Civil Service Commission since September 1945; (3) include in December the additional postal employment necessitated by the Christmas season, excluded from published Civil Service Commission figures starting 1942; (4) include an upward adjustment to Post Office Department employment prior to December 1943 to convert temporary substitute employees from a full-time equivalent to a name-count basis, the latter being the basis on which data for subsequent months have been reported; (5) the Panama R. R. Co. is shown under Government corporations here, but is included under the executive branch by the Civil Service Commission; (6) employment published by the Civil Service Commission as of the last day of the month is presented here as of the first day of the next month.

Data for Central Intelligence Agency are excluded.
² From 1939 through June 1943, employment was reported for all areas monthly and employment within continental United States was secured by deducting the number of persons outside the continental area, which was

estimated from actual reports as of January 1939 and 1940 and of July 1941 and 1943. From July 1943, through December 1946, employment within continental United States was reported monthly and the number of persons outside the country (estimated from quarterly reports) was added to secure employment in all areas. Beginning January 1947, employment is reported monthly both inside and outside continental United States.

³ Data for current months cover the following corporations: Federal Reserve banks, mixed ownership banks of the Farm Credit Administration, and the Panama R. R. Co. Data for earlier years include at various times the following additional corporations: Inland Waterways Corporation, Spruce Production Corporation, and certain employees of the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation and of the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency, Treasury Department. Corporations not included in this column are under the executive branch.

⁴ Covers the National Military Establishment, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, and until their abolition or amalgamation with a peacetime agency, the agencies created specifically to meet war and reconversion emergencies.

⁵ For ways in which data differ from published figures of the Civil Service Commission, see footnote 1. Employment figures include fourth-class postmasters in all months. Prior to July 1945, clerks at third-class post offices were hired on a contract basis and therefore, because of being private employees, are excluded here. They are included beginning July 1945, however, when they were placed on the regular Federal pay roll by congressional action.

TABLE A-13: Federal Civilian Pay Rolls by Branch and Agency Group ¹

[In thousands]

Year and month	All branches	Executive ²				Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations ³
		Total	Defense agencies ⁴	Post Office Department ⁵	All other agencies			
Total (including areas outside continental United States)								
1939.....	\$1,757,292	\$1,692,824	\$357,628	\$586,347	\$748,849	\$14,767	\$6,691	\$43,010
1944 ⁶	8,301,111	8,206,411	6,178,387	864,947	1,163,077	18,127	9,274	67,299
1948: February.....	445,134	435,894	191,372	98,054	146,468	2,414	1,199	5,627
March.....	498,325	488,676	218,706	102,124	167,846	2,499	1,343	5,807
April.....	477,620	468,100	204,606	100,894	162,600	2,482	1,322	5,716
May.....	474,725	465,356	205,912	100,925	158,519	2,469	1,207	5,693
June.....	505,345	495,792	225,440	102,653	167,699	2,536	1,279	5,738
July.....	528,437	518,639	223,968	121,677	172,994	2,600	1,301	5,897
August.....	543,421	533,523	229,236	122,320	181,967	2,695	1,390	5,813
September.....	547,818	537,969	232,975	121,908	183,086	2,694	1,453	5,702
October.....	533,834	523,860	225,675	124,095	174,090	2,656	1,454	5,864
November.....	550,308	540,393	235,507	125,130	179,756	2,682	1,419	5,814
December.....	624,693	614,566	245,159	178,899	190,508	2,722	1,468	5,937
1949: January.....	537,835	527,836	230,653	121,598	175,585	2,657	1,352	5,990
February.....	517,921	508,053	218,909	121,768	167,376	2,650	1,306	5,912
Continental United States								
1944 ⁶	\$7,628,017	\$7,540,825	\$5,553,166	\$862,271	\$1,125,388	\$18,127	\$8,878	\$60,187
1948: February.....	408,614	399,975	161,996	97,703	140,276	2,414	1,165	5,060
March.....	456,878	447,901	185,284	101,765	160,852	2,499	1,305	5,173
April.....	439,691	430,845	174,409	100,543	155,893	2,482	1,287	5,077
May.....	434,657	426,011	174,209	100,570	151,232	2,469	1,174	5,003
June.....	461,406	452,529	189,974	102,306	160,249	2,536	1,242	5,099
July.....	487,057	478,016	191,686	121,263	165,067	2,600	1,263	5,178
August.....	501,794	492,593	197,058	121,906	173,629	2,695	1,351	5,155
September.....	506,281	497,084	200,912	121,479	174,693	2,694	1,414	5,089
October.....	491,288	482,045	192,530	123,633	165,882	2,656	1,413	5,174
November.....	509,069	499,801	203,323	124,667	171,811	2,682	1,379	5,207
December.....	581,480	572,012	211,614	178,151	182,247	2,722	1,428	5,318
1949: January.....	498,545	489,331	200,204	121,154	167,973	2,657	1,314	5,243
February.....	480,317	471,184	189,644	121,325	160,215	2,650	1,268	5,215

¹ Data are from a series revised June 1947 to adjust pay rolls, which from July 1945 until December 1946 were reported for pay periods ending during the month, to cover the entire calendar month. Data for the executive branch and for the Panama R. R. Co. are reported through the Civil Service Commission. Data for the legislative and judicial branches and for all Government corporations except the Panama R. R. Co. are reported directly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data for Central Intelligence Agency are excluded.

² From 1939 through May 1943, pay rolls were reported for all areas monthly. Beginning June 1943, some agencies reported pay rolls for all areas and some reported pay rolls for the continental area only. Pay rolls for areas outside continental United States from June 1943 through November 1946 (except for the National Military Establishment for which these data were reported monthly during most of this period) were secured by multiplying employment in these areas (see footnote 2, table A-12, for derivation of the employ-

ment) by the average pay per person in March 1944, as revealed in a survey as of that date, adjusted for the salary increases given in July 1945 and July 1946. Beginning December 1946 pay rolls for areas outside the country are reported monthly by most agencies.

³ See footnote 3, table A-12.

⁴ See footnote 4, table A-12.

⁵ Beginning July 1945, pay is included of clerks at third-class post offices who previously were hired on a contract basis and therefore were private employees and of fourth-class postmasters who previously were recompensed by the retention of a part of the postal receipts. Both these groups were placed on a regular salary basis in July 1945 by congressional action.

⁶ Data are shown for 1944, instead of 1943 as in the other Federal tables, because pay rolls for employment in areas outside continental United States are not available prior to June 1943.

TABLE A-14: Civilian Government Employment and Pay Rolls in Washington, D. C., by Branch and Agency Group ¹

Year and month	Total government	District of Columbia government	Federal						
			Total	Executive				Legislative	Judicial
				All agencies	Defense agencies ²	Post Office Department ³	All other agencies		
Employment ⁴									
1939.....	143,548	13,978	129,570	123,773	18,761	5,099	99,913	5,373	424
1943.....	300,914	15,874	285,040	278,363	144,319	8,273	125,771	6,171	506
1948: February.....	224,517	18,625	205,892	198,201	65,543	7,235	125,423	7,101	590
March.....	226,256	18,668	207,588	199,784	66,050	7,412	126,322	7,217	587
April.....	227,627	18,626	209,001	201,227	66,635	7,396	127,196	7,186	588
May.....	228,877	18,682	210,195	202,350	67,212	7,380	127,758	7,257	588
June.....	229,526	18,848	210,678	202,782	67,592	7,387	127,803	7,308	588
July.....	233,308	19,294	214,014	206,110	69,056	7,499	129,555	7,305	599
August.....	234,253	18,882	215,371	207,438	70,217	7,486	129,735	7,341	592
September.....	235,063	18,853	216,210	208,245	70,771	7,551	129,923	7,377	588
October.....	234,544	18,564	215,980	208,036	70,666	7,589	129,781	7,355	589
November.....	236,478	19,065	217,413	209,373	71,084	7,702	130,587	7,443	597
December.....	242,659	18,764	223,895	215,955	72,219	12,015	131,721	7,343	597
1949: January.....	237,493	18,880	218,613	210,596	71,202	7,623	131,771	7,414	603
February.....	238,856	19,013	219,843	211,819	71,723	7,613	132,483	7,420	604
Pay rolls (in thousands)									
1939.....	\$305,741	\$25,226	\$280,515	\$264,541	\$37,825	\$12,524	\$214,192	\$14,765	\$1,209
1943.....	737,792	32,884	704,908	685,510	352,007	20,070	313,433	17,785	1,613
1948: February.....	57,991	4,281	53,710	51,099	15,910	2,165	33,024	2,414	197
March.....	65,336	4,518	60,818	58,104	17,900	2,340	37,864	2,490	215
April.....	62,987	4,495	58,492	55,799	16,324	2,277	37,198	2,482	211
May.....	63,492	4,422	59,070	56,400	18,045	2,234	36,121	2,469	201
June.....	66,658	4,561	62,097	59,350	19,250	2,300	37,800	2,536	211
July.....	67,208	3,461	63,747	60,931	20,235	2,651	38,045	2,600	216
August.....	71,251	3,480	67,771	64,848	21,114	2,695	41,039	2,695	228
September.....	73,551	4,607	68,944	66,020	22,141	2,722	41,157	2,694	230
October.....	70,755	4,450	66,305	63,421	20,908	2,684	39,829	2,656	228
November.....	73,223	4,528	68,695	65,782	21,656	2,750	41,376	2,682	231
December.....	78,846	4,741	74,105	71,139	22,526	3,704	44,909	2,722	244
1949: January.....	71,401	4,646	66,755	63,872	20,687	2,132	41,053	2,657	226
February.....	62,287	4,414	63,873	61,005	19,692	2,135	39,178	2,650	218

¹ Data for the legislative and judicial branches and District of Columbia Government are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data for the executive branch are reported through the Civil Service Commission but differ from those published by the Civil Service Commission in the following respects: (1) Include in December the temporary additional postal employment necessitated by the Christmas season, excluded from published Civil Service Commission figures starting 1942; (2) include an upward adjustment to Post Office Department employment prior to December 1943 to convert temporary substitute employees from a full-time equivalent to a name-count basis, the latter being the basis on which data for subsequent months have been reported; (3) exclude persons working without compensation or for \$1 a year or month, included by the Civil Service Commission from June through November 1943; (4) employment published by the Civil Service Commission as of the last day of the month is presented here as of the first day of the next month.

Beginning January 1942, data for the executive branch cover, in addition to the area inside the District of Columbia, the adjacent sections of Maryland

and Virginia which are defined by the Bureau of the Census as in the metropolitan area. Data for Central Intelligence Agency are excluded.

² Covers the National Military Establishment, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, and until their abolition or amalgamation with a peacetime agency, the agencies created specifically to meet war and reconversion emergencies.

³ For ways in which data differ from published figures of the Civil Service Commission, see footnote 1.

⁴ Yearly figures represent averages. Monthly figures represent (1) the number of regular employees in pay status on the first day of the month plus the number of intermittent employees who were paid during the preceding month for the executive branch, (2) the number of employees on the pay roll with pay during the pay period ending just before the first of the month for the legislative and judicial branches, and (3) the number of employees on the pay roll with pay during the pay period ending on or just before the last of the month for the District of Columbia Government.

