

The 35th ANNIVERSARY ISSUE

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A Special Section Tracing

50 Years' Progress
of American Labor

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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Monthly Labor Review

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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Thirty-five Years of Service . . .

FOR 35 YEARS the Monthly Labor Review has performed a unique service to all who are interested in matters concerning labor. Before much of this period had transpired, the Review had earned the enviable record for accuracy and objectivity which has made it a veritable symbol of authority in the fields of labor relations and labor economics.

The Monthly Labor Review is 2 years younger than the Department of Labor itself, but it stems from an older root, the bimonthly bulletin—first published in 1895—of the United States Bureau of Labor, forerunner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. When the Review was first published in 1915, its prospectus committed it to “publish the results of original investigations too brief for bulletin purposes, notices of labor legislation . . . and Federal court decisions affecting labor . . .” It also promised to report news items of a wide range of special labor interest. It expressed the hope (and it chanced not vainly) that through the Review the Bureau itself could “come in closer touch with current labor activities . . .”

This in 1915. For about a decade the Review reflected the character of the Bureau's early work and the general type of labor information available throughout the country from State labor departments and special study groups. It was heavily weighted with summaries of reports from abroad and score-card type articles on State legislation, particularly on the then emerging body of law dealing with workmen's compensation. It was the period of the Walsh Commission on Industrial Relations and of World War I and the beginnings of the boom of the twenties.

By 1925, the Review was regularly carrying the Bureau's own series on prices and employment. Its contents for July of that year, for example, girdled the globe with articles on food costs in

Costa Rica and Poland, wages in Milan and Buenos Aires, unemployment relief in Germany, and industrial accidents in Chile.

In mid-1935, it had achieved a pleasing blend of progress and tradition. The compartmentalization of the Bureau into specialized branches resulted in more space devoted to the time series developed in these fields. There was still a sprinkling (but not a plethora) of what the British papers term “miscellaneous cuttings” from far and near. But the quality of accuracy and authority was tangible and constant.

This quality was enhanced by a sense of timeliness and of history. In July 1945, it was already carrying a separate section of pieces on postwar reconstruction and the reemployment problems of veterans. Transparent through the contents was the effort—generally successful—to generate the widest possible usefulness through the widest possible coverage and the presentation of a solid core of statistical facts.

The Review in its maturity is clean-cut, informed, well-organized, professional, and perhaps closer and more responsive to trends in labor developments and the complexities of labor-management relations than ever before. Its credo pledged it to a “review of developments and problems in the field of labor, broadly conceived . . . a nice balance as a journal of labor and general economics, of labor relations, and of industrial, labor, and social history, and as a handbook of current statistics.” A measure of its success in meeting the “mixed needs of all groups and persons concerned . . .” is its ability to enlist the talents of such a distinguished and informed group of experts, inside and outside the Government, as have contributed to this issue.

Its transcendent value, however, is as a symbol of a basic democratic tradition. This is the impressive value of free inquiry and factual presentation. Preservation of this value imposes a grave responsibility upon the Department, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and more intimately and immediately upon the Review editorial staff.

To the contributors to this issue and to the Monthly Labor Review staff, my thanks on behalf of the Department of Labor for their cooperation and share in a significant achievement.

—MAURICE J. TOBIN, *Secretary of Labor*

**Fifty Years' Progress
of
American Labor**

Contributors to the Special Section

Each of the authors of the articles and book reviews which comprise the special anniversary section of the Review was invited to contribute because of some special knowledge of certain aspects of the labor field and because collectively they offer balanced strength abstracted from a very large group of potential contributors. While the viewpoints are those of the writers, the Bureau of Labor Statistics welcomes their expression, confident that they are the intelligent comments of thoughtful observers. The Bureau acknowledges a debt of gratitude to the 23 persons, other than myself, whose names are listed.

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The Anniversary Issue— An Editorial Note

LAWRENCE R. KLEIN

PROBABLY NEVER in its long history have so many distinguished authorities contributed to a single issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*. Although this 35th anniversary issue¹ only incidentally celebrates the event, given the mortality rate of Government periodicals, 35 years establishes something of a longevity record.

As the Secretary of Labor has put it in his pithy one-page evaluation, the *Monthly Labor Review* when still in its relative infancy had become a symbol of authority in the most critical socio-economic field of our era. An authority and a pioneer.

The *Review*, then, is a fitting vehicle in which to assay 50 years of labor progress. And 1950—the Gompers centennial and mid-way in what for labor has been the Gompers century—is a fitting year in which to do it.

Tracing the progress of American labor over a half century requires some gauge for subject matter selection. What standard is most conducive to effective exposition in 50,000 words? It serves no useful purpose merely to chronicle dates divorced from their setting and significance. It is as impractical as overburdening to record only the sterile detail of formal history. And finally, if we pursue but a single sector of theory, or even several narrow approaches, we run the risk of aimless meanders in a maze of trivia.

What we have sought instead is to plot those main currents of American development upon which our labor progress has been borne and to measure some of labor's aspirations against the results to date, with the aid of three devices.

THERE IS FIRST of all the simple chronology of labor events which charts the ups and downs of progress, a kind of contour map from which we

orient ourselves and detect the dominant configurations.

These we discern more clearly in eight articles generally discussing (a) the impact of industrial change on the worker's job and occupational and living habits; (b) the institutional changes in labor unions and the patterns of thought with respect to labor's social role and attitudes; (c) the underlying quests and accomplishments—a cutting away of the top soil which obscures the bed rock fundament of labor's aims; then (d) a sort of test-to-date of all this in law and government as a register of progress; finally (e) the changes revealed by an important adjunct to the main outline—the development of specialized statistical tools and their uses by labor.

Both to validate and bolster this topical selection a third device is employed—reappraisals of books typical of significant works published in the field during the 50 years surveyed. The books broadly encompass these fields: labor history and theory, trade-union structure, labor law, official investigative reports on industrial relations, the labor novel, and wage theory.

Among the many pitfalls we have tried to avoid are bias, animus, and anything remotely suggestive of an "official" point of view. We have observed but not run afoul of what Mr. Pitzele in his preface to the books section has called "the winds of doctrine." No one is pictured as Sir Galahad and no one captures the Grail. What is presented are a few important facts of labor life in this country in this century, pointed up in the three ways outlined above.

THERE IS AN essential unity in the special section as a whole. The articles treat different aspects of labor progress, yet because of varying emphases they complement and supplement rather than duplicate each other. Thematically they suggest concentric circles. Where one merely alludes to a point, the other illuminates in detail, like a map overlay. There is an even firmer bonding between the article and book sections (through each of which runs its own inner thread of consistency). The 10 book appraisals document the labor history and philosophy presented in the articles.

It would be comforting to the point of smugness to attribute such remarkable editorial dovetailing exclusively to planning. Happily some of it was fortuitous. There is an enduring and reassuring

genuineness to the excellence of chance. Nevertheless, the following themes course fuguelike through the special section:

1. The peculiar and phenomenal growth and power of American industry was the great shaper of the structure and character of American labor and at once the cause of its insecurity and well-being.
2. The early attitude of American employers toward unionism was bitterly hostile, and the law and the courts' interpretation of it reflected this.
3. The American labor movement, despite its militancy, nevertheless (and almost alone in the world in this respect) had and has no revolutionary goals and was content to and did secure a place for itself within capitalist society.
4. The 20th was indeed the Gompers Century.

IF WE HAVE UNITY we also have variety. Mr. Clague fears that we lost "some of the most elemental factors of security which were the comfort of our forefathers." Mr. Altmeyer feels we must decide how far the Government can go in social security without encroaching on "habitudes of independence." Mr. Ober points out that "workers today work with greater intensity than they did 50 years ago." But Mr. Bowden believes that "an hour of work today is hardly more intense and life consuming . . . than when the century began."

Mr. Brooks concludes that the labor movement clings to its old ways, but "a new mood of experimentation" is in the offing. Mr. Bell moves out further. Labor has more than adumbrations of new interests and methods. Dean Carman holds with Miss Perkins that the labor movement remains "typically American in its pragmatism." Mr. Stark expresses some concern over the CIO tendency to "more centralized control" and the AFL executive council structure. Mr. Taft commends the theory that labor has no historic "mission." Mr. Epstein endorses him, calling for Saposs' "reconciliation of evangelicism and practical unionism." Mr. Stern wonders if the ICFTU has not come on the international scene "too late." Mr. Weisz points up the American worker's choice of "the path of collective bargaining" in lieu of socialism.

Messrs. Feinsinger and Witte bleakly comment that it would be difficult from labor's viewpoint to describe Government's attitude in 1950 "as an advance over . . . 1900." Mr. van Arkel echoes this: ". . . as in 1927, the law

requires . . . men to strikebreak." To Father Higgins, Government has "haltingly" come to protect workers. Mr. Douty, delving into the economics of labor, finds "increasing sophistication [attending] the payment of labor." Mr. Kassalow, turning over the same furrow, discovers the modern union economic brief to be a symbol as well as a byproduct of unionism's growth and concern with "the broad analysis of national economic trends and the insistence on the relevance of the union's case to these factors."

Mr. Goldfinger (by invitation) has written a valuable critique of BLS' program philosophy. He reviews Carroll D. Wright's early credo for the Bureau and (gently) chides us for perhaps having failed "to fuse the more precise and greater variety of present data with the alertness to labor's problems that characterized the earlier studies . . . more direct contact with the living experience of industries and workers . . . would be most fruitful . . ."

THE ANNIVERSARY ISSUE of the Review is a product of the modern Bureau. The Monthly Labor Review as an institution carries forward the best historical traditions of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The anniversary issue would be a realization of one of his basic aims to Carroll D. Wright, who 65 years ago, with his idea and a clerk, groped for methods with an ideal of integrity and usefulness.

Integrity and usefulness are still the watchwords of the Bureau. They are the guidons of the Review to which has been furled this lesson from Maeterlinck:

I have steadfastly resisted the temptation to enhance the marvel of reality by adding marvels that may be attractive but are not true. Being older, I have found the temptation less; for, little by little, the years teach every man that truth alone is marvelous. Another thing that they teach an author is that embellishments are the first of all to fade, that they age more quickly than he; and that only facts, strictly set forth, and reflections that are precise and sincere, will present the same appearance tomorrow as they do today.²

¹ The original outline for the special section of the anniversary issue was prepared by my colleagues of the Monthly Labor Review Planning Advisory Committee. They are Witt Bowden, Edgar I. Eaton, Hyman Lewis, Harry Ober, Charles D. Stewart, Abraham Weiss, Morris Weisz, and Seymour Wolfbein. Three of them were also contributors. Elizabeth L. Black prepared the manuscript for the printer and handled the make-up for the issue as a whole.

² *The Life of the White Ant*, by Maurice Maeterlinck (p. 3).

The American Worker and American Industry

Milestones of Economic and Technical Progress: Their Effect on the Worker and the Home

EWAN CLAGUE

MILLIONS OF AMERICANS living today have a personal recollection of the beginning of this century and can trace in their own life experiences the great events of its first 50 years. Probably never in the history of mankind has there been a period in which such spectacular and far-reaching economic, social, political, military, and scientific changes occurred. Within a single lifetime, we have witnessed the discovery of Einstein's two great theories; the utilization of atomic energy; the fighting of two world wars; the development of the airplane, the submarine, guided missiles, and the atomic bomb as military weapons; a tremendous shift in the balance of power among the nations of the world; a great expansion in the productiveness of industry and a corresponding rise in the standard of living of people not only in the United States but in many other countries as well.

The Basis for American Strength

The American people as a Nation have been leaders in all these changes. Have their achievements been a matter of luck, coupled with the misfortunes of other peoples in other lands? Or were there special factors in American experience which account for these results—over and above factors generally applicable to other countries? To answer these questions we must search our recent history for the key to American success.

To begin with, the chief source of national strength in the United States has been and is our industrial power—the wealth and productiveness of American industry. Never a military people, civilian control and democratic government have always prevailed, even during wartime; between wars, the military establishment declines. The

decisive weight of the United States in World Wars I and II has been due primarily to the Nation's productive capacity; the enemy has been inundated by a cascade of American productivity.

Let us look a little more closely at the American industrial machine; what are its most significant characteristics? Speed and change. Probably no people on earth are as time-conscious as Americans. We live at high speed and our industrial system reflects that drive.

Milestones of Industrial Change

The Census of 1900 indicates that one of the large industries of that day was the manufacture of wagons and buggies. In 1900, we produced about 1½ million of them. The automobile industry was not separately identified in the Census, but we do find that a total of 4,200 motor vehicles were produced. In the Census of 1950, we cannot identify a buggy manufacturing industry. On the other hand, the automobile industry is one of the largest in the country, directly employing about 800,000 workers, and producing about 7 million cars and trucks a year.

In 1899, approximately 90 percent of all the energy from fuels and water power used in the United States came from coal. The oil industry was expanding, but fears were expressed as to available reserves. Today, coal comprises only about 45 percent, and the ratio seems to be tending downward. Oil has risen to about 35 percent, and the new natural gas industry supplies an additional 15 percent. Meantime, the 1950 American is wondering how long it will be until atomic energy becomes a major source of fuel.

Another example is the technological revolution in glassmaking. For thousands of years glass had been made without much change in method. In fact, it was classed as one of the fine arts, and at one time its practice in certain countries was limited to the nobility. Then suddenly, and within the first quarter of the 20th century, the bottle-making machine and other mass-production processes were introduced in the United States. Output expanded, prices decreased, and the use of glass became commonplace among the people. Far more technical progress has occurred in glassmaking since the beginning of the century than during all previous recorded history.

Many materials, such as the fibers out of which we make most of our clothing, are undergoing great changes. In 1900, we knew nothing of rayon or nylon—the new synthetics which now dominate the clothing industry.

In the field of communications, there have been spectacular developments. Telephones existed in comparatively few homes in 1900, and most of those were in the large cities. Rural telephones scarcely existed at all. In 1950, the telephone industry reports a total telephone population of 40,600,000. And a great majority of homes in the

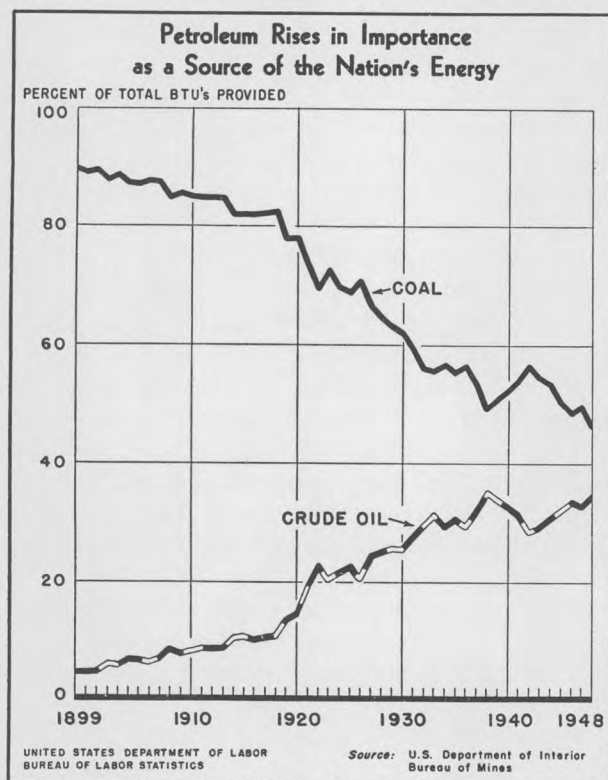
United States, both urban and rural, have telephones. A total of 608,000 persons are employed in this industry.

Radio was scarcely known in 1900. By 1925, radio was expanding rapidly and becoming a fixture of the average home. Yet by 1950, it is in the process of being replaced, in part, by the new television industry, which, in turn, may again revolutionize not only the home and the family, but the entertainment and publication fields as well.

Nor has the advance in technology been confined to the mechanical aspects of production. In 1900, the average bookkeeper wrote out his accounts in longhand. Only the more advanced offices had a stenographer or typist. Research could be slow business because so many of the calculations had to be done by hand. The machine has since invaded the office. There are card-punching machines, card-sorting machines, collators, machines which will calculate correlations. Electronic computers make millions of calculations in an incredibly short time. Machines will work out complicated mathematical problems, will spin on for hours while the operator is home in bed, will stop when they make a mistake, and will verify all calculations made.

Similar far-reaching changes have occurred in agriculture. In 1900, approximately 37 percent of the total gainfully occupied labor force of the Nation was engaged in farming or other agricultural pursuits; and at least 60 percent of the entire population lived on farms or in small towns. At the present time, less than 15 percent of the Nation's labor force is engaged in agriculture, and the number is declining, both absolutely and proportionately. The farm also has been mechanized. In 1900, the great bulk of energy on the farm was supplied by work animals, with a considerable amount of human labor being required to manage and care for them. Since that time, we have seen the introduction of the combined harvester, the cotton picker, the milking machine, the weed burner, the tractor, and a host of other farm machines which are displacing both animal power and human labor.

A few examples clearly show American superiority on this point. In 1937, the world consumption of inanimate energy amounted to the equivalent of 2,300 billion kilowatt-hours, of which the United States consumed 900 billion.¹ Thus, American labor was supplemented by approxi-



mately 40 percent of the world's available energy. The same relative superiority is shown in the per capita consumption of energy for productive purposes. In 1937, the average inhabitant of the United States used in production 7,000 kilowatt-hours of electricity, five times the world average of 1,250 kilowatt-hours.

Repercussions in the Home

This great advance in mechanization has had a marked two-way influence upon the family and the home. In one direction, the effect has been to transfer many "home duties" to the factory. For example, in 1900, most housewives baked their own bread—it was truly an emergency which led to the purchase of a loaf at the store. Today, the great bulk of bread is baked in industrial plants and is bought ready-made, sliced, wrapped, and even toasted. The commercial laundry has taken out of the home a great deal of washing which was formerly the bane of the housewife and the daughters in the household. Cleaning and pressing shops have taken over a considerable amount of the pressing and repair which was a normal function of the home. Other types of service industries could be cited.

Yet, curiously enough, in the other direction mechanization has more recently been bringing some of these functions back into the home. The automatic washer and the electric dryer and ironer have caused some housewives to reassume responsibility for the family laundry. The mechanical dish washer and the vacuum cleaner have lightened her burden. The safety and electric razors have emancipated the man of the household, though at the expense of the personal service industries. The new deep freeze locker is leading to more home activity in the preparation of foods and may bring baking back into the home via frozen doughs. The locker is also having a far-reaching effect upon the distribution of foods by retailers, and perhaps upon retailers' margins. The fact is that labor-saving devices, both in the home and in the factory, have been persistently replacing heavy and unpleasant labor.

For entertainment in the year 1900, the average family went to the theater, if there was one accessible, or perhaps to a vaudeville show. As a matter of fact, since none of these were widely available in rural areas, a great deal of entertain-

ment was of a neighborhood character, built around the church, the school, and other community enterprises. It may be a little hard for the citizens of 1950 to realize that in the average home of 1900 there was no telephone, no radio, no television set, no home movies—only the family album, stereopticon views of Niagara Falls, or a magic lantern. In 1900, the movie industry as we know it today was virtually nonexistent. In 1950, about 250,000 persons are connected with the movie industry in all its phases. And today, this great industry exhibits its wares in the smallest urban community and, with the growth of the drive-in theater, provides easy access to rural areas.

Intra-Industry Developments

All these far-reaching changes have had a marked effect upon the structure of American industry. They have led to changes in management and in administration which, in turn, have influenced the operation of business enterprise. One evidence of this is the rapid expansion of the corporate form of business organization. In 1900, corporations produced only about 65 percent of manufacturing output in the United States; but today, corporations produce about 90 percent of the total.

The corporation has grown in economic significance because it is the form of business organization best equipped to achieve maximum efficiency in production. A corporation has the resources to establish plants or other producing units of optimum size under the technology of the time: for example, job specialization, plant lay-out, the conveyor system, mechanical equipment—both large and small. All these have been known to industry for many decades, many of them for more than a century. The corporation has been best able to bring them to a high state of efficiency in achieving maximum production.

Finally, the last half-century has witnessed the creation of a new class of "management" distinct from the owners who have invested most of the funds in an enterprise. This new managerial class is a profession in itself, composed of persons who are expert in administration of large enterprises. The owners of the bonds and the stock of the corporation are often an entirely different group. While many of the managers may own

shares of stock of the enterprise they manage, their influence through that ownership is comparatively small. Their real function—and they are the real controllers of the enterprise—is to apply their professional skill in operation.

More recently, we have seen the growth of savings and other internal funds by these corporations as the major source for industrial expansion. In 1949 the retained profits and depreciation allowances of corporations totaled over 85 percent of their total outlays for plant and equipment.

Productivity—The Golden Trace

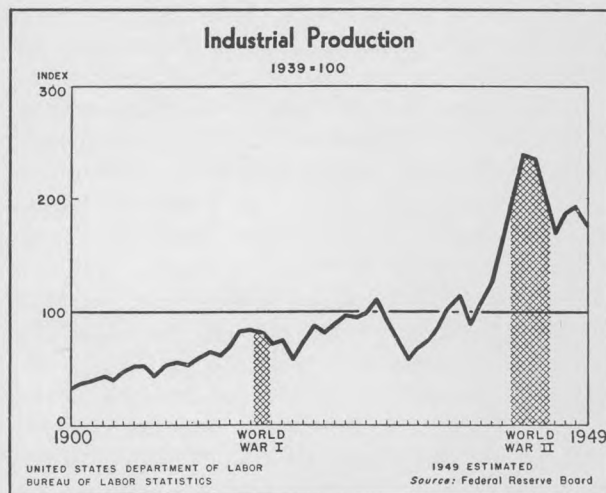
The rapid and far-reaching changes in the American economy during this half-century are apparent. But what have been the results? These can perhaps be summarized in a single sentence—in 1948, the United States, with 6 percent of the world's population, produced 43 percent of the world's economic income.² The American people have the world's greatest productive machine, and they have the world's highest income. This did not arise from any primacy in original and theoretical research. In fact, many European peoples are in advance of Americans in this respect. But the genius of the American people has been in the application of scientific principles to the productive methods in industry. Europe has been noted for its scientists, the United States for its inventors.

What has happened throughout industry is clear. In constantly increasing ways we have found it possible to use mechanical energy to supplement and extend our limited human resources. As better and newer machines have been devised, our man-hour productivity has risen. The small annual increases in productivity cumulate to produce great changes. During most of the last half-century, productivity in our manufacturing industries has increased on the average by a little over 3 percent per year so that today the average American worker in manufacturing will produce from 4 to 5 times as much per hour as his grandfather did in 1900. Wherever productivity can be measured—in mining, agriculture, transportation, communication, utilities, and elsewhere—the long-run movement has been upward. This steady improvement has carried American output per worker and the American standard of living to the highest levels in the world.

Political Influences on Economic Progress

The next question which naturally arises is: what were the important social and political factors in this remarkable industrial advance? Obviously not mere numbers of people or land area, for there are several nations which are larger in both respects. Nor is it simply natural resources, for even though the United States is greatly favored in this respect, there are other lands which are richer in potential natural wealth. Nor yet is it wholly the result of a favorable ratio of population to resources.

One clue to our Nation's industrial supremacy is to be found in the economic wisdom of the Founding Fathers. Every schoolboy can recall the story of the economic crisis following the Rev-



olution, when the various States began to impose tariff barriers. If the Constitutional Convention had failed, or had never been called, the whole history of the American people would have been different. Today we might have a score of little nations, each with its little standing army and as many as possible little navies, with Pennsylvanians putting high tariffs on grapefruit so as to "protect" its farmers trying to grow grapefruit on those rocky Pennsylvania hills, and Florida endeavoring to foster steel mills in the Everglades.

The Constitution contains one clause which has probably been more important in American economic history than anything else—"No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports."³ This

clause made it possible to create one American nation and it insured a free market of half a continent. Later judicial decisions, constitutional amendments, and legislation all reenforced and preserved this principle of a Nation-wide free market, and prevented the "balkanizing" of the United States.

The Fruits of Free Enterprise

A second vitally important politico-economic factor was the creation in the United States of a system of free land, free labor, and free enterprise. This was not assured in the beginning. For nearly a century, there was strong competition from a slave-labor plantation system, which was eliminated only after a bitter civil war. Yet, in the last analysis, the war only confirmed the economic decision which had already been reached—it was the superior productive power of the free-labor system which proved decisive in the military struggle.

Questions have often been raised as to whether the comparatively unrestrained free enterprise system in the United States did as good a job as could have been done in developing American resources. Great waste and destructive exploitation undoubtedly did occur. If we were to do it over again, we surely could improve our performance—in the light of modern knowledge and hindsight. But the improvements would be in detail, not in principle.

Capital and Labor

The enormous savings and profits which have been reinvested in industrial plant and equipment, decade after decade, constitute another factor of great importance to American industry. It is one thing to invent the machines and methods for efficient production; it is something else to raise the large amount of investment funds necessary to purchase and install them. A high-consumption economy over these years might have been more stable in production and employment, but it was the high-savings investment economy we actually had which produced the rapid technical progress the United States has achieved.

Increasing productivity in the future will depend in large part upon a continued high volume of capital investment.

Finally, there is the American worker, who himself has been an important factor in the high productivity of American industry. The workers in this country have been more mobile, more adaptable, and more efficient than workers in other lands—more willing to accept change and even to initiate it. It is not that workers have felt impelled to work harder and longer, but rather the opposite—that they have been alert to devise ways of making the work easier and the day shorter. On the whole, labor in the United States has welcomed labor-saving machinery, although it has often struggled to get at least some of the benefits in the form of higher wages and shorter hours.

The Worker and the System

This brings us to our next basic question: what has been the effect of this industrial system upon the American worker and his family? One major result has been steadily increasing wages and a rising standard of living. In the year 1900, the average earnings per hour in manufacturing industries were about 22 cents; average earnings per week were approximately \$13. At the beginning of 1950, the average hourly earnings in manufacturing industries were \$1.42, while the average weekly earnings were over \$56. It is true that these monetary comparisons cannot be made directly—the cost of living is higher in 1950 than it was in 1900. Yet there is no doubt that the standard of living of the average American family is vastly higher than it was in 1900. We now have goods and services of which we did not even dream 50 years ago. The quality of many of the articles which we now use is immeasurably better than it was in those days. There never has been a comparable period in the history of the United States or of any other country in which the material well-being of the people was advanced so rapidly, even despite two major wars. To take just one example, the American people have today about 36½ million automobiles; on the average, 4 out of every 5 families in the United States own a car.

The Dividends

Not all the potential gains of rising productivity have been taken by the American people in the form of more goods and services. To some extent, they have been taken in the form of increased leisure. In the year 1900, the average workweek in manufacturing industries was 59 hours. But in some industries, the workweek was substantially in excess of 60 hours for some workers. In agriculture, a day ranged from sunup to sundown. In 1950, the standard workweek in American industry is 40 hours. A workweek of more than 48 hours is unusual. Even on the farm the workday is shorter, and a system of two shifts per day has been introduced on some of the mechanized farms.

Some of the most important effects of rising productivity are less easily seen, since they are not directly reflected in material living standards or hours of work. As greater output per man-hour has permitted the satisfaction of the people's basic physical needs with a smaller percentage of the working population, it has been possible to shift human effort into new and important fields. It is not coincidental that medical research has made its greatest advances during the last half-century in the United States or that public health and sanitation activities have steadily reduced the incidence of many diseases. The doctor who can be summoned by telephone and can rush by automobile, the readily accessible pharmacy, the ability to convey a patient by air to a great clinic in a matter of hours, the many well-staffed and well-equipped hospitals—all are features of modern life available to many today but to few or none in 1900.

In line with these great medical advances, there has been a remarkable improvement in the health of the American people. In 1900, the mortality rate of white male infants under 1 year of age was 133 per 1,000 births; in 1947 it had been reduced to 34. The average prospective life of a 1-year old infant in 1900 was 54.6 years; in 1947, 66.5 years. During the last 50 years, many diseases which were formerly man's greatest scourges have been curbed or conquered. Diphtheria deaths per 100,000 have been reduced from 40.3 in 1900 to 0.6 in 1947. Tuberculosis death rates have declined by 83 percent. Typhoid, malaria,

smallpox, and scarlet fever have been almost eliminated in the United States. And we now read almost every day about some new wonder drug which can cure disease and lengthen life.

Educational opportunities have been extended to all groups in the population. In 1900, only 95,000 or 6.4 percent of the 17-year-old population were high-school graduates and only about 25,000 or 1.8 percent of the 21-year-olds were college graduates. In 1950, there are being graduated about 1,200,000 high-school seniors and about 500,000 college students who will receive bachelor's or post-graduate degrees. Ever larger proportions of American youth are going through high school and on to college. If the Americans are not yet the best educated people on earth, they soon will be.

The Debits

This last half-century has not been a period of unalloyed success and happiness. We have no gauge to measure human happiness, but only a rash person would conclude that the young family of today is happier or less apprehensive than their grandparents were in the year 1900. Because, while there has been a marvelous advance in material well-being, it is equally true that our troubles have multiplied.

Take war, for example. The young husband and wife in the year 1900 looked forward hopefully to the new century. The United States had just finished a war—a tiny war, which lasted a few months. There were some casualties in battle and a larger number of deaths by disease. The United States as a nation had risen to world stature as a result of this war. At that time, Americans were speculating on the outcome of another small war across the seas—the British war in South Africa. But those were wars of the nineteenth century, fought with the weapons and the techniques which were well-known and long understood. Our young 1900 family had no comprehension of what war was really like—but they were soon to learn.

In the first quarter of the new century came what we now call the First World War. This was followed by a great depression which rocked our economic system here in the United States and in other parts of the world. Then, in the second quarter of the century, came World War II, cul-

minating in the atomic bomb. Now, as we enter the third quarter of this fateful century, we are worrying about the prospects of World War III.

No! The fact is that as our achievements and potentialities have blossomed in unbelievable fashion, so too have our worries and our fears.

The Price of Progress

Quite clearly, the key to our tremendous progress in the past half-century has been the rapidity of change—changes in products, in processes, in materials, in industries, and in jobs. Accompanying these have been great shifts of population in the United States—from the East to the West, from the South to the North, from the Eastern Seaboard to the Great Lakes, and, in general, from the farm to the city. Living in a dynamic and changing economy, the American people have had to become mobile—mobile in far more ways even than our successful pioneers who settled the West a century ago. It has not only been a matter of seeking a new farm and a new residence; now it may mean a new occupation, a new job in another firm, a change in one's own mode of living. With increasing wealth has come increasing risk, and some of the most elemental factors of security and safety which were the comfort of our forefathers (the home, the farm, the large family, the small community) are no longer the mainstays of our way of life.

As our economy has become more complex and more productive, so too have its gyrations and instabilities increased. The Nation entered the twentieth century in a burst of prosperity, which was partly a recovery from the depression of the 1890's, and partly a postwar boom following the Spanish-American War. But in 1907 there was a short, sharp depression arising from a money panic which had widespread repercussions throughout both industrial and farm communities. In 1914, the country sank into another moderate recession which was relieved eventually by the onset of the war boom of World War I.

With the collapse of wartime prices in 1920, there was a deep but short business depression in 1921-22, followed by generally sustained prosperity during the remainder of the 1920's.

In 1929, there occurred first a stock market collapse, followed by a downward industrial spiral

culminating eventually in bank failures, bankruptcies, and other financial disasters which produced the greatest and longest depression which this country had ever experienced. Again, a quarter century later, the onset of war pushed the country into another wartime prosperity, followed by a postwar boom which has continued substantially unabated up to the present time.

Institutional Bulwarks

American workers have reacted to these past difficulties by attempting to protect themselves and their families from the buffetings of a dynamic economy. One of their strongest efforts has been to establish trade-unions which could represent their economic interests in the bargaining with employers. In the year 1900, less than a million of our 29 million gainfully occupied population were unionized, with more than half of these in the American Federation of Labor. Union membership was confined to a comparatively small segment of the labor force. In practically no large-scale, mass-production manufacturing industry did unionism have even a foothold. By 1950, we find that about 15 million workers, nearly a quarter of the total gainfully employed population of the country, are members of unions. Practically every large manufacturing industry is either completely unionized or largely so. Unions have entered the fields of office work, of retail trade, and other segments of the industrial process, where a few decades ago their existence was almost inconceivable. The union has served its members in two important ways: first, in collective bargaining with employers over the wages, hours, and other terms of the wage contract; and second, in protecting the rights of the worker on the job through the prosecution of grievances and the assurance of fair treatment in all circumstances. Many workers today consider a strong union to be their best protection.

The working people of the United States eventually came to the conclusion that the assistance of government was needed to provide protection against the risks and insecurities of modern industrial life. The first appeal was to the State governments. Early in the century, the first workmen's compensation laws were passed to compensate industrial workers for wage losses

suffered through injuries on the job. After World War I, many States passed old-age pension legislation to assist old people who could no longer earn a living by working. Then, in the crisis of the 1930's, the Federal Government was called upon to supplement existing programs and to cover additional risks. American workers, organized and unorganized, as well as farmers and business men, joined in supporting the Social Security Act of 1935.

But financial security against economic risks and disasters was not considered by the American worker to be the final and complete answer to the problem. The first choice of the average worker in nearly all times and circumstances has been a job. He wants employment if possible, security if necessary. The "full employment" experiences of World War II strengthened the idea that perhaps in normal times the Federal Government could assist in maintaining a high level of employment in the economy as a whole. The Employment Act of 1946 has never yet been put to a major test, but there seems little doubt that mounting unemployment would set in motion at least some counter-acting influences designed to cushion the fall and prevent the worst features of former depressions.

The System and the Future

The risks and hazards of our modern industrial economy are not decreasing. Inventions are likely to be as influential in the future as in the past. The application of new ideas to industrial processes will probably take place even more

quickly than formerly. In the domestic economy of the United States, more far-reaching and more dramatic changes are likely to occur in the next quarter- or half-century than ever occurred in any like period in the past. Consequently, the major objective of economists and social scientists, and of a government representative of the people, must be to create social and economic machinery which can keep pace with our tremendous technological and industrial achievements.

If the destiny of the American people were exclusively in their own hands, the outlook for the next half-century would be bright indeed. We could look forward expectantly and even confidently to greater wealth, a rising standard of living, and a greater measure of security. We could hope to solve our internal problems. But the real danger to our way of life comes not from within but from without. Whether we like it or not, we as a Nation are faced with international problems more serious than ever before. Since 1939, we have lived under the shadow of international crises which are still as critical as they were a decade ago. Furthermore, the effort to solve these problems will strain to the limit our ingenuity and our material resources. The future of the world may depend upon the ability of the American people to repeat on a world scale their industrial triumphs on the American continent.

¹ Energy Resources of the World, U. S. Department of State, June 1950, Table 51.

² Statistical Office, United Nations.

³ Article I, Section 10, Constitution of the United States.

Twelve States and one Territory, by the end of 1949, had laws requiring pay for all or certain classes of women employees at rates equal to those paid men employees for equal work.

Montana enacted the first "equal pay" law, which became effective on April 1, 1919. In August of the same year, the Michigan law (for manufacturing only) became effective. During or subsequent to the World War II period, such statutes were provided in Alaska Territory, California, Connecticut, Illinois (for manufacturing only), Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Washington.

U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau: *Digest of State Equal Pay Laws, April 1, 1950.*

The Worker and His Job

Changes in Labor Supply and Demand
Have Lengthened the Worker's Job Tenure, Revalued
His Skill, and Placed a Premium on Working for a Single Employer

HARRY OBER

Mass Production and Occupational Trends

MOST OF THE TRANSFORMATION of the labor force, from some form of independent trade or entrepreneurship to marketing of labor for a wage or salary, had already been completed by 1900. Since then, however, there have been some important developments in the occupational characteristics of the labor force, in employer and employee relations in such vital matters as hiring, firing, and promotion, and in the physical conditions of work. These changes may be reviewed from the standpoint of the demand for labor, the supply of labor, and the process of marketing labor. The primary emphasis in this discussion will be on industrial labor. It is recognized, however, that changes in the demand for and supply of industrial labor are influenced by the general shifts in the occupational composition of the labor force as a whole, and for this reason the importance of shifts from farming and other activities into manufacturing and related fields are indicated.

The most important influence on a worker's selection of a job is the kind of occupational opportunities that are available to him. In a country such as ours, where freedom of occupational choice is implicit, there are, nevertheless, certain limits in the matter of occupational choice. These are determined by the industrial composition of the economy and the kinds of work that result from it. By 1900, the essential elements of mass production had already been developed and applied in various industries. Since 1900, there has been a growth and greater systematic appli-

cation of mass production and a rationalization of labor processes. These, in turn, resulted in marked changes in the occupational composition of the Nation's employment opportunities.

While data regarding occupations are available on a comparable basis only since 1910, they indicate the major trends for the entire half-century. Broadly, these data show a substantial increase in the proportion of workers in semiskilled occupations; a sharp decline in the proportion engaged in farming; an increase in importance of the professional and clerical occupations; and a sharp decline in the proportion of the labor force engaged in laboring occupations. The number employed in skilled trades, on the other hand, showed only a slight relative increase.

The Rise and Decline of Specific Jobs

This growth and decline in the demand for labor in these broad occupational categories is the result of important changes in the demand for specific types of labor. The development of the automobile and the general application of mechanical motive power in agriculture reduced the need for horses that were bred and raised on the farm, and released millions of acres to the production of other farm products.

The demand for workers in such occupations as coachmen, teamsters, harness makers, livery stable workers, horseshoers, and wagon makers declined to insignificant numbers during this period. Some handicrafts—i. e., in the needle trades and in shoemaking—were drastically curtailed. The demand for skilled craftsmen in glassmaking and in cigar

making, for example, was reduced substantially. On the other hand, there was a growth of demand for operators in the chemical, petroleum products, and related industries. Increasing use of the automobile alone created a demand for such occupations as gas station attendants, automobile repair mechanics, truck and taxi drivers, automobile sales agents, financing agents, road construction workers, as well as a variety of governmental activities associated with licensing and traffic.

Improved business machines and increased mechanization of various office operations made a vast number of business records and controls possible. As a result, the demand for workers in office occupations increased. The growing application of science in industry resulted in an increased demand for technicians, engineers, industrial relations specialists, and all other professions.

Important developments occurred in packaging, labeling, canning and preserving, and storing activities in all industries. Also important is the increase in demand for labor associated with occupations in the entertainment field and in servicing of home appliances. These are but some of the more striking developments that are indicative of a highly dynamic situation relative to the demand for labor.

The Growth in the Semiskilled Field

To evaluate the effect these changes had on the demand for labor, a brief exploration of the nature of occupations is essential. Occupations vary considerably in the degree that a worker is master of or subservient to the technical processes involved. In the skilled trades, for example, the worker who has mastered the techniques associated with each trade actually possesses a valuable asset which he takes with him from one job to another or even from one industry to another. At the other extreme is a type of occupation, usually semiskilled or laboring work, that is essentially a part of a process in an establishment or an industry. Such occupations may be of great value to the employer and the worker as long as the worker is attached to an establishment. But, once he becomes separated, his experience is of little value. Between these two extremes are a vast number of occupations that afford combinations in various proportions of these two job characteristics.

Since 1900, the growth of occupations has been mainly in the semiskilled field, partly at the expense of the unskilled laboring jobs. Marked mechanization has occurred in material handling, inter-process conveying, excavating, and similar operations during the past 50 years. However, the increase in semiskilled occupations also meant that fields of employment occupied by skilled workers in the early part of this century are now increasingly being filled by workers who are basically specialized in limited operations.

The growth in the proportion of the labor force in the semiskilled occupations since 1900 does not mean that industry today is less dependent upon skilled labor for efficient operation. It means rather that a sharp differentiation has occurred in the concept of skill as applied to various types of occupations. An important group of occupations remains in which the worker is the carrier of a substantial portion of the industrial know-how and the trade knowledge.

A Changing Concept of Skill

A demand exists in our complex economy for skilled labor on unit-production in the manufacture of nonstandard products not marketed in quantity. Considerable developmental and experimental work also places a premium on trade skill. In some major industries, such as building and construction, the skilled trades predominate. In addition, the whole field of maintenance of plant and equipment in all industries requires skilled installers and repairmen. With the growth of the automotive vehicle industry and the use of a variety of home appliances, there has been a constant growth in the number of installers and servicemen who are mainly skilled mechanics. The subdivision of labor in many industries and the utilization of semiskilled occupations require skilled set-up men and adjusters. While engineering methods, new equipment, and central planning of work processes have made some inroads among these trades, training and experience remain a valuable asset to the worker who possesses them.

Skill has assumed a different meaning as applied to the semiskilled occupations. In these occupations, trade knowledge is generally limited to mastering a narrow part of a preplanned and centrally coordinated production process. The

worker's skill is judged by his ability to adjust quickly to the sequence and timing of his operation and to the attainment of an acceptable volume and quality of output. Many of the processes performed by semiskilled workers are limited from the standpoint of the amount of technical knowledge required, but they vary in complexity. Some of the operations have a very short work cycle and are repeated every few seconds. Others may take an extended period of time and may change seasonally. In most instances, however, the experience a worker gains at these occupations is conditioned by a particular employer's plant lay-out and skill in engineering and management.

Considering these two concepts of skill, the significance of the changes in occupational composition since 1900 lies in the diffusion of skill among a larger portion of the labor force, although mainly into highly specialized occupations.

The changing composition of the labor force is the result of both demand for and supply of labor. On the demand side, the general level of employment and the character of labor requirements affect the worker's job. On the supply side, the number of workers that are available and ready to accept work affects the quality of jobs in terms of continuity of employment and income.

The Founts of Labor Supply

One of the outstanding changes in the labor supply since 1900 is that immigration, which was extensive in the early 1900's, was sharply reduced in recent years. At the turn of the century, each year brought a flood of immigrants to our shores—over 1¼ million in 1907 alone. Today, mainly as a result of legislative curbs, immigration has been reduced to a trickle. To the extent that a worker today is not confronted with large numbers of workers ready to take employment under any conditions, his security of job tenure has improved.

Important as immigration was in supplying labor, it was by no means the only source of potential new labor. During the past 50 years, women have increasingly sought gainful work. In 1900, for example, women 14 years old and over constituted 18 percent of the labor force and in 1947 about 28 percent. At the turn of the century, a large proportion of the employed women were in farming occupations, but since then their

importance in farming has declined and they have shifted their attention to sales and office clerical occupations, to professional work, and to manufacturing employments.

The simplification of industrial operations has opened many fields of employment to women. In such industries as cigar making and in communications, women entered jobs formerly manned by men. The employment of women in industry, however, is still primarily confined to the semi-skilled and unskilled occupations. The introduction of a variety of home appliances and changes in industrial processes provided the technical conditions for increased employment of women. But, for social reasons, it is still difficult for them to enter the skilled trades where years of preparatory training are essential. Few employers—or women—can afford a long-range investment for training in skilled trades when tenure of employment is uncertain.

The past 50 years have witnessed extensive mechanization and improvements in farm methods. These have resulted in increased productivity and increased availability of farmers for industrial employment. In fact, because of the higher birth rate on farms and the continued decline in farm labor requirements, the farm population has become a major source of industrial labor supply. Recent developments in mechanization of cotton picking and accompanying changes in cotton cultivation and other preparatory steps presage further important shifts of farm youth into industrial employment. In the absence of extensive industrial training in farming regions, the flow of labor from these areas has been and is likely to continue to be mainly into unskilled and semiskilled occupations.

Improvements in schooling and in the general social outlook and material well-being of the population since 1900, on the other hand, have resulted in keeping children out of the labor market longer. At the turn of the century, it was generally believed that most employments were not harmful to children 14 and 15 years old, and the concept of child labor was limited to children under 14. Gradually, the concept of 16 as a more desirable minimum age for employment at least during school hours gained ground, and was by degrees embodied in State and Federal child-labor legislation. In 1900, there were 121 chil-

dren per 1,000 of the ages 10 to 13 at work; in 1930, only 24 in 1,000.

These improvements resulted from changes in compulsory school-attendance laws, supported by child-labor laws, as well as general education of the population. During the 10 years 1939-48, improvements were made in the compulsory school-attendance laws in over a fourth of the States. These included raising the upper age for required school attendance; eliminating some exemptions which weakened the school-attendance requirements; lengthening the required minimum school term; and improving provisions for enforcement of compulsory school-attendance laws. In 1948, the United States labor force of over 60 million persons included more than 2 million young persons 14 through 17 years of age actually employed. Agriculture is still the major single field of employment of young workers. Manufacturing provides few employment opportunities for children today. In general, the portion of the labor force supplied by the youth of our country is not as large today as it was in 1900.

The Import of the Labor Reserve

The supply of labor for any occupation, industry, and establishment is composed mainly of highly specialized pools of labor as well as undifferentiated labor that can be drawn from the general supply. Specialization of labor arises in part from the occupational and industrial stratification of the labor force and also in part from attachment of workers to particular employers. Every employer or industry must be assured of an active labor reserve sufficient for peak operations. When employment drops because of seasonal or cyclical decline in the demand for products, the labor reserve does not disappear. When technological changes occur or shifts of production take place from one area to another, oversupply of labor in particular specialized pools may become a chronic problem.

The past half-century has been a period of change. As technology simplified processes, such industries as textiles, shoes, hosiery, opened new plants with the newer equipment in new areas where unskilled labor was plentiful. Older areas such as Paterson, N. J., and shoe and textile centers in New England and Philadelphia, in-

creasingly had to contend with abundant specialized labor pools. This has also been a period of exhaustion of natural resources in some areas, particularly in mining and lumbering, and a growth of new production centers. Generally, the new centers of production have recruited new labor and left stranded labor reserves in the old areas. Competing fuels and raw materials have also resulted in additional labor reserves and in the underemployment or oversupply of labor in old areas or industries.

This growth of the labor reserve has not always been the result of objective forces alone. In the early part of the century, employers consciously solicited more and more labor for their establishments and industries. Since this was a period of rapid industrial growth and expansion, the prospects, as each employer saw them, were for continually rising labor requirements. He wanted to be certain he could meet any expansion or any operational peak. All union efforts to regularize the supply of labor were fought vigorously. This, of course, was possible partly because collective bargaining was not practiced in the major mass-production industries.

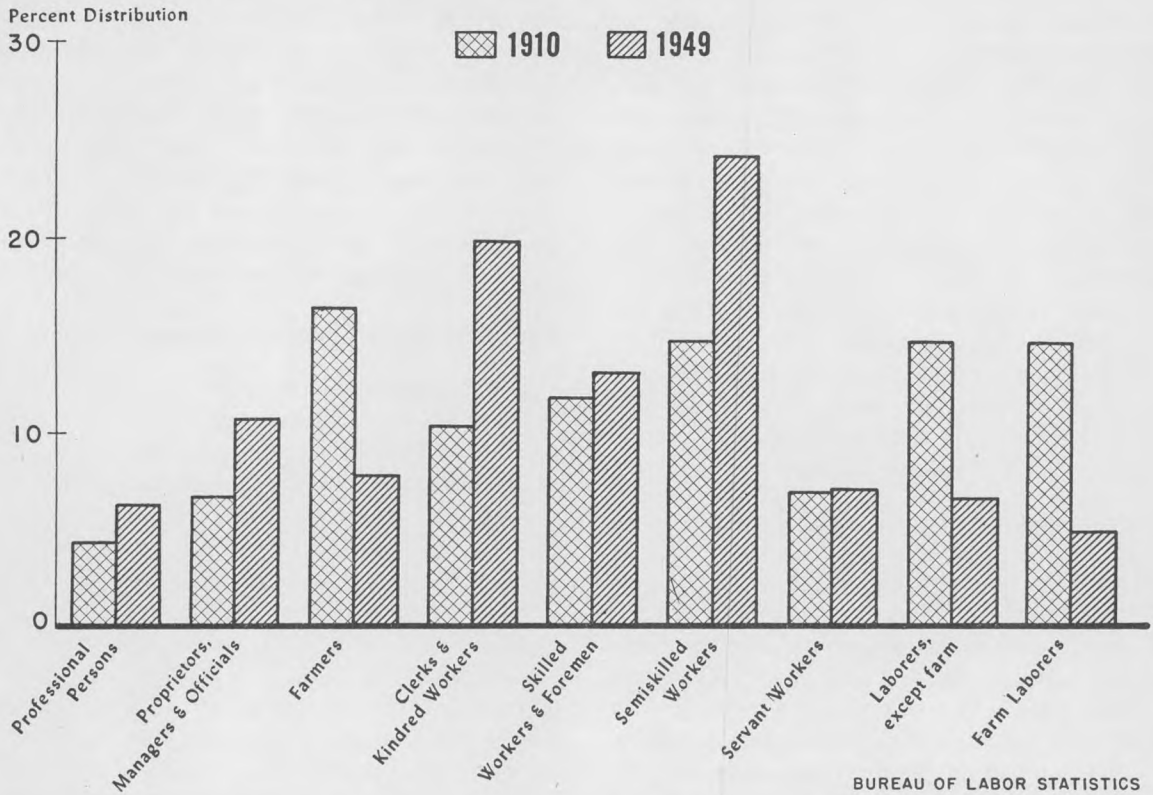
New Needs for New Workers

These changes have modified the supply side of labor in a number of respects. Since immigration provided our industries with a ready source of adult laborers, our economy did not have to bear the cost of raising laborers to adulthood. Where skilled laborers could be selected from the immigrants, industry did not have to train workers.

At the turn of the century, the trade-unions were primarily concerned in protecting the status of the skilled workers. Union regulations limited the number of entrants into the occupations by limiting the ratios of apprentices to journeymen and also prevented skilled immigrants from entering the occupations. This was accomplished by setting discriminatory standards for admission into the unions.

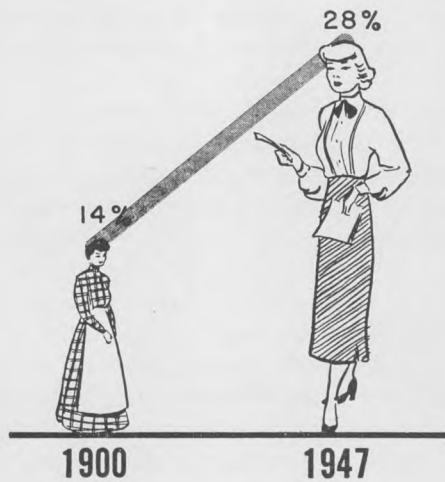
Exorbitant initiation fees for "foreigners" were provided in the rules of many unions. This form of protection only forced such workers into non-union employments or into organizations of dual unions. Despite the limitations on apprenticeships in the skilled trades, and employers' objec-

Socio-Economic Groups in the Labor Force



Women in the Labor Force

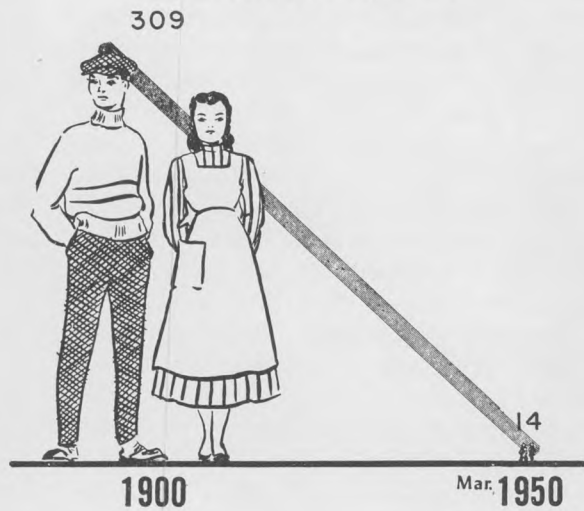
Percent Of Total Labor Force



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Children in the Labor Force

14 AND 15 YEARS OLD
Number Per 1000 In Population



Source: U.S. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

tion to them, immigrants apparently provided enough skilled labor so that generally fewer apprentices were trained than was permissible.

Dependence on native skilled labor today has again revived interest in apprenticeship training. This was stimulated in part by Federal legislation and State government interest. But aside from the problem of skilled trades, needs for training are today arising in industries where no training was needed before. The clothing industries, for example, are no longer supplied from overseas with skilled tailors, essential in styling and in development work. Opportunities for training are bound to grow in many industries. This growth in training and the general rise in the technical skill of the labor force, reared in an environment where mechanical activity is part and parcel of living, has no doubt had beneficial effects.

The Growing Value of Job Tenure

The job as a place of employment with a particular employer and as an essential precondition for marketing one's labor has undergone some important changes during the past 50 years. Both employers and workers have considerably modified their relations with respect to job tenure. These changes result partly from technical developments that affect the earnings potential of workers' occupations; and in part from changes in the legal and social relations that have modified arbitrariness in hiring, firing, and advancement within jobs. The quality of job tenure is also affected by the physical conditions surrounding a job, such as industrial safety, healthful environment, and opportunities for rest and recreation.

During the past 50 years, and in particular since the early 1930's, workers have tended more and more to hold their attachment to a particular employer in high regard. This means that in many occupations, particularly the semiskilled and unskilled, attachment to an employer is frequently valued more highly than attachment to an industry or occupation. While a worker has no legal claim on an employer for a job, nevertheless, a series of practices has evolved regarding hiring and firing, sharing the work, advancement within an establishment, and all other conditions of work. In effect, these practices represent a modification of arbitrariness in management and may be regarded as the development

of a system of equity in employer-employee relations.

For the worker these changes manifest themselves in a feeling that he has a claim to a particular job. There is good reason for this attitude. It is almost universal practice in industry today to pay somewhat less to newly hired workers, even when they are skilled and experienced in a job, presumably because a change in employers involves some destruction of the value of experience, although the occupational experience of the worker is substantially transferable.

The Ephemeral Character of Experience

Even in occupations where the experience is of value in an entire industry or a series of industries, once a worker is detached from an employer, the process of securing a new job and acquiring status with a new employer is costly and may involve prolonged unemployment. In some industries (e. g., clothing), the loss of a job with an employer involves an ordered process of being rehired. The worker must await his turn on a list maintained centrally by the union. When his turn comes up on the list he is referred to an employer with whom he must serve a probationary period. If the employer considers him qualified at the end of the period, he acquires permanent status with the employer. Along with all other permanent status employees he then shares the ups and downs of employment in that establishment. But even in industries where hiring through union halls is not practiced, some form of probationary and permanent differentiation of workers may prevail, either through union agreement or employer policy.

The general development of systems of seniority and their recent application in more and more industries is a further manifestation of the growth of claims on a job. Employers may have practiced some system of priority work-claims in the early part of the century, but relevant provisions in formal collective agreements are fairly new in the leading mass-production industries. Seniority alone, however, is frequently not considered adequate as a regulator of tenure, particularly as far as the newer workers are concerned. Often seniority is modified by sharing the work arrangements, so that a greater number of the workers may retain their attachment for a longer period of time.

Usually provisions for sharing-the-work are limited to a certain number of hours per week. When employment opportunities decline below this limit and sharing-the-work may tend to pauperize all workers, employers resort to lay-offs on the basis of seniority.

In industries where attachment to employers is casual (e. g., the building and construction and longshoring industries), union preferences in hiring and regulating entrance into the industry and occupations frequently supplant the claim on a particular employer for work. Thus, in the building trades, limitation on the number of apprentices relative to the number of journeymen has acted as a protective device. Dissociation from a union in these industries is frequently tantamount to loss of status with an employer. In longshoring, the workers' claim on available work has expressed itself in a desire to decasualize employment through centrally managed hiring halls and a system of prior claims for regular as against casual employees.

Separation from an employer in industries with declining employment opportunities may mean prolonged unemployment and eventual forced withdrawal from the industry. This, in turn, may entail partial or complete loss of experience value, the extent depending on the occupation. In metalworking, because of the transferability of experience to a wide range of industries, establishment separation may not mean complete loss of experience value. Separation from metalworking as a whole, however, means loss of most of the experience value. Such losses might occur with separation from any industry with specialized processes—e. g., textiles, chemicals, and apparel. As long, therefore, as an employee works for a particular employer, he is assured that he will share his employer's fortunes and therefore regards all regulations that tend to secure his job as desirable.

Deterrents to Reemployment

Once separated from an employer or an industry, selection for reemployment is generally not based on technical qualifications alone. Experience, sex, age, nationality, and race play important roles in the job selection. Regardless of how a worker's experience may have been valued by his former employer, requirements for reemployment

are generally too specific. Usually employers prefer the kind of worker whose specific experience permits efficient use of the new worker without retraining. Experience on specific makes of machines and even specific model numbers is frequently required. Under such conditions even highly transferable experience is not a great asset in finding work.

In industries where technological changes simplified operations and eliminated experience as a factor, employers have at times preferred women operators, even though experienced men were available. For example, in cigar manufacturing, women were usually employed at the new cigar-making machines rather than the unemployed cigar makers. In general, industrial attitudes have developed which favor the employment of women at light and nimble tasks, but not in the skilled trades and heavier work.

The selective process in employment frequently operates against the older as well as the very young workers. As long as the older worker retains his attachment with a particular employer, experience and seniority rules can give him more security than younger workers. Once separated, however, his chances for reemployment get increasingly poorer. He is not likely to be selected for new jobs with opportunities for advancement. Frequently he is required to compete for the lower grade, blind-alley jobs. Young workers, too, are often passed up in the selection for employment because of lack of experience. This is particularly true when employment opportunities are not expanding and employer specifications indicate that "only experienced workers" need apply.

As a result of these practices a tendency has developed in the labor market to accumulate so-called stagnant pools of labor. The severity of the reemployment problems affecting these labor pools is quite different in periods of rapidly rising employment opportunities and during periods of stagnant or declining employment conditions.

A generally rising employment level is the best healer of all sores and festers in the labor market. During the early part of this century, the rapid growth in production and employment generally resolved most of the problems operating in the labor market, despite the vast immigration of labor, the increased entrance of women into the labor market, the rapid changes in technology and

shifts in production from area to area. The prolonged depression years of the 1930's, on the other hand, sharply accentuated these problems; notwithstanding the relatively high level of employment during the recent war and postwar years, concern with job tenure and with the accumulation of claims and priorities in employment has not relaxed.

Collective Bargaining and Tenure

While management still regards the whole field of hiring and firing as its sacred prerogative, in practice there are a great many more curbs to unilateral decisions than in earlier years. Incidents are recounted of rugged employers at the beginning of the century who made it a practice to fire whole groups of employees at frequent intervals and to replace them the same day with new ones or even to rehire the same workers. This practice resulted from the widespread belief that the threat of insecurity is the only stimulus to hard work. Such actions would not be tolerated today in most industries.

Probably the most important influence on tenure practices is the growth of collective bargaining and the legal guarantee of a worker's rights to bargain. At the turn of the century, discovery by an employer that a worker was a member of a union or that he engaged in organizing activity frequently meant immediate dismissal. Labor spies were used as informers. Blacklists existed which prevented workers who displeased employers from gaining employment. In industries where technical changes affected skilled trades, employers frequently made a conscious effort to substitute unskilled or semiskilled labor rather than retain their skilled workers.

The worker today works in an atmosphere of greater security in his job. He is assured, in many industries, that when he is dismissed or laid off he can obtain a hearing if he thinks the employer's action was unjustified. The changing conditions of labor supply, no doubt, also contributed toward this new attitude. Moreover, management today is much more mindful of the fact that insecurity alone is not the best stimulant to efficiency of plant operation.

Even where occupations have been affected by technical changes, practices have arisen over the

years that aid the worker in the adjustment to new conditions. The fact that workers value their attachment to an employer and that dismissal is not a simple matter to undertake has taxed the ingenuity of both management and labor in developing adjustment aids for workers on new jobs. Provisions in agreements frequently cover such questions as the rate of introduction of new machines, the manning of new operations, the retraining of displaced workers, and protection of existing compensation levels or even sharing in the benefits of technological changes. In instances where reduced labor requirements have resulted in reduction of the labor force, dismissal compensation is sometimes paid. In such instances, it is recognized that a worker's service and experience are of value to him and that he cannot be deprived of a market for his skill and experience without compensation.

These developments in employment relations, of course, tend to lessen mobility of labor. Seniority in many industries is fairly new and the effects of its application on the age distribution of workers in particular establishments and on income as related to years of service cannot fully be appreciated at this time. The recent trend toward individual employer retirement and other insurance systems, of course, adds to the value of attachment with particular employers.

Skills and Earnings Potentials

Among industrial occupations the range of earnings from the unskilled to the skilled occupations indicates the variation in earnings of workers in specific jobs at any one time. Except in the skilled trades, where entrance typically requires an apprenticeship, workers without experience or training for a particular occupation are hired at the lowest rates in the labor market or the entrance rates for inexperienced workers. Once an apprentice has completed his training period he qualifies for the minimum rate of a journeyman. On the average, rates for skilled trades are about 55 percent above the lowest unskilled rates or the entrance levels for inexperienced workers. Naturally, wide variations exist among the rates of skilled trades, and most of the skilled trades command from 45 to 70 percent above the entrance levels of pay.

Although the spread between the skilled and unskilled rates has been sharply reduced since 1900, the differential in potential earnings between the skilled and unskilled occupations is still of major importance to a skilled worker. It assures him a substantially higher income during his working life if he retains his position in the occupation. If, however, he is forced out of his occupation because of technical changes, as occurred in some occupations in the past 50 years, he can only find his way back into industrial employment at the entrance levels of unskilled labor.

The position of the semiskilled workers is considerably more precarious as regards continuous employment at experienced rate levels. Typically semiskilled workers earn on the average from 15 to 35 percent above the entrance levels of pay of the lowest rated unskilled occupations. In routine and repetitive types of work, most occupations command from 10 to 25 percent above the lowest unskilled rates. In the semiskilled occupations where extensive experience is essential, most of the rates vary from 25 to 45 percent above the entrance rate levels. Exceptional requirements often command rates as high as those of skilled trades. Unlike the skilled trades, the variations in compensation from the entrance rates to the highest semiskilled rates are the result of payment for experience and skill acquired in the course of work and advancement with service.

Experience and Earnings

At times, the experience value over and above the entrance rates may be purely the result of attachment to a single employer or to a single operation. The maintenance of a particular level of earnings is, therefore, much more difficult for semiskilled workers since at best only a portion of their experience is transferable. Few studies indicate how frequently during a lifetime a semiskilled worker starts in an economic activity, achieves an advanced level of income, and then drops again to the entrance levels in new pursuits. However, there is no doubt that such cycles of change affect them more frequently than the skilled workers. In general, as long as a worker is relatively young and employment opportunities are plentiful he can start over at the entrance level of a new occupation and in time attain the upper

earnings levels. If he is advanced in age, however, his chances of starting again in anything but blind-alley jobs are indeed slim.

The period since 1900, as indicated earlier, was marked by a growth of semiskilled occupations. The growth of these occupations was in part at the expense of both skilled trades and unskilled occupations. Insofar as this growth diminished the relative importance of the skilled trades, it denotes an increase in the types of employments in which skill and experience are less transferable from one establishment to another or from one industry to another, and the chances for destroying the value of that skill during a worker's lifetime are relatively great. To the extent that the change involves a shift from unskilled to semiskilled employments, however, it represents a shift to jobs with higher earnings potentials. From the standpoint of security of continued earnings at the semiskilled jobs, however, it has probably not resulted in improvement.

There have also been some important changes in the past half-century in the relative earnings position of the clerical occupations. In the early years of this period, the general social status and earnings potential of clerical jobs was considerably above that of the skilled trades. In fact, educational opportunities were relatively limited in those years and persons who entered clerical occupations occupied a more or less sheltered position in the labor market. They were much more closely associated with the business functions of enterprises, and their opportunities for advancement into the business world were generally taken for granted. With the growth of large-scale industries and consequent large office and store operations, the security of steady employment and more continuous income than in the industrial occupations also decreased. Today, the clerical occupations are for the most part in about the same position as regards potential earnings levels as that held by the semiskilled occupations. Their experience, however, is considerably more transferable in a wide range of industries.

The variation in earnings potentials of occupations, and the fact that more workers today work at jobs that are subject to loss of experience value with a change in employer, industry, or occupation, explain in part the increased value that workers place today on attachment to an employer.

Losing one's hold on an employer even in good times may require starting all over again in a new field of employment. In periods of declining employment the chances of being eliminated from an occupation or industry are increased.

The Physical Aspects of the Job

An important factor in a worker's job is the physical conditions of work. These include the intensity of work, the hazards of injury and occupational disease, the character of plant lay-out and sanitation, and the opportunities for rest and relaxation.

In all of these fields, important changes have occurred during the past half-century. Of particular note is the rapid growth of occupations involving machine processes and in the number of mechanically paced operations. The rhythm of rest and work under such conditions has become more and more a process that is predetermined by engineering design, and workers have to adjust to it. But even in industries where the worker continues to exercise a good deal of control over the speed of operation, incentive methods of pay and the general development of production standards and preplanning of work have no doubt resulted in an increased pacing of work. In general, therefore, it may be concluded that workers today work with greater intensity than they did 50 years ago.

Improvements in plant lay-out, in lighting, and in general sanitary conditions of work have been very marked since 1900. In part, these improvements have resulted from the rise in standards of construction and in planning the factory for a sequence of processes and technical efficiency. But in large measure, these developments are also the outgrowth of a realization that improvements in production are not only the result of plant and machine, but are related to the physical well-being of the worker on his job.

Probably the most spectacular advances during these years have been made in the field of workmen's compensation legislation. This legislation not only stimulated the humane treatment of

workers, but, by making the employer liable for certain occupational injuries and diseases, made improvements in the physical conditions of work a direct economic advantage to the employer. It is significant to note that at the beginning of the century workmen's compensation laws were practically nonexistent in the United States. Today, all States have such legislation. In the earlier years, these laws related mainly to occupational injuries. But with time, as knowledge regarding causes of specific diseases was developed, occupational diseases were included in the coverage. They are now included in the legislation of 39 States, Alaska, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. Disease coverage is also provided in the Federal Employees Compensation Act and in the Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Act.

Improvements, however, were not confined to legislation. Safety programs were developed in many industries where accidents were frequent. Engineering firms made every effort to embody safety devices in new machines and equipment. Much still needs to be done and is being done. The programs are also aided materially by the gradual changing of certain extrahazardous manufacturing processes from manual to automatic operation, notably in steel and in the chemical industries.

Rapid strides are also being made in recent years in the growth of rest, health, and vacation provisions in industry through collective bargaining and employer policy. Vacations with pay, in addition to longer week-end rest periods, have become quite general. More recently, collective bargaining has turned to the problem of medical care. Funds have been set up in the apparel, mining, and other industries for the care of workers' health. These practices make the workers' jobs much more attractive than they had been in previous years. Although it is difficult to evaluate their cumulative effects, there is no doubt that these changes have contributed materially toward lengthening the worker's life on his job and have improved his chances on the average for more continuous active work and income.

Changes in Modes of Living

The Increase in Real Income and Technological Changes
Have Created More Variety in Consumption and
Added to the Leisure Time of Workers

WITT BOWDEN

THE AUTOMOBILE, the radio, the humble tin can, and thousands of other creations of technology and mass production are major causes of changes in modes of living. But the mass production of goods and services, new or old, presupposes mass markets; the mass markets of today in turn depend on the mass purchasing power of wages far in excess of workers' earnings at the turn of the century.

Income for Living

The average family income of city workers' families surveyed by the Bureau of Labor in 1901 was \$749. The estimated income per family member was \$169. City workers' families in 1948, approximately comparable to those covered by the 1901 survey, had a median family income of \$3,384. The estimated income per family member was \$1,085 in 1948. This was about 6.4 times as large, without adjustment for price changes, as the 1901 average.

The average earnings of factory workers, a large and diversified group, rose from \$439 in 1901 to \$2,815 in 1948. The latter figure is 6.4 times as large, again without price adjustment, as the 1901 average—the same as the increase in the income per family member.

The estimated rise in per capita personal income from 1901 to 1948 (from \$221 to \$1,446) is remarkably similar in trend. The 1948 average is 6.5 times as large as that of 1901.¹

These estimates were derived from widely different sources of data independently compiled. The close correspondence of the trends indicates that the averages are significant approximations.

There appears to have been more than a doubling of real earnings and income in 1948 as compared with 1901. If the 1901 average income per family member is expressed in 1948 dollars, the 1901 average of \$169 becomes \$520. Thus, the 1948 average of \$1,085 is 109 percent larger in purchasing power than the 1901 average. Similarly, the average factory wage of \$439 in 1901 becomes \$1,351 in terms of 1948 dollars; and the 1948 average of \$2,815 is 108 percent above the average for 1901.²

Leisure for Living

The rising productivity of industry has been accompanied by more than a doubling of the average real earnings of workers. It has also made possible much additional leisure for the enjoyment of the fruits of labor.