TABLE B-2: Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries¹

Industry group and industry	Total accession		Separation									
			Total		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Miscellaneous, including military	
	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948
MANUFACTURING												
Durable goods.....	3.1	2.7	5.0	4.3	1.7	1.8	0.3	0.3	2.8	2.1	0.2	0.1
Nondurable goods.....	3.6	2.7	4.5	4.4	1.9	1.7	.3	.3	2.2	2.3	.1	.1
<i>Durable goods</i>												
Iron and steel and their products.....	2.7	2.2	3.8	3.6	1.5	1.7	.3	.3	1.8	1.4	.2	.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	2.7	2.0	2.2	2.2	1.4	1.6	.2	.2	.3	.2	.3	.2
Gray-iron castings.....	3.4	2.6	7.1	7.3	1.9	2.4	.6	.5	4.4	4.2	.2	.2
Malleable-iron castings.....	2.8	3.3	7.9	6.6	1.8	2.6	.5	.5	5.4	3.3	.2	.2
Steel castings.....	2.3	2.6	4.6	4.0	1.6	1.7	.4	.3	2.4	1.9	.2	.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	1.9	1.6	2.6	2.3	1.5	1.4	.2	.2	.8	.6	.1	.1
Tin cans and other tinware.....	2.6	4.8	9.4	7.0	1.5	2.0	.4	.4	7.2	4.5	.3	.1
Wire products.....	2.5	1.8	2.8	2.6	1.2	1.0	.3	.3	1.1	1.1	.2	.2
Cutlery and edge tools.....	2.7	1.3	3.0	5.5	1.5	1.2	.3	.3	1.1	3.9	.1	.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	2.1	1.5	3.1	2.5	1.0	1.2	.2	.2	1.8	1.0	.1	.1
Hardware.....	2.6	2.5	5.2	4.3	2.5	1.9	.4	.4	2.2	1.9	.1	.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.....	3.1	1.3	9.5	13.7	1.7	1.8	.2	.3	7.5	11.5	.1	.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	4.2	3.1	6.1	5.7	2.2	2.0	.4	.6	3.4	3.1	.1	(3)
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	3.0	2.3	7.1	5.7	1.5	2.0	.3	.4	5.1	3.1	.2	.2
Fabricated structural-metal products.....	3.6	3.1	3.6	3.2	1.6	1.6	.2	.2	1.5	1.3	.3	.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	1.9	1.7	2.4	2.6	1.3	1.2	.2	.2	.7	.8	.2	.4
Forgings, iron and steel.....	1.7	1.9	3.6	2.9	1.0	1.2	.2	.1	2.3	1.5	.1	.1
Electrical machinery.....	2.4	2.1	4.1	3.7	1.4	1.4	.2	.2	2.4	2.0	.1	.1
Electrical equipment for industrial use.....	1.6	1.5	2.1	1.7	.9	.9	.1	.1	.9	.6	.2	.1
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs.....	5.3	4.2	6.4	4.4	2.7	2.2	.4	.4	3.1	1.7	.2	.1
Communication equipment, except radios.....	1.0	1.5	4.2	4.0	1.3	1.6	.1	.2	2.7	2.0	.1	.2
Machinery, except electrical.....	2.2	2.1	3.9	3.3	1.2	1.3	.3	.3	2.2	1.6	.2	.1
Engines and turbines.....	3.5	3.0	3.4	4.1	1.0	1.3	.3	.3	1.9	2.4	.2	.1
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	2.7	2.7	3.2	2.8	1.4	1.7	.4	.4	1.1	.5	.3	.2
Machine tools.....	1.5	1.7	3.8	3.3	1.0	1.1	.3	.2	2.4	1.9	.1	.1
Machine-tool accessories.....	2.7	2.5	5.3	4.5	1.0	1.4	.2	.2	4.0	2.8	.1	.1
Metal working machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	1.4	1.6	4.0	2.7	1.2	1.1	.3	.2	2.4	1.3	.1	.1
General industrial machinery, except pumps.....	2.2	2.3	3.3	2.9	1.3	1.5	.3	.3	1.6	1.0	.1	.1
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	2.2	2.4	2.9	2.8	1.0	1.3	.3	.5	1.5	.9	.1	.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	6.2	5.5	6.6	6.8	1.8	1.6	.3	.3	4.4	4.8	.1	.1
Aircraft.....	4.7	3.5	4.8	3.3	1.9	1.8	.3	.3	2.5	1.1	.1	.1
Aircraft parts, including engines.....	2.6	3.0	2.8	1.3	1.2	.8	.3	.2	1.2	.2	.1	.1
Shipbuilding and repairs.....	12.0	11.9	13.0	17.3	2.1	1.8	.4	.7	10.4	14.7	.1	.1
Automobiles.....	3.1	3.4	5.5	4.4	2.3	2.4	.4	.4	2.7	1.4	.2	.2
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers.....	3.3	3.9	5.6	4.6	2.7	2.8	.4	.4	2.3	1.2	.2	.2
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories.....	2.8	2.4	5.3	3.6	1.3	1.4	.3	.3	3.4	1.8	.3	.1
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	2.5	2.0	5.0	4.4	1.2	1.3	.3	.3	3.4	2.7	.1	.1
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium.....	1.5	1.6	2.6	2.0	1.0	.9	.3	.3	1.1	.6	.2	.2
Rolling and drawing of copper alloys.....	1.1	2.0	3.0	1.8	.8	.8	.1	.2	1.9	.6	.2	.2
Lighting equipment.....	1.8	2.3	8.1	4.7	1.0	.9	.2	.3	6.9	3.5	(3)	(3)
Nonferrous metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium.....	3.2	2.6	6.6	4.3	1.9	1.5	.7	.3	3.9	2.3	.1	.2
Lumber and timber basic products.....	4.3	3.3	6.6	6.4	2.2	3.1	.2	.2	4.1	3.0	.1	.1
Sawmills.....	4.4	2.8	5.1	4.8	2.2	2.4	.2	.2	2.7	2.1	(3)	.1
Planing and plywood mills.....	2.8	2.0	4.8	4.3	1.6	1.9	.2	.2	2.9	2.2	.1	(3)
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	4.2	2.4	7.9	5.9	2.1	2.0	.5	.4	5.1	3.4	.2	.1
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings.....	4.0	2.4	8.3	6.1	2.0	2.1	.6	.4	5.5	3.5	.2	.1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	2.1	2.2	4.2	3.8	1.6	1.6	.3	.3	2.1	1.7	.2	.2
Glass and glass products.....	2.5	2.7	5.8	5.6	1.3	1.3	.2	.2	4.0	3.9	.3	.2
Cement.....	1.9	1.7	2.3	2.5	1.4	1.5	.3	.5	.5	.3	.1	.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	2.5	2.5	4.1	3.6	2.4	2.3	.4	.4	1.2	.8	.1	.1
Pottery and related products.....	2.1	2.6	2.9	3.3	2.0	2.2	.3	.3	.4	.7	.2	.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE B-2: Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries¹—Continued

Industry group and industry	Total accession		Separation									
			Total		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Miscellaneous, including military	
	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948	Jan. 1949 ²	Dec. 1948
MANUFACTURING—Continued												
<i>Nondurable goods</i>												
Textile-mill products.....	2.7	2.2	4.2	3.6	1.9	1.6	0.2	0.2	2.0	1.7	0.1	0.1
Cotton.....	2.9	2.5	4.5	4.1	2.3	2.0	.3	.3	1.8	1.7	.1	.1
Silk and rayon goods.....	2.5	1.8	4.3	3.3	1.7	1.4	.2	.2	2.3	1.6	.1	.1
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing.....	2.1	2.3	5.9	4.3	1.0	.9	.2	.2	4.6	3.0	.1	.2
Hosiery, full-fashioned.....	2.2	1.5	2.8	2.6	1.6	1.4	.2	.2	.9	1.0	.1	(³)
Hosiery, seamless.....	3.5	3.3	4.3	4.4	2.5	1.8	.1	.1	1.7	2.5	(³)	(³)
Knitted underwear.....	2.4	.9	4.9	5.6	2.2	1.8	.2	.2	2.5	3.6	(³)	(³)
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	2.0	1.2	3.0	2.2	.8	.8	.2	.4	1.9	.9	.1	.1
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	4.9	2.8	5.3	5.2	2.8	2.2	.3	.2	2.2	2.8	(³)	(³)
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats.....	4.4	3.5	3.0	5.0	2.0	1.6	.2	.1	.8	3.3	(³)	(³)
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments.....	4.2	1.7	6.6	6.3	3.5	2.6	.2	.2	2.9	3.5	(³)	(³)
Leather and leather products.....	4.0	3.7	3.4	3.3	2.2	2.0	.2	.2	.9	1.0	.1	.1
Leather.....	2.5	2.0	2.7	2.4	1.1	1.1	.2	.1	1.3	1.1	.1	.1
Boots and shoes.....	4.2	4.1	3.5	3.4	2.5	2.2	.2	.2	.7	.9	.1	.1
Food and kindred products.....	4.8	4.4	5.9	7.1	2.1	2.1	.5	.6	3.2	4.2	.1	.2
Meat products.....	5.7	6.1	6.7	7.0	2.2	2.3	.7	.8	3.7	3.7	.1	.2
Grain-mill products.....	2.0	1.9	2.5	2.7	1.6	1.5	.3	.4	.5	.7	.1	.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	3.8	2.1	3.9	5.2	2.0	1.8	.3	.3	1.5	3.1	.1	(³)
Paper and allied products.....	1.9	1.6	3.0	2.5	1.4	1.3	.3	.2	1.2	.9	.1	.1
Paper and pulp.....	1.4	1.4	2.4	2.1	1.2	1.1	.2	.2	.9	.7	.1	.1
Paper boxes.....	2.2	1.9	4.6	3.7	1.9	1.9	.5	.3	2.0	1.4	.2	.1
Chemicals and allied products.....	1.3	1.0	2.3	1.6	.7	.7	.2	.2	1.3	.6	.1	.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	1.0	.9	2.1	1.6	.8	.9	.2	.2	1.0	.4	.1	.1
Rayon and allied products.....	.9	.7	2.5	1.2	.6	.6	.2	.2	.6	.3	.1	.1
Industrial chemicals, except explosives.....	1.4	1.1	2.3	1.8	.7	.8	.2	.2	1.2	.7	.2	.1
Products of petroleum and coal.....	.8	.6	1.3	1.1	.4	.4	.1	(³)	.6	.5	.2	.2
Petroleum refining.....	.5	.6	1.0	.8	.3	.3	.1	(³)	.4	.3	.2	.2
Rubber products.....	2.2	1.7	3.9	3.9	1.6	1.4	.2	.2	2.0	2.1	.1	.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	1.4	.8	2.6	2.8	1.1	.8	.1	.1	1.3	1.7	.1	.2
Rubber footwear and related products.....	2.8	2.8	6.6	5.5	2.6	2.3	.3	.3	3.6	2.7	.1	.2
Miscellaneous rubber industries.....	3.3	2.5	3.9	4.6	1.8	1.8	.3	.3	1.7	2.3	.1	.2
Miscellaneous industries.....	(⁴)	2.0	(⁴)	3.2	(⁴)	1.1	(⁴)	.2	(⁴)	1.8	(⁴)	.1
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>												
Metal mining.....	3.8	4.4	3.8	3.9	2.6	2.7	.2	.3	.7	.7	.3	.2
Iron-ore.....	2.4	1.9	2.5	2.7	1.0	1.1	.1	.1	1.0	1.2	.4	.3
Copper-ore.....	5.5	6.7	5.3	5.0	4.5	4.1	.2	.2	.5	.5	.1	.2
Lead- and zinc-ore.....	3.4	4.6	3.2	3.6	2.7	2.8	.2	.6	.2	.1	.1	.1
Coal mining:												
Anthracite.....	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.1	1.2	(³)	(³)	.4	.2	.2	.2
Bituminous.....	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.4	1.8	1.9	.1	.1	.5	.2	.2	.2
Public utilities:												
Telephone.....	(⁴)	1.2	(⁴)	1.6	(⁴)	1.3	(⁴)	.1	(⁴)	.1	(⁴)	.1
Telegraph.....	(⁴)	.9	(⁴)	1.9	(⁴)	1.0	(⁴)	(²)	(⁴)	.8	(⁴)	.1

¹ Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turn-over information 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. Labor turn-over data, beginning in January 1943, refer to wage and salary workers.

Employment information for wage and salary workers is available for major manufacturing industry groups (table A-3); for individual industries these data refer to production workers only (table A-6).

² Preliminary figures.

³ Less than 0.05.

⁴ Not available.

NOTE: Explanatory notes outlining the concepts, sources, size of the reporting sample, and methodology used in preparing the data presented in tables B-1 and B-2 are contained in the Bureau's monthly mimeographed release, "Labor Turn-Over," which is available upon request.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries¹-Con.

NONMANUFACTURING-Continued

Year and month	Mining-Continued						Public utilities											
	Quarrying and nonmetallic			Crude petroleum and natural gas production			Street railways and busses ⁴			Telephone ⁵			Telegraph ⁶			Electric light and power		
	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings
1939: Average.....	\$21.61	39.2	\$0.550	\$34.09	38.3	\$0.873	\$33.13	45.9	\$0.714	\$31.94	39.1	\$0.822				\$34.38	39.6	\$0.869
1941: January.....	22.06	38.2	0.576	33.99	37.7	0.885	33.63	45.3	.731	32.52	39.7	.824				35.49	39.4	.903
1948: January.....	50.92	42.7	1.187	64.53	39.9	1.627	60.73	46.3	1.299	48.20	38.9	1.241	\$55.81	44.4	\$1.257	59.87	42.4	1.426
February.....	50.39	42.1	1.199	65.77	40.4	1.638	62.15	47.7	1.295	47.82	38.7	1.238	56.26	44.5	1.265	59.60	42.2	1.428
March.....	51.04	42.9	1.190	63.44	39.7	1.605	61.36	47.3	1.295	47.31	38.7	1.223	56.19	44.4	1.267	58.27	41.6	1.408
April.....	52.83	43.7	1.206	63.96	40.0	1.599	60.10	46.6	1.293	47.56	38.8	1.225	59.45	44.1	1.349	59.10	41.8	1.427
May.....	54.73	44.4	1.226	65.88	40.2	1.646	60.32	46.8	1.302	48.82	39.4	1.240	62.12	45.0	1.381	59.83	41.7	1.444
June.....	55.38	45.0	1.228	64.88	39.5	1.636	61.21	46.8	1.315	48.67	39.5	1.232	61.63	45.1	1.367	60.41	41.8	1.455
July.....	55.83	44.1	1.266	67.17	40.1	1.676	62.01	47.0	1.328	49.19	39.8	1.237	63.10	45.8	1.379	61.46	41.8	1.483
August.....	58.72	45.9	1.281	69.59	41.3	1.682	62.68	47.5	1.327	48.35	39.4	1.229	62.59	45.6	1.373	61.46	42.1	1.472
September.....	57.82	45.0	1.284	67.58	39.6	1.711	62.29	46.3	1.355	49.21	39.4	1.250	61.83	44.8	1.379	61.75	41.6	1.490
October.....	59.08	45.8	1.288	67.67	39.7	1.716	63.40	46.4	1.380	49.81	39.5	1.263	61.46	44.5	1.380	62.38	41.6	1.509
November.....	57.22	44.3	1.291	68.80	39.6	1.734	62.51	46.1	1.383	51.37	39.4	1.305	61.44	44.5	1.381	62.57	41.8	1.508
December.....	56.93	44.1	1.290	69.12	40.0	1.730	63.26	46.4	1.393	49.95	38.7	1.290	61.20	44.2	1.385	62.72	41.9	1.508
1949: January.....	54.98	42.6	1.287	71.94	41.1	1.765	62.91	45.4	1.416	49.91	38.4	1.301	61.66	44.4	1.388	63.28	41.8	1.520
Trade																		
	Wholesale						Retail											
							Total: Retail		Food		General merchandise		Apparel		Furniture and house-furnishings			
1939: Average.....	\$29.85	41.7	\$0.715	\$21.17	43.0	\$0.536	\$23.37	43.9	\$0.525	\$17.80	38.8	\$0.454	\$21.23	38.8	\$0.543	\$28.62	44.5	\$0.660
1941: January.....	30.59	4.06	.756	21.53	42.9	.549	23.78	43.6	.537	18.22	38.8	.466	21.89	39.0	.560	27.96	43.9	.666
1948: January.....	54.36	41.0	1.309	37.62	39.8	1.044	45.46	39.9	1.108	32.09	35.9	.889	37.68	36.9	1.007	50.62	42.3	1.254
February.....	55.87	41.1	1.343	38.33	40.0	1.050	46.33	39.7	1.119	32.09	35.7	.883	37.94	37.3	1.002	53.05	43.9	1.253
March.....	55.17	40.9	1.334	38.89	39.8	1.044	46.14	40.0	1.123	32.28	35.3	.878	37.50	36.2	1.025	51.30	43.7	1.242
April.....	55.84	41.0	1.346	39.27	39.8	1.055	46.66	39.6	1.150	33.17	35.3	.895	38.23	36.6	1.030	50.24	43.5	1.261
May.....	56.61	41.2	1.363	39.84	39.9	1.064	47.08	39.6	1.148	34.04	35.2	.907	38.54	36.5	1.040	50.96	43.4	1.281
June.....	56.00	41.1	1.353	40.52	40.3	1.070	48.52	40.6	1.159	35.04	35.8	.915	39.33	36.9	1.049	50.86	43.4	1.281
July.....	56.54	41.2	1.365	41.19	40.8	1.077	49.44	41.0	1.162	35.30	36.5	.915	39.48	37.2	1.045	51.31	43.3	1.284
August.....	57.51	41.3	1.379	41.19	41.0	1.080	49.35	41.1	1.160	35.03	36.5	.914	39.17	37.1	1.043	51.33	43.7	1.280
September.....	57.67	41.2	1.378	40.48	40.2	1.086	48.86	40.3	1.177	34.20	36.5	.903	38.96	36.8	1.050	50.87	43.2	1.290
October.....	57.54	41.0	1.381	40.32	39.7	1.080	48.15	39.8	1.172	34.10	35.9	.902	39.43	36.3	1.063	51.79	42.9	1.297
November.....	57.60	41.2	1.383	39.67	39.5	1.084	48.69	39.4	1.186	33.77	35.7	.907	38.81	36.2	1.060	51.65	43.0	1.306
December.....	57.69	41.3	1.380	40.62	40.2	1.072	49.47	39.9	1.191	35.69	37.3	.894	39.68	37.1	1.058	54.17	43.8	1.320
1949: January.....	58.41	41.2	1.399	41.79	40.0	1.110	50.26	39.5	1.226	35.54	36.5	.921	40.20	37.0	1.063	52.90	43.0	1.332

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries¹—Con.

NONMANUFACTURING—Continued

Year and month	Trade—Continued						Finance ⁷		Service								
	Retail—Continued						Brokerage	Insurance	Hotels ⁸ (year-round)			Power laundries			Cleaning and dyeing		
	Automotive			Lumber and building materials													
	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings
1939: Average	\$27.07	47.6	\$0.571	\$26.22	42.7	\$0.619	\$36.63	\$36.32	\$15.25	46.6	\$0.324	\$17.69	42.7	\$0.417	\$19.96	41.8	\$0.490
1941: January	28.26	46.8	.606	26.16	41.7	.634	38.25	37.52	15.65	45.9	.338	18.37	42.9	.429	19.92	41.9	.488
1948: January	51.66	44.4	1.179	48.19	41.8	1.154	62.35	55.09	30.55	43.9	.695	33.99	42.3	.807	37.64	41.4	.924
February	53.03	45.0	1.186	49.56	42.1	1.174	63.37	56.63	31.19	44.6	.695	33.54	41.9	.802	36.55	40.5	.923
March	52.98	44.6	1.202	49.24	42.5	1.170	62.60	55.51	30.96	44.0	.695	33.74	42.0	.805	37.96	41.5	.924
April	54.53	45.5	1.216	49.64	42.6	1.175	65.76	54.94	31.59	44.2	.700	34.29	42.2	.810	39.18	42.1	.933
May	54.49	45.5	1.220	50.32	42.8	1.193	71.15	56.22	31.70	44.2	.707	34.22	41.8	.817	39.13	42.0	.936
June	54.65	45.5	1.221	51.08	43.2	1.202	69.35	54.75	31.88	44.1	.711	34.36	41.8	.823	40.14	42.4	.947
July	55.03	45.1	1.237	51.31	42.8	1.216	68.12	55.22	32.04	44.0	.714	34.55	42.2	.820	39.02	41.7	.942
August	56.04	45.6	1.251	52.51	43.4	1.220	65.42	55.09	32.34	44.9	.709	33.70	41.1	.822	37.55	39.8	.951
September	55.87	45.3	1.247	52.00	42.4	1.231	63.59	54.35	32.21	43.9	.725	34.56	41.8	.828	39.36	41.1	.963
October	55.53	45.4	1.241	52.68	42.7	1.233	66.27	53.97	32.45	44.2	.726	34.16	41.3	.829	39.42	41.0	.970
November	55.99	45.3	1.265	51.92	42.0	1.235	65.38	55.12	32.52	44.1	.734	34.51	41.5	.836	39.01	40.9	.962
December	56.44	45.7	1.250	52.85	42.5	1.230	67.75	56.10	33.02	44.1	.739	34.72	41.7	.836	39.97	41.4	.968
1949: January	56.55	45.5	1.260	53.09	42.0	1.254	67.62	57.24	33.05	43.8	.743	35.25	42.0	.841	39.71	41.0	.972

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked or received pay during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms supply man-hour data, the average weekly hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a slightly smaller sample than are average weekly earnings.

For manufacturing, mining, power laundries, and cleaning and dyeing industries, the data relate to production and related workers only. For the remaining industries, unless otherwise noted, the data relate to all non-supervisory employees and working supervisors. Data for 1939 and January 1941, for some industries, are not strictly comparable with the periods currently presented. All series, by month, are available upon request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Such requests should specify the series desired. Data for the two current months are subject to revision without notation. Revised figures for earlier months are identified by an asterisk for the first month's publication of such data.

² New series beginning with month and year shown below; not comparable with data shown for earlier periods:

Glass products made from purchased glass.—May 1943; comparable April data are \$44.36 and \$1.121.

Ammunition, small-arms.—June 1948; comparable May data are \$1.232.

April 1948 data reflect work stoppages.

⁴ Data include private and municipal street-railway companies and affiliated, subsidiary, or successor trolley-bus and motor-bus companies.

⁵ Prior to April 1945 the averages of hours and earnings related to all employees except executives; beginning with April 1945 these averages reflect mainly the hours and earnings of employees subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act. At the same time the reporting sample was expanded to include a greater number of employees of "long lines." The April 1945 data are \$40.72, 42.9 hours, and \$0.952 on the old basis, and \$37.50, 40.6 hours, and \$0.926 on the new basis.

⁶ Data relate to all land-line employees except those compensated on a commission basis. Excludes general and divisional headquarters personnel, trainees in school, and messengers.

⁷ Data on average weekly hours and average hourly earnings are not available.

⁸ Money payments only; additional value of board, room, uniforms, and tips, not included.

* Revised.

NOTE: Explanatory notes outlining briefly the concepts, methodology, size of the reporting sample, and sources used in preparing the data presented in tables C-1 through C-5 are contained in the Bureau's monthly mimeographed release, "Hours and Earnings—Industry Report," which is available upon request.