Workers now usually have from 15 to 20 hours more free time each week than their fathers and grandfathers had early in the century. Most workers then had a 6-day week; some also worked on Sunday without a "day of rest." Children now begin work at a later age. There is now a longer span of life after retirement. Women then were less frequently employed for wages, but when employed their hours of work resembled those of

men. Housewives now have more leisure because of smaller families, the transfer of much of the earlier household work to factories and service establishments, and the mechanization of household tasks.

Widening Range of Family Spending

The Bureau of Labor survey of family incomes and expenditures in 1901 deals in much detail with the habits in family spending of a group of 2,567 families, somewhat above the average in family income, who kept relatively careful accounts. Their margin for spending other than for food, housing, and clothing seems to have been somewhat larger than the general average. Their distribution of expenditures for current consumption was approximately as follows:

	Percent
Food and beverages.....	47
Housing, fuel, and light.....	21
Clothing.....	15
All other items.....	17

Family expenditures in recent years have been affected by wartime shortages and exceptional postwar expenditures for various items, especially durable goods. Departures from usual consumption habits were also brought about by extensive changes in price relationships during and following the period of public price controls and rationing. Preceding these changes, a comprehensive survey for 1935-36 yielded the following estimates for urban families:

	Percent
Food and beverages.....	32
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration....	23
Clothing.....	11
All other items.....	34

A survey for 1941 shows the following average allocations of expenditures for current consumption:

	Percent of total expenditures	
	All urban families	Families with \$1,000-\$5,000 incomes
Food and beverages.....	31	32
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration.....	18	18
Clothing.....	12	12
All other items.....	39	38

No Nation-wide information is available for postwar years. A 1948 survey gives information

for Detroit, Denver, and Houston from which it is possible to make some significant comparisons with earlier data. For families with incomes ranging from \$2,000 to \$5,000, the average allocations of expenditures for current consumption in the three cities were as follows:

	Percent of total expenditures		
	Detroit	Denver	Houston
Food and beverages.....	34	31	32
Housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration.....	18	16	13
Clothing.....	12	12	14
All other items.....	36	41	41

It is apparent that the average worker's family in 1901 found it necessary to use a far larger proportion of its total expenditures for food and beverages than the average worker's family now spends. The proportion has fallen from nearly a half to a third or somewhat less. Average percentage expenditure for housing, fuel, light, and refrigeration has also declined from more than a fifth in 1901 to hardly more than 15 percent in the postwar period. The usual proportion spent for clothing is also somewhat smaller than in 1901.

Outstanding in importance in its effects on modes of living is the rise in the margin of income available for expenditures other than the basic requirements for food, housing, and clothing. The proportion rose from hardly more than a sixth to more than a third of total expenditures. Noteworthy, too, is the fact that these are percentages of total expenditures; the absolute amounts of real income spent for the traditional necessities of living are now larger than in 1901.³

Food Preparation and Dietary Habits

Important changes in food consumption during the past half-century are illustrated by the accompanying tabulation. For selected foods and groups of foods, estimates are given of average annual consumption per member of workers' families in 1901, together with rough comparisons and some additional estimates of per capita consumption by the entire population in 1909 and 1948.

The average worker's family in 1901 bought 128 pounds of flour and meal and only 48 loaves of bread per family member. The prevalence of home baking at that time is a significant illustration of the earlier processing of foods and

Estimated average annual consumption of selected foods and all foods, 1901, 1909, and 1948¹

Selected items	Unit	Con- sumption per mem- ber of workers' families, 1901	General per capita con- sumption	
			1909	1948
Beef	Pound	75.1	58.1	50.1
Poultry	do	12.7	19.4	23.0
Fish	do	15.0	10.9	11.0
All meats, poultry, and fish	do	158	161	158
Eggs	Dozen	16	23.3	31.3
Milk	Quart	66.8		
Butter	Pound	22.1	17.6	10.0
Cheese	do	3.0	3.9	6.8
Total milk equivalent	Quart		194	249
Lard	Pound	15.9	12.3	12.7
Flour and meal	do	128.2		
Bread	Loaf	47.6		
Rice	Pound	4.7	7.1	4.9
All grain products	do		291	171
Potatoes	do	168.0	179.5	100.4
Citrus fruits and tomatoes	do		44	105
Canned fruits, vegetables, and soups	do		19.0	82.7
Sugar	do	50.6	72.4	93.5
Coffee	do	8.8	7.6	15.9
Tea	do	2.0	1.1	.5
Total food, retail weight equivalent	do		1,572	1,581

¹ The 1901 averages are derived from data in *Eighteenth Annual Report*, Commissioner of Labor, 1903 (pp. 81-83); the 1909 and 1948 averages are from *Consumption of Food in the United States, 1909-48*, Bureau of Agricultural Economics (Misc. Pub. No. 691, chs. 2, 3). The 1909 and 1948 estimates are retail weights, except for canned foods, which are based on primary distribution weights, and milk equivalent, which represents primarily the nutritive content of dairy products. The averages are of course only approximately comparable for the different years.

preparation of meals in the home. Factory processing is also illustrated by the rise in average consumption of canned fruits, vegetables, and soups from 19 pounds in 1909 to 83 pounds in 1948.

The decline from 291 pounds of all grain products consumed per capita in 1909 to 171 pounds in 1948 exemplifies important changes in dietary habits. Accompanying the decline in the consumption of grain products there was an even larger reduction in the consumption of potatoes.

In contrast, the average consumption of several important foods rose sharply. These included dairy products, eggs, sugar, coffee, fruits, and vegetables other than potatoes. For example, the average consumption of citrus fruits and tomatoes more than doubled, rising from 44 pounds in 1909 to 105 pounds in 1948.

The dietary significance of changes in types of food consumption is indicated by estimates of changes between 1909 and 1948 in the nutrients available for consumption per capita per day. Declines occurred in three of the nutrients:

	Percent
Food energy	7
Protein	5
Carbohydrate	17

Other nutrients now recognized as essential, the vitamins and minerals as well as fats, are estimated to have increased in the amounts available for per capita consumption as follows:

	Percent
Fats	13
Calcium	22
Iron	13
Vitamin A value	14
Thiamine	15
Riboflavin	25
Niacin	10
Ascorbic acid	17

A survey of food consumption in cities by income level in 1942 indicates that, in general, families with small incomes have not lagged far behind the general trend. The nutritive value of their diets, although below the general level, much more closely approximates the standards of adequacy as set forth by such groups as the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council than did the diets of 40 or 50 years ago.⁴

The Worker's Home

The inadequacy of housing facilities is a major current problem of workers' families. Present difficulties are not mitigated, but may be put in perspective, by comparisons with housing conditions a few decades ago.

A survey was made in 1893 of congested districts in four cities. The proportions of families found to be without tub or shower baths in these districts were as follows:

	Percent
Baltimore	93
Chicago	97
New York	98
Philadelphia	83

The general absence of bathing facilities in the private dwellings of workers gave such importance to public baths that the Bureau of Labor undertook a special survey and prepared an extensive exhibit for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1903.⁵

Workers commonly had to live in congested areas because of lack of transportation facilities. The cost of commuting on steam railroads was beyond the reach of the ordinary worker; and all street and interurban railways other than steam railroads, according to the 1902 census of street railways, operated less than 17,000 miles of line.

Even the workers in the smaller industrial centers and mill towns were often housed in congested quarters, frequently in multiple-unit tenements; however, workers who lived in smaller towns had comparatively ready access to the country and were more often able to maintain gardens.

Few low-cost houses had telephones in 1901; the total number of telephones at that time was less than 2 million. Electric lighting was rarely available in workers' dwellings. Few of these dwellings were equipped with electrical household appliances; the value of the total output of these appliances and supplies in 1901, according to the Bureau of the Census, was only \$2,550,000.

The Bureau of Labor prepared for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1903 an extensive exhibit of pictures and designs of model houses for workers. Most of the houses had been newly constructed and they were described as affording a sharp contrast with prevailing housing conditions. The cottages in one group, "equipped in many cases with running water and electric lights, are a source of great surprise."⁶

The families of workers surveyed by the Bureau of Labor in 1901 lived in dwelling units which averaged approximately one room per person. About 81 percent of the families were tenants. Housing, fuel, and light required a significantly larger part of their total expenditures for current consumption than workers now usually spend for these items.

The current housing problems of workers arise in part from survivals of earlier tenements and congested conditions. Most of the dwelling units which lack modern facilities were built at least a generation ago.

A survey made in 1948 indicated that among all urban dwelling units, including one-room units in multiple-unit structures, 9 out of 10 had bathtubs or showers and 8 out of 10 had not only bathing facilities but also their own cooking equipment and a kitchen sink. According to a 1947 survey, about 95 percent of rented dwelling units in cities had running water; 79 percent had both private baths and private flush toilets; 98 percent had electric lighting; and 59 percent, including those in southern cities, had central heating systems for heating all rooms. The usual household equipment now includes a wide range of articles for household utility and recreation unknown to workers early in the century. The

median number of rooms in 1947 for rented urban dwelling units, including one-room units, was 3.92. The average size of city families was substantially smaller than the average number of rooms per dwelling unit.⁷

The proportion of workers who are now home owners is much larger than in 1901, when less than a fifth of workers' families owned their homes. The Federal Reserve Board's 1949 survey of consumer finances indicated home ownership by almost half of the heads of families in clerical and sales occupations, in skilled and semiskilled occupations, and even in unskilled occupations. These percentages were no doubt substantially increased during the postwar period by the frequent buying of houses as the only practicable means of obtaining acceptable housing facilities.

Changing Economic Role of the Family

Fifty years ago the commercial processing of foods for general use was largely for the marketing of goods in bulk, as flour and meal. Such activities as baking, canning, preserving, dressing of poultry, and even the roasting and grinding of coffee were widely carried on at home. Home baking and buying in bulk often gave literal meaning to "scraping the bottom of the barrel." Home-made clothing was much more widely worn. Laundering, cleaning, mending, and the repairing of household equipment were rarely commercialized. The commercialization of sports and recreational activities was in its infancy. Hospitalization and special nursing were exceptional for workers' families; the care of the sick was much more largely a household responsibility. The earlier family also had to meet almost unaided, except by resort to charity, such hazards as accidents and unemployment and such responsibilities as providing for old age.

Families today exhibit certain survivals of these earlier functions, but the usual household economy affords a striking contrast. Some of the causes of the changes include a tremendous growth of such industries as food processing, the services, and recreational enterprises; the accompanying shifts in occupations with increased employment of women; and the development of public services, especially in the broad area of social security.

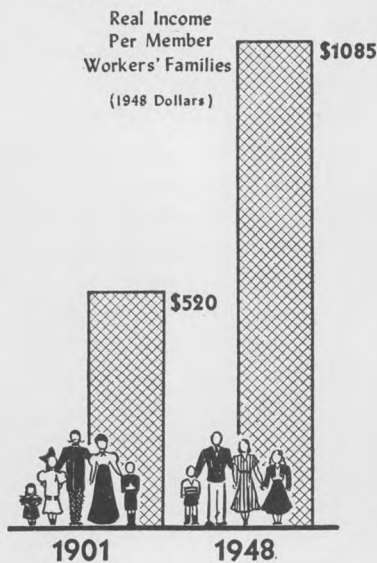
The earlier economic functions of the family gave it an importance and unity and stability often

acclaimed in contrast to the supposedly weakened and inferior status of the family today. Even the greater family responsibility for hazards, now in larger measure met by group insurance and by such public policies as workmen's compensation, employment services, unemployment benefits, and old-age and survivors insurance, is often credited with having given vigor to such virtues as self-reliance and frugality.

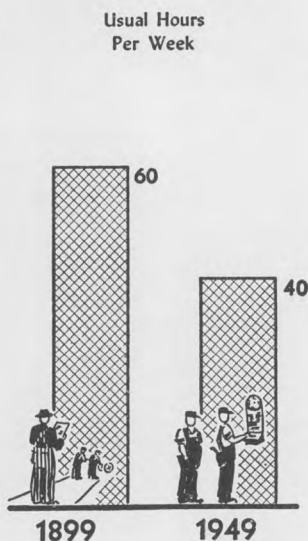
Nevertheless, there are clear gains in family modes of living which offset at least in part the advantages of the earlier economic role of the family. Technological changes and mass production have increasingly shifted the burdens of household work to factories and service establishments. These changes, combined with a larger real income, make possible a greater variety of consumption with a smaller expenditure of time

A Half Century of Change in Living Standards

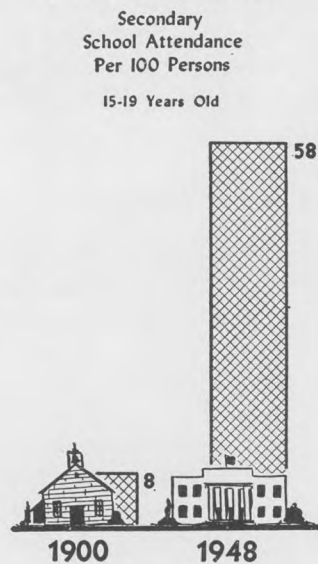
LARGER EARNINGS



SHORTER HOURS

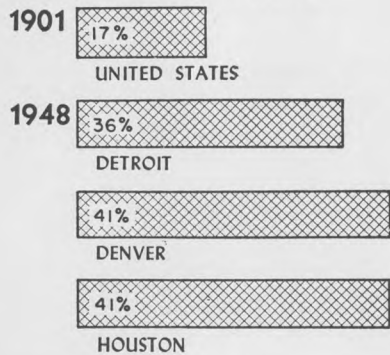


BETTER SCHOOLING

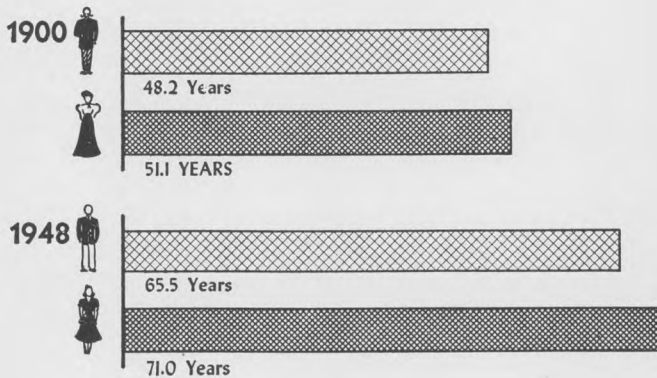


GREATER MARGIN OF FAMILY SPENDING

other than Food, Housing, and Clothing



LONGER LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH (Whites)



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

and energy. At the same time, improved types of housing, labor-saving devices, new cleansing agents, processed foods, and similar changes have eased the burdens of the many surviving household tasks.

There is now much more time for family life beyond the daily chores: time for recreation in the home as well as in the community, for travel, for reading, for social life, for taking part in the work of the union and other group activities. The family remains the basic institution and it retains the essential economic functions, the difficult arts, of earning and spending and consuming. At the same time, the easing of some of the earlier burdens of household work and family security facilitates industrial training, job mobility, and a spirit of initiative and adaptability. Not less important, it gives opportunity for greater emphasis on the noneconomic functions of the family.

Widening Range of Interests

Opportunities for living beyond a subsistence, always available to groups with larger incomes, have had peculiar significance for wage earners. Their rising real income has been supplemented by improved education and other public services as well as their own group activities in giving them command of additional facilities for living.

Opportunities for school attendance have vastly expanded. Points of view prevailing 50 years ago regarding the education of workers' families were expressed by the Commissioner of Labor in his *Eighteenth Annual Report*: "It is to be expected that children under 5 years of age are at home, and that children 16 years of age and over are usually at work, but it is generally conceded that children 5 or under 16 years of age should be in school." The Commissioner's survey of workers' families in 1901 indicated that only about 3 out of 4 of their children 5 to 15 years of age were in school, and that 5 among every 100 were at work. Among the children 10 to 15 years old, about 86 percent were in school and 11 percent were at work. Only about 15 percent of the children 16 to 20 years old were in school, and 7 out of 10 were at work.

High-school attendance in 1900 was at the rate of only about 8 persons per 100, counting the population of the usual high-school ages of 15 to

19 years, as compared with about 58 per 100 in 1948. More than two-thirds of craftsmen and kindred workers 25 to 29 years of age in 1940 had gone beyond the elementary or first 8 grades of school, as compared with only 3 out of 7 of those who were then 45 to 54 years of age, with school ages extending over the early years of the century. Similar percentages apply to other types of workers. In April 1947, the average schooling already completed by the population 20 to 24 years of age was 12.1 years; the average period of school attendance by persons 55 to 64 years old at that time was only 8.1 years.⁸ The average school year is now much longer than at the start of the century.

Increasing facilities for information and recreation have been provided by traditional sources other than schools and by new developments in the arts of communication. Periodicals, including union journals, have multiplied. Books, classical as well as recent, are now much more readily available in libraries and in low-priced editions. Journals and books, radio, and motion pictures, now supplemented by television, have brought about far greater potential than actual gains. Many exploiters of these agencies of information and entertainment have given a basis for charges of bias, distortion, sensationalism, emotionalism, wish fulfillment, and other vices and excesses. But few would question the large net gains, especially in awareness of the world beyond the home and community and place of work.

At the beginning of the century, migrants still occasionally made use of the covered wagon—the "prairie schooner"—to seek new homes or places of work. The automobile and a vast extension of improved and relatively cheap public transportation facilities have brought about a revolution in workers' modes of living that would hardly have been imaginable 50 years ago. Outstanding in significance is the wider range of choice—the choice of community in which to live, choice of home in relation to place of work, choice of travel and of facilities for recreation.

Migratory movements and job shifts have always been an outstanding feature of American life. Changes in types and location of industries, in skill requirements, and in job opportunities have imposed an almost compulsory mobility. Certain disadvantages are apparent, such as instability and the difficulties of taking root in

one's community. Recent changes, however, have tended to ease the difficulties of adaptation to changing conditions and new jobs. Adaptation has been simplified by transportation facilities, education, industrial training and retraining, employment services and unemployment insurance, and the added strength and security of collective action.

The more varied knowledge and experience and broader outlook of workers today are closely associated with changes in civil and political rights and responsibilities and especially in the manner of maintaining those rights and bearing the responsibilities. Fifty years ago, the usual concept of civil rights and responsibilities emphasized a rather extreme individualism. That point of view was reflected in the status of unions. Hardly more than a million workers belonged to labor organizations at the beginning of the century. Workers then encountered various difficulties in joining unions, and the activities of their unions were restricted alike by custom and by law. There were many limitations on the rights of assembly and association.

These limitations on the outlook, interests, and community activities of workers were peculiarly restrictive in mill and mining towns and one-industry communities, especially those in isolated areas. Housing in such localities was prevailingly company-owned. Community as well as family life was often largely controlled by the company in respect to trading facilities, the rights of assembly and association, and even the appointment of teachers, magistrates, and other community officials. Recent trends in company policies, in transportation facilities, and in legal safeguards of assembly, association, and other civil rights are bringing about a radical change. These trends have tended to promote the sale of company houses and the improvement of housing facilities; to break down the earlier isolation; and in general to facilitate independent family and community life.⁹

Workers in isolated communities and "company" towns have been distinctively affected by the easing of restrictions on unionism. Changes of 50 years applying to workers generally are exemplified by the outlawing of the "black list"; the restricting of the use of injunctions in labor disputes; the firm establishment of the rights of striking and picketing; the protection of workers

in forming unions free from outside interference; and the safeguarding of collective bargaining. Today, wage earners are prevailingly protected by collective agreements and these agreements are vastly broader in scope than those of 50 years ago. Workers now take a far greater part, individually and through their unions, in local, national, and international affairs.

Manner versus Quality of Living

Many of the changes in modes of living, as in transportation and recreation and household activities, can readily be described. The effects of these changes on what may be termed the quality of living are not so apparent. Students of standards of living naturally look for measurable criteria; they must recognize, nevertheless, the intangible elements that qualify their conclusions.

Changes in modes of living make possible a great variety of experiences unknown to an earlier generation. But the impact of these changes is not necessarily or invariably favorable. Commercialized and standardized recreation, for example, has encroached upon family income and has even been made a substitute for self-reliant and constructive recreational activities.

Workers now can buy much more, and they now have much more leisure, than workers 50 years ago. But is an hour today equivalent to an hour of work or of leisure 50 years ago? And is a wage dollar now equivalent to a 1901 price-adjusted dollar?

The view has often been stated that an hour of work now makes heavier demands upon the worker than in a simpler economy even such as that of his father or grandfather. The tempo of working, as of living, is faster now than formerly; and the pace or rhythm of the machine is felt by larger numbers of workers especially in the semiskilled employments.

Recent trends, however, have tended to mitigate the effects of extreme specialization, of heavy drudgery, of hazards and fatigue, of isolation from the management of enterprise. Technology has tended to mechanize and routinize production, but it has also lightened men's labors and given them an increasing role in managing machines and supervising automatic operations. The workload and the rate of operations are now less arbitrarily determined and are more closely related to the

job qualifications of workers and their rates of pay. There are now fewer sweatshops; and work places generally have made progress toward safer and pleasanter working conditions. Experience in the arts of association and collective bargaining is far more advanced than at the turn of the century.

On balance, it appears that for most workers an hour of work today is hardly more intense and life-consuming—hardly less creative and satisfying—than when the century began. The additional time of freedom from work would appear, therefore, to be largely a net gain in leisure. Opportunities for the gratifying use of leisure are certainly now more varied than 50 years ago; and awareness of the value of leisure is hardly less keen.

As for what the economist calls the real wage or price-adjusted wage, he is first to recognize that the measurements both of money wages and of prices are far from precise. They are merely useful approximations. But no matter how exact may be his estimate of real wages, certain qualifications are necessary for an understanding of the significance of wage changes.

Money income is more important than it was 5 decades ago; notably, unpaid household work is a less important source of nonmonetary income or value than in 1901. People do fewer things for themselves. They are now more largely dependent upon earnings and the market economy. A dollar of earnings today must therefore be discounted, for comparison with an earlier dollar, not only by price changes but also by the larger dependence of the worker on his money wage.

Offsetting that trend is the increase in a type of income that may, for lack of a better term, be called "social" income, not entering directly into the budgets of families or individuals. Social income includes education and other public services, use of roads and parks, and the pooled resources of group insurance, social-security arrangements, workmen's compensation, libraries, foundations, and associations of various kinds.

These values have a price, and workers help to pay the cost. But the burden conforms more

nearly to ability to pay; and most of the social income is a product of joint endeavor beyond the range of individual action or capacity. Certainly, the real incomes or values available to workers from these sources are now relatively more important than in former decades. We have made progress in doing together many things that the individual or family formerly tried to do with slight success, or left undone.

¹ The estimate of family income in 1901 was derived from data in *Eighteenth Annual Report*, Commissioner of Labor, 1903 (pp. 15, 22, 70-71). The survey covered widely distributed regions and types of workers and was limited to families headed by persons with a wage or salary not exceeding \$1,200. The data of family size were adjusted for comparability to 1948 data. The estimate of family income in 1948 was derived from data in *Income of Families and Persons in the United States: 1948* (Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 6, pp. 17, 20). The groups included are clerical workers, salespersons, craftsmen, operatives, domestic and other service workers, and nonfarm laborers. The estimate of average factory earnings in 1901 was obtained from Census of Manufactures data for 1899 and 1904 as published in the 1939 Census of Manufactures and an interpolation based on the Bureau of Labor index of full time weekly earnings (Bulletin No. 77, July 1908, p. 7). The 1948 factory average is the Bureau of Labor Statistics figure of average weekly earnings multiplied by 52. The 1901 estimate of per capita personal income is that of Robert F. Martin, in *National Income in the United States, 1799-1938* (p. 6). The 1948 estimate is derived from Department of Commerce data. The earlier estimate, described as "realized" income, is not wholly comparable to current estimates of personal income. All three series are approximations.

² The money income figures are adjusted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of consumers' prices for 1913 to 1948, linked to the index of cost of living in Paul H. Douglas' *Real Wages in the United States* (p. 60).

³ The 1901 estimates are derived from the *Eighteenth Annual Report*, Commissioner of Labor, 1903 (pp. 75, 504-511). Adjustments made in the data exclude certain items such as taxes and combine expenditures for beverages with those for food, for comparability with current data. The estimates for 1935-36 and 1941 are derived from data in Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 822 (pp. 33, 190, 202). The 1948 estimates are derived from the *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1949 (pp. 629-639). These comparisons would be greatly facilitated if the results of the Bureau's current survey, similar to that of 1901, were now available.

⁴ Estimates of nutrients available per capita are published by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics in *Consumption of Food in the United States, 1909-48* (p. 123). Data by economic level are given in the Department of Agriculture's *Family Food Consumption in the United States* (Misc. Pub. No. 550).

⁵ Bureau of Labor, Bulletin No. 54, September 1904 (pp. 1245-1367).

⁶ Bureau of Labor, Bulletin No. 54 (pp. 1191-1243).

⁷ Bureau of the Census, *Housing Reports*, Series P-70, No. 1 (1947 survey) and No. 3 (1948 survey).

⁸ Derived from population censuses and from data in *Statistical Summary of Education, 1945-46*, and *Statistical Circular*, No. 270 (Office of Education); *Educational Attainment by Economic Characteristics and Marital Status: 1940* (Bureau of the Census), p. 103; *Educational Attainment of the Civilian Population, April 1947* (Bureau of the Census, Series P-20, No. 15, p. 7).

⁹ See, for example, Harriet L. Herring's *Passing of the Mill Village: Revolution in a Southern Institution* (University of North Carolina Press, 1949), and the Bituminous Coal Institute's *Bituminous Coal Annual* (Washington, 1949 pp. 70-75).

The Worker's Quest for Security

The American Worker Seeks Protection From the
Social and Economic Hazards of Life
Through His Labor Union and the Government

ARTHUR J. ALTMAYER

The Nature of the Quest

THE TRADITION of the American worker has been one of change. In the earliest days of our country, the American worker was an immigrant, having come to our shores in search of change; in later years, he was the westward-migrant, leaving the seaboard when social and economic opportunities began to diminish. Yet parallel to this quest for change has been a search for security. Both of these factors are understandable as complementary aspects of the American workingman's character. The change he wanted was democratically controlled change; the security he desired was security against change imposed upon him by arbitrary authority. His quest for security, therefore, has not been a fight against change as such, but rather a continuing battle for control over his fate.

When our economy was relatively simple, a man could gain virtually complete security within his own family. With increasing complexity of the economy, the worker was forced to look beyond his family for protection.

For generations, therefore, working people have banded together to help protect one another against the common economic hazards of all families who depend on labor for their living—sickness, disability or death of the breadwinner, old age, and lack of work. As industrialization developed in the 19th century, the benevolent societies and fraternal societies organized by workers relied increasingly on various forms of insurance to meet such risks.

Communities, likewise, have been concerned for a very long time with the destitution of families whose breadwinner has died before his time or has become incapacitated by illness or age. Workhouses, poorhouses, orphanages, and work relief have stood as evidence that communities accepted, often grudgingly, their responsibility for seeing that the unfortunate had the means of bare subsistence.

By the turn of the 20th century, it began to be evident in this country, as in older lands, that many security problems were becoming too broad and too complicated to be dealt with by small groups of people or local communities. The increasing area of business competition made independent action more difficult for a conscientious employer who wanted to maintain a safe and healthful workplace, or to deal fairly with his employees when they were sick or became old; he had to compete with other firms that were less concerned with worker welfare. The growing interdependence of our Nation and the world made it possible for events thousands of miles away to throw people suddenly out of work. New discoveries and changes in work processes sometimes made obsolete, almost overnight, skills that a man or woman had spent a lifetime in learning. Mass production and the speed of mechanized industry made it difficult for some workers to continue holding industrial jobs when they suffered a spell of ill health or became less vigorous.

In our predominantly industrial and commercial society the well-being of a family ordinarily

depends on the wages that one or two of its members can earn. Children need more years of school to give them a footing in life, and no longer should contribute to family income to the exclusion of adequate schooling. As sanitary and medical sciences have progressed, an increasing share of our population lives to reach the ages when earning may become difficult and when sickness and infirmity are common. At the same time, the work old people can do in the home or neighborhood has less economic value than the work of the aged once had in farm and village life. Smaller families, crowded into city flats, have fewer sons and daughters to support aging relatives and less room to take them in.

For working people at all ages and for our general prosperity, dependent on what the masses of our population can buy, it has become increasingly important that every family should have some basic, assured means of subsistence when circumstances cut off the earnings on which its members would customarily rely.

Ends and Means

The complex of quests which motivate the desires of people has been summarized well by Sir William Beveridge: "These are the three conditions of security—peace, a job when one can work, an income when one cannot work."

In order to help him achieve these objectives, the American workingman has established a pattern of institutions peculiar to his needs. As a social being he relies upon his family, his neighborhood, and his fraternal and other social organizations to give him the status he requires. As a citizen, he participates directly or indirectly in the formation of local, State, national, and even international bodies. As a consumer, he may form cooperatives; as a worker he forms unions. These organizations, in combination or individually, may be used to work toward the general goals described by Beveridge, and thus toward the specific goals with which we have become familiar: higher wages, shorter hours of work, better working conditions, status in the community, lower prices, protection against arbitrary action, etc.

The American worker's quest for security during the past half-century has been characterized by some important developments. First, he is able to approach his security goals through the

effective and alternative use of many institutional arrangements. He has succeeded in gaining from the Government what he has been unable to gain from his employer, or vice versa; no doctrinal rigidity has limited him to a particular means for any particular end. Second, in spite of the effective use of many means, the trade-union and the Government have emerged as the most important. Third, the American worker's goals are dynamic—as dynamic as our industrial and economic goals; they constitute a continuing pressure for more wages, better working conditions, and greater security.

Unions in the early days started death-benefit programs; many unions, in fact, were originally benefit societies. Safety and health programs and prevention and treatment of occupational diseases were also subjects of great interest to labor unions until governmental programs began to substitute for or supplement them. In fact, it can be safely said that any protection now being offered to American workers was preceded by the early activities of their own organizations.

But the direct efforts of worker organizations could not alone meet all of the needs. During recent years the worker has more frequently looked to his government for the adoption of programs having two purposes: the creation of an economic atmosphere in which greater employment opportunities could exist; and the guarantee of certain security standards under even the worst economic conditions. Governmental action of a remedial and protective sort gained impetus in 1937 with several Supreme Court decisions relating generally to the security field.

This unrelenting pressure has caused apprehension in some minds as to ultimate limits. In a famous colloquy before the U. S. Commission on Industrial Relations, in 1914, AFL president Samuel Gompers was asked by Morris Hillquit, the Socialist leader: "Will this effort on the part of organized labor ever stop until it has the full reward for its labor?" The historic reply was: "It won't stop at all . . . not when any particular point is reached, whether it be that toward which you have just declared or anything else. The working people will never stop . . . in their effort to obtain a better life for themselves and for their wives and for their children and for humanity. . . . It is the effort to obtain a better life every day." Then, in answer to the question

"Until such time?" Gompers replied, "Not until any time. . . . In other words, we go further than you. . . . You have an end; we have not."

This eloquent statement demonstrates that American labor does not see its goals as being selfish. On the contrary, it contends that its gains are shared by all.

Nongovernmental Efforts

Long before it called for governmental action, the trade-union movement fought for countless security measures for the American worker. Chief among these was union recognition. By securing for the workingman the right to be represented by someone who could act in his interest without fear of reprisal, the labor movement supplied the firmest support to his personal security. Recognition was followed by the written trade agreement, which gave tangible meaning to the claim for recognition.

As a substitute for the employer's unqualified right to hire or fire, the collective agreement established an orderly framework for selection, retention, and lay-off of workers. The union might supply workers from its ranks, working conditions standards might be set by agreement, and safety and health conditions could be prescribed. Although absolute job security could not of course be provided, arbitrary action by the employer was prevented by the establishment of orderly lay-off procedures, usually in accordance with seniority. In some cases, provision was made for the equal division of work, where contraction of output was necessary. Grievance procedures were instituted as a further bar to arbitrary action.

Government's Role

In establishing Federal grants-in-aid under the Social Security Act, Congress followed precedents of long standing. Such grants had been made previously for various welfare purposes: public health, beginning in 1917; vocational rehabilitation, in 1920; and maternal and child-health services, in 1921. For many years, the Federal Government also had made grants to the States to maintain agricultural extension work and to construct roads. In 1934 and 1935, the Federal Government made substantial grants for emergency relief. In no year before 1933, however,

did the sum of all Federal grants to States exceed \$230 million, in contrast to the \$1,084 million in such grants under the Social Security Act during the last fiscal year.

The social-insurance programs of the act, on the other hand, were more vulnerable to the challenge of constitutionality. Care was therefore taken in drafting the Social Security Act to emphasize the fact that its provisions rested squarely on the power of the Federal Government to tax and spend for the general welfare.

In the spring of 1937, the Supreme Court affirmed the constitutionality of both the old-age and unemployment-insurance programs. In delivering one of the opinions of the Court, Mr. Justice Cardozo declared:

Needs that were narrow or parochial a century ago may be interwoven in our day with the well-being of the Nation. What is critical or urgent changes with the times. . . . The problem of preventing want in old age is plainly national in area and dimensions. Moreover, laws of the separate States cannot deal with it effectively. . . . Only a power that is national can serve the interests of all.

These decisions established the fact that Congress has a broad constitutional authority to enter the welfare field, either by direct Federal operation or by grants to the States. The question of which technique to adopt for a particular program appears to be a matter of legislative policy rather than constitutional limitation.

In our democracy, government is, in essence, a great cooperative enterprise to preserve and promote the well-being of free men and women under a system of free enterprise. President Lincoln once said: "It is the business of government to do for people what they cannot, as individuals, do for themselves." As problems of social security have become too broad and too complicated for individual solution or even for the solutions open to small groups of people, we have used government as a new means of attaining longstanding objectives. President Franklin D. Roosevelt pointed to this change in his social security message of June 8, 1934, in which he said:

Security was attained in the earlier days through the interdependence of members of families upon each other and of the families within a small community upon each other. The complexities of great communities and of organized industry make less real these simple means of security. Therefore, we are compelled to employ the active interest of the Nation

as a whole through government in order to encourage a greater security for each individual who composes it.

The Federal Social Security Act of 1935 became law because of the interest of the working people of this country in economic security and because of their insistence that their Government act. However, neither its objectives nor the various legislative devices we now include in the expression "social security" were new in the United States.

The Social Security Concept

The term "social security" is sometimes used to imply all the things that make up the good life, such as health, education, housing, and full employment, as well as maintenance of basic mini-

The Social Security Act of 1935 set up two lines of defense against want. The first line is social insurance; the second, public assistance.

Social insurance is a plan whereby a fund is built up out of contributions made by or on behalf of the insured worker to compensate him for part of the loss he suffers when he meets with the risk covered by the program—unemployment, old age, disability, or whatever else it may be. Like other forms of insurance, it spreads the cost of catastrophes that relatively few people suffer in a given year over large groups of persons, nearly all of whom are subject to the risk, and over periods of time. Benefits are paid only when a wage loss occurs, but the worker is not required to use up his own savings or other resources before he can qualify for benefits.

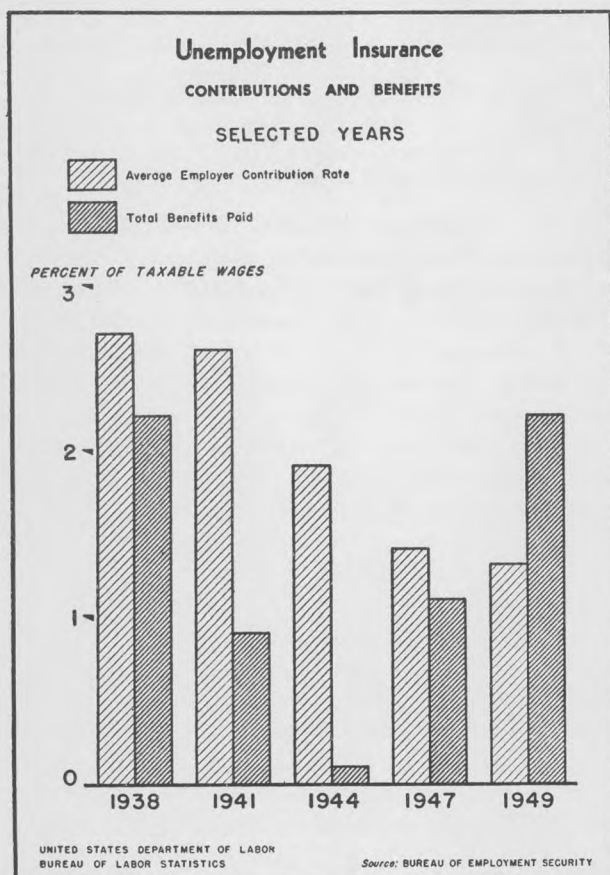
In contrast, public assistance provides cash payments only when the recipient can show that all his resources are insufficient to meet his minimum needs. In other words, public assistance involves a means test and social insurance does not. While public assistance is far better than the old, haphazard forms of "poor relief," working people find it much less desirable than social insurance. They want insurance against the major risks that may interrupt or stop their earnings so that they are not subjected to a means test or required to use up savings and other resources before they receive payment when misfortune occurs.

It is also of interest to the whole community, of course, that working people and their families should have some assured means of livelihood when the breadwinner is out of a job, sick, incapacitated by old age, or dies. It is in the interest of the community and the Nation that destitution and the resulting demoralization be prevented; the community should not be forced to patch it up after an individual economic catastrophe has occurred.

Social Insurance

Though the Social Security Act of 1935 represented the first permanent partnership in this field between Government and workers and employers throughout the country, neither social insurance nor public assistance was an innovation in the United States at that time.

In 1935, there had been in existence for a quarter of a century workmen's compensation laws that



mum family income during periods of adversity. More precisely, however, it is used to indicate a specific governmental program designed primarily to prevent want by assuring families of the basic means of subsistence and necessary medical care.

some States had enacted to provide cash benefits for a worker or his family for work-connected injury or death. Today all States have such laws, and a Federal law covers Federal employees. Even now, however—nearly 40 years after Wisconsin enacted the first law that was found constitutional—only 26 State laws (including Alaska, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia) and the Federal law cover all occupational diseases, as well as occupational accidents; and the laws of eight States do not cover any occupational disease. Moreover, these laws apply to only certain types of jobs, and somewhat less than half of all gainfully occupied persons have no protection under workmen's compensation. In addition, by far the largest part of the disability that workers suffer is not "work-connected" within the meaning of these laws. It is estimated that injuries and diseases covered by workmen's compensation laws represent less than 5 percent of all disabling illnesses in our labor force.

The United States so far has made little progress in social insurance against economic risks of sickness and disability. Four States (Rhode Island, California, New Jersey, and New York) have in effect laws providing cash payments during temporary disability to workers insured under their unemployment insurance laws, and the Federal Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act similarly compensates railroad workers. Protection against permanent and total disability is provided for railroad workers by the Railroad Retirement Act and for public employees by the Federal and some State retirement systems. Except for job-connected disabilities, however, American workers and their families have no recourse to social insurance to replace earnings lost when the breadwinner is sick or becomes permanently incapacitated before retirement age. There are no Federal or State laws that provide insurance against the costs of medical care required by workers or members of their families.

Unemployment was the central problem of workers and the country in the 1930's, and unemployment was the next form of social insurance to develop. Prior to Federal action, Wisconsin enacted a law in 1932, and four other States (California, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and New York) adopted legislation in 1935, before the Social Security Act became law on August 14 of that year. By the end of June 1937, all 48 States,

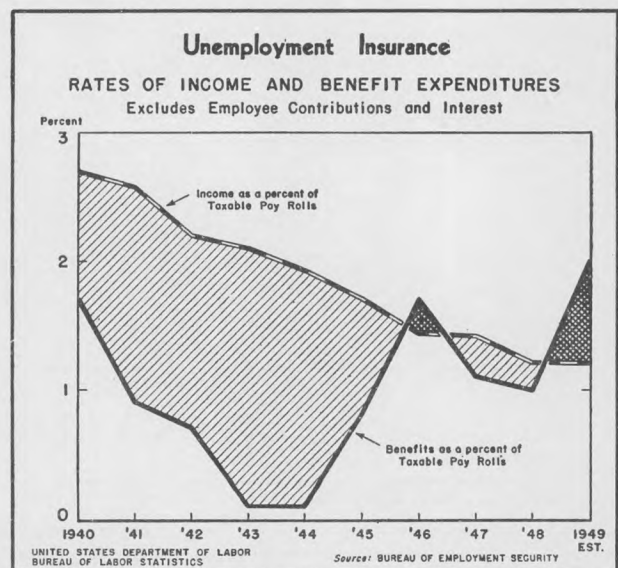
Alaska, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia had such laws. Subsequently a special Federal system of unemployment insurance was established for railroad workers.

The depression emphasized the plight of the aged as well as of the unemployed. A retirement program for Federal employees had been established shortly after World War I, but the first Federal law for industrial workers was the Railroad Retirement Act of 1934. This act was declared unconstitutional and was replaced by another in 1935. In that same year, the Social Security Act established a Federal contributory system of old-age benefits for most of the other workers in industry and commerce.

Important amendments to the Social Security Act, in 1939, extended the Federal system to include family benefits and survivors insurance.

Public Assistance

A social insurance system requires time to get under way. Workers must have time to earn the wage credits that will qualify them for benefits if they have occasion to claim them. An organization and records must be set up; reserves must be accumulated. Moreover, under practically any type of social insurance system, some individuals will not be able to qualify. Others will meet with prolonged misfortune or a series of catastrophes that will exhaust their benefit rights or will require larger payments than the system can properly afford.



The Social Security Act therefore set up a second line of defense against want through public assistance to persons in present need. The act provided Federal matching grants-in-aid to States for the needy aged, needy blind, and needy families with children who have been deprived of parental support by a parent's death, incapacity, or absence from the home.

Many States already had legislation on their statute books for "old-age pensions," "widows' pensions," and "blind pensions" that could be granted to needy persons, ordinarily under residence requirements and other eligibility conditions that greatly restricted the number of needy persons who could qualify for aid. Moreover, these State laws were usually optional with the counties and inoperative in many parts of a State, commonly in its poorer areas. The Social Security Act required that a State assistance program for which Federal funds were granted must be State-wide in operation and must receive

financial support from the State. These and other provisions of the Federal act and the availability of the matching Federal funds have greatly strengthened and improved the State programs for assistance to these special groups of needy persons.

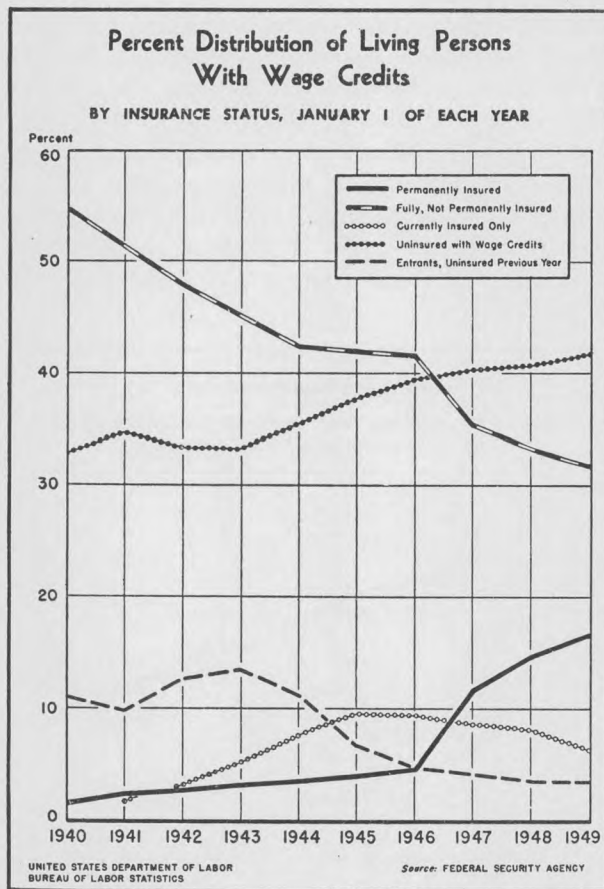
At present, all the 48 States, Alaska, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia are administering old-age assistance with the collaboration of the Federal Government under the Social Security Act. All these jurisdictions except Nevada are also administering aid to dependent children, and all but four, aid to the blind. Three States (Missouri, Nevada, and Pennsylvania) administer programs for aid to the blind without Federal financial participation.

Problems for the Future

The present Social Security Act is a significant milestone in the progress this country has made to assure its workers a minimum degree of economic security. It also furnishes a sound basis on which we can make further advances. That further advances must be made is clear from the dissatisfaction with the present legislation shown by labor and management, who have decided to superimpose their own benefit plans upon the existing social security structure. In the last analysis, however, development of social insurance will depend on the extent to which people themselves desire to make use of their Government.

Whatever the outcome, the goal of social security should be to provide a minimum basic security on which the worker and his family can build a desirable standard of individual security through their own initiative, thrift, and enterprise.

Medical-care insurance, often called health insurance, is at present the subject of considerable controversy. Health insurance must be distinguished from "socialized medicine," with which it is sometimes confused. Socialized medicine implies a system under which medical services are supplied by doctors employed by the Government. Health insurance, in contrast, implies a system under which medical services are provided by private practitioners paid from a special insurance fund for professional care of insured persons. In other words, socialized medicine is not only a way of spreading the costs of medical care, but also a



method of medical practice. Health insurance, on the other hand, is a method of spreading costs and does not replace the private practice of medicine.

Much thought will need to be given to the lines of demarcation between the security attained by individual action, as against group action, as well as between voluntary group action and compulsory governmental action. How much of the worker's security is to be achieved through use of his own savings? How much through voluntary, fraternal, social, and economic organizations? How much must the Government be responsible for, through

general programs? How far can the Government safely go and still avoid controls which encroach on habitudes of independence?

But in any event, the quest for security, if it is not to be misdirected, must have two important ingredients: First, germination in the atmosphere of political democracy which nurtures good ends from proper means; second, the firm structure of a full-employment economy in which social security measures comprise minor adjustments within a healthy economy, rather than inefficient cures for a sick economy.

“Six years ago workmen's compensation for industrial accidents became the most important issue in American labor legislation. In the half dozen years since 1910 the workmen's compensation movement has spread rapidly over the country, resulting in definite legislative accomplishments in practically all of the important industrial States. The United States Government, for its own half million employees, has this year [1916] adopted the most recent and the most liberal measure of all. The first step in the social-insurance program has thus been taken.”

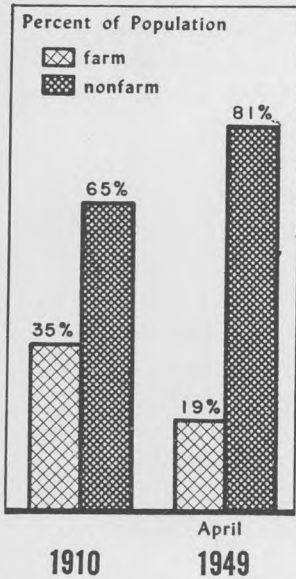
John B. Andrews: *Proposed Legislation for Health Insurance*, Proceedings of the Conference on Social Insurance, December 1916 (U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 212)

“Perhaps there is no deeper or more lasting desire in the hearts of wage earners than the desire for security—security of income during working life and after the time for productive labor is over. Fear of dependency is a specter that the organized labor movement would allay by union benefits and social security legislation as well as by establishing the worker's equity in his job. The principle of ownership of the product of one's toil is as old as our concept of private property. Present-day methods of production together with employer-employee relationships have obscured the principle and make it very difficult to secure its application. Unions, however, have attempted to establish a phase of this principle under the category ‘Equity in the job.’ Seniority rights, dismissal only for just cause, dismissal wages, and unemployment insurance are various methods by which unions have tried to establish the worker's right to his job and to make employment more secure.”

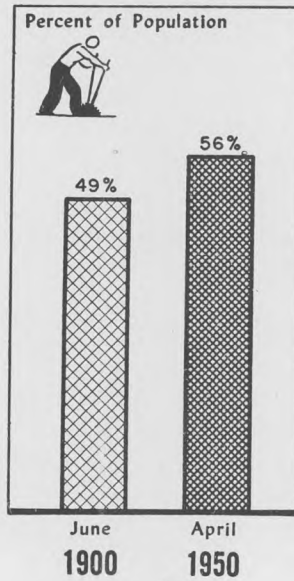
William Green: *The Goals of Organized Labor*, The Annals of The American Academy of Political and Social Science, March 1936.

A Half Century of Economic Growth

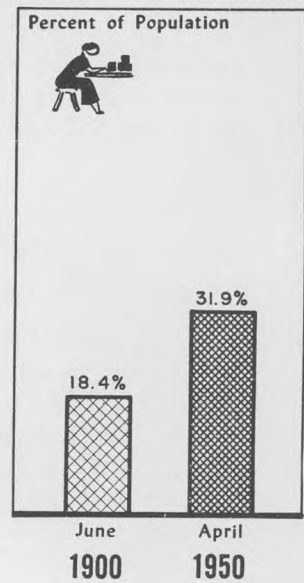
FARM AND NONFARM POPULATION



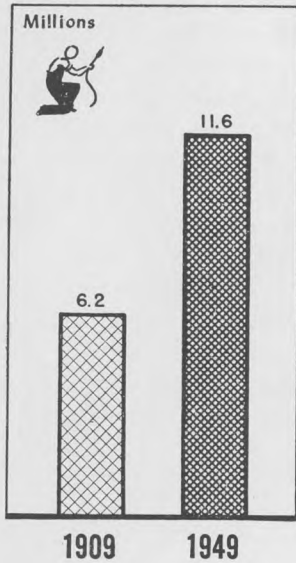
TOTAL LABOR FORCE



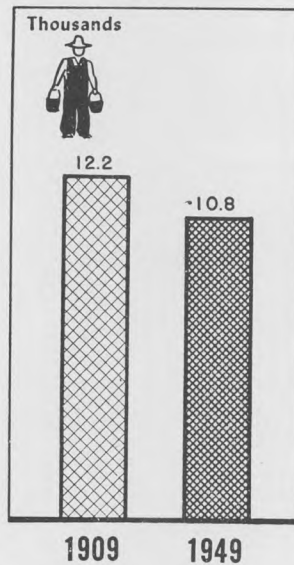
WOMEN IN LABOR FORCE



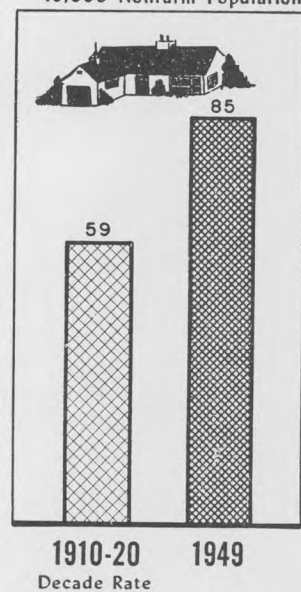
PRODUCTION WORKERS IN MANUFACTURING



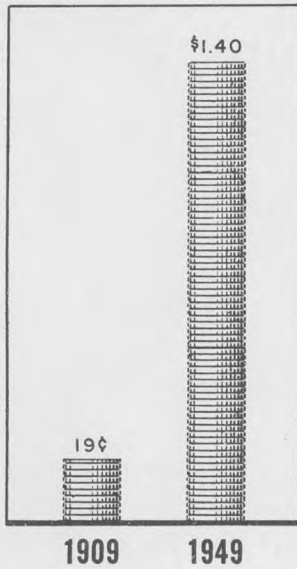
TOTAL FARM EMPLOYMENT



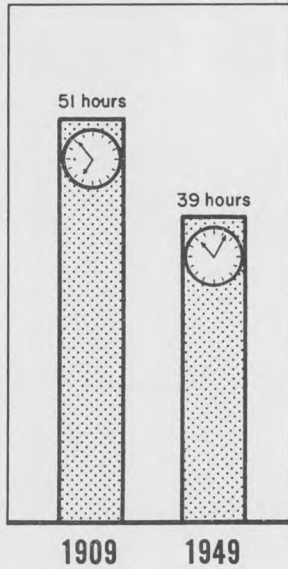
BUILDING RATE
New Dwelling Units per 10,000 Nonfarm Population



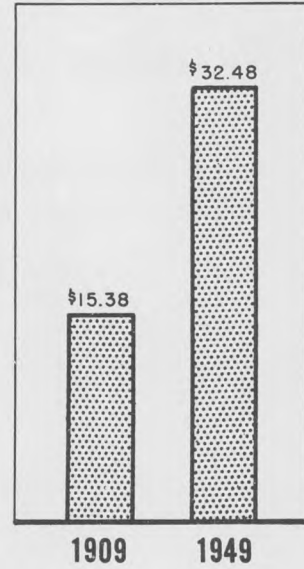
AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS
MANUFACTURING



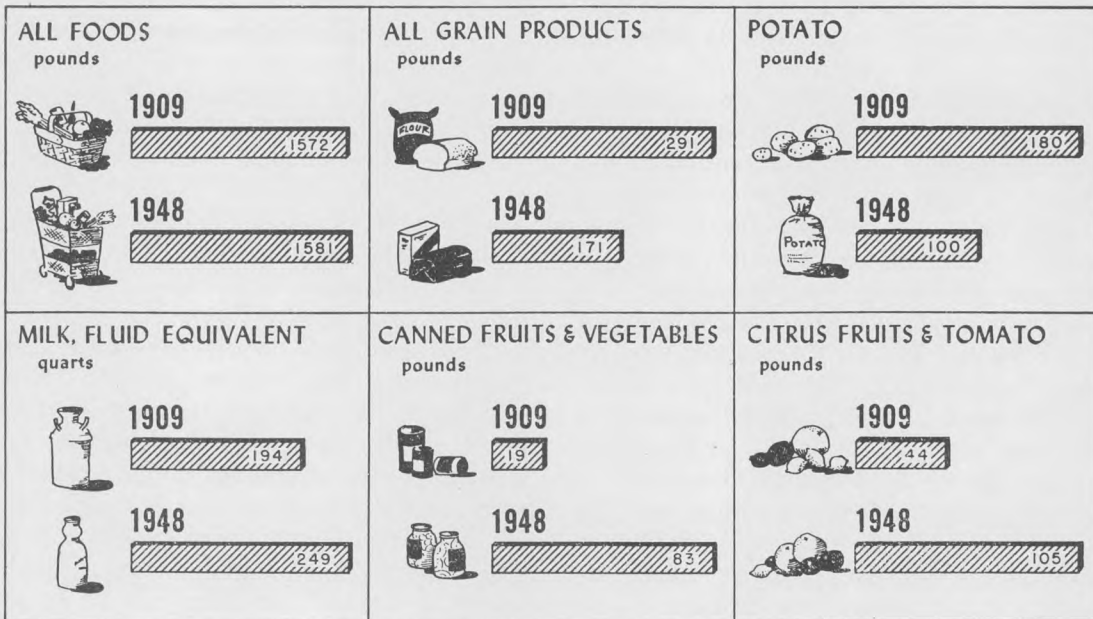
AVERAGE WEEKLY HOURS
MANUFACTURING



AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS
MANUFACTURING



Changes in Dietary Habits PER CAPITA



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Federal Reserve Board, Bureau of Labor Statistics

NOTE.—Average weekly earnings given above are in 1935-39 dollars.

The Worker and His Organizations

Labor's Objective of "Making Today Better
Than Yesterday" Is Predicated on Its Acceptance of Capitalism

GEORGE W. BROOKS

IN THE DEVELOPMENT of Western civilization, the American labor movement is something of a sport. It is the only national labor movement which was confronted during much of the first half of the 20th century by a determined anti-union management. It is the only one in which but one significant form of organization has remained—the trade-union; in Western Europe, workers are traditionally organized into consumer cooperatives and political parties as well.

It was not always so, however. At the turn of the century, there was much debate within the labor movement about forms of organization and methods, and no small number of schisms resulted from violent disagreements over these subjects. The previous half-century had been a period of extensive, and often rash, experimentation. By 1900, there were two fairly clear lines of development, which we may call for convenience "gradualism" and "socialism." Essentially, the difference was between those who felt that the salvation of the working class lay primarily in the possibilities of a political offensive, and those who felt that the only useful course of action was the gradual improvement of the economic status of the wage earner. Political action would be undertaken only for the purpose of protecting this economic gain.

But there were other—largely accidental—differences which were even more crucial in determining the resolution of the conflict and the future course of events. The socialists were

traditionally the advocates of "industrial" unionism; the "gradualists" were, for compelling economic reasons, chiefly "craft" unionists. Furthermore, the socialists were "internationalists."

Both alike confronted the most formidable obstacles. Except for transient periods, the attitude of government was hostile to trade-unions or at least tolerant of organized employer anti-unionism. The task of organization was especially difficult because of the successive waves of immigrants who came voluntarily or were brought here to provide an abundant supply of "cheap" labor. The times required a hard-fighting labor organization and the term is descriptive of the gradualists as well as the socialists. Gradualism implied no supine acceptance of things as they were.

During the years in which large-scale American industry came into full flower, American industrial management and ownership—except for some local market industries—waged an unremitting and largely successful warfare against all forms of labor organization. It is useless to speculate what might have been the course of labor history in this country in the absence of such opposition, but there can be no doubt that it was a major determinant. In its cruder forms, this warfare took the form of extensive use of spies, strike breakers, and agents provocateur. Its more effective form was a ceaseless flow of propaganda which persuaded most Americans that labor organizations were not consistent with "the American way of life."

Labor was handicapped in its attempts at rebuttal by the fact that it necessarily drew much of its own strength from among the recently immigrated population. From all parts of the Old World had come workers in search of freedom and a new life, and they brought with them a wide variety of political and economic opinions, many of which were unpalatable to the descendants of earlier immigrants. The socialists replied with defiance; the gradualists attempted to adjust themselves to the prevailing patterns of American thought, and it became their major objective to find acceptance and respectability.

The Triumph of Gradualism

Before the end of World War I, the conflict had been resolved in favor of the gradualists. It was a complete victory.

By far the most important element in producing this result was the enormous success of American capitalism. By the end of World War I, it was apparent to the whole world that a combination of a resourceful people, a large tariff-free market, vast natural resources, and a fecund technology were destined to produce material goods in abundance. It was this development which made gradualism a reasonable and workable philosophy.

The American Federation of Labor, founded in the 1880's, became the champion of this philosophy. Our objective, said Samuel Gompers—for nearly 40 years the undisputed leader of the labor movement in this country—is to make "today better than yesterday, and tomorrow better than today." By 1904, the AFL had more than 1½ million members, recruited mainly from the ranks of the skilled and semiskilled; it had seen its principal rival, the Knights of Labor, submerged and dissipated. The AFL had definitely become a significant part of the American scene. During the first 20 years of the 20th century, its numbers and influence grew until, in World War I, it was recognized as the spokesman, if not the representative, of the working class. It participated in the councils of government and achieved an acceptance and respectability which seemed at the time like the fruition of the long, hard struggle of earlier years.

Acceptance of Capitalism; Trade Agreements

This respectability was well deserved. Gradualism meant inevitably the acceptance of the capitalist system. Philosophically this had been the essential difference between the AFL and its rivals. It is difficult to realize today the extent to which such a viewpoint was once unacceptable to many working men. Even the advocates of "collaboration with the employing classes" had been apologetic about what they were doing. Such collaboration was a "temporary necessity" while labor found its feet.

But deep back in the 19th century, the pattern of a workable and productive relationship with employers had been developed in the form of the "collective bargain." Conceived in the first instance as a "truce in the struggle between workers and employers," the collective bargain has evolved in this country into the machinery of a permanent relationship—a relationship which persists and extends through and beyond any interruption of work due to a strike or lock-out. On the economic front, the history of labor in the first half of the 20th century is largely the history of the improvement of the collective bargain's technique and the extension of its content.

The Local and National Union

The form of organization developed by the union pioneers of the 1860's has proven to be excellently suited to this purpose. The essential unit of labor organization is the local union, a voluntary association of those persons working in a particular area in a particular skill or particular plant. Up to the time of the Civil War, collective bargaining was conducted in the main by such local unions. However, the development of a national market left these local unions helpless, and they ended by delegating most of their authority to national organizations of local unions. The real authority in the trade-union movement rested in these national organizations which were confined to a particular skill or industry. The subsequent development of federations of national labor unions was not accompanied by any significant re-delegation of authority.

It is in the field of collective bargaining that the labor organizations in this country have made their great social contribution. They have, to put it too briefly, brought order to the labor-management relationship. The chaotic, often tyrannical relationship of the employer to his employees, held together largely by fear, has, in organized industries, been replaced. A systematic, yet unburdensome set of rules governing wages, hours, and working conditions—the result of innumerable conferences and conflicts between unions and management—has developed to replace the old relationship.

Only recently has there been general recognition of the enormous significance of this contribution, but the recognition is now nearly complete in organized industries.

Success, Limited

This achievement was confined to a very limited portion of American industry, even at the end of World War I, when union membership reached the level of about 5 million. It was during the war that, for the first time, any progress at all was made toward organizing the shipbuilding, lumber, maritime, meat packing, and similar industries. Steel was partially organized, although no collective-bargaining contract was achieved. In these rapidly expanding mass-production industries, anti-unionism had been almost completely successful.

Another enormous segment of working people—the white-collar workers—were also almost completely unorganized. Membership in unions for clerks, office workers, and teachers was only a tiny fraction of the total workers in these groups. This was a serious matter because, numerically and proportionately, mass-production workers and white-collar workers were rapidly increasing.

The 1920's, an era of optimism for everyone else, were ushered in gloomily for the labor movement. Many of the gains made during the war were nullified by anti-union campaigns in a large number of industries. The new unions in shipbuilding, meat packing, lumber, and steel were virtually wiped out. In some industries, notably water transportation and logging, the Administration openly led the fight against the unions. In general, the Government's attitude was friendly to the anti-unionists. By 1930, the AFL was barely

holding its membership at 3 million, while the population as a whole, and the industrial population in particular, was rapidly increasing.

The Socialists and the IWW Destroyed

In spite of these reverses, it was hard to make a case for adopting the Socialist view at this point. In 1917, the Socialists opposed the war; the price was annihilation. In 1912, the Socialists had mustered more than a third of all the votes in the AFL convention on several major issues; by 1922, their influence in the AFL was negligible.

The case of the Industrial Workers of the World was even more dramatic. The IWW was the organization which made the first serious attempt in the United States to organize the unskilled workers. They had some momentary and dramatic successes in the textile industry, and some more deep-rooted influence—still discernible—among the loggers and the casual agricultural workers. Eschewing "class collaboration," they refused to erect any stable collective bargaining relationship; and they, too, took an internationalist position in 1917. The decline of the IWW, therefore, began even before the end of the war. By 1921, the IWW hardly existed.

The Lessons of World War I

Two lessons were obvious. Experience in the maritime and lumber industries showed that unions could not maintain themselves against an openly hostile administration. But the experience with wartime labor boards pressed the conclusion further. Such organization as was achieved during World War I in mass-production industries was in large part a direct result of the Government's insistence upon uninterrupted production. Federal agencies were established for the mediation and arbitration of disputes in crucial industries. These agencies formalized the status of labor organizations, and usually insisted at least upon "recognition" of the unions as collective-bargaining representatives. It was reasonable to conclude that in the strongholds of anti-unionism, a merely passive Government would not suffice—an actively friendly administration was necessary.

The second lesson was even clearer—internationalism had no survival value in the labor movement here.

The Price of Employer Opposition

With significant exceptions, most major industries have today accepted collective bargaining as a permanent fact of American economic life. It is frequently regarded as bad taste to mention the unpleasant past. But an understanding of what happened in the first half of the century, and what may happen in the second half, requires an assessment of the fact that most employers did oppose unions with all the means at their disposal until less than 15 years ago.

One phenomenon which must be directly attributed to this attitude is the existence in this country (as in no other) of Federal protection and regulation of the right to organize. This concept, which looked simple enough in the beginning, has grown into a vast and detailed body of doctrine, often reaching into the minutiae of labor-management relations and of internal union problems. A substantial part of what the labor movement used to do for itself is now being done for it by the Federal Government. Perhaps the outstanding example is the way in which the control over "jurisdiction" has been removed from the federations by the processes of the National Labor Relations Board.

It may also fairly be laid at the door of management that, in significant respects, organized labor is not well prepared for some of the problems which confront it today. The damming up by employers of the widespread desire to organize resulted in retarding what would have been a more normal rate of growth. This damming-up process resulted suddenly in a series of new, ebullient unions, with little mature leadership on which to draw and with totally inadequate staff functions. It is ironical that employers should owe so much since 1935 to the experienced, mature trade-union leadership which they fought so hard and so successfully before 1935.

Whatever its consequences, the policy of anti-unionism was astonishingly successful. In the construction industry, and in some metalworking industries, labor organizations had held tenaciously to their positions, but the overwhelming majority of employees were untouched by unionism. During the 1920's the two principal industrial-type unions, in coal and textiles, fell on evil days; it was the craft-unionist who had the greatest "staying power." This was one of the major tenets of

trade-union belief in the 1920's, and part of an essentially conservative approach to methods. The craft-unionist also, and again by virtue of experience, was deeply suspicious of all "intellectuals," "outsiders," and the Government. The lesson of World War I had been only partially learned; until 1931, the AFL was opposed even to Federal social-security programs.

The defeat of labor was not only organizational; it was spiritual, as well. The new optimism of America in the 1920's represented an unlimited faith in American industry. It left no room for what was regarded as the "restrictive" and "leveling" effect of trade-unionism.¹ These views were not confined to business and professional people; they were shared by most wage earners.

But the dream was shattered in 1929.

The Flowering of Trade-Unionism

The first 4 years of the depression in the 1930's destroyed the elaborate structure which the American economy had built against trade-unions. The rush of workers into unions, even before adequate protection against employer discrimination was provided, was noisy evidence that a new day had arrived. The National Industrial Recovery Act and the National Labor Relations Act were simply the expression of a widespread belief among workers that the old gods had been unseated. Protection of the right to organize was written into the statutes; even more significant, the encouragement of collective bargaining was declared to be national policy. From 1933 to 1940, membership in the trade-union movement rose from 3,000,000 to 8,000,000. During the labor shortage and rising price level of the next 10 years, membership increased to a peak of 15,000,000.

The Congress of Industrial Organizations

The first impact of these changes produced a major schism in the labor movement. A group of AFL presidents, led by John L. Lewis of the United Mine Workers, urged the granting of industrial-type charters in the mass-production industries. The AFL, they said, had been notably unsuccessful in organizing the unskilled workers, largely because of its insistence upon the "jurisdiction" of the craft unions in all industries. The AFL was attempting to develop a council type of organization to meet

the situation, but Lewis and his associates felt that this was mere temporizing.

The industrial unionists lost in the 1935 convention, and an extra-legal committee was established by this group, known as the Committee for Industrial Organization. Later, as the Congress of Industrial Organizations, it became a rival federation. In the most dramatic period in American labor history, the CIO organized the steel, auto, rubber, oil, and other industries. With the rejuvenated United Mine Workers of America, they constituted in the aggregate a powerful economic organization of mass-production workers. Precisely because its strength lay in the mass-production industries, the CIO found that it had some special problems. For example, it was much more sharply affected, as an organization, by serious declines of production. Moreover, it had all the problems of newness—untried leadership, unassimilated membership, and so on. For these reasons, the CIO discovered and encouraged new interests among workingmen—in new forms of security, in high level employment, in more political action, and more workers' education.

The AFL in New Clothes

So dramatic were the successes of the CIO, that many of its members were confident that the CIO would presently replace the AFL as the organization of American workers. But startled by the aggressive competition of the CIO, the AFL suddenly showed an astonishing capacity for change. Modifying the traditional craft-union position, a number of AFL unions began organizing aggressively and successfully on an industrial basis. Industrial-type unions had always existed to a certain extent in such industries as paper, glass, and clothing; but they had been relatively weak. During the 1930's and 1940's, they enjoyed the same rapid growth that the CIO unions were experiencing. Some of the unions in the citadel of craft-unionism, Carpenters, Electrical Workers, and Machinists, began to organize industrial-type locals and districts on a large scale. In 1950, the AFL claims a membership of about 8 million members, as opposed to the CIO claim of about 6 million—a reflection, in large part, of the speed with which it had modified its policies to meet the new situation.