TABLE C-2: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries for Selected States and Areas ¹

Year and month	Arizona			California									Connecticut			Delaware		
	State			State			Los Angeles			San Francisco Bay			State			State		
	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings
1948: January	\$55.77	43.3	\$1.288	\$57.84	38.7	\$1.494	\$57.64	39.1	\$1.476	\$60.72	38.7	\$1.570	\$54.08	41.9	\$1.29	\$46.79	40.0	\$1.171
February	54.48	42.3	1.288	58.20	39.1	1.488	58.21	39.4	1.476	60.07	38.7	1.551	54.54	41.9	1.30	46.36	39.5	1.172
March	54.98	42.0	1.309	57.51	38.6	1.491	58.11	39.2	1.482	58.16	37.6	1.547	54.94	41.9	1.31	47.11	40.0	1.177
April	56.71	42.8	1.325	57.54	38.5	1.495	58.08	39.1	1.486	58.56	37.8	1.548	54.21	41.4	1.28	47.49	40.4	1.177
May	57.43	42.7	1.345	59.04	38.9	1.516	59.03	39.3	1.500	60.62	38.7	1.566	53.52	40.9	1.31	46.51	39.9	1.165
June	55.11	41.5	1.328	59.62	38.9	1.531	58.69	38.9	1.507	61.10	38.5	1.589	54.51	41.1	1.33	47.37	40.0	1.184
July	55.51	41.0	1.354	59.78	38.8	1.542	59.28	39.0	1.522	61.94	38.6	1.603	54.86	40.8	1.34	47.75	39.6	1.207
August	55.97	41.4	1.352	60.52	38.9	1.555	60.94	39.6	1.538	61.20	38.2	1.601	56.02	41.2	1.36	46.62	40.1	1.161
September	57.63	41.7	1.382	60.38	38.8	1.558	59.84	38.6	1.522	61.08	38.4	1.593	56.33	41.0	1.37	46.62	41.6	1.122
October	57.49	41.9	1.372	61.70	39.6	1.559	60.60	39.1	1.550	64.20	38.7	1.657	56.64	41.1	1.38	48.24	40.2	1.200
November	57.12	41.3	1.383	60.57	38.4	1.579	60.92	39.1	1.560	62.02	37.6	1.648	56.78	41.2	1.38	49.03	39.3	1.248
December	56.88	41.1	1.334	61.33	38.7	1.586	61.16	39.0	1.567	63.94	38.7	1.651	57.04	41.1	1.39	51.05	40.2	1.269
1949: January	55.84	40.2	1.389	61.45	38.5	1.596	61.03	38.7	1.577	64.41	38.8	1.660	55.96	40.4	1.38	51.37	40.5	1.270
Delaware (Con.)																		
Wilmington			Florida			Illinois			Indiana			Massachusetts						
State			State			State			Chicago city			State			State			
1948: January	\$55.07	40.8	\$1.318				\$57.06	41.5	\$1.37	\$59.08						\$50.73		
February	54.50	40.7	1.331				57.58	41.6	1.38	59.47						51.43		
March	55.43	41.1	1.343				56.98	41.2	1.38	58.60						51.39		
April	55.68	41.1	1.345				57.14	40.9	1.40	58.85						51.07		
May	55.27	40.9	1.361				56.77	40.3	1.41	58.79	40.7	\$1.44	\$55.53	40.1	\$1.386	51.28		
June	55.99	40.7	1.384				58.06	41.0	1.41	59.76	41.1	1.45	57.19	40.6	1.407	51.76		
July	57.14	40.6	1.419	\$41.44	42.6	\$0.973	57.92	40.5	1.43	59.70	40.7	1.47	57.51	40.2	1.431	51.76		
August	58.15	40.7	1.424	40.32	41.1	.981	59.26	40.9	1.45	61.51	41.1	1.50	58.37	40.6	1.436	52.29		
September	57.03	40.5	1.422	41.13	41.8	.984	60.01	41.0	1.46	62.03	41.3	1.50	57.75	40.5	1.427	\$52.42		
October	58.78	41.1	1.429	41.17	41.5	.992	60.43	41.0	1.47	62.06	41.2	1.51	59.93	40.9	1.466	50.74		
November	58.35	40.4	1.442	41.11	42.6	.965	60.05	40.6	1.48	61.78	40.9	1.51	59.95	40.8	1.470	50.87		
December	61.07	41.6	1.468	42.16	44.1	.956	60.60	41.0	1.48	62.30	41.2	1.51	60.58	40.9	1.480	52.15		
1949: January	61.57	42.2	1.461	42.48	44.2	.961	59.81	40.4	1.48	61.20	40.5	1.51	59.30	40.2	1.476	51.47		
Michigan																		
State			Minnesota			New Jersey												
State			State			Duluth			Minneapolis			St. Paul			State			
1948: January	\$60.63	40.8	\$1.488	\$51.92	41.6	\$1.248	\$51.19	39.9	\$1.283	\$51.13	41.0	\$1.247	\$53.30	41.8	\$1.275	\$57.15	41.6	\$1.374
February	59.02	39.7	1.489	51.74	41.1	1.259	53.45	*41.5	1.288	51.29	40.8	1.257	53.67	41.7	1.287	56.71	41.2	1.377
March	59.68	40.1	1.488	51.58	41.0	1.258	52.07	40.4	1.289	50.52	40.0	1.263	52.48	41.1	1.277	56.71	41.1	1.379
April	59.04	39.7	1.489	52.22	40.8	1.280	51.48	40.0	1.287	50.94	40.3	1.264	53.03	41.3	1.284	56.29	40.8	1.380
May	56.75	*38.0	1.500	53.19	41.3	1.288	52.25	40.1	1.303	51.67	40.4	1.279	52.54	40.6	1.294	56.49	40.7	1.387
June	60.81	39.7	1.539	52.46	40.7	1.289	52.59	39.9	1.318	53.42	40.5	1.319	52.32	40.0	1.308	57.38	40.9	1.403
July	62.57	39.9	*1.568	53.78	41.4	1.299	57.43	41.5	1.384	53.99	40.5	1.333	54.89	41.0	1.339	57.73	40.7	1.419
August	63.44	40.1	1.584	53.07	40.7	1.303	58.98	42.1	1.401	54.81	41.0	1.337	56.03	41.2	1.360	58.57	40.8	1.435
September	63.32	39.4	1.610	53.70	41.0	1.311	54.78	39.1	1.401	53.38	39.6	1.348	55.35	40.7	1.360	59.25	40.9	1.448
October	64.86	40.4	1.608	54.87	41.0	1.338	57.14	40.7	1.404	54.18	40.1	1.351	55.50	40.6	1.367	59.01	40.6	1.452
November	64.40	39.7	1.636	55.79	41.5	*1.344	56.04	40.0	1.401	54.54	40.4	1.350	55.73	40.8	1.366	59.03	40.5	1.457
December	64.81	40.3	1.611	56.14	41.5	1.353	57.11	40.3	1.417	54.81	40.6	1.350	55.23	40.4	1.367	59.97	40.9	1.465
1949: January	65.03	39.9	1.633	55.49	40.8	1.361	55.37	39.3	1.409	53.16	39.0	1.363	55.74	40.1	1.390	59.07	40.4	1.47

TABLE C-2. Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries for Selected States and Areas¹—Continued

Year and month	New York																	
	State			Albany-Schenectady-Troy			Buffalo			New York City			Rochester ²			Syracuse ²		
	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings
1948: January	\$56.97	40.1	\$1.42	\$55.37	40.3	\$1.38	\$56.72	40.6	\$1.40	\$61.55	38.8	\$1.60	\$54.97	40.3	\$1.37	\$54.98	42.0	\$1.31
February	56.87	39.7	1.43	54.40	39.6	1.38	57.15	40.6	1.41	61.65	38.4	1.62	55.09	40.2	1.37	54.54	41.6	1.31
March	56.88	39.8	1.43	56.52	40.2	1.41	56.99	40.5	1.41	60.53	38.3	1.60	55.49	40.2	1.38	54.74	41.8	1.31
April	55.49	39.3	1.41	56.39	39.9	1.42	56.56	40.0	1.41	58.19	37.7	1.55	55.58	40.1	1.39	55.16	41.9	1.32
May	55.94	39.2	1.43	56.65	39.7	1.43	57.59	40.2	1.43	59.09	37.6	1.57	55.33	39.8	1.39	54.20	41.2	1.31
June	56.97	39.5	1.44	57.21	39.8	1.44	58.32	40.2	1.45	60.09	37.8	1.59	57.74	40.1	1.44	55.72	42.0	1.33
July	57.75	39.5	1.46	57.88	39.1	1.49	59.34	40.5	1.47	61.61	37.9	1.64	57.39	40.1	1.43	54.62	40.6	1.35
August	58.36	39.4	1.48	60.55	40.0	1.52	60.70	40.7	1.49	62.39	37.9	1.66	57.61	39.9	1.45	55.78	40.9	1.36
September	59.39	39.6	1.50	62.12	40.6	1.53	61.61	40.5	1.52	63.22	37.9	1.68	58.37	40.2	1.45	57.24	41.5	1.38
October	57.47	38.4	1.50	59.79	39.7	1.51	61.71	40.5	1.53	58.86	35.6	1.66	57.88	39.7	1.46	56.78	41.0	1.39
November	59.42	39.5	1.51	63.65	41.7	1.53	61.71	40.6	1.52	62.59	37.7	1.67	58.56	40.0	1.46	56.42	40.7	1.38
December	59.73	39.6	1.51	64.87	41.8	1.56	62.13	40.7	1.53	62.63	37.9	1.66	58.25	39.6	1.47	55.87	39.9	1.40
1949: January	59.22	38.9	1.52	62.16	40.6	1.54	60.90	39.9	1.53	62.79	37.5	1.69	58.04	39.7	1.46	56.28	40.6	1.39
	North Carolina			Oklahoma			Pennsylvania											
	State			State			State			Allentown-Bethlehem			Philadelphia			Pittsburgh		
1948: January	\$40.86	39.7	\$1.029	-----	-----	-----	\$49.69	40.0	\$1.243	\$51.92	39.8	\$1.320	\$54.78	40.6	\$1.338	\$56.97	39.1	\$1.421
February	38.79	37.6	1.031	-----	-----	-----	49.50	39.9	1.242	51.58	39.7	1.306	54.78	40.4	1.339	56.84	39.0	1.425
March	41.30	40.0	1.032	-----	-----	-----	49.91	40.0	1.246	51.10	39.5	1.299	54.91	41.3	1.310	57.96	39.9	1.421
April	40.54	39.4	1.028	-----	-----	-----	49.63	39.6	1.252	49.25	37.8	1.303	55.22	40.3	1.355	57.55	39.5	1.437
May	40.12	38.9	1.031	-----	-----	-----	50.32	39.9	1.260	52.65	38.8	1.340	55.19	40.1	1.356	58.54	40.3	1.433
June	39.80	38.4	1.036	\$53.15	42.5	\$1.250	50.38	39.8	1.267	51.15	38.8	1.349	55.44	40.1	1.364	58.55	39.7	1.455
July	39.20	37.8	1.037	\$3.03	41.5	1.277	50.20	39.2	1.282	51.78	38.4	1.372	55.60	39.9	1.374	58.07	39.0	1.490
August	40.36	38.1	1.059	55.30	42.7	1.296	52.20	39.5	1.320	52.88	38.5	1.392	56.88	40.0	1.404	62.34	39.9	1.566
September	40.75	37.7	1.082	55.70	42.2	1.320	52.73	39.5	1.335	54.06	38.8	1.407	57.37	40.1	1.415	62.32	39.2	1.586
October	41.58	38.4	1.084	54.74	42.6	1.286	53.38	39.9	1.339	54.65	39.5	1.386	57.42	39.9	1.422	63.46	40.3	1.575
November	41.40	38.0	1.090	54.15	41.7	1.297	53.24	39.7	1.342	53.77	38.8	1.392	57.78	40.2	1.438	62.51	39.6	1.578
December	41.58	38.1	1.093	55.46	42.3	1.310	53.40	39.7	1.344	53.44	38.7	1.385	57.96	40.2	1.443	62.73	39.7	1.580
1949: January	40.50	37.0	1.096	54.82	41.0	1.337	53.02	39.3	1.349	54.68	39.0	1.411	56.52	39.4	1.434	62.11	39.8	1.558
	Pennsylvania—Continued						Rhode Island			Tennessee			Texas			Utah		
	Reading-Lebanon			York-Adams			State			State			State			State		
1948: January	\$52.63	40.4	\$1.301	\$43.67	40.8	\$1.091	\$48.12	40.8	\$1.180	\$41.43	40.7	\$1.018	\$49.79	42.7	\$1.166	\$52.78	40.6	\$1.30
February	52.34	40.5	1.306	44.89	41.0	1.107	50.22	41.2	1.218	41.55	40.7	1.021	48.85	41.4	1.180	51.97	40.6	1.28
March	52.31	40.5	1.304	45.49	41.3	1.115	50.36	41.3	1.220	41.86	40.8	1.026	48.26	41.6	1.160	52.50	40.7	1.29
April	51.98	40.2	1.307	44.72	41.0	1.113	49.82	40.7	1.225	41.67	40.3	1.034	50.19	42.5	1.181	50.05	39.1	1.28
May	52.25	40.6	1.305	46.49	41.8	1.132	49.60	40.4	1.228	41.67	40.3	1.034	52.10	43.2	1.206	53.04	40.8	1.30
June	53.43	40.7	1.317	46.34	41.9	1.132	49.82	40.1	1.241	42.03	40.3	1.043	52.71	43.6	1.209	53.99	40.9	1.32
July	51.71	39.5	1.324	46.26	41.2	1.147	49.52	39.9	1.242	43.13	40.5	1.065	51.54	42.7	1.207	51.73	40.1	1.29
August	53.74	39.7	1.362	46.76	41.4	1.150	47.85	39.0	1.228	43.09	40.5	1.064	53.39	43.3	1.233	53.28	41.3	1.29
September	54.26	39.4	1.393	45.49	40.5	1.136	48.87	39.0	1.242	42.85	39.9	1.074	53.98	42.5	1.270	53.45	40.8	1.31
October	55.39	40.1	1.388	47.33	42.0	1.146	44.87	36.1	1.244	43.63	40.4	1.080	55.09	43.9	1.255	53.73	39.8	1.35
November	56.23	40.4	1.396	46.87	41.3	1.156	47.67	37.9	1.254	43.80	40.0	1.095	*53.11	*42.8	*1.241	56.99	41.3	1.38
December	54.80	39.6	1.390	47.43	40.9	1.179	49.18	39.2	1.254	43.98	40.2	1.094	53.93	42.9	1.257	56.56	40.4	1.40
1949: January	53.25	38.9	1.377	47.14	40.2	1.193	48.26	38.8	1.245	43.73	39.4	1.110	53.42	42.5	1.257	58.87	40.6	1.45

TABLE C-2: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries for Selected States and Areas¹—Continued

Year and month	Wisconsin																	
	State		Kenosha city			LaCrosse city			Madison city			Milwaukee county			Racine city			
	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hour	Avg. hrly. earnings
1948: January.....	\$55.05	42.3	\$1.303	\$60.41	41.6	\$1.453	\$52.30	41.4	\$1.263	\$49.85	39.6	\$1.253	\$58.76	41.6	\$1.411	\$61.48	42.0	\$1.465
February.....	54.63	41.9	1.303	54.11	37.5	1.444	49.35	40.0	1.233	50.11	38.7	1.290	58.20	41.3	1.411	60.27	41.5	1.451
March.....	55.56	42.3	1.313	60.41	41.4	1.460	50.17	40.3	1.246	50.97	39.5	1.289	59.09	41.7	1.418	61.44	41.8	1.469
April.....	55.11	42.0	1.314	57.12	39.6	1.443	49.60	39.7	1.250	55.54	41.4	1.343	58.77	41.4	1.419	60.58	41.2	1.470
May.....	55.73	42.0	1.326	58.38	40.1	1.455	49.60	39.7	1.251	59.10	42.9	1.377	58.82	41.0	1.434	61.97	41.7	1.485
June.....	56.69	42.1	1.347	63.01	41.1	1.532	49.74	39.5	1.259	58.12	42.0	1.385	60.20	41.2	1.461	63.32	42.4	1.493
July.....	*54.97	41.6	1.320	67.31	40.3	1.671	50.13	39.6	1.267	54.70	39.7	1.377	60.92	41.1	1.481	63.46	42.0	1.509
August.....	56.46	41.9	1.346	61.38	39.5	1.552	53.35	39.2	1.362	54.15	39.5	1.372	61.44	41.3	1.489	65.35	42.1	1.553
September.....	55.74	41.5	1.342	61.79	40.0	1.545	54.32	39.7	1.369	52.50	38.5	1.365	61.81	40.8	1.521	65.15	41.6	1.568
October.....	58.04	42.0	1.383	61.73	39.7	1.554	52.61	38.7	1.361	54.55	40.1	1.362	63.09	41.5	1.521	65.28	41.4	1.575
November.....	58.16	41.9	1.388	60.72	39.2	1.548	53.92	39.4	1.369	56.27	41.2	1.364	62.69	41.3	1.516	65.78	41.5	1.585
December.....	58.15	41.7	1.396	61.22	39.3	1.558	55.24	40.1	1.378	57.98	40.9	1.416	62.54	41.2	1.516	64.83	40.9	1.586
1949: January.....	57.33	40.9	1.400	59.30	38.2	1.554	55.25	39.9	1.385	55.16	39.3	1.403	61.57	40.5	1.520	65.07	40.9	1.593

¹ State and area hours and gross earnings are prepared by various cooperating State agencies. Owing to differences in methodology the data may not be strictly comparable among the States or with the national averages. Variations in earnings among the States and areas reflect, to some extent differences with respect to industrial composition. Revised data for all except the two most recent months are identified by an asterisk for the first

months publication of such data. A number of States also make available more detailed industry data, as well as information for earlier periods which may be secured directly upon request to the appropriate State agency as listed in footnote 1, table A-5.

² Entire series revised since last publication.

TABLE C-3: Estimated Average Hourly Earnings, Gross and Exclusive of Overtime, of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries¹

Year and month	All manufacturing		Durable goods		Nondurable goods		Year and month	All manufacturing		Durable goods		Nondurable goods	
	Gross	Exclud- ing over- time	Gross	Exclud- ing over- time	Gross	Exclud- ing over- time		Gross	Exclud- ing over- time	Gross	Exclud- ing over- time	Gross	Exclud- ing over- time
January 1941.....	\$0.683	\$0.664	\$0.749	\$0.722	\$0.610	\$0.601	1948: January.....	\$1.285	\$1.243	\$1.355	\$1.308	\$1.210	\$1.173
January 1945.....	1.046	.970	1.144	1.053	.891	.840	February.....	1.287	1.247	1.352	1.309	1.217	1.181
July 1945.....	1.033	.969	1.127	1.052	.902	.854	March.....	1.289	1.248	1.352	1.306	1.220	1.183
June 1946.....	1.084	1.053	1.165	1.134	1.003	.972	April.....	1.292	1.253	1.357	1.314	1.220	1.184
1941: Average.....	.729	.702	.808	.770	.640	.625	May.....	1.301	1.262	1.366	1.324	1.230	1.194
1942: Average.....	.853	.805	.947	.881	.723	.698	June.....	1.316	1.275	1.385	1.341	1.242	1.204
1943: Average.....	.961	.894	1.059	.976	.803	.763	July.....	1.332	1.295	1.407	1.369	1.252	1.216
1944: Average.....	1.019	.947	1.117	1.029	.861	.814	August.....	1.349	1.300	1.431	1.385	1.262	1.228
1945: Average.....	1.023	2.963	1.111	2.104	.904	2.858	September.....	1.362	1.323	1.448	1.408	1.272	1.235
1946: Average.....	1.084	1.049	1.156	1.122	1.012	.978	October.....	1.366	1.323	1.452	1.408	1.271	1.236
1947: Average.....	1.221	1.182	1.292	1.250	1.145	1.109	November.....	1.372	1.333	1.454	1.411	1.282	1.247
							December ²	1.376	1.333	1.456	1.408	1.287	1.251
							1949: January ³	1.381	1.344	1.459	1.419	1.294	1.263

¹ Overtime is defined as work in excess of 40 hours a week and paid for at time and one-half. The method of estimating average hourly earnings exclusive of overtime makes no allowance for special rates of pay for work done on holidays.

² Eleven-month average only; August 1945 excluded because of VJ-day holiday period.

³ Preliminary

TABLE C-4: Gross Average Weekly Earnings of Production Workers in Selected Industries, in Current and 1939 Dollars ¹

Year and month	All manufacturing		Bituminous-coal mining		Electric light and power ²		Year and month	All manufacturing		Bituminous-coal mining		Electric light and power ²	
	Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars		Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars
January 1941-----	\$26.64	\$26.27	\$26.00	\$25.64	\$35.49	\$35.00	1948: January-----	\$52.07	\$30.66	\$75.78	\$44.62	\$59.87	\$35.26
January 1945-----	47.50	37.15	54.11	42.32	48.90	38.24	February-----	51.75	30.71	70.54	41.86	59.60	35.37
July 1945-----	45.45	34.91	50.66	38.92	50.34	38.67	March-----	52.07	31.01	74.84	44.57	58.27	34.70
June 1946-----	43.31	32.30	64.44	48.05	52.07	38.83	April-----	51.79	30.41	49.53	29.08	59.10	34.70
1939: Average-----	23.86	23.86	23.88	23.88	34.38	34.38	May-----	51.86	30.23	74.08	43.19	59.83	34.88
1940: Average-----	25.20	25.00	24.71	24.51	35.10	34.82	June-----	52.85	30.60	73.87	42.76	60.41	34.97
1941: Average-----	29.58	27.95	30.86	29.16	36.54	34.53	July-----	52.95	30.30	67.62	38.70	61.46	35.17
1942: Average-----	36.65	31.27	35.02	29.88	39.60	33.79	August-----	54.05	30.79	78.10	44.49	61.46	35.01
1943: Average-----	43.14	34.69	41.62	33.47	44.16	35.51	September-----	54.19	30.87	75.51	43.01	61.75	35.17
1944: Average-----	46.08	36.50	51.27	40.61	48.04	38.05	October-----	54.65	31.29	76.40	43.75	62.38	35.72
1945: Average-----	44.39	34.36	52.25	40.45	50.05	38.75	November-----	54.56	31.49	73.52	42.44	62.57	36.12
1946: Average-----	43.74	31.21	58.03	41.41	52.04	37.13	December ⁴ -----	55.03	31.91	74.87	43.42	62.72	36.37
1947: Average-----	49.25	30.75	66.86	41.75	57.12	35.66	1949: January ⁴ -----	54.41	31.65	75.61	43.98	63.28	36.81

¹ These series indicate changes in the level of weekly earnings prior to and after adjustment for changes in purchasing power as determined from the Bureau's consumers' price index, the year 1939 having been selected for the base period. Estimates of World War II and postwar understatement by the consumers' price index were not included. See Monthly Labor Review, March 1947, p. 498. (See also footnote 1, table D-1.)

² Data relate to all nonsupervisory employees and working supervisors.
³ April data reflect work stoppages.
⁴ Preliminary.

TABLE C-5: Gross and Net Spendable Average Weekly Earnings of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries, in Current and 1939 Dollars ¹

Year and month	Gross average weekly earnings	Net spendable average weekly earnings				Year and month	Gross average weekly earnings	Net spendable average weekly earnings			
		Worker with no dependents		Worker with three dependents				Worker with no dependents		Worker with three dependents	
		Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars			Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars
January 1941-----	\$26.64	\$25.41	\$25.06	\$26.37	\$26.00	1948: January-----	\$52.07	\$45.69	\$26.91	\$51.43	\$30.29
January 1945-----	47.50	39.40	30.81	45.17	35.33	February-----	51.75	45.42	26.95	51.16	30.36
July 1945-----	45.45	37.80	29.04	43.57	33.47	March-----	52.07	45.69	27.21	51.43	30.63
June 1946-----	43.31	37.30	27.81	42.78	31.90	April-----	51.79	45.45	26.68	51.19	30.05
1939: Average-----	23.86	23.58	23.58	23.62	23.62	May-----	51.86	45.51	26.53	51.25	29.88
1940: Average-----	25.20	24.69	24.49	24.95	24.75	June-----	52.85	46.35	26.83	52.08	30.15
1941: Average-----	29.58	28.05	26.51	29.28	27.67	July-----	52.95	46.48	26.60	52.22	29.88
1942: Average-----	36.65	31.77	27.11	36.28	30.96	August-----	54.05	47.35	26.97	53.09	30.24
1943: Average-----	43.14	36.01	28.97	41.39	33.30	September-----	54.19	47.47	27.04	53.21	30.31
1944: Average-----	46.08	38.29	30.32	44.06	34.89	October-----	54.65	47.86	27.40	53.60	30.69
1945: Average-----	44.39	36.97	28.61	42.74	33.08	November-----	54.56	47.78	27.58	53.52	30.89
1946: Average-----	43.74	37.65	26.87	43.13	30.78	December ² -----	55.03	48.18	27.94	53.92	31.29
1947: Average-----	49.25	42.17	26.33	47.65	29.75	1949: January ² -----	54.41	47.66	27.72	53.40	31.06

¹ Net spendable average weekly earnings are obtained by deducting from gross weekly earnings, social security and income taxes for which the specified type of worker is liable. The amount of income tax liability depends, of course, on the number of dependents supported by the worker as well as on the level of his gross income. Net spendable earnings have, therefore, been computed for two types of income-receivers: (1) A worker with no dependents; (2) A worker with three dependents.