New Interests

The newly found strength of the trade-unions inevitably produced new interests and aspirations. Labor was forging its own philosophy, in place of the philosophy of the "new capitalism" which had been destroyed by the depression. Labor came more closely to grips with basic social and economic problems. The results up to now have been less significant than the development of the awareness of responsibility and of power to carry out the responsibility. There is a new and different interest in the problems of management. No serious evidence of widespread "syndicalist" philosophy is evident, but labor has begun to assert its interest and stake in successful and wise management, and in management conducted with a plain eye to the interests of the workers in the industry. Outstanding in the new philosophy is a persistent expression of interest in problems of security, to be achieved through Government action and supplemented where possible in collective bargaining. Closely associated with this is an insistent, and even overriding, interest in economic stability, which many labor leaders feel to be the indispensable requirement for continued success of labor organization.

Underneath all these, and perhaps more important than any of them, is the steadily growing interest in political and social education. Workingmen possess today vastly greater resources, both organizationally and personally, than ever before. Some of these resources are being used by American workers to equip themselves for a more significant role in public affairs.

International Ties

From its earliest days, the American trade-union movement was influenced strongly by the waves of immigrant workers who brought with them their old organizational patterns. Gompers, especially, was active in encouraging international trade-union ties. At all times, however, he favored the establishment of a purely trade-union international organization, distinct from an international political organization that was strongly socialist. Thus, in the years before the formation of the International Federation of Trade Unions in 1913, AFL unions had been active in the various international craft bodies called international

trade secretariats. The AFL itself was affiliated with the IFTU from its inception.

After a period of inactivity during World War I, the IFTU resumed its work. Influenced by the widespread American feeling against foreign involvements and by the radical character of the renewed IFTU, however, the AFL severed its connection. But during the early 1920's, Gompers initiated excellent cooperation between the AFL and the Latin-American trade-unions.

In the middle 1930's, a combination of two series of events resulted in renewed interest by the AFL in the IFTU. At home, the CIO had arisen as a strong minority influence among American workers. Abroad, fascism threatened the trade-union movements of many countries. In 1937, the AFL re-affiliated with the IFTU.

World War II saw some new important changes in the international labor picture. After the war the trade-union movements of most countries were anxious to form a federation which included Soviet trade-unions. The AFL declined the opportunity to join the new organization, the World Federation of Trade Unions, because of its opposition to the entry of the Soviet unions and because of its contention that only a single trade-union center from any country should be included in the international body. The CIO joined the World Federation of Trade Unions, but withdrew after it openly became an instrument of Soviet foreign policy through its control by the Soviet trade-unions.

The American trade-union movement grasped the new opportunity presented by the break-up of the WFTU in 1949 and was active in the formation of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. For the first time, there exists today an international trade-union organization in which the AFL and the CIO are both represented.

New Methods?

The extent of the actual change up to now can easily be overestimated. In the early 19th century, the first associations of workers selected a representative to talk to the employer, made an agreement with him if possible, and struck if they could not. Sometimes they asked other organized workers not to handle the products of an employer

with whom they had been unable to secure an agreement. The formation of national unions in the latter half of the 19th century produced no essential modifications in these methods, except that a number of local unions pooled their resources to organize unorganized plants and to give each other support in times of strike.

Generally these time-honored methods are the methods of the labor movement today. Since the turn of the century, the labor movement has been conservative in method. The only essential modifications in collective-bargaining techniques which have occurred since 1900 have been due to the thrust of economic circumstance, and not to any internal compulsion. The most perplexing problems are those which are raised by the growing magnitude and complexity of our economic system. Big industry has become so big, and has so many strings to its bow, that a collective bargain—to be effective—must, of necessity, cover in one negotiation a larger and larger number of employees over a wide area. In turn, the interdependence of industries is now so great that a shut-down of a key corporation or group of corporations necessarily has serious and widespread repercussions.

This issue is certainly the most crucial to the traditional collective-bargaining process, and is one which is the subject of persistent and lively discussion within the organized labor movement. Is it practicable to strike an electric utility plant? A railroad? An atomic energy plant? And if the answer to these questions is no, as many trade-unionists believe it is, what are the alternatives? The problem has two different but related aspects. There is the strategic question as to whether public reaction makes it *unwise* to conduct such a strike; there is a separate question as to whether the Government, in the "public interest," can or will take steps to prevent or end a shut-down in a "critical" industry.

The organized labor movement, in general, believes that the "right to strike" should be limited as little as possible, and not merely for selfish reasons. They feel that the alternative, Government regulation, would eventually prove fatal to the entire free enterprise system, and almost all contemporary trade-union leaders are committed, by belief and action, to free enterprise. But this sense of direction often fails to provide the answer to a specific problem.

Business at the Old Stand

But taking account of all this, the outstanding fact about the American labor movement is that it operates mainly in ways that were established in the early part of the century—and before. In its long history, the AFL has had only one successful rival, and it is significant that it is the only rival which ever adopted the philosophy, the methods, and the structure of the AFL itself. The exception in methods was in the new emphasis on industrial-type unions and even here, the CIO and AFL are becoming barely distinguishable.

For all trade-unions in the United States, collective bargaining is the business of the day. Essentially, all unions are operating in the philosophy of Mr. Gompers' AFL. They are striving to make "tomorrow better than today."

As in the past, the main business of the union is collective bargaining and the organization of the unorganized. Of about 43 million nonagricultural persons "gainfully occupied," barely 35 percent are organized. Not all the 43 million are "organizable," but labor leaders think that most of them are, and that this is the principal item of unfinished business. The problems are strikingly similar to those of the past. In the large white-collar group, numbering into many millions, employer opposition to unionism is still very strong. Farm laborers, and some other groups not covered by the National Labor Relations Act, are confronted by employer opposition as violent and uncompromising as any which existed in the mass-production industries.

How Far Can Collective Bargaining Go?

Another issue concerns the future of collective bargaining itself. Of late, much has been said about the inroads made by organized labor into "management's prerogatives." The existence of a collective-bargaining agreement is an acknowledgment by management that certain of its previously unilateral practices are now subject to discussion with the union. Over a period of time, the subjects covered by such discussions and agreements have been slowly broadened, partly with Government help. How far this process can and should go is a current subject of lively discussion. Some representatives of management fear that further inroads into "management's prerogatives" may

destroy the flexibility which is a condition of progress. Restrictions or delay in technological change are cited as one of the hazards of the development.

Labor takes the opposite view, and cites its cooperation in facilitating technological change as an example of one of its most important contributions to orderliness and progress in industry. With the exception of some unions operating mainly in local markets, labor unions have for the most part welcomed technological change. Indeed, they may have eased technological change by insisting on certain employee protection. Transfer and reemployment rights, retraining programs, and (most of all) a collective-bargaining representative, have helped to remove fear of technological change from the minds of the employees.

Traditional Forms of Political Action

In politics, too, business is being done mainly at the old stand. In 1905 and 1906, the AFL conducted an extensive political campaign on a "reward your friends and punish your enemies" basis because of the crippling effect of labor injunctions and the application of the Sherman Act to trade-unions. Since then, there have been excursions into independent labor politics; but in 1950, political activity is back in the active pattern of 1905.

Primarily, the trade-union is a form of organization developed for a special purpose, the negotiation of collective-bargaining contracts with employers. It has served its members—and society—well in the performance of this function. Normally, the trade-union is not interested in politics; its purposes can usually be served without recourse or attention to political action. But "normal" in this context means the particular kind of economic and political society which has actually prevailed in this country during most of the first half of the 20th century. The economic climate has favored collective bargaining because we have had an expanding economy and a minimum of Federal regulation.

From time to time, as in 1905 and in 1947, this situation was threatened; and the trade-unions, *for defensive purposes only*, then turned to political action to protect their flanks. This is the only country in which the political activities of workers are conducted through the trade-unions. The fact is that the trade-union, so excellently adapted to

the purpose of collective bargaining, is ill-adapted to political action. Trade-unions are not organized geographically. Thus, a union which is powerful in dealing with the employers of a particular industry may have its membership so widely dispersed throughout the country that its influence *politically* in any given area may be very slight. The half-hearted support given to so much of the political activity of labor is a reflection of these difficulties rather than of disinterest.

The great change of the past 15 years is, therefore, a change in strength. Collective bargaining, not at all new, has come into its own as the predominant way of handling labor-management relations. But evidence points to a growing belief that this is not enough for labor.

A new mood of experimentation is certainly present. The evidences of this new mood are to be found in the growing interest and participation in international affairs, in legislation, in politics, and in education. While clinging to the familiar and productive practice of collective bargaining, the organized labor movement will certainly seek new techniques for expressing new aspirations in the years ahead. Whether these techniques can be carried out within the old framework of trade-unions, or will require some new structural form, will be decided before the second half of this century is very old.

¹ Organized labor has always felt that this allegation is unfair and (for the most part) untrue. It points to the gains in productive efficiency resulting from labor-management cooperation and from the orderliness of labor-management relations in organized plants.

“The signing of the Protocol, or treaty of peace, in September 1910, between the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Manufacturers’ Protective Association and the Joint Board of the Cloak and Skirt Makers’ Unions of New York City not only terminated a bitterly contested strike but it established machinery of mediation and arbitration for dealing with future disputes concerning wages, hours, and working conditions, and machinery of inspection and regulation for dealing with sanitary conditions. . . .

“The most significant feature of the Protocol was its establishment of three new agencies—the preferential union shop, a scheme for the adjustment of disputes which virtually set up a system of industrial courts for the trade, and the Joint Board of Sanitary Control—which have already affected profoundly the conditions of the industry. . . .

“The unique feature of the Protocol is the fact that it was not intended as a temporary agreement, but as a permanent treaty, designed to avert violent contests between the manufacturers and workers for all time.”

Charles H. Winslow: *Conciliation, Arbitration, and Sanitation in the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry in New York City*. United States Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Labor Bulletin No. 98, January 1912.

Labor, Legislation, and the Role of Government

NATHAN P. FEINSINGER
AND EDWIN E. WITTE

Part I. The Growth of Protective Labor Legislation

The Situation in 1900

STATUTES AND COURT DECISIONS concerned with unions, collective bargaining, labor disputes, and protective labor standards were much less voluminous in 1900 than now. The first nongovernmental study of American labor legislation, *The Handbook to the Labor Law of the United States*, by Frederick L. Stimson, appeared in 1896. This digested and annotated every statute separately and minutely, and included much material which would not now be regarded as labor legislation. It held fewer than 400 pages. Yet, the author, noting that there were 35 different types of labor laws, observed that only "perhaps a dozen are wise and proper for a free people."

Most of the statutes dealing with labor in 1900 were oriented toward the individual worker and were protective in character. Nearly all States had some child labor laws, but these generally permitted full-time employment from 12 years on and a maximum 10-hour day. Most States also had some industrial or mine safety laws, all of them of limited application but highly specific. Only slight beginnings had been made with hours-of-labor laws. Workmen's compensation was still a decade away. There were labor departments in about half the States, State boards of arbitration in 17, and public employment offices in a half dozen.

Stimson found that of 1,639 labor laws passed in the preceding 10 years, 114 had been held unconstitutional as invasions of freedom of contract. But by 1900 the constitutionality of child labor and industrial safety legislation had been recog-

nized, and the Supreme Court of the United States had held that hours of labor might be restricted in industries presenting unusual health hazards.¹

The law governing labor relations was mainly to be found in general statutes and in court decisions based on the common law. Under these, unions and collective bargaining were lawful, but much of what labor did in labor disputes was unlawful or of uncertain legality.

The Federal Government figured in a very minor way in labor legislation. Federal statutes limited hours of labor only in employment by or in behalf of the United States. Some provisions in the immigration laws were designed for the protection of American labor, but it was not until after World War I that immigration was drastically restricted. The Federal courts had played a large part in the use of injunctions in labor disputes, with the Pullman strike of 1894 first attracting wide attention. There also were several instances in big strikes, prior to 1900, in which Federal troops were used to preserve law and order and in which the President appointed contemporary counterparts of fact-finding boards. From 1888, on, Federal statutes encouraged conciliation and arbitration on railroads. In 1885, the Bureau of Labor, precursor of the present Bureau of Labor Statistics, was established.

From 1900 to World War I

Since 1900, protective labor legislation has increased immensely in scope and volume. The last compilation of the labor laws of the country in a single volume was Bulletin No. 370 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1925)—more than 1,200 narrow-margined pages of small type. Yet, it was not annotated and completely excluded the work-

men's compensation laws and general orders having the effect of statutes. Since 1925, labor legislation has further greatly increased, although less spectacularly.

Protective labor legislation has been enacted or modified in nearly every session of all State legislatures during this century. There never has been a period of retrogression or complete cessation of progress. The greatest advances in protective labor legislation, however, were during the periods 1907-17 and 1932-38.

The great advances in the period immediately preceding World War I were attributable in part to the progressive sentiment of the day and to the support by organized labor; but there also was imaginative leadership furnished by "intellectuals" and "reformers" associated with the American Association for Labor Legislation and the National Consumers' League. During this period were enacted the present-day, all-inclusive industrial safety laws, the first workmen's compensation laws, the first minimum wage laws, the first laws for part-time vocational education for employed children, the pioneer modern apprenticeship law, and the first State anti-injunction laws. The standards of child labor laws were greatly improved, many more States established public employment offices, and most States enacted their first women's hours-of-work laws. At about the same time, the centralized type of State labor department, with broad order-making powers, was developed.

Concurrently, the Federal Government became more important in labor legislation. Congress in 1908 enacted the Employers' Liability Act, governing recovery for industrial accidents to railroad employees; the Clayton Act of 1914, regulating the issuance of injunctions in the Federal courts; and the Adamson Act of 1916, establishing a basic 8-hour day on the railroads. In 1913, the U. S. Department of Labor was established, and soon thereafter, as bureaus within this department, the U. S. Conciliation Service and the first U. S. Employment Service.

Moreover, the courts adopted a distinctly more favorable attitude toward protective labor legislation. Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States definitely established the constitutionality of all reasonable hours-of-labor laws and of workmen's compensation legislation.²

The Nineteen-twenties

After the close of the war, the only important new type of labor legislation developed was compulsory arbitration in labor disputes. The Transportation Act of 1920 vested power to make binding decisions in railroad disputes in a public body, the Railroad Labor Board, but without directly restricting strikes. In the same year, Kansas established a Court of Industrial Relations for compulsory arbitration of disputes in many essential industries, with criminal penalties against striking. Neither of these statutes remained in effect very long. The Supreme Court held the Kansas law unconstitutional in its application to meat packing and coal mining.³ The Railroad Labor Board functioned so unsatisfactorily that both sides agreed to replacement of compulsory arbitration by the Railroad Labor Act of 1926, which, with extensive amendments adopted in 1934, is still effective.

In other fields, particularly in workmen's compensation, there was some improvement in detail and in administration. During this period, however, more labor legislation was held unconstitutional than at any other time, including minimum wage legislation for women, wage fixing in compulsory arbitration, and the regulation of private employment agencies' fees.⁴ The Supreme Court also struck down the first attempts by the Federal Government at regulatory labor legislation of general application—the Federal child labor laws of 1916 and 1919.⁵

The Depression Years

The 1930's were another decade of great developments. Under imaginative leadership furnished by a strengthened U. S. Department of Labor, many additions and improvements were made in the State labor laws, particularly in the Southern States, which up to this time had seriously lagged behind the rest of the country. All States established or expanded their public employment services under the stimulus of Federal grants-in-aid. Six States passed "Little Wagner" Acts. Much new minimum wage legislation was enacted, and child labor and women's hours-of-labor laws were greatly improved.

But the most important labor legislation was that enacted by Congress. This included the

Norris-La Guardia Act of 1932, section 7 (a) of the National Industrial Recovery Act, and the National Labor Relations (Wagner) Act of 1935, which represented a conscious attempt to encourage labor unionism and collective bargaining. In the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933, Congress reorganized the U. S. Employment Service on a cooperative basis with the States and thereby created a permanent, Nation-wide system of public employment offices. This was further expanded in the Social Security Act of 1935, when the employment offices were tied in closely with unemployment compensation. Finally, in the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, Congress prescribed maximum hours of labor and minimum wage rates, and regulated child labor in interstate commerce.

Perhaps even more important than these statutory advances were decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States which clearly established the constitutionality of all reasonable labor legislation. In 1937, the Court reversed prior decisions holding minimum wage legislation to be unconstitutional, sustained labor relations legislation favorable to unions, and broadly construed the powers of the Federal Government in relation to interstate commerce.⁶

The War and Postwar Years

Since 1938, there again has been a period of slackened advance in labor legislation. During World War II, restrictions upon child labor were relaxed in many States and other protective legislation was either suspended or not enforced. These relaxations have since been withdrawn and some improvements have been made. But fair employment practice and equal pay legislation, neither of which has as yet become general, are the only two new types of protective labor laws to be developed. In the main, State and Federal protective labor legislation in 1950 was at the 1939

level, but it had less significance because of favorable economic conditions.

Increase in the minimum rate by the Federal Fair Labor Standards Amendments of 1949, passage of improved State legislation, and indications of revived interest in protective labor legislation, presage another era of great progress.

In the 1940's, labor-management relations legislation has completely overshadowed protective labor legislation in much the same way that actions of the Federal Government have overshadowed those of the States. A broad change in the direction of labor relations legislation has occurred. Prior legislation designed to encourage unionism and collective bargaining has been modified to include "equalizing" features in the form of restrictions upon unions and governmental regulation of collective bargaining. This trend began in some of the States in 1939, and reached its culmination in 1947 in the substitution, nationally, of the Taft-Hartley Act for the Wagner Act, and in the enactment of restrictive labor relations laws in no less than 30 States. Only a few of these State laws have since been repealed or held unconstitutional.

¹ *Holden v. Hardy*, 169 U. S. 366, 18 Sup. Ct. 383 (1898).

² On hours legislation the most important decisions were *Lochner v. New York*, 198 U. S. 45, 25 Sup. Ct. 539 (1905); *Muller v. Oregon*, 208 U. S. 412, 28 Sup. Ct. 324 (1908); *Bunting v. Oregon*, 243 U. S. 246, 37 Sup. Ct. 435 (1917); *Wilson v. New*, 243 U. S. 332, 37 Sup. Ct. 289 (1917). On workmen's compensation: *Ives v. South Buffalo R. Co.*, 201 N. Y. 271, 94 N. E. 431 (1911); *New York Central R. Co. v. White*, 243 U. S. 188, 37 Sup. Ct. 247 (1917); *Mountain Timber Co. v. Washington*, 243 U. S. 219, 37 Sup. Ct. 260 (1917).

³ *Wolff Packing Co. v. Court of Industrial Relations*, 262 U. S. 522, 43 Sup. Ct. 630 (1923), 267 U. S. 552, 45 Sup. Ct. 441 (1925); *Dorchy v. Kansas*, 227 U. S. 306, 47 Sup. Ct. 86 (1926).

⁴ *Children's Hospital v. Adkins*, 261 U. S. 525, 43 Sup. Ct. 394 (1923) (minimum wage); *Wolff Packing Co. v. Court of Industrial Relations*, 262 U. S. 522, 43 Sup. Ct. 630 (1923); 267 U. S. 552, 45 Sup. Ct. 441 (1925) (compulsory arbitration); *Ribnick v. McBride*, 277 U. S. 350, 48 Sup. Ct. 545 (1928) (private employment agency fees).

⁵ *Hammer v. Dagenhart*, 247 U. S. 251, 38 Sup. Ct. 529 (1918); *Bailey v. Drexel Furniture Co.*, 259 U. S. 20, 42 Sup. Ct. 449 (1922).

⁶ The leading cases to be noted are *West Coast Hotel Co. v. Parish*, 300 U. S. 379, 57 Sup. Ct. 578 (1937); *N. L. R. B. v. Jones & Laughlin Steel Corporation*, 301 U. S. 1, 57 Sup. Ct. 615 (1937); *U. S. v. Darby*, 312 U. S. 100, 61 Sup. Ct. 124 (1941).

Part II.

Fifty Years of Government in Labor-Management Relations

LABOR'S PROGRESS through the half-century in the field of labor-management relations has been decidedly influenced by the attitude of the government in all its branches and at all levels.

From labor's viewpoint, the government's attitude must be appraised in terms of labor's success in accomplishing its basic objectives, which are perhaps most clearly and simply summarized in section 7 of the original Wagner Act¹ as follows:

Employees shall have the right to self-organization, to form, join, or assist labor organizations, to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, and to engage in concerted activities, for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid or protection.

While stated in terms of the rights of employees, this proposition was intended—and interpreted—to apply to the organization by national unions of unorganized shops, and thus to protect the organized workers by use of labor's traditional economic weapons of self-help—the strike, the picket line, and the boycott. This was clearly the area of practical and legal controversy prior to the Wagner Act.

Obstacles to Union Activity—1900–1930

Prior to the 1930's,² labor sought to accomplish its objectives of organization and collective bargaining mainly through self-help. Employer resistance, where it occurred, took the form first, of counter self-help, and second, resort to governmental assistance. Methods or instrumentalities of employer self-help included the lock-out, discriminatory discharge, the yellow dog contract, the labor spy, the blacklist, the strikebreaker and armed guards, and the company union. Governmental assistance took various forms. The executive authorities, for example, often enforced the employer's position through the use of the police, the State militia, or Federal troops.

State Laws. On the legislative side, labor's concerted activities were hampered by two types of statutes or local ordinances: those designed expressly to restrict union activities; those of general

application which were so construed and applied, and which, in some cases, were prompted in the first instance by labor difficulties. In the first category, at the State level, were statutes prohibiting boycotting and picketing. In the second were laws making a "conspiracy" a criminal offense; anti-trust laws, prohibiting activities in "restraint of trade" or attempts at "monopoly";³ laws prohibiting "coercion," "intimidation," or "threats"; laws prohibiting unlawful interference with the operations of railroads and mines; and anti-syndicalism laws.

Effective Use of Federal Statutes. State legislation restricting union activities, while greater in volume, was less significant than Federal legislation. The Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890 made no direct reference to labor combinations or disputes, but was applied with devastating effect to various concerted activities of labor unions. Thus, in the *Danbury Hatters* case,⁴ the act was held to apply to a strike accompanied by an interstate boycott against the product of an employer who had refused to unionize his plant. Of the varying interpretations placed upon this and subsequent decisions,⁵ labor inferred the worst, namely, that the very existence of unions would be endangered by combinations of workers being adjudged in restraint of trade.

Dominant Role of the Courts. In many respects, the attitude of the judiciary was the dominant force in shaping the history of labor-management relations, and the fate of organized labor, until the 1930's. Our courts have never held directly that the simple act of workers combining to form a union was illegal. Neither have they held, since 1900, that a simple strike to improve wages, hours, or working conditions⁶ was illegal at common law, at least when confined to a dispute between an employer and his immediate employees. But even in such a relationship a strike was frequently held illegal when the "end" or "object" or "purpose" involved an action or result of which the court disapproved on grounds of social or economic policy, e. g., the closed shop.

Again, a strike against the immediate employer for a concededly legitimate objective was often held illegal because the court disapproved of the "concomitants" thereof, i. e., the "means" or "method" used to attain the end, notably picket-

ing, even though peaceful. Again, peaceful and nonfraudulent activities were often held illegal on the ground that the defendant union had enlarged the area of the dispute by putting economic pressure on parties other than the immediate employer—e. g., the boycott; or that the defendant union had intervened in a dispute with which it had no concern, e. g., the sympathetic strike.

In justifying such decisions, the courts invoked refined legal theories of "conspiracy," "just cause," "malice," and "restraint of trade."

Some judges analyzed the labor-management conflict, with its impact on the public, in more realistic terms. For example, Holmes, J., dissenting in *Vegeahn v. Guntner*,⁷ pointed out that the policy of free competition was accepted in the United States as worth while to society, despite its costs; that the concept of competition applied to the relations between employers and employed; that competition in this area as in others necessarily means combination; that in such competition organized labor should be free to persuade others, barring force or threats of force, to withhold services or patronage. But Holmes and other realists were in the minority. And, as late as 1921, the United States Supreme Court in the *Tri-City* case⁸ spoke as though it had made a revolutionary discovery when it remarked upon the practical necessity, under modern industrial conditions, (1) for workers to combine into trade-unions for self-protection and advancement, and (2) for a union to extend its organization beyond one shop in order to make such combination effective.⁹ Even then, the courts deprived unions of their normal means of effectuating such organizations, through decisions condemning all picketing,¹⁰ or picketing in the absence of a strike,¹¹ or picketing in numbers;¹² or, as in the *Duplex* case¹³ outlawing boycotting, to the extent of virtually compelling union members as in the *Bedford Cut Stone* case,¹⁴ to work on a product deemed unfair by a sister local.

"Ends" and "Means" as Means to Ends. The substantive law, then, as administered through the "ends" and "means" tests, prior to the 1930's, was decidedly restrictive of labor's efforts at concerted action to accomplish its normal objectives. The use of the *injunction* in labor disputes greatly aggravated the restrictive effect of the substantive law. The labor injunction was particularly effec-

tive to defeat efforts at unionization when coupled with judicial recognition of the yellow dog contract. The use of such contracts became widespread after the *Hitchman Coal and Coke Co.*¹⁵ decision in 1917. The validity of labor's objections to the use of the injunction in industrial conflicts has been well documented elsewhere.¹⁶ The reaction of labor was a loss of confidence in the impartiality of the courts in the settlement of labor disputes. In terms of results, this reaction is clearly understandable, since the injunction was almost invariably associated with defeat.¹⁷

In *damage suits*, as in injunctions, legal doctrines established for the settlement of ordinary contract or tort actions were applied to labor controversies with special effect. The suit for damages for the boycott in the *Danbury Hatters* case¹⁸ resulted in a settlement of about \$234,000. The action was against the individual members of the union, on agency grounds, for acts of union officers, although many of the members did not actually participate in, authorize, or ratify the boycott, and some had not even knowledge of the same. The *Coronado* case¹⁹ established the doctrine that a labor union, though unincorporated, could be sued as an entity, and held liable for damages caused by its officers and agents.

Criminal prosecutions constituted another device by which labor activities were curtailed. Labor's objection, not without validity,²⁰ was to the frequent application of such laws to peaceful organizing activities. Literally thousands of arrests were made and prosecutions commenced, with no evidence of fraud, violence, or similar conduct, on charges of a wide variety of felonies, and for various misdemeanors under State statutes. Trials were few and convictions much fewer, but the arrests in themselves were often sufficient to break a strike, and the costs of defense heavy enough to break the union treasury.

To organized labor, the dragnet use of criminal statutes in connection with labor disputes appeared to be one more piece of evidence that the forces of government were arrayed against it.

To recapitulate, labor's chief obstacles to the accomplishment of its objectives from about 1900 to 1930 were (1) unfair practices by employers in resisting union organization and collective bargaining, and (2) a highly restrictive judicial concept of the process of unionization, and of the permissible means of accomplishing that process through

peaceful and nonfraudulent means of self-help. The history of legislation during that period, particularly at the Federal level,²¹ is one of a series of unsuccessful attempts to remove those obstacles.

Recognition of a Threefold Truth

The aggregate findings by various official commissions²² appointed prior to the 1930's were (1) that union organization was necessary and desirable to protect the economic freedom of the individual worker; (2) that unions could not effectively protect labor against exploitation and oppression unless organized on a national scale; (3) that employer resistance to unionization and refusal to bargain collectively was a major source of industrial unrest, hence inimical to the public interest. It was not until 1921, however, that the United States Supreme Court recognized the first two propositions as true, and not until 1930 that the third proposition was firmly established.

As early as 1898, Congress, through the Erdman Act,²³ attempted to set up a scheme of arbitration to settle railroad labor disputes, and in connection therewith, made it a misdemeanor for a railroad to discharge an employee because of union membership. This attempt to prohibit discrimination was declared invalid in 1908 in *Adair v. United States*²⁴ on the grounds (1) that it interfered with the employer's constitutional liberty to hire or fire whom he chose, and (2) that it had no connection with the carrying on of interstate commerce. Incidentally, the majority opinion by Mr. Justice Harlan contained the germ of the "parallelism" doctrine which came to fruition in the Taft-Hartley Act, in these words: "It may be observed in passing that while that section makes it a crime . . . to unjustly discriminate against an employee . . . because of his being a member of a labor organization, it does not make it a crime to . . . discriminate . . . because of his *not* being a member . . ."

Similarly, an attempt by a State legislature in 1903 to make it a crime for an employer to exact a yellow dog contract as a condition of employment was declared invalid in 1915 in *Coppage v. Kansas*,²⁵ as interfering with the employer's and the employee's (sic) liberty of contract. In the same vein, the Supreme Court in 1921, in *Truax v. Corrigan*,²⁶ nullified an attempt to remove judicial restrictions on self-help by labor, by holding invalid a State statute denying injunctive relief against peaceful group picketing.

1930—The Pendulum Swings

The year 1930²⁷ witnessed a dramatic reversal of the trend thus far described. In that year the Supreme Court, in the *Texas & N. O. R. Co.* case,²⁸ upheld the Railway Labor Act of 1926,²⁹ which is premised on the notion that stable labor relations and industrial peace will result from collective agreements between employers and strong, independent unions representing their employees.

In sustaining the 1926 Act, the Supreme Court sought to distinguish the *Adair* and *Coppage* cases on the ground that the act did not interfere with the right of an employer to hire and fire, but merely prohibited the employer from interfering with the right of his employees to have representatives of their own choosing. However doubtful this distinction might seem, the result was clear. The main provisions of the 1926 Act constitute the framework for subsequent Federal legislation regulating labor-management relations, at least up to 1947.

The Railway Labor Act of 1926 was "agreed to" legislation as between the railroads and railroad unions, and dealt with a single cohesive industry. The problem of acceptance and workability was therefore greatly simplified. The attempt in section 7a of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933³⁰ to apply the principle of noninterference to employment relations in all industry was much more ambitious. The administration of the act had begun to flounder, for various reasons, even before the NIRA itself was invalidated in the *Schechter* case of 1935.³¹ The principle was again put forward in July 1935—successfully—by the passage of the National Labor Relations (Wagner) Act.³²

The Essence of the Wagner Act

The Wagner Act was more limited in scope than the Railway Labor Act of 1926. It was concerned only with the prevention of unfair labor practices interfering with self-organization, and the establishment of collective-bargaining relationships between employers and unions representing the majority choice of the employees in the appropriate unit, as determined by the National Labor Relations Board.³³ The Wagner Act expressly preserved the right to strike,³⁴ and by implication from the language of section 7, which protected "concerted activities, for the purpose of collective

bargaining or other mutual aid or protection," the right to picket and boycott as well.

Within a common area, the two acts were substantially the same, except that (1) the enforcement machinery under the Wagner Act was a "cease and desist" order by the Board, enforceable, after affirmance by the appropriate circuit court of appeal, through contempt proceedings; and (2) the Wagner Act spelled out the prohibited unfair labor practices in more detail than the Act of 1926.³⁵

The Wagner Act was attacked as revolutionary. And indeed it was, in at least one respect: the shift from the States to the Federal Government of the direct regulation of conduct in labor disputes "affecting commerce." The act was not really effective until April 1937, when the Supreme Court upheld it, in the *Jones & Laughlin*³⁶ and related cases, as a valid regulation of interstate commerce.

Significance of Norris-LaGuardia Act

The Wagner Act and the "little Wagner Acts," mainly effective in Wisconsin³⁷ and New York,³⁸ marked the high tide of legislation protecting labor's concerted activities from self-help by employers. Meanwhile, the major judicial restrictions on self-help by unions, including the strike, picketing, and the boycott, had been dramatically eliminated by the passage of the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932,³⁹ designed primarily to overcome the restrictive judicial interpretations of sections 6 and 20 of the Clayton Act of 1914,⁴⁰ as in the *Duplex* and *Bedford Cut Stone* cases.⁴¹

As previously indicated, the activities of organized labor had been held subject to the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890. The Clayton Act, hailed by labor as its "Magna Charta," had boomeranged, chiefly as a result of a narrow judicial concept of the process of unionization. The Norris-LaGuardia Act, by liberal definition of a "labor dispute,"⁴² and a specific listing of activities not to be enjoined,⁴³ including group picketing and boycotting in any case involving or growing out of a labor dispute, clearly nullified the effect of the *Bedford*, *Duplex*, and related cases.

The Norris-LaGuardia Act was given added significance by the Supreme Court when integrated and construed together with the Sherman and Clayton Acts. The latter (section 20) had

declared similar concerted activities to be proper as a matter of substantive law. Thus, in *United States v. Hutcheson*,⁴⁴ the court held that the acts made nonenjoinable by the Norris-LaGuardia Act were lawful as a matter of substantive law, and could not be challenged under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act by criminal prosecution or other means. The significant passage from the majority opinion in the *Hutcheson* case, delivered by Mr. Justice Frankfurter, is as follows:

So long as a union acts in its self-interest and does not combine with nonlabor groups, the licit and the illicit under §20 [of the Clayton Act] are not to be distinguished by any [judicial] judgment regarding the wisdom or unwisdom, the rightness or wrongness, the selfishness or unselfishness of the end of which the particular union activities are the means.

Freedom for Self-Help. Thus ended, or appeared to end, the "ends" and "means" tests and the labor injunction as restrictions on labor's traditional methods of self-help, notably picketing and the boycott, in all forms, barring the use of fraud or violence. The liberation of labor from such restrictions required only one more step, which was seemingly accomplished when the Supreme Court held that legislative bodies could not, if they would, constitutionally limit peaceful picketing in connection with a labor dispute, since such picketing constituted an exercise of the right of free speech.⁴⁵

Other Relief. The Norris-LaGuardia Act protected labor in several other important respects. Not only were peaceful and nonfraudulent concerted activities in the process of unionization given complete protection, but even acts of violence and fraud, though remaining illegal, could be enjoined only after a fair and orderly proceeding.⁴⁶ As previously indicated,⁴⁷ the act also nullified the use of the yellow dog contract,⁴⁸ which had served as a device to prevent unionization under the doctrine of inducing breach of contract, as in the *Hitchman* case.⁴⁹ Finally, the act protected unions, their officers, and members from liability for unlawful acts of individual officers, members, or agents "except upon clear proof of actual participation in, or actual authorization of, such acts, or of ratification of such acts after actual knowledge thereof."⁵⁰ This provision was designed to offset the *Danbury Hatters* and similar decisions in which the technical rules of agency

were stretched to hold liable unionists who had not actually participated in, authorized, or ratified the activities involved, and the *Coronado* case, which portended a similar result as to the liability of a union.

The New Federal Labor Policy, 1930-40

To summarize, between 1930 and 1940, Congress, aided by a broadening of judicial and executive thinking about the real nature and consequences of labor disputes, had evolved a comprehensive labor policy which might be briefly stated as follows:

1. Under modern industrial conditions, union organization and collective bargaining are essential to protect and promote the economic liberty of the individual worker. Hence, unions should be free to organize employees and to bargain collectively in their behalf.

2. Employer interference with union organization and refusal to bargain collectively lead to strikes and other forms of labor unrest which adversely affect commerce and injure the public interest. Employers therefore should be required to keep "hands off" the process of organization, and to bargain collectively with the representatives duly chosen by their employees for that purpose.

3. Collective bargaining is the keystone to industrial peace. Collective bargaining will not prevent or settle all disputes. Mediation and voluntary arbitration (and, under the Railway Labor Act, fact finding and recommendations by emergency boards) should be used when an impasse occurs. If all these methods fail, the better part of wisdom in a democracy is to permit the disputants to fight it out through the use of traditional economic weapons, barring violence or fraud. The employer should have the right to lock out. Labor should have the right to strike, picket, and boycott. Experience through collective bargaining will diminish resort to such weapons.

The Pendulum Swings Again

The Wagner Act of 1935, though patterned after the judicially indorsed⁵¹ Railway Labor Act of 1926, as amended in 1934, was criticized by its opponents at the time of its passage as revolutionary and "one-sided."⁵² Efforts to amend it began at once. These efforts culminated in the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947.⁵³ But this event had

been preceded, and has since been followed, by signs of judicial reversion to pre-1930 thinking.

Reversal of Judicial Thinking. The United States Supreme Court had boldly declared in 1940 in the *Thornhill* case,⁵⁴ that peaceful picketing in a labor dispute was an exercise of free speech, and the following year in the *Swing* case⁵⁵ had applied that doctrine to protect "stranger picketing," i. e., picketing by a union having no members employed in the place picketed. But in 1942, in *Carpenters and Joiners Union of America v. Ritter's Cafe*,⁵⁶ the Court upheld an injunction, based on a State (Texas) antitrust statute against a building-trades union for picketing a restaurant, the owner of which had engaged a nonunion contractor to build his home. This decision revived the pre-1930 notion that picketing in conjunction with a labor dispute, though peaceful and nonfraudulent, may constitutionally be prohibited if in the judgment of a legislative body such action is necessary "for the protection of the community as a whole." The doctrine of this case was applied and extended by the United States Supreme Court in three cases⁵⁷ decided May 8, 1950, to prohibit picketing for any "objective," apparently, deemed unsound by the legislature, or by the court.

The May 8, 1950, Decisions. The decisions of May 8, 1950, complete a reverse trend in judicial thinking, which began in 1942. Thus the Court, in the *Hanke* case,⁵⁸ upheld an injunction issued by a State (Washington) court against peaceful picketing for a union shop against an operator with no employees, although no statute condemned such picketing. In its opinion, the Court stated:

Here we have a glaring instance of the interplay of competing social-economic interests and viewpoints. Unions obviously are concerned not to have union standards undermined by nonunion shops. This interest penetrates into self-employer shops. On the other hand, some of our profoundest thinkers from Jefferson to Brandeis have stressed the importance to a democratic society of encouraging self-employer economic units as a counter-movement to what are deemed to be the dangers inherent in excessive concentration of economic power. "There is a widespread belief . . . that the true prosperity of our past came not from big business, but through the courage, the energy and the resourcefulness of small men . . . and that only through participation by the many in the responsibilities and determinations of business, can Americans secure the moral and intel-

lectual development which is essential to the maintenance of liberty." Mr. Justice Brandeis, dissenting in *Liggett Co. v. Lee*, 288 U. S. 517, 541, 580.

Whether to prefer the union or a self-employer in such a situation, or to seek partial recognition of both interests, and, if so, by what means to secure such accommodation, obviously presents to a State serious problems. There are no sure answers, and the best available solution is likely to be experimental and tentative, and always subject to the control of the popular will.

In the *Gazzam* case⁵⁹ the Court held that "free speech" did not protect peaceful picketing to persuade an employer to require his employees to join the union, where the State (Oregon) statute prohibited an employer from coercing his employees in their right to remain nonunion or in their choice of representatives, even though the statute was silent on the right of employees to be free of coercion by the union.⁶⁰ The Court interpreted the statute as permitting picketing of the employees, but not, of course, as a matter of constitutional right. The legislature—or another court—would be free to close this avenue of self-help also.

In the *Hughes* case,⁶¹ the Court held that "free speech" did not prevent a State injunction, though based on no statute, against picketing to induce an employer to employ a quota of Negro employees proportionate to his Negro customers. The Court accepted the State court's determination that here defendants sought "to make the right to work for . . . (the employer) dependent not on the fitness for work nor equal right of all, regardless of race, but rather on membership in a particular race." This may be rationalized as indicative of the Court's growing concern to protect the employment opportunities of racial minorities, although such concern was manifested in the particular case in a rather left-handed manner, since both the picketing union and racial group involved were attempting to advance the interests of a minority group. In one respect the *Hughes* decision is more extreme than the *Gazzam* decision, in that the employer action in the *Gazzam* case which the picketing sought to achieve was perhaps unlawful, whereas the employer in the *Hughes* case could have adopted a quota system had he so desired, without violating any law.

Their Import. Tentative conclusions to be drawn from the May 8, 1950, decisions are:

1. Legislative bodies are once again free to limit or prohibit peaceful picketing by declaring the immediate objective of the picketing union to be contrary to public policy, although the ultimate objective of the union may be simply, as it was in two of the three recent cases, to organize the unorganized so as to protect and promote existing union standards of employment. The effectiveness of the first and fourteenth amendments to protect peaceful picketing and perhaps other concerted activities of organized labor, first made explicit in the *Thornhill* case, has thus been whittled down, and the way paved for virtual nullification of the doctrine of picketing as free speech.

2. The courts are once again important as arbiters of what is sound public policy in labor disputes—where the legislative body has not spoken—and are again enforcing their views by the labor injunction. If the courts today can determine, as in the *Hanke* case, that protection of small business is more important to the public interest than the protection of union labor standards, the courts can tomorrow draw the same conclusion *vis a vis* big business. The stage is already set for this step by current arguments to the effect that little business needs big business to survive and flourish.

3. Legislation sought or endorsed by labor to secure governmental assistance in its efforts to organize the unorganized has boomeranged. Another *magna charta* of labor may be lost. Surely, organized labor in Oregon wanted the statute involved in the *Gazzam* case, to supplement by governmental action its existing means of self-help, including picketing of the employer to establish union conditions in a nonunion shop. Labor never anticipated that the statute as applied would deprive it of such means of self-help. The late Judge Joseph A. Padway, long time general counsel for the Wisconsin State Federation of Labor and later for the American Federation of Labor, clearly foresaw the danger of this type of subversion of statutes designed to aid labor.⁶²

It may be urged that the significance of the May 8 decisions has been overemphasized above, since they deal merely with State legislation or court decisions, whereas Congress has preempted the field of labor regulation as to all industries of any consequence,⁶³ and the Norris-

LaGuardia Act controls judicial injunctions. The answer is at least fourfold. First, except for conduct clearly protected (or prohibited) by Federal law, the States are free to restrict concerted union activities, even as to employers whose labor relations affect interstate commerce.⁶⁴ Second, Congress, in the 1947 Labor Management Relations (Taft-Hartley) Act, has expressly authorized State legislatures to restrict or prohibit the closed shop as to such employers.⁶⁵ Third, the Taft-Hartley Act expressly permits the issuance of injunctions⁶⁶ in labor disputes in situations previously protected by the Norris-LaGuardia Act. Fourth, the question of peaceful picketing of an employer as free speech is involved in various sections of the Taft-Hartley Act, particularly 8 (b) (2) and (4).⁶⁷

The 1947 Act—Old Doctrines Revived

Turning to the Taft-Hartley Act itself, one finds little resemblance, with two notable exceptions,⁶⁸ in the philosophy of the authors as compared with the philosophy of the authors of the Railway Labor Acts of 1926 and 1934 and the National Labor Relations Act of 1935. While leaving the central theme of the Wagner Act—the right of organization for collective bargaining—untouched in the main, the Taft-Hartley Act has encrusted it with many pre-1930 restrictive notions, and has added restrictions advanced by groups which have traditionally been opposed in principle to the process of collective bargaining. At the very least, virtually every major debatable or debated issue in the area of labor-management relations has been resolved against labor, except perhaps the debate as to whether unions as such should not be treated as monopolies or combinations in restraint of trade, a debate which, incidentally, is by no means closed. To illustrate:

1. The (1947) act to a considerable extent bans strikes, boycotts, and picketing under certain circumstances, although no fraud or violence be involved, and although the ultimate object of the union be simply to organize the unorganized or protect or improve existing labor standards.⁶⁹ This constitutes a clear reversal of the policy of the Sherman, Clayton, and Norris-LaGuardia Acts, as integrated and interpreted in the *Hutcheson* case.⁷⁰

2. The act revives the injunction,⁷¹ damage suit,⁷² and criminal prosecution⁷³ as devices to

stabilize labor relations, although experience has shown these devices to have the opposite effect. Labor's strong antipathy to the labor injunction is scarcely met by the argument that, under the Taft-Hartley Act, it is the Government itself which secures the injunction.

3. The act restores the technical doctrines of agency to determine liability for wrongful activities in connection with a labor dispute, so that "the question of whether the specific acts were actually authorized or subsequently ratified shall not be controlling."⁷⁴ This step nullifies section 6 of the Norris-LaGuardia Act, which had been found necessary, in the light of practical experience, to prevent injustice to unions and their members.

4. The act resolves the classic "closed shop" issue against unions, permits only a watered-down version of union security, and authorizes the States to prohibit even that much.⁷⁵ The act thus assumes for a fact that the closed shop and its variants are *ipso facto* monopolistic or bad public policy, ignoring the stabilizing effect of particular arrangements in certain industries, such as the hiring hall in the maritime industry.

Labor, of course, has a great many more specific objections to the Taft-Hartley Act, many of which have been conceded to be valid by the proponents of the act, by proposing numerous amendments thereto.⁷⁶ Such amendments, however, fall short of meeting labor's objections, aside from political reasons, in that they leave in effect two self-contradictory policies, one favoring organization for collective bargaining and the unlimited right to unionization by peaceful means, the other opposed to organization, favoring individual bargaining and limiting the right of unionization to the "single shop" concept of the early 1900's.⁷⁷ This conflict of philosophies is accentuated by the existence of dual agencies for administering the act—the Board and the Office of the General Counsel—whose policy views have frequently clashed.

It is too early, of course, to appraise the final effect of the Taft-Hartley Act on labor's progress, on labor-management relations, or on the public interest.⁷⁸ For one thing, the Supreme Court has passed on only one feature of the act.⁷⁹ There are straws in the wind, however, which indicate that all doubts as to constitutional validity will be resolved in favor of the act.⁸⁰ And, since labor's

objection to the Taft-Hartley Act is that it is all too specific, labor cannot expect much comfort from final judicial interpretations.

Recapitulation, Appraisal, and Proposal

"Lawmaking is essentially empirical and tentative, and in adjudication as in legislation the Constitution does not forbid 'cautious advance, step by step, and the distrust of generalities.'" ⁸¹ Has Government, in dealing with the problems of labor and labor-management relations, made any net advance to date? This question must be considered with respect to four different but interdependent interests, i. e., organized labor, the individual worker, employers, and the general public.

1. *The Union.* There is very real doubt as to whether the attitude of the Government, particularly in the legislative and judicial areas, represents any real advance over 1900 to organized labor. The right to organize and to bargain collectively has, of course, been declared as our national policy since the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932 and has been affirmatively enforced since the Wagner Act of 1935. But no legislature or court had ever denied the existence of these rights. The difficulties in effectuating these rights had consisted of legislative and judicial limitations on labor's means of self-help, and lack of control over unfair employer methods of resistance. Although the legislation of 1932 and 1935 took labor off dead center, it is not at all clear that in the normal course of events, with gradual enlightenment of the public and particularly of industrial leaders, labor would not have overcome these obstacles, without the support of legislation. For a labor movement can never long stand still; it must grow stronger or weaker, and in a democracy, it must inevitably grow stronger. And a labor movement is all the stronger which accomplishes its growth through its own efforts.

The residue of labor-management legislation of the 1930's favorable to labor is governmental machinery to require the employer to keep hands off the process of organization and to bargain collectively. This residual advantage may be more than offset by the reappearance of the restrictive judicial doctrines of the pre-1930's and the emergence of new restrictions on labor, reinforced

by legislation effectively administered by a Federal board and implemented by the injunctive process. On balance, from labor's point of view, it would be difficult to describe Government's attitude in 1950 as an "advance" over its attitude of 1900.

2. *The Individual Worker.* There have no doubt been many instances in which, between 1947 and 1950, the present Federal legislation has protected a worker against joining a union or engaging in concerted activities against his will, or being deprived of his job because of nonmembership or good standing in a union. A prohibition of "rough stuff" against a nonunion worker is above reproach, although it is doubtful whether local police action is inadequate for that purpose. But the "right to work" concept is more debatable. This concept would be more persuasive if the union really stood between the individual worker and the right to a job. But the right of a worker to get or keep a job is virtually dependent on the whim or caprice of the employer.⁸² On the other hand, the added risk of not getting, or of losing, a job because of nonmembership in a union, must be balanced against the varied arguments in favor of required union membership in an organized shop, just as the right of employees to remain unorganized must be balanced against the interests of employees who have organized in competing shops.

3. *The Employer.* It is doubtful if the Government's attitude in 1950 makes employers really any better off than they were in 1940, or even in 1900. To many employers who have definitely accepted unions, the jargon of unfair employer or union practices, injunctions, criminal prosecutions, and damage suits, as concomitants of collective bargaining, must seem unintelligible.⁸³ To many other employers, to whom the Taft-Hartley Act appealed as a preventative of strikes and other labor disturbances, the act has proved a disappointment. It would not be in order here to comment on those employers, however few, who looked to the Taft-Hartley Act and hoped for the current judicial trend in thinking, as a means of breaking or at least breaking up unions.

4. *The Public in General.* It is difficult to generalize as to the public as a whole. While arguments as to "balancing" the interests of labor and

management and protecting the individual worker had some allure, the Taft-Hartley Act was mainly viewed as a device which would somehow prevent a repetition of the 1946 wave of crippling strikes. The subsequent repeated strikes in coal, steel, autos, and transportation, among others, have belied this hope. At the moment, the public reaction is one of confusion and frustration. On the one hand, there is some awareness, not yet made articulate, that too much faith has recently been placed in legal restraints on organized labor to improve labor-management relations and encourage industrial peace. But there is considerable sentiment that the restraints should be increased, generally in the form of demands for curbing the economic power of "big unions," and most recently in the form of prohibiting strikes and substituting compulsory arbitration.⁸⁴

Industrial unrest in 1950 cannot be met by prohibiting strikes and lock-outs. Such a course is not only undemocratic but also ineffective, as experience both here and abroad has shown. Experience has also demonstrated that in the sensitive area of labor-management relations, force merely begets more force, ending in frustration and undermining of respect for all law.

For the Future. Twenty-five years from now, it may be possible to advocate the repeal of all Federal labor relations legislation. But, even aside from practical politics, organized labor and management are too unsure of themselves and of each other to risk such a course today. For the immediate future, the real question is what will be the course of Federal legislation. It might be well to consider a program along the following lines:

1. Repeal all existing Federal legislation affecting labor-management relations other than the Railway Labor Act.

2. Re-enact the major provisions of the Norris-LaGuardia and Wagner Acts.

3. Add to those provisions the features of the Taft-Hartley Act which are sound in principle. Such features include (a) encouragement of voluntary arbitration as a means of settling disputes as to the *meaning or application* of a collective agreement; and (b) the use of fact-finding boards as a means of aiding in the settlement of economic disputes in key industries, provided that such boards are given the power to mediate and to

make recommendations. To this might be added the protection of individual workers seeking to join unions against arbitrary exclusion or arbitrary treatment while members.

4. Strengthen the mediation services of the Federal Government by providing greater recognition and more adequate compensation for the members of the staff, and provide for a closer liaison of the mediation agency with the NLRB on the one hand and the Secretary of Labor on the other. Many of the unfair labor practice cases coming before the NLRB are at bottom economic disputes of the type in which experienced contract mediators could be of real assistance. The justifiable interest of the Secretary of Labor in all aspects of labor relations is too obvious for comment.

This program would not prevent strikes, but neither would legislation prohibiting strikes. Such a program would, however, restore coherence to the Government's approach to labor-management relations. It would re-emphasize collective bargaining and mediation as the keystone of industrial peace and cooperation. It would place a joint responsibility for amicably solving the basic problems of productivity, employment, and improved standards of living on top labor leaders and top management, where it properly belongs. Finally, such a program would provide maximum protection to the public interest, consistent with the existence of a free labor movement in a democracy.

¹ National Labor Relations Act, 49 Stat. 449; 29 U. S. C. §§151-166. Approved July 5, 1935.

² References to developments prior to the 1930's are based mainly on Witte, *The Government in Labor Disputes* (1932); Magruder, *A Half Century of Legal Influence Upon the Development of Collective Bargaining*, 50 Harv. L. Rev 1071 (1937).

³ Some of these laws exempted farmer and labor organizations.

⁴ *Loewe v. Lawlor*, 208 U. S. 274, 28 Sup. Ct. 301 (1908); see also 235 U. S. 522, 35 Sup. Ct. 170 (1915).

⁵ Notably the *Hitchman Coal and Coke Co. v. Mitchell* decision in the district court, 202 Fed. 512 (1912) (reversed in 214 Fed. 685 (1914)).

⁶ The term is used advisedly, as against the more flexible term "conditions of employment."

⁷ 167 Mass. 92, 44 N. E. 1077 (1896).

⁸ *American Steel Foundries v. Tri-City Central Trades Council*, 257 U. S. 184, 42 Sup. Ct. 72 (1921).

⁹ As recently as 1917, the Supreme Court had indicated its belief that while employees might strike, an "outside" union which attempted to induce a strike was an officious intermeddler. *Hitchman Coal and Coke Co. v. Mitchell*, 245 U. S. 229, 252-53, 38 Sup. Ct. 65, 73 (1917).

¹⁰ "There is and can be no such thing as peaceful picketing, any more than there can be chaste vulgarity, or peaceful mobbing, or lawful lynching. When men want to converse or persuade, they do not organize a picket line." McPherson, J., in *Atchison, T. and S. F. Ry. Co. v. Gee*, 139 Fed. 582, 584 (Cir. Ct., Iowa 1905).

¹¹ *Waitresses' Union, Local No. 249 v. Benish Restaurant Co.*, 6 F. (2d) 568 (CCA 8th, 1925).

¹² See the *Tri-City* case, *supra*, note 8 allowing one "missionary" at each gate.

¹³ *Duplex Printing Press Co. v. Deering*, 254 U. S. 443, 41 Sup. Ct. 172 (1921).

¹⁴ *Bedford Cut Stone v. Journeymen Stone Cutters' Assn.*, 274 U. S. 37, 47 Sup. Ct. 522 (1927).

¹⁵ 245 U. S. 229, 38 Sup. Ct. 65 (1917).

¹⁶ Frankfurter and Greene, *The Labor Injunction* (1930); Witte, *supra*, note 2, Chapter V.

¹⁷ Described as a useless regulatory device when applied in other fields of human relations (e. g., in domestic relations, *Baumann v. Baumann*, 250 N. Y. 382, 105 N. E. 819 (1929)), the injunction has not always proved successful in labor relations. This is due in part to the atmosphere of bitterness created by their use, which has survived the dispute, and rendered a theoretically justified injunction practically ineffectual.

¹⁸ *Supra*, note 4.

¹⁹ *United Mine Workers v. Coronado Coal Co.*, 259 U. S. 344, 42 Sup. Ct. 570 (1922). As to the stability of unions in State courts prior to the 1930's, see Witte, *supra*, note 2, pp. 142-143.

²⁰ See Witte, *supra*, note 2, Chapter VIII.

²¹ The futility of State legislation designed to control the use of strike breakers, discrimination, and blacklisting is described by Witte, *supra*, note 2, Chapter X.

²² Report of the United States Strike Commission, under Act of Oct. 1, 1888, c. 1063, § 6, 25 Stat. 503; Report of Industrial Commission created under Act of June 18, 1898, c. 466, 30 Stat. 476; H. R. Doc. No. 280, 57th Cong., 1st Sess. (1902); Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, Report, Sen. Doc. No. 6, 58th Cong., Spec. Sess. (1902); 1 Comm. on Industrial Relations (created by Act of Aug. 23, 1912); Final Report, Sen. Doc. No. 415, 64th Cong., 1st Sess. (1916); U. S. Coal Comm. Report (transmitted pursuant to the Act approved Sept. 22, 1922). For pertinent excerpts from these reports, see Magruder, *supra*, note 2, pp. 1072-1078.

²³ Act of June 1, 1898, c. 370, § 10, 30 Stat. 428.

²⁴ 208 U. S. 161, 28 Sup. Ct. 277 (1908).

²⁵ 236 U. S. 1, 35 Sup. Ct. 240 (1915).

²⁶ 257 U. S. 312, 42 Sup. Ct. 124 (1921).

²⁷ Experience under the World War I Labor Board, and its liberal policies, although important, are omitted here, chiefly because they were atypical. You cannot win a war without the cooperation of organized labor, and it is questionable how much of the policies of the Board were designed primarily to obtain that cooperation. For a reference to the activities of that Board, see Witte, *supra*, note 2, pp. 246-251.

²⁸ *Texas & N. O. R. Co. v. Brotherhood of Ry. & S. S. Clerks*, 281 U. S. 548, 50 Sup. Ct. 427 (1930).

²⁹ 44 Stat. 577, 48 Stat. 1185, 45 U. S. C. §§ 151-164 (1934). Citation includes the 1934 amendment making it the duty of the railroad to "treat with," i. e., bargain collectively with the representative duly chosen by the employees concerned. The amendment was interpreted and upheld in *Virginian Ry. v. System Federation No. 40*, 300 U. S. 515, 57 Sup. Ct. 592 (1937).

³⁰ 48 Stat. 195 (1933).

³¹ *A. L. A. Schechter Poultry Corp. v. United States*, 295 U. S. 495, 55 Sup. Ct. 837 (1935).

³² 49 Stat. 449, 29 U. S. C. §§ 151-166 (approved July 5, 1935).

³³ The railroad dispute mediation functions of the National Mediation Board were being performed for industry generally in 1935 by the U. S. Conciliation Service, and now since 1947 by the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service. Thus, in the aggregate, the Congress had forged a single over-all pattern, with two significant exceptions: it did not provide for industry generally (1) any formal machinery for the settlement of disputes over the interpretation or application of agreements; (2) it did not provide "emergency boards" for disputes over contract terms which could not be settled by collective bargaining, mediation, or voluntary arbitration.

³⁴ Section 13.

³⁵ The prohibited unfair labor practices included, in substance, (1) interference with, restraint or coercion of employees in the exercise of the rights guaranteed by section 7 of the act (see note 1, *supra*); (2) company unionism; (3) discrimination for union membership or activities; (4) discrimination for filing charges or testifying under the act; (5) refusal to bargain with the majority representative. To which might be added the separately enacted ban on interstate transportation of strike breakers. 49 Stat. 1899 (1936); 52 Stat. 1242 (1938). The yellow dog contract has been made unenforceable by section 3 of the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932, discussed later.

³⁶ *NLRB v. Jones & Laughlin*, 301 U. S. 1, 57 Sup. Ct. 615 (1937).

³⁷ L. 1937, c. 57, repealed and replaced in 1939 by the "Employment Peace Act," prototype of the Taft-Hartley Act. L. 1939, c. 57; Wis. Stats. (1949), ch. 111, subch. 1.

³⁸ L. 1937, ch. 443.

³⁹ 47 Stat. 70, 29 U. S. C. §§ 101-115 (approved Mar. 23, 1932).

⁴⁰ 38 Stat. 731, 15 U. S. C. § 17; 38 Stat. 738, 29 U. S. C. § 52 (approved Oct. 15, 1914).

⁴¹ *Supra*, notes 13, 14.

⁴² See sec. 13.

⁴³ Sec. 4.

⁴⁴ 312 U. S. 219, 61 Sup. Ct. 463 (1941).

⁴⁵ *Thornhill v. Alabama*, 310 U. S. 88, 60 Sup. Ct. 736 (1940).

⁴⁶ Sec. 7.

⁴⁷ *Supra*, note 35.

⁴⁸ Sec. 3.

⁴⁹ *Supra*, note 9.

⁵⁰ Sec. 6.

⁵¹ *Virginian Railway* case, *supra*, note 29.

⁵² For an analysis of and reply to these criticisms, see H. R. 1147, 74th Cong. 1st Sess. (1935) 16; Magruder *supra*, note 2, pp. 1107-1117.

⁵³ Labor Management Relations Act, 1947, 61 Stat. 136, 29 U. S. C. 141 et seq. Again, the activities of an experience under the (second) War Labor Board are omitted as atypical. A prototype of the Taft-Hartley Act was such restrictive (or "balanced") State legislation as the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act, *supra*, note 37.

⁵⁴ *Supra*, note 45.

⁵⁵ 312 U. S. 321, 61 Sup. Ct. 568 (1941). In this case the picketing union sought a closed shop. A State court (Ill.) injunction was held to conflict with the principle of the *Thornhill* decision.

⁵⁶ 315 U. S. 722, 62 Sup. Ct. 807 (1942). See also *Giboney v. Empire Storage & Ice Co.*, 336 U. S. 490, 69 Sup. Ct. 684 (1949) upholding a State antitrust statute under which criminal sanctions were imposed on peaceful picketing.

⁵⁷ *International Brotherhood of Teamsters v. Hanke; Automobile Drivers & Demonstrators Local Union No. 882 v. Cline*, Nos. 309 & 364, 18 U. S. Law Week 4277 (May 8, 1950); *Building Service Employees International Union, Local 262 v. Gazzam*, *ibid.*, No. 49, p. 4258; *Hughes v. Superior Court of State of Calif.*, *ibid.*, No. 61, p. 4274.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.* Compare *American Furniture Co. v. International Brotherhood of Teamsters*, 222 Wis. 338, 268 N. W. 250 (1936).

⁵⁹ Note 57.

⁶⁰ The declaration of policy in the Oregon "little Norris-LaGuardia Act," contained incidental language, as in the Norris-LaGuardia Act (sec. 2) stating that a worker "should be free to decline to associate with his fellows." Cf. the Railway Labor Act of 1926, sec. 2, fourth; Title I, Taft-Hartley Act, amending sec. 7 of the Wagner Act.

⁶¹ Note 57.

⁶² See *United Shoe Workers v. Wis. L. R. B.*, 227 Wis. 569, 279 N. W. 37 (1938), and particularly the union brief pointing out, for example, that the Wagner Act's "majority rule" requirement for a closed shop would clearly constitute a limitation on existing rights of labor and management in Wisconsin. The Wisconsin Legislature, in enacting the 1937 "little Wagner Act," had accepted Padway's argument and made it possible for a union and employer to agree to a closed shop although no employee was then a union member.

⁶³ See, for example, the decision of the Supreme Court outlawing the strike-vote provisions of the Michigan Bonine-Tripp Act, *I. U. United Auto Workers (CIO) v. O'Brien*, No. 456, 18 U. S. Law Week 4320, May 9, 1950.

⁶⁴ See *I. U. United Auto Workers (AFL) v. Wis. L. R. B.*, 336 U. S. 245, 69 Sup. Ct. 516 (1948).

⁶⁵ 61 Stat. 136; 29 U. S. C. 151 et seq., Title I, Sec. 14 (b) (1947).

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*, Sec. 10 (j), (1); Title II, Sec. 208.

⁶⁷ Compare 8 (b) (4) (A), prohibiting a strike where an object thereof, as in the *Hanke* case, is "forcing or requiring any employer or self-employed person to join any labor . . . organization."

⁶⁸ One is Title II, sec. 203 (d) proposing, however mildly, and with no implementing machinery like the Railroad Adjustment Board, that disputes over the application or interpretation of agreements be arbitrated. The other is Title II, secs. 206-210 incl., providing for fact-finding boards in "national emergency" disputes. Unlike the emergency boards under the Railway Labor Act, however, the boards under Title II make no recommendations, and do not—or are not supposed to—mediate. Furthermore, the scheme of Title II involves a "cooling off" period enforceable by the labor-bated injunction, against the union, and with no statutory counterpart against the employer.

⁶⁹ Title I, sec. 8 (b) (4).

⁷⁰ *Supra*, note 44.

⁷¹ Title I, sec. 10 (j), (1); Title II, sec. 208.

⁷² Title III.

⁷³ *Ibid.*, secs. 302 (d), 313.

⁷⁴ Title I, sec. 2 (13); Title III, sec. 301 (e).

⁷⁵ Title I, sec. 8 (a) (3), 8 (b) (2), 14 (b).

⁷⁶ See Sundry Amendments proposed by Senator Taft to S. 249 on Jan. 27, 1949.

⁷⁷ The former was the philosophy of the NLRA of 1935. The latter is the philosophy underlying the amendments to the NLRA, Title I of the Taft-Hartley Act, most apparent in the amendment to sec. 7, stressing the notion of the right *not* to join a union, etc., and in the new section 8 (b) (4), limiting the use of picketing and the boycott.

⁷⁸ Senate Report No. 986 [Part I] of the Joint ["Watchdog"] Committee on Labor-Management Relations (80th Cong., 2d Sess.), Mar. 15, 1948; Minority Report, Senate No. 986, Part 2, Apr. 1, 1948; for the further Report of Dec. 31, 1948, and Minority Report of May 13, 1949, see Senate No. 986, Part 3; and No. 374 (81st Cong., 1st Sess.). See also Senate Report No. 99 [Part I]

(to accompany S. 249) of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare (81st Cong., 1st Sess.), Mar. 8, 1949; Minority Report, Senate No. 99, Part 2, May 4, 1949; Senate Report No. 317 (to accompany H. R. 2032) of the Committee on Education and Labor (81st Cong., 1st Sess.), Mar. 24, 1949; Minority Report No. 317, Part 2, Mar. 28, 1949.

⁷⁹ On May 8, 1950, the non-Communist oath requirement of sec. 9 (h), Title I, was upheld in *United Steelworkers of America v. NLRB*, Case No. 13, 18 U. S. Law Week 4298.

⁸⁰ Notably the three picketing cases decided on May 8, 1950, *supra*, note 57.

⁸¹ Frankfurter, J., in the *Hanke* case, *supra*, note 57.

⁸² Aside, of course, from a requirement of cause for discharge, in a collective bargaining agreement, or a strike to compel reinstatement, for either of which the worker would be indebted to the union.

⁸³ See the National Planning Association series on "Causes of Industrial Peace."

⁸⁴ See the New York Times editorial, *Who Lost the Strike*, Sat., May 6, p. 14, referring to the Chrysler strike; *Rail Strike: Real Issue*, *ibid.*, Wed., May 17, 1950, Part C, p. 28, referring to the railroad engineers' strike.

"In the exercise of the rights that the Clayton Act assures to defendants, they may go to the very line between the lawful and the unlawful, carefully avoiding crossing into forbidden territory.

"So may any person in the exercise of any right; and all because no right can be maintained, but by its fearless, vigorous, and full enjoyment. By the Clayton Act Congress recognizes the necessity and value of labor unions and labor activities in the matter of conditions of employment; that they have done and are yet capable of a great work; that to the workman and his, a job is life, wherein eternal vigilance is no less the price of a worthy job than of liberty; and that its loss too often changes the current of human lives and spells disaster. Hence, the Clayton Act, to aid his last-ditch struggle to retain his job against all comers. To that end the act provides the workmen may 'recommend, advise, and persuade,' and by all lawful means fairly within the import of those terms. All art, eloquence, oratory, and logic are open to the workmen to accomplish persuasion.

"Fair, vigorous, and repeated argument is legitimate. Repeated, for what fails to convince

today may succeed on rehearing tomorrow, even in a Supreme Court. No reason appears why workmen may not model after congressional oratory (some expurgated), or after what is fairly inferable in the consultation room of the Supreme Court, on occasion, say, of some decision by the odd justice. Human nature is everywhere alike, and every man is or ought to be earnest, enthusiastic, and fearless in his own, if good, cause. It is not believed that the *American Steel Foundries Case* . . . decided by the Supreme Court on December 5, 1921, imports otherwise. In it is no clear purpose to denature or 'weasel' the act, and limit workmen to methods akin to pink teas and scented notes of invitation. They have their own virile vocabulary and manner, and, so long as within the Clayton Act, there is no censor upon their use. Where Congress gives bread, the courts will not convert it to stone."

Judge Bourquin (speaking for the U. S. District Court for the District of Montana) in *Great Northern Railway Co. v. Local, Great Falls Lodge of International Association of Machinists*, 283 Fed. 557 (1922).

The Worker and His Civic Functions

Labor Is Overcoming Early Antagonism,
Winning Civic Recognition, and
Participating in Government and Community Activities

DANIEL BELL

BY THE TURN OF THE CENTURY, labor in the United States had made a fateful commitment: to seek a secure place within the social structure of capitalist society rather than stand outside and fight it. In 1893, the socialists within the American Federation of Labor apparently had succeeded in winning the Federation's support of a program of radical social change. That year, the AFL convention had endorsed a set of demands including the famous "plank 10," which called for the "collective ownership by the people of all means of production and distribution." But a year later, the anti-socialist forces, led by Samuel Gompers, rallied and succeeded in eliminating plank 10. The socialists had lost.

Gompers and his early associates, Adolph Strasser and Peter J. McGuire, had gone through the vicissitudes of radical politics for nearly 20 years. They had seen how various unions had been wrecked on the jagged shoals of sectarian conflicts and the degree to which the daily considerations of wages, hours, and working conditions had been subordinated to chimerical goals of producer cooperatives, money reform, and political party panaceas. Out of this experience came their conception of the trade-union as an agency limited largely to the economic field—a view which shaped the development of present-day unionism.