The computations of net spendable earnings for both the factory worker with no dependents and the factory worker with three dependents are based

upon the estimates of gross average weekly earnings for all production workers in manufacturing industries without direct regard to marital status and family composition. The primary value of the spendable series is that of measuring relative changes in disposable earnings for two types of income-receivers. That series does not, therefore, reflect actual differences in levels of earnings for workers of varying age, occupation, skill, family composition, etc.

² Preliminary.

TABLE C-6: Average Earnings and Hours on Private Construction Projects, by Type of Firm ¹—Con.

Year and month	Nonbuilding construction											
	Total nonbuilding			Highway and street			Heavy construction			Other		
	Avg. wkly. earnings ²	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hourly earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings ²	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hourly earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings ²	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hourly earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings ²	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hourly earnings
1940: Average.....	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
1941: January.....	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
1947: Average.....	\$60.87	39.5	\$1.539	\$56.77	39.1	\$1.454	\$63.02	39.5	\$1.594	\$58.27	40.1	\$1.454
1948: Average.....	69.14	39.6	1.745	65.88	39.8	1.654	71.64	39.6	1.811	66.41	39.8	1.669
January.....	63.28	37.8	1.676	61.25	37.9	1.618	65.57	37.6	1.745	58.14	38.1	1.524
February.....	65.42	38.5	1.700	60.96	37.4	1.629	68.78	38.6	1.781	61.24	39.0	1.570
March.....	65.85	38.9	1.692	60.71	37.7	1.609	68.79	39.3	1.760	62.89	38.9	1.615
April.....	66.92	39.6	1.691	61.63	38.5	1.601	69.53	39.9	1.743	65.08	39.8	1.637
May.....	66.72	39.1	1.706	63.09	38.8	1.627	69.30	39.4	1.760	63.86	38.8	1.647
June.....	70.93	40.9	1.735	67.53	40.8	1.656	74.06	41.5	1.785	66.61	39.5	1.685
July.....	72.27	41.2	1.756	69.73	42.2	1.652	74.42	41.0	1.814	69.23	40.6	1.705
August.....	72.26	40.9	1.768	68.85	41.6	1.657	75.06	40.6	1.847	69.02	40.7	1.694
September.....	72.42	40.7	1.779	69.22	41.3	1.676	74.90	40.4	1.854	69.88	40.9	1.708
October.....	71.82	40.3	1.780	68.63	40.2	1.707	73.85	40.0	1.846	70.23	41.2	1.704
November.....	69.25	38.4	1.803	63.27	37.6	1.684	72.05	38.3	1.881	67.58	39.4	1.717
December ⁶	70.47	38.4	1.833	65.80	38.7	1.699	72.67	37.6	1.931	69.94	39.9	1.754

¹ Covers all contract construction firms reporting to the Bureau during the months shown (over 14,000), but not necessarily identical establishments. The data include all employees of these construction firms working at the site of privately financed projects (skilled, semiskilled, unskilled, superintendents, time clerks, etc.). Employees of these firms engaged on publicly financed projects and off-site work are excluded.

² Includes types not shown separately.

³ Hourly earnings, when multiplied by weekly hours of work, may not exactly equal weekly earnings because of rounding.

⁴ Not available prior to February 1946.

⁵ Includes general contracting as well as general building maintenance, and other special building data.

⁶ Revised. Data for both January and February 1949 will appear in the May issue. January data are unavailable at this time because this series is being revised to combine information on private and public construction and to show hours and earnings data for all "construction" workers, including those engaged in the employer's shop or yard at jobs (such as precutting, pre-assembly) ordinarily performed at the site of construction. As stated in footnote 1 above, the series through December 1948 covers only site workers of construction firms employed on privately financed projects.

D: Prices and Cost of Living

TABLE D-1: Consumers' Price Index¹ for Moderate-Income Families in Large Cities, by Group of Commodities

[1935-39=100]

Year and month	All items	Food	Apparel	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and refrigeration *				Housefur- nishings	Miscella- neous†
					Total	Gas and electricity	Other fuels	Ice		
1913: Average.....	70.7	79.9	69.3	92.2	61.9	(?)	(?)	(?)	59.1	50.9
1914: July.....	71.7	81.7	69.8	92.2	62.3	(?)	(?)	(?)	60.8	52.0
1918: December.....	118.0	149.6	147.9	97.1	90.4	(?)	(?)	(?)	121.2	83.1
1920: June.....	149.4	185.0	209.7	119.1	104.8	(?)	(?)	(?)	169.7	100.7
1929: Average.....	122.5	132.5	115.3	141.4	112.5	(?)	(?)	(?)	111.7	104.6
1932: Average.....	97.6	86.5	90.8	116.9	103.4	(?)	(?)	(?)	85.4	101.7
1939: Average.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	98.9	99.1	100.2	101.3	100.7
August 15.....	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	99.0	95.2	100.0	100.6	100.4
1940: Average.....	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	98.0	101.9	100.4	100.5	101.1
1941: Average.....	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	97.1	108.3	104.1	107.3	104.0
January 1.....	100.8	97.6	101.2	105.0	100.8	97.5	105.4	100.3	100.2	101.8
December 15.....	110.5	113.1	114.8	108.2	104.1	96.7	113.1	105.1	116.8	107.7
1942: Average.....	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	96.7	115.1	110.0	122.2	110.9
1943: Average.....	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	96.1	120.7	114.2	125.6	115.8
1944: Average.....	125.5	136.1	138.8	108.2	109.8	95.8	126.0	115.8	136.4	121.3
1945: Average.....	128.4	139.1	145.9	108.3	110.3	95.0	128.3	115.9	145.8	124.1
August 15.....	129.3	140.9	146.4	(?)	111.4	95.2	131.0	115.8	146.0	124.5
1946: Average.....	139.3	159.6	160.2	108.6	112.4	92.4	136.9	115.9	159.2	128.8
June 15.....	133.3	145.6	157.2	108.5	110.5	92.1	133.0	115.1	156.1	127.9
November 15.....	162.2	187.7	171.0	(?)	114.8	91.8	142.6	117.9	171.0	132.5
1947: Average.....	159.2	193.8	185.8	111.2	121.1	92.0	156.1	125.9	184.4	139.9
December 15.....	167.0	206.9	191.2	115.4	127.8	92.6	171.1	129.8	191.4	144.4
1948: Average.....	171.2	210.2	198.0	117.4	133.9	94.3	183.4	135.2	195.8	149.9
February 15.....	167.5	204.7	195.1	116.0	130.0	93.2	175.4	132.2	193.0	146.4
March 15.....	166.9	202.3	196.3	116.3	130.3	93.8	175.5	132.2	194.9	146.2
April 15.....	169.3	207.9	196.4	116.3	130.7	93.9	176.1	133.2	194.7	147.8
May 15.....	170.5	210.9	197.5	116.7	131.8	94.1	178.5	133.7	193.6	147.5
June 15.....	171.7	214.1	196.9	117.0	132.6	94.2	180.6	134.2	194.8	147.5
July 15.....	173.7	216.8	197.1	117.3	134.8	94.4	185.0	136.5	195.9	150.8
August 15.....	174.5	216.6	199.7	117.7	136.8	94.5	190.1	137.3	196.3	152.4
September 15.....	174.5	215.2	201.0	118.5	137.3	94.6	191.0	137.6	198.1	152.7
October 15.....	173.6	211.5	201.6	118.7	137.8	95.4	191.4	137.9	198.8	153.7
November 15.....	172.2	207.5	201.4	118.8	137.9	95.4	191.6	138.0	198.7	153.9
December 15.....	171.4	205.0	200.4	119.5	137.8	95.3	191.3	138.4	198.6	154.0
1949: January 15.....	170.9	204.8	196.5	119.7	138.2	95.5	191.8	139.0	196.5	154.1
February 15.....	169.0	199.7	195.1	119.9	138.8	96.1	192.6	140.0	195.6	154.1

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 in 1934-36 by families of wage earners and moderate-income workers in large cities whose incomes averaged \$1,524 in 1934-36.

Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin 699, Changes in Cost of Living in Large Cities in the United States, 1913-41, contains a detailed description of methods used in constructing this index. Additional information on the consumers' price index is given in a compilation of reports published by the Office of Economic Stabilization, Report of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living.

Mimeographed tables are available upon request showing indexes for each of the cities regularly surveyed by the Bureau and for each of the major groups of living essentials. Indexes for all large cities combined are available since 1913. The beginning date for series of indexes for individual cities

varies from city to city but indexes are available for most of the 34 cities since World War I.

² Data not available.

³ Rents not surveyed this month.

* The group index formerly entitled "Fuel, electricity, and ice" is now designated "Fuel, electricity, and refrigeration". Indexes are comparable with those previously published for "Fuel, electricity, and ice." The subgroup "Other fuels and ice" has been discontinued; separate indexes are presented for "Other fuels" and "Ice."

† The miscellaneous group covers transportation (such as automobiles and their upkeep and public transportation fares); medical care (including professional care and medicines); household operation (covering supplies and different kinds of paid services); recreation (that is, newspapers, motion pictures, and tobacco products); personal care (barber- and beauty-shop service and toilet articles); etc.

TABLE D-2: Consumers' Price Index for Moderate-Income Families, by City,¹ for Selected Periods

[1935-39=100]