In his autobiography, Gompers sententiously set forth the rationale of this belief. "Economic power," he wrote, "is the basis upon which may be developed power in other fields. It is the foundation of organized society. Whoever or

whatever controls economic power directs and shapes the development for the group or a nation." The hedging in of the economic power of capital became a cardinal aim of official AFL philosophy. But the Federation in theory or practice never sought to challenge that power or topple it.

The AFL utilized collective bargaining to fashion a singular new instrument of economic policy, the trade agreement. The purpose of the trade agreement, in the phrase of Perlman and Taft, was to create an "industrial government" in which the trade-union regulated the supply of labor through "job control." This was done either by establishing a closed shop, or by regulating the entry of labor into the job market by apprentice systems, and/or by seniority rules and other means of fixing an equity on the job. In blunter terms the AFL became, as Veblen put it, a business organization with a vested interest of its own in keeping up the price and keeping down the supply of labor—in the fashion of other vested interests.

Socialism's Decline in the AFL

The struggle against this viewpoint wracked the Federation through the first decade of the century. The socialists continued to press for independent political action. At the 1902 convention, a resolution by Max S. Hayes, endorsing socialism, read: "[We] advise the working people to organize their economic and political power to secure for labor the full product of its toil and the overthrow of the wage system and the establishment of an industrial cooperative commonwealth."

It was barely defeated 4,897 to 4,171, with 287 abstentions. Socialist influence, however, declined from that peak, rallying only in 1912 when Max Hayes, running against Gompers for the presidency of the Federation, received one-third of the votes.

Outside the Federation, the American Labor Union and the Industrial Workers of the World fought Gompers' view. To these radical groups, Gompers' definition of labor's goal was a betrayal of labor's historic mission. Against the idea of "industrial government," the IWW declared in ringing tones: "No terms made with an employer are final. All peace so long as the wage system lasts is but an armed truce. At any favorable opportunity the struggle for more control of industry is renewed." Both the socialists and the Wobblies, however, misgauged the temper of the American worker; Gompers, apparently, had not.

Crusade for Civic Recognition

The consequences of this fateful commitment made by Gompers were enormous. During the half-century, labor's single ambition has been to win acceptance within the society as a "legitimate" social group, on par with business and the church as an established institution of American life. For Gompers, it became almost a personal crusade to win recognition of labor's voice in all civic aspects of American life: viz., an entry and a hearing at the White House; an official voice in government (e. g., the Department of Labor); respectful contractual relations with employers; representation in community associations and affairs; etc.

These were the considerations, for example, that prompted the AFL to take the much-debated step in the early 1900's of entering the National Civic Federation, an organization of employers, labor, and the public, whose chief officers for many years (a seeming anomaly) were Mark Hanna as president and Samuel Gompers as first vice president. Gompers' own account of his motives in entering the organization indicates his basic concern. "It helped to establish the practice," he wrote, "of accepting labor unions as an integral social element and logically of including their representatives in groups to discuss policies." At that time, the National Association of Manufacturers was conducting a vigorous open-shop

propaganda drive. Gompers felt that through the National Civic Federation, labor could induce employers to recognize unions and through the mediation service of the Civic Federation to ward off strikes. He also felt that if he could persuade employers of labor's responsibility in carrying out contracts, industry might make concessions to unions. Gompers, of course, ardently defended his actions, and it is probable that the criticisms of the socialists may have forced him to overstate his case.

But as Harry A. Millis has observed:

In all likelihood, Mr. Gompers and other leaders overestimated the value of hearings before distinguished audiences; probably they underestimated, on the other hand, the sedative and lethargic effect upon the American labor movement of alliance with the employing interests. The craft unions felt, in many cases, that the community had accepted them as necessary and desirable institutions, and this feeling dulled their consciousness of the reservations with which they had been accepted and at the same time dampened their latent fervor to extend a helping hand to those further down in the economic scale, [and] rendered them more unwilling to permit, if immediate cost in job opportunity were involved, those structural readjustments which would make possible inclusion within the organized labor movement of the millions of unskilled workers.

Although Gompers saw economics as the fulcrum of power, he understood too that economic decisions operate within a political context: labor's activities are obviously affected by tariffs, immigration, and court injunctions. The extension of labor's interest to political activity was a natural step. From the very beginning of modern unionism, labor has been involved in politics, and the worker as producer has usually been conscious of his role as a political citizen.

Early AFL Political Activity

In the early years most of the legislative activity of the AFL was restricted to the States. As a result, the State and city central bodies worked quite closely with local political machines to gain their political ends. In normally Republican States, labor was Republican; in normal Democratic States, Democratic. In fact, from the start, the AFL was not nonpartisan, but had dual allegiances in politics. That fact—the reality of the dual allegiances of most of the lower echelon labor leaders—and not an alleged anti-political

stand, shaped Gompers' opposition to socialist resolutions which called on labor to organize a political party of its own. If the AFL had set up its own party, it would have disrupted dearly bought political alliances and alienated those labor leaders who already had strong old party ties. Thus, it was as much a matter of expediency as ideology which shaped Gompers' decision.

In its "politicking", labor sought always to gain a hearing at the pyramid of power and win support from the top politicians. When Gompers moved the national office of the AFL from Indianapolis to Washington in 1897, he established cordial relations with Mark Hanna and William McKinley. A year later, Gompers presented labor's legislative program to McKinley and obtained a promise of support. This included a measure to limit the use of injunctions in labor disputes, a bill for an 8-hour day on Government work, and Andrew Furuseth's seamen's measure to end the feudal clauses restricting sailor's liberty. Friendly as McKinley was, Gompers could make no headway with a Republican Congress. Shortly after, in 1903, the political situation took a turn for the worse, when the NAM threw its weight behind various candidates and succeeded in eliminating a number of Representatives sympathetic to labor. At the same time, the number of court injunctions against labor increased. By 1906, the concern over labor's setback and the lethargy of the AFL officialdom rose so high that Gompers was forced to call a conference of international union leaders to prepare a political program. Out of these deliberations came labor's famous Bill of Grievances.

The Bill complained that labor had not been listened to in the legislative halls, despite the favorable recommendations of several Presidents. "Congress," it said, "has been entirely preoccupied looking after the interests of vast corporations and predatory wealth." The Bill listed a number of demands. Many of these went beyond the pure-and-simple trade-union issue and reflected the social unrest of the period. These included votes for women, child-labor laws, free schools and free textbooks, and the issuance of money by the Government free from the manipulation of private bankers for gain. The majority of the demands were of a narrower trade-union character—restriction of immigration, a curb on the sale of convict production, an 8-hour day and prevailing

rates on Government work, and, of greatest importance, the exemption of labor from the anti-trust laws and the end of the injunction.

So sorely tried was the AFL that the Bill of Grievances hinted that if its appeal went unheeded, it would enter directly into politics. The complaints did go unheeded, and in 1906, to prove that it was making no empty threats, the AFL plunged into the elections. In theory, labor's entry into politics at this time was nothing new. For years the executive council had issued instructions to its affiliates to support labor's friends and punish its enemies. In practice, however, these recommendations were never carried through. This time, the AFL set up a 3-man committee, headed by Gompers, to actively coordinate and work for labor's candidates. Locals and central trade bodies were given direct instructions on candidates. More important, the executive council instructed its affiliates that where either of the major parties ignored a demand for a friendly man, a straight labor candidate be nominated independently. One district, the second Maine, was picked as a trial of arms. Congressman Littlefield, its Representative, had been notoriously anti-labor. Further, he had been exposed as being on the NAM pay roll. Gompers went into the district and worked actively against Littlefield. In turn, the Republican Party rushed in its most famous names to combat labor's campaign. Money and superior numbers won, and Littlefield was reelected, but with a reduced majority.

Meanwhile, the fortunes of the labor movement took a more critical turn, as court injunctions threatened its very existence. In December 1907, the Bucks' Stove and Range Co. secured an injunction against the AFL, charging that the inclusion of its name on an AFL "unfair" list, and the consequent boycott, violated the antitrust laws. Shortly afterwards, the *Danbury Hatters* case, in which large damages were assessed against labor because of a boycott, was upheld by the United States Supreme Court.

When the AFL ignored the Bucks' injunctions, Gompers, Frank Morrison, secretary-treasurer of the Federation, and John Mitchell of the United Mine Workers were sentenced to jail for 6 months. (Later the term was reduced to 30 days, and the sentence finally ignored when the Supreme Court shelved the case.) The courts' interpretations of legislation were threatening labor's very life.

Labor's Stature Enhanced

The election of Woodrow Wilson in 1912 brought labor into its own. During the first administration, it obtained some necessary help. It was able to gain passage of the La Follette bills aiding the seamen; it won for Government employees the right to join trade-unions and lobby for measures in their own behalf.

Labor's stature was enhanced during this period in more important ways. In the closing days of the "lame duck" Congress of March 1913, Congress passed an act creating a Department of Labor with full-fledged cabinet rank. Congressman William B. Wilson, a former secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers and Gompers' personal choice, was appointed by Woodrow Wilson as the first Secretary of Labor. He was in labor's mind "a representative of the wage earners in President Wilson's cabinet." The establishment of the first U. S. Commission of Industrial Relations, which conducted hearings on the bloody Colorado strikes, gave labor a national platform for its case. Its findings argued emphatically for labor's unfettered right to organize and bargain with employers as a prerequisite to industrial peace.

The passage of the Clayton Act was, according to Gompers' somewhat over-optimistic view, "labor's magna charta." It exempted labor from the choking grasp of the Anti-Trust Act. In actual effect it worked out to less than that. Symbolically, however, it was of the greatest import. By political action, labor had succeeded in nullifying the purposes of its enemies.

It was in World War I that labor gained an "official" status. The social implications of a war for democracy made it difficult for employers to ignore a national labor policy which stressed union cooperation. Labor was represented on all Government agencies and commissions concerned with labor matters. These included the Council of National Defense, on whose advisory board Gompers served as a member, the Fuel Administration, the Emergency Construction Board, and even the powerful War Industries Board. Moreover, when the Government undertook operation of the railroads and coal mining, it established collective bargaining with the unions.

Postwar Antiunion Offensive

In the after-war years, the AFL basked in the glow of war-created optimism regarding the peaceful development of labor relations in the United States. The Reconstruction Program adopted in 1919 went, socially, little beyond the Bill of Grievances of 1906. But the glow soon faded. Union efforts to organize steel and conduct industry-wide negotiations in coal met violent reactions from industry. Judge Elbert Gary's reply to a request for collective bargaining with U. S. Steel was forthright. "Our corporations and subsidiaries," he said, "although they do not combat labor unions as such, decline to discuss business with them." When the AFL struck U. S. Steel in 1919, the industry moved swiftly to break the strike. Local police smashed picket lines and union meetings in open disregard of civil rights; thousands of strikebreakers were imported; martial law shut the steel towns down drum-tight. Before the strike was over, some 20 persons, among them 18 workers, were killed.

Spurred on by the victory in steel, the anti-union offensive rolled on. A conference of various employer associations in Chicago, in 1921, defended the open shop and named it the "American Plan." It asserted the values of individualism versus collectivism, and proclaimed that "Every man must work out his own salvation, and not be bound by the shackles of organization to his own detriment." Such was industry's answer to the Wilson-cherished National Industrial Conference of October 1919 which sought agreement on the principles of collective bargaining.

Defeated in the economic field and set back by a series of court decisions which invalidated the Clayton Act, the AFL gingerly turned to independent political action. In 1924, rebuffed by both parties, it turned to the support of Robert LaFollette, Sr., although Gompers made it clear that such endorsement was for a single campaign and did not portend the formation of a permanent third party. The small electoral vote for LaFollette provided the excuse the AFL was looking for, and the Federation hastily withdrew from any further independent political activity. Discouraged in both forms of social expression, the AFL lagged, and by the early depression years, its membership had fallen below 3 million.

Labor and the Public Interest

The aggressive union organizing drives of the late 1930's, particularly by the CIO, were not only conflicts between labor and capital; they brought into sharp question again the role of labor's place in the community. Many of the new leaders of labor envisaged these drives as a show-down between itself and an industrial autocracy. But forcefully, the image of "the public," and, in particular, an anxious middle-class public opinion, began to intrude and play decisive roles in crucial strike situations. This was a lesson that the older needle-trades unions in New York—Men's Clothing, Ladies' Garment, and Hat Workers—had long since learned; consequently their public relations programs and community activities, i. e., health and welfare, credit unions, housing, etc., had been shaped with those experiences in mind. The relationship to a powerful middle-class opinion was still to be learned by the newer unions.

These problems came sharply into focus in the years 1936 to 1939 when a number of events scared a great many Americans about labor's intentions. Sit-down strikes, mass walk-outs, flying squadrons, and similar spectacular tactics had given the country a whiff of class warfare. "Industrial valley," the smoking swath from Pittsburgh to Chicago, in which lay the great redoubts of steel, auto, and rubber, was the scene of stormy conflicts. In the small towns of Pennsylvania and the Ohio Valley, "party-of-the-third-part" organizations intervened against the strikers. Under employer and small-town newspaper influence, citizens committees and law and order leagues were formed to "protect the right of the nonunion man to work without interference from any source." In Hershey, Pa., irate farmers closed in on the town to end a strike. A new technique, first developed by the Remington Rand Co. and widely publicized by the NAM under the name of the Mohawk Valley formula, outlined a campaign to mobilize local support, especially in the small towns, against unions. Slowly, large segments of the community were being turned against labor.

It took another war to fully "legitimize" labor's place in the society. The war was a forced draft toward national unity. The need for production and for labor peace was a national considera-

tion overriding all particular interests. Whether, without the war, American labor would have proceeded in a more radical direction, as promised in some of the early organizing phases, or whether industry would have learned to accept unionism gracefully, as U. S. Steel did, or step up its resistance, as "Little Steel" had, is moot. The fact was that the trade-union was a necessary channel whereby millions of workers could be mobilized, and no national policy could ignore the deeply devoted following unionism had gained.

World War II finally gave labor a defined role in American society, and the trade-union leadership a more than token place in the establishment of war policy and the execution of orders. The degree to which that recognition went beyond the assignments given labor in World War I is a significant measure of its new status. When the National Defense Advisory Commission was set up in 1940, the CIO's Sidney Hillman shared equal voice with Edward Stettinius of U. S. Steel and William Knudsen of General Motors. The symbolism was striking: Stettinius, a scion of wealth and a financier; Knudsen, a Dane and a production engineer; and Hillman, a Lithuanian Jewish immigrant and a labor leader. Throughout the war period, labor was represented in all the chief war agencies: the War Production Board, the War Manpower Commission, the Office of Price Administration, and the Office of Civilian Defense.

Of equal relevance was the fact that, in the States and in the townships, trade-union officers of the lower echelons served on price and rationing boards, on Selective Service tribunals, on civilian defense committees, and in other war work, while it also combined with industry representatives to do a magnificent fund-raising job for war relief abroad. In this effort, the work of the AFL's Labor League for Human Rights and the CIO's War Relief Committee struck new and deep roots in the local community structure.

Labor's Role in Government

The wartime role carried over into the work of reconstruction as well, particularly in the Marshall plan. The logic of labor representation in the ECA is simple. The recovery of Europe depends fundamentally upon breaking the death grip of the Communists on the European labor movement

and ending its sabotaging role. But European workers, out of a long history of suspicion, tend to look a gift horse in the mouth. American capitalists, according to old European classlore, are of two sorts: those who will take everything that is not nailed down, and those who will take anything, nailed down or not. That kind of legend, annealed into a dogma by Communist propagandists, finds easy acceptance in a political structure wherein the slogan "Down with Wall Street" passes as social theory. Only men speaking for American labor can demonstrate adequately the one-sidedness of Communist charges; hence, the active role of Clinton Golden and Bert Jewell as chief labor advisers to Paul Hoffman in the ECA and the presence of labor officials in most ECA missions to Europe, including assignments in a number of countries as chiefs of missions.

It was almost inevitable that hand in hand with labor's participation in Government would go a deep and permanent interest in politics. The intervention of Government in economic affairs, extended by the Roosevelt administrations into many new areas, gave labor a vital stake in the legislative processes. For its protection in organizing, labor had not only its economic power but a legislative guarantee (the Wagner Act). The latter, having been granted by a political body, could as easily be restricted—as in Taft-Hartley. But it was not only the aspects of protective legislation that brought labor actively back into the political arena with its own show. It was a growing awareness of its stake in the larger social program developed by the New Deal. Labor's philosophy of a high-wage policy was matched by the Administration's mildly Keynesian discovery of its spending powers as a means of stimulating the economy and raising the purchasing powers of the people. Equally relevant as issues were the needs of housing, medical care, etc., which could only be met by some form of Government action.

Aggressive Political Action

Labor's renewed interest in politics was signaled in 1936 by the formation of Labor's Non-Partisan League and the creation of the American Labor Party in New York. Labor made heavy financial contributions in that campaign, notably

the \$500,000 advanced by John L. Lewis' United Mine Workers. In various industrial States labor played a key role in the election of Roosevelt in 1936 and 1940. The defection of Lewis from the Roosevelt camp in 1940 spelled an end to Labor's Non-Partisan League, while the Nazi-Soviet pact split the American Labor Party—the elements led by David Dubinsky (ILGWU) and Alex Rose (Hatters) bolting and starting the Liberal Party.

However, in 1944, Sidney Hillman formed the CIO's Political Action Committee, which, along with the personal prestige of Hillman, became a mud-slinging issue in the 1944 campaign. PAC in its early years garnered much publicity, but its major efforts were devoted largely to generating a circus hoopla through radio talks, clever broadsheets, and similar devices. Only in 1948 did it settle down to the more sober tasks of beginning a permanent precinct organization in the major States and of conducting a basic door-to-door, bell-ringing campaign. In 1948, too, the AFL, spurred by the passage of the Taft-Hartley Act, entered fully into the political campaign with Labor's League for Political Education. While the LLPE was organized too late to do an effective pavement-pounding job, it did exercise some influence in a number of northern cities.

Labor's full-scale entry in politics has marked a subtle change in the operations of trade-unionism. In various cities, the AFL and CIO have banded together behind a prolabor man and have, in varying measure, become allied with local political bosses or have become competitors for control of party machinery. Through political contacts, the labor men have become involved not only in State and municipal policy problems but patronage problems as well. At the same time, the officers of the State and city labor bodies have become more important figures in their role as liaison men with the local politicians. Achieving new power and prominence through their local political ties, vis-a-vis their national officers, the local AFL and CIO officials will affect, in some measure, the power relationships within the federations themselves.

On another level, a political role poses new problems for labor. To the extent that labor has to square its particular needs against the national interest, it finds itself increasingly torn between a

series of public and private commitments. The United States labor movement, for example, is internationalist-minded and favors the expansion of world trade. However, efforts to increase the shipping capacity of the Norwegians and British, whose shipping plays an important role in their economies, is met with protest from the United States maritime unions who want more shipping done in American bottoms. All labor is for cheaper electric power, but the miners and railroad unions have skillfully lobbied against the development of the St. Lawrence waterways, because of the deleterious effect that project might have on their employment. Nearly all labor is for reciprocal trade, but particular unions want exemptions or quotas for the products which concern them; and efforts to reduce the tariff finds many unions voicing strong and anguished protests. These contradictions can easily be multiplied. As labor is forced to develop a more consistent and coherent political ideology in its electoral appeals, the strain between the public and private roles may be increasingly difficult to reconcile.

Community Service Activities

Perhaps the most startling aspect of labor's new status is the silent revolution in the last 10 years within the Nation's communities, whereby the trade-union movement has become increasingly an integral part of the community services program. A recent report of the CIO Community Services Committee indicates that labor is officially participating in more than 7,000 community services programs across the country. In 1942, labor participated in about 90 programs. These activities range from membership on the boards of directors of the Community Chests and the Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts, to work with the family service agencies and the public assistance programs. The AFL has no figures on the number of programs in which their members participate, but since it is a common practice to invite AFL participation equally with CIO, it is likely that this figure applies almost equally there.

One might rightly say that labor's increasing role in community welfare work is an unanticipated consequence of the tax laws. In the past, "social work" was often identical with "charity work" and the extent of a community's charity

depended on the largesse of some benefactor or his wife. In the recent decades, social work has become professionalized. The operation of child-care centers, home nursing visits, mental hygiene clinics, family counselling, and delinquency treatment today rests on the solid basis of sociological and psychiatric concepts. At the same time, support of these endeavors has become a community-wide problem. Large individual donations are few and far between and cannot be expected to be repeated annually; and no budget can function in hit-or-miss fashion. The consequence has been that as the tax structure narrows the income base of wealth, it forces the broadening of the base of giving.

In almost every community in the United States, donations for community services are channeled through a Community Chest or some similar unifying agency. Labor leaders serve on the leading planning and fund-raising committees of nearly all the Community Chests. In 32 cities, either one or two labor persons work full-time on the Community Chest staff, acting as liaison between the social agencies and the unions. The results can be seen in the tremendous rise of employee donations to community services.

In the past, fund-raising among workers was largely a "shake-down" affair whereby a foreman might order a worker to "fork over," and donations were then announced as coming from the company. Today the unions conduct fund-raising in the plants and share the credit for the money raised. In Detroit, for example, Ford Local 600 of the UAW helped raise more than \$840,000 (as against a goal of \$525,000) in the city's \$8,000,000 Torch Fund Campaign. In Akron, where 16 CIO people serve on various boards of the Community Chest, union cooperation has increased to a point where the proportion of workers' gifts totals 36 percent.

This is not wholly altruism. Labor expects that when its members are in need—as in a strike—the community agencies will help alleviate distress. The situation is best illustrated by a recent communication of the national board of the YWCA, which said:

The national office of Community Chests and Councils has reminded the national organizations which have local affiliates financed through Community Chests that there may be serious need of their services if the national telephone strike occurs. As you well

know, labor has now for many years past contributed generously to Community Chests and has taken considerable part in community planning. The YWCA will have a particular concern in this matter as so many of the strikers are young girls and women and you may, therefore, wish to offer your services. The most needed ones are likely to be—the facilities of the building; a place to sit; inexpensive food, if you have a cafeteria; and perhaps, if the strike is prolonged, informal recreation and education classes.

This is not taking sides in a strike. It is a simple meeting of human needs for a group of citizens who feel they can expect such services from agencies which they help to support . . .

This shift of attitude—from labor's dour hostility to community boards, to eager cooperation; and from the welfare agencies' dependence on largesse and fear of labor, to eager solicitation—is dramatic only to the extent that it represents a change, when unionism as a whole was ostracized in the community, to the acceptance of labor as a legitimate functional group in the social structure.

The effect of the change can be seen best in the small towns when labor goes on strike, Mary Heaton Vorse, who reported the steel strikes of 1919 and 1937, wrote in February 1950 Harpers of the 1949 scene. Walking about Charleroi, Pa., the local steel union director asked her: "Does anything look unusual to you in this town?"

"You mean the posters in the shop windows advertising Philip Murray's meeting? That couldn't have happened a long time ago," she said.

"That's right," he replied. "The union has fine relations now with all the local people in these steel towns. They are all for us and they used to be all against us."

As they prepared to move into a car to start a 100-car motorcade to Murray's strike meeting 25 miles away, someone asked: "Who's going to do the lettering for the banner of the mayor's car? The mayor's and the city officials' cars were to have banners saying they supported the union's fight for pensions."

Later, the chairman stated: "Now, brothers, we're getting 100 percent cooperation from the police. We want to make things easier for them. Get early to your places and keep to your schedules, help the police—they're helping us."

"These statements," remarks Mrs. Vorse, "made anyone who had known the city officials of 1937 and seen the police in action in the Little Steel Strike feel that he was having a happy but implausible dream."

In the America of 1950, David Dubinsky is probably better known publicly than a powerful banker like Winthrop Aldrich, with whom he rubs shoulders at a United Negro College Fund luncheon. Robert Dingwell, the unpaid head of Amalgamated Local 724, UAW-CIO, Lansing, Mich., is one of thousands of trade-unionists who serves conscientiously on a variety of his town's civic commissions. Across the Nation, from Dubinsky to Dingwell, unionism, no longer alien, has won a respected and respectable seat at the American community table.

"The very character of this struggle over power and prerogative precludes monistic solutions in a democratic society . . . The process now under way in industry follows many paths. The negotiated agreement, the grievance conferences, arbitral decisions, strikes, changing labor law, all of these mediate the untidy tug for status and power . . . Out of such daily living experience will come . . . various forms of accommodation hammered out by corporations and unions to give pragmatic American answers to evolving specific problems."

Selekman: Book review, 61 Harv. Law Rev. 1473, 1475-78 (1948).

The Old and the New in Labor Statistics

Part I. The Economic Brief

EVERETT KASSALOW

THE CHANGING CHARACTER of trade-unionism and collective bargaining is clearly revealed in the evolution of union economic arguments. Today's union presentation in a major wage hearing often resembles a Supreme Court brief. It is prepared, and sometimes even presented, by technical experts. It frequently appears designed almost to inundate as well as convince the opponent and the "court" with a flood of facts.

Union briefs, however, were not always thus. In contrast to its sophisticated modern brother, the earlier brief was personal, emotional rather than statistical.

New Techniques for New Needs

The emphases of recent years manifest a kind of coming of age of the labor movement, a widened viewpoint, and new and greater responsibilities. Simultaneously, they reflect the great modern advances in statistical collection and methods.

In the earlier period, organized labor, constituting but a tiny part of the total labor force, worded its arguments in the form of special pleading for organized groups tucked away in the economy and enjoying a more favored wage position which they were determined to defend.¹ Thus, New York City Local No. 6, Typographical Union, explaining its wage demand in a 1907 arbitration proceeding, noted:

. . . the demand for an increase is justified because of the fact that the newspaper scale of prices [wages] has remained at a standstill, for more than fifteen years, while other wage earners in practically every other skilled trade have secured shorter hours and increased wages. [Italics supplied.]

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Some time after the mid-thirties, the character of the organized labor movement underwent a rather basic transformation. From a limited structure of some 3 or 4 million members, trade-unionism burgeoned into a mass organization about four times as large.

Such a body could scarcely continue to base its demands upon the special needs of small, skilled groups. It was representative of virtually all occupational layers of the population. Its "settlements" were influencing over-all levels of purchasing power and prices. It was compelled, therefore, especially in cases involving large groups of workers, to speak in a voice more befitting this new role, a voice such as one finds in the modern briefs.

Contrast the earlier statement of the printers with today's labor philosophy, with its emphasis upon a high-wage and high-purchasing-power level for the entire economy. The United Automobile Workers-CIO argument for a wage boost in the General Motors case, 1945-46, as expressed in *Purchasing Power for Prosperity*, is a notable example:

Mass purchasing power is our new frontier, and only by developing this new frontier can business maintain the source of new prosperity from which profits flow. This is not radical doctrine—this is conservative doctrine.

This broad purchasing power theory of high employment is not confined to the CIO. A recent issue of the AFL *Labor's Monthly Survey*, for example, expresses a similar viewpoint under the heading, "Increase Buying Power to Create Jobs for the Unemployed."

Wage Theory—Attack and Counter-Attack

Far from such ambitious goals, much of the typical trade-union's effort in arbitration proceedings early in the century was devoted to re-

pudiating the "natural" and "iron" laws of wages. Again and again employers attacked union attempts to raise wages "artificially," and thereby interfere with the "law of supply and demand."

In a 1903 arbitration, involving United Railroads of San Francisco and Division 205, Amalgamated Association of Street Railway Employees of America, in an attempt to prove that this law could and did prevail, California transit employers submitted evidence on the availability of labor in the local markets at wages then prevailing on the local rail line, or, indeed, at lower wages. They canvassed employment services in San Francisco, and typical of the reactions they encountered was the comment of one placement executive:

. . . that he could, upon one week's notice, there being nothing to prevent or disturb their peaceable employment, get together a thousand men who could . . . in his judgment, perform, after proper instruction, the service of motorman, gripman or conductor in the lines of the United Railroad . . .

Fortified with this evidence, the employer could triumphantly conclude:

. . . in these strictly normal circumstances where the employer has the State of California for an immediate field, and under Federal Law the movements of people interstate cannot be lawfully restrained, the law of supply and demand is absolutely the rule.

Such economics would scarcely find support, at least not in this open and ingenuous manner, in employers' briefs today. Unions engaging in arbitration then, however, had to contend with it quite regularly. To the employers' supply and demand argument, the same union replied to the Middlesex and Boston Street Railway Co., in a 1917 arbitration in Boston, that "when the company and its employees agree to arbitrate, they by so doing waive all right to invoke the law of supply and demand."

The "law" persisted, however, and in 1921 it evoked a stinging attack by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America in the Chicago Wage Arbitration Proceedings:

. . . if the economic theory of wages which the employers accept is true, then there has from the beginning been no economic justification for the system of collective bargaining which has operated in this City since 1911. To be on the one hand participants in a system of labor agreements for the period of ten years, and to maintain on the other that col-

lective bargaining impedes the natural operation of pure economic forces, is to involve one's self in a contradiction that is difficult to explain away . . . if it is right and desirable that these economic forces should continue unimpeded, then collective bargaining and trade agreements are *ipso facto* undesirable and socially harmful.

Living Standards—A Search for Definition

There was a strong emotional tone in the older union briefs. One finds constant emphasis upon the workers' right to an "American standard of living"—a "living American wage."² Attempts to define it were sometimes rather vague, as early budget studies hardly pretended to reach the refined statistical levels of the modern Bureau of Labor Statistics City Workers' Family Budget.

In spite of their lack of quantitative precision, however, the pleas for an "American Standard of Living" were quite powerful. While the 1917 Boston brief of the Amalgamated Association mentioned previously may have lacked the bulky expenditure studies, nutritional surveys, and the like of the modern BLS budget, it found a noble champion in Professor Frank H. Streightoff of De Pauw University, who had outlined the needs of the contemporary working man as follows:

What, then, is the content of the lowest tolerable standard of living? In the first place there must be food, clothing, and shelter sufficient to maintain economic efficiency . . . If economic efficiency is to be preserved, there must be provision against sickness and unemployment; for, unless his strength is maintained during idleness, when he returns to work the individual is unfit for his stint. *Moreover, the man's standard must include a family, else in a generation, production will cease.*

But this view of the purpose of man is far too narrow. Few people would today have the hardihood to deny that man's life should contain the largest possible amounts of wholesome pleasure. "One of the strongest human wants is the desire for the society of one's fellows." (Bullock.) This means that with a normal standard of living the house should contain a room fit for the entertainment of company, that the family should have clothes that will enable them to appear in public without shame, and that the routine should include leisure for polite intercourse. Still if man is to be an end in himself, he must have more than this; he needs some education, books, pictures and wholesome recreation . . . Modern scientific charity as well as the Christian problem recognizes a very real social value in the home. It is probably this which is in the mind of Professor John A. Ryan when he writes that the father should support the family.

Today the standard practice is merely to refer to the BLS City Worker's Family Budget or the Heller Budget of the University of California. Some statement of the bare character of these budgets is occasionally included, but the earlier emotion and "warmth" are gone from the presentation.³ Which type is more effective is debatable. While the modern BLS Budget is doubtless statistically stronger than earlier attempts to define a decent "American standard of living", it lacks the flesh and blood appeal of the earlier efforts.

"Measuring" Living Costs

The same human touch also manifests itself in early discussions of cost-of-living trends. The absence of regular indexes in the first two decades of the century generally led unions to undertake original expenditure and savings studies. The results of such analyses were frequently presented directly by the "victims" of rising living costs themselves.

Thus, the proceedings were often brought to a highly personal level. Replying to one worker's complaints of rising living costs and his inability to make ends meet on current wages, in the 1903 San Francisco streetcar case, the company's attorney noted that this worker:

. . . who complained of the price of tomatoes and green peppers . . . unwittingly disclosed extravagant habits of living. Tomatoes and green peppers are used in making a salad, and in the season referred to by this young man these vegetables were luxuries denied even to the man who earns a salary largely in excess of the carmen's. Tomatoes and green peppers in Spring in California are a dish for millionaires. Their appearance on the table is an event in the house of an ordinary man.

The company also criticized the carman whose "\$6 underclothes told his own story of waste"!

Heated differences about how much living costs had risen were perhaps the greatest cause of agitation right down to the twenties. Surveys and counter-surveys and adjustments of existing indexes and readjustments were common. While conditions have changed somewhat in recent bargaining, this 1920 argument, expressed in an arbitration between the Publishing Association of New York City and Typographical Union No. 6, will, nevertheless, have a familiar ring:

It must be borne in mind that most of the studies into the cost of living take into consideration the general price levels throughout the country. Rural and urban sections as well as large and small cities are lumped together in such investigations. The estimates obtained through such investigations differ a great deal from the critical conditions prevailing in such a city as New York.

To remedy this deficiency, the union proceeded to make its own surveys, based, it is true, on Bureau of Labor Statistics weights for the major components. Special importance was attached to the union's rent surveys, since it was argued that this was the weakest component of existing data, a contention sometimes echoed today.

What we might call the more qualitative emphasis on economic questions is also evinced in the manner in which the union in the previously mentioned Typographical Union No. 6 brief of 1907 proceeded to demonstrate pressure of rising prices by quoting a *New York Sun* editorial:

Most, if not all, of them have been losers rather than gainers by the increased cost of living. They must dance to a tune set for them by others. They must pay the higher cost of living out of incomes which do not rise with the increase in the price of commodities.

Toward Precision and Adequacy

The appearance of the Bureau's semiannual 32-city index in 1921 served to take some of these problems out of the area of controversy, although adjustments over the 6-month gap were employed. By September 1940, the index was being published monthly. While there have been occasional flareups in labor briefs as to inadequacies of data, generally the parties are now more apt to accept BLS data with merely verbal qualifications. Thus, the United Rubber Workers in a 1947 brief discussed the inadequacies of the BLS Cost of Living Index, listing five main reasons.

But the union nevertheless proceeded, in what has become more or less typical fashion, to use the index to deflate earnings, to show the great pressure of living costs, etc.

Wage data, too, were a constant source of confusion and disagreement in early cases. Generally, there was a lack of sufficient and current material on earnings in industries immediately concerned. The development and refinement of BLS weekly and hourly earnings data since the

early 1920's has undoubtedly reduced some of this confusion. But on some of the wage problems that agitated the parties in arbitration most deeply 2 and 3 decades ago, labor and management still lack any real body of tested material on annual earnings for wage earners in particular industries. This was a constant source of irritation to unions 3 decades ago and continues to be the same today.

Today's Brief Has a Broader Scope

In spite of many gaps in data which still persist, compared to its older brother, the modern wage brief is a masterpiece, in both its technique and the broad sweep of its contentions. From a technical standpoint, it is replete with data on cost of living, family budget studies, data from BLS and elsewhere on prevailing vacation or holiday patterns, and data from the Securities and Exchange Commission on profits, executive salaries, and the like. It draws heavily on the fine statistical collections which have been developed by these and other agencies in the past few decades.

Even more striking, in many of today's briefs is the positive and aggressive defense of the union's cause in terms of the over-all needs of a full employment economy. The doctrine that total consumption can be broadened by collective bargaining wage increases has become at least respectable, if not universally accepted. It is often invoked in local as well as national bargaining.

Actually, one can find a few examples of what might loosely be termed the economy-wide "purchasing power" theory in earlier union arguments. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers and the AFL Meat Packers in 1921 both advanced the argument rather cautiously. Essentially, however, in those years, on the very few occasions when it did appear, the doctrine was extremely defensive in tone. For example, the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen's argument in the famous packinghouse case of 1921 was that wage cuts should be resisted to prevent reductions in consumption power.

The older briefs lack the modern positive emphasis on collective bargaining, wage increases, and broader consumption as the direct road to full employment and full production.

The Value of Briefs—Intrinsic and Forensic

In passing on to the current period, it should be stated that while the earlier brief may have lacked the broad economic philosophy and some of the fine statistical refinements of its successor, it was not ineffective. A major function of a collective-bargaining brief, and particularly the union brief, is to fortify the bargaining committee, and ultimately, perhaps the membership, in the soundness of their position. In his own experience, this writer has seen the visible influence of both strong and weak briefs on union morale vis-à-vis the company.

The older briefs naturally never gained much currency beyond the two bargaining powers. If their appeal was more personal and limited, to a considerable extent, this was an aid rather than a weakness.

By contrast, the modern brief (or at least parts of it) in a large industrial dispute (say the Steelworkers and the United States Steel Corp., or the Auto Workers and General Motors) is almost from the start destined to become a matter of public discussion. Indeed, it is generally not written for a formal "private" arbitration, but rather, is often prepared for *public* fact-finding hearings. Settlements flowing from these hearings tend to influence settlements in industries related to it, and, indeed, in industries frequently quite remote from it.

The writer can recall, for example, bargaining with one of the largest rubber companies in the Nation in 1948. For 2 weeks the company had rejected all economic demands. As the parties were preparing to break off, and a strike loomed, the announcement came of the UAW-General Motors settlement of 11 cents per hour. The company, after a 3-day recess, offered a settlement almost in line with the General Motors pattern.

Small wonder, then, that questions of economic philosophy and the effect of wage increases on prices, profits, and employment play so conspicuous a role.

In the typical national public interest case today, of course, the union presentation does not ignore detailed analysis of corporate profits, financial structure, productivity, and other basic elements. Indeed, in connection with its 1945-46 case, the United Steelworkers of America produced special pamphlets, one surveying steel profits over

a period of 5 years, and another analyzing the income, expenditure, and savings patterns of workers in a typical steel community.

Yet, what distinguishes this brief as well as others like it, in contrast to the earlier efforts we have referred to, is the broad analysis of national economic trends and phenomena and the insistence on the relevance of the union's case to these factors.

It should be noted, too, that these analyses go beyond a mere purchasing power theory of economics. In the 1949 case involving the Steelworkers and the basic steel industry, union economists critically analyzed the total flow of national income, including savings and investment, and their relation to consumption. The union presented to the Presidential Steel Board several studies which analyzed in detail the over-all economic position of the Nation as well as the special picture of the steel industry.

Part of the union's presentation stated:

In the latter stages of the postwar boom, consumption expenditures lagged behind the rise in personal income because of sharply increased personal savings, especially among the higher income groups. The sharp rise in personal savings and in corporate savings necessarily resulted in consumption expenditures increasing at a lesser rate than the national income, and investment expenditures increasing at a more rapid rate. This could not continue endlessly.

To reverse these trends, the union advocated, among other measures, a wage increase in all industries which could afford to pay one without raising prices and without simultaneously jeopardizing its financial position. Workers, the argument ran, would be more likely to spend

increased income directly, in contrast to corporations or higher income stockholders.

That such broad arguments in this recent steel bargaining weighed heavily in the case is attested to by the 83-page report of the fact-finding board. Indeed, at least one member of the board took it upon himself to challenge the union's basic economic philosophy. The *entire* board recognized the fact that "a wage-rate increase in the steel industry might well lead to similar increases in many other industries." The board added: "The steel industry must not be considered in isolation and that the effects of a general wage-rate increase on the whole economy must be weighed."

As an indication of the distance collective bargaining has traveled, it is of interest to lay this recent steel report side by side with the few-paged award in the meat packing case of 1921.

Clearly the union brief today performs a function in keeping with the broader needs of a larger labor organization. Yet, what the earlier brief lacked in statistical depth and broad economic analysis it gained in its very personal and individual emphasis. It too was highly functional and in keeping with the needs of another day.

¹ The railroad unions operating in a "public utility" environment constitute a special case today as well as 3 or 4 decades back. For this reason they are not mentioned in this article.

² See, for example, Arbitration between the Publishers' Association of New York City and New York Typographical Union No. 6, 1920, or Review and Arguments of W. D. Mahon, International President, Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees of America in the Arbitration Case of the Chicago Street Railway Employees, 1912.

³ See Wage Brief: Goodrich Negotiations, May 1948, Prepared by Research Department, United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and Plastic Workers of America, CIO (pp. 5-8); or Union Exhibits, Birmingham Electric Company and Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway & Motor Coach Employees of America, AFL, Division 725, June-July 1949.

Part II. The BLS Program: A Critique

NATHANIEL GOLDFINGER

THE BASIS for the Bureau's¹ present high repute was laid long ago—in a series of studies dating back to the nineteenth century. Yet the past 50 years have seen a change in the character of the Bureau and its work. One aspect of this change has been the gradual supplanting of the earlier qualitative type of studies by quantitative reports.

Statistical procedures improved as the agency assumed new responsibilities after World War I. Trained statisticians, Comptometers, and IBM machines filled the gaps in technique that were prevalent in the Bureau's early period. The needs of the New Deal era were met with a flow of data which has given us a wide range of information about our economy.

The Change in Character of BLS

This development of more scientific methods of investigation and reporting, however, does not cast into disfavor the Bureau's earlier record. Gains were made as techniques improved, but something of value was, in large part, lost. The purposeful zeal and humanism with which the early Bureau studies were made have dulled considerably. There has been a trend toward a one-sided development of techniques and their refinement, to the almost utter exclusion of analytical work.

The degree to which raw data reflect the economic picture is a moot question, but they obviously cannot present much more than a distilled sector, abstracted out of context. Analytical judgments and illustrative case studies are needed to point up the data and give them a meaning they do not have by themselves.

The Bureau's earlier reports, despite poor sampling methods and a tendency toward long-winded rhetoric, seem to have amply served the needs of the time. In the Bureau's work, there was an alertness to changing conditions. Its detailed case examples placed a sharp emphasis on the human side of the problems studied and

qualitative judgments most often pointed to specific solutions. Yet, it was in this period that the Bureau's enduring reputation for objective reporting and nonpartisanship was established.

The Original Credo

"It should be remembered," wrote Commissioner of Labor Carroll D. Wright in 1885, "that a bureau of labor cannot solve industrial or social problems, nor can it bring direct returns in a material way to the citizens of the country; but its work must be classed among educational efforts, and by judicious investigations and the fearless publication thereof it may and should enable the people to comprehend more clearly and more fully many of the problems which now vex them."

In 1904 Commissioner Wright, characterized the agency's duties even more succinctly. "The functions of the Bureau," he wrote, "are to collect and publish information, as the law defines, relating to the material, social, intellectual, and moral prosperity of laboring men and women."

Although he did not look for "direct returns in a material way" from the Bureau's work, the earlier note of extra caution was missing in the later statement. He sought practical solutions to the specific social and economic problems brought into focus by the Bureau's investigations. He was convinced that "the altruism of the age" would favorably respond to the objective reporting of social and economic conditions.

The country was undergoing vast social and economic changes during those early years of the Bureau. A mass-production economy and industrial society were being established. The western frontier was fast passing into history and the Alaskan gold rush was a last fling that attracted only a few hardy souls. Hundreds of thousands of immigrants joined the labor force each year. Large areas of our rapidly expanding cities became miserable slums.

The sore spots of that period were frequently spotlighted by the Bureau's studies. Many improvements in the working and living conditions of wage earners were, in part, brought about by the "fearless publication of facts, without regard to the influence those facts may have upon any party's position or any partisan views," which Commissioner Wright's 1904 credo had called for.

"Labor Is Our Universe"

Yet he harkened in the same paper to the need for the irrefutable logic of facts gathered by sound methods.

. . . Facts can be gained only by the most faithful application of the statistical method, not only in the gathering thereof, but in the application. Personal observation . . . is not sufficient.

While he eschewed propaganda and pleaded for ever-improving methods and expanding fields for exploration, he was careful to distinguish between the function of a bureau of labor statistics and a bureau for a census. Labor was his universe.

In his 1904 paper, "The Value and Influence of Labor Statistics," Wright pointed to the work of the Federal and State labor statistics agencies in bringing about the development of weekly cash pay for wage earners, workmen's compensation laws, factory inspection, and the early attempts to eliminate child labor. Referring to a report on Boston slums by the Massachusetts Bureau of the Statistics of Labor, he said:

The public was fully apprised of the misery that existed in them [the slums] . . . Public attention was aroused through these publications, better laws were framed and passed . . .

An example of the Bureau's awareness of specific social problems was its work, at the turn of the century, on the need for public baths in the densely populated areas of our industrial cities. E. M. Hartwell, in an article, complete with diagrams and descriptions, on "Public Baths in Europe," in the July 1897 issue of the Bureau's *Bulletin*, concluded:

. . . the writer confidently believes that the lessons of German experience in regard to workmen's baths will be fully recognized and ultimately acted upon by the friends and employers of American artisans.

Hartwell's article was followed 7 years later by "Public Baths in the United States" by G. W. W. Hanger. This study was considered important enough to be part of the Bureau's bulletin exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. It contained pictures, floor plans, and even diagrams of "bathing appliances," in addition to such data as the number of showers and tubs in each bath house, the daily period in service, and whether or not there were dressing rooms and hot water. It recommended use of showers, the popularity of which the Bureau seems to have fostered.

The Range of Bulletin Studies

Although these concrete social studies dealt with community problems, they were directly aimed at improving the living conditions of a large section of wage earners. The papers on small Negro communities were similar studies of broad social problems. The Bureau's *Bulletin* during the early years also published detailed studies of immigrant groups who were then arriving in this country in large numbers.

In reply to what seems to have been an attack on the "un-American" influence of trade-unions on immigrant employees in the Chicago stockyards, Wright stated, in a 1905 report to the President after a stockyard strike:

Not only is the Amalgamated Meat Cutters Union an Americanizing influence in the stockyards, but for the Poles, Lithuanians, and Slovaks it is the only Americanizing influence [available], so far as could be determined in this investigation.

The Bureau's alertness to contemporary developments produced such reports as "The Alaskan Gold Fields and the Opportunities They Offer for Capital and Labor" in the May 1898 *Bulletin*, a short time after the discovery of gold; there was a supplementary report in the November 1898 issue. The diary-type reports contained large folded maps and information on specific trails, weather conditions, the prices of food and supplies, the value of yields, and a list entitled "one year's outfit for one miner." The introduction to the first report stated:

Recognizing the desire for trustworthy information relating to the opportunities for remunerative employment of American labor and capital in the gold regions in the Yukon Valley and adjoining territory, Mr. Samuel C. Dunham, of this Department, was directed to proceed to Alaska and to the locality of the gold regions for the purpose of making an official investigation.

From the Gold Rush to Lead Poisoning

Detailed case studies of working and living conditions were also produced in the Bureau's early period. Although cavalier sampling methods were used, these papers attempted to present a concentrated picture in microcosm of widespread social and economic conditions. This case record method gave a realistic and human aspect to the Bureau's studies. It provided an insight and understanding into daily experiences, hardly at-

tainable from our present refined, but largely unanalyzed data.

"Conditions of Living Among the Poor," by S. E. Forman, in the May 1906 *Bulletin*, was such a study of 19 families. This paper included such information as family earnings, weekly food expenditures, rent, borrowing, the amount of various food items purchasable for 10 cents, the equivalent in calories, and the detailed daily expenditures for a 5-week period.

A later study by Mr. Forman on the "Cost of Industrial Insurance in the District of Columbia," stated:

. . . the facts set forth above tell nothing about the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the cost of either ordinary insurance or of industrial insurance. They simply show what the cost of industrial insurance is and how much greater that cost is than the cost of ordinary insurance, and illustrate . . . that the smaller the earning power of a wage earner, the smaller also is the purchasing power of each of his dollars.

Studies of working conditions, too, were broad and purposeful. C. F. W. Doehring, in "Factory Sanitation and Labor Protection," in the January 1903 *Bulletin*, wrote:

The welfare of the laboring class has always been a subject of the greatest importance and most far-reaching influence socially and politically. The miserable hygienic conditions existing in the working places in some industries, for example, are unjust to the working classes, and sometimes react with frightful results upon the public.

This article on industrial disease dealt in detail with the health hazards of the lead, oilcloth and linoleum, and fertilizer industries. The illumination, ventilation, and construction of industrial plants were examined, and suggestions for improvements were made.

The January 1910 *Bulletin* carried a lengthy work, "Phosphorus Poisoning in the Match Industry," by John B. Andrews, based on a study of 15 out of the 16 match plants then in existence. It was accompanied by a list and description of industrial poisons by three experts. These articles were part of a series on working conditions, which included "Fatal Accidents in Coal Mining," "Accidents to Railroad Employees in New Jersey," and "Mortality from Consumption in Occupations Exposed to Municipal and General Organic Dust."

The emphasis on case studies in the early period did not deter the Bureau from collecting and publishing valuable statistical data. In 1905, the retail food price index (1890-1900=100) appeared, based on 30 food items in 80 cities. Also published at that time was a family budget, based on the "average expenditure of 2,567 workingmen's families for each of the principal items entering into [the] cost of living"; it contained a percentage comparison with costs 5 years before. This precursor of the Consumers' Price Index was immediately put to use by the trade-unions.

The Bureau's Wider Scope and Newer Methods

Looking back over the years, we find that the social and economic problems of the earlier period have been eliminated or have changed in form. The Bureau, in its way, helped to solve or alleviate many of the problems. The growth of the trade-unions, especially in the basic industries, and the public influence of the unions, have done much to eradicate the injustices of the age of mass production's rapid growth.

The Bureau now operates in a different world. It covers a vaster field. The demands upon it, as a result of the greater public interest in the national economy and the development of the trade-union movement, have grown considerably. Other Federal agencies have taken up some of the Bureau's former tasks. Yet within the scope of the Bureau's legal domain, old problems continue in different settings and degrees, and new ones arise.

A Fusion of Methods for New Problems

In this changed environment, the Bureau does not seem to have maintained its earlier awareness. The public bath issue, to which the Bureau responded with vitality at the turn of the century, has been solved for many years. But there are old-style sore spots still with us among the seasonal workers of the food-processing industries. During recent months, we have seen growing problems connected with productivity increases and declining industries and geographical areas. These problems, among many, are in need of Bureau investigation.

The time series and other quantitative data of recent years have been of invaluable service to the

trade-unions and to the Nation. They have aided us in obtaining a better view of economic trends than is available in any other country.

The growth of collection and time series, however, seems to have become one-sided, to the detriment of analytical work and meaningful studies of current problems. The collection of data and the refinement of techniques—pursuits that have brought the Bureau a long way in the past half-century—too often have become ends in themselves.

It should be possible for the Bureau to fuse the more precise and greater variety of present data

with the alertness to labor's problems that characterized the earlier studies, without sacrificing its reputation for objectivity. A greater degree of analytical work by the Bureau and more direct contact with the living experience of industries and workers, when combined with the present high level of statistical techniques, would be most fruitful in expanding the areas of our social and economic knowledge.

¹ From 1885 to 1888 it was the U. S. Bureau of Labor; from 1888 to 1903, the Department of Labor; from 1903 to 1913, the Bureau of Labor within the Department of Commerce and Labor; from 1913, the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For convenience, all references in this article are to "the Bureau," regardless of time.

"While the Department of Labor sustains friendly relations with labor organizations, as in the interest of all wage earners and of the general welfare it ought to do, nevertheless this attitude must not be exclusive. Similar relations with unorganized wage earners, and also with employers and their organizations to the extent to which they themselves permit, are likewise a duty of the Department. The great guiding purpose, however—the purpose that should govern the Department at every turn and be understood and acquiesced in by everybody—is the purpose prescribed in terms by the organic act, namely, promotion of the welfare of the wage earners of the United States.

"In the execution of that purpose the element of fairness to every interest is of equal importance,

and the Department has in fact made fairness between wage earner and wage earner, between wage earner and employer, between employer and employer, and between each and the public as a whole the supreme motive and purpose of its activities. The act of its creation is construed by it not only as a law for promoting the welfare of the wage earners of the United States by improving their working conditions and advancing their opportunities for profitable employment, but as a command for doing so in harmony with the welfare of all industrial classes and all legitimate interests, and by methods tending to foster industrial peace through progressively nearer realizations of the highest ideals of industrial justice."

U. S. Department of Labor: *First Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor* [William B. Wilson], 1913.

American Labor—A 50-Year Chronology

MARGARET H. SCHOENFELD
and TORLEIF MELOE

A CHRONOLOGY by nature is a calendar of events. Its purpose is to provide a handy checklist of outstanding landmarks which are typical or symptomatic of efforts, accomplishments, and tendencies. The recorder is tempted to emphasize events which, because of repetition or spectacular circumstances, have become fixed symbols in the public mind. In a labor chronology, such emphasis is likely to accompany strike reporting. Other equally important happenings are sometimes passed over because they are less identifiable and firmly fixed in time.

Despite a conscious effort to the contrary, some such distortion of selection and interpretation is almost inevitable and may have occurred in this coverage of the past half century. It is an inherent weakness of chronologies.

For ease of consultation, the major events are divided into two sections. The first covers general developments in the trade-union movement, in labor-management relations, and in informing the American people on labor questions through boards, conferences, and commissions. The second section deals with legislative, executive, and Supreme Court action.

General Labor Developments

1900 MAR. 1. The United States Industrial Commission made the first of 19 reports on labor, immigration, agriculture, manufacturing, and business problems.

JUNE 3. The International Ladies' Garment Workers Union (AFL) was formed.

OCT. 29. The United Mine Workers of America won a 10-percent wage increase from anthracite operators after a 7-week strike.

1901 AUG. 21. The International Federation of Trade Unions (then International Secretariat of National Trade Union Centers) was formed. AFL affiliated in 1910; resolved to disaffiliate in 1921; but reaffiliated in 1937 and remained a member until IFTU was dissolved in 1945.

SEPT. 13. The Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel & Tin Workers (AFL) lost 14 union contracts after a 3-month strike against the United States Steel Corp.

Nov. 19. The United Textile Workers of America (AFL) was organized.

1902 APR. 3. The first formal contract between the Sailors Union of the Pacific (AFL) and ship owners followed a 2½-month tie-up of San Francisco docks in 1901.

OCT. 21. The UMWA ended a 5-month strike against anthracite operators, agreeing to arbitration by a Presidential commission. The Anthracite Coal Strike Commission appointed on October 16, recommended on March 18, 1903, a 10-percent wage increase and conciliation machinery, but denied union recognition.

- 1904** SEPT. 8. The 2-month strike of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workers (AFL) for a combined agreement covering skilled and unskilled workers in the meat industry ended with no gains.
- 1905** JULY 7. The Industrial Workers of the World was formed and operated into the 1920's.
- 1906** JAN. 1. The International Typographical Union (AFL) struck successfully in book and job printing establishments for the 8-hour day, paving the way for extension of shorter hours in the printing trades.
- MAR. 21. The AFL submitted "Labor's Bill of Grievances" to the President and Congress, demanding labor legislation and economic and political reforms, and followed with a political campaign against individual legislators in which some pluralities of anti-union candidates were reduced and several union-card men were elected.
- 1910** SEPT. 1. The 2-month strike of the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union (AFL) was settled by the Protocol of Peace, providing preferential union hiring, a board of grievances, and a board of arbitration. This laid the foundation for the impartial chairman method of settling disputes, establishing a pattern for other industries.
- 1911** JAN. 14. The United Garment Workers (AFL) and Hart Schaffner & Marx agreed after a 3½-month strike in Chicago to establish a Trade Board to settle future contract disputes.
- MAR. 25. The Triangle Waist Co. fire led to establishment of the New York Factory Investigating Commission on June 30, and eventual improvement in factory conditions.
- 1912** JAN. 11. Textile workers led by the IWW struck successfully against a wage reduction in Lawrence, Mass., which indirectly resulted in a general wage increase for about 250,000 mill workers.
- AUG. 23. The (Walsh) Commission on Industrial Relations was created to investigate industrial unrest, and in 1916 rendered a comprehensive series of reports on the status of labor-management relations.
- 1914** DEC. 1. The President's Colorado Coal Commission was appointed to investigate the Ludlow Massacre and labor conditions in Colorado coal mines. On December 10, the UMWA lost a 4-month strike for recognition in Colorado, which had led the President to establish a board to investigate the Ludlow Massacre.
- DEC. 26. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers was formed from a seceding group of the United Garment Workers (AFL).
- 1915** OCT. 26. The Colorado Fuel & Iron Co. adopted the Industrial Representation Plan, an important early example of the company union.
- 1917** JULY 12. A strike led by the IWW in the copper mines of Bisbee, Ariz., was ended when the sheriff deported 1,200 strikers.
- 1918** SEPT. 17. The intermittent 3½-month munitions strike by the International Association of Machinists (AFL) in Bridgeport, Conn., was settled by the War Labor Board without granting the union's principal demand for a minimum wage scale.
- Nov. 1. The Colorado Fuel & Iron Co. adopted the 8-hour day in place of 12.
- 1919** FEB. 12. The National Catholic War Council issued the Bishops' Program of Social Reconstruction.
- MAR. 24. The Commission, created by the Peace Conference at its second plenary session in January and of which Samuel Gompers was president, recommended the inclusion in the Peace Treaty of labor clauses creating an International Labor Organization. The ILO held its first session in Washington, D. C., beginning October 29.
- JULY 1. The Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America issued a pronouncement on the church's relation to problems of social reconstruction (corollary of original Social Creed of December 1908).
- OCT. 6. The President's National Industrial Conference composed of labor and management representatives met and split on collective bargaining and trade unionism. On December 29 the second conference outlined a plan to adjust disputes. The

"American Plan" drive for the open-shop and against wartime labor gains followed.

Nov. 1. The UMWA struck against bituminous coal operators and in December agreed to arbitration by a Presidential commission. The President appointed the Bituminous Coal Commission on December 19, which awarded a 27-percent wage increase, but denied the 6-hour day and 5-day week.

1920 JAN. 8. The Iron and Steel Organizing Committee (AFL) ended an unsuccessful 3½-month strike in the steel industry, after most of the strikers had drifted back to work.

1921 JUNE 15. The International Seamen's Union (AFL) and Marine Engineers Beneficial Association (AFL) lost a 52-day strike against wage reductions.

SEPT. 26. The President's Conference on Unemployment placed the main responsibility for unemployment relief upon local communities.

DEC. 5. The ILGWU obtained an injunction against employers for breach of contract during a strike against wage reductions in New York City.

1922 APR. 1. UMWA anthracite and bituminous-coal miners stopped work and in August accepted previous contract terms following a promise to establish a Presidential commission. The United States Coal Commission was established on September 22 to investigate every phase of the coal industry.

SEPT. 13. The 2½-month Nation-wide strike of railway shopmen against wage reductions, tying up rail transportation, was partially settled when 50 railroads agreed to restore former wage rates and to submit grievances to a commission.

1924 AUG. 2. The AFL Executive Council endorsed La Follette for President, without committing itself to any political party.

DEC. 13. Samuel Gompers, president of the AFL, died.

1929 APR. 2. The 16-day strike of the National Textile Workers' Union (Communist) against Manville-Jenckes Co. in Gastonia, N. C., and a 62-day stoppage of the United Textile Workers (AFL) against Marion Manufac-

turing Co., Marion, N. C., starting July 11, ended in defeat of the unions' demand for reduction of the "speed-up" and for union recognition.

AUG. 31. The Communist-inspired Trade-Union Unity League was formed and operated into the 1930's.

1932 AUG. 26. The President called a national conference of banking and industrial committees to draw up a coordinated Nation-wide program against the depression.

1934 FEB. 14. The first Labor Legislation Conference was called by the Secretary of Labor to obtain closer Federal-State cooperation in working out a sound national labor legislation program, and became an annual event.

AUG. 20. The United States joined the International Labor Organization which had been formed in 1919.

SEPT. 5. A 2-day Nation-wide strike of United Textile Workers (AFL) against the "stretch-out" was ended with the establishment of the Winant board. The (Winant) Board of Inquiry for the Cotton Textile Industry on September 17 recommended a Textile Labor Relations Board, supervision of the "stretch-out," and a study of the industry's wage and other problems.

OCT. 10. The President's National Longshoremens' Board arbitrated a 2½-month strike of West Coast longshoremens (which became general), awarding joint control of the hiring hall.

1935 JAN. 15. The Committee on Economic Security made recommendations that were embodied in the Social Security Act of 1935.

OCT. 16. The Joint National Conference on Housing stressed the role of government in housing.

Nov. 9. The Committee for Industrial Organization was formed by officials of eight international AFL affiliates (miners, typographers, and men's clothing, ladies' garment, textile, oil field, cap and millinery, and mine, mill, and smelter workers) and after being expelled from the AFL, became the Congress of Industrial Organizations in 1938. Within a short period, groups of automobile, elec-

trical, rubber, and steel workers, newly organized as well as transferred from AFL, became affiliated with the CIO.

1936 MAR. 22. In the first large "sit-down" strike, the United Rubber Workers (CIO) won recognition at Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co. after a month.

1937 FEB. 11. The United Automobile Workers (CIO) was recognized by General Motors Corp. after a 3-month strike.

APR. 6. The 1-month strike of the UAW (CIO) against the Chrysler Corp. ended with the first widespread union agreement between the union and the company.

JULY 1. The 5-week "Little Steel" strike was broken when Inland Steel employees returned to work without union recognition or other gains.

1941 APR. 11. The UAW (CIO) won recognition at Ford Motor Co. after a 10-day strike. In June, the union and the company signed a union-shop agreement—the first with a major automobile manufacturer.

DEC. 24. The President announced a no-strike pledge by the AFL and CIO, following conferences with labor and management leaders.

1943 Nov. 3. The Federal Government granted bituminous-coal and anthracite miners portal-to-portal pay, following intermittent stoppages and mine seizure.

1945 Oct. 3. The CIO affiliated with the newly formed World Federation of Trade Unions and withdrew in 1949. The AFL did not enter.

Nov. 5. The Labor-Management Conference convened in Washington, D. C., with few tangible results.

1946 FEB. 15. The United Steelworkers (CIO) ended a 1-month strike and established a wage-pattern increase of 18½ cents an hour. The President recommended this increase, which a fact-finding board later held to be within the limits indicated by recent wage developments.

MAR. 13. The UAW (CIO) ended a 3½-month strike against General Motors Corp. by negotiating an hourly wage increase of 18½ cents, after a Presidential fact-finding board

had recommended 19½ cents on January 10.

MAY 24. Locomotive Engineers (Ind.) and Railway Trainmen (Ind.) ended a 2-day strike following an injunction and under threat of legislation to draft the workers. They accepted the 18½ cents-an-hour increase recommended by the President.

MAY 29. UMWA bituminous-coal miners won a health and welfare fund, to be financed from payments by operators of 5 cents a ton of coal produced, from the Federal Government which had seized the mines.

JULY 10. Sidney Hillman, president of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, died.

1947 APR. 7. A Nation-wide telephone strike started for industry-wide bargaining, and settlements began April 25 on an individual company basis.

1948 SEPT. 3. The President appointed the Commission on Labor Relations in the Atomic Energy Installations, which, on April 18, 1949, recommended establishment of a panel to fortify free collective bargaining in atomic plants.

SEPT. 27. The Federal Government's first national conference on industrial safety met in Washington, D. C.

Nov. 25. International Longshoremen Workers (CIO) were the first of West Coast unions to settle with employers for retention of the hiring hall in the 1-month strike. The stoppage had followed an 80-day injunction under the Taft-Hartley Act.

1949 July 16. A. F. Whitney, president of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen (Ind.), died.

SEPT. 10. The Presidential fact-finding board in the steel industry-United Steelworkers (CIO) dispute recommended that employers contribute 4 and 6 cents an hour per worker, respectively, toward social insurance and pension programs.

Oct. 31. The 1-month steel strike was largely settled when the United Steelworkers (CIO) and Bethlehem Steel Corp. agreed to noncontributory \$100 monthly pensions.

Nov. 2. The CIO anti-Communist drive culminated in expulsion of a number of its affiliated unions.

DEC. 7. The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions was formed, with the AFL and CIO participating, in order to fight communism and build up democratic unionism.

1950 MAR. 5. The UMWA ended an intermittent 5½-month strike against bituminous-coal operators with increased wage and welfare fund payments, elimination of the "able and willing" contract clause, and limitations on "memorial holiday" clauses.

MAY 6. The 102-day strike of the UAW (CIO) against the Chrysler Corp. ended with a pension agreement and without a union-shop clause.

MAY 23. The UAW (CIO) and General Motors Corp. agreed to a 5-year contract including guaranteed annual wage increases, cost-of-living wage adjustments, a modified union shop, and \$100 monthly pensions at age 65 after 25 years' service (including Social Security).

Legislative, Executive, and Court Action

1906 JUNE 11. An act was approved relating to liability of railway interstate carriers for injuries to their employees. (Declared unconstitutional and replaced in 1908.)

1908 JAN. 27. Section 10 of the Erdman Act applying to railroad employees, whereby the "yellow dog" contract was outlawed and an employer was forbidden to discharge a worker for union membership, was declared unconstitutional. (*U. S. v. Adair*.)

FEB. 3. The union's boycott was held to be in restraint of trade under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. (*Loewe v. Lawler*, i. e., the *Danbury Hatters* case.) On January 5, 1915, the individual trade-unionists were held responsible for the union's acts.

1911 MAY 15. The contempt charge against union leaders was dismissed on technical grounds but the power of the court to enjoin the acts complained of (unfair list) was upheld. (*Bucks Stove & Range Co. v. Gompers*.)

1912 JUNE 4. Massachusetts adopted the first minimum wage act for women and minors.

1913 MAR. 4. The United States Department of Labor was established by law and included

the Bureaus of Labor Statistics, Immigration, and Naturalization, the Children's Bureau, and the Conciliation Service. William B. Wilson, trade-unionist and member of Congress, became the first Secretary of Labor.

JULY 15. The Newlands Act set up a Board of Mediation and Conciliation to handle railroad disputes.

1914 OCT. 15. The Clayton Act was approved limiting the use of injunctions in labor disputes and providing that picketing and other union activities shall not be considered unlawful (called labor's "Magna Charta"; later adversely interpreted by the Supreme Court).

1915 MAR. 4. The La Follette Seamen's Act was approved, regulating conditions of employment.

APR. 12. Colorado adopted an act establishing the Industrial Commission to study the causes of industrial disturbances and to endeavor to prevent them, requiring the status quo pending investigation.

1916 APR. 3. The constitutionality of the full crew law of Arkansas enacted in 1913 was sustained. (*St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern Railway v. Arkansas*.)

SEPT. 1. The Child Labor Act was approved (declared unconstitutional on June 3, 1918); followed by Act of February 24, 1919 (declared unconstitutional on May 15, 1922); followed by Child Labor Amendment to Constitution on June 2, 1924 (thus far ratified by 28 of the necessary 36 States).

SEPT. 3. The Adamson Act provided a basic 8-hour day on railroads.

1917 FEB. 23. The Vocational Education (Smith-Hughes) Act became effective, followed by the Vocational Rehabilitation Act on June 27, 1918.

SEPT. 19. The President appointed a Mediation Commission headed by the Secretary of Labor to adjust wartime labor difficulties.

DEC. 10. The "yellow-dog" contract was upheld and union's efforts to organize workers party to such contract was held to be unlawful. (*Hitchman Coal & Coke Co. v. Mitchell*.)

1918 JAN. 1. The Federal Government took control of the railroads until March 1, 1920, and on March 21, the Federal Control Act provided for Government railroad operation in wartime.

JAN. 4. The President named the Secretary of Labor as War Labor Administrator.

APR. 8. The President created the National War Labor Board "to settle by mediation and conciliation controversies . . . in fields of production necessary for the effective conduct of the war."

MAY 13. The War Labor Administrator created the War Labor Policies Board (dissolved in March 1919).

SEPT. 19. The minimum wage law of the District of Columbia was approved. (Declared unconstitutional on April 9, 1923.)

1920 FEB. 2. The Kansas Court of Industrial Relations provided the first experiment in compulsory arbitration in the United States. (Held unconstitutional in 1923 and 1925.)

FEB. 28. The Transportation Act provided for a Railroad Labor Board and terminated Federal control of railroads on March 1, 1920.

1921 JAN. 3. Refusal of union to install and operate printing presses manufactured in open-shop plant (secondary boycott) was held to be illegal restraint of trade and as such not protected by the Clayton Act (labor's "Magna Charta"). (*Duplex Printing Press Co. v. Deering.*)

MAY 19. An act restricting the immigration of aliens into the United States and establishing the national origin quota system was approved.

DEC. 19. The Arizona law forbidding injunctions in labor disputes and permitting picketing was held unconstitutional, under the fourteenth amendment. (*Truax v. Corrigan.*)

1922 JUNE 5. The national union was held not responsible for local strike action and strike action was held not a conspiracy to restrain commerce within the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Labor unions were held suable for their acts. (*Coronado Coal Co. v. UMWA.*)

1926 MAY 20. The Railway Labor Act was approved, which, as amended, provided the National Mediation Board.

1927 MAR. 4. The Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Compensation Act was approved.

APR. 11. The union's action in trying to prevent purchase of nonunion-cut stone was held to be an illegal restraint of interstate

commerce. (*Bedford Cut Stone Co. v. Journeymen Stone Cutters' Association, et al.*)

1929 JAN. 19. The Hawes-Cooper Act governing the shipment of convict-made goods in interstate commerce was approved.

1930 MAY 26. The 1926 Railway Labor Act prohibition of interference or coercion in the choice of bargaining representatives was upheld. (*Texas & N. O. R. Co. v. Brotherhood of Railway Clerks.*)

1931 MAR. 3. The Davis-Bacon Act provided for the payment of prevailing wage rates to laborers and mechanics employed by contractors and subcontractors on public construction.

1932 JAN. 28. The State of Wisconsin adopted the first unemployment insurance act in the United States.

MAR. 23. The Anti-Injunction (Norris-La Guardia) Act prohibited Federal injunctions in labor disputes, except as specified, and outlawed "yellow-dog" contracts.

JULY 21. The Federal Emergency Relief Act was approved to relieve destitution, to broaden the lending powers of the RFC, and to create employment by the execution of public works.

1933 MAR. 31. The Reforestation and Relief Act established the CCC.

MAY 12. The Federal Emergency Relief Act provided for the CWA, and direct grants to States for unemployment relief.

JUNE 6. The Wagner-Peyser Act created the U. S. Employment Service in the Department of Labor, reorganizing existing services.

JUNE 16. The National Industrial Recovery Act was approved, containing Section 7 (a) guaranteeing employees' collective bargaining rights. (Title I of act declared unconstitutional in *Schechter v. U. S.* on May 27, 1935.)

1934 JUNE 13. The Anti-Kickback Act established penalties for employers on Government contracts who induce employees to return any part of pay to which they are entitled.

1935 MAY 6. The WPA was created by the President under authority of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act.

JULY 5. The National Labor Relations (Wagner) Act established a national labor policy of protecting the right of workers to

organize and encouraging collective bargaining.

AUG. 14. The Federal Social Security Act was approved.

AUG. 30. The Bituminous Coal Conservation (Guffey) Act was approved in order to stabilize the industry and to improve labor conditions. (Labor relations provisions declared unconstitutional on May 18, 1936.)

1936 JUNE 24. The Anti-Strike Breaking (Byrnes) Act declared it unlawful "to transport or aid in transporting strikebreakers in interstate or foreign commerce." (Amended June 29, 1938.)

JUNE 30. The Public Contracts (Walsh-Healey) Act established labor standards on Government contracts, including minimum wages, overtime compensation for hours in excess of 40 per week, child and convict labor provisions, and health and safety requirements.

1937 APR. 12. The right of employees to organize was held fundamental and the NLRA was held constitutional. (*NLRB v. Jones & Laughlin Steel Corp.*)

MAY 27. The State statute protecting the right of union workers to peacefully picket was held constitutional. (*Senn v. Tile Layers' Protective Association.*)

JUNE 24. The Railroad Retirement Act of 1937 was approved, followed by the Carriers Taxing Act of 1937—laws of June 27, 1934, and August 29, 1935, having been declared unconstitutional.

SEPT. 1. The Housing (Wagner-Steagall) Act established the United States Housing Authority and provided Federal financial assistance for housing units.

1938 JUNE 23. The Merchant Marine Act of 1936 was amended to provide a Federal Maritime Labor Board.

JUNE 25. The Fair Labor Standards Act was approved providing minimum wages and time and a half for hours over 40 per week. (Amended Oct. 26, 1949, raising minimum hourly wage to 75 cents.)

JUNE 25. The Railroad Unemployment Insurance (Crosier-Wheeler) Act was approved.

1939 FEB. 27. The NLRB was held without authority to order the reinstatement of sit-down strikers and the company union was ordered disestablished. (*NLRB v. Fansteel*

Metallurgical Corp.)

1940 MAY 27. A sit-down strike was held not to be an illegal restraint of commerce under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, in the absence of intent to impose market controls. (*Apex Hosiery Co. v. Leader.*)

1941 FEB. 3. The actions of the carpenters' union in jurisdictional dispute were held protected from prosecution under Sherman Anti-Trust Act by Clayton Act, construed in light of Congress' definition of "labor dispute" in Norris-La Guardia Act. (*U. S. v. Hutcheson.*)

MAR. 19. The President created the National Defense Mediation Board (replaced by National War Labor Board).

1942 JAN. 12. The President established the National War Labor Board to determine procedures for settling disputes, and in October 1942 empowered it to carry out a wage stabilization program. (Board discontinued Dec. 31, 1945.)

APR. 18. The President established the War Manpower Commission and on December 5 directed it to appoint and consult with a Management-Labor Policy Committee. (Commission terminated Sept. 19, 1945.)

APR. 29. Rhode Island was the first State to provide cash sickness benefits to workers covered by its unemployment insurance law.

JULY 16. The NWLB laid down the "Little Steel" formula for wartime wage adjustments (i. e., based on 15-percent rise in living costs from Jan. 1, 1941, to May 1, 1942).

OCT. 2. The Stabilization Act authorized the President to stabilize wages and salaries, as far as practicable, based on September 15, 1942, levels.

1943 JUNE 25. The War Labor Disputes (Smith-Connally) Act, passed over the President's veto, authorized plant seizure if needed to avoid interference with the war effort.

1944 DEC. 18. The Railway Labor Act, authorizing a labor union chosen by a majority to represent a craft, was held to require union protection of the minority in that class. Discrimination against certain members of class on ground of race was held enjoined. (*Steele v. Louisville & Nashville Railroad.*)

1945 MAY 7. Travel time on the employer's premises (portal-to-portal principle) was held compensable as part of the workday. (*Jewell*

Ridge Coal Corp. v. Local No. 6167, UMWA, et al.)

JUNE 18. The right of a union to protect its position by market control was upheld, but combination with employers was condemned. (*Allen Bradley Co., et al. v. Local Union No. 3, et al.*)

DEC. 31. The President established the National Wage Stabilization Board to rule on voluntary wage agreements.

1946 FEB. 20. The Employment Act committed the Government to take all practicable measures to promote maximum employment, production, and purchasing power.

JULY 3. The Hobbs Antiracketeering Act was passed, amending the act of June 18, 1934, of the same title.

NOV. 9. The President provided for the termination of all wage and salary stabilization controls.

1947 MAR. 6. The Norris-La Guardia Act prohibition against issuance of injunctions in labor disputes was held inapplicable to the Government as an employer and the fines against Lewis and the UMWA were upheld (the latter subject to reduction). (*U. S. v.*

John L. Lewis.)

MAY 14. The Portal-to-Portal Act was approved, "to relieve employers and the Government from potential liability * * * in 'portal-to-portal' claims."

JUNE 23. The Labor Management Relations (Taft-Hartley) Act was passed over the President's veto.

1948 APR. 13. Mississippi was the forty-eighth State to enact workmen's compensation legislation.

1949 APR. 25. Review of a lower court's decision that the LMRA compels employers to bargain with unions on retirement plans was refused, in effect upholding that decision. (*Inland Steel Co. v. United Steelworkers of America (CIO).*)

1950 FEB. 13. Review of a lower court's decision banning the seamen's hiring hall as a violation of the LMRA was refused, in effect upholding that decision. (*National Maritime Union of America (CIO) v. NLRB.*)

MAY 8. The non-Communist-affidavit provisions of the Labor Management Relations Act were upheld. (*United Steelworkers v. NLRB.*)

Labor Day was first observed in the United States on Tuesday, September 5, 1882, in New York City, under the auspices of the Central Labor Union, composed of the various trade and labor organizations of New York City and vicinity. The second labor holiday was observed by the union on September 5, 1883. In 1884, the union selected the first Monday in September as the holiday. In 1885, Labor Day was celebrated in many industrial centers. The first official recognition was through municipal ordinances passed in 1885 and 1886; from these developed the movement for State Labor Day legislation. The first bill was introduced in the New York Legislature, but the first law was enacted by the Oregon Legislature on February 21, 1887. By February 1923, when the Wyoming law was passed, all 48 States had Labor Day legislation. The United States Congress had passed an act on June 28, 1894, making the first Monday in September of each year a legal holiday in the District of Columbia and the Territories.

U. S. Department of Labor: *Labor Day, Its Origin and Significance.*

Significant Books on Labor of the Past 50 Years

A Selection of 10 Types of Books
Reappraised by 10 Experts in the Field

Edited by MERLYN S. PITZELE

Given the problem of selecting a handful of books published since the turn of the century which have enduring value for the student of labor, every reader can produce a list of his own; and doubtless defend it. But this editor would argue that unless such a list contained the works reviewed here it would be inadequate. What is under consideration is not a definitive selection of significant writings. By winnowing and sifting, a minimum number has been sought—those few which the greatest number of people with informed judgment would agree are indispensable.

Note that with the exception of a few articles referred to by the reviewers to illuminate their judgments, the writings being appraised all predate the last decade. Volumes of undeniable importance by Sumner Slichter, Harry Millis, Richard Lester, Arthur Ross, Clark Kerr, and others are omitted. Around them, the winds of doctrine blow. And while this is no reason for abdicating an editor's conviction of their survival value, they are of recent enough appearance to have had the critical attention of the contemporary student, while those dealt with here have all passed to the classic or footnote stage.

The primary purpose of this retrospective undertaking is to reappraise, from the vantage point of the present, landmark works in the field of labor: The common question asked by the 10 distinguished "reviewers" is: What meaningful things do these books tell us today? Insofar as their reviews provide the answer within the short compass of space allotted, they serve their purpose. And if there is to be any further accomplishment from this effort, all those who participated in it hope that it may be a rekindling of interest and appreciation in the rich intellectual sources from which so many of the penetrating insights and rational explanations of American labor are drawn.

—M. S. P.

History of Labor in the United States

By John R. Commons, et al. New York,
The Macmillan Co., 1918—Vols.
I and II; 1935—Vol. IV.

These volumes dealing mainly with the history of labor conditions, labor philosophies, and labor background, and not primarily with the structures or policies of labor unions, have long been regarded as the standard history of the American labor movement. Originally, they were designed as part of the *Contributions to American Economic History* sponsored by the Department of Economics and Sociology of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. The first two volumes are concerned with the period from the beginning of colonial times roughly to the end of the 19th century. Volume IV carries the story from 1896 to 1932. Volume III, not covered by this review, deals with the subjects of working conditions and labor legislation.

The content of the first volume is arranged under four headings: Colonial and Federal Beginnings (to 1827), Citizenship (1827-1833), Trade Unionism (1833-1839), and Humanitarianism (1840-1860). Volume II is similarly organized, having two main parts or sections: Nationalization (1860-1877) and Upheaval and Reorganization (1877-1896). Each part in both volumes was contributed by one of Dr. Commons' co-workers. Thus, David J. Saposs, in six chapters, handles "Colonial and Federal Beginnings"; Helen L. Sumner, the part on "Citizenship"; Edward B. Mittelman, "Trade Unionism"; Henry B. Hoagland, "Humanitarianism"; John B. Andrews, "Nationalization"; and Selig Perlman, "Upheaval and Reorganization."

Dr. Perlman and Dr. Philip Taft are the authors of Volume IV which, like its companion volumes, is broken into sections: "Mass Advance and Repulse, 1896-1910"; "Proto-Fascism and Revolutionism"; "Limited Advances and the Effects of the War, 1910-1920"; and "Postwar Militancy, The Apotheosis of Business, and the Aftermath." Unquestionably a good deal of unity is achieved not merely by chronology but by the penetrating introductions which come from the pen of Commons himself.

Any attempt at reappraisal of these volumes must take into account the time which has elapsed since their publication. Especially is this true of

the first two which appeared more than 30 years ago. Yet the time interval is, in itself, a test both of factual content and interpretation. Viewed from this angle how important are these volumes today? Should they be consulted by the student and layman who desire accurate acquaintance with the history of the labor movement in this country? Or have they, in whole or in part, as a result of research and reinterpretation, become obsolete?

In the opinion of this reviewer, these volumes are still standard. Nowhere will one find a better summary of the conditions responsible for the character of the labor movement than in the introductory statements which Commons gives us. Ethical and pragmatic in his approach, avoiding the doctrinaire, he was blessed with curiosity and a desire to get at the facts and their meaning. His scholarship was enlightened and humane. No one would seriously dispute his point of view that the labor history of the country is an integral part of the industrial and political history. Nor can one quarrel with his major premise that the labor history of the United States is largely the story of the emergence of the wage earner as a distinct class and of his increased feeling that his standing and progress in society depend directly upon the conditions under which he works in terms of wages, hours, and other conditions of employment.

Some will quarrel with Commons on matters of detail. For example, there are those who hold that he has over-emphasized the role of free land; or who will disagree with his interpretation of syndicalism. But these are minor considerations and do not alter the basic premises. And what is true of Commons is likewise true of his co-authors. On the whole, neither their findings nor the interpretation thereof have suffered grievously with the passage of time.

True, anyone who has read Helene Zahler's monograph on George Henry Evans or the first two volumes of Joseph Dorfman's encyclopedic *Economic Mind in American Civilization* will find it necessary to revise certain details in the Commons volumes relating to disintegration of the trade-union movement and to Evans' part in the new agrarianism. This change of details, however, in no way alters the basic account or the conclusions that are based thereon. Similarly, many labor history authorities agree that Norman J.

Ware's *The Labor Movement in the United States, 1860-1895*, is superior in many respects for the period covered to the treatment in the volumes here reviewed. For labor unrest one gets a better understanding from Henry David's *History of the Haymarket Affair* than from the Commons volumes.

But no one who would familiarize himself with the story of the American labor movement can afford not to read the first chapter in volume IV, in which Dr. Perlman summarizes the 70 years of the movement prior to 1896. He regards these as seven decades of continuous experimentation with programs and strategies—"an incessant search for a mode of operation which would secure to labor a maximum improvement in conditions together with a most stable organization and a minimum opposition . . ." Here within brief compass is a summary of what might well be called "the mental baggage of the labor movement at the close of the 19th century."

Inasmuch as volume IV brings the account only to the beginning of the presidency of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, the usefulness of this work would be greatly enhanced by the addition of a companion volume covering the last 20 years of the American labor movement—years when the labor movement has more than ever emerged as a powerful influence in shaping the fabric of American civilization. Whoever undertakes this task may wish to reappraise some of the items which are brought together in the concluding chapter. To this reviewer, however, the conclusions which the authors of this volume reached are as essentially sound today as when they were written:

1. Producers' cooperatives so strong in the earlier labor movements never revived on a mass scale in the years 1900 to 1930.
2. Alliances with farmers in antimonopoly movements so characteristic between the Civil War and the nineties, were not repeated.
3. The labor movement as a whole rejected revolutionism as the principal weapon to accomplish its objectives.
4. Labor, like other interest groups, will exercise unremitting pressure on government in behalf of labor.
5. Unionized labor up to the New Deal, though interested in labor legislation, placed far less value on such legislation than on improvements attained by direct collective bargaining.
6. Up to 1930, the nonpartisan political policy prevailed, notwithstanding that the support of La Follette in 1924 was a deviation from it.

7. The role of intellectuals in the labor movement had not greatly increased in importance.

8. The abhorrence of dualism in organization had not diminished.

9. The attitude toward the skilled and the unorganized differed from union to union and fluctuated with the fortunes of the whole labor movement. Furthermore, the coming of industrial unionism was certain.

10. The attitude of organized labor toward the immigration question was, if anything, more exclusionist than could be found in other quarters.

11. The trade agreement continued to be the goal of organized labor.

Finally, no one will seriously quarrel with the author's verdict that, from McKinley to the second Roosevelt, labor showed an appreciation of realities, and that whatever critical defeats it may have suffered came from lack of mutual coordination of labor's fighting armies.

—HARRY J. CARMAN

Seventy Years of Life and Labor

By Samuel Gompers. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co. 1925.

Samuel Gompers' two-volume autobiography provides an intimate account of the sources, motivations, philosophies, tactics, and developments surrounding the formation and growth of the American Federation of Labor from its inception to the death, in 1924, of its first great leader. These volumes have continued, and will long continue, to be an invaluable source for those who would understand the foundations of American trade-unionism. They permit ready recognition of the fusion of environment and innate abilities to produce a movement attuned to the American scene.

The first volume of the autobiography presents a clear analysis of the forces which shaped the trade-union philosophy of Gompers. One sees the young Gompers listening, discussing, and cogitating on the views and policies of the radicals of the time. As he expressed it in retrospect: "The brilliant color of their thoughts came as a hope-filled alluring light on the gray misery of the New York industrial sky. Their talk stirred me deeply, I began to watch their gatherings." He came to distinguish between those intellectual radicals who respected the trade-union movement and its purposes, and those doctrinaire radicals whom he derided for "instability of judgment or intellectual undependability caused by inability to recognize facts." He found that he could have

no use for any doctrine that subverted individual liberty and melioration to the interests of doctrines which were unacceptable to American workers and the public at large.

Gompers, after observing and exploring the ideas prevalent among workers during the 1870's and 1880's, concluded that "the American trade-union movement had to work out its own philosophy, technique and language." To achieve this goal, "to make the American movement practical, deep-rooted in sympathy and sentiment I [Gompers] refused to concede one single inch of labor activity to any other movement."

The problem of establishing permanent trade-union organizations was a back-breaking one in the last decades of the nineteenth century, marked as they were by apparently endless immigration and constant social fluidity. Gompers and others realized that a permanent trade-union organization could only be developed if they devoted their entire lives to this purpose. They realized, also, that only by obtaining immediate economic and social improvements for the working class could a permanent trade-union organization be developed.

This was where Gompers' genius lay. He developed a working philosophy which appealed to skilled workers who were increasingly confronted with loss of status. The "business unionism" of Gompers was that appeal.

Wherever he went, Gompers taught the twin precepts of "unionism, pure and simple" and of voluntarism. The former stressed such immediate objectives as union recognition, wage increases, and reduction in hours. These were avenues to the broader aim of achieving enough economic power for the individual worker to permit him to make a real contribution to democratic society. "The organized labor movement not only works for the material, moral, political, and social improvement of the organized workers," he stated before the AFL convention in 1899, "but it is the lever by which these conditions for the unorganized are improved, and constitutes the most potent factor in ameliorating the conditions of the whole human family."

Voluntarism was the second half of the foundation for a permanent trade-unionism. Gompers recognized that the Federation had less authority than did the individual trade-unions. As he expressed it: "It was at once a rope of sand and yet the strongest human force—a voluntary asso-

ciation united by common need and held together by mutual self interests." Nor was his voluntarism restricted to internal union organization.

There is an apparent paradox between Gompers' expressed intention of keeping to a minimum government intervention in matters of social legislation and collective bargaining, and the fact that he spent the major portion of the latter part of his life in looking after the political affairs of the trade-union movement. On close examination, however, the apparent paradox assumes a clearly logical relationship.

The anti-union forces which sought to thwart the growth of trade-unionism were turning to the courts. Political activity to counter this strategy was forced upon Gompers, and it became increasingly difficult for him to disengage himself from these activities. For Gompers observed the manner in which long-sought-after social legislation (such as the statutory prohibition on cigar making in tenements and homework) was vitiated by judicial decisions. He observed, further, that legislation such as the Sherman Antitrust Act, apparently enacted for purposes far removed from any connection with trade-unionism, became weapons used by anti-labor groups to combat the effectuation of trade-unionism. He saw, too, that even the action of the Wilson administration to restore the original purposes of the Sherman Act by enactment of "Labor's Magna Charta," the Clayton Antitrust Act, amounted to little when this act came into the courts.

Gompers was not satisfied with the mere concerns of trade-union organization, and its protection against attack. He entered the camp of the adversary in an effort to educate employers, and through them the public at large, regarding the nature of trade-unionism. He freely accepted invitations to meetings and conferences of employers, attending them as a labor spokesman, eating sparingly or not at all at the lavish banquets. (He did admit, however, that, "My practice about eating . . . was never extended to prohibition of smoking, if good cigars were available.") He entered the National Civic Federation despite initial reservations and suspicions. "In N. C. F. conferences, wage earners were on an equal footing with employers. Such contacts contributed to the making of a new concept of human relations in industry and to laying the foundation for the rule of reason. Such an organi-

zation was possible only because of the progress that the labor movement had made."

An enumeration of the scope of the activities and interests of Samuel Gompers would reach encyclopedic proportions. Only a few of the more important ones need be mentioned. He was more concerned with the segment of women's organizations which was interested in "equal pay for equal work" than with that advocating equal suffrage. He championed that principle in the labor movement, and within his own trade. His acceptance of capitalism did not blind him to the evil of widespread unemployment accompanying depressions. This he viewed as "an unnecessary blot upon American institutions, presenting a challenge to all our claims to progress, humanity and civilization."

Gompers' interests transcended national boundaries, for he took an intense interest in the affairs of world labor throughout his life. He participated in the International Federation of Trade Unions, despite the control exercised by radicals in other countries who differed with him on business unionism and voluntarism. Withdrawal came in 1921, when it appeared that this organization was turning into a springboard for support of Soviet Russia. His activities in connection with the establishment of the International Labor Office and the Pan-American Federation of Labor are well known.

Basically the American trade-union movement today retains the perspective that determined Gompers' goals. It continues to be typically American in its pragmatism, meeting issues as they arise and seeking immediate gains through collective bargaining. Its goal continues to be the elevation of the status of the workers so that they may participate effectively in our society. Relations with those doctrinaires who would subvert the democratic aims of trade-unions to totalitarian purposes are shunned both at home and abroad.

This is not necessarily a conscious following of the Gompers approach. Rather, it is the approach which has evolved out of that recapitulation of experience, under changing conditions, which determines all institutions. The Gompers testament has, however, played an important role in this development. He was expressing that testament when he wrote:

For years I have been like a voice crying in the wilderness when I declared that wage earners had a

right to participate in determining conditions and standards of life and work. Practically everyone outside of the wage-earning circles looked upon that doctrine as subversive of economic and social organization, but my position was even more impregnable than I myself had understood in the early days. As the years have passed, increasing knowledge of production and the principles of human cooperation have demonstrated that labor's contention is basic for sustained advance in human betterment and for unrestricted progress in production.

—FRANCES PERKINS

The American Federation of Labor

By Lewis L. Lorwin. Washington, The Brookings Institution, 1933.

Labor on the March

By Edward Levinson. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1938.

Ebb and Flow in Trade Unionism

By Leo Wolman. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1936.

A fresh perusal of these books compels an appraisal of the form and structure of American trade-unions since 1933.

Dr. Lorwin, writing during the depression and several years before formation of the Congress (then the Committee) of Industrial Organizations, spoke of the United Mine Workers as one of the forces driving the American Federation of Labor "in a new direction."

In view of the major role of the miners' union in forging the policies that led to the widespread unionization of the mass-production industries, this was an extremely prescient observation.

At the time when some students of labor were predicting the imminent demise of the AFL he recognized the Federation's "remarkable capacity for continuity, readjustment, and survival."

This volume still stands as a source book of the history and policies of the American labor movement up to 1933. Nonsensational and crammed with facts it is still a must for the period it covers. Perhaps some foundation would consider asking Dr. Lorwin to write a second volume extending his work to the present.

Dr. Lorwin discloses the strength and weakness of the craft unions. From his discussion the reasons for the historic schism of 1936 are easily understood.

Writing from the standpoint of a sympathizer with trade-unionism, Dr. Lorwin does not hesitate to present frank statements and conclusions.

Perhaps the most outstanding criticism of the AFL, then as now, is its lack of planful procedure for its own future. Had the Federation had the foresight necessary to solve the craft-industrial union conflict, a score of problems now bedeviling labor would have been faced with greater equanimity.

Seventeen years ago Dr. Lorwin pointed out that the structure of the AFL executive council had been unchanged since 1904. That remains largely true today.

Many of Dr. Lorwin's suggestions still bear consideration. For example, he suggested that the AFL executive council might be streamlined by creating 12 to 15 trade departments according to industrial divisions, with each department having a council representative.

Since 1918 there has been a demand for a woman on the council. Samuel Gompers wanted to create a woman's department in 1924. Little has been done in this direction.

One weakness of the council is that it has no stated term for its members. A system of rotation would help establish its representative character. At present it represents only the individual unions officered by its members.

The present structure of the council and of the Federation as a whole places a premium upon the almost complete absorption by the internationals in their own affairs, with scant time devoted to "general welfare."

The Federation still lacks something equivalent to a department of education to promote thinking by its members on economic and social problems. The Workers Education Bureau is starved for funds year after year. As for the idea of a labor newspaper, that, too, is deferred.

Though the AFL has changed little structurally, the fast pace led by the CIO compelled it to transform its otherwise craft unions into something resembling industrial unions. Its membership has almost tripled since Dr. Lorwin wrote.

Of recent years the AFL has developed wider interests in problems of labor internationally. This is exemplified by the creation of the Free Trade Union Committee whose work, with limited funds, has been of particularly broad scope. It is

also evident in the establishment of offices in Europe, manned by capable spokesmen. And the AFL's participation in forming the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions was a step that will probably sweep the Federation into the main stream of international labor problems where its potential usefulness is unlimited. A department of international affairs is an obvious requirement because of the extension of the Federation's horizon.

Mr. Levinson does, in his way, what Dr. Lorwin would have attempted, had his researches gone beyond 1933.

Frankly partisan in his approach in contrast to Dr. Lorwin's objectivity, Mr. Levinson describes the first two incredible years of the CIO, its swift growth, the enthusiasm it evoked among workers in the basic and mass production industries.

In the formative years of the labor movement the followers of Gompers shied away from the Government. They suspected it of harboring designs on free trade-unionism. But when Dr. Lorwin finished his book and Mr. Levinson took up from there, the Government, by way of the Wagner Act and various other measures, was already deeply enmeshed in its relations with labor.

How intimate that relationship may become, in view of trends in world economy and in view of the vast growth of trade-unions, is a matter of speculation. Dr. Lorwin, however, raises the question and it still remains unanswered. He indicates a trend toward a quasi-public unionism but does not say in which direction it is going. That depends, he says, on the outcome of the struggle among several tendencies; first, the recognition of the constructive contribution by workers' organizations; second, the idea that workers' welfare must be a cooperative function of the workers, employers, and government; and third, that reduction of conflict in industry must be achieved with a minimum of Government coercion.

That conclusion still stands.

The CIO, on the other hand, appears to be moving in the direction of a more centralized control than its AFL counterpart. This is dramatically illustrated by the trial of a group of affiliates on charges of failing to pursue the national policies of the CIO and being more deeply concerned with adhering to Communist policies. When those who set up the CIO definitely turned away from

the AFL, they also modified the Gompers principle of voluntarism. How far this change may take the CIO is difficult to say. In any event while the tendency for more control from the top may make life easier for the policy enforcement officers, it can also mean danger from bureaucracy in ways that are inimical to the free flowering of trade-unions.

Dr. Wolman's study of the fluctuations of union membership before and after World War I and up to the formation of the CIO, is an excellent manual for students because of its fine statistical tables and revealing membership data.

Like Messrs. Lorwin and Levinson, Dr. Wolman also points out that "the changing relation of Government to organized labor promises to be one of the most influential factors in the contemporary labor situation."

—LOUIS STARK

The Jungle

By Upton B. Sinclair. Garden City, New York, Doubleday, Page and Co., 1906.

Dickens, Hugo, Zola, Harriet Beecher Stowe, and Edward Bellamy all used the novel as a weapon in the fight for social reform long before Upton Sinclair began writing. *Looking Backward*, Edward Bellamy's description of the perfect Socialist world of the future, was at best but a dream. Jack London's working-class novels were either too personal to be persuasive—*Martin Eden* was virtually autobiographical—or were revolutionary treatises far removed from the daily life of the American worker—*The Iron Heel* was a brilliant picture of a counterrevolutionary fascist evil.

Upton Sinclair's canvas, however, was the life of the American workingman—a coal miner in *King Coal*, an unemployed laborer in *Co-op*, an automobile worker in the *Flivver King*, or a packing-house worker in *The Jungle*. The stories were simple; the line between good and bad was sharply drawn. It was not until later that we were to get the more sophisticated studies of the American worker—in novels by Steinbeck, and especially by Albert Halper, who, in *The Foundry*, paints a refreshingly unidealized, yet sympathetic, picture.

Sinclair's muckraking contemporary, Lincoln Steffens, would have written the story of the stockyards in reportorial style, much as he un-

masked the political corruption of the big cities in his series of articles, "The Shame of the Cities." But Sinclair used a different technique. After just as much careful research he told the story of the jungle "back of the yards" through the experiences of Jurgis Rudkus, immigrant worker, and his family. It is a measure of Sinclair's genius for story-telling that the reader is not overwhelmed into incredulity by the sheer number of misfortunes which befall this family—by the coincidence that *all* of the worst aspects of Chicago life become Jurgis' personal experiences. The poverty of life, the filthy working and living conditions, the depravity and drunkenness which are encouraged by them, the industrial squalor which embraces all of these, and the political machine which thrives on the whole rotten body, are thrust at the reader with such force that Sinclair was later to bemoan the result: "I aimed at the public's heart and by accident I hit it in the stomach."

Fully four-fifths of *The Jungle* is devoted to this picture of horror. Then Sinclair has Jurgis come upon a revelation in the form of a Socialist meeting at which this representative American worker is struck with the need for social revolution as the medium for freeing him from his misery by freeing his class from its bondage. It is here that Sinclair chooses Bellamy's path of emphasizing a description of the ultimate Socialist goal rather than the methodology of social reform or revolution. And it is here, in retrospect, that we can now say that Sinclair's vision failed him. For since that time, we have learned that it is as important to examine means as ends.

In 1906, however, the book was reviled, not for its revolutionary message, but for its picture of the stockyards and for the public's resulting loss of confidence in the purity of canned and processed meat. President Theodore Roosevelt had the stockyards investigated, and it was Sinclair who came out with the clean bill of health.

It was only in the liberal and radical circles of the day that Sinclair's message of revelation found attentive ears. Winston Churchill, then a radical journalist, wrote a glowing review in a leading English magazine, in which he said: "It is possible that this remarkable book may come to be considered a factor in far-reaching events. . . . The issue between Capital and Labor is

far more cleanly cut today in the United States than in other communities or in any other age. It may be that in the next few years we shall be furnished with trans-Atlantic answers to many of the outstanding questions of economics and sociology upon whose verge British political parties stand in perplexity and hesitation."

Sinclair himself was even more firm in his judgment as to the inevitability of Socialism in the United States. He predicted a Socialist victory precisely in 1912. This he did simply by extrapolating the percentage increase in the Socialist vote from one year to another early in the century. In his 1907 book, *The Industrial Republic*, Sinclair even ventured to say that it would be Mr. William Randolph Hearst who would be elected President in 1912, and who would carry out the Socialist revolution.

From our vantage point of nearly a half-century's experience, it is interesting to seek the flaws in the logic of Sinclair and Churchill. Essentially it was this: While the American worker was properly horrified by the conditions described by Sinclair, he did not feel impelled to choose Sinclair's cure for the disease. The American labor movement consciously rejected social revolution as its methodology and chose instead the path of collective bargaining within the existing framework of our capitalist society. Or, as the Socialists would say, our society bought Jurgis' allegiance by giving him the social solace and economic advantages of union organization, political freedom, and better wages and working conditions; in return it took his Utopian dream.

This, then, was the first of the elements distilled by the American people out of Sinclair's Socialism—the social, economic, and political reforms advocated by the American trade-union movement and basic to the programs of both Roosevelts, of Wilson, of LaFollette, and of Truman. The second major element later distilled out of the Socialist movement was the revolutionary zeal which was to sacrifice means to ends, losing the latter in the process. This element attracted those who have since become Communist in orientation; those who believe in doing things *to* people, instead of having people do things for *themselves*. Before the distillation process, both of these elements were part of a homogeneous mixture of reform and revolution. Their defections left the Socialist movement far

from the political power which Sinclair envisaged in *The Jungle*; it is comprised instead of a remaining small number of idealists who are still trying to fuse social reform and social control without loss of democratic procedures.

—MORRIS WEISZ

Report of the Industrial Commission [on the Relations and Conditions of Capital and Labor]

19^o volumes. Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1900–02.

Final Report and Testimony Submitted to Congress by the Commission on Industrial Relations

Sen. Doc. No. 415, 64th Congress, 1st Session (11 volumes). Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1916.

Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor

Preliminary Report, Senate Report No. 46, 75th Congress, 1st Session. Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1937.

Public Opinion and the Steel Strike

Interchurch World Movement of North America. New York, Harcourt, Brace, and Co., 1921.

Henry Steele Commager in a brilliant essay on *Veblen and the New Economics* provides a very appropriate introduction to the present review of four of the most important economic "investigations" or "reports" of the last 50 years. "Here were the three major principles," he says, "of that new economic thought which was to become the orthodoxy of the twentieth century: recognition that economics was an inductive and pragmatic science; appreciation of the relevance of ethical as well as scientific considerations; and acknowledgment of the necessity of State intervention in the economic processes . . . It [the first of these principles] justified, too, the scientific study of statistics and that long series of congressional investigations into the anatomy and pathology of American economy of which the reports of the Industrial Commission of 1902, the Immigration Commission of 1911, the Pujo Committee of 1912, and the Commission on Industrial Relations of 1915 are perhaps the best examples."

Commager might have added that the other two principles as well have found expression in

these and similar reports and congressional investigations. Indeed it would be accurate to suggest that the second principle ("appreciation of the relevance of ethical as well as scientific considerations") was really the central motivation behind this new approach to economics and behind these several investigations. The first and the third of these "three major principles of that new economic thought," as developed by Ely, Veblen, Patten, etc., were means to an end—the end being the establishment of a more "ethical" economic order.

Be that as it may, the four "investigations" or "reports" which are the subject of this commemorative review contributed enormously to the welfare of American workers and the welfare of the Nation as a whole. They are landmarks in American economic and political history and will be acknowledged as such by future generations. They will be recognized, increasingly as time provides historical perspective, as four of the most important "exhibits" upon which the people of the United States, acting as a collective jury, have based their gradual repudiation of classical economics. Not that one American in 100,000 has ever read or even heard of these four reports—but their findings and their recommendations have somehow seeped into the culture of the Nation and, in time, have been crystallized into social institutions and in many cases have been enacted into the law of the land. And, most important of all, their methodology—the organized investigation of economic facts with a view to solving economic problems and remedying economic abuses—has been accepted as the normal function and the normal responsibility of Government and private associations.

The purpose of the three governmental reports included in this review was substantially the same in every case and was stated very briefly in the respective acts of Congress which brought them into being: to investigate the facts of industrial relations and to make recommendations for remedial legislation.

The very statement of this purpose, it will be obvious, was in itself a repudiation of the "old" economics; for basic to laissez-faire economics was the theory that no created intelligence—and least of all the collective intelligence of the Congress—could or should interfere with the laws of "nature." With pardonable exaggeration, therefore, it can be

argued that as far as the United States was concerned the doom of the "old" economics was sealed on June 18, 1898, when the Congress, in Public Act No. 146, authorized "the appointment of a nonpartisan commission to collate information and to consider and recommend legislation to meet the problems presented by labor, agriculture, and capital." *Causa finita est*. Henceforth it would be taken for granted in the United States—grudgingly at times, but inevitably in the end—that the "natural" laws of economics were subject to public investigation and subject also to modification in the light of documented facts.

Obviously it is impossible in this review to summarize either the facts which were uncovered by these four investigations or the recommendations submitted by their sponsors to the public of the United States and to the Congress. But the four reports do follow a pattern. All of them, with the exception of the first, were concerned exclusively with industrial relations (the scope of the first was somewhat broader, including as we have already indicated, problems of agriculture and capital along with the problems of labor). And all of them proved beyond reasonable doubt that the workers of the United States were being victimized in various ways by American capital and indeed by the Government itself.

The recommendations of the first report, as might be expected, were rather timid, rather conservative, by the standards of 1950. Labor unions (to cite but one example) were given a pat on the back, but the open shop was also defended. ("The right to be employed and protected without belonging to a union should be preserved; but every facility should be given to labor to organize if it desires, and the last vestige of the notion that trade-unions are a criminal conspiracy should be swept away.") But even this report made legislative recommendations—on wages, hours, the use of the injunction, etc.—which must have seemed heretical to many Americans at the turn of the century.

The other reports are increasingly more progressive, with the principal secular trend being always in the direction of emphasizing more and more emphatically the right of labor to organize and to bargain collectively without unwarranted interference on the part of employers or the Government. It was established conclusively that this was *the* most important requirement for

industrial peace and prosperity. The Walsh Report (Commission on Industrial Relations, 1916) made the point very explicitly, and yet 20 years later it was necessary for the LaFollette Committee to return to the subject and spell out in thousands of pages of unpleasant detail the incredibly stupid and incredibly vicious means which many employers (and among them the most respected and the most respectable) were using to destroy the labor movement.

But that's all water over the dam. Happily, conditions are better today. Not that labor's right to organize is universally and enthusiastically accepted, but progress has been made. Organized labor is here to stay and to grow in importance and public acceptance; and the Government, however haltingly, has recognized its responsibility to enact legislation for the protection of the workers. Much—not all—of the credit for this progress must be given to these four reports, and to similar investigations, both public and private, for so exhaustively documenting the case in favor of basic reforms in American economic thinking and American economic and legislative practice. This is their essential importance and significance.

—REV. GEORGE G. HIGGINS

Trade Unionism in the United States

By Robert Franklin Hoxie. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1917.

A Theory of the Labor Movement

By Selig Perlman. New York, The Macmillan Co. 1928. (Reissued—Augustus Kelley, New York. 1949.)

The Labor Movement in the United States

By Norman Ware. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1929.

The work of Professor Hoxie has had much influence especially upon the nonspecialist in the field. There is much insight and keen judgment in his pages. From their reading, one gains an impression of an acute and sympathetic observer, who understood the merits of labor unionism.

Professor Hoxie's permanent contribution must, however, rest upon the validity of his classification of unions into functional types. His classification was widely accepted by students as revealing differences in the character of unions. Thus, the

labor organizations pursuing a policy of winning concessions "here and now" for their members were described as business unions; uplift unionism was the kind which employed "collective bargaining, but stressed mutual insurance, and drifts easily into political action and the advocacy of cooperative enterprise, profit sharing, and other idealistic plans for social regeneration." Revolutionary unionism was described as seeking to establish a collectivist society on either socialist or syndicalist lines. Predatory unionism was divided into two subtypes. One was a union dominated by the racketeer and the other was characterized by the violent methods it pursued in its organizing and strike activities.

The growth of these several types is accounted for by the diversity in the environments in which the organizations arise. It seems to me that the classifications, while suggestive in that they reveal accidental characteristics of unions, have no validity beyond that point. A distinction has to be made between the purposes of unions as organizations of labor, and their incidental activities which may be the result of chance. Unions are not essentially formed for uplift or for "hold-up" purposes. The first may be a means of cementing the members together; the second the result of lack of interest within the union or violent opposition outside. Revolutionary propaganda groups which call themselves unions do not thereby earn that classification. On the contrary, whenever they acquire influence and begin to behave as unions, their revolutionary views diminish in importance.

It seems to me that Professor Hoxie, as a pioneer and sympathetic investigator into union problems, did a great deal to stimulate thinking on issues affecting labor. However, his main contribution—classifying unions into functional types—does not appear to be of lasting value.

Professor Ware's study was published in 1929 when the labor movement had reached one of the lowest points since the formation of the American Federation of Labor. Throughout the decade the AFL had suffered a series of defeats which reduced the membership of its affiliates, and undermined the confidence of the leaders. A large part of Professor Ware's work will remain as a permanent record of the Knights of Labor. While time has tended to lower our estimation of the Knights, his work records an important

episode in American labor history, and anyone seeking an understanding of the origin and growth of American unionism cannot neglect it.

Professor Ware shows the weakness of the Order, its lack of plan and policy. But he is inclined to underestimate the insight and contribution of Gompers and his associates. He does not adequately recognize the importance of union autonomy for the survival of a labor movement. He wrote: "Admitting the value of federalism for this country, it should be remembered that a desperate Civil War was fought to put down the doctrine upon which the American Federation of Labor was founded and to which it still holds." This is a somewhat false analogy. A labor movement is a different type of institution from a nation. The former is based largely upon voluntary submission, and has no means of imposing its will upon its subordinate units. Moreover, as special-purpose organizations labor unions must adapt themselves to the peculiar circumstances surrounding them, and, except on very broad issues, common policies are difficult to evolve.

Professor Ware also minimized the differences between the Knights of Labor and the AFL. It is true the Knights of Labor "tried to organize all workers in one way or another, and the AFL renounced this perhaps over-ambitious program in order to save the national unions from the wreck. Along with this went a limitation of aims, in theory at least, to purely trade matters and the renunciation of a dream." While it is true that the attitude of the Knights of Labor toward the trade-unions differed from place to place, on the whole the Knights' conception of labor organization differed and was even antagonistic to the unions. Perhaps the basic difference lies in the failure of the Knights to recognize that an extensive labor movement must allow its particular segments to pursue their special aims, and what was thought to be an aim of craft unions seems to be an attitude common to all organized groups. The Knights' lack of sympathy for trade-union activity must also be recognized as a cause for its decline. However, whatever shortcomings Professor Ware's work may have in interpretation, his study remains the standard work on the Knights of Labor and is not likely to be easily superseded.

Professor Perlman's *A Theory of the Labor Movement* can be compared with Hoxie's work in that

it attempts to offer an explanation of the labor movement. The explanations given by Professor Perlman can be interpreted as justifying the attitude and policies of the AFL. When the "theory" was first issued in 1928, the policies of the AFL were under attack. The defeats suffered in the early 1920's and the failure to expand in an era of high employment seemed to indicate that the AFL had lost its vigor. A better appreciation of the AFL exists today than ever before in its history. The purpose of Professor Perlman's work was not to explain a union, but to develop a general theory which would help us to understand the activity of workers and the organizations *they* set up to defend their economic interests.

For years, philosophies have been elaborated in the name of labor. They have been based on the assumption that labor has a peculiar destiny or special mission. These views were presented in the name of labor but not by workers. Usually the proponents of such views were what Lenin called the "bourgeois intelligentsia." Professor Perlman distinguishes between such philosophies and what he calls organic philosophies of labor, or those developed by workers themselves. He finds the driving force behind the institutions and attitudes of labor a consciousness of scarcity, or an apprehension of limited opportunity. This is both a more general and fruitful explanation of the activity of labor than concentration upon functional types.

Moreover, Professor Perlman's views lack the patronizing snobbishness common to the philosophies emphasizing labor's destiny or historical mission. Professor Perlman concentrates his attention on what workers do, how they respond to their economic environment. He sees the basic aim of unionism the desire to control the job so as to overcome the "limited opportunities" that face the worker at every turn. Such a theory helps us to understand the restriction upon membership, opposition to technological change, and other policies common to labor unions. By stressing labor's "pessimistic" outlook we can better appreciate labor's frequent insistence upon high wage rates even when an argument may be made that the level of rates may affect future earnings.

Professor Perlman's theory adequately explains why the worker is relatively conservative, why labor is likely to be concerned with tangible gains rather than social reorganization. It points out

that labor unions are fundamentally gradualistic in outlook and purpose. They are a means for making slow adjustments so that society does not become bogged down by privilege and special interest. Thirty-two years after the October Revolution, we can better appreciate the great merits of democratic trade-unionism. The tangible value of Professor Perlman's "Theory" is that it can help us to understand both the labor movement and its policies.

—PHILIP TAFT

The Labor Injunction

*By Felix Frankfurter and Nathan Greene.
New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930.*

An appraisal of *The Labor Injunction*,¹ two decades after its appearance, is almost necessarily a brief on appeal from Frankfurter, Prof. to Frankfurter, J. Seldom has one person written the definitive work about a social evil, assisted in the preparation of remedial legislation,² and taken a major role in the interpretation of his handiwork.³ From a labor point of view, this treatise marks the zero point of a parabola which rises through the Norris-LaGuardia Act, the Wagner Act,⁴ and *NLRB v. Jones and Laughlin*,⁵ flattens out to *United States v. United Mine Workers* in 1947, and plummets downward to the Taft-Hartley Act.⁶

The judicial abuses which prompted this study were carefully dissected from the catch-all phrase "government by injunction" which became popular after the decision in the *Debs* case.⁷ The conclusion that "emphasis upon procedural safeguards in the use of the injunction must therefore rank first"⁸ rested upon a demonstration of the almost contemptuous disregard with which the Federal courts had treated the procedural limitations of section 20 of the Clayton Act.⁹

In 1914, it had been momentarily hoped that they would eliminate the *ex parte* injunction, without notice and hearing, in labor disputes. Therefore section 7 of the Norris-LaGuardia Act, perhaps optimistically, in substance reenacted these provisions of the Clayton Act; section 9 required a specificity in decrees which the authors found so lacking in judicial practice.

Having shown that "recognition of the social utility and, indeed, of the necessity of trade-unions implies acceptance of the economic and social

pressure that can come from united action,"¹⁰ section 5 of the Norris-LaGuardia Act protected such activity when peacefully conducted. Because "the injunction cannot preserve the *status quo* . . . the suspension of activities affects only the strikers".¹¹ Section 7 of the act required a strict balancing of the equities, section 3 illegalized the "yellow dog" contract, section 5 eliminated the "conspiracy" doctrine, and the unwillingness or inability of public officers to furnish adequate protection was made a condition of granting an injunction.

Predominantly, the Norris-LaGuardia Act and *The Labor Injunction* deal with Federal equity procedure, not the substantive law of labor relations. Like Charles Dickens a century earlier, Felix Frankfurter brought home to plain people the importance of technical procedural rules in the administration of justice. His thesis worked, at exactly that point where the Clayton Act had so signally failed; as if a faucet had been turned, Norris-LaGuardia stopped the flow of injunctions. Conceding, as we must, that the depression¹² and a more favorable judicial climate were largely responsible for the difference, *The Labor Injunction* nonetheless played, and plays, its part. The judge, like the king, is troubled when his nudity is so loudly called to public attention. The work's exact and laborious scholarship is the mine from which 10 thousand briefs have been worked; the impeccable legislative draftsmanship of the Norris-LaGuardia Act has made evasion difficult.

From Frankfurter, J., we have some drafts but not his final opinion. What we have is uncertain and tentative; the gallant sentences of *Hutcheson* and *Swing* are qualified by *Ritter's Cafe* and *United Mine Workers*. One stain will not erase. The doctrine of the "indisputable jurisdiction," announced in his concurring opinion in the *Mine Workers'* case, states that the citizen may not, even when he is right, assume the hazards of refusing compliance with an unlawful order of a court acting without jurisdiction unless the question is "frivolous."¹³ This doctrine would deny the right to stand on a Constitutional or jurisdictional ground except where there is no doubt (in which event there is also no case). Its lack of ancestry, and of hope of judicial progeny, adds to the atmosphere of improvisation to reach a result which surrounds it.

Now we are back to the axis. Under Taft-Hartley, lawful as well as unlawful conduct is enjoined.¹⁴ Injunctions are to issue if a Government agent "has reasonable cause to believe" that the law has been violated.¹⁵ Nearly all forms of secondary action are proscribed;¹⁶ peaceful picketing is narrowly limited;¹⁷ and section 6 of the Norris-La Guardia Act defining the word "agent" is all but repealed by section 2 (13) of Taft-Hartley. In 1950, as in 1927,¹⁸ the law requires good union men to strike-break on their fellows.¹⁹ The gloom would be even darker but for the courage of Keech, J.²⁰ Now, as in 1930, *The Labor Injunction* is important reading.

—GERHARD P. VAN ARKEL

¹ Mr. Greene's contribution was extensive and important.

² The Norris-LaGuardia Act (March 23, 1932), 47 Stat. 70, ch. 90; 29 USCA § 101, 9 FCA title 29, § 101. Professor Frankfurter, then at the Harvard Law School, was special adviser to the subcommittee (Senator Norris, Chairman) of the Senate Judiciary Committee which reported the bill. Rept. 163 (February 4, 1932), 72d Cong., 1st Sess. p. 4.

³ See, *inter alia*, *United States v. Hutcheson*, 312 US 219, 85 L. Ed. 788 (maj. opin.); *Milk Wagon Drivers Union v. Lake Valley Farm Products*, 311 US 91, 85 L. Ed. 63; *Milk Wagon Drivers Union v. Meadowmoor Dairies*, 312 US 287, 85 L. Ed. 836 (maj. opin.); *AF of L v. Swing*, 312 US 321, 85 L. Ed. 85 (maj. opin.); *Carpenters & Joiners v. Ritter's Cafe*, 315 US 722, 86 L. Ed. 1143 (maj. opin.); *Columbia River Packers Assoc. v. Hinton*, 315 US 143, 86 L. Ed. 750; *Bakery & Pastery Drivers v. Wohl*, 315 US 769, 86 L. Ed. 1178; *Brotherhood v. Toledo, Peoria & W. R. R.* 321 US 50, 88 L. Ed. 534; *Allen Bradley v. Local Union No. 3*, 325 US 797, 89 L. Ed. 1939; *U. S. v. United Mine Workers*, 330 US 258, 91 L. Ed. 884 (conc. opin.); *Brotherhood of Carpenters v. U. S.*, 330 US 395 (diss. opin.); *Bakery Sales Drivers v. Wagshal*, 333 US 437 (maj. opin.).

⁴ 49 Stat. 449, 29 U. S. C. 151 (July 5, 1935).

⁵ 301 U. S. 1 (1937), upholding the constitutionality of the Wagner Act.

⁶ Public Law 101, c. 120, 80th Cong., 1st Sess. (1947).

⁷ *In re Debs*, Petitioner, 158 U. S. 564 (1895).

⁸ P. 202.

⁹ 29 U. S. C. sec. 52.

¹⁰ P. 204.

¹¹ P. 201.

¹² Professor Frankfurter noted, prophetically, that "Effective recession in the present trend of prosperity is likely to invigorate the demand for legislation" (p. 150).

¹³ Cf. p. 56; "On direct appeal, abuse of discretion alone is reviewed; while in proceedings for contempt only the court's power in issuing the injunction may be challenged. . . . The distinction is one of great importance." One commentator has simply resolved the problem by noting that "the occasional erroneous exercise of judicial power is a minor danger." Jaffee, *Mr. Justice Frankfurter*, 62 Harv. L. R. 411 (Jan. 1949). My contrary views are perhaps (though I think not) the consequence of the fact that my present law partner, Mr. Henry Kaiser, was on the brief in the *Mine Workers'* case; principally they are ascribable to a reading of *The Labor Injunction*.

¹⁴ Under section 208 dealing with so-called "national emergency" disputes. They neither are, nor are declared to be, unlawful.

¹⁵ Under section 10 (1).

¹⁶ Section 8 (b) (4).

¹⁷ See *Klassen & Hodgson*, 23 LRRM 1403.

¹⁸ *Bedford Cut Stone Co. v. Journeymen Stone Cutters' Association*, 274 U. S. 37, 71 L. Ed. 916.

¹⁹ Cf. p. 197: ". . . the position of labor before the law has been altered, if at all, imperceptibly."

²⁰ *U. S. v. United Mine Workers*, 26 LRRM 2447.

Labor and Internationalism

By Lewis L. Lorwin, *The Institute of Economics of the Brookings Institution*. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1929.

Dr. Lorwin, in this volume, covers a century of labor, socialist, and communist doctrines (1830-1929), the movements they gave rise to, and their relations to problems of war and peace and to the economic and political lives of most of the nations on the two continents of Europe and America.

Briefly, this book concerns the development of two major doctrinal streams of panaceas. Both are based on the international solidarity of the working classes as a necessary foundation or "sine qua non" for freedom, equality, and permanent peaceful relations between nations.

One major stream is that of social revolutionary internationalism based primarily on the teachings of Karl Marx, as formulated in the *Communist Manifesto* published by Marx and Engels in 1848. This doctrine relies on the class struggle and violent revolution to overthrow the existing government and upon dictatorship of the proletariat to control the government until the transformation from a capitalist to a socialist economy has been completed.

The second major stream is that of socialist-reformist internationalism, also based, in part at least, on the teachings of Karl Marx. However, the followers of this doctrine condemn violent revolutions and abhor the doctrine of dictatorship of the proletariat. This doctrine they consider as a complete negation of all the human rights and human dignity, and of freedom, which they regard as basic to a genuine socialist state and to international peace. Socialist-reformists rely upon the political education of the masses of workers and upon the ballot and gradual reforms to accomplish the transition from a capitalist to a socialist society.

Closely allied with socialist-reformist internationalists is another group, composed largely of bona fide trade-union movements. Their objective is to improve the status of workers in the economic, political, and social fields, through organizing workers into craft or industrial unions and through collective bargaining with their

respective employers. This stream, represented chiefly by the American labor movement and by the Christian trade-unions on the European Continent, condemns the revolutionary doctrines of communism, and also repudiates the long-range philosophy of the various socialist movements. However, in the international field, anti-Communist and anti-socialist trade-unions have found it necessary and desirable to cooperate with the socialist-reformist groups, by aligning themselves with the other European trade-union movements which, like the British and the German unions, are in the main socialistic in their politics and international action.

At the time of publication of *Labor and Internationalism*, none of the three major labor movements was sufficiently strong or sufficiently active to exercise great influence on international relations. In Soviet Russia, Stalin and his followers had just emerged victorious from the civil war and from the several purges of dissident elements in the Communist Party. The Third, or Red, International had not yet had time enough to complete its adjustment to the doctrine that Soviet Russia was the socialist fatherland of all labor and international organizations, which were to be judged on the basis of whether or not they supported or hindered the policies of Soviet Russia, as practiced or interpreted by Stalin and his Politburo.

The various socialist movements on the continent of Europe and in the United States proved even weaker than the Communists. The socialists have never recovered from the blow they received when the Second, or Socialist International, and particularly the German Socialist unions, failed to take decisive steps to halt World War I.

Finally, the American Federation of Labor was too much under the influence of the isolationist trend in the United States, and too much pre-occupied in its domestic affairs to pay much attention to international problems.

In spite of a whole century of failure by social-revolutionaries, by socialist-reformists, and by the trade-union movements of the world to develop effective international labor action, in spite of their internal weaknesses accentuated by endless factionalism and splintering, *Labor and Internationalism* concludes:

Herein lies the warning of the past to the future. From the point of view of labor, as well as for the welfare of the world, the most important function of all

international labor organizations becomes that of eliminating the probability of future wars . . .

They must serve as guardians of the international machinery which now exists and as missionaries for promoting new and more effective instruments of international cooperation. Along this road lies the chance of workers' internationalism for greater unity in its own ranks and for leadership in the movement towards a Great World Society.

More than two decades have elapsed since these conclusions were published in 1929, and the gap between the labor movements of the East and of the West has grown as wide as the gap between Soviet Russia and the Western democracies. The World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU) was the latest effort to establish an international organization in which Communists and non-Communist unions could work together. It failed when the British Trade Unions, the CIO, and the free trade-unions in the other Western European countries were compelled to withdraw from the WFTU after they learned from bitter experience that the Communists were using the WFTU as a vehicle or forum for propaganda for Soviet Russia.

On the other hand, international labor cooperation among the Western nations has grown by leaps and bounds. This is due in a very large measure to the initiative and energetic action by organized labor in the United States, Great Britain, and the other Western European countries. The recently organized International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU), composed as it is of socialist and other anti-Communist unions, is further proof of organized labor's determination to work together and to help keep the peace in the Western world. By improving working conditions and by raising living standards for the masses of workers in the democratic countries, the ICFTU hopes to establish there a way of life which could serve as an example to be followed by workers in the countries which are now partly or completely under Communist domination. The question still remains whether the revived international labor cooperation can successfully pierce the Iron Curtain or whether it merely proves another case of "too little and too late."

The pattern and program of the ICFTU and the functions which organized labor is now performing in the realm of international affairs, including international diplomacy, are predicted almost in detail in *Labor and Internationalism*.

—BORIS STERN

Left Wing Unionism; A Study of Radical Policies and Tactics

By David J. Saposs, Brookwood Labor College.
New York, International Publishers, 1926.

There is need for a 1950 edition of *Left Wing Unionism*: The very name itself, now, has a hollow ring. The old publisher hardly deserves to keep such a distinguished labor historian on his list. Twenty-five eventful years have passed since the book was first issued. There has been a big change in the cast of characters in the great labor drama. And insofar as the work can be said to have heroes and villains, we are no longer certain which are which.

To this reviewer it seems clear that *Left Wing Unionism* is an ephemeral title for a fundamental work of lasting significance. The topical side of the book was exploited in the publisher's blurb which said: "This study gives the historical and theoretical setting to the radical policies and tactics which are the burning questions in American labor unions today. 'Boring from within,' amalgamation, dual unionism, revolutionary and opportunistic radicalism, in their numerous manifestations among the Socialists, Anarchists, IWW's and Communists are the theme of this book."

As I see it, in the broadest sense, the theme of the book is contained in the first two sentences of the author's preface:

"Internal strife within the labor movement seems to be as eternal as the movement itself. In common with all social institutions, labor organizations are constantly experiencing differing degrees of factional struggles."

If Saposs should decide to undertake a revision and expansion of his work, I would suggest that he call it—"The War of the Unions." If this title sounds too Wellsian, we could settle on "Factional Strife Within the Labor Movement." I find the title, *Left Wing Unionism* unacceptable because "there ain't no such animal."

Trade-unions are social institutions which are distinguished from other bodies by their purposes and functions. The "trade marks" of unionism have been well set forth in an altogether much too neglected article by Will Herberg (*For "Limited" as against "Total" Unionism, Labor and Nation*, April-May 1946, pp. 51-52). "The time has come, I believe, for a reassertion of some half-forgotten fundamentals of trade-unionism relating to the

purposes and limits of the movement . . . Labor organizations are essentially organizations for collective bargaining over conditions of employment . . ."

In his preface, Saposs contends that those "divisions that arise out of the disagreements between the radical and conservative elements naturally center around ideologic issues. Since the latter are generally in control, the task of the radicals is to devise policies and tactics that will enable them to replace the conservatives."

But viewed in their historical perspective, the disagreements that arose between the conservative and radical elements centered not in trade-union policy but in whether the unions should remain trade-unions or become political organizations. At this point I must confess that, in 1950, I am learning lessons from *Left Wing Unionism* that I failed to see upon first reading it, almost a score of years earlier. But that is precisely what makes the work an enduring contribution.

You will see it as you follow the author tracing what is now described as "dual unionism" and "boring from within" to their very beginnings when the German radicals, particularly those who migrated after the 1848 revolution, were bent upon converting the early American unions to a "working class revolutionary ideology" by which they meant "the overthrow of the wage system and the substitution therefor of a new social order."

You meet it again in the chapter "Fortunes of Dual Unionism," where Saposs points to the weakness of the Socialist Trades and Labor Alliance and the Industrial Workers of the World and says: "They stressed the importance of propaganda that prepared the workers for the future revolution, to the exclusion of practices for improvement of present-day living conditions." He continues, "because they discount union practices that make for stability, as collective bargaining, trade agreements, strike funds, payment of officials, benefit features and so on, the organizations they control lack the necessary adhesive factors for holding the masses. To the crusader type and philosophy, the union is primarily a medium for propagandizing their particular panacea. The furtherance of the immediate interests of the membership is regarded only as an incidental function of the union."

A most enlightening section of the book is that entitled, "Wage Conscious Unionism." It shows

how conservative unionism evolved with the aid of former Marxian socialists who became the guiding spirits of AFL. The author tells us that they "began to feel, in spite of their sympathies for the larger and more far-reaching aspirations of socialism, that coping with the daily bread-and-butter problems of the workers, such as higher wages, shorter hours, better working conditions and union recognition, as well as providing insurance for such misfortunes as death and sickness, were sufficient to tax the ingenuity and energies of the leaders and the movement."

It is clear that "pure and simple" unionism is not a primitive notion at all. In fact some have not yet discovered this novel concept. It evolved from an interplay of theory and experience during a period of rapid industrial development. Is there a substitute for "wage conscious unionism"?

An explicit reply is to be found in Herberg's above mentioned article.

"I see a great deal of enduring wisdom in the Gompers tradition, however obsolete it has become in some respects owing to the rapid change of conditions. With all his limitations, Samuel Gompers was the one authentically great man American labor has yet produced."

Likewise, throughout his book, Saposs stressed the need of reconciling "two apparently mutually contradictory methods—evangelicism and practical unionism." He concluded that it could be done: "The United Mine Workers and the socialist needle trades unions demonstrated that these methods could be coordinated; hence their success with immigrant and unskilled workers." Clearly, this is the moral of the book. Was it also a prophecy of things to come?

—ALBERT EPSTEIN

Wages and Their

Interpretation:

A Brief Appraisal of the Literature

Much of the voluminous literature on wages published during the past 50 years has little contemporary interest. Taking the period as a whole, advance in the theory of wage determination was slight. In a less technical sense, however, understanding of practical problems of wages and wage administration deepened appreciably, and the volume of factual data available for public use and analysis increased.

The most impressive effort during the half century to measure the material progress of the American working class is embodied in Paul H. Douglas' *Real Wages in the United States, 1890-1926* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930). This volume remains the single most important reference source on levels and trends in wage rates, hours, and earnings for the period to which it relates. Of parallel interest, although much narrower in scope, is Paul F. Brissenden's *Earnings of Factory Workers, 1899-1927* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1929).

Douglas utilized data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bureau of the Census, Interstate Commerce Commission, and other public and several private agencies to construct series of money wage rates, hours of work, and annual earnings for a wide range of industries and employments. These series were adjusted by a cost-of-living index to show changes in the purchasing power of money wages. Finally, certain of the annual earnings series were further adjusted to allow for the estimated volume of unemployment in specified industry groups during the period.

Brissenden, working principally with Census materials, constructed money and real average annual earnings series for workers in numerous individual manufacturing industries and for manufacturing as a whole.

These studies were important. First, they provided an approximation of the gains in living standards achieved by large groups of workers during the first quarter of the century. Both studies, although differing somewhat in methodology, indicated that the level of average annual real earnings for factory workers increased more than 30 percent between the 1890's and the middle of the 1920's, despite a material shortening of the workweek. Second, Douglas was able to throw light on differential movements in money and real wages among major categories of employees. Thus, construction workers and coal miners fared better than factory workers, while farm laborers lagged far behind the latter group. Third, these studies contributed significantly (a) to clarification of the various meanings attached to the term "wages"; (b) to methodology in the use of wage data; and (c) to exploitation of a variety of sources of wage information.

In the 20 years that have elapsed since the publication of *Real Wages in the United States*, no com-

parable study has appeared. The task, of course, is formidable, although the volume of information has expanded materially in some directions during the past two decades. The construction, notably of wage-rate series for many groups of workers, however, remains extremely difficult. Moreover, new conceptual problems of wage measurement have been created by the rise in importance of various types of supplementary wage practices. Concepts of real wages require reexamination. These and other problems suggest that the study of wage trends deserves greater attention than it is currently receiving.

One of the notable events of the turn of the century was the appearance of John Bates Clark's *The Distribution of Wealth, A Theory of Wages, Interest and Profits* (New York, Macmillan Co., 1899). In this volume, Professor Clark, working independently of his great Austrian contemporaries, elegantly developed the theory that wages are determined by the value of the output added by the last increment of labor in the productive process. This marginal productivity theory of wages achieved widespread acceptance among economists and led to a major effort at empirical verification (Paul H. Douglas, *The Theory of Wages*, New York, Macmillan Co., 1934). It has most recently been restated in a brilliant polemical article by Fritz Machlup (*Marginal Analysis and Empirical Research*, *American Economic Review*, September 1946).

Marginal theory was promptly seized upon by some business spokesmen as justifying whatever level of wages happens to exist. For this and other reasons, the theory has not commended itself to the labor movement. Closer to the thinking of most trade-unionists was another approach to wage determination elaborated also toward the end of the century (John Davidson, *The Bargain*

Theory of Wages, New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1898). Davidson held that in any situation there are upper and lower limits to wages, reflecting employer and worker valuations, and that "the result will depend on the comparative strength of the bargainers." The role of trade-unionism was emphasized. A quarter of a century later, Walton Hamilton and Stacy May (*The Control of Wages*, New York, George H. Doran Co., 1923) enunciated what they termed a "functional theory" of wages. The factors upon which wages depend were viewed as institutional and variable, and hence, in some measure, subject to control.

In terms of the development of a theory of wages, analysis has not advanced strikingly beyond these earlier formulations. Marginal theory has come under increasing attack, in the course of which, to cite Douglas, "the power of its analysis" has often been overlooked. Since the end of World War II, there has been an interesting revival of "institutionalism", with particular emphasis upon trade-union wage policy. Relatively full employment (and the problem of its maintenance) has produced considerable discussion of wage policy in relation to general economic stability.

Substantial progress has been made over the half century in what may be called the art of wage administration, which has, in a sense, become professionalized. Questions of balance and rationality in firm wage structures have become matters of close analysis. Experts (including some on the union side) have developed in the use of such techniques as job evaluation, and in the installation and operation of incentive systems. A vast technical literature on numerous aspects of wage administration provides partial evidence of the increasing sophistication that attends the payment of labor for its services.

—H. M. DOUTY

The Labor Month in Review

A SERIES OF LABOR DISPUTES in the railroad industry developed into a strike of railroad switchmen and threats of strikes by other unions after a Presidential fact-finding board made its report on June 15. Expanded social security was passed by the Senate during the month, making it likely that old-age benefits will be significantly increased and that many more workers will receive old-age pensions. Interest in the problems of older workers and of old people generally was indicated by the calling of a conference on aging, to be held next month.

Business activity in June continued at the high level of recent months, with output in many industries equal to or exceeding the previous peaks of 1948. Preliminary indications are that the employment situation was further improved during the month, although the seasonal entry into the labor force of students and school graduates probably increased the number of unemployed.

No slackening in the demand for automobiles and homes is apparent, an important factor in the present economic situation. The boom in residential construction is being accompanied by a large volume of demand for consumers' durable goods of different kinds. Plans for industrial expansion have recently been revised upward. The impact of this activity on the steel industry has resulted in operations above theoretical capacity for a 3-month period.

Railroad Labor Disputes

A strike of railroad switchmen on 5 western railroads and threats of other strikes further complicated the railroad labor situation near the end of June. Three unions, the Switchmen's Union of North America (AFL), the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen (Ind.), and the Order of Railway Conductors (Ind.) each had turned down recommendations of a Presidential fact-finding board. Under the Railway Labor Act the unions are free to strike 30 days after the President's emergency board makes its report.

These and other "operating" railroad unions have been requesting certain rules changes for road-service employees and a reduction of hours from 48 to 40 a week with no reduction in weekly take-home pay for yard-service employees. "Non-operating" railroad employees were granted a 40-hour week with compensating wage increases last year.

The major dispute, involving about 180,000 trainmen and conductors, was referred to the board by President Truman in February under the Railway Labor Act. The board's report on June 15 recommended a 5-day, 40-hour week to replace the present 6-day, 48-hour week and an 18-cent-an-hour pay raise to offset partially the reduction in hours for about 75,000 railroad yard-service employees. Most of the proposed changes in working rules for road-service conductors and trainmen were turned down by the board.

The switchmen declined to join their dispute with those of the other unions, although the demands involving the 40-hour week were largely similar. When this case reached the President in March, he referred it to the same fact-finding board. In its report on April 18, the Board stated it was unable to make a complete investigation within the 30-day limit and recommended that the Switchmen's Union be accorded the same treatment as may be subsequently recommended in the 40-hour dispute of the conductors and trainmen.

A third dispute involving the Railroad Yardmasters of North America (Ind.), also over application of a 40-hour week, reached the President in April and was referred to the same board. The report issued concurrently with that for the trainmen and conductors carried similar recommendations.

Other Labor Developments

An important agreement in the series being negotiated in the telephone industry was signed in June between the Long Lines Department of the American Telephone & Telegraph Co. and Division 10 of the Communications Workers of America (CIO). Following a pattern in other agreements recently made in the industry the contract provides for a reduction (from 8 to 6½ years) in the time required for employees to go from minimum to maximum pay within the major job classifications.

The National Maritime Union (CIO) and the Atlantic and Gulf coast steamship companies

agreed in June to permit the union to maintain employment offices for hiring unlicensed shipboard personnel. The new agreement was adopted after court decisions found the previous operation of the union's hiring hall to be in violation of the Taft-Hartley Act. Under this contract, the union will operate its employment offices in accordance with the law and will assume "sole responsibility" for these operations.