City	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Dec. 15, 1948	Nov. 15, 1948	Oct. 15, 1948	Sept. 15, 1948	Aug. 15, 1948	July 15, 1948	June 15, 1948	May 15, 1948	Apr. 15, 1948	Mar. 15, 1948	Feb. 15, 1948	June 15, 1946	Aug. 15, 1939
Average.....	169.0	170.9	171.4	172.2	173.6	174.5	174.5	173.7	171.7	170.5	169.3	166.9	167.5	133.3	98.6
Atlanta, Ga.....	170.1	(2)	(2)	173.7	(2)	(2)	176.2	(2)	(2)	170.8	(2)	(2)	169.2	133.8	98.0
Baltimore, Md.....	(2)	(2)	174.0	(2)	(2)	179.2	(2)	(2)	176.1	(2)	(2)	170.9	(2)	125.6	98.7
Birmingham, Ala.....	171.7	173.7	174.8	175.0	176.9	178.6	179.3	177.0	174.7	173.7	172.7	172.0	172.8	136.5	98.5
Boston, Mass.....	161.4	163.9	164.7	166.7	167.8	169.0	168.7	168.6	166.1	164.1	163.6	160.8	161.3	127.9	97.1
Buffalo, N. Y.....	(2)	169.8	(2)	(2)	172.7	(2)	(2)	173.1	(2)	(2)	167.2	(2)	(2)	132.6	98.5
Chicago, Ill.....	172.9	174.9	175.4	175.9	178.1	179.4	178.8	178.6	176.2	174.9	172.1	169.0	168.8	130.9	98.7
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	169.7	172.0	172.2	173.8	175.5	176.3	175.7	175.9	173.5	172.3	170.8	169.3	170.1	132.2	97.3
Cleveland, Ohio.....	172.5	(2)	(2)	176.8	(2)	(2)	179.3	(2)	(2)	173.7	(2)	(2)	171.6	135.7	100.0
Denver, Colo.....	(2)	171.0	(2)	(2)	171.0	(2)	(2)	172.5	(2)	(2)	168.5	(2)	(2)	131.7	98.6
Detroit, Mich.....	170.7	171.6	172.8	173.1	174.6	175.4	176.1	175.9	174.5	173.2	171.8	168.7	169.0	136.4	98.5
Houston, Tex.....	170.2	172.6	173.8	173.9	174.7	175.4	175.2	173.7	172.5	171.5	171.4	170.0	170.4	130.5	100.7
Indianapolis, Ind.....	(2)	173.6	(2)	(2)	178.0	(2)	(2)	176.5	(2)	(2)	172.5	(2)	(2)	131.9	98.0
Jacksonville, Fla.....	(2)	(2)	176.2	(2)	(2)	178.1	(2)	(2)	178.3	(2)	(2)	172.8	(2)	138.4	98.5
Kansas City, Mo.....	(2)	165.1	(2)	(2)	167.5	(2)	(2)	166.3	(2)	(2)	163.3	(2)	(2)	129.4	98.6
Los Angeles, Calif.....	173.3	172.7	172.7	172.2	171.8	171.0	171.0	170.3	168.8	169.1	169.3	167.4	168.1	136.1	100.5
Manchester, N. H.....	(2)	172.3	(2)	(2)	176.5	(2)	(2)	178.1	(2)	(2)	172.0	(2)	(2)	134.7	97.8
Memphis, Tenn.....	(2)	(2)	174.3	(2)	(2)	177.1	(2)	(2)	174.7	(2)	(2)	172.4	(2)	124.5	97.8
Milwaukee, Wis.....	168.7	(2)	(2)	171.2	(2)	(2)	174.5	(2)	(2)	171.1	(2)	(2)	166.9	131.2	97.0
Minneapolis, Minn.....	(2)	(2)	170.8	(2)	(2)	173.8	(2)	(2)	171.4	(2)	(2)	167.7	(2)	129.4	99.7
Mobile, Ala.....	(2)	(2)	173.5	(2)	(2)	177.3	(2)	(2)	173.5	(2)	(2)	169.9	(2)	132.9	98.6
New Orleans, La.....	173.2	(2)	(2)	176.6	(2)	(2)	179.8	(2)	(2)	176.5	(2)	(2)	177.1	138.0	99.7
New York, N. Y.....	166.8	169.2	169.2	171.0	171.7	173.3	173.3	172.6	169.1	167.5	167.0	164.3	166.4	135.8	99.0
Norfolk, Va.....	170.6	(2)	(2)	174.0	(2)	(2)	176.2	(2)	(2)	171.9	(2)	(2)	170.1	135.2	97.8
Philadelphia, Pa.....	168.5	170.4	170.6	171.7	174.1	174.8	174.8	172.9	172.1	170.4	169.3	165.5	166.6	132.5	97.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	172.1	174.6	174.9	175.9	177.1	178.3	178.3	177.8	175.7	173.5	171.9	170.1	170.1	134.7	98.4
Portland, Maine.....	(2)	(2)	167.1	(2)	(2)	170.7	(2)	(2)	167.4	(2)	(2)	162.7	(2)	128.7	97.1
Portland, Oreg.....	(2)	178.6	(2)	(2)	180.1	(2)	(2)	180.3	(2)	(2)	175.8	(2)	(2)	140.3	100.1
Richmond, Va.....	(2)	166.5	(2)	(2)	170.0	(2)	(2)	168.9	(2)	(2)	163.4	(2)	(2)	128.2	98.0
St. Louis, Mo.....	(2)	(2)	171.1	(2)	(2)	175.0	(2)	(2)	172.1	(2)	(2)	167.8	(2)	131.2	98.1
San Francisco, Calif.....	(2)	(2)	176.7	(2)	(2)	177.1	(2)	(2)	174.2	(2)	(2)	171.4	(2)	137.8	99.3
Savannah, Ga.....	(2)	176.7	(2)	(2)	178.4	(2)	(2)	180.2	(2)	(2)	177.6	(2)	(2)	140.6	99.3
Scranton, Pa.....	166.8	(2)	(2)	169.4	(2)	(2)	174.7	(2)	(2)	170.2	(2)	(2)	166.5	132.2	96.0
Seattle, Wash.....	174.3	(2)	(2)	174.3	(2)	(2)	176.2	(2)	(2)	174.3	(2)	(2)	170.7	137.0	100.3
Washington, D. C.....	164.1	(2)	(2)	167.1	(2)	(2)	169.2	(2)	(2)	166.7	(2)	(2)	163.2	133.8	98.6

¹ The indexes are based on time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by moderate-income families in large cities. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than in another.

² Through June 1947, consumers' price indexes were computed monthly for

21 cities and in March, June, September, and December for 13 additional cities; beginning July 1947 indexes were computed monthly for 10 cities and once every 3 months for 24 additional cities according to a staggered schedule.

TABLE D-3: Consumers' Price Index for Moderate-Income Families, by City and Group of Commodities¹

(1935-39=100)

City	Food		Apparel		Rent		Fuel, electricity, and refrigeration				Housefurnishings		Miscellaneous	
							Total		Gas and electricity					
	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949	Feb. 15, 1949	Jan. 15, 1949
Average.....	199.7	204.8	195.1	196.5	119.9	119.7	138.8	138.2	96.1	95.5	195.6	196.5	154.1	154.1
Atlanta, Ga.....	194.7	202.1	202.0	(1)	123.2	(2)	151.2	151.2	83.3	83.3	198.8	(1)	157.4	(1)
Baltimore, Md.....	210.3	213.5	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	148.4	148.4	122.0	122.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Birmingham, Ala.....	195.8	202.0	204.7	206.2	141.1	(2)	135.6	135.6	79.6	79.6	190.7	191.5	150.2	150.0
Boston, Mass.....	187.8	194.1	185.8	185.6	(2)	(2)	154.8	154.9	117.1	117.3	187.2	187.7	146.0	146.5
Buffalo, N. Y.....	191.4	197.9	(1)	197.7	(2)	124.0	143.6	140.2	101.3	96.0	(1)	195.3	(1)	158.8
Chicago, Ill.....	202.7	207.3	198.0	199.6	(2)	(2)	131.4	131.4	83.5	83.5	182.4	184.7	155.5	155.6
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	199.7	205.5	192.2	193.4	(2)	(2)	146.4	146.4	101.9	101.9	191.2	193.7	154.2	154.1
Cleveland, Ohio.....	207.2	212.8	194.1	(1)	126.6	(2)	145.8	145.1	105.6	105.6	182.8	(1)	153.3	(1)
Denver, Colo.....	204.5	209.6	(1)	193.9	(2)	124.2	112.1	112.1	69.2	69.2	(1)	214.8	(1)	152.5
Detroit, Mich.....	194.5	197.3	190.9	192.7	(2)	127.4	112.1	112.1	91.8	87.1	202.1	202.2	167.0	166.5
Houston, Tex.....	208.0	215.7	204.4	207.2	122.3	(2)	99.4	99.4	81.5	81.5	197.9	198.5	153.7	153.3
Indianapolis, Ind.....	195.5	200.9	(1)	187.6	(2)	129.7	158.6	157.4	86.6	86.6	(1)	189.2	(1)	160.3
Jacksonville, Fla.....	210.2	210.6	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	146.9	146.8	100.5	100.2	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Kansas City, Mo.....	189.2	194.6	(1)	187.4	(2)	124.2	128.5	128.5	67.0	67.0	(1)	186.9	(1)	154.2
Los Angeles, Calif.....	210.8	215.5	189.9	192.0	126.2	(2)	94.5	94.0	89.3	89.3	188.6	189.3	155.2	154.3
Manchester, N. H.....	196.4	201.8	(1)	184.6	(2)	113.3	156.8	156.9	98.8	99.2	(1)	201.2	(1)	148.4
Memphis, Tenn.....	212.2	217.1	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	135.0	135.0	77.0	77.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Milwaukee, Wis.....	200.8	206.5	196.3	(1)	118.2	(2)	146.1	145.8	104.5	104.5	195.3	(1)	150.3	(1)
Minneapolis, Minn.....	190.1	195.3	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	142.6	142.6	78.9	78.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Mobile, Ala.....	207.4	214.5	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	129.8	129.8	83.9	83.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
New Orleans, La.....	210.2	213.2	206.6	(1)	113.6	(2)	113.4	113.4	75.1	75.1	198.8	(1)	146.9	(1)
New York, N. Y.....	200.0	205.3	193.9	196.4	(2)	107.8	135.3	134.2	102.1	101.6	185.4	185.9	159.4	159.7
Norfolk, Va.....	202.0	208.7	190.7	(1)	115.9	(2)	151.1	149.9	102.6	102.6	196.6	(1)	152.8	(1)
Philadelphia, Pa.....	195.0	200.4	190.8	190.7	120.2	(2)	144.7	144.1	103.0	103.0	197.2	196.8	152.5	152.4
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	202.2	208.0	229.7	230.7	(2)	120.1	140.4	140.3	103.4	103.3	197.9	201.7	147.6	148.4
Portland, Maine.....	189.7	194.3	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	153.8	153.9	108.2	108.6	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Portland, Ore.....	220.4	224.2	(1)	194.9	(2)	125.8	138.6	130.6	93.8	95.6	(1)	187.3	(1)	156.5
Richmond, Va.....	193.5	200.3	(1)	196.7	(2)	114.5	143.3	142.5	95.6	95.6	(1)	207.1	(1)	144.0
St. Louis, Mo.....	207.1	212.4	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	135.7	135.7	88.4	88.4	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
San Francisco, Calif.....	219.3	225.2	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	82.8	82.8	72.7	72.7	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Savannah, Ga.....	208.5	215.3	(1)	192.9	(2)	118.2	156.9	156.9	108.6	108.6	(1)	205.1	(1)	155.4
Seranton, Pa.....	196.0	201.6	203.1	(1)	110.3	(2)	144.6	144.7	91.8	91.8	178.8	(1)	144.1	(1)
Seattle, Wash.....	213.6	214.4	194.2	(1)	124.0	(2)	128.0	127.2	93.2	93.2	196.3	(1)	157.1	(1)
Washington, D. C.....	195.2	202.4	216.3	(1)	104.3	(2)	138.6	137.5	98.6	98.6	204.4	(1)	155.5	(1)

¹ Prices of apparel, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services are obtained monthly in 10 cities and once every 3 months in 24 additional cities according to a staggered schedule.

² Rents are surveyed every 3 months in 34 large cities according to a staggered schedule.