A seven-man committee was appointed in early June by Philip Murray, president of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, to meet with the three-man committee set up by the American Federation of Labor's Executive Council to explore the possibility of unity in the American labor movement. The committees of the two major labor federations are to meet in July in preliminary talks, to seek agreement on a common program before the other unions are invited.

Two more CIO unions—the American Communications Association and the Fur and Leather Workers Union—found guilty of following Communist party policies, were expelled from the CIO. In its purge of Communist-dominated unions begun at last November's convention, eight unions have thus far been expelled. Three other unions—the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union, the Marine Cooks and Stewards, and the Fishermen and Allied Workers—still face charges. Similar charges against the United Furniture Workers were withdrawn after it appeared to have cleared itself, at its convention, by voting to support the CIO's program and policies.

The National Labor Relations Board, in a policy statement issued early in June, announced that it would not recognize the proposal made by Robert N. Denham, its general counsel, that unionshop authorization elections be waived in the building industry. Mr. Denham had proposed in December 1949 that union-shop election requirements under the Taft-Hartley Act be waived because the frequent shifting of employees in the industry made such elections administratively impractical. The Board stated that it could find no authority in the statute to take such a step.

Social Security Broadened

A considerably broadened Social Security law appeared assured when the Senate, on June 20, overwhelmingly voted a measure greatly increasing

coverage and benefits. Last fall, the House of Representatives passed a substantially similar bill, although differing on some details.

The bill which passed the Senate brings under the Social Security system almost 10 million additional persons, about half of them self-employed.

Benefits are about doubled, with the maximum primary benefit being raised to \$80. The payroll tax would remain at the existing level of 1½ percent until 1956, rising thereafter to 3¼ percent in 1970. The tax base would be raised from the first \$3,000 of workers' income to \$3,600.

In early June, a National Conference on Aging was called by Oscar Ewing, Federal Security Administrator. The conference, which will be held in Washington on August 13-15, was suggested by President Truman to explore "the problems incident to our increasingly older population." Questions of employment, employability, and rehabilitation, as well as the safeguarding of economic security, as they affect older people, will be important subjects of discussion. Also to be studied are problems relating to the health, family life, religious, and recreational activities of older people.

Boom in Construction

Unprecedented construction activity during the spring months of 1950 has been featured by a record-breaking number of new housing starts. It appears likely that the record number of 1,025,000 new homes started in 1949 will be exceeded in 1950. The peak level of construction activity has put considerable pressure on supplies of both material and labor, and a number of price increases in building materials, particularly lumber, have occurred. Some savings through increased efficiency and productivity, however, have been noted, so that increases in construction costs have not resulted in significant increases in prices of new homes.

Employment in contract construction as a whole has been at the highest springtime level since the early war years. Wage levels in the industry have been rising gradually over the past few months as a result of numerous agreements affecting small groups of workers throughout the country. In the first half of 1950, approximately ½ million construction workers received wage-rate increases or obtained welfare plans financed by employers.

Special Articles and Summaries of Reports

Regional Shifts in Industry and Population, 1899-1949¹

SHIFTS OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY and movements of population during the last 50 years have favored the South and West, broadly speaking, at the expense of older industrial areas north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers. So much has been written about this trend, however, that it is easy to exaggerate its importance. The most startling percentage increases have indeed occurred in the newer industrial areas. But, as shown in the chart and table, the numbers involved are not great as compared with the North. It is there that the big numerical rises have taken place.

As a result of rapid industrial growth, there were in 1947 some 84 manufacturing production workers per thousand of the population, compared with only 59 at the turn of the century. This greater emphasis on manufacturing was evident in every region except New England, although outside the North the actual numbers were not great (from 28 to 60 per thousand population). However, New England remains the region of greatest manufacturing concentration, with 137 production workers per thousand of the population—far more than elsewhere.

Some of the observable changes can be regarded broadly as merely the continuation, perhaps the culmination, of a process that has been going on ever since the country was founded. People, and also manufacture, started in the East—manufacture especially in the Northeast. As they spread across the country each new area gained, often at a faster rate than the old. New England's industrial predominance ended before this century began. Since 1900 the Middle Atlantic region has yielded place in manufacturing to the Central States, and the Southeast has

been overshadowed relatively—though not in numbers—by western developments.

The logical end of this dispersion over the country's domain will come not when population and production are evenly spread—since resources are uneven, this will never occur—but when the search for new opportunities no longer has a prevailing westward bent. This happened in agriculture, in effect, in the first decade of the century. In manufacture, no evidence appears that the "settlement of the country" is yet complete. Even when pressure toward the West finally ends, the pattern will be dynamic, not static. New factors will call for constant shifts.

Employment Changes

Fifty years ago, well over half the country's manufacturing employment was located in New England and the Middle Atlantic States. The Central Region had more than a fourth of the production workers, the Southeast had 12 percent. Across the other three regions, occupying three-fifths of the Nation's area, were scattered hardly more than a twentieth of the factory jobs.

From 1899 to 1939, when manufacturing employment in the Nation rose by nearly 75 percent, the Southwest and the Far West more than tripled their number of factory jobs, and the Southeast and the Central Region nearly doubled theirs. The Middle Atlantic Region gained 40 percent, New England comparatively little.

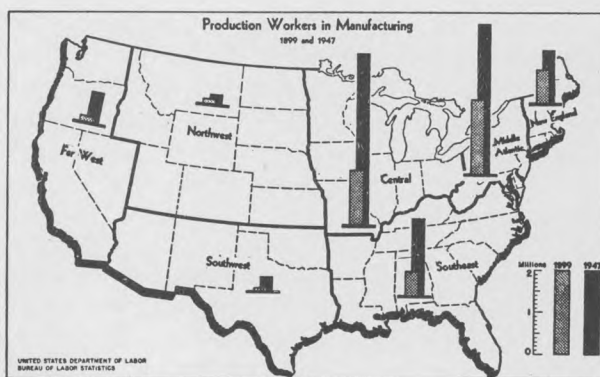
Then came World War II with its enormous demand for every kind of manufactured article, and particularly for heavy goods. Factory employment increased more than 50 percent between 1939 and 1947. Again the West gained most, proportionately. The Southeast with its emphasis on light manufactures, especially textiles,

was not a big gainer. The Middle Atlantic States increased their number of jobs more in 8 years than over the previous 40, yet less than the national average. New England's 32-percent rise—a large number in the space of 8 years, and three times the 1899-1939 increase—still was smaller than that of any other region. By far the greatest gain, in actual number of jobs, took place in the Central States, the location of so much of the Nation's heavy industry.

By 1947, both the Central States and the Southeast had three times as many manufacturing production workers as in 1899. The Southwest and the Far West had no less than six times as many. Meanwhile employment doubled in the Middle Atlantic States, and increased by less than half in New England.

Since 1947, as before, the West has done better industrially than the East and North. In this period, however, changes have occurred within the framework of a contracting rather than an expanding market for factory labor, as manufacture declined from its postwar height. By September 1949, there were some 7 percent fewer factory jobs in the country than 2 years earlier. But New England had dropped 13 percent, the Middle Atlantic and Central Regions about 9, and the Southeast 7. On the other hand, fractional increases had occurred in the Southwest and Northwest, and a 2-percent rise in the Far West.

Thus, in each of the three periods considered, the Southwest and the Far West did better than other areas, and New England and to some extent the Middle Atlantic States did worse. The Central Region more than held its own until after 1947, but lost more than the national average between 1947 and 1949. The Southeast gained fast before 1939, but less rapidly during the war years, and like other eastern areas it has lost since 1947.



The net result of these differential changes in manufacturing employment has been to bring the three western regions up from 6 percent of the national total of factory jobs in 1899 to 13 percent in 1949. The Southeast has gained only slightly, from 12 percent to 14. The Central States by 1949 had 34 percent of the total as compared with

Regional shifts in industry and population, 1899-1949

Region ¹	Population			Manufacturing								Manufacturing production workers per thousand population	
	Percent of total		Percent increase 1900-49	Production workers ²				All employees					
	1900	1949		Number (in thousands)		Percent of total		Percent change ³		Percent of total Sept. 1949	Percent change Sept. 1947-Sept. 1949 ³		
	1899	1947	1899	1947	1899-1939	1939-47	1899-1900	1947					
United States.....	100.0	100.0	95.7	4,502	11,916	100.0	100.0	73.4	52.6	100.0	-7.2	59	84
New England.....	7.4	6.3	66.3	852	1,248	18.1	10.5	11.2	31.8	9.4	-13.2	152	137
Middle Atlantic.....	23.8	23.7	94.8	1,759	3,583	37.3	30.1	40.8	44.6	29.6	-9.3	97	104
Central.....	30.4	26.7	72.0	1,290	4,093	27.4	34.3	93.7	63.7	34.0	-8.8	56	106
Southeast.....	23.8	20.5	68.4	554	1,736	11.8	14.6	115.9	45.1	14.2	-7.2	31	60
Southwest.....	5.5	7.5	168.7	47	304	1.0	2.5	247.4	87.7	3.0	.5	11	29
Northwest.....	6.0	5.2	70.2	88	205	1.9	1.7	30.2	79.6	2.1	.6	19	28
Far West.....	3.2	10.2	516.4	124	748	2.6	6.3	233.1	81.5	7.7	1.6	50	55

¹ See map for definition.

² The national production worker figure for 1899 has been revised to exclude workers in railroad repair shops, the manufactured gas industry and some other industries which are no longer counted as manufacturing. As similar adjustments could not be made in regional and State figures, regional data for 1899 are not entirely comparable to those for 1939 and 1947, and their sum is greater than the national total shown. Certain additional reasons for a lack

of complete comparability are presented in the Handbook. None of these difficulties, however, are great enough to vitiate the kinds of comparisons being made here.

³ Increase, except as otherwise indicated.

Source: Handbook of Regional Statistics.

27 percent 50 years before. Meanwhile New England, despite a large absolute rise, had only 9 percent of the total, compared with 18 percent in 1899. The Middle Atlantic Region was down from 37 to 30 percent.

At the turn of the century, then, the industrial North had more than four-fifths of the jobs in manufacturing, the more recently industrialized South and West had less than a fifth. Fifty years later the South and West had climbed to more than a fourth. But the North still had nearly three-quarters of all manufacturing employment, and remained the area of most of the Nation's industrial activity. Two-thirds of the new jobs created between 1899 and 1947 were added in the older industrial regions.

Population Shifts

Changes in the location of manufacture have combined with other influences, including great variations in agricultural production and income, to bring about large shifts of population. All regions contributed to the virtual doubling of the national population during this century, though in varying degrees. Population change bears a general resemblance to changes in manufacturing employment. Percentage gains have been greatest in the newer areas, but the majority of the people are still in the North and East. However, population was not as concentrated as manufacturing even when the century began.

Two main factors determine regional trends in population. Birth rates differ greatly from place to place. Migration serves sometimes to heighten, sometimes to balance off, the natural increase resulting from excess of births over deaths.

Although no State-to-State migration figures run back to 1900, the main outlines of movement can be seen. The North with its millions of new jobs has continually drawn people from other

regions. During the early decades of the century, agricultural settlement in the Western States was virtually completed. The Dakotas and Oklahoma were still gaining more people than they lost, up to 1910. In the next decade States farther west were still gaining. In the 1920's, the line of increase was pushed out as far as the Coast States, while the South and the whole Northwest lost to other regions. Since 1930, the industrial North and the newly industrial Far West have continued to gain at the expense of the Southeast, the Southwest, and the Northwest, which are more than half rural.

The trend from rural into urban areas faltered during the 1930's, but has never ceased for long. This does not mean that most of the more rural States have fewer people than before. In most States, and notably in the Southeast, the birth rate has been sufficient to bring about some net population rise in spite of out-migration.

Despite differing trends—into and then out of agricultural States, from rural into urban areas, from South to North and from the East to the West—every region had more residents in 1949 than in 1900. The population of the Southwest has nearly tripled, and that of the Far West has been multiplied by six. By 1949, 1 in 10 Americans—15 million people—lived in the Far West. The Middle Atlantic region meanwhile has maintained its relative position. It still has a little less than a fourth of the Nation's population, just as it had at the turn of the century. Together, the three regions above the Ohio and Potomac Rivers hold a somewhat smaller share of the population than 50 years ago. But they still have nearly three-fifths of the total, concentrated in a fifth of the area of the country.

¹ By Marion Hayes, based on *Handbook of Regional Statistics*. The Handbook was prepared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics, by Marion Hayes and Hyman L. Lewis, for the Subcommittee on Unemployment of the Joint Committee on the Economic Report. (Joint Committee Print, 81st Cong., 2d Sess., Washington, 1950).

Public Works and Employment¹

PUBLICLY FINANCED CONSTRUCTION has become an increasingly important segment of our national production as greater population density, rising standards of welfare, and a more complex industrial organization have generated growing demands for the types of services and facilities usually provided by the expenditure of public funds. With the increase in government construction activity has come recognition of the fact that variations in the rate of expenditures for public works may have significant effects on levels of business activity. This has led to consideration of the possibility of regulating public construction as a means of enhancing economic stability. An effort at practical application of this principle was made nearly 20 years ago, when Congress passed the Employment Stabilization Act of 1931 "to provide for the advance planning and regulated construction of public works, for the stabilization of industry, and for aiding in the prevention of unemployment." The creation of the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, under title II of the National Industrial Recovery Act of June 16, 1933, paved the way for the first large-scale experiment in the expansion of public works construction as part of a planned program to raise the level of income and employment.

The public works program of the mid-1930's aided substantially in alleviating the effects of a severe economic depression. As a result of that experience, there has been widespread interest in public works policy and planning. Regulation of government construction expenditures has been examined from several points of view, including a limited approach, seeking to channel construction funds into local unemployment areas, as well as a very broad application of public works policy, under which public construction would play a major role in stabilizing the entire economy. In weighing the various possible applications of public works expenditures, consideration must be given to the special characteristics of construction, especially of publicly financed projects.

The use of public funds for the construction of public-type projects as a means of providing employment has several advantages. If the projects

are well planned, they will confer a lasting benefit on the public at large. If they are limited to those types commonly provided by public rather than private financing, the government-sponsored construction activity in periods of business depression will not displace nor compete with private expenditures.

Construction expenditures create employment and stimulate purchasing power by providing jobs for construction workers at the site of the project, and by creating employment in the extraction, transportation, and processing of the materials used. The relative importance of these direct and indirect employment effects will vary, of course, depending upon the types of projects undertaken. Studies by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that the ratio of off-site to on-site man-hours averages about one to one on the most common types of public construction projects. That is, in general, for every man-hour of work at the construction site, another hour is created in producing and transporting the materials incorporated in the project. Following these initial benefits, the "pump priming" results of public works expenditures affect other industries as the workers' wages are spent for other goods and services.

Limitations of Public Works

On the other hand, there are several important limitations on the use of public works to alleviate unemployment. If a special program is called for in areas of serious unemployment, it will probably be desirable to apply a highly selective approach, providing jobs suitable for the unemployed in the localities where they live. Unfortunately, location of a construction project is rigidly fixed by the need for the facility to be provided. Highways, reclamation projects, river and harbor work, and similar operations can be located only where they will serve specific purposes. There may be no substantial need for projects of this type in any area where severe unemployment exists.

The indirect effects of public works on employment are even less susceptible to control. Generally, the public contracting agency can only specify the types and grades of materials to be used in construction, and is unable to control the production of such materials. A large construction project may stimulate manufacturing activity

in a locality having actual labor shortages. In many instances the materials are drawn from inventories, which may not be replenished immediately, with the result that the indirect employment benefits are postponed.

Another limitation arises because most construction jobs require a considerable amount of physical effort and skill. Approximately half of the on-site workers engaged in new construction in the third quarter of 1949 were in skilled occupations. Bricklayers, carpenters, electricians, plasterers, plumbers, and steamfitters—all crafts for which extensive training and experience are required—constituted about a third of the employed construction labor force at that time. These proportions vary, of course, on different types of construction. For example, about 70 percent of the workers engaged on new residential building are skilled; on highway construction, a higher proportion of semiskilled and unskilled workers can be used. Any public works project, however, will require a considerable nucleus of qualified construction craftsmen. In a period such as the present, when construction employment is high, expanded public works may result in bidding workers away from other jobs without an appreciable reduction in unemployment.

Another characteristic of the construction industry is that it employs few women. In several of the areas in which a labor surplus currently exists, the leading industries consist of textile and other light manufacturing, which normally employ women in large numbers. Increased public works would have little or no direct effect in drying up these pools of unemployment. Furthermore, the indirect effects of construction are of limited benefit to women workers, because the major building-materials industries—steel, lumber, cement and clay products—employ men largely.

Under these circumstances, can further expansion of public works construction be effective in relieving specific areas where unemployment is currently a matter of concern? In the fall of 1949, an effort was made to expedite Federal construction activities in "critical" areas where 12 percent or more of the labor force were unemployed. Over \$65 million in contracts for public construction were awarded in such areas during the third quarter of 1949. From a survey made in December it was concluded that such scheduling of public works activities in critical areas was of limited

effectiveness, because of the relatively small number of construction workers among the unemployed. Most of the critical areas at that time were centers for coal mining, textile production, or metalworking.

Long-Term Significance

Although it does not appear feasible to rely upon public works for solving local unemployment problems, the long-range advance planning of public construction may provide a means of minimizing fluctuations in business activity. The accompanying table, showing construction expenditures during the past quarter-century, provides a basis for examining the possibilities in this direction. The major components of total construction activity, as classified for this analysis, consist of privately financed new construction, Federal new construction, non-Federal public new construction, and private maintenance and repair expenditures, which include both public and private outlays for this purpose.

If the periods before 1930 and after 1945 can be considered as relatively normal, the data indicate that privately financed new construction normally ranks first in dollar volume, followed respectively by maintenance and repair, non-Federal public, and Federal new construction expenditures. The questions to be explored are (1) what components account for most of the erratic movements in construction activity? and (2) to what extent can the Federal Government smooth out these fluctuations by a positive long-range public works program?

It is evident that new construction activity is the principal source of fluctuations. In fact, estimated annual expenditures for maintenance and repair show a virtually uninterrupted and steady rise throughout the period since 1933; they appear to have been affected only to a minor extent by business booms and depressions.

Stabilization Aspects. In the new construction totals, privately financed activity normally represents the largest share. From 1925 through 1929 and from 1946 through 1949, private construction made up from three-fourths to four-fifths of the total. Thus, it may be assumed that governments (Federal and other) contribute directly about a fourth of the total construction

expenditures under normal conditions. In the light of past experience, how much can the government outlay be increased, and what can the Federal Government do to promote expansion of public works by State and local governments in a period of depression? A measure of the possibilities in this direction is shown by the data for 1936, when Federal construction reached a prewar peak of about 40 percent of total new construction expenditures. It is evident, however, that the increase in Federal expenditures served, in effect, to offset a decline in non-Federal public construction. Thus, in the period prior to 1930, State and local governments spent about 10 times as much as did the Federal Government, but in 1936 non-Federal public construction was estimated at about 60 percent below the Federal total.

The data for the war years 1942 and 1943 seem to indicate even greater possibilities for Federal contribution to stability through public works. In that period, Federal building accounted

for better than 70 percent of the total for new construction. But the wartime experience cannot be used as a measure of the extent to which the Federal Government can participate directly in construction activities. A large share of the Federal construction expenditures during the war were for industrial production facilities. Except in extreme emergencies, such construction is the responsibility of private enterprise. It is unlikely that any long-range public works program involving such types of construction would be accepted.

Limiting consideration to the more normal types of public projects, the postwar trends provide a clue as to the range within which public works policy might be effective. In 1949, State and local governments were engaged in a record public works program with expenditures approaching \$3.7 billion. Federal expenditures were also at a peacetime high of almost \$1.6 billion. It is, of course, a matter for legislative determination as to whether future public works are to be ex-

TABLE 1.—Expenditures for construction in the United States, 1925-49¹
[In millions of dollars]

Year	Total	New construction								Maintenance and repair
		All new construction ²	Private		Public ³					
			Total	Percent of new construction	Total ³	Federal ³		Non-Federal		
						Amount	Percent of new construction	Amount	Percent of new construction	
1925	\$13,907	\$10,512	\$8,439	80	\$2,073	\$192	2	\$1,881	18	\$3,395
1926	14,702	11,119	9,040	81	2,079	177	2	1,902	17	3,583
1927	14,852	11,067	8,733	79	2,334	181	2	2,153	19	3,785
1928	14,611	10,780	8,313	77	2,467	207	2	2,260	21	3,831
1929	13,876	9,873	7,476	76	2,397	237	2	2,160	22	4,003
1930	11,692	8,042	5,265	65	2,777	338	4	2,439	31	3,650
1931	8,990	5,967	3,375	57	2,592	451	8	2,141	35	3,023
1932	5,684	3,290	1,467	45	1,823	510	16	1,313	39	2,594
1933	4,782	2,537	1,012	40	1,525	713	28	812	32	2,245
1934	5,976	3,463	1,235	35	2,228	1,378	40	850	25	2,513
1935	6,483	3,720	1,676	45	2,044	1,318	35	726	20	2,763
1936	9,392	6,195	2,550	41	3,645	2,621	42	1,024	17	3,197
1937	9,845	6,411	3,390	53	3,021	2,078	32	943	15	3,434
1938	9,873	6,589	3,076	47	3,513	2,392	36	1,121	17	3,284
1939	10,938	7,496	3,808	51	3,688	2,446	32	1,242	17	3,442
1940	11,600	7,960	4,390	55	3,570	2,315	29	1,255	16	3,640
1941	15,196	11,201	5,426	48	5,775	4,564	41	1,211	11	3,995
1942	17,757	13,742	3,007	22	10,735	9,874	72	861	6	4,015
1943	12,005	7,822	1,744	22	6,078	5,652	72	426	6	4,183
1944	8,636	4,136	1,823	44	2,313	1,912	46	401	10	4,500
1945	9,782	4,808	2,716	57	2,092	1,558	32	534	11	4,974
1946	16,354	10,464	8,253	79	2,211	1,096	10	1,115	11	5,890
1947	21,765	14,324	11,179	78	3,145	1,181	8	1,964	14	7,441
1948	26,810	18,775	14,563	78	4,212	1,339	7	2,873	15	8,035
1949 ⁴	27,929	19,329	14,059	73	5,270	1,688	8	3,682	19	8,600

¹ Estimates for new construction are prepared jointly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, and the Office of Domestic Commerce, U. S. Department of Commerce. Estimates for work relief and maintenance and repair are by the Office of Domestic Commerce.
² This series is not the same as the official series currently published by the Departments of Labor and Commerce for the period 1933-43, because of the inclusion of expenditures on work-relief construction projects. The annual revision of the new construction series now under way and to be published in

the summer of 1950 will, among other items, incorporate expenditures for work-relief construction.
³ The distribution between Federal and non-Federal expenditures is by source of funds. The Federal figures include the amounts of grants-in-aid and contributions by the Federal Government to State and local governmental agencies.
⁴ Preliminary.

panded or contracted. The current level reflects the effects of needs which were not met during wartime. It may be questioned whether expenditures can be expanded above present levels, on a continuing basis, without undertaking projects which might be described as submarginal. Outlays above the current volume would require, presumably, public decision to undertake major projects, such as river-valley development programs.

The chief limiting factors are lack of an adequate number of planned projects and the inevitable delay between the decision to undertake a program and the actual start of work. It might be possible to overcome these obstacles sufficiently to double the rate of Federal expenditures within a year, but such an increase would offset little more than a 10-percent drop from the 1949 total of privately financed new construction. In any event, it is obvious that some way must be found to prepare in advance for controlled increases or decreases in public construction expenditures, if this device is to be used for stabilization purposes. Despite recognition of the problem in 1931 and large appropriations in 1933, the prewar emergency public works program did not attain its peak until 1936. The delay can be attributed in large part to the lack of plans at the outset of the depression.

Advance Planning. The importance of State and local public works in relation to total construction volume indicates the necessity for Federal-local coordination of activity if public works planning is to be effective. A recent move in this direction was made by the 81st Congress, when it adopted Public Law 352, authorizing Federal assistance to State and local governments for the advance planning of non-Federal public works projects. As originally proposed, the bill was aimed at building up a "shelf" of projects to be held in abeyance until such time as local conditions might warrant the expansion of public works activity in order to bolster employment. In its final form, however, the long-term features of the act are limited by this provision: "If the construction of the public works is not undertaken or started within 3 years after the full amount of the loan or advance therefor has been made," the Administrator shall investigate the situation and may demand repayment of the loan. Indications

thus far are that the funds being provided in accordance with P. L. 352 are being used to plan projects for immediate construction. Sewer and water supply facilities, schools, local highways, and streets account for the major share of the projects planned.

Experience with this act illustrates some of the problems in advance planning of public works. The 3-year limitation was doubtless adopted partly because local needs tend to change with time, and today's plans may become obsolete, with the result that a considerable investment in plans may be lost if the project is not started fairly promptly. Pressure for immediate construction of the projects also arises from the local demand for increased public facilities. Unfortunately, from a stabilization standpoint, local public works tend to increase in periods of prosperity and decline in depressions, thus adding to the swing of cyclical economic movements. Under the Nation's decentralized governmental taxing and spending powers, local authorities are most responsive to local needs. They yield to popular demand for public works when business conditions are good and local revenues ample, and curtail operations when economic reverses lead to declining tax receipts and demands for government economy.

These findings point to the conclusion that any advance planning program must be carried on as a joint Federal-State operation, with substantial Federal advances of planning funds. Moreover, several general conditions are indicated. Among these are:

(1) Recognition of the limited role which public works should play, within the general framework of our free-enterprise system. As part of a general system for economic stabilization, public-works policy should aim primarily toward the goal of stabilizing the construction segment of the economy.

(2) In developing a long-range public-works program, we should be prepared to spend funds for "shelf" projects which may not be undertaken in the foreseeable future—plans which may have to be completely restudied every few years in the light of changed needs and methods.

(3) The stock of plans should include types of large-scale projects which are not usually included in current State and local construction programs—needed public works for which State and local resources cannot ordinarily be employed.

¹ By H. E. Riley, Chief of the Bureau's Construction Statistics Division.

Size of Labor Unions in the United States

SOME 14 to 16 million workers in the United States, constituting approximately a fourth of the total labor force, currently are members of labor unions, according to estimates based upon union membership reports and claims. Structurally, these workers comprise the more than 200 existing national or international unions, which, in turn, have 70,000 or more local lodges or chapters scattered throughout the United States and Canada.

From the standpoint of membership, unions vary widely in size. Six, out of a total of 207 unions surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics late in 1949, claim more than a half million members each. These large unions are the AFL Carpenters and Teamsters, the CIO Automobile Workers and Steelworkers, and the independent or unaffiliated Machinists¹ and Mine Workers. Almost half of the unions (46.9 percent) on the other hand, have from 10,000 to 100,000 members. About 1 out of 4 unions surveyed was relatively small, claiming less than 5,000 members.

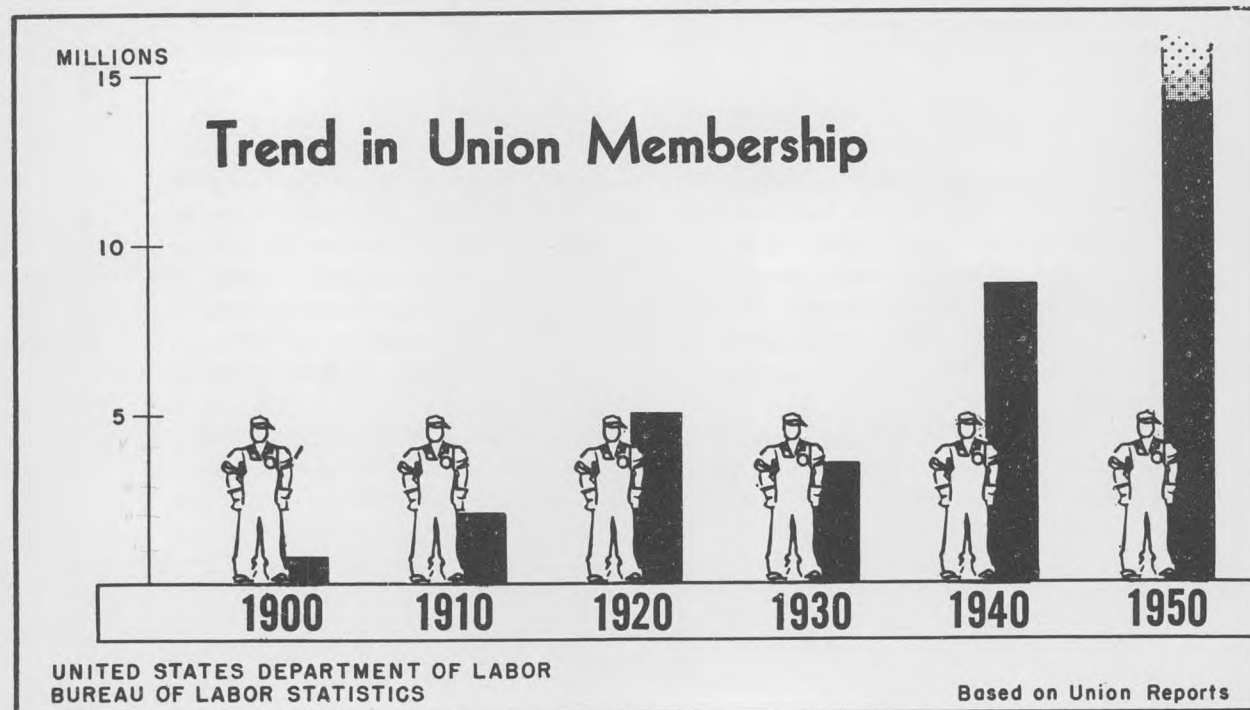
Similar variations exist in the number of locals chartered by national and international unions.

Twenty percent (or 41) of the 204 unions reporting number of locals in 1949 had more than 500 local chapters each, and 18 of those had over 1,000 each. Almost 50 percent had less than 100 locals each, and approximately a third had between 100 and 500 locals each. Membership of local unions ranges from small groups of a few workers (usually not less than 10) to several thousand. The Ford local of the United Automobile Workers (CIO), with a reported 65,000 members, is by far the largest in the country.

Number of Agreements

Most collective-bargaining negotiations with employers are conducted at the local-union level. No precise count of the total number of these agreements exists, however. Various estimates, ranging from less than 100,000 to as high as half a million have been made. A conservative estimate would place the number of agreements currently in effect as upwards of 100,000.

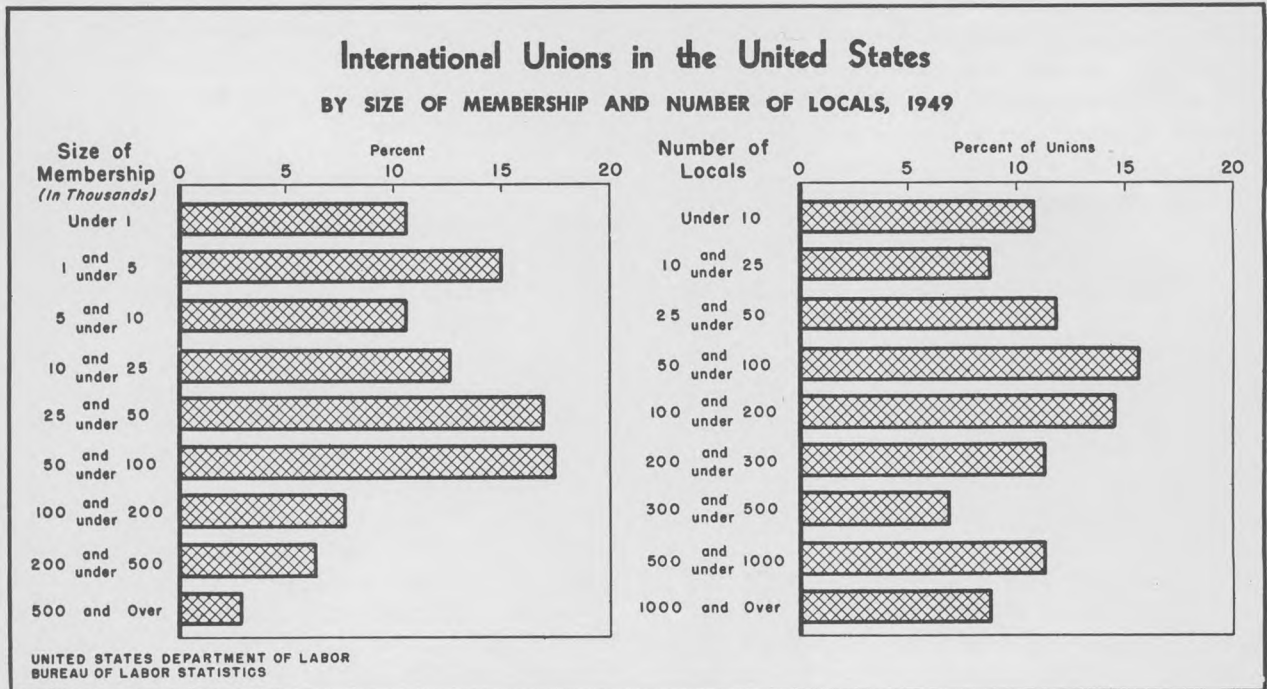
A few unions, notably in certain crafts and service trades, have a large number of agreements, since many of their individual contracts cover only a few workers in a particular establishment. On the other hand, some collective-bargaining agreements—as in coal, steel, and automobiles, for example—include tens of thousands of workers;



such agreements, however, are not typical of the general pattern of collective bargaining. An analysis by the Bureau of some 7,500 agreements in effect in early 1950 shows that slightly more than a third covered less than 100 workers each,

and three-fourths covered less than 500 workers each. About 1 agreement in 10 included in the sample covered 1,000 or more workers, and only 1 out of every 100 included 10,000 or more workers.

¹ Reaffiliation with the AFL is currently under consideration by the International Association of Machinists.



* * * * *

“The ground-work principle of America’s labor movement has been to recognize that first things must come first. The primary essential in our mission has been the protection of the wage worker, now; to increase his wages; to cut hours off the long workday, which was killing him; to improve the safety and the sanitary conditions of the workshop; to free him from the tyrannies, petty or otherwise, which served to make his existence a slavery. These, in the nature of things, I repeat, were and are the primary objects of trade unionism.”

“Our great Federation has uniformly refused to surrender this conviction and to rush to the support of any one of the numerous society-saving or society-destroying schemes which decade by decade have been sprung upon this country.”

Samuel Gompers: *Labor and the Common Welfare*, 1919.

Salaries of Office Workers: Three Midwestern Cities, Early 1950¹

AVERAGE WEEKLY SALARIES of women general stenographers in early 1950 amounted to \$48.50 in Chicago, \$44 in Indianapolis, and \$42 in Milwaukee. Hand bookkeepers, the highest-paid women workers among more than a score of office occupations studied, averaged \$58 in Chicago and a few dollars less in the other cities. Office girls and clerks doing routine filing were the only workers in Chicago who averaged less than \$40 a week; these workers were the lowest paid among nine job categories in Indianapolis and Milwaukee in which average earnings fell in the \$30-\$40 bracket (table 1).

Men accounting clerks, numerically the most important of six men's jobs for which data could be presented, averaged \$58 in Chicago and somewhat less in the other cities. Average salaries of men bookkeepers ranged from \$58.50 in Indianapolis to \$67 in Chicago. Although men were generally paid more than women employed in similar work, particularly in jobs requiring more than a short period of training, pay levels were about the same in routine jobs.

A comparison of occupational averages among the three cities indicated that average salaries in Chicago were highest in each job category. In three-fourths of the jobs, salaries in Chicago exceeded those in both Indianapolis and Milwaukee by \$4 or more a week. Women's salaries in most jobs were somewhat higher in Indianapolis than in Milwaukee; for men, pay levels were

TABLE 1.—Salaries¹ in selected office occupations in Chicago, Indianapolis, and Milwaukee, by sex,² January-February 1950³

Sex, occupation, and grade	Chicago				Indianapolis				Milwaukee			
	Number of workers	Average weekly salary	Median weekly salary ⁴	Salary range of middle 50 percent of workers	Number of workers	Average weekly salary	Median weekly salary ⁴	Salary range of middle 50 percent of workers	Number of workers	Average weekly salary	Median weekly salary ⁴	Salary range of middle 50 percent of workers
Men												
Bookkeepers, hand	1,313	\$67.00	\$65.00	\$57.50-\$74.50	92	\$58.50	\$55.00	\$51.00-\$63.00	96	\$66.00	\$61.50	\$57.00-\$74.50
Clerks:												
Accounting	3,587	58.00	57.50	50.00-65.00	404	50.00	49.50	42.00-57.00	391	54.00	52.00	45.50-62.00
General	1,827	58.00	56.50	50.00-64.50	283	55.50	56.00	47.50-63.00	365	56.00	55.50	46.00-65.50
Order	2,028	60.00	62.00	52.50-66.50	279	55.50	55.00	48.00-60.00	235	54.50	55.50	45.50-63.50
Payroll	761	57.00	55.50	50.50-61.00	52	52.00	52.00	45.00-57.00	161	47.50	46.00	38.00-56.50
Office boys	1,581	36.50	36.00	33.50-39.50	135	32.50	32.00	30.00-36.00	164	33.00	33.50	31.00-34.00
Women												
Billers, machine:												
Billing machine	1,876	46.50	45.50	42.50-50.00	186	39.00	40.00	35.00-42.00	227	38.50	38.50	34.00-40.50
Bookkeeping machine	483	45.00	44.50	42.00-49.00	42	39.50	39.00	38.00-43.00	78	38.50	39.00	32.00-45.00
Bookkeepers, hand	1,192	58.00	56.00	50.00-61.50	158	54.00	52.00	44.50-60.00	203	55.00	53.00	46.00-62.00
Bookkeeping-machine operators:												
Class A	621	54.50	53.00	50.00-58.00	76	48.50	48.50	43.50-53.00	168	48.00	48.50	45.00-50.00
Class B	2,778	44.50	45.00	40.50-48.00	488	38.50	38.00	34.50-42.50	491	40.00	40.50	35.50-44.00
Calculating-machine operators:												
Comptometer type	4,211	47.50	47.00	43.00-51.00	449	44.50	44.00	40.00-48.00	894	40.00	40.00	36.00-43.00
Other than Comptometer type	446	45.50	45.00	40.00-49.50	76	40.00	39.00	37.00-43.00	122	35.50	35.00	32.00-38.50
Clerks:												
Accounting	6,636	46.00	45.00	40.00-50.00	698	42.00	41.50	36.50-47.50	1,083	42.00	41.00	37.00-47.00
File, class A	1,144	44.50	44.00	40.00-48.00	109	38.00	37.50	34.50-39.50	120	41.50	41.00	38.00-44.50
File, class B	4,122	37.50	37.00	34.50-40.00	491	34.50	33.50	30.00-36.00	806	33.50	33.50	30.00-36.00
General	3,104	49.00	48.00	44.00-53.00	291	45.00	44.50	38.50-50.50	438	44.50	44.00	40.00-48.00
Order	2,197	43.00	42.00	39.00-46.50	204	41.50	41.00	36.00-45.00	308	41.00	40.00	34.50-47.00
Payroll	2,742	49.00	48.50	44.00-53.50	316	46.00	45.00	42.00-49.00	521	43.00	41.50	36.50-46.50
Clerk-typists	8,391	41.50	40.50	37.50-44.50	1,409	37.00	36.00	33.00-40.00	1,713	36.50	36.00	32.50-40.00
Office girls	1,319	36.50	36.00	32.00-40.00	70	32.00	31.00	30.00-34.00	186	31.00	31.00	29.50-32.00
Stenographers:												
General	12,702	48.50	47.50	44.00-52.50	1,448	44.00	43.50	40.00-48.50	2,326	42.00	41.50	38.00-46.00
Technical	1,117	54.50	53.00	49.50-59.00	132	50.00	49.50	45.00-53.00	149	46.50	45.50	41.00-52.00
Switchboard operators	1,560	46.00	45.00	41.00-50.00	157	40.00	40.00	37.00-43.00	192	40.50	39.00	35.50-45.50
Switchboard operator-receptionists	2,139	45.50	44.50	40.00-48.50	214	39.00	38.00	35.00-41.50	377	37.50	37.00	33.00-40.00
Transcribing-machine operators, general	1,521	45.00	44.50	40.50-48.00	209	40.00	40.00	36.50-43.50	275	39.00	38.50	36.00-42.00
Typists:												
Class A	1,813	47.00	47.00	43.50-49.50	169	45.00	46.50	38.00-50.50	227	40.50	41.00	35.50-44.50
Class B	5,469	40.50	40.00	37.00-43.50	560	37.50	37.00	34.00-40.50	674	34.50	33.50	31.00-37.00

¹ Excludes pay for overtime.

² The study covered representative manufacturing and retail trade establishments, and transportation (except railroads), communication, heat, light and power companies with over 100 workers; and establishments with more than 25 workers (50 workers in Chicago) in wholesale trade, finance, real estate, insurance, and selected service industries (business services;

such professional services as engineering, architectural, accounting, auditing and bookkeeping firms; motion pictures; and nonprofit membership organizations).

³ Data for Chicago refer to February, and for Indianapolis and Milwaukee to January.

⁴ Value above and below which half the workers' salaries fell.

higher in Milwaukee in four of the six jobs studied.

Salary levels varied among the six broad industry divisions covered in the study, with a higher-than-average earnings position indicated in each city for workers employed in manufacturing, wholesale trade, and the transportation, communication, and other public-utilities group. This earnings advantage was not found in all jobs, however, and the amounts involved were typically small. Lower salary levels were in some instances offset, in part or entirely, by shorter average workweeks (table 2).

Pay rates varied widely in individual occupations, the highest and lowest recorded rates typically differing by \$30 or more. The dispersion of rates was greatest in men's jobs. The salary range of the middle 50 percent of the workers in an earnings array exceeded \$10 in most of the men's jobs in each city. Among the women's jobs, however, the salary range of the middle 50 percent exceeded \$10 in only a few jobs and in most cases amounted to less than \$8. The dispersion of rates was greatest among accounting clerks and bookkeepers, and least among office girls, file clerks, and operators of office equipment.

Salaries in Chicago offices were slightly higher in February 1950 than in the same month of 1949 when a similar Bureau study was made. The average increase for all women workers studied was less than 2 percent over the year period. In Milwaukee, previously surveyed in January 1948,

salaries had increased by about 10 percent in many of the jobs over the 2-year period. Indianapolis had not been included in the Bureau's earlier series of office clerical salary studies.

Two-thirds of the women office workers in Chicago and fully four-fifths in Indianapolis and Milwaukee were scheduled to work a 40-hour week at the time of the study. Workweeks of less than 40 hours were reported in each industry division and were most common in Chicago. More than 40 percent of the office workers in the finance, insurance, and real estate division in each city worked less than 40 hours a week. Schedules in excess of 40 hours were reported by a few establishments, mainly in the trade and service industries.

The 5-day week was worked by nearly all women office workers in Chicago and Milwaukee. A sixth of the Indianapolis clerical employees worked either 5½ or 6 days; the latter schedule was reported by retail-trade establishments accounting for 30 percent of the employment in this division.

Supplementary Wage Practices

Paid vacations for office workers were formally provided for by virtually all establishments visited in each city. Half or more of the clerical workers in each city were in offices granting at least 1 week after 6 months of service and nearly

TABLE 2.—Salaries¹ and weekly scheduled hours of women clerk-typists and general stenographers in Chicago, Indianapolis, and Milwaukee, by industry division, January-February 1950

Occupation and industry division	Chicago			Indianapolis			Milwaukee		
	Number of workers	Average—		Number of workers	Average—		Number of workers	Average—	
		Weekly salary	Weekly scheduled hours		Weekly salary	Weekly scheduled hours		Weekly salary	Weekly scheduled hours
Clerk-typists.....	8,391	\$41.50	39.0	1,409	\$37.00	39.5	1,713	\$36.50	39.5
Manufacturing.....	3,023	42.50	39.5	625	38.00	40.0	953	37.50	40.0
Wholesale trade.....	1,343	41.50	40.0	111	41.00	40.5	132	37.00	39.5
Retail trade.....	1,034	39.00	40.0	60	37.00	40.0	125	33.00	40.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate.....	2,251	40.50	37.5	514	34.50	39.0	382	35.00	39.0
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities.....	165	46.00	40.0	58	40.50	40.0	78	36.00	40.0
Services.....	575	42.50	39.0	41	36.00	40.0	43	36.50	40.0
Stenographers, general.....	12,702	48.50	39.0	1,448	44.00	40.0	2,326	42.00	40.0
Manufacturing.....	5,108	49.50	39.5	598	45.50	40.0	1,282	42.50	40.0
Wholesale trade.....	2,158	49.00	40.0	201	43.50	41.5	361	43.50	40.5
Retail trade.....	837	45.50	39.5	111	41.00	40.0	100	39.00	39.5
Finance, insurance, and real estate.....	2,728	46.50	37.5	364	42.50	39.0	389	40.00	39.0
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities.....	557	51.50	39.0	81	47.50	40.0	95	44.50	40.0
Services.....	1,314	49.50	39.0	93	44.50	39.5	99	41.50	40.0

¹ Excludes pay for overtime.

all were eligible for at least 1 week after a year of service. The most liberal leave provisions were reported in Chicago, where 80 percent of the office workers were scheduled to receive 2 weeks of paid vacation after completing the qualifying year of service. Nearly all workers in each city and industry division were granted 2 weeks after 5 years of service.

With few exceptions 6 or more paid holidays were received annually by office workers in the 3 cities. The practice of granting 6 specified holidays was typical of manufacturing, trade, and service industries. Employees in the finance, insurance, and real estate group commonly received as many as 11 paid holidays and many establishments in the transportation, communication, and other public utilities division granted 7 days.

Formal provisions for granting sick leave after a year of service were reported by establishments that accounted for roughly 30 percent of the office-worker employment in Chicago and Milwaukee, and 40 percent in Indianapolis. Although the proportion of workers with longer service (5 years) who were eligible for paid sick leave was not appreciably greater, the amount of leave allowed increased with service. The amount of sick leave allowed after 5 years' service ranged from less than 5 days to more than 20 days a year in each city.

Many employers supplemented the basic pay of office workers with a nonproduction bonus, typically at Christmas or the year's end. In Indianapolis and Milwaukee, Christmas or year-end bonuses were paid by retail-trade establishments accounting for two-thirds of the workers in this industry group; in Chicago, however, only

16 percent of retail-trade office workers were employed in establishments that granted such bonuses. Profit-sharing plans were reported in many industries, but were important only in Indianapolis retail trade and Milwaukee transportation, communication, and other public utilities, from the standpoint of employment in establishments reporting such plans.

Insurance and pension plans, for which the firms paid at least part of the premiums, were reported in establishments in each city that employed nine-tenths of the office workers. Life insurance plans were most commonly reported, although a substantial proportion of office workers were also offered health or hospitalization insurance.

Offices reporting retirement pension plans (in addition to Federal old-age and survivors insurance) employed approximately half the workers in each city. In each city, the proportion of employment in establishments with pension plans ranged from four-fifths or more in the transportation, communication, and other public utilities group, to a fourth in the service industries.

¹ By Toivo P. Kanninen of the Bureau's Division of Wage Statistics. Information was collected by Bureau field representatives from 360 establishments in Chicago, 156 in Indianapolis, and 175 in Milwaukee. The industrial coverage and minimum size of establishment included in the survey are summarized in table 1, footnote 2.

In addition to these 3 cities, the 1950 program of office clerical studies included surveys in Atlanta, Boston, Detroit, Los Angeles, Memphis, New York, Oklahoma City, and Providence. Moreover, salary information for clerical workers will be incorporated in community wage reports covering Buffalo, San Francisco-Oakland, and Philadelphia. Salary data for Atlanta, Memphis, and Oklahoma City appear in the June 1950 issue of the Monthly Labor Review, and for Boston on p. 118 of this issue.

Salary data refer to salaries for the normal workweek, excluding overtime pay and nonproduction bonuses, but including any incentive earnings and cost-of-living adjustments. Hours refer to scheduled workweeks in effect for office workers. The employment in each occupation, indicated in the tables, refers to estimated total employment in all establishments within the scope of the study.

Further detail on salaries, work schedules, and supplementary benefits will be available for each of the listed cities in individual bulletins.

A BLS survey made in 1945-46 showed provision of paid vacations for wage earners in about 3 out of 4 manufacturing establishments. Nine years earlier, in 1938, a survey roughly comparable to that of 1945-46 indicated that only 1 out of 4 made such provisions.

Only 32 of the plans reported in the 1938 survey had been in existence before 1900. The number adopted in 1937 was 1,491.

For salaried workers, about 9,080, or 80 percent, of the manufacturing plants reporting in the 1938 survey had paid-vacation plans. Of the manufacturing plants covered in the 1945-46 survey, nearly 90 percent provided paid vacations for salaried workers.

From Monthly Labor Review, August 1938 (p. 269) and September 1947 (p. 331).

Salaries of Office Workers: Boston, Mass., January 1950¹

WOMEN GENERAL STENOGRAPHERS and clerk-typists, the largest groups among 23 office occupations surveyed in Boston, averaged \$39.50 and \$34.50 a week, respectively, in January 1950. Accounting clerks averaged \$39 on an all-industry basis, and average weekly salaries in 15 of the women's jobs differed from this figure by \$3 or less. Average pay levels ranged from \$31.50 for office girls to \$48 for hand bookkeepers.

Among 9 of the men's jobs, average salaries ranged from \$31 a week for office boys to \$66 for hand bookkeepers. Accounting clerks, the largest group, averaged \$50 weekly and order clerks and general clerks, other important groups, averaged \$52.50 and \$61.00, respectively.

Average salaries for most occupations studied in Boston had increased moderately since January 1949, the date of a previous Bureau survey.² Although the extent to which salaries changed during the period varied from job to job, the majority rose between 50 cents and \$1.50 a week. Men generally registered somewhat greater salary gains during this period than women workers.

Earnings of individual workers in the jobs studied ranged from less than \$25, for a few men and women in routine jobs, to nearly \$100 paid to a few men general clerks and pay-roll clerks. Pay rates varied widely in individual jobs as well, with the greatest dispersion indicated in men's jobs. Although rates paid to women stenographers, for example, ranged from about \$25 to \$65 on an all-industry basis, nearly three-fifths of these workers were grouped in the \$35 to \$45 earnings bracket.

Comparisons of average salaries paid in the various jobs among the six broad industry divisions and central offices covered in the survey revealed an earnings advantage for workers employed in offices of manufacturing plants and in the transportation, communication, and other public utilities group. The earnings advantage indicated for workers in these industry divisions was narrowed considerably, however, when pay level comparisons were made in terms of average hourly earnings. Office workers in retail trade, finance,

insurance, and real estate, and in central offices averaged fewer hours of work per week than in the other industry divisions.

A majority of the women office workers in manufacturing and wholesale trade were on a 40-hour work schedule in January 1950. A third of the office workers in retail trade were also on a 40-hour week, but a similar proportion worked in offices operating on a 38½-hour schedule. Women employed in central offices were divided, in the ratio of 2 to 1, between a 35-hour and a 40-hour workweek. Few women office workers in the Boston area worked more than 40 hours or more than 5 days a week.

Salaries¹ in selected office occupations in Boston, by sex, January 1950²

Sex, occupation, and grade	Number of workers	Average weekly salary	Median weekly salary ³	Salary range of middle 50 percent of workers
<i>Men</i>				
Bookkeepers, hand.....	250	\$66.00	\$66.00	\$59.50-\$76.50
Bookkeeping - machine operators, class B.....	57	39.00	40.00	32.00- 40.00
Clerks:				
Accounting.....	1,093	50.00	47.00	41.50- 58.00
File, class B.....	100	31.00	30.00	29.50- 31.00
General.....	276	61.00	63.50	50.00- 70.00
Order.....	439	52.50	50.00	44.00- 60.00
Payroll.....	122	57.50	59.50	50.00- 63.50
Clerk-typists.....	80	34.50	29.00	29.00- 38.50
Office boys.....	964	31.00	30.00	30.00- 32.00
<i>Women</i>				
Billers, machine:				
Billing machine.....	936	36.00	35.00	33.00- 39.00
Bookkeeping machine.....	311	38.50	38.00	33.00- 43.00
Bookkeepers, hand.....	819	48.00	47.00	43.00- 53.00
Bookkeeping-machine operators:				
Class A.....	246	47.50	47.50	41.50- 52.00
Class B.....	2,096	37.00	37.00	34.00- 40.00
Calculating-machine operators:				
Comptometer type.....	1,909	38.00	37.00	35.00- 40.50
Other than Comptometer type.....	241	36.00	37.00	30.00- 40.00
Clerks:				
Accounting.....	3,206	39.00	38.00	34.00- 43.00
File, class A.....	401	40.00	37.00	35.00- 43.00
File, class B.....	2,380	32.00	31.00	30.00- 33.50
General.....	982	47.00	48.50	42.50- 51.50
Order.....	649	39.50	39.00	35.00- 43.00
Payroll.....	1,642	41.50	41.00	36.00- 46.00
Clerk-typists.....	4,079	34.50	34.00	30.00- 38.00
Office girls.....	542	31.50	30.00	28.00- 32.00
Stenographers:				
General.....	5,207	39.50	38.50	35.00- 42.00
Technical.....	190	45.00	44.50	42.00- 47.50
Switchboard operators.....	860	39.50	38.50	35.00- 43.50
Switchboard operator-receptionists.....	952	38.50	37.00	34.00- 41.50
Transcribing-machine operators:				
General.....	834	37.50	37.00	33.50- 41.00
Technical.....	89	39.00	37.00	34.00- 42.50
Typists:				
Class A.....	434	41.00	40.50	36.00- 45.00
Class B.....	2,647	32.50	32.00	30.00- 35.00

¹ Excludes pay for overtime.

² The study covered representative manufacturing and retail trade establishments and transportation (except railroads), communication, heat, light and power companies with over 100 workers; and establishments with more than 25 workers in wholesale trade, finance, real estate, insurance, and selected service industries (business service; such professional services as engineering, architectural, accounting, auditing, and bookkeeping firms; motion pictures and nonprofit membership organizations).

³ Value above and below which half of workers' salaries fell.

Supplementary Wage Practices

Vacations with pay, typically 2 weeks after completion of a year of service, were provided by all of the 237 establishments studied in Boston. More than two-thirds of the office workers were employed in establishments that provided paid vacations to workers with 6 months of service. After 5 years of employment, practically all workers were entitled to paid vacations of at least 2 weeks' duration and a fourth were eligible for vacations exceeding 2 weeks.

Vacation practices did not vary greatly among industry groups. The most liberal provisions for employees with longer service, however, applied to workers in retail trade and finance, insurance, and real estate, where more than two-fifths of the workers were eligible for more than 2 weeks' vacation leave after 5 years' service.

Paid holidays were universally granted except in the retail trade group where about two-fifths of the office workers were employed in establishments providing no holiday pay. With the exception of about a tenth of the workers in the service industries, all employees in all industry groups providing paid holidays were granted 6 or more days a year. Nearly four-fifths of all office workers received pay for 10 or more holidays annually.

Practices regarding the number of holidays paid for varied considerably among the industry groups. Nine-tenths of the workers in finance, insurance, and real estate were granted 11 or more days a year while less than a fifth of the workers employed in manufacturing received 11 or more holidays with pay. Nine of ten workers in transportation, communication, and other public utilities received either 10 or 11 paid holidays.

About a third of the workers were in offices having formal plans providing paid sick leave to workers who met eligibility requirements. The amount of such leave ranged from 5 to over 20

days annually, the most common allowance being 10 days. Workers in manufacturing and in finance, insurance, and real estate generally fared better than those in other industry groups, in terms of number of days allowed; more than a fourth of the workers in these two groups were in offices providing 10 or more days a year. It should be noted that many workers not covered by formal sick leave arrangements were paid on an informal basis for time lost due to sickness.

A third of the workers were employed in offices that supplemented regular salaries with a non-production bonus, usually at Christmas or the year's end. A few establishments reported profit-sharing plans.

One or more types of insurance or pension plans financed in whole or in part by the employers were provided in establishments accounting for over nine-tenths of the Boston office workers. Life insurance plans constituted the most widespread form of benefit, but more than half of the office workers were employed in establishments that reported retirement pension plans.

The extent and types of plans in effect varied among the industry groups. Four-fifths of the office workers employed in transportation, communication, and other public utilities, compared with only about a third in manufacturing, wholesale trade, services, and central offices, were in establishments that reported retirement pension plans. With the exception of the central office group, a fourth or more of the workers in each industry division were employed in offices with health insurance plans.

¹ By Toivo P. Kanninen of the Bureau's Division of Wage Statistics. Information was collected by Bureau field representatives from 237 establishments, and workers were classified on the basis of uniform job descriptions. The industrial coverage and minimum size of establishment included in the survey are summarized in footnote 2 to the accompanying table.

See footnote 1 to *Salaries of Office Workers: Three Midwestern Cities*, p. 117 of this issue.

² For data on the January 1949 study, see p. 147 of the August 1949 *Monthly Labor Review*.

Employment Outlook in Iron and Steel Industry¹

OUTPUT OF STEEL is expected to continue its long-run rise during the next decade. But gains in production are likely to be offset by increases in worker productivity, so that no substantial long-run increase in employment is anticipated. The iron and steel industry will, however, hire thousands of workers each year to replace employees who die, retire, or shift to other industries.

Composition of the Industry

Half of the world's steel is produced in the United States; the per capita output of steel in this country in 1947 was estimated at 8 times the average for the entire world. With nearly 600,000 wage and salary workers, the iron and steel industry is one of the Nation's largest manufacturing industries.² The more than 300 iron and steel plants have a great variety of jobs, a large number of which are found in no other industry. Many of the jobs are skilled and, compared with manufacturing generally, earnings are high.

The iron and steel industry consists of plants engaged in several different kinds of activities: manufacturing pig iron from iron ore in blast furnaces; converting the pig iron, along with iron and steel scrap, into steel; and rolling or drawing the steel into such basic shapes as plates, sheets, strips, rods, bars, rails, and structural shapes. In many of the plants, manufacturing processes are carried beyond the rolling stage to produce finished products. The mining of the raw materials is classified as a separate industry, although many mines are owned by steel companies. Also excluded are plants which are mainly engaged in casting, stamping, forging, or machining steel purchased from steel-producing companies.

Only a small percentage of the products of iron and steel plants, such as rail, wire, and nails, can be used directly without further manufacturing. The bulk of the products shipped from steel plants, such as sheets, bars, plates, and strips, are further fabricated in plants of other industries into hundreds of different products.

Production Trends

The first factor to be considered in the employment outlook is the trend in the production of steel. Wide fluctuations in steel output have occurred during the past 50 years. To a high degree, these fluctuations are associated with changes in general business conditions. The main uses of steel are in "durable goods" activities, such as automobile production, construction, and machinery manufacture. These activities are extremely sensitive to the business cycle; as a result, steel is a "feast or famine" industry. Relative to the economy as a whole, steel is especially hard hit during depressions, but in boom times, its situation is particularly favorable. How great these variations can be is shown by the drop of 75 percent in steel production between 1929 and 1932 and by the rise of 67 percent between 1939 and 1948.

Business cycles are not the only cause of sharp ups and downs in steel activity. Wartime, with its tremendous requirements for steel (for ships, aircraft, ordnance, and new factories and production equipment), leads to a sharp rise in steel output, followed by a decline (somewhat less abrupt) with the coming of peace.

In addition to the great variability in activity, statistics of the steel industry also reveal a long-range upward trend in production and capacity. Although the growth of United States population has been a factor in this rise, a much more important cause has been the great increase in the use of steel in our economy. A few figures illustrate this fact: between 1898 and 1948, population in the United States doubled, but steel production increased 780 percent; and per capita steel output rose 340 percent over this period. The growth in per capita output resulted primarily from the rise of great steel-using industries—automobiles, construction, railroads, containers, petroleum, electrical appliances, and machinery manufacturing.

During 1947 and 1948, the extremely high levels of steel production closely approached the wartime peak. In spite of near-record output, however, the demand for steel exceeded the supply, and very marked shortages of certain steel products (mainly sheet and strip) persisted through

these years. During the first half of 1949, the demand for steel had eased considerably along with the decline in general business conditions. By late spring of 1950, however, steel output rose to a record level as a result of an improved business situation and the backlogs of demand built up during the earlier work stoppages in the coal and steel industries.

Another aspect of the steel production outlook should be briefly considered: the rapidly growing output and expanding range of uses of aluminum and plastics. Study of the possibility of extensive substitution of these materials for steel, however, indicates that their use is not likely to affect seriously the demand for steel.

The future level of steel production is difficult to gauge, tied in as closely as it is with the state of the whole economy. But it seems clear from the past trend, and from the factors responsible for this trend, that the long-range movement will be upward.

Employment Trends

About 522,000 production workers were employed in the iron and steel industry in April 1950—more than 33 percent above the 1939 average of 391,000. Wartime employment reached its peak in 1942, when an average of 543,000 production workers were on iron and steel pay rolls. A substantial increase in the length of the average workweek enabled the industry to carry on with fewer employees in 1943, 1944, and 1945. Employment in 1944, the last full wartime year, averaged 490,000. After the war, the number of workers rose again to a high point of 537,000 in 1948.

The expected upward trend in steel production indicated above will not necessarily mean an increase in the number of steelworking jobs. For example, steel tonnage was nearly 7 percent higher in 1948 than in 1941, but employment in 1948 was at about the 1941 level. In appraising future employment trends, it is also necessary to examine the factors which might change the number of workers needed to produce a given quantity of steel.

One of the factors influencing worker productivity is the "product mix," the kind of steel

products made in the mills. The "lighter" steel products (tin plate, wire, pipes and tube, etc.) require more man-hours per ton to produce than do the "heavier" products (plate, bars, structural shapes). Shifts in the relative importance of the two classes of products may greatly affect the number of tons produced per man-hour. The relatively large increase in the number of tons produced per worker between 1941 and 1944, for example, was largely accounted for by the shift in emphasis from light to heavy products occasioned by the war.³ With practically no change in total man-hours worked, steel output thus increased by about a twelfth.

After allowing for the effects of a varying product mix, a great long-term increase remains evident in output per man-hour in the steel industry. The primary reason is that major technological developments in steel making have sharply reduced the amount of work needed to produce a given amount of steel. Between 1929 and 1939, man-hour output in the iron and steel industry rose by about a third. In part, this was caused by a series of minor technological advances, and by some major advances, of which the principal one was the introduction of continuous rolling.

Despite the sharp rise in productivity, steel employment in 1939 was slightly above the 1929 level, even though output in 1939 was almost 11 million tons less than in 1929. This was due to a drastic reduction in the workweek that more than offset the other factors. In 1929, the standard workweek in the steel industry was nearly 55 hours; by 1939, the 40-hour week was generally in effect.

A further substantial increase in the productivity of the steel labor force seems likely. Past trends in output per man-hour are one indication of what may occur in the future. Moreover, several important technological developments in steel making are being introduced. Coal "washing", which removes impurities from coal, speeds up the operation of the coking ovens and improves the quality of the coke; and the higher-grade coke steps up blast-furnace output. Greatly increased air pressure has been used in some blast furnaces to obtain increased production of pig iron. Feeding oxygen into open hearth and electric furnaces is reported to have reduced melting time in steel

making. Continuous casting, still on an experimental basis, introduces short-cuts in steel making by eliminating several reheating and rolling operations. There is some question as to the extent to which these and other technical advances will be found suited to general adoption throughout the industry. The degree to which steel-making employment may be affected by use of these methods is also not clear. Moreover, some technological developments, having to do with the improvement of the quality of steel, may require more, rather than fewer, workers in some operations, particularly in the maintenance of added equipment.

No great change in employment levels can be anticipated, barring a depression. Opportunities for new workers will arise primarily from replacement needs. Normal death and retirements in the steel industry's labor force should provide in the neighborhood of 12,000 to 15,000 job openings annually during the next decade. An even more important source of jobs, however, is the shifting, each year, of thousands of steelworkers to other fields of employment.

¹ By Calman R. Winegarden and Sol Swerdloff of the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Branch. More detailed information on employment prospects as well as descriptions of the duties, training, earnings, and working conditions in some of the principal iron and steelmaking occupations will be included as a section of the forthcoming revision of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, Bulletin No. 940.

² Includes blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.

³ Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 258): Effect of the War on Employment in the Iron and Steel Industry.

Unit Man-Hour Trends, 1939-48, Household Electrical Appliances¹

AVERAGE MAN-HOURS expended per unit for all reported household electrical appliances combined were 3 percent lower in 1948 than in 1939, but 6 percent below the 1947 level.² The savings in unit man-hours were due mainly to continuing improvements in production facilities and work techniques over the decade, together with utilization of plant capacity at relatively high levels in the postwar years. In 1948, the availability of needed materials and an improvement in the average experience and stability of the work force

tended to increase average production efficiency. Continued mass production of the same models of appliances was also a favorable factor in 1947 and 1948.

Trends by Type of Labor

Unit man-hour requirements for functions classified as direct labor declined 13 percent over the decade covered by the study. Savings in man-hours stemming from improvements in plant equipment, lay-out, and work methods are predominantly in the direct labor functions. In general, man-hours required for the indirect labor functions are not reduced by such technological improvements, except those directly associated with materials-handling, which is generally classified as indirect labor.

Indirect labor per unit of output in 1948 was 8 percent higher than in 1939, but was substantially lower than in 1946 or 1947. This trend for indirect labor, which paralleled the experience of most other metals-products industries, was due in part to unavoidable difficulties incident to production during the war and postwar reconversion periods. Of more importance, however, was the rapid growth of the industry during the decade. A large proportion of the establishments in the industry greatly expanded production facilities, and converted more of their manufacturing activities to line-type mass production. This growth in plant size and conversion to mass-production methods almost always entails an increase in the relative proportion of indirect labor.

During the prewar years 1939-41, unit man-hours were reduced generally as production increased and factory improvements were made. The 1941 level of unit man-hour requirements was about 5 percent below 1939. Manufacture of household electrical appliances was generally discontinued after 1941.

In 1946, when postwar production of appliances was generally resumed, factory man-hours per unit of output were 13 percent higher than in 1939. This was traceable entirely to a substantial increase in indirect labor requirements, amounting to almost a third. Indirect man-hours rose because of serious spot shortages of materials and parts and as the result of problems arising from the conversion of facilities from military to civilian production. Rapid expansion of capacity by many firms and a low level of plant utilization in

1946 (due to the prevailing shortages of materials and labor) intensified the loss in efficiency in the indirect labor functions.

An important reduction in average unit man-hours was achieved in 1947, when the index declined to a level only 3 percent above 1939. This gain in efficiency was accomplished as the result of the solution of many of the reconversion problems, together with the cumulative benefits derived from plant improvements made in the preceding years.

Trends by Product

Separate data for the individual types of appliances were not in all cases available for all of the years of the period covered. For those products for which both prewar and postwar information was obtained, unit man-hour trends diverged sharply. Favorable experience was reported for oil burners, ranges, vacuum cleaners, and fans. Less substantial savings in unit man-hours were noted for waffle irons and automatic irons, while an increase in average man-hours per unit was reported for washing machine manufacture. In general, the trends for the individual products are traceable to the combination of a great many favorable and unfavorable influences affecting the companies manufacturing each product. Among the more important factors determining the aver-

age trend for each type of appliance are the trends in volume of output of the item and the relative scarcity or availability of major components or structural materials. In the manufacture of washing machines, for example, severe shortages in the early postwar years of structural steel and fractional horsepower electric motors were the major cause for the exceptionally large increase in man-hour requirements.

Between 1947 and 1948, for the first time in the decade, reductions in unit man-hours were reported for all of the individual appliances. This represents the only case where simultaneous reductions were reported for all products included in any one of the 16 industries currently covered in the direct-reports program.