TABLE F-2: Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Federally Financed New Construction, by Type of Construction ¹

Period	Value (in thousands)															
	Total new construction ²	Airports ³	Building								Conservation and development			Highways	All other ⁶	
			Total	Residential	Nonresidential					Total	Reclamation	River, harbor, and flood control				
					Total	Educational ⁴	Hospital and institutional						Administration and general ⁵			Other non-residential
							Total	Veterans'	Other							
1936.....	\$1,533,439	(7)	\$561,394	\$63,465	\$497,929	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	\$189,710	\$73,797	\$115,913	\$511,685	\$270,650
1939.....	1,586,604	\$4,753	669,222	231,071	438,151	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	225,423	115,612	109,811	355,701	331,505
1942.....	7,775,497	579,176	6,130,389	549,472	5,580,917	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	217,795	150,708	67,087	347,988	500,149
1946.....	1,450,252	14,859	549,656	435,453	114,203	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	300,405	169,253	131,152	535,784	49,548
1947.....	1,294,069	24,645	276,514	51,186	225,328	\$47,692	\$101,831	\$96,123	\$5,708	\$31,159	\$44,646	308,029	77,095	230,934	657,087	27,794
1948 ⁹	1,690,182	49,718	332,793	8,328	324,465	1,417	246,242	168,015	78,227	28,797	48,009	494,604	147,021	346,683	769,089	43,978
1948: January ⁹	119,937	892	14,670	149	14,521	306	8,945	8,626	319	1,961	3,309	54,115	4,876	49,239	47,696	2,564
February ⁹	165,424	1,586	47,130	859	46,271	165	41,779	41,557	222	1,735	2,592	65,119	1,229	63,890	50,194	1,395
March ⁹	148,775	5,672	65,480	61	65,419	257	58,624	56,213	2,411	1,230	5,308	22,520	6,721	15,799	51,582	3,521
April ⁹	161,049	3,840	10,131	553	9,578	12	5,666	5,049	617	1,863	2,037	84,888	56,984	27,904	58,247	3,943
May ⁹	120,385	5,606	26,193	462	25,731	469	21,461	20,044	1,417	1,859	1,942	10,481	4,738	5,743	75,645	2,460
June ⁹	146,422	4,930	43,751	790	42,961	89	19,201	13,876	5,325	9,661	14,010	24,551	8,877	15,674	68,518	4,672
July ⁹	147,286	5,211	15,442	254	15,188	0	10,556	1,493	9,063	1,177	3,455	41,947	1,327	40,620	78,428	6,258
August ⁹	133,698	6,580	11,599	120	11,479	4	8,628	872	7,756	1,041	1,806	22,423	4,269	18,154	91,310	1,786
September ⁹	130,985	8,259	24,053	66	23,987	31	15,933	13,273	2,660	2,674	5,349	29,091	2,959	26,132	65,965	3,617
October ⁹	143,856	3,568	41,449	785	40,664	0	34,475	6,481	27,994	3,231	2,958	37,166	19,488	17,678	55,747	5,926
November ⁹	107,157	2,535	12,470	2,374	10,096	84	7,408	436	6,972	844	1,760	35,402	13,895	21,507	51,672	5,078
December ⁹	165,208	1,039	20,425	1,855	18,570	0	13,566	95	13,471	1,521	3,483	66,901	22,558	44,343	74,085	2,758
1949: January ⁹	107,779	(8)	29,047	87	28,960	148	(8)	359	(8)	24,784	3,669	14,977	7,596	7,381	34,465	1,290
February ¹¹	108,755	(8)	32,720	1,966	30,754	635	(8)	4,431	(8)	21,937	3,751	19,598	3,007	16,591	28,961	2,476

¹ Excludes projects classified as "secret" by the military, and all construction for the Atomic Energy Commission. Data for Federal-aid programs cover amounts contributed by both the owner and the Federal Government. Force-account work is done, not through a contractor, but directly by a government agency, using a separate work force to perform nonmaintenance construction on the agency's own properties.
² Includes major additions and alterations.
³ Excludes hangars and other buildings, which are included under "Other nonresidential" building construction.
⁴ Includes educational facilities under the Federal temporary re-use educational facilities program.
⁵ Includes post offices, armories, offices, and customs houses. Includes

contract awards for construction at United Nations Headquarters at New York City as follows: September 1948, \$497,000; January 1949, \$23,810,000.
⁶ Includes electrification projects, water-supply and sewage-disposal systems, forestry projects, railroad construction, and other types of projects not elsewhere classified.
⁷ Included in "All other."
⁸ Unavailable.
⁹ Revised.
¹⁰ Excludes contract awards for airports and hospitals other than "Veterans'" for which data are not yet available.
¹¹ Preliminary.

TABLE F-3. Urban Building Authorized, by Principal Class of Construction and by Type of Building ¹

Period	Valuation (in thousands)								Number of new dwelling units—House-keeping only					
	Total all classes ²	New residential building					New nonresidential building	Additions, alterations, and repairs	Privately financed				Publicly financed	
		Housekeeping				Non-house-keeping ³			Total	1-family	2-family	Multi-family ⁴		
		Privately financed dwelling units												
Total	1-family	2-family ³	Multi-family ⁴	Publicly financed dwelling units										
1942.....	\$2,707,573	\$598,570	\$478,658	\$42,629	\$77,283	\$296,933	\$22,910	\$1,510,688	\$278,472	184,892	138,908	15,747	30,237	95,94
1946.....	4,743,414	2,114,833	1,830,260	103,042	181,531	355,687	43,369	1,458,602	771,023	430,195	358,151	24,326	47,718	98,31
1947.....	5,561,754	2,892,003	2,362,600	156,757	372,646	35,177	29,831	1,712,817	891,926	503,094	393,720	34,105	75,269	5,10
1948 ⁵	6,961,820	3,431,664	2,747,206	184,141	500,317	136,459	38,034	2,354,314	1,001,349	517,112	392,779	36,650	87,683	14,760
1948: January ⁶	429,432	199,179	150,956	11,502	36,721	8,475	3,222	152,587	65,969	32,589	23,686	2,280	6,623	999
February ⁶	417,055	203,870	146,701	8,954	48,215	9,430	1,447	141,419	60,889	32,192	22,088	1,863	8,231	1,146
March ⁶	629,939	318,589	250,451	20,046	48,092	313	4,082	223,592	83,363	50,576	37,378	4,094	9,104	53
April ⁶	717,982	411,152	317,604	34,650	58,898	4,156	6,170	196,825	99,679	64,400	45,699	7,041	11,660	469
May ⁶	655,385	347,501	291,208	17,894	38,399	4,294	2,729	206,971	93,890	52,523	41,423	3,769	7,331	58
June ⁶	705,851	366,417	301,690	16,501	48,226	4,138	4,710	224,321	106,265	54,260	42,110	3,343	8,807	52
July ⁶	658,309	324,595	264,596	15,928	44,071	11,739	3,167	222,990	95,818	47,515	36,666	2,974	7,875	1,26
August ⁶	653,520	349,753	264,725	13,489	71,539	9,215	3,186	197,059	94,307	46,993	35,913	2,332	8,748	95
September ⁶	592,984	268,806	228,003	14,157	26,646	17,295	3,163	218,121	85,599	39,466	31,750	2,837	4,879	1,751
October ⁶	590,922	258,238	217,735	11,834	28,669	13,779	2,728	235,891	80,286	38,465	31,189	2,393	4,883	1,541
November ⁶	477,462	215,081	178,348	9,143	27,590	23,913	1,490	167,666	69,312	32,584	25,642	1,729	5,213	2,205
December ⁶	432,979	168,483	135,189	10,043	23,251	29,712	1,940	166,872	65,972	25,549	19,225	1,995	4,329	3,277
1949: January ⁷	405,729	143,320	110,979	9,607	22,734	32,770	1,120	168,300	60,219	23,409	16,728	1,919	4,762	3,647

¹ Building for which building permits were issued and Federal contracts awarded in all urban places, including an estimate of building undertaken in some smaller urban places that do not issue permits.

The data cover federally and nonfederally financed building construction combined. Estimates of non-Federal private, and State and local government) urban building construction are based primarily on 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. Data from building permits are not adjusted to allow for lapsed permits or for lag between permit issuance and the start of construction. Thus, the estimates do not represent construction actually started during the month.

Urban, as defined by the Bureau of the Census, covers all incorporated places of 2,500 population or more in 1940, and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions.

² Covers additions, alterations, and repairs, as well as new residential and nonresidential building.

³ Includes units in 1-family and 2-family structures with stores.

⁴ Includes units in multifamily structures with stores.

⁵ Covers hotels, dormitories, tourist cabins, and other nonhousekeeping residential buildings.

⁶ Revised.

⁷ Preliminary.

TABLE F-5: Number and Construction Cost of New Permanent Nonfarm Dwelling Units Started, by Urban or Rural Location, and by Source of Funds ¹

Period	Number of new dwelling units started									Estimated construction cost (in thousands) ²		
	All units			Privately financed			Publicly financed			Total	Privately financed	Publicly financed
	Total nonfarm	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Total nonfarm	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Total nonfarm	Urban	Rural nonfarm			
1925 ³	937,000	752,000	185,000	937,000	752,000	185,000	0	0	0	\$4,475,000	\$4,475,000	0
1933 ⁴	93,000	45,000	48,000	93,000	45,000	48,000	0	0	0	285,446	285,446	0
1941 ⁵	706,100	434,300	271,800	619,511	369,499	250,012	86,589	64,801	21,788	2,825,895	2,630,765	\$295,130
1944 ⁶	141,800	96,200	45,600	138,692	93,216	45,476	3,108	2,984	124	495,054	483,231	11,823
1946.....	670,500	403,700	266,800	662,473	395,673	266,800	8,027	8,027	0	3,769,767	3,713,776	55,991
1947.....	849,000	479,800	369,200	845,560	476,360	369,200	8,427	3,440	0	5,642,798	5,617,425	25,373
1947: First quarter.....	138,100	81,000	57,100	137,016	79,916	57,100	1,084	1,084	0	808,263	800,592	7,671
Second quarter.....	217,200	119,100	98,100	217,000	118,900	98,100	200	200	0	1,361,677	1,360,477	1,200
Third quarter.....	261,200	142,200	119,000	260,733	141,733	119,000	467	467	0	1,774,150	1,770,475	3,675
Fourth quarter.....	232,500	137,500	95,000	230,811	135,811	95,000	1,689	1,689	0	1,698,708	1,685,881	12,827
1948: First quarter.....	177,300	101,200	76,100	174,996	99,052	75,944	2,304	2,148	156	1,287,460	1,268,661	18,799
January.....	52,600	30,400	22,200	51,776	29,603	22,173	824	797	27	372,657	365,886	6,771
February.....	49,600	28,800	20,800	48,445	27,774	20,671	1,155	1,026	129	363,421	354,218	9,203
March.....	75,100	42,000	33,100	74,775	41,675	33,100	325	325	0	551,382	548,557	2,825
Second quarter.....	295,700	165,500	130,200	291,828	163,812	128,016	3,872	1,888	2,184	2,246,248	2,210,485	35,763
April.....	98,800	54,400	44,400	97,518	54,156	43,362	1,282	244	1,038	729,713	717,996	11,717
May.....	99,400	56,700	42,700	97,902	55,693	42,209	1,498	1,007	491	753,661	739,605	14,056
June.....	97,500	54,400	43,100	96,408	53,963	42,445	1,092	437	655	762,874	752,884	9,990
Third quarter ⁷	262,000	143,300	118,700	257,549	139,370	118,179	4,451	3,930	521	2,099,489	2,054,651	44,838
July.....	93,500	51,600	41,900	92,237	50,357	41,880	1,263	1,243	20	738,232	726,333	11,899
August.....	86,300	47,400	38,900	84,863	46,463	38,400	1,437	937	500	716,972	701,343	15,629
September ⁷	82,200	44,300	37,900	80,449	42,550	37,899	1,751	1,750	1	644,285	626,975	17,310
Fourth quarter ⁸	193,900	101,200	92,700	191,360	101,200	92,700	1,540	1,535	5	1,513,112	1,500,000	13,112
October ⁷	72,900	40,800	32,100	71,360	39,265	32,095	1,540	1,535	5	564,822	550,981	13,841
November ⁹	65,000	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	509,901	(⁹)	(⁹)
December ⁹	56,000	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	438,359	(⁹)	(⁹)
1949: January ⁸	50,000	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	352,429	(⁹)	(⁹)

¹ The estimates shown here do not include temporary units, conversions, dormitory accommodations, trailers, or military barracks. They do include prefabricated housing units.

These estimates are based on building-permit records, which, beginning with 1945, have been adjusted for lapsed permits and for lag between permit issuance and start of construction. They are based also on reports of Federal construction contract awards and beginning in 1946, on field surveys in nonpermit-issuing places. The data in this table refer to nonfarm dwelling units started, and not to urban dwelling units authorized, as shown in table F-3.

All of these estimates contain some error. In 1948, for example, if the estimate of nonfarm starts is 50,000, the chances are about 19 out of 20 that an actual enumeration would produce a figure between 47,600 and 52,400. In 1946 and 1947, the range of error was approximately twice as large. The

reduction was achieved by improvements in estimating and survey techniques.

² Private construction costs are based on permit valuation, adjusted for understatement of costs shown on permit applications. Public construction costs are based on contract values or estimated construction costs for individual projects.

³ Housing peak year.

⁴ Depression, low year.

⁵ Recovery peak year prior to wartime limitations.

⁶ Last full year under wartime control.

⁷ Revised.

⁸ Preliminary.

⁹ Not available.