Trends by Plant Characteristics

Analysis of unit man-hour trends for groups of firms classified according to characteristics of their operations indicated that the influences which exercise the greatest weight in reducing unit man-hour requirements were the introduction of improvements in plant facilities and work methods, and the relatively full utilization of designed plant capacity. For the group of plants reporting improvements in equipment or work methods, the index of unit man-hour requirements was below the 1939 base throughout the decade studied ex-

TABLE 1.—Indexes of unit man-hours, electrical appliances, by type of appliance and type of labor, 1939-48

Product	Indexes—1939=100														
	Total factory labor					Direct labor					Indirect (overhead) labor				
	1940	1941	1946	1947	1948	1940	1941	1946	1947	1948	1940	1941	1946	1947	1948
All products ¹	97	95	113	103	97	99	96	99	92	87	93	94	130	116	108
Fans and air circulators.....	99	92	96	81	80	102	98	93	85	79	96	86	100	98	80
Irons, nonautomatic.....	101	104	126	100	97	100	100	105	94	90	102	110	158	104	105
Oil burners.....	94	88	92	78	70	93	87	87	80	68	95	90	102	75	74
Ranges.....	97	93	91	79	74	97	87	89	81	76	97	93	94	74	69
Vacuum cleaners.....	91	98	100	77	75	103	104	112	93	89	80	93	88	60	62
Waffle irons.....	95	101	112	90	87	96	102	107	93	86	89	95	115	79	84
Washing machines.....	100	104	163	130	123	100	103	127	108	105	100	107	222	166	154
	Indexes—1946=100 ²														
Toasters, automatic.....				86	67				86	77				88	50
Irons, nonautomatic.....				96	89				94	87				97	89
Refrigerators.....				104	98				99	99				109	94
Ironing machines.....				96	91				101	90				88	90
Flashlights.....				114	109				102	98				132	126
Stokers.....				120	115				112	108				154	147
Sandwich toasters.....				88	86				95	88				78	84
Toasters, nonautomatic.....				89	87				94	89				80	84
Water heaters.....				94	94				93	91				94	102

¹ Includes all products covered by the survey, even those for which individual data prior to 1946 could not be published.

² Separate indexes for these products could not be published prior to 1946.

cept in 1946. In 1948, the index was 24 percent lower than in 1939. In contrast, the group of firms with no significant plant improvements reported severe postwar increases in man-hours per unit, and a level in 1948 some 14 percent above that in 1939. The differential between the two groups of plants was based on dissimilarities in both direct and indirect labor trends, but the gap was far greater in the case of indirect labor.

TABLE 2.—Unit man-hour trends, electrical appliances, 1939-48, by extent of plant improvements in equipment and methods

Extent of change	• Indexes (1939=100) of—				
	Total factory labor				
	1940	1941	1946	1947	1948
Significant improvements in equipment, production methods, or plant layout.....	99	94	100	85	76
No significant change.....	96	97	125	120	114
	Direct labor				
Significant improvements in equipment, production methods, or plant layout.....	101	95	97	86	78
No significant change.....	98	98	122	114	109
	Indirect (overhead) labor				
Significant improvements in equipment, production methods, or plant layout.....	95	91	100	75	69
No significant change.....	94	95	148	143	145

Individual company indexes of the relative level of unit man-hours and plant capacity utilization indicated a marked inverse relationship between the relative level of man-hours expended per unit and the proportion of plant capacity utilized, up to the level of designed plant capacity. Reductions in unit man-hours were generally associated with higher levels of capacity utilization. However, unit man-hours rose sharply when capacity utilization in individual plants was pressed beyond the designed maximum. The unit man-hour-capacity utilization relationship was much closer in the case of man-hours for indirect labor functions than for direct labor. This is almost always indicated in such comparisons, since the nature of the overhead labor force (which includes supervisors, maintenance workers, receiving and shipping, and materials-handling personnel) is such

that this is not readily adjusted with short-term fluctuations in factory activity.

Group indexes for firms utilizing a high proportion of designed capacity indicated consistently favorable trends in unit man-hours. For firms which reported a low average capacity utilization, the trends were unfavorable.

To a marked degree, plants of relatively large size tended to be highly integrated, to utilize line-assembly mass-production methods, and to produce a wide range of products. Characteristically, firms in these categories reported the most extensive equipment and methods improvements; generally, they were able to utilize a relatively high proportion of their plant capacity. Their size made possible the use of numerous labor-saving techniques, and the range of products manufactured provided a degree of flexibility in the application of the labor force. The scope of operations performed in these establishments encouraged careful advance planning and tended to reduce the critical materials shortages encountered by the less-integrated establishments.

An important factor during the postwar period was the difficulty some of the smaller and newer firms in the industry encountered in maintaining their market after the better-known products of the large, established firms became generally available. As a result, many of the smaller firms reported sharp decreases in volume and in utilization of plant capacity in 1947 and 1948 and higher levels of man-hours expended per unit of output.

The year-to-year trends for the individual firms reporting to the Bureau varied greatly throughout the entire period. The variations were much sharper from 1941 to 1946 and from 1946 to 1947 than for the earlier years. Widespread reductions in unit man-hours predominated from 1939 to 1940, from 1940 to 1941, and from 1946 to 1948, while increases were most prevalent from 1941 to 1946. About 70 percent of reporting firms registered reductions in the periods 1946-47 and 1947-48. In general, the variations in individual company trends were due to differences in the extent and timing of plant improvements and to the degree of reconversion from war production. Differences in the manner in which individual

facilities were affected by shortages of labor, materials, and components, and in the skill of management in coping with such problems also influenced individual company trends.

Average Man-Hours per Unit, 1947-48

The products of the household electrical appliance industry range in type from small items such as flashlights, irons, or toasters, to large and complicated machines such as washers, refrigerators, or stokers. Consequently, average factory man-hours per unit extend over a wide range. For example, an average in 1948 of about four-tenths of a man-hour were expended in the manufacture of a nonautomatic iron, about one and a half man-hours for an automatic toaster, and about 15 man-hours for a 6 to 7 cubic foot refrigerator.

TABLE 3.—Average unit man-hours by product, 1947 and 1948

Product	Average man-hours per unit	
	1947	1948
Flashlight (without battery).....	0.18	0.17
Iron, nonautomatic.....	.39	.36
Toaster, nonautomatic.....	.47	.46
Waffle iron.....	.77	.74
Iron, automatic.....	.94	.91
Sandwich toaster.....	.99	.98
Toaster, automatic.....	2.00	1.57
Fan, 10-inch.....	2.94	2.54
Automatic storage water heater.....	3.91	3.91
Fan, 12-inch.....	4.22	3.58
Washing machine (wringer type).....	9.37	8.84
Ironing machine.....	10.99	10.46
Range.....	13.95	13.18
"Gun-type" oil burner ¹	15.02	13.21
Refrigerator.....	15.55	14.59
Automatic bituminous stoker, domestic.....	24.05	23.39

¹ Several oil-burner manufacturers who engaged in assembly operations exclusively not included. Average unit man-hour requirements for this group were 4.11 in 1947 and 3.98 in 1948.

It should be noted that each of these averages are based on reports from different companies, no one of which required exactly the same number of man-hours to make a given type of appliance as did the others. Intercompany variations in the level of man-hours are due to a number of factors, including different production methods, work techniques, and machinery and equipment.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Manpower and Productivity, Direct Productivity Reports Section.

² Based on 93 product reports submitted by 47 producers. These reports covered products which accounted for 90 percent of the industry's output in 1946 and 1947. Coverage of the reports varied considerably between the individual appliances included.

Status of Labor Banks in 1949

TOTAL ASSETS of the 4 labor banks that survived the depression of the early 1930's increased about 0.3 percent in the 18-month period from June 30, 1948, to December 31, 1949. Deposits as well as the combined capital, surplus, and undivided earnings declined—by 0.7 and 0.4 percent, respectively. Although two banks showed increases in all three items (table 1), these were insufficient to overcome the decreases in the other two banks.

TABLE 1.—Condition of labor banks as of June 30, 1948¹, and Dec. 31, 1949

Bank	Capital, surplus, and undivided earnings	Deposits	Total assets
All banks:			
June 30, 1948.....	\$5, 119, 499	\$89, 181, 399	\$95, 156, 593
Dec. 31, 1949.....	4, 916, 424	88, 571, 474	95, 396, 635
Amalgamated Trust & Savings Bank, Chicago, Ill.:			
June 30, 1948.....	1, 760, 000	33, 415, 032	35, 561, 530
Dec. 31, 1949.....	1, 765, 000	34, 444, 050	36, 770, 765
Brotherhood State Bank, Kansas City, Kans.:			
June 30, 1948.....	542, 728	10, 375, 827	10, 953, 876
Dec. 31, 1949.....	558, 148	9, 883, 592	10, 494, 989
Union National Bank, Newark, N. J.:			
June 30, 1948.....	716, 771	11, 010, 302	11, 761, 175
Dec. 31, 1949.....	391, 841	7, 971, 597	8, 772, 186
Amalgamated Bank of New York, N. Y.:			
June 30, 1948.....	2, 100, 000	34, 380, 238	36, 880, 012
Dec. 31, 1949.....	2, 201, 435	36, 272, 235	39, 358, 694

¹ Information supplied by Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University.

The trend of development at 5-year periods since 1920 (when the first banks were started) is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Development of labor banks in the United States in specified years, 1920-49

Date	Number of banks	Capital, surplus, and undivided earnings	Deposits	Total assets
December 31—				
1920.....	2	\$1, 154, 446	\$2, 258, 561	\$3, 628, 867
1925.....	36	12, 536, 901	98, 392, 592	115, 015, 273
June 30—				
1930.....	14	7, 217, 836	59, 817, 392	68, 953, 855
1935.....	4	2, 051, 943	17, 262, 281	19, 692, 335
1940.....	4	2, 684, 911	23, 847, 294	26, 931, 651
1945.....	4	3, 428, 078	72, 776, 529	76, 509, 121
1947.....	4	5, 052, 138	89, 549, 666	95, 245, 931
1948.....	4	5, 119, 499	89, 181, 399	95, 156, 593
December 31—				
1949.....	4	4, 916, 424	88, 571, 474	95, 396, 635

Conference on Employment of Disabled Veterans

EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS and needs of disabled veterans were considered at a meeting in Washington on May 12, 1950, called by the Disabled Veterans Subcommittee of the President's Committee on National Employment of the Physically Handicapped Week. Government officials and representatives of employer, worker, and other organizations interested in the handicapped addressed the meeting.

In discussing the attitude of employers toward hiring employable disabled veterans and other handicapped persons, John W. Whittlesey of the Employer-Employee Relations Division, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, stated that employers are more and more coming to realize that, when given proper placement, "the job performance of the handicapped worker compares favorably with that of his more fortunate colleague. More and more employers realize that, basically, business and industry must carry the primary responsibility, as the final solution rests with those who provide the jobs."

"The real need of the veteran is and has been the adoption of procedures and methods to assist him to reacquire his lost skills, or to learn new ones, so that he may have true equality of opportunity for employment with those who did not serve in the armed forces. . . . This problem is particularly acute in the case of many disabled veterans whose handicap may have resulted in complete loss of skills they formerly possessed. In such instances, especial effort must be made to retrain him in a new type of work so that he can once again fit properly into our social and economic structure."

Speaking on the problems and obstacles in the placement of disabled veterans, Elmer Jebo, consultant in the Veterans Employment Service, U. S. Department of Labor, stated that although their disabilities are often a contributing factor, the more probable underlying causes for their continued unemployment are insufficient qualifications or a surplus of labor in their particular occupational groups.

The relationship of workmen's compensation laws, particularly the second injury clauses, to

employment of disabled veterans was emphasized by Virgil Smirnow, director of community service, B'nai B'rith. He said that "the greatest single practical deterrent to the employment of disabled veterans is the fear of employers that such a person may be injured, and that such an injury, when coupled with the veteran's disability, may make the employer liable for disability far in excess of that which occurred in his employ. . . . To some extent this situation affects all handicapped persons who are seeking work, but it hits the disabled veterans hardest of all."

To enhance the employability of disabled veterans, Mr. Smirnow proposed the enactment of a national workmen's compensation law applicable to veterans disabled "before, during, or after service," and submitted 14 provisions which he thought it should contain.

Kenneth C. Bradley, national employment director for the Disabled American Veterans, expressed the opinion that the training program for able-bodied veterans has interfered with training opportunities for the disabled. At the beginning of the program, he recalled, the disabled had difficulty getting into colleges because they were crowded with the able-bodied. He urged that the Disabled Veterans Committee give serious thought to the drafting of recommendations to end this interference. He thinks that the disabled are more in need of training than the able-bodied.

Charles E. Odell, chief of the Counseling, Selective Placement, and Testing Division, U. S. Employment Service, explained the precise procedures for, and reports of, registration, counseling, and placement of employable disabled veterans. He said that the disabled veteran who comes to a local office is "regarded *first* as an individual who seeks help in choosing, preparing for, finding, and holding a job—not any job but one which he fits and which fits him." Representative John Bell Williams of Mississippi also asserted that in his opinion the employment problems of disabled veterans were individual and could not be handled collectively.

Louis Levine, chief of the Division of Reports and Analysis, Bureau of Employment Security, presented figures on the number of disabled veterans in various classifications. According to estimates of the Veterans Administration, which he cited, there are about 3.2 million veterans with

varying degrees of disability. At the end of March 1950, approximately 70,800 had active employment applications on file with public employment offices, as compared with 101,400 in March 1949. During the year, 86,200 were placed in nonagricultural jobs. Disabled veterans on the Federal payroll in December 1949 numbered 132,900, or nearly 16 percent of some 859,500 veterans employed by the Federal Government, according to the Civil Service Commission. In the 6-month period from September 1949 to March 1950, applications from disabled veterans on file with public employment offices accounted for about one-half of the active applications from handicapped males, as compared with a proportion of two-thirds of such applications on file in March 1949. Placements of disabled veterans in the 6 months ended in March 1950 represented approximately three-fifths of all non-farm placements of handicapped male job seekers.

Labor-Management Disputes in May-June 1950¹

STOPPAGES DURING early June were generally restricted to local situations. Approximately 25 stoppages were in effect during the month, each of which involved at least 1,000 workers—13,000 in the largest.

Construction Industry

Several construction stoppages were included in the group of larger strikes in effect during the month. Wage increase proposals were the immediate cause in each instance.

The largest strike on record during the month involved about 13,000 construction workers in the Denver area. It has continued since May 1 over a union proposal for an increase of 25 cents per hour. Another, continuing for a like period over a proposed increase of 12 cents per hour, involves 8,000 painters in the Los Angeles area. Approximately 2,400 construction workers in the Buffalo, N. Y., area continued to be idle in June, after all but 1 of 20 AFL building-trades unions had reached agreement on wage increases.

A stoppage involving two Utah construction projects spread to State-wide proportions. Six building-trades unions began picketing two construction projects on June 3 in support of wage increase proposals. The intermountain branch of the Associated General Contractors countered this action by shutting down all AGC projects on the ground that strike action against two of its members constituted a strike against the entire organization. The strike terminated on June 7. Other stoppages starting in June included one of 4,000 construction workers in Milwaukee, Wis., over wage proposals made by the carpenters; another involved 2,500 members of the AFL laborers union in Cincinnati, Ohio.

A 3-man tripartite arbitration board awarded a 13 cents per hour increase to 700 AFL construction laborers employed at two Atomic Energy Commission projects at Oak Ridge, Tenn. The award had been preceded by an unauthorized strike at the end of May which lasted several days and involved approximately 3,000 construction workers.

New York Transit Dispute

The recommendations of the New York City Transit Fact Finding Board² for wage and other immediate adjustments were adopted early in June. The board, appointed by Mayor O'Dwyer to investigate and report on a dispute between the Transport Workers Union (CIO) and the city's Board of Transportation, had submitted its recommendations on May 31. Those involving immediate adjustments included an 11 cents an hour increase for 36,000 hourly paid employees; \$300 a year increase for 3,400 workers paid on an annual basis; liberalized vacation and sick leave allowances; and an added holiday with pay. The board also recommended adoption of a program for the ultimate achievement of a 40-hour workweek for all city transit workers. The report suggested that necessary planning and rescheduling be done with the aid of independent industrial engineers, and that employees or their dominant unions give their approval prior to effectuation of the plan.

Findings and recommendations relating to employer-employee relations in the city's transit system also appeared in the report. While

recognizing that the Board of Transportation "is restricted in certain respects by law in dealing with its employees," the report advised that the Transportation Board "should have machinery for the prompt and fair settlement of all disputes and it should utilize collective negotiation procedures for the attainment of efficient and effective operations." Specifically, it was recommended that the Transportation Board establish a grievance machinery and agree to maintain defined conditions of employment for a stated period of time. The assumption of these obligations was conditioned on union agreement "to seek no basic changes for a stated period of time"; "to resolve all disputes in accordance with the grievance machinery . . ."; "to engage in no strike or other interferences with the operations of the Board"; and "to recognize the Board's managerial authority . . ."

Settlement

The United Automobile Workers (CIO) reached an area-wide pension agreement late in May, involving 70 shops of the Automotive Tool and Die Manufacturers Association in Detroit, employing 6,000 workers. Under this agreement a worker may move from one employer to another without losing retirement credits. After completing 25 years of service with member employers, the worker is eligible to retire at age 65 on a \$100 a month pension. The pension includes Federal social security benefits, and will be financed by employer payments of 8 cents an hour for each worker. The pension fund will be jointly administered.

Ratification of a 4-year no-strike agreement between 1,800 New York City trucking employers and Local 807, International Brotherhood of Teamsters (AFL), was completed late in May. Under the terms of this agreement, both parties will refrain from engaging in strikes or lock-outs until September 1, 1954. Disputes which the parties are unable to resolve directly will be submitted to arbitration. Negotiations on union proposals for wage and other adjustments are to begin shortly. If the parties are unable to agree on these, the dispute will be submitted to arbitration by a person selected by Mayor O'Dwyer from a panel designated by the employers and the union. A permanent arbitration authority headed by an umpire to be designated by the U. S. Secretary of Labor will rule on grievances arising under the contract.

Additional settlements involving the Communications Workers of America (CIO) and associated Bell System companies were reached during early June. The union's executive board ratified agreements covering employees of the Chesapeake and Potomac Telephone Companies of West Virginia and of Baltimore, Southwestern Bell, and Pacific Telephone and Telegraph. These followed the pattern of those ratified during May, including reduced length of wage progression schedules and the reclassification of some towns to higher wage schedules.

¹ Developments during late June and July will be covered in the August issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

² Members of the board: David L. Cole, chairman; Theodore W. Kheel, former director of New York City's Division of Labor Relations; Edward P. Mulrooney, former police commissioner; and Thomas A. Morgan, industrialist.

Technical Notes

Revision of the Consumers' Price Index¹

A 3-YEAR PROGRAM for the revision of the Consumers' Price Index—the first comprehensive revision in more than a decade—was started by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1949. Every aspect of the index, from the basic concepts to the method of calculation, will be reexamined. Where necessary, the index will be revised in coverage and content, taking into account changes in consumption patterns and advances in statistical techniques. The revision will not destroy the continuity of the index, which extends back nearly 40 years, nor invalidate contracts under which wages or prices are adjusted according to the movements of the index.

The Nature of the Index²

The Consumers' Price Index is designed as a measure of the changes in prices of goods and services commonly bought by moderate-income families in large cities. Essentially, it is the ratio of the current cost of a specified market basket of goods and services to the average cost of the same market basket in 1935–39. The goods and services in the market basket were selected to be representative in their price movements of the expenditures of moderate-income families, as revealed by the families themselves in expenditure surveys conducted by the Bureau from time to time. The quantities and qualities of goods and services in the market basket have been kept generally constant over rather long periods of time. Since there have been no comprehensive surveys of family expenditures since the mid-1930's, the market basket is still, in general, representative of consumption patterns of that period.

There have, of course, been substitutions as specific commodities have disappeared or changed (e. g., the substitution of nylon for silk stockings); and during World War II both qualities and quantities were adjusted to conform to the availability of goods on wartime markets and to rations. But these wartime changes in the index were only temporary; since the war, the market basket has been essentially typical of the manner of living of nonrelief families in the middle and late 1930's.

The market basket was designed to represent the expenditures of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 34 large cities, ranging in population from the size of Mobile to New York City. Its coverage is, therefore, limited and specific. The logic of limiting coverage to wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers traces back to the common use of the index in wage negotiations under collective bargaining. The logic of the choice of cities is less clear; all the very largest cities were included because they are centers of industrial population, and certain smaller ones for specific reasons—for example, important shipbuilding centers in which questions of wage adjustments arose during World War I.

The Need for Revision

In the past 10 years, incomes, standards of living, and prices have changed drastically. A revision of the index is therefore needed to make it a realistic and accurate measure of changes of consumers' prices in the 1950's.

There is much evidence that consumers today are buying more and buying differently than they did in the 1930's. For example, substantial increases have taken place in purchases of meats, green vegetables, frozen foods, and other high quality foods. At the same time, because of changes in prices or technological changes, con-

sumers buy relatively less of some things (e. g., butter, ice boxes, and soap), and relatively more of others (e. g., margarine, mechanical refrigerators, television sets, and synthetic detergents).

It is necessary, therefore, to change the market basket to make it representative, in a sampling sense, of the goods and services currently consumed. Of the many hundreds of commodities bought by American families, comparatively few (at present about 200) are priced for the index. These were chosen because they have been found typical of "price families" of commodities for which prices move up and down together. It is now necessary to redetermine the price families and reselect the sample items, in the light of today's markets and price movements.

Since not all commodity prices change alike, it is necessary also that the importances assigned to the items in the index should be made as representative as possible of current consumption patterns. If items of which the prices move up and down relatively slowly are given more importance in the index than in consumers' expenditures, the index would be too sluggish; if too much importance is given to items which fluctuate widely, the index would be too volatile. In order to determine the items in the current market basket and their importance, it is necessary to collect information on what families actually buy.

Another aspect of the revision is concerned with the city coverage of the index. An index representative of the United States urban population will certainly require a wider variety of cities than those now priced, and may not require all of those which are now included in the index. As already explained, the index is confined almost entirely to large cities. The Bureau will investigate the possibility of covering smaller cities and extending its indexes to parts of the country that have been underrepresented.

The present index contains one specific bias arising out of wartime and postwar conditions under rent control. The rent index fails to take account of the differences in rents between wartime and postwar housing and equivalent housing in existence before the war. The general revision of the index provides an opportunity to correct this "new unit bias" in the near future, and to reexamine the housing component of the index in its entirety, particularly with respect to measurement of changes in housing costs to home owners.³

In addition to the specific changes which may be required to bring the index up to date in content and coverage, a number of conceptual questions of economics and statistics must be resolved in the revision of the index. For example, should the index continue to measure changes in the prices of goods bought by wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers, or should it apply to certain income classes regardless of occupation? And if so, what income classes? Is the present formula suitable for the uses to which the index is put, or would a different formulation be more appropriate to postwar economic conditions and economic theory? Should the index recognize seasonal variations in prices and consumption?

The technical and statistical procedures underlying the index must be reexamined in the light of what has been discovered in the past 15 years about sampling and about the collection of primary information. Since these factors are the two principal sources of error in the index, it should be possible to produce more accurate statistics by meticulous attention to the best statistical techniques.

The Program for the Revision

The program for the revision of the index consists of five major phases. The first, basic to all of the others, is an analysis of the structure of the entire index, particularly those factors enumerated above. The object of this analysis is to identify specifically the needs for revision and to suggest the lines along which the revision should proceed. Enough analytical work has already been done to indicate the major subjects for intensive inquiry and to identify the kinds of data which must be collected in order to answer the major policy questions. The operating program for the revision is, in turn, built around the collection and analysis of such information.

The second phase is the collection of information on sample dwelling units in the 34 cities included in the index. The initial uses of these comprehensive housing surveys will be to obtain the necessary basic data for the correction of the "new unit bias" in the rent index and to select new samples of rental dwellings for the measurement of rent changes for both the current and the revised index. The rent index will be adjusted as soon as summaries of the housing surveys are available—

sometime during 1950—in advance of the revision of the index as a whole. The data on dwelling units will be analyzed also to determine the design of the housing component of the revised index.

The dwelling unit surveys in the 34 cities and similar (but less extensive) surveys in 26 additional cities will provide lists of households from which the Bureau will draw samples of families for surveys of consumers' expenditures—the third major phase—to be conducted in early 1951. Through these surveys the Bureau will collect detailed information, similar to that collected in the past,⁴ to determine the commodities and quantities for the revised market basket for the index. The surveys will yield a vast amount of information on the relationships of incomes and expenditures on a comprehensive basis for the first time since 1934–36. In order to provide an adequate sample of the urban population in the United States, surveys are planned covering 55 cities (population of 30,000 and over) with samples large enough to provide significant detail on expenditures for individual cities, to provide both a good national sample and wide geographic distribution. They include all of the 13 urbanized areas of 1,000,000 or more population, and samples of cities of various size classes below 1,000,000. In addition, it is planned to collect income and expenditure information from very small samples of families in each of 42 cities with under 30,000 population, to provide the basis for class-of-city composite descriptions of income and expenditure patterns in small urban communities.

The surveys will reveal in some detail the entire pattern of urban consumers' expenditures. It will then be necessary to select from the many hundreds of goods and services bought by urban families those which should be included in the revised index, because they are important in consumers' expenditures and because they are representative of price movements. Studies of prices and price relationships are the fourth major phase of the revision. Beginning early in 1950, and for a year and a half thereafter, the Bureau will be collecting prices on several hundred additional items from a variety of outlets in selected representative cities. These price studies will provide the basis for identifying by statistical analysis the price families from which sample items may be selected; and for determining the representative

outlets (stores and service establishments) in which goods and services must be priced in order to measure adequately price levels and changes for each city. Intercity differences in price movements will also be analyzed to determine what city coverage and what frequency of pricing are necessary to describe adequately the price changes for individual cities and for the urban population as a whole. These studies will require the collection of a great deal of price information beyond that regularly collected for the index.

It is contemplated that the collection and tabulation of the basic information will be substantially completed by the fall of 1951. The fifth and final stage of the program will then begin: the decision on the items, weights, cities, and outlets to be included in the index and the actual calculation of the revised index. To test the revised index and to provide the necessary period of overlap to preserve the continuity of the series, the revised index and the index compiled on the present basis will be calculated simultaneously for an overlap period of probably 1 year. The revised index is expected to be available about mid-1952.

Progress to June 1950

A number of technical memoranda summarizing and documenting major policy issues in the revision of the index had already been completed by June 1950. A comprehensive series of such memoranda was in preparation.

Dwelling unit surveys for the 34 cities were completed during the winter of 1949–50, and were being tabulated. The correction in the rent index is to be made during the latter half of calendar year 1950. Dwelling unit surveys to provide the basis of expenditure samples in 26 additional cities were in progress in the spring of 1950.

During early 1950 a pilot survey of consumers' expenditures was undertaken in Memphis, Tenn., to test alternative methods of sampling, data collection, field operations, and tabulation. The results of these tests were being evaluated and are to weigh heavily in the detailed planning of the 55 city surveys projected for 1951.

A general design of the experimental pricing was being worked out to test separately the price variations among commodities, among cities, among various kinds of outlets within cities, and

among price data collected by various methods. Experimental pricing of more than 100 food commodities was already in progress, and the experimental pricing of other commodities and services, following the experimental design, was scheduled for the middle of 1950.

Throughout the planning and execution of the program, the Bureau is to have the benefit of several advisory committees. The Bureau's Business Research Advisory Committee and Labor Research Advisory Committee each appointed a subcommittee to consult with the Bureau's Price Division on important questions of policy. The American Statistical Association appointed a special technical committee to advise on technical and statistical techniques. The Interagency Committee on Price Statistics of the Bureau of the Budget is consulted on major aspects of the program. Additional expert consultants on various subjects are called in to advise on difficult technical questions. In these ways the Bureau is enlisting the participation of representative groups

both of the users of the index and of qualified technical experts.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Prices and Cost of Living.

² See *The CPI—A Summary of Its Essential Features*, Monthly Labor Review, July 1948 (pp. 8-11); also reprinted as Serial No. R. 1927; and *Construction of the Consumer's Price Index*, Monthly Labor Review, September 1949 (pp. 284-90), also reprinted as Serial No. R. 1975. For more detailed descriptions, see Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 699 and *Report of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living*, Washington, Government Printing Office, 1945.

³ For a detailed discussion of the rent component, see *Rent Component of the Consumers' Price Index*, Monthly Labor Review, December 1948 (pp. 631-637) and January 1949 (pp. 60-68); also reprinted as Serial No. R. 1947. For a detailed discussion of the "new unit bias," see *Estimate of New Unit Bias in CPI Rent Index*, Monthly Labor Review, July 1949 (pp. 44-49); also reprinted as Serial No. R. 1965.

⁴ Such surveys have been conducted periodically by the Bureau of Labor Statistics since 1888. For the results of the last comprehensive survey in 1934-36 see *Study of Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers*, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletins Nos. 636-641. For examples of recent city surveys see *Family Income and Expenditures in 1947*, Monthly Labor Review, April 1949 (pp. 389-97); *Family Food Expenditures, 1947 and 1948*, Monthly Labor Review, June 1949 (pp. 621-630); *Family Income and Expenditures, 1947: Surplus and Deficit*, Monthly Labor Review, July 1949 (pp. 34-36); *Family Expenditures for Clothing, 1947*, Monthly Labor Review, August 1949 (pp. 117-125); *Family Spending for Housing in Three Cities, 1947*, Monthly Labor Review, October 1949 (pp. 377-384); *Consumer Spending: Denver, Detroit, and Houston, 1948*, Monthly Labor Review, December 1949 (pp. 629-639); also reprinted, respectively, as serials Nos. R. 1956, R. 1960, R. 1966, R. 1967, R. 1974, and R. 1984.

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor¹

Wages and Hours²

FLSA Applicable to Government War Contracts. The United States Supreme Court held³ that the employees of a private company engaged in the performance of a cost-plus-fixed-fee contract with the United States were covered by the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act just as are the employees of any other private company who produce goods for interstate commerce. It also held that coverage by the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act did not automatically exclude FLSA coverage. The Court did not decide the claims of any individual employees working under the cost-plus contracts. Such claims, which involve questions of exemption and application of the Portal-to-Portal Act, must still be settled in the lower courts.

Regular Rate of Pay—"Belo" Contract. The Court of Appeals for the First Circuit held⁴ that the hourly pay rate stipulated in a guaranteed-weekly-wage contract of the "Belo" type could not be recognized as the regular rate of pay if, while the "hourly rate" was the same for all employees paid pursuant to such contract, the guaranteed weekly wage differed among the employees without relation to number of hours each actually worked. The "hourly rate" prescribed by the contract was held to be purely fictitious. In computing the regular rate of pay for each employee for purposes of determining overtime compensation due under FLSA, the court held, his total weekly earnings should be divided by the number of hours he worked during the week. It was pointed out that under the employer's contracts in this case, employees with higher guaranteed wages than others actually worked fewer hours per week, despite the equality in hourly rates. United States Supreme Court decisions were cited to show that an hourly rate in a "Belo" plan would be held bona fide only when some reasonable relation existed between the guaranteed wage and the wage which would have been paid under that rate if the contract were not in effect.

Coverage—Employee in Local Business Using Mails. A Federal district court held⁵ that an office employee of a local insulating business was covered by the FLSA, if he handled correspondence relating to purchase of goods from outside the State and to the operation of his employer's other insulating businesses in other States.

The employee sued for overtime compensation. The employer claimed that as he was a local contractor, his employee was not covered by the act. However, the court held that the use of the mails for transmission of letters between States constituted interstate commerce and that such commerce was not limited to the handling of supplies. The employer's business was more than a local enterprise, the court pointed out, since it required constant correspondence with out-of-State offices for the purpose of operating out-of-State business.

Public Contracts Act Applicability. The Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit held⁶ that the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act did not apply to a contract when, although the original contract price exceeded \$10,000, the contractor, prior to performing the contract reduced the price below \$10,000 in order to comply with the OPA price ceiling. (The Public Contracts Act applies to contracts between the Government and private contractors only if they are over \$10,000 in amount.)

The court of appeals held that the contract was under \$10,000 within the meaning of the act, on the ground that a contract not performed on either side may be discharged by a subsequent oral agreement changing its terms. Thereby a new contract was held to have been substituted for the old. Nothing in the Walsh-Healey Act prevented operation of this rule, the court said.

Agricultural Exemption—Commodities in Raw and Natural State. The Court of Appeals for the First Circuit held⁷ that employees of a farmers cooperative association engaged in marketing tobacco were not exempt as employees engaged in "agriculture" within the meaning of section 13 (a) (6) of the FLSA. The court also held that the association's employees engaged in stemming and fermenting leaf tobacco were not exempt under section 13 (a) (10) as handling and preparing an agricultural commodity in its raw and natural state.

The association was a nonprofit corporation, having tobacco warehouses and stemmeries in various parts of Puerto Rico, at which tobacco was prepared for shipment to continental United States. The association handled only tobacco grown by its farmer members, who were obligated to market all their tobacco through the association. Upon delivery of a farmer's crop to a warehouse, the tobacco was graded and sorted according to type, piled, and then allowed to ferment for 2 months. During that period the piles were torn apart by moving inside leaves to the outside and vice versa. Subsequently the tobacco was reclassified according to quality and the superior tobacco was stemmed. After the stems were torn off, the leaves were dipped in water to soften them and were left in piles for several days. A second fermentation process followed, and then the tobacco was dried and sorted for shipment.

The employer paid less than the minimum wage for work which was conceded by the Wage and Hour Administrator to be exempt, but which was performed during the same workweek as work he claimed was nonexempt. The Administrator sought to enjoin payment of the lower wage.

The employer's defense was that the employees were exempt under sections 13 (a) (6) and 13 (a) (10). The district court granted the injunction.

Affirming this decision, the court of appeals held that section 13 (a) (6), exempting employees in agriculture, did not apply. The cooperative association could not be considered a farmer within the meaning of the exemption. The court pointed to a recent United States Supreme Court decision⁸ that certain employees of a mutual irrigation company were not exempt under section 13 (a) (6). This case was held to be similar in all essential respects.

The court also held that the employees were not exempt under section 13 (a) (10) on the ground that the tobacco during the stemming process was no longer in its "raw" and "natural" state.

Labor Relations

Picketing—Free Speech. A number of recent decisions of the United States Supreme Court consider the protection afforded peaceful picketing by the first amendment to the Constitution, guaranteeing free speech.

(1) The Court upheld⁹ a California supreme court decision that picketing to compel an employer to hire Negro clerks in proportion to the percentage of his customers who were Negroes could be enjoined. The State supreme court affirmed a trial court's conviction of the picketers for contempt of the injunction. The State court had held the picketing was for an unlawful purpose in that it would promote, rather than lessen, racial discrimination in employment. It stated that the picketers were seeking to make the right to work dependent not on fitness nor on the equal right of all to compete in the open market, but rather on membership in a particular race.

Approving the State court's reasoning, the United States Supreme Court pointed out that the same State court had held illegal a closed shop maintained by a union closed to Negroes. It also pointed to similar demands which might be made by other minority groups if picketing for quota employment were allowed.

Picketing, it was held, differed from ordinary speech, in that it had a more compulsive effect. The fact that an employer was not prevented by State law from voluntarily adopting a quota system of employment was held not to prevent the grant of the injunction. A State could choose how it would prevent discrimination—whether by legislative or judicial control. The fact that only one type of discrimination was thereby barred was not arbitrary or a violation of due process of law, since a State could direct its law against actually existing evils and was not required to preserve an abstract logical symmetry in its laws.

(2) The United States Supreme Court affirmed¹⁰ a decision of the Washington State supreme court which prohibited picketing of an employer to compel him to force his employees to join a union. The State supreme court held the picketing to be for an unlawful objective, in violation of the State law guaranteeing to employees freedom in self-organization and in the choice of collective-bargaining representatives.

None of the employees in question were members of the union, and all but one refused to join despite a hearing which the employer granted the union representatives. The union then peacefully picketed the employer's place of business and put him on their blacklist. Subsequently the union offered the employer a new contract which would make the union the bargaining representative for the employees. The employer refused to sign, the picketing continued, and the employer sued for an injunction. The trial court dismissed the suit, but was reversed by the State supreme court.

In upholding the State supreme court's decision, the United States Supreme Court pointed out that the injunction was not against picketing in general, but only against picketing for purposes which the State court held to be contrary to State public policy. Because the picketing was more than speech and was more capable of inducing action than the message conveyed by the pickets, the Court held that its abuse could be curbed. The State supreme court, the final authority for determining the application of State statutes, had declared the picketing to be for the purpose of compelling the employer to violate these laws. The fact that no criminal penalty was attached to such violation was held immaterial.

(3) The United States Supreme Court upheld¹¹ two other decisions of the Washington supreme court. These prohibited unions from picketing self-employed individuals to compel them to limit their hours of business.

While each of the self-employed businessmen (both engaged in repairing and selling used cars and accessories) had at one time been members of a union, they either were discharged or had resigned because of failure to comply with the terms of an agreement between the union and a used-car dealers' association. By this agreement used-car lots were closed after 6 p. m. on weekdays, and all day on Saturdays, Sundays, and specified holidays. The picketing was peaceful. The union, in addition to demanding closing of business during certain hours, demanded that a union member be employed.

At the request of these dealers the trial court granted an injunction, which was affirmed by the State supreme court. Because of the small number of employees involved, it ruled, the interest of the State in securing small business from molestation outweighed the interest of the union in preventing the undermining of labor standards by these businessmen, and the interest in freedom of speech.

In affirming this decision, the United States Supreme Court held that this balancing of interests by the State court, while it might not represent the best solution, was not violative of the Federal Constitution. The Court again pointed out that picketing was more than mere communication. It held that the policy of the State as expressed by its courts should be struck down only when clearly invalid. This decision of the State supreme court could not be so characterized, the Court said, despite previous decisions¹² invalidating an injunction against picketing when no employees of the employer were involved in the labor dispute. These cases were distinguished on the ground that they merely held that artificial bounds

could not be prescribed for a labor dispute. They did not consider the interest in helping the self-employed.

Three justices dissented. Justice Minton pointed out that there was no violence or threat of it, and that the union was not attempting to induce violation of a State law. He thought that the Court's decision would permit a State to enjoin all picketing, and that such prohibition was in violation of the constitutional guarantees of free speech.

Strike Regulation—State v. Federal Jurisdiction. The United States Supreme Court held¹³ that a Michigan statute prohibiting strikes except when approved by a majority of employees in the bargaining unit was invalid when applied to strikes affecting interstate commerce. The Court stated that Congress, in enacting the Labor Management Relations Act, had pre-empted the field of regulation of peaceful strikes for higher wages.

The State law required a union to give 10 or 30 days' notice of a strike, depending on whether a public interest was at stake. If the State mediation board, after receipt of the notice, was unable to effect a settlement, it was under duty to conduct an election among employees in the bargaining unit. Unless a majority of such employees voted for the strike, such a work stoppage was illegal. The strike in question was by employees of Chrysler Corporation, which had plants in other States. The union did not conform with the procedure required by the State law. It sued to enjoin enforcement of the act as unconstitutional. The trial court upheld the union, but was reversed by the State supreme court.

The United States Supreme Court, reversing this decision, pointed out that with regard to interstate commerce Congress had occupied the field of regulating peaceful strikes, by enacting section 8 (b) (4) of the amended NLRA, prohibiting peaceful secondary boycotts and declaring strikes for certain other purposes to be unlawful. It also pointed out that the State provisions for a cooling-off period conflicted with the provisions in the Federal law.

The Court noted that the House bill preceding the draft from which the LMRA was formed prohibited strikes without concurrence of a majority of the employees in the bargaining unit, but that this provision was eliminated in conference with the Senate. A previous decision¹⁴ upholding a Wisconsin law which prohibited intermittent work stoppages was distinguished, on the ground that such conduct was held to be coercive and comparable with sit-down strikes.

Non-Communist Affidavit Requirements Held Constitutional. The United States Supreme Court held¹⁵ that section 9 (h) of the National Labor Relations Act, as amended by the Labor Management Relations Act, 1947, was constitutional. Section 9 (h) denies use of the National Labor Relations Board's facilities in investigations concerning bargaining representation, union shop elections, and prosecution of complaints against employer unfair practices to any union unless all its officers have executed affidavits that they are not members of the Communist Party or affiliated with it and do not believe in, are not members of, or do not support any organization that believes in or

teaches, overthrow of the United States Government by force or by any unconstitutional or illegal method.

The Court affirmed two decisions of Federal courts, one by a special 3-judge court denying a place on the ballot to a noncomplying union, the other by a court of appeals conditioning enforcement of a Board order against an employer upon compliance with section 9 (h).

The Court pointed to findings by Congress that Communist leaders of labor unions were instrumental in inciting "political strikes" unrelated to economic ends and with the ultimate aim of overthrow of the Government. Congress, it was pointed out, had power to regulate commerce so as to lessen strikes, whether economic or political. The National Labor Relations Act was cited as an example of this power.

However, the Court recognized that the non-Communist affidavit provision amounted to more than the mere withdrawal of a privilege previously granted, since in practice it would seriously threaten the continued existence of some unions whose officers did not sign affidavits. It placed upon such unions restrictions (such as prohibition of a union shop) which did not exist prior to the enactment of the National Labor Relations Act. On the other hand, the statute did not prohibit Communists from holding union office.

The Court held that a statute's identification of persons by their political affiliations and beliefs did not make it invalid where the circumstances justified an inference of future conduct arising out of such belief and Congress intended to and had the right to prevent such conduct. Congress, the Court stated, could rationally find that the Communist Party, unlike other political parties, used union leadership as a means of causing strikes for purposes of political advantage and that other persons believing in the violent overthrow of the Government were also likely to resort to such tactics. The Court pointed to other instances where it had upheld statutes denying positions of public importance to persons with certain beliefs and affiliations. Thus the Banking Act of 1933 prohibited a partner or employee of a firm underwriting securities from being a bank director. This act was upheld because such person would be tempted to use his influence to get the bank to purchase securities dealt in by his firm. Political as well as business affiliations were held to provide rational ground for the legislative judgment that persons proscribed by section 9 (h) would be subject to tempting opportunities to commit acts harmful to the national economy.

The Court held that section 9 (h) did not violate the first amendment to the Constitution guaranteeing freedom of speech. It stated that section 9 (h) was not a regulation of speech, but of harmful conduct which Congress had found to be carried on by persons holding certain political beliefs. Congress had found, the Court said, that such persons called political strikes, without resort to advocacy or persuasion. The Court denied that in order to sustain the validity of section 9 (h) it must find that such political strikes created a clear and present danger to the security of the Nation or of widespread industrial strife. The test laid down by Justice Holmes in the case of *Schenk v. U. S.*¹⁶ was whether the "words" used were used in such circumstances as to create a clear and present danger that they

will bring about substantive evils that Congress has a right to prevent. While such evils must be substantial, the Court said, they need not threaten the security of the Nation. The rights guaranteed by the first amendment were not absolute, but implied the existence of a society maintaining public order without which liberty itself would be lost. Legitimate attempts to protect the public from excesses of direct, active conduct were held not to be invalid because they restrain to a certain extent first amendment rights.

The Court pointed out that section 9 (h) was not an isolated statute, but only part of a complex machinery set up by Congress to encourage peaceful settlement of labor disputes. Under this statute great powers were given to union leaders as bargaining representatives. Public interest in the good faith exercise of that power was very great. The statute did not stifle the expression or holding of political ideas, but merely discouraged the holding of certain positions of power by a relatively small number of persons with affiliations tending to make them abuse their power.

In view of the continuing threat of political strikes incited by Communists, Congress was held able to take preventive measures against their incitement and was not confined to the remedy of legislation punishing such activity after it had occurred.

The Court declared that the "belief" part of section 9 (h) concerning persons believing in, or supporting organizations believing in or teaching, the overthrow of the Government by force or by any illegal or unconstitutional method, was extremely broad if read literally. It also pointed to its "duty . . . to construe, a statute so as to avoid the danger of unconstitutionality if it may be done in consonance with the legislative purpose." Therefore, the Court held this part of the section to apply only to "a belief in the objective of the overthrow by force or by any illegal or unconstitutional methods of the Government of the United States as it now exists under the Constitution and laws thereof." As so construed, the Court held the "belief" provision to be valid, as it presented no different constitutional questions from those presented by the part of section 9 (h) relating to membership in the Communist Party.

Section 9 (h) was declared not unconstitutionally vague, although the words "affiliated" and "illegal or unconstitutional methods" were broad. These words, the Court declared, must be read in their context. It also pointed out that the criminal code provisions punishing false oaths did not apply to persons acting in good faith. The Court also held that the statute was not a "bill of attainder," since it was intended to prevent future conduct, rather than punish past conduct.

Justices Jackson and Frankfurter, concurring in separate opinions, agreed that the limitations of section 9 (h) were valid insofar as they affected Communist Party members. The Communist Party, Justice Jackson said, was distinguishable from other political parties in its objective of violent overthrow of the Government, its domination by a foreign power, its violent and undemocratic method, its attempt to control the labor movement for its own ends, and its strict discipline which made every member an

agent of the Party to execute its program. However, he thought that the "belief" part of section 9 (h) was invalid, on the ground that Congress had no power to proscribe any belief which had not manifested itself in any overt act. Such a proscription, he stated, would constitute the type of thought control which the Constitution was intended to prevent.

Justice Frankfurter thought that the provisions of section 9 (h) relating to belief in the overthrow of the Government "by any illegal or unconstitutional methods" were too vague and did not fairly disclose what was proscribed. He thought Congress had no right "to probe into opinions that involve only an argumentative demonstration of some coincidental parallelism of belief with some of the beliefs of those who direct the policy of the Communist Party, though without any allegiance to it."

Justice Black, dissenting, stated that the Court's decision was based on the premise that congressional power to regulate commerce included the power to proscribe political beliefs and affiliations. He thought that penalizing beliefs by imposition of civil disabilities constituted an infringement of freedom of thought. He said that the fact that a relatively small number of persons were involved was immaterial. He thought that civil penalties should not be imposed merely for membership in the Communist Party, unless it were accompanied by some conduct. Evidence of foreign support for the Communist Party did not, he thought, justify such penalties for its members.

Non-Communist Affidavits—Application to Parent Federation. The Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit held¹⁷ that the Congress of Industrial Organizations must comply with the non-Communist affidavit requirements of the amended NLRA. This was stated to be a condition for the hearing by the National Labor Relations Board of an unfair labor practice complaint brought by an international union affiliated with the CIO. The officers of the international had filed affidavits.

The court's decision was contrary to a previous decision¹⁸ by the NLRB that parent federations such as AFL and CIO were not included in the provisions of section 9 (h). The court held that such a federation is a "national or international union" of which a labor organization "is an affiliate" within the meaning of the act. The purpose of the act, the court said, was to eliminate Communist influence from unions. While in some instances the parent federation had little control over an international union, other instances were cited to show great control. It was pointed out that the federation could charter or expel unions and could help to finance them. (Since the above NLRB decision both the CIO and the AFL have come into full compliance with the affidavit requirements.)

Interference. The NLRB ordered¹⁹ an employer to reinstate with back pay a supervisor who had refused to comply with the employer's demand that he report on union activities of employees under his supervision. The discharge of the supervisor was held to constitute interference with the rights of the other employees. The fact

that supervisors were not "employees" whose bargaining activities were protected by the amended act did not prevent the order. The provision of the 1947 act excluding supervisors from the definition of "employees," the court held, was intended merely to remove the compulsion on employers to bargain with supervisors' unions.

Refusal to Bargain. The NLRB made a number of rulings concerning the obligation of an employer to bargain with employee representatives.

(1) The Board ruled²⁰ that an employer refused to bargain by insisting upon insertion of a clause in a proposed agreement to provide that a union steward might attend initial settlement of grievances by foremen only when the aggrieved employee so elected. Such a clause, the Board stated, would nullify the union's rights under section 9 (a) of the amended NLRA, which allows individual employees to present grievances to the employer and adjust such grievances without intervention of the bargaining representative, provided that the "representative has been given opportunity to be present at such adjustment."

The employer's argument that the clause, as it did not concern wages or conditions of work, did not derogate from the union's status as exclusive representative, was rejected. The Board pointed to section 8 (d), which defined "bargaining" as meeting in good faith over any matter arising under a collective agreement. The Board likewise rejected the argument that the union was under a duty to bargain over its right to be present at a settlement of grievances, since a union could not be compelled to bargain away a statutory right. The Board held that initial settlements of grievances by foremen were "adjustments" within the meaning of the act, since they were binding if not appealed.

(2) An employer's refusal to submit a counterproposal to a union's proposed contract which he had rejected, although the union had requested that a counterproposal be made, was held²¹ to constitute refusal to bargain. The Board stated that when, as in this instance, the union was willing to consider any counterproposal, the employer was under duty to make such a proposal, even though it merely embodied existing wages and working conditions. The provisions of section 8 (d) of the 1947 amendments to NLRA, that the duty to bargain does not require either party to make a concession had not changed the law in this respect. The submission of a counterproposal was not to be confused with the making of a concession.

(3) The Board ruled²² that a union's strike to secure modification of a contract was not unlawful, although the strike occurred before the termination of the contract, but more than 60 days after notice of the proposed modification. There was no "no-strike" clause in the contract.

The employer claimed the strike violated section 8 (d) of the amended NLRA, which prohibits termination or modification of a contract unless the party proposing the same gives 60 days' notice and "continues in full force and effect, without resorting to strike or lock-out, all the terms and conditions of the existing contract for a period of 60 days after such notice is given or until the expiration date of such contract, whichever occurs later."

The Board stated that, while a literal reading of this language supported the employer's contention, such an interpretation would be contrary to the broad policy of the act and also to other parts of this section. Economic pressure for modification of contracts was stated to be traditional. To prohibit it would discourage the making of collective agreements. The Board pointed out that under section 8 (d), a striker loses his status as an employee only if he engages in a strike within the 60-day period. The legislative history of the act and statements in the Senate indicated that the purpose of section 8 (d) was merely to require 60 days' notice of strikes so as to allow time for collective bargaining and for intervention of the Mediation and Conciliation Service.

Chairman Herzog, concurring, thought the notice provisions of section 8 (d) were intended to apply only to attempts to modify contracts at about the time of their expiration. Member Murdock agreed with this conclusion, but thought it could be reached from a literal reading of the act without sole reliance on its legislative history.

Veterans' Reemployment

Reenlistee's Intention Decisive of Reemployment Rights. A United States district court denied²³ a motion to dismiss a reenlistee's action for restoration to his former position based on a lapse of 6 days between two successive enlistments. On March 30, 1942, the veteran first left a position to be inducted. On December 31, 1945, he was honorably discharged. Six days later, without applying for restoration, he enlisted. After a second honorable discharge on November 18, 1948, he made his first application to the employer, on November 30, 1948. The railroad refused to reinstate him because he had not applied within 90 days after December 31, 1945, and because, they contended, the second period of enlistment did not give rise to any right of reemployment. After restoration was refused and before argument of the motion to dismiss, the veteran again enlisted.

The court noted that for the convenience of the Government, a serviceman is sometimes discharged solely for purpose of reenlistment. The discharge in such case is not delivered until after the reenlistment. This the court interpreted as merely a change of status within the armed forces, without any break in military service. The railroad conceded that in such a case, an application filed after the second discharge would fulfill the statutory condition, but contended that this case was essentially different.

The district court postponed decision until the facts were developed, refusing to treat the 6-day interval alone as decisive in law. The decision, it was ruled, turned on the serviceman's intention, at the time of receiving the discharge, in regard to returning to civilian life. If, from all attendant circumstances and factors, his intention were found to have been not to return to civilian life, the legal result would be the same as if there had been no physical separation. There would not have been any break in the service.

As to the third enlistment, the court commented that the issue of the veteran's good faith in applying for reinstatement was not up for decision.

Decisions of State Courts

Massachusetts—Picketing—Legality of Object. The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held²⁴ that picketing by union bartenders and waiters to compel a restaurant employing only nonunion waitresses to replace them with union waiters was for an unlawful purpose and could be enjoined.

The employer opened a restaurant in April 1949, but closed it in July for repairs. Shortly thereafter he notified two bartenders and nine waiters, union members whom he had employed in the restaurant, that he had new plans for business on reopening in September, and suggested that they seek work elsewhere. Two bartenders and three waiters were offered employment when he reopened the restaurant. However, the union ordered them not to work because all other waiters' work was being done by nonunion waitresses. Wages paid to waitresses were much lower than those paid union waiters. After several conferences with the union, during which no agreement was reached, the employer again reopened the restaurant but employed no union men as waiters. The union picketed the restaurant with signs that the union waiters had been locked out. The employer sought and obtained an injunction from a trial court.

Affirming the lower court's decision, the appellate court held that this case was not one in which some of the employees were union members and the union demanded all the work. (A strike for such purpose was lawful.) The notification to the waiters in July was held to have constituted a termination of their employment relationship with the employer. While three waiters had been offered employment in September, they had never accepted it. Therefore, no members of the union were employed by the restaurant. Under such circumstances, picketing to compel the employment of only union men was held to be contrary to Massachusetts law.

Rhode Island—Irregular Expulsion from Union. The Rhode Island Supreme Court held²⁵ that the discharge of certain employees was unlawful, as it was caused by a union which had expelled them from membership without following the procedures provided by the union constitution and bylaws.

Personal friction had developed between these and other workers. The drawing room department of the union local, of which the employees referred to were members, passed a resolution that the workers in that department did not want to work with these employees because they caused trouble. This resolution was approved at a meeting of the local and, in turn, by the union's executive board. The executive council sustained the board's action. The union's officers then notified the employer that these employees had been expelled, and asked him to take "necessary steps." They were immediately discharged. The employees continued to pay union dues and were kept on the

rolls of the national union. They sued the union for causing their discharge. The trial court upheld a verdict of the jury awarding them damages.

The State supreme court, upholding the trial court, pointed out that the union had not followed the procedures set forth in its constitution for expulsion of members. No written notice was given the employees of the reasons for expulsion or of the time and place of a hearing. They were not afforded representation by counsel nor opportunity to present witnesses. Jurisdiction over expulsion of members was vested by the constitution in the executive council alone. The court held that it was no defense for the union to allege a custom or usage for expulsion other than that so clearly outlined in its constitution. It stated that, when an organization has adopted an organic law governing its relations with its members, and has prescribed clear, convenient, and reasonable procedures for expelling members, it may not use an alternative method even if that method is authorized by custom or usage.

¹ Prepared in the U. S. Department of Labor, Office of the Solicitor. 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 *Powell v. U. S. Cartridge Co.; Aaron v. Ford, Bacon, & Davis, Inc.; Creel v. Lone Star Defense Corp.* (U. S. Sup. Ct., May 8, 1950).

⁴ *McComb v. Roig* (U. S. C. A. (1st), May 2, 1950).

⁵ *McComb v. Crist* (U. S. D. C., Mont., Apr. 21, 1950).

⁶ *United States v. Ozmer* (U. S. C. A. (5th), Apr. 28, 1950).

⁷ *Puerto Rico Tobacco Marketing Cooperative Association v. McComb* (U. S. C. A. (1st), Apr. 28, 1950).

⁸ *Farmer's Reservoir & Irrigation Co. v. McComb* (337 U. S. 755). See Monthly Labor Review, August 1949 (p. 168).

⁹ *Hughes et al. v. Superior Court of California* (U. S. Sup. Ct., May 8, 1950).

¹⁰ *Building Service Employees International Union, Local 262 v. Gazzam* (U. S. Sup. Ct., May 8, 1950).

¹¹ *International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers, Local 809 v. Hanke; Automobile Drivers and Demonstrators Local Union, No. 882 v. Cline* (U. S. Sup. Ct., May 8, 1950).

¹² *American Federation of Labor v. Swing* (312 U. S. 321); *California v. Angelos* (320 U. S. 293).

¹³ *International Union of United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (CIO) v. O'Brien* (U. S. Sup. Ct., May 8, 1950).

¹⁴ *International Union United Automobile Workers of America (AFL) v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Board* (336 U. S. 245; see Monthly Labor Review, April 1949, p. 438).

¹⁵ *American Communications Association v. Douds; United Steelworkers of America v. NLRB* (U. S. Sup. Ct., May 8, 1950).

¹⁶ 249 U. S. 47.

¹⁷ *National Labor Relations Board v. Postex Cotton Mills* (U. S. C. A. (5th), May 5, 1950).

¹⁸ *In re Northern Virginia Broadcasting Co.* (75 NLRB 11).

¹⁹ *In re Inter-City Advertising Co.* (89 NLRB No. 127, May 4, 1950).

²⁰ *In re Bethlehem Steel Co.* (89 NLRB No. 33, Apr. 12, 1950).

²¹ *In re Landis Tool Co.* (89 NLRB No. 47, Apr. 18, 1947).

²² *In re United Packinghouse Workers of America* (89 NLRB No. 32, Apr. 12, 1950).

²³ *Fessler v. Reading Co.* (U. S. D. C., E. D. Pa., Mar. 15, 1950).

²⁴ *Town House, Inc., of Boston v. Hurley* (Mass. Sup. Judic. Ct., Apr. 6, 1950).

²⁵ *Savard v. Industrial Trades Union of America* (R. I. Sup. Ct., Mar. 31, 1950).

Chronology of Recent Labor Events

May 11, 1950

THE UNITED STATES SENATE rejected the President's Reorganization Plan No. 12 which would have abolished the Office of the General Counsel of the National Labor Relations Board and transferred its executive and administrative functions to the Chairman of the Board. (Source: Congressional Record, vol. 96, No. 94, May 11, 1950, p. 6967.)

May 14

THE NLRB, in the case of *B. F. Goodrich Co. and United Rubber Workers (CIO)*, ruled that an employer must furnish a union representing his employees wage data in a form that will not interfere with bargaining negotiations. (Source: NLRB Release R-317, May 14, 1950.)

May 15

THE CONGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS announced that the United Steelworkers of America (CIO) and the U. S. Steel Corp. had signed a precedent-making contract setting wage minimums, with retroactive pay to January 1944, for 20,000 white-collar workers. (Source: CIO News, May 15, 1950, p. 7.)

THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES upheld the NLRB in two cases by ruling that the Fifth United States Circuit Court of Appeals had "followed a pattern of denial . . . of the rights accorded the National Labor Relations Board by Congress"—in judicial enforcement of Board orders. (Source: U. S. Law Week, vol. 18, No. 44, May 16, 1950, p. 1175.)

May 16

THE BROTHERHOOD of Locomotive Firemen and Engineers (Ind.) ended a 6-day strike against 4 major railroads. The settlement did not deal directly with the union's demand for a second fireman on multiple-unit passenger and freight Diesel engines, but it was agreed to arbitrate its contention that the railroads had violated agreements calling for "third men" on big Diesels. (Source: Labor, May 20, 1950, p. 1, and New York Times, May 17, 1950; for discussion, see p. III, MLR, June 1950.)

May 17

THE NLRB, in the case of *S. & S. Corrugated Paper Machinery Co. and International Association of Machinists (Ind.), District 15*, ruled that an employer, who advised his employees at a plant meeting on company time to vote against a union, need not provide the union with similar facilities under the same circumstances. (Source: NLRB Release D-3706, May 18, 1950.)

May 18

THE UNITED AUTOMOBILE WORKERS (CIO) announced agreement with 70 auto-parts employers in Detroit on the first area-wide pension plan in the automobile industry. (Source: CIO News, June 5, 1950, p. 11.)

THE UNITED STATES HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES approved the President's Reorganization Plan No. 6 (effective May 24) transferring to the Secretary of Labor the functions of all other officers and agencies, except those of hearing examiners, in the Department of Labor. (Source: Congressional Record, vol. 96, No. 99, May 18, 1950, p. 7358.)

On May 24, Reorganization Plans Nos. 14 and 19 became effective. Plan No. 14 authorizes the Secretary of Labor to coordinate the administration of legislation relating to wages and hours on federally financed projects. Plan No. 19 transfers the Bureau of Employees' Compensation and the Employees' Compensation Appeals Board and their functions from the Federal Security Agency to the Department of Labor. (Source: Federal Register, vol. 15, No. 101, May 25, 1950, pp. 3176 and 3178.)

May 23

THE UAW (CIO) and General Motors Corp. agreed to a 5-year contract including guaranteed annual wage increases, cost-of-living wage adjustments, a modified union shop, and \$100 monthly pensions at age 65 after 25 years' service (including Social Security). (Source: CIO News, May 29, 1950; for discussion see p. III, MLR, June 1950.)

May 24

THE NLRB, in the case of *Jones and New York Shipbuilding Corp. of Camden, N. J.*, ruled that an employee may not be discharged under a valid union-shop clause for failure to pay union dues which he owed before the clause took effect. (Source: NLRB Release R-318, May 24, 1950.)

May 25

THE NLRB, in the case of *Chandler and Smith and International Progressive Mine Workers Union (Ind.)*, ruled unanimously that the union violated the Labor Management Relations Act by threatening to cause the discharge of two miners who favored the United Mine Workers of America (Ind.) as bargaining agent. (Source: NLRB Release R-319, May 25, 1950.)

May 25

LOCAL 807 of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters (AFL) and 1,800 trucking employers in New York City agreed to renounce strikes and lock-outs until September 1, 1954, and to arbitrate disputes that cannot be settled by direct negotiation. (Source: New York Times, May 26, 1950.)

May 26

THE NLRB, in the case of *Porto Rico Container Corp.* and *Union de Operarios de Fabrica de Envases de Carton de Porto Rico Container Corp.*, ruled that an employer did not

violate the LMRA by discharging 18 strikers who engaged in various acts of violence, threats of force against non-strikers, and destruction of plant property. (Source: NLRB Release R-321, May 27, 1950.)

THE NLRB announced that 53,970 General Electric Co. employees in 49 company units had chosen the International Union of Electrical Workers (IUE-CIO) as bargaining agent at the May 25 elections. The United Electrical Workers (UE-Ind.) won 40 units with 36,683 workers. Ten units with 2,282 employees voted for other unions and 8 units with 548 workers voted against any representation. (Source: New York Times, May 27, 1950.)

“American labor still remains the most heterogeneous labor class in existence—ethnically, linguistically, religiously, and culturally—although the restriction of immigration will in time make it more homogeneous. With a working class of such composition, to have made socialism or communism the official ‘ism’ of the movement, would have meant, even if other conditions permitted it, deliberately driving away many of the Catholics, with whom an irreconcilable opposition to socialism is a matter of religious principle. Consequently the only acceptable ‘consciousness’ for American labor as a whole has been a ‘job consciousness’, with a ‘limited’ objective of wage and job control; which has not at all hindered American unionism from being the most hard hitting unionism in any country.”

Selig Perlman and Philip Taft: *History of Labor in the United States*, Vol. IV.

“In their thinking, most American wage earners do not start with any general theory of industrial society, but approach the subject as bargainers, desiring to strike the best wage bargain possible. They also have a conception of what the bargain ought to yield them by way of real income, measured in terms of their customary standard of living, in terms of security for the future, and in terms of freedom in the shop or ‘self-determination.’ What impresses them is not so much the fact that the employer owns the employment opportunities but that he possesses a high degree of bargaining advantage over them. Viewing the situation as bargainers, they are forced to give their best attention to the menaces they encounter as bargainers, namely, to the competitive menaces; for on these the employer’s own advantage as a bargainer rests. Their impulse is therefore not to suppress the employer, but to suppress those competitive menaces, be they convict labor, foreign labor, ‘green’ or untrained workers working on machines, and so forth. To do so they feel they must organize into a union and engage in a ‘class struggle’ against the employer.”

Selig Perlman: *A History of Trade Unionism in the United States*, 1937.

Publications of Labor Interest

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding publications referred to in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Data on prices, if readily available, are shown with the title entries.

Special Review

Unions Before the Bar: Historic Trials Showing the Evolution of Labor Rights in the United States. By Elias Lieberman. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950. 371 pp., bibliography. \$5.

For more than a century, organized labor in this country had to struggle for recognition as a legitimate force in society, and it regularly experienced defeat in the courts. *Unions Before the Bar* is an illuminating account of this long history of frustration. The author, a labor lawyer, shares with the reader his wealth of information and his great insight into the political and economic problems of the union movement.

The story of labor's fight for equality is told here in a chronological series of episodes, each one a case in which the lawfulness of some aspect of trade-union activity was tested in the American courts. All but the two earliest cases, decided in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts over 100 years ago, reached the United States Supreme Court. In each chapter, the author tells how a group of workers, attempting to improve their economic lot by acting in concert, became entangled in the law. The contemporary economic, sociological, and political scene is described, and there are interesting sidelights upon the personalities of the chief figures, their counsel, and their backers. The lawyers' duel of briefs and argument before the bar is recounted, with minute accuracy but in nontechnical language, and the judges' opinions are faithfully paraphrased. For the most part, the author lets these facts as to the landmark cases tell their own story, but he concludes each chapter with interpretive comment in which the significance of the court's decision in the evolution of labor's rights is appraised.

The legal and social developments dramatized in this collection of cases are familiar enough to trade-unionists and to a narrow segment of the American bar, but not to the general public, to whom the book is addressed. For many years, the lawfulness of union activity depended upon prevailing social and judicial attitudes which were, for too long, deeply hostile to labor's aspirations. Society and judges recognized that "legitimate self-interest," so called, explained, and often justified, the injury which

business men inflicted upon each other and the general public in their contest for profits, but no such justification for a strike or picket line was perceived. At the spectacle of laborers combining to raise their wages or extend the influence of their unions, outraged judges manned the barricades in defense of their own class. Unions were successively suppressed as criminal conspiracies; their activities were restrained if their objectives did not conform to the judges' economic predilections; and their practices were condemned as monopolistic under the Federal anti-trust laws. Until the 1930's, State and Federal laws designed to protect the legitimate organizational activities of workers were regularly struck down.

Eventually, the pendulum reversed itself. In the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932, Congress put a stop to the indiscriminate issuance of labor injunctions by the Federal courts. And in 1937, in the *Jones & Laughlin* case, the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the Wagner Act, which not only vindicated the right of workers in interstate industries to organize, but also imposed upon employers the new legal obligation to bargain collectively concerning wages, hours, and working conditions with the unions representing their employees. As Mr. Lieberman believes that collective bargaining is "an essential and basic need in our industrial economy," he frankly applauds the Supreme Court's ability, in this decision sustaining the Wagner Act, to perceive and adjust to "the industrial facts of life" in the modern economy. He deplors the Taft-Hartley Act, passed only 10 years later. This he sees as a repressive measure, designed to weaken labor unions and break down collective bargaining, which "resurrected old prejudices and animosities, and revived mistrust." However, he holds that organized labor was at least partly responsible for the set-back it received in 1947. He observes that "the conduct and tactics of some unions made amendments to the Wagner Act inevitable," and that public resentment had been justly aroused by "labor's activities in connection with jurisdictional strikes, some secondary boycotts, and strikes affecting national health and safety." In a final chapter, called "Looking Both Ways", the theme is emphasized that labor, now "out of its swaddling clothes," must prepare to accept a degree of "social responsibility" commensurate with the power it has acquired.

Too closely identified himself with the trade-union movement to be anything but completely sympathetic with its aims, Mr. Lieberman has nevertheless succeeded in telling labor's story without anger. He has also accomplished the always difficult task of presenting a technical subject in simple, readable terms. Although the book is written for laymen, it will also prove both useful and informative to lawyers in the labor field for it covers all the basic cases.

—P. B.

Child and Youth Employment

Child Labor Fact Book, 1900-1950. By Florence Taylor. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1950. 24 pp., bibliographies, chart, illus. (Publication No 403.) 25 cents.

Child Labor Laws; Passed and Bypassed?—A Survey of Enforcement and Administration of State Child-Labor Legislation. By Sol Markoff. (In *The Child*, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, Washington, March 1950, pp. 136-140, illus. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Job Guide for Young Workers. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, U. S. Employment Service, 1950. 28 pp. Free.

Hunting a Career: A Study of Out-of-School Youth, Louisville, Ky. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, 1949. 117 pp., illus. (Bull. No. 115.) 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Recent Developments in the Youth Employment Service, [Great Britain]. (In *Ministry of Labor Gazette*, London, April 1950, pp. 117-119. 9d. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.)

Cooperative Movement

Cooperative Housing: A Bibliography on Housing Built or Managed Cooperatively. Washington, U. S. Housing and Home Finance Agency, Office of the Administrator, 1950. 53 pp.; processed.

Material on cooperative housing in the United States and seven European countries.

Report on Domestic Cooperative Housing. By staff of Subcommittee on Housing and Rents, Committee on Banking and Currency, United States Senate. Washington, 1950. 52 pp. (Committee Print, 81st Cong., 2d Sess.)

Cooperative Housing in Europe. A report of the Senate Banking and Currency Subcommittee investigating and studying European housing programs. Washington, 1950. 112 pp., chart. (S. Doc. No. 148, 81st Cong., 2d sess.)

Includes studies on seven countries—Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Netherlands, France, Switzerland, and Great Britain.

Movimiento Cooperativo en Puerto Rico. By Roberto Barillas Izaguirre. Guatamala City, Ministerio de Economía y Trabajo, [1949?]. 47 pp.

Account of the 1948 cooperative congress of Puerto Rico, together with a short discussion of the cooperative movement there, basic cooperative legislation, Government office of cooperation, etc. One section of the report deals with the importance and possibilities of cooperatives in Guatamala and outlines the duties of the Department for the Development of Cooperatives, established by law in 1945.

The People's Year Book, 1950. Manchester, England, Cooperative Wholesale Society, Ltd., [1949?]. 144 pp., illus.

Contains detailed statistics (through 1948) on the cooperative movement of Great Britain; also articles on developments in various phases of the English economy.

Kooperativ Verksamhet, År 1947. Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1949. 48 pp., charts.

Statistics of various types of cooperatives in Sweden, including KF (the cooperative wholesale). In addition to the data for 1947, comparative figures for 1946 or earlier years are given in some tables. A table of contents and a résumé in French are provided.

Economic and Social Problems

Introduction to Labor Economics. By Orme W. Phelps. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950. 554 pp. \$4.50.

Designed as an introductory textbook. The first main section of the volume deals with labor problems in general terms. The other three sections deal with wages; problems of unemployment, disability, and discrimination; and organized labor. More than half of the volume is devoted to the last-named subject. Opposing points of view regarding controversial questions are often stated, but the discussion of recent labor legislation is substantially an argument in support of that legislation.

Readings in Labor Economics. Edited by Francis S. Doody. Cambridge, Mass., Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1950. 481 pp., charts. \$3.75.

Selection of articles, mainly from economic journals, representing what is described as the recent tendency to emphasize labor economics rather than labor problems. The volume is designed mainly for use as supplementary reading in college courses.

Twentieth Century Economic Thought. Edited by Glenn Hoover. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1950. 819 pp., bibliographies, charts. \$12.

Collection of essays on widely varying subjects, in many cases concerned primarily with policies and programs. In reference to controversial issues such as, for example, social security, taxation, and wage determination, the point of view of the author who deals with a particular subject is presented without representation of alternative or opposing points of view.

The Economy of Greeneville, Tennessee: A Study of the Information and Data Related to the Greeneville, Tennessee, Economic Community. By J. Fred Holly. Knoxville, 1950. 62 pp., bibliography. (University of Tennessee Record, Vol. 26, No. 1; Bureau of Research Study No. 21.)

The study illustrates the widespread interest in community surveys designed to promote employment and facilitate the best use of community resources. The foreword states that the study should provide "a guide for those citizens of other localities who desire to make similar analyses of their economics."

Puerto Rico's Economic Future: A Study in Planned Development. By Harvey S. Perloff. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950. 435 pp., bibliography, charts, illus. \$4.75.

The author traces briefly the historical background of Puerto Rico, especially under American rule, but devotes most of the volume to the characteristics and trends of

the island's economy and to a discussion of the "principles and programs of planned economic development." Agricultural problems are emphasized, but there is an extensive discussion of the island's industries and industrial potentialities, with chapters on employment and wages and on incomes, expenditures, and savings. One of the four main divisions of the volume is devoted to population trends and the necessity for a better balance between population and resources if levels of living are to be raised.

The Structure of Factory Control in the Soviet Union. By Alexander Vucinich. (In *American Sociological Review*, New York, April 1950, pp. 179-186. \$1.)

Description of control over Soviet factory operation and production, as exercised by Government offices, the Communist Party, public organizations, and voluntary groups.

Employment and Unemployment

Employment and Unemployment. Report of Subcommittee on Unemployment, Joint Committee on the Economic Report, United States Congress, pursuant to S. Con. Res. 26. Washington, 1950. 132 pp. (Joint Committee Print, 81st Cong., 2d sess.)

Proceedings of 13th Annual Meeting, Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies, New York City, September 26-29, 1949. Washington, Executive Secretary (W. R. Curtis), Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies, U. S. Department of Labor, 1950. 242 pp.; processed.

One session was devoted to unemployment insurance problems.

Steadier Jobs: An Action Program for Management. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Economic Research Department, 1950. 18 pp. 25 cents.

The "techniques and devices" suggested to management fall under three main heads: marketing or sales; production policies; and personnel policies, for example, the training of employees for more than one job.

Ability, Disability, Employability: Selective Placement of Workers for Maximum Efficiency, Safety, and Health. Chicago, Zurich General Accident and Liability Insurance Company, Ltd., and American Guarantee and Liability Insurance Company, 1949. 20 pp., chart, illus.

More Than a Quarter Century of Guaranteed Annual Employment: Some Questions and Answers About the Proctor & Gamble Plan. Cincinnati, Ohio, Proctor & Gamble Co., [1949]. 12 pp.

Industrial Hygiene

Bibliography of Occupational Medicine, Vol. I, 1948. Geneva, International Labor Office, 1949. 93 pp. \$1. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of ILO.

Cutting Oil Dermatoses. By Harry Shapiro, M.D. (In *Monthly Review of Division of Industrial Hygiene and Safety Standards*, State Department of Labor, New York, February 1950, pp. 5-8.)

Optic Atrophy Following Inhalation of Carbon Tetrachloride. By Adelaide Ross Smith, M.D. (In *Archives of Industrial Hygiene and Occupational Medicine*, Chicago, March 1950, pp. 348-351. \$1.)

Trichloroethylene Poisoning. By Lawrence H. Cotter, M. D. (In *Archives of Industrial Hygiene and Occupational Medicine*, Chicago, March 1950, pp. 319-322. \$1.)

Report on toxic effects on 10 workers of heavy exposure to trichloroethylene fumes.

A Successful Vision Program for Small Companies. By Robert J. O'Shea. (In *Sight-Saving Review*, Philadelphia, Spring 1950, pp. 28-33. 65 cents.)

Historical Résumé of Mine and Tunnel Ventilation Studies, Bureau of Mines, 1910-1949. By G. E. McElroy. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1950. 16 pp., bibliography; processed. (Information Circular No. 7556.)

Industrial Relations

Collective Bargaining Provisions: Grievance and Arbitration Provisions. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 156 pp. (Bull. No. 908-16.) 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The Enforcement of Labor Arbitration Agreements. By Charles O. Gregory and Richard M. Orlikoff. (In *University of Chicago Law Review*, Chicago, Winter 1950, pp. 233-269.)

Federal Fact-Finding Boards and Boards of Inquiry. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 27 pp.; processed. Free.

Brief discussion and a tabulation of boards appointed from November 1945 to February 1950 showing parties to the disputes, major issues involved, findings or recommendations, and principal terms of settlement.

Job Modifications Under Collective Bargaining. By Richard A. Lester and Robert L. Aronson. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1950. 77 pp. (Research Report Series, No. 80.) \$2.

The report deals with the impact of collective bargaining on the introduction of technological changes, and the human and economic aspects of the problem. It is based on a general survey of 20 companies and detailed case studies of 4 companies in the mass production industries. Union and management were in agreement that "major technological changes, which create entirely new jobs, are generally from a labor relations viewpoint much easier to handle than the minor methods changes, which result in a series of small alterations in a job over a period of time."

Certifying a Bargaining Agent Under the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Act. By Alice Warne. State College, Pennsylvania State College, Bureau of Business Research, 1950. 39 pp.; processed. (Bull. No. 44.)

Proceedings of the Second Annual Meeting, Industrial Relations Research Association, New York City, December 29-30, 1949. Edited by Milton Derber. Champaign (704 S. 6th St.), Ill., Secretary-Treasurer of the Association, 1950. 299 pp. (Pub. No. 4.)

Industry Reports

The Structure of American Industry—Some Case Studies. Edited by Walter Adams. New York, Macmillan Co., 1950. 588 pp., bibliographies. \$4.75.

The thirteen industries selected for study include agriculture and four other nonmanufacturing industries. The selection is designed to provide "a laboratory for the analysis of industries illustrating various degrees of competition and monopoly." The final chapter deals with "Organized Labor in a Free Enterprise Economy."

Agriculture and Industrialization: The Adjustments That Take Place as an Agricultural Country is Industrialized. By Pei-kang Chang. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1949. 270 pp., bibliography. (Harvard Economic Studies, Vol. 85.) \$5.

The author's approach to the subject is theoretical, but he explores a variety of statistical and historical data. One of the chapters deals with the effects of industrialization on farm labor.

The Agricultural Labor Force in the San Joaquin Valley, California—Characteristics, Employment, Mobility, 1948. By William H. Metzler and Afife F. Sayin. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1950. 73 pp., maps, charts; processed.

The Economics of Pulp and Paper. By John A. Guthrie. Pullman, State College of Washington Press, 1950. 194 pp., maps, charts. \$2.50, cloth; \$1.50, paper.

The study, based in part on unpublished sources of information, includes a brief account of manufacturing processes and discussions of such major economic topics as marketing, transportation, prices and price policy, costs, profits, and regional differences. One chapter deals with labor relations and describes the generally successful process of collective bargaining in the industry; another analyzes wage rates and labor costs and indicates the co-existence of relatively high wage rates and low labor costs in the western producing areas.

Great Britain: Coal Mining Since Nationalization. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 1981; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1950.) Free.

The Present Position of the Coal Industry in Great Britain. By A. Beacham. (In *Economic Journal*, London, March 1950, pp. 9-18. 10s. net.)

Discusses the plans for reorganization of the coal in-

dustry developed by the National Coal Board under the terms of reference and powers conferred by the Coal Mines Nationalization Act. The author is critical of the targets and policies now being pursued, and believes miners have some cause to fear overproduction, unless costs and prices can be reduced.

Labor and Social Legislation

State and Federal Hours Limitations—A Summary. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, 1950. 141 pp. (Bull. No. 116.) Limited free distribution.

Supreme Court Decisions on Labor, 1948-49. By Betty Jane Swoboda. Urbana, University of Illinois, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1950. 17 pp. (Bull. Series, Vol 4, No. 1.) Single copies free.

The School Teacher's Day in Court—Review of 1949. Washington, National Education Association, Research Division, 1950. 33 pp.; processed.

Digests of 48 court decisions concerning contracts, tenure, salary, retirement, and miscellaneous personnel problems of public school teachers.

The Place of Labor in the Constitution of the Italian Republic. By Ferruccio Pergolesi. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, February 1950, pp. 118-142. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington Branch of ILO.)

The Japanese Labor Legislation, [1946-49]. [Tokyo], Ministry of Labor, [1950?]. 673 pp., loose leaf. In Japanese and English.

The first compilation of postwar Japanese labor legislation to be published. It reproduces the labor laws administered by the Ministry of Labor and ordinances issued in implementing these laws. It does not contain laws administered by other agencies, such as legislation covering seamen or health or old-age insurance.

Occupations

Careers for Young Americans in the Army and After. By Reuben Horchow. Washington, Public Affairs Press, 1950. 226 pp. \$3.25.

Getting Job Experience. By Thomas E. Christensen. Chicago, Science Research Associates, Inc., 1949. 48 pp., illus.

How to Get The Job You Want. By Lawrence Terzian. New York, Grosset & Dunlap, 1950. 78 pp. \$1.

Your Future Job: A Guide to Personal and Occupational Orientation of Youth. By James H. Bedford. Los Angeles, Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., 1950. 366 pp., bibliographies, charts, illus. \$3.50.

Employment Outlook for Engineers. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 119 pp., bibliography, charts. (Bull. No. 968.) 50 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Television: Job Opportunities in Programming and Production, Administration, Engineering, Writing. Pasadena, Calif., Western Personnel Institute, 1950. 51 pp., bibliographies. \$1.

Personnel Management and Practices

Employee Personnel Practices in Colleges and Universities. [Champaign, Ill.], College and University Personnel Association, 1949. 65 pp. and schedule, 13 pp.; processed. \$2.

Experience of 132 Companies With Employee Benefit Programs. Chicago, Dartnell Corp., 1949. Various pages, illus.; processed. (Report No. 555.) Rev. ed.

A Guide to Good Labor Relations: Analysis of Personnel Practices in the Cleveland Area. Cleveland, Ohio, Associated Industries of Cleveland, 1950. 77 pp., charts.

Managing Men at Work. By Selby S. Santmyers. Scranton, Pa., International Textbook Co., 1950. 299 pp. \$4.

Problems in Personnel Administration. By Richard P. Calhoun. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949. 540 pp. \$5.50.

Working With People: Human Relations for the Plant and Office Supervisor. By Auren Uris and Betty Shapin. New York, Macmillan Co., 1949. 311 pp. \$3.

The Interview in Personnel Relations. By R. H. Hamstra. San Francisco, California Personnel Management Association, Research Division, 1949. 18 pp.; processed. (Management Report No. 32.) \$1.

Prices

Wholesale Prices, 1948, Including Index Numbers of 900 Different Commodities. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 54 pp. (Bull. No. 973.) 30 cents. Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Primary Market Prices and Indexes for Petroleum and Products. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 1950. 18 pp.; processed. Free.

December 1949 Steel Price Increases. Washington, 1950. 66 pp., chart. (Senate Report No. 1373, 81st Cong., 2d Sess.)

Report of Joint Committee on the Economic Report, U. S. Congress, with minority and individual views and comments of certain members.

Productivity

Productivity—and Collective Bargaining. By Benjamin M. and Sylvia K. Selekmán. (In Harvard Business Review, Boston, March 1950, pp. 127-144. \$1.50.)

The authors emphasize the importance and value of collective bargaining for dealing with incentive wage sys-

tems and with the direct impacts of technological changes on workers. They stress as a basis of collective bargaining the dual nature of union policies arising from the desires of workers for safeguards against innovations and also for obtaining gains from these innovations. It is stated that majority union policy today accepts technological advances provided there are proper protections for the interests of affected workers.

Productivity in the Bituminous-Coal Mining Industry, 1935-48. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 8 pp.; processed. Free.

Other industries covered by reports now available in this current productivity series include anthracite mining, iron mining, nonferrous metals, clay construction products, and rayon and synthetic fibers.

Trends in Man-Hours Expended Per Unit, Electrical Equipment and Supplies, 1939-47. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 42 pp., charts; processed. Free.

Similar reports on trends in man-hours also have been published by the Bureau in 1950 for cane-sugar refining and for the manufacture of construction machinery, leather, and soap and glycerin.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Occupational Wage Survey, Denver, Colo., November 1949. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 37 pp.; processed. (Bull. No. 985.) 30 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Union Wages and Hours: The Baking Industry, July 1, 1949. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1950. 33 pp., chart. (Bull. No. 977.) 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Types and Sources of Wage Data in Illinois. By Richard C. Wilcock. [Urbana], University of Illinois, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1949. 56 pp., bibliography; processed. (Research Report No. 4.)

Not a compilation of wage statistics, but a guide to available wage data with descriptive accounts and technical notes.

Wage Rates in the Construction Industry, [Canada], 1949. (In Labor Gazette, Department of Labor, Ottawa, April 1950, pp. 545-547. 10 cents.)

Time Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor, [Great Britain], October 1, 1949. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1949. 191 pp. 3s. 6d. net, H. M. Stationery Office, London.

Miscellaneous

American Labor at Mid-Century. By Herbert Little. New York, Claridge Publishing Corp., 1950. 12 pp. (Reprinted from International Labor Directory.) 10 cents.

Handbook of Regional Statistics. Materials assembled for the Subcommittee on Unemployment, Joint Committee on the Economic Report, pursuant to S. Con. Res. 26, 81st Congress. Washington, 1950. 455 pp., maps. (Joint Committee Print, 81st Cong., 2d Sess.)

Data from this report are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 106).

Population, Labor Force, Employment, and Unemployment Trends During 1949, Federal Republic of Germany. [Frankfort], Office of the U. S. High Commissioner for Germany, Office of Labor Affairs, [1950]. 18 pp.; processed.

Annuario di Statistiche del Lavoro, [Italy], 1949. Rome, Confederazione Generale dell'Industria Italiana, [1950?]. xx, 416 pp., charts.

Includes statistics of employment and unemployment, wages and hours, labor disputes, social security, vocational retraining of workers, and prices and cost of living.

Økonomisk Utsyn Over Året 1949. Oslo, Statistisk Sentralbyrå, 1950. 149 pp., charts. (Norges Offisielle Statistikk, XI, 1.) 2 kr.

This review of the Norwegian economy in 1949 includes statistics of wages, prices, employment, and unemployment.

A "good" labor-management agreement, Sumner Slichter, Harvard University economics professor, believes, should meet these conditions:

"1. It should give security to the union.

"2. It should give management reasonable opportunity to select its own employees.

"3. It should protect management from being required to discharge valuable employees because of the imposition of discipline by the union unless the discipline has been reviewed by the same umpire who reviews discipline imposed by management.

"4. It should give management reasonable freedom to make changes in methods and equipment.

"5. It should give workers reasonable protection from technological changes.

"6. It should not enforce wasteful utilization of labor.

"7. It should provide an orderly way of allocating work in the event of a drop in the demand for labor by the enterprise. It should protect the workers from permanent lay-off because of temporary declines in the demand for labor.

"8. It should permit management to retain reasonable incentives to encourage efficiency.

"9. It should provide machinery for determining the meaning of the agreement in the event of disputes over its interpretation and for enforcing the agreement in the event of violation by the employer or by the union.

"10. It should provide machinery for hearing grievances which do not arise out of alleged violations of the agreement but which arise because the employer or the union is acting in ways which the other regards as unfair."

Challenge of Industrial Relations.

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- 191 Table F-4: New nonresidential building authorized in all urban places by general type and by geographic division
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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>
A-1	A-12	A-8	A-9	D-2	D-2	E-1	E-3
A-2	(¹)	B-1	B-1	D-3	D-2	F-1	H-1
A-3	(¹)	C-1	(¹)	D-4	D-4	F-2	H-2
A-4	(¹)	C-2	(¹)	D-5	D-2 and D-3	F-3	H-4
A-5	A-8	C-3	C-10	D-6	D-4	F-4	(¹)
A-6	(¹)	C-4	(¹)	D-7	D-6	F-5	I-3
A-7	A-7	D-1	D-1	D-8	D-6		

¹ Not included in 1947 edition of Handbook.

A: Employment and Pay Rolls

TABLE A-1: Estimated Total Labor Force Classified by Employment Status, Hours Worked, and Sex

Labor force	Estimated number of persons 14 years of age and over ¹ (in thousands)												
	1950					1949							
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov. ²	Oct.	Sept. ³	Aug.	July ³	June	May
	Total, both sexes												
Total labor force ⁴	64,108	63,513	63,021	63,003	62,835	63,475	64,363	64,021	64,222	65,105	65,278	64,866	63,452
Civilian labor force.....	62,788	62,183	61,675	61,637	61,427	62,045	62,927	62,576	62,763	63,637	63,815	63,398	61,983
Unemployment.....	3,057	3,515	4,123	4,684	4,480	3,489	3,409	3,576	3,351	3,689	4,095	3,778	3,289
Unemployed 4 weeks or less.....	1,130	1,130	1,229	1,583	1,956	1,399	1,586	1,736	1,327	1,484	1,865	1,925	1,501
Unemployed 5-10 weeks.....	634	686	1,143	1,456	1,171	971	771	719	757	1,020	1,104	808	763
Unemployed 11-14 weeks.....	252	521	580	547	418	302	257	300	395	384	361	299	316
Unemployed 15-26 weeks.....	559	705	722	650	542	456	460	471	507	473	439	483	490
Unemployed over 26 weeks.....	481	475	449	448	396	361	335	349	368	329	327	261	221
Employment.....	59,731	58,668	57,551	56,953	56,947	58,566	59,518	59,001	59,411	59,947	59,720	59,619	58,694
Nonagricultural.....	51,669	51,473	50,877	50,730	50,749	51,783	51,640	51,290	51,254	51,441	50,073	49,924	49,720
Worked 35 hours or more.....	43,033	41,143	41,334	41,433	40,839	42,260	36,766	41,354	27,366	40,407	27,686	40,924	41,315
Worked 15-34 hours.....	5,149	6,552	5,715	5,271	6,251	6,126	11,383	6,056	19,683	5,231	14,701	5,425	5,073
Worked 1-14 hours ⁴	1,949	2,183	2,102	2,085	1,974	2,049	1,991	2,027	1,867	1,509	1,438	1,525	1,778
With a job but not at work ⁵	1,537	1,697	1,725	1,941	1,686	1,349	1,501	1,855	2,339	4,294	6,247	2,051	1,554
Agricultural.....	8,062	7,195	6,675	6,223	6,198	6,773	7,778	7,710	8,158	8,507	9,647	9,696	8,974
Worked 35 hours or more.....	5,970	5,125	4,551	4,334	3,979	4,778	6,205	5,462	6,294	6,724	7,326	7,400	7,159
Worked 15-34 hours.....	1,613	1,503	1,575	1,271	1,459	1,511	1,256	1,604	1,455	1,290	1,871	1,952	1,474
Worked 1-14 hours ⁴	292	318	255	300	329	297	238	365	269	264	262	228	211
With a job but not at work ⁵	187	250	295	317	431	189	179	279	140	228	189	116	130
	Males												
Total labor force ⁴	45,614	45,429	45,204	45,115	45,102	45,174	45,515	45,413	45,759	46,613	46,712	46,282	45,337
Civilian labor force.....	44,316	44,120	43,879	43,769	43,715	43,765	44,099	43,988	44,319	45,163	45,267	44,832	43,886
Unemployment.....	2,130	2,628	3,002	3,426	3,262	2,472	2,316	2,563	2,233	2,519	2,845	2,598	2,366
Employment.....	42,186	41,492	40,877	40,343	40,453	41,293	41,783	41,426	42,085	42,644	42,422	42,233	41,521
Nonagricultural.....	35,597	35,220	34,890	34,698	34,880	35,369	35,484	35,123	35,521	35,549	34,799	34,796	34,411
Worked 35 hours or more.....	30,860	29,722	29,562	29,336	29,108	30,077	26,299	29,631	20,498	29,277	20,820	29,889	29,813
Worked 15-34 hours.....	2,829	3,483	3,156	2,909	3,711	3,424	6,922	3,234	12,663	3,080	9,604	3,004	2,766
Worked 1-14 hours ⁴	874	999	958	922	904	884	870	901	810	593	651	629	780
With a job but not at work ⁵	1,034	1,017	1,214	1,531	1,157	984	1,064	1,359	1,551	2,599	3,723	1,274	1,052
Agricultural.....	6,589	6,272	5,987	5,645	5,573	5,924	6,299	6,302	6,565	7,095	7,623	7,438	7,109
Worked 35 hours or more.....	5,339	4,891	4,380	4,176	3,817	4,497	5,335	4,896	5,465	6,019	6,356	6,453	6,249
Worked 15-34 hours.....	895	925	1,146	942	1,094	1,017	638	910	792	705	916	731	610
Worked 1-14 hours ⁴	186	251	188	228	262	234	152	247	179	161	185	148	134
With a job but not at work ⁵	170	205	274	298	399	177	173	249	128	209	168	105	115
	Females												
Total labor force ⁴	18,494	18,084	17,817	17,888	17,733	18,301	18,848	18,608	18,463	18,492	18,566	18,584	18,115
Civilian labor force.....	18,472	18,063	17,796	17,868	17,712	18,280	18,828	18,588	18,444	18,474	18,548	18,566	18,097
Unemployment.....	927	887	1,121	1,258	1,218	1,017	1,093	1,013	1,118	1,170	1,250	1,180	923
Employment.....	17,545	17,176	16,674	16,610	16,494	17,263	17,735	17,575	17,326	17,303	17,298	17,386	17,173
Nonagricultural.....	16,072	16,253	15,987	16,032	15,869	16,414	16,156	16,167	15,733	15,892	15,274	15,128	15,309
Worked 35 hours or more.....	12,173	11,421	11,772	12,097	11,731	12,183	10,137	11,723	6,868	11,130	6,866	11,035	11,502
Worked 15-34 hours.....	2,320	3,069	2,559	2,362	2,540	2,702	4,461	2,822	7,020	2,151	5,097	2,421	2,307
Worked 1-14 hours ⁴	1,075	1,184	1,144	1,163	1,070	1,165	1,121	1,127	1,057	916	787	896	998
With a job but not at work ⁵	503	580	511	410	529	365	437	496	788	1,695	2,524	777	502
Agricultural.....	1,473	923	658	578	625	849	1,579	1,408	1,593	1,412	2,024	2,258	1,865
Worked 35 hours or more.....	631	234	171	158	162	281	870	566	829	705	970	947	910
Worked 15-34 hours.....	718	578	429	329	365	494	618	694	663	585	955	1,221	864
Worked 1-14 hours ⁴	106	67	67	72	67	63	86	118	90	103	77	80	77
With a job but not at work ⁵	17	45	21	19	32	12	6	30	12	19	21	11	15

¹ Estimates are subject to sampling variation which may be large in cases where the quantities shown are relatively small. Therefore, the smaller estimates should be used with caution. All data exclude persons in institutions. Because of rounding, the individual figures do not necessarily add to group totals.
² Census survey week contains legal holiday.
³ Total labor force consists of the civilian labor force and the armed forces.

⁴ Excludes persons engaged only in incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours); these persons are classified as not in the labor force.
⁵ Includes persons who had a job or business, but who did not work during the census week because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor dispute or because of temporary lay-off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days of lay-off. Does not include unpaid family workers.

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE A-2: Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division and Group¹

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	1950					1949							Annual average		
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1949	1948
Total employees.....	43,186	42,856	42,261	41,661	42,125	43,694	42,784	42,601	43,466	42,994	42,573	42,835	42,731	43,006	44,201
Mining.....	913	917	919	595	861	940	917	593	948	956	943	968	974	932	981
Metal.....	91.6	91.8	91.8	91.4	91.4	91.6	83.1	64.7	91.7	93.8	94.5	100.3	101.4	93.8	98.5
Iron.....	32.7	32.9	32.6	33.2	33.5	27.9	9.2	35.5	36.0	36.4	36.8	36.5	32.8	35.5	
Copper.....	22.4	22.2	22.2	22.1	21.7	21.2	21.2	21.1	21.1	21.2	22.2	22.8	21.8	22.3	
Lead and zinc.....	19.1	19.0	18.8	18.4	18.4	17.3	17.1	18.0	19.0	18.7	21.7	22.4	20.6	21.7	
Anthracite.....		75.3	76.9	75.9	75.6	76.3	76.7	76.2	75.6	75.7	75.5	77.1	77.0	77.3	80.0
Bituminous-coal.....	399.2	405.2	409.9	89.1	354.2	424.7	407.1	99.8	421.1	424.7	410.1	431.2	438.4	405.3	444.9
Crude petroleum and natural gas production.....		250.5	250.1	249.8	251.1	253.4	254.8	256.2	260.7	262.9	263.5	261.9	260.1	259.0	257.5
Nonmetallic mining and quarrying.....	97.1	94.5	89.9	88.6	88.9	93.6	95.7	95.9	98.7	99.1	99.1	97.8	97.5	96.3	100.1
Contract construction.....	2,243	2,065	1,903	1,861	1,919	2,088	2,244	2,313	2,341	2,340	2,277	2,205	2,137	2,158	2,165
Manufacturing.....	14,324	14,153	14,101	13,997	13,980	14,031	13,807	13,892	14,312	14,114	13,757	13,894	13,877	14,146	15,286
Durable goods ²	7,745	7,546	7,418	7,324	7,342	7,303	7,050	6,986	7,409	7,302	7,255	7,392	7,441	7,465	8,315
Nondurable goods ³	6,579	6,607	6,683	6,673	6,638	6,728	6,757	6,906	6,903	6,812	6,502	6,492	6,436	6,681	6,970
Ordnance and accessories.....	23.0	22.9	22.5	21.8	21.3	21.6	21.8	22.6	22.7	22.6	23.8	25.3	26.1	24.8	28.1
Food and kindred products.....	1,457	1,429	1,420	1,409	1,432	1,491	1,539	1,631	1,703	1,718	1,585	1,501	1,436	1,523	1,536
Meat products.....		283.0	286.4	288.7	301.3	307.6	298.3	292.8	287.7	285.9	284.7	282.7	277.5	288.6	271.2
Dairy products.....		141.0	136.8	134.1	132.4	133.7	136.3	142.2	149.9	156.5	162.3	161.6	153.9	146.2	147.7
Canning and preserving.....		144.7	133.7	133.6	141.0	161.2	185.2	258.2	351.0	399.8	247.3	194.5	156.4	217.1	222.0
Grain-mill products.....		120.1	120.0	119.3	119.8	120.9	122.9	125.4	123.6	122.5	121.8	119.4	118.7	120.6	117.7
Bakery products.....		282.6	280.9	277.9	277.3	280.0	286.0	292.4	289.7	288.0	281.9	282.3	276.1	281.7	282.9
Sugar.....		26.9	27.1	26.9	28.9	42.5	49.3	48.0	30.7	29.9	27.8	26.8	26.7	32.7	34.5
Confectionery and related products.....		91.2	94.9	96.7	99.5	104.7	109.4	113.6	105.6	92.5	83.7	84.9	87.1	96.9	100.2
Beverages.....		206.3	204.9	198.2	199.2	205.4	211.3	215.0	222.4	232.6	235.7	210.5	204.4	211.4	218.6
Miscellaneous food products.....		133.1	134.6	133.2	132.3	135.4	139.9	142.9	142.5	140.2	140.0	138.5	135.5	137.6	141.3
Tobacco manufactures.....	82	83	85	88	92	94	96	99	101	98	99	91	90	94	100
Cigarettes.....		25.5	25.4	25.5	26.3	26.8	26.9	26.9	27.0	26.9	27.0	26.9	26.8	26.8	26.6
Cigars.....		39.1	40.7	42.3	42.4	43.2	45.5	45.7	45.2	44.3	42.9	44.4	43.3	44.5	48.3
Tobacco and snuff.....		12.4	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.9	12.9	13.1	13.1	13.1	12.5	13.0	12.6	13.0	13.7
Tobacco stemming and redrying.....		5.5	5.9	7.4	10.8	10.7	10.2	12.9	16.0	14.1	6.7	6.7	6.9	10.1	11.2
Textile-mill products.....	1,248	1,261	1,272	1,273	1,265	1,274	1,272	1,256	1,220	1,179	1,145	1,170	1,175	1,224	1,362
Yarn and thread mills.....		154.6	158.6	159.4	157.8	157.7	156.1	153.3	148.5	141.4	135.3	140.7	141.4	149.3	177.6
Broad-woven fabric mills.....		602.7	604.2	600.6	597.8	604.1	601.9	594.8	577.0	559.8	548.1	555.2	557.1	581.9	645.7
Knitting mills.....		236.7	239.8	241.1	241.7	244.7	247.8	244.8	237.0	228.7	218.1	220.8	220.1	231.4	249.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....		88.0	89.3	89.9	89.3	90.0	89.5	87.3	85.4	82.6	81.3	83.4	85.4	86.4	89.8
Carpets, rugs, other floor coverings.....		61.0	60.5	60.3	59.3	58.8	58.1	57.5	55.9	55.3	50.9	56.9	58.5	58.9	64.8
Other textile-mill products.....		118.0	119.7	121.2	119.3	119.1	118.6	118.4	115.8	111.0	111.1	113.4	112.1	116.0	135.2
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	1,083	1,118	1,174	1,180	1,146	1,156	1,144	1,199	1,198	1,155	1,055	1,073	1,070	1,136	1,162
Men's and boys' suits and coats.....		146.0	148.7	148.9	143.5	140.7	130.6	141.5	146.5	143.5	128.8	134.7	131.8	141.5	154.4
Men's and boys' furnishings and work clothing.....		257.4	261.7	260.8	258.5	264.5	269.6	270.5	264.5	253.1	239.3	253.8	257.4	257.8	269.1
Women's outerwear.....		304.8	339.2	348.2	334.9	330.1	313.7	342.2	353.1	341.1	296.5	292.1	290.7	328.6	342.4
Women's, children's undergarments.....		105.5	106.9	106.3	102.3	104.4	108.5	107.2	104.0	98.2	90.8	92.5	94.1	98.9	97.4
Millinery.....		20.8	26.4	26.5	24.2	22.3	18.5	23.8	24.0	23.1	20.4	17.3	20.3	22.3	22.9
Children's outerwear.....		63.2	68.2	68.5	65.6	64.5	65.8	68.2	67.9	67.3	63.4	62.3	57.3	63.4	59.5
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel.....		83.5	84.3	82.8	80.0	90.0	95.9	98.4	95.5	91.1	84.7	86.4	83.4	88.2	90.1
Other fabricated textile products.....		137.1	138.9	137.9	137.3	139.1	141.7	146.8	142.2	137.9	131.0	133.7	135.1	135.8	125.6
Lumber and wood products (except furniture).....	785	755	739	713	702	744	753	750	743	747	736	747	733	736	812
Loggins camps and contractors.....		56.4	57.0	49.2	45.0	61.5	63.7	64.0	59.5	62.3	62.7	63.8	63.3	61.4	72.8
Sawmills and planing mills.....		443.6	432.4	416.1	411.2	433.9	442.7	444.0	445.4	444.8	436.8	442.1	430.4	431.7	472.9
Millwork, plywood, and prefabricated structural wood products.....		121.2	117.8	116.8	116.7	117.4	116.3	113.4	110.1	109.4	106.6	108.4	106.2	110.5	119.5
Wooden containers.....		74.3	73.2	73.0	72.6	73.7	73.0	72.2	71.7	72.0	71.7	73.7	73.7	73.3	81.8
Miscellaneous wood products.....		59.7	58.9	57.7	56.8	57.1	56.9	56.7	56.7	58.1	58.0	58.8	59.2	59.0	65.2
Furniture and fixtures.....	345	347	345	341	333	332	327	327	319	305	295	298	301	315	348
Household furniture.....		249.0	247.7	244.9	238.1	236.8	232.6	231.2	223.9	212.3	204.0	205.5	207.9	220.0	247.0
Other furniture and fixtures.....		98.0	97.2	96.1	95.1	95.5	94.1	95.7	95.1	92.5	90.9	92.8	93.2	94.6	100.9
Paper and allied products.....	459	458	455	453	451	455	458	456	448	436	429	434	437	447	470
Pulp, paper, and paperboard mills.....		231.7	230.2	229.3	228.4	229.0	229.3	228.1	225.6	219.5	217.8	221.7	223.3	226.9	240.7
Paperboard containers and boxes.....		121.4	120.5	120.0	119.8	123.1	125.6	124.2	119.4	114.9	110.6	111.4	111.5	117.1	121.4
Other paper and allied products.....		105.2	104.6	103.7	102.5	102.7	102.8	103.8	102.9	101.2	100.9	100.8	101.9	103.1	107.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A-2: Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division and Group¹—Con.

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	1950					1949								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1949	1948
Manufacturing—Continued															
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	734	731	732	732	730	739	736	735	728	719	716	725	722	727	725
Newspapers	288.8	289.0	289.5	289.5	285.7	288.6	288.8	288.2	286.4	285.2	283.5	283.8	280.8	282.5	267.5
Periodicals	51.7	52.1	52.1	52.3	53.0	53.0	52.9	53.2	53.3	52.7	52.2	51.9	53.4	53.4	54.7
Books	45.3	45.3	44.8	45.0	45.2	45.7	45.5	45.1	41.5	41.5	41.4	44.8	45.0	44.6	46.6
Commercial printing	199.1	199.2	198.5	200.4	201.5	198.0	199.2	195.0	193.1	195.5	196.4	194.9	197.1	197.5	197.5
Lithographing	39.9	40.1	40.1	40.1	42.2	42.2	41.6	40.8	40.2	39.7	40.2	40.6	41.1	45.1	45.1
Other printing and publishing	106.0	106.4	106.7	106.8	108.1	108.1	107.7	107.3	106.3	103.8	107.9	107.6	108.0	113.3	113.3
Chemicals and allied products	667	675	670	665	658	660	662	665	654	636	630	642	654	664	699
Industrial inorganic chemicals	70.4	69.4	68.8	65.8	66.6	66.6	66.3	67.1	65.7	65.7	66.6	68.6	69.0	68.4	70.9
Industrial organic chemicals	193.6	191.6	180.5	187.9	187.8	187.0	185.6	184.7	180.3	181.1	185.0	188.3	192.1	210.3	210.3
Drugs and medicines	93.4	91.1	91.4	94.6	94.6	94.1	93.7	92.7	92.0	90.7	91.6	91.1	92.3	89.5	89.5
Paints, pigments, and fillers	69.2	68.6	68.3	67.6	67.1	67.6	67.9	66.3	65.8	64.9	66.7	67.3	67.3	70.7	70.7
Fertilizers	41.7	41.0	38.5	32.5	30.7	30.3	31.8	32.3	30.4	29.6	30.6	36.4	34.3	35.9	35.9
Vegetable and animal oils and fats	53.7	55.5	56.2	59.2	62.1	63.4	64.9	58.8	48.7	46.5	48.5	50.5	56.1	56.2	56.2
Other chemicals and allied products	153.1	152.7	152.4	150.3	151.5	153.5	153.6	153.7	153.0	150.1	150.5	151.7	153.0	165.0	165.0
Products of petroleum and coal	237	234	242	242	242	243	245	241	247	247	246	246	246	245	250
Petroleum refining	186.1	184.9	195.1	195.4	195.6	197.3	197.6	199.2	200.2	199.9	198.9	198.0	198.0	198.7	199.1
Coke and byproducts	20.5	19.7	19.6	20.2	20.4	18.7	13.5	19.3	19.5	19.8	20.5	20.7	19.5	20.0	20.0
Other petroleum and coal products	27.6	26.9	26.8	26.3	27.0	28.7	30.1	28.4	27.7	26.3	26.6	27.1	27.1	30.8	30.8
Rubber products	242	238	237	236	234	234	233	234	209	227	224	230	233	234	259
Tires and inner tubes	106.6	106.3	105.8	105.0	104.3	103.5	103.5	82.5	103.5	104.9	110.2	111.2	106.6	121.1	121.1
Rubber footwear	24.1	24.2	23.6	24.9	27.0	27.0	26.4	25.9	25.2	24.9	24.6	25.2	26.4	29.6	29.6
Other rubber products	107.4	106.5	106.2	104.1	102.7	102.4	104.1	100.9	98.3	94.0	95.0	96.9	100.5	107.9	107.9
Leather and leather products	370	380	396	395	388	382	372	390	395	397	383	380	373	388	410
Leather	49.4	50.0	50.1	49.4	49.4	49.7	49.4	49.1	48.3	47.4	49.0	49.1	49.7	54.2	54.2
Footwear (except rubber)	244.5	257.4	257.1	254.9	247.2	232.4	249.2	255.5	259.4	250.9	247.7	240.2	251.0	260.1	260.1
Other leather products	85.6	88.6	87.9	83.2	95.5	90.2	91.2	90.1	89.2	84.3	83.4	83.3	87.2	95.4	95.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	496	488	477	475	469	479	477	478	482	480	469	478	482	484	514
Class and glass products	128.7	129.6	123.9	121.7	121.7	122.7	123.2	122.7	122.2	122.2	116.5	121.1	121.6	122.6	135.9
Cement, hydraulic	41.7	40.7	41.0	41.7	42.2	40.6	40.5	42.4	42.5	42.7	42.5	42.0	41.8	40.9	40.9
Structural clay products	76.4	75.6	75.2	75.2	77.4	76.6	78.2	79.3	79.5	79.6	80.0	80.1	79.8	83.4	83.4
Pottery and related products	58.2	58.0	57.6	56.1	57.0	57.6	57.2	55.8	54.9	51.5	55.3	57.4	57.5	60.6	60.6
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	85.6	83.2	83.6	81.4	85.1	86.1	86.1	87.1	85.8	83.7	83.3	83.6	84.6	87.8	87.8
Other stone, clay, and glass products	97.3	94.9	94.1	93.2	94.3	93.1	92.0	94.6	94.9	94.6	95.4	97.3	97.1	105.9	105.9
Primary metal industries	1,189	1,170	1,143	1,137	1,121	1,112	891	703	1,097	1,092	1,095	1,135	1,158	1,101	1,247
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	593.8	582.8	587.5	584.8	580.4	392.3	191.3	672.5	672.0	581.3	599.1	610.8	610.8	550.4	612.0
Iron and steel foundries	215.6	208.5	203.6	198.3	198.8	198.8	195.8	200.5	205.5	204.4	212.3	214.9	217.0	259.3	259.3
Primary smelting and refining of nonferrous metals	54.6	54.6	54.1	51.1	49.6	46.2	47.9	51.0	50.3	51.5	54.0	54.7	52.3	55.6	55.6
Rolling, drawing, and alloying of nonferrous metals	93.2	92.4	90.6	89.0	88.1	76.9	85.5	83.0	79.9	78.4	81.1	84.2	87.0	103.8	103.8
Nonferrous foundries	84.1	83.2	80.9	79.0	78.4	74.4	76.3	74.0	71.1	70.5	71.9	73.0	75.8	85.2	85.2
Other primary metal industries	123.8	121.6	120.8	119.0	117.1	105.4	103.5	116.1	113.1	109.3	116.3	119.9	118.4	130.7	130.7
Fabricated metal products (except ordnance machinery and transportation equipment)	891	876	863	851	846	841	820	829	863	843	826	836	843	859	976
Tin cans and other tinware	44.7	43.5	41.8	41.2	42.1	43.8	46.4	48.9	49.4	47.7	47.1	44.2	45.8	48.7	48.7
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware	153.3	151.2	147.3	145.2	142.9	139.1	140.2	137.4	135.2	133.1	138.0	140.7	142.3	154.4	154.4
Heating apparatus (except electric) and plumbers' supplies	143.3	139.5	137.8	133.0	136.8	138.3	141.3	134.6	124.5	117.4	118.6	123.3	132.0	165.8	165.8
Fabricated structural metal products	190.9	187.9	185.1	186.2	186.2	178.9	173.0	202.1	201.8	201.1	202.6	202.3	198.5	215.9	215.9
Metal stamping, coating, and engraving	156.5	153.4	152.1	151.2	147.0	141.6	148.4	151.6	146.6	142.9	142.5	140.2	147.9	172.2	172.2
Other fabricated metal products	187.3	187.4	187.0	188.9	186.1	178.2	179.4	188.2	185.1	184.2	187.3	191.8	192.4	219.0	219.0
Machinery (except electrical)	1,318	1,305	1,281	1,261	1,238	1,229	1,209	1,223	1,236	1,229	1,241	1,327	1,311	1,533	1,533
Engines and turbines	70.9	68.9	66.5	66.7	65.9	66.4	64.5	67.6	66.9	69.0	71.8	75.0	72.5	83.8	83.8
Agricultural machinery and tractors	179.5	176.8	175.2	171.0	168.3	162.7	166.0	178.9	179.4	178.7	183.7	187.1	181.3	191.3	191.3
Construction and mining machinery	95.4	95.1	93.4	91.3	90.6	89.2	90.5	88.8	91.1	95.6	101.9	106.0	101.3	122.6	122.6
Metalworking machinery	205.0	201.7	198.4	196.7	196.0	195.6	197.9	199.1	197.4	198.2	205.8	212.8	208.7	239.5	239.5
Special-industry machinery (except metalworking machinery)	161.0	159.0	157.1	155.9	156.6	157.0	158.8	161.5	161.8	163.8	169.3	175.6	171.8	201.9	201.9
General industrial machinery	177.9	174.7	174.0	172.8	173.1	173.2	175.9	177.6	177.9	179.7	184.0	189.2	186.4	209.8	209.8
Office and store machines and devices	87.7	86.6	85.4	84.7	86.2	87.5	88.8	88.5	86.8	87.8	89.7	90.5	90.6	109.1	109.1
Service-industry and household machines	175.0	169.3	163.9	155.2	149.3	139.0	136.4	130.2	126.0	126.4	133.2	136.9	145.4	191.3	191.3
Miscellaneous machinery parts	152.4	149.3	147.0	143.9	142.9	138.5	143.7	143.5	141.3	142.2	145.3	153.2	153.2	183.4	183.4
Electrical machinery	804	792	778	772	762	762	750	753	734	712	712	725	746	759	869
Electrical generating, transmission, distribution, and industrial apparatus	302.1	299.2	298.1	294.4	294.5	289.2	289.7	286.8	281.9	280.6	284.2	292.9	295.2	332.9	332.9
Electrical equipment for vehicles	66.9	65.4	65.5	65.1	64.9	59.1	65.9	65.4	63.4	62.1	62.0	63.4	64.5	69.0	69.0
Communication equipment	288.1	282.9	279.7	276.7	275.5	275.7	275.7	270.1	257.9	250.2	253.7	261.0	271.1	312.2	312.2
Electrical appliances, lamps, and miscellaneous products	134.7	130.8	128.8	126.0	126.9	125.7	127.0	124.0	116.5	115.4	117.9	123.3	128.3	154.8	154.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A-2: Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division and Group¹—Con.

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	1950					1949							Annual average		
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1949	1948
Manufacturing—Continued															
Transportation equipment.....	1,223	1,119	1,101	1,091	1,197	1,112	1,112	1,208	1,240	1,224	1,242	1,224	1,183	1,212	1,263
Automobiles.....		715.5	698.8	689.0	797.4	703.2	697.1	789.2	810.2	807.0	799.0	775.6	726.9	769.0	792.8
Aircraft and parts.....		253.9	252.4	251.7	251.9	252.5	252.3	255.4	258.3	252.2	259.6	253.7	254.1	255.6	228.1
Aircraft.....		168.1	166.5	166.1	166.8	167.0	166.8	168.8	171.2	171.7	172.8	169.3	169.8	169.7	151.7
Aircraft engines and parts.....		50.9	50.6	50.2	50.1	50.5	51.2	52.1	52.4	46.2	52.3	53.1	53.8	51.8	46.7
Aircraft propellers and parts.....		7.9	8.0	8.1	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.0	8.2	8.1	7.8	7.9	7.4
Other aircraft parts and equipment.....		27.0	27.3	27.3	26.9	27.0	26.2	26.3	26.5	26.3	26.3	23.2	22.7	26.2	22.4
Ship and boat building and repairing.....		80.6	80.4	81.2	79.4	82.3	85.3	82.7	88.6	84.6	100.6	103.7	108.2	100.3	140.7
Ship building and repairing ⁴		67.1	68.2	70.0	68.9	72.8	74.8	72.4	77.9	83.3	88.8	91.3	95.1	88.2	124.2
Railroad equipment.....		58.5	59.3	60.1	60.6	64.2	65.3	68.2	71.2	59.3	73.3	81.2	83.0	76.1	84.8
Other transportation equipment.....		10.2	9.6	9.1	7.7	9.6	11.6	12.0	11.4	10.5	9.3	9.6	10.5	10.9	16.6
Instruments and related products.....	238	235	234	232	233	234	234	235	233	230	231	236	238	238	260
Ophthalmic goods.....		25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.2	25.6	25.8	26.0	26.2	26.2	27.0	27.3	26.8	28.2
Photographic apparatus.....		48.5	48.3	48.1	48.3	48.8	49.1	49.7	49.5	50.1	51.2	53.0	53.8	52.6	60.3
Watches and clocks.....		28.4	28.8	29.3	30.3	31.4	31.9	32.2	31.7	30.6	29.4	30.6	30.6	31.4	40.8
Professional and scientific instruments.....		133.4	131.3	129.7	129.2	128.1	127.9	126.9	125.8	123.3	123.7	125.8	126.3	127.1	130.5
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	433	436	434	429	420	436	455	457	439	417	384	405	404	426	466
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware.....		53.2	53.4	54.4	54.2	56.2	57.5	57.2	54.9	52.5	49.0	53.4	54.3	55.4	60.3
Toys and sporting goods.....		70.3	67.6	63.8	61.7	66.8	76.4	76.9	72.3	70.3	63.8	65.3	65.6	68.7	80.8
Costume jewelry, buttons, notions.....		52.6	56.0	59.4	56.7	58.4	63.5	64.5	62.9	58.1	52.8	51.6	50.1	57.7	62.3
Other miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....		259.6	256.6	251.3	246.9	254.6	257.9	258.1	248.5	336.4	218.0	232.6	233.5	243.8	262.8
Transportation and public utilities	3,888	3,928	3,873	3,841	3,869	3,930	3,892	3,871	3,959	3,992	4,007	4,031	4,021	3,977	4,151
Transportation.....	2,687	2,733	2,682	2,651	2,676	2,732	2,689	2,664	2,739	2,760	2,771	2,800	2,792	2,754	2,934
Interstate railroads.....		1,356	1,315	1,290	1,316	1,333	1,281	1,257	1,339	1,375	1,381	1,410	1,416	1,368	1,517
Class I railroads.....		1,188	1,148	1,123	1,148	1,149	1,114	1,080	1,166	1,202	1,208	1,230	1,237	1,191	1,327
Local railroads.....		150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	157	158	159	159	158	163
Trucking and warehousing.....		554	550	545	540	566	571	568	555	539	537	540	532	547	598
Other transportation and services.....		673	666	664	667	679	682	683	688	689	695	691	685	683	687
Communication.....	659	657	654	654	657	660	665	669	676	685	691	691	695	686	696
Telephone.....		609.2	607.0	606.7	609.1	611.7	615.5	618.5	624.7	632.0	638.2	636.6	639.1	632.2	634.2
Telegraph.....		46.9	45.7	46.2	47.1	47.7	48.2	49.4	50.1	51.6	52.3	53.1	54.5	52.5	60.8
Other public utilities.....	542	538	537	536	536	538	538	538	544	547	545	540	534	537	521
Gas and electric utilities.....		512.5	511.9	510.6	511.5	513.0	513.5	513.7	518.7	521.4	520.0	515.2	509.3	512.0	497.0
Local utilities.....		25.2	25.0	25.1	24.8	24.6	24.6	24.7	24.9	25.3	25.0	24.8	24.4	24.6	23.7
Trade	9,318	9,332	9,199	9,152	9,246	10,156	9,607	9,505	9,409	9,213	9,220	9,336	9,342	9,438	9,491
Wholesale trade.....	2,471	2,474	2,484	2,495	2,511	2,542	2,538	2,554	2,538	2,515	2,472	2,491	2,482	2,522	2,533
Retail trade.....	6,847	6,858	6,715	6,657	6,735	7,614	7,069	6,951	6,871	6,698	6,748	6,845	6,860	6,916	6,958
General merchandise stores.....	1,431	1,455	1,384	1,360	1,392	1,987	1,590	1,489	1,432	1,337	1,356	1,401	1,434	1,400	1,470
Food and liquor stores.....	1,205	1,197	1,191	1,185	1,187	1,217	1,208	1,200	1,192	1,181	1,201	1,208	1,203	1,198	1,195
Automotive and accessories dealers.....	711	705	698	700	701	717	704	696	692	688	679	670	661	676	634
Apparel and accessories stores.....	528	546	519	496	513	632	560	557	542	486	507	553	564	554	577
Other retail trade.....	2,972	2,955	2,923	2,916	2,942	3,061	3,007	3,009	3,013	3,006	3,005	3,013	2,998	3,008	3,081
Finance	1,814	1,803	1,790	1,777	1,772	1,770	1,766	1,787	1,771	1,780	1,780	1,774	1,763	1,763	1,716
Banks and trust companies.....		420	418	416	415	416	415	415	417	422	422	417	413	416	403
Security dealers and exchanges.....		58.2	57.7	57.2	56.1	55.4	55.1	55.0	55.0	55.4	55.7	55.3	55.3	55.5	57.9
Insurance carriers and agents.....		639	637	634	630	630	627	626	627	628	624	616	612	619	589
Other finance agencies and real estate.....		686	677	670	671	669	669	671	672	675	678	686	683	672	665
Service	4,786	4,756	4,707	4,686	4,701	4,738	4,768	4,794	4,833	4,836	4,851	4,834	4,804	4,781	4,799
Hotels and lodging places.....		441	431	430	428	443	444	451	475	504	511	487	464	464	478
Laundries.....		346.4	345.0	345.0	346.9	346.7	347.7	350.6	355.8	358.0	364.0	361.0	352.6	352.2	356.1
Cleaning and dyeing plants.....		146.0	141.3	139.7	141.1	142.7	144.7	147.4	146.9	144.2	150.6	154.1	153.1	146.9	149.9
Motion pictures.....		236	236	236	235	238	238	238	236	238	239	240	238	237	241
Government	5,900	5,902	5,769	5,742	5,777	6,041	5,788	5,866	5,893	5,763	5,738	5,808	5,813	5,813	5,613
Federal.....	1,890	1,926	1,802	1,800	1,804	2,101	1,823	1,863	1,892	1,900	1,905	1,909	1,898	1,902	1,827
State and local.....	4,010	3,976	3,967	3,942	3,973	3,940	3,966	4,003	4,001	3,863	3,833	3,894	3,915	3,911	3,786

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics' series of employment in nonagricultural establishments are based upon reports submitted by cooperating establishments and, therefore, differ from employment information obtained by household interviews, such as the Monthly Report on the Labor Force (table A-1), in several important respects. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' data cover all full- and part-time employees in private nonagricultural establishments who worked during or received pay for, the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month; in Federal establishments during the pay period ending just before the first of the month; and in State and local government during the pay period ending on or just before the last of the month, while the Monthly Report on the Labor Force data relate to the calendar week which contains the 8th day of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded from the BLS but not the MRLF series. These employment series have been adjusted to levels indicated by Unemployment Insurance Agencies and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance data through 1947, and have been

carried forward from 1947 bench-mark levels, thereby providing consistent series. Revised data in all except the first four columns will be identified by an asterisk (*) for the first month's publication of such data.

² Includes ordnance and accessories; lumber and wood products (except furniture); furniture and fixtures; stone, clay, and glass products; primary metal industries; fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment); machinery (except electrical); electrical machinery; transportation equipment; instruments and related products; and miscellaneous manufacturing industries.

³ Includes food and kindred products; tobacco manufactures; textile-mill products; apparel and other finished textile products; paper and allied products; printing, publishing, and allied industries; chemicals and allied products; products of petroleum and coal; rubber products; and leather and leather products.

⁴ Data by region, from January 1940, are available upon request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE A-3: Production Workers in Mining and Manufacturing Industries¹

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	1950						1949						Annual average		
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1949	1948
Mining:															
Metal.....		81.3	81.4	81.1	80.7	80.9	72.6	54.1	80.9	82.8	83.3	89.5	90.9	83.3	88.6
Iron.....		29.3	29.5	29.3	29.8	30.2	24.7	6.0	32.2	32.6	32.8	33.4	33.1	29.5	32.6
Copper.....		19.9	19.8	19.8	19.6	19.2	18.8	18.8	18.6	18.6	18.8	19.8	20.5	19.4	20.0
Lead and zinc.....		16.6	16.6	16.5	16.0	16.1	15.0	14.7	15.6	16.5	16.1	19.1	19.8	18.1	19.2
Anthracite.....		70.8	72.3	71.4	71.1	71.8	72.1	71.6	71.1	71.2	71.0	72.7	72.9	72.8	75.8
Bituminous-coal.....		381.3	385.7	65.8	328.3	397.9	380.7	77.0	395.0	399.7	383.1	404.5	411.7	379.1	419.1
Crude petroleum and natural gas production:															
Petroleum and natural gas production.....		123.3	123.2	123.3	122.9	123.9	124.7	126.1	128.7	131.6	131.1	130.0	126.5	127.1	127.1
Nonmetallic mining and quarrying.....		82.5	78.5	77.3	76.7	80.1	82.8	83.2	85.8	86.0	85.8	85.9	85.6	83.7	87.6
Manufacturing.....	11,755	11,592	11,551	11,460	11,449	11,504	11,289	11,368	11,775	11,561	11,211	11,837	11,324	11,597	12,717
Durable goods.....	6,384	6,191	6,071	5,982	6,000	5,861	5,719	5,651	6,090	5,947	5,894	6,022	6,057	6,096	6,909
Nondurable goods.....	5,371	5,401	5,480	5,478	5,449	5,543	5,570	5,717	5,715	5,614	5,317	5,815	5,267	5,501	5,808
Ordnance and accessories.....	18.3	18.3	17.9	17.4	16.9	17.1	17.3	18.1	18.2	18.2	19.3	20.7	21.3	20.2	23.9
Food and kindred products.....	1,090	1,065	1,060	1,055	1,078	1,139	1,185	1,273	1,340	1,350	1,224	1,153	1,095	1,172	1,197
Meat products.....	223.5	228.6	231.5	243.7	251.0	242.2	236.0	230.4	228.5	227.2	225.6	220.6	231.3	215.8	215.8
Dairy products.....	102.8	99.0	96.7	95.1	96.1	98.9	104.0	110.4	116.3	122.1	122.1	122.1	115.3	107.9	111.0
Canning and preserving.....	120.5	109.5	109.8	116.5	135.6	159.8	232.2	321.5	339.1	220.1	169.0	130.9	180.8	195.3	195.3
Grain-mill products.....	91.4	92.1	92.0	93.2	95.0	96.9	100.3	98.0	96.9	96.8	94.3	93.8	95.3	93.6	93.6
Bakery products.....	190.2	189.1	187.6	186.1	189.8	194.7	199.4	196.4	194.1	190.5	191.7	187.8	191.2	195.5	195.5
Sugar.....	22.6	22.9	22.7	24.9	38.1	44.7	43.5	26.7	25.7	23.7	22.8	22.6	28.5	30.0	30.0
Confectionery and related products.....	75.0	78.8	80.9	84.6	90.5	95.3	99.2	91.5	78.7	69.9	71.1	73.6	83.0	85.9	85.9
Beverages.....	140.5	139.4	134.4	135.3	141.3	146.2	149.2	157.3	164.7	168.5	152.4	148.0	150.6	161.4	161.4
Miscellaneous food products.....	98.5	100.7	99.4	98.1	101.3	106.1	108.9	107.8	105.8	105.2	104.0	102.7	103.8	108.1	108.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	75	76	78	81	85	87	89	92	94	91	82	84	82	87	93
Cigarettes.....	22.9	22.7	22.8	23.8	24.3	24.4	24.4	24.5	24.4	24.4	24.4	24.3	24.3	24.1	24.3
Cigars.....	37.2	38.7	40.2	40.3	41.2	43.6	43.6	43.1	42.3	40.9	42.4	41.3	42.4	46.2	46.2
Tobacco and snuff.....	11.0	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.5	11.4	11.7	11.6	11.7	11.0	11.4	11.0	11.5	12.2	12.2
Tobacco stemming and redrying.....	4.7	5.1	6.4	9.7	9.5	9.2	11.9	14.9	12.9	5.7	5.6	5.8	9.0	10.2	10.2
Textile-mill products.....	1,160	1,172	1,183	1,183	1,177	1,187	1,184	1,168	1,132	1,092	1,058	1,083	1,087	1,136	1,275
Yarn and thread mills.....	144.8	149.0	149.4	148.5	148.5	147.0	144.4	139.5	133.0	126.6	131.9	132.6	110.3	168.5	168.5
Broad-woven fabric mills.....	572.5	574.0	570.5	567.9	573.9	571.8	564.5	547.0	530.1	518.0	524.7	526.4	551.4	615.3	615.3
Knitting mills.....	218.0	221.3	222.5	222.8	226.6	226.6	229.7	226.7	219.2	210.8	199.7	202.9	202.3	213.4	231.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	78.5	79.8	80.3	79.9	80.5	80.0	78.0	76.0	73.2	71.9	74.0	76.2	76.9	80.4	80.4
Carpets, rugs, other floor coverings.....	53.5	53.1	52.8	51.8	51.3	50.4	49.7	48.1	47.5	43.5	49.2	50.8	51.2	57.2	57.2
Other textile-mill products.....	104.4	106.2	107.8	105.8	105.7	105.2	105.1	102.6	97.7	97.9	100.5	98.9	102.8	121.7	121.7
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	968	1,003	1,058	1,065	1,032	1,040	1,028	1,083	1,082	1,040	942	959	956	1,022	1,049
Men's and boys' suits and coats.....	131.8	135.3	135.2	130.3	127.3	117.6	128.6	133.4	130.6	115.9	121.5	117.7	128.1	140.1	140.1
Men's and boys' furnishings and work clothing.....	240.5	244.5	243.6	240.9	246.8	251.3	252.4	246.2	235.4	221.4	236.3	239.1	239.8	250.7	250.7
Women's outerwear.....	270.9	305.3	315.2	302.4	296.1	279.5	308.3	318.5	306.3	263.3	257.6	257.0	294.3	308.7	308.7
Women's, children's undergarments.....	95.5	97.1	96.5	92.5	94.5	98.2	97.5	94.1	88.6	81.7	83.5	84.5	89.4	88.7	88.7
Millinery.....	18.1	23.6	23.4	21.4	19.4	15.6	20.9	21.2	20.3	17.7	14.7	17.6	19.5	20.2	20.2
Children's outerwear.....	57.8	62.5	62.7	59.7	58.7	60.1	62.8	62.3	61.9	58.4	57.3	52.4	58.0	54.7	54.7
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel.....	72.5	73.1	72.1	69.1	78.7	84.2	86.4	83.8	79.3	72.9	74.5	71.8	76.5	78.5	78.5
Other fabricated textile products.....	115.4	116.9	116.2	115.9	118.3	121.6	126.1	122.0	117.8	110.8	113.9	115.4	115.8	107.5	107.5
Lumber and wood products (except furniture).....	723	693	677	652	642	682	692	689	684	686	676	686	672	676	752
Logging camps and contractors.....	52.3	52.8	45.0	40.9	57.2	59.6	59.8	55.3	58.6	58.7	60.1	59.7	57.6	69.5	69.5
Sawmills and planing mills.....	413.0	400.8	385.7	381.1	403.5	412.6	413.8	416.0	414.5	407.1	410.3	398.5	401.3	442.0	442.0
Millwork, plywood, and prefabricated structural wood products.....	104.7	101.9	101.2	101.6	101.9	100.7	98.1	95.4	94.6	91.9	93.7	91.9	95.7	105.0	105.0
Wooden containers.....	68.9	67.8	67.6	67.2	68.1	67.4	66.8	66.6	66.6	66.3	68.5	68.4	67.9	76.0	76.0
Miscellaneous wood products.....	54.0	53.5	52.4	51.2	51.5	51.4	50.9	51.0	52.1	51.9	53.0	53.3	53.1	59.2	59.2
Furniture and fixtures.....	300	303	301	297	289	289	283	284	277	263	253	257	259	272	306
Household furniture.....	222.1	220.9	218.2	211.7	211.0	206.5	205.6	198.8	187.0	179.3	181.1	183.0	194.8	221.6	221.6
Other furniture and fixtures.....	80.9	80.0	78.7	77.6	78.1	76.6	78.3	77.7	75.8	74.1	75.9	76.4	77.0	84.1	84.1

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE A-3: Production Workers in Mining and Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	1950					1949								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1949	1948
Manufacturing—Continued															
Paper and allied products.....	391	391	389	386	385	390	393	392	384	371	365	369	372	382	405
Pulp, paper and paperboard mills.....		200.6	200.3	199.5	199.2	200.2	200.6	199.6	197.0	190.5	188.2	191.7	193.4	197.6	210.8
Paperboard containers and boxes.....		103.4	102.6	101.4	101.4	105.3	107.7	106.4	101.9	97.4	93.3	94.2	94.3	99.6	104.6
Other paper and allied products.....		86.5	86.1	85.4	84.2	84.8	84.8	85.8	81.8	83.4	83.1	83.3	84.2	85.2	89.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	501	497	497	495	493	501	500	500	495	486	485	494	494	495	501
Newspapers.....		147.6	146.5	145.3	142.0	145.2	145.0	144.4	143.8	141.4	140.9	141.9	141.0	141.2	133.5
Periodicals.....		35.0	35.2	35.1	34.5	34.8	35.0	35.7	35.8	35.6	35.2	35.0	36.2	36.0	37.3
Books.....		34.9	35.2	34.9	35.0	35.8	36.5	36.5	36.3	33.9	33.8	37.1	37.2	36.4	38.6
Commercial printing.....		164.9	165.3	164.6	167.2	167.8	165.1	166.4	160.7	162.4	163.8	162.3	164.4	165.5	
Lithographing.....		30.9	31.1	30.8	30.7	32.7	32.8	32.5	31.8	31.2	30.8	31.1	31.5	31.9	35.1
Other printing and publishing.....		83.4	83.5	84.1	83.9	85.1	85.0	84.5	84.5	83.5	82.1	85.4	85.5	85.3	91.0
Chemicals and allied products.....	482	490	487	485	480	484	485	488	478	458	453	464	476	485	520
Industrial inorganic chemicals.....		52.8	52.3	52.2	50.2	51.3	51.2	51.5	49.9	49.8	50.7	52.3	52.6	52.3	54.7
Industrial organic chemicals.....		145.9	144.9	144.0	143.7	143.7	142.9	141.4	139.8	135.2	135.8	139.1	141.8	145.8	164.4
Drugs and medicines.....		60.6	58.1	58.7	61.7	61.9	61.5	61.6	60.7	60.1	59.2	59.9	59.8	60.8	59.9
Paints, pigments, and fillers.....		45.1	44.9	44.7	43.7	43.6	43.8	43.9	42.3	41.8	41.0	42.6	43.4	43.3	46.9
Fertilizers.....		35.6	34.9	32.5	26.5	24.9	24.6	26.1	26.2	24.7	24.0	24.9	30.7	28.6	30.2
Vegetable and animal oils and fats.....		42.8	44.9	45.8	49.0	51.9	53.1	54.6	49.1	38.5	38.3	38.7	40.4	46.1	46.6
Other chemicals and allied products.....		106.7	106.6	106.7	104.9	106.2	108.2	109.2	109.1	108.0	105.7	106.3	107.3	108.4	117.6
Products of petroleum and coal.....	178	176	182	183	184	185	188	185	189	190	189	189	188	188	192
Petroleum refining.....		135.5	142.7	144.0	145.4	145.7	147.6	148.4	149.2	149.9	150.3	149.6	148.5	148.8	148.9
Coke and hydrocarbons.....		17.9	17.0	16.8	17.4	17.6	15.9	10.9	16.7	17.0	17.3	18.0	18.1	16.9	17.5
Other petroleum and coal products.....		22.3	21.8	21.8	21.3	22.1	24.1	25.3	23.5	22.9	21.4	21.6	21.8	22.0	25.3
Rubber products.....	194	190	189	188	187	187	186	187	167	180	177	181	185	186	200
Tires and inner tubes.....		84.0	83.4	83.1	82.6	82.1	81.3	81.1	64.3	80.9	82.0	86.3	87.2	83.6	96.2
Rubber footwear.....		19.3	19.4	18.8	20.1	22.1	22.2	21.5	21.1	20.3	20.2	19.8	20.5	21.6	24.6
Other rubber products.....		86.9	86.2	86.3	84.5	83.1	82.8	84.4	81.4	78.6	74.5	75.3	77.2	80.9	88.1
Leather and leather products.....	332	341	357	357	348	343	332	349	354	356	342	339	332	347	368
Leather.....		44.9	45.4	45.5	45.0	44.9	45.2	44.9	44.6	43.8	43.1	44.5	44.5	45.1	49.5
Footwear (except rubber).....		221.6	231.5	234.5	231.4	223.7	208.0	224.3	230.2	234.2	226.3	222.6	215.7	226.2	234.8
Other leather products.....		74.3	77.3	76.7	71.9	74.2	78.5	79.4	78.8	77.5	73.0	72.1	72.2	75.8	83.5
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	428	420	410	408	403	412	411	411	414	412	400	409	414	416	448
Glass and glass products.....		112.7	108.8	108.2	106.2	107.1	107.7	107.5	106.9	106.6	101.1	105.4	105.9	106.8	119.6
Cement, hydraulic.....		35.7	34.8	35.0	35.8	36.4	34.8	34.8	36.5	36.7	36.9	36.6	36.2	36.0	35.5
Structural clay products.....		69.3	68.7	68.3	68.6	70.5	69.7	71.0	72.1	72.1	72.1	72.8	72.5	72.5	76.5
Pottery and related products.....		52.8	52.7	52.2	50.7	51.6	52.2	51.7	50.4	49.7	46.3	50.2	52.3	52.2	55.5
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products.....		73.2	71.0	71.3	69.5	73.1	73.9	74.6	74.9	73.5	71.5	71.2	71.2	74.4	76.4
Other stone, clay, and glass products.....		76.1	74.1	73.2	72.6	73.7	72.5	71.1	72.8	72.9	72.1	73.2	75.7	75.6	84.6
Primary metal industries.....	1,024	1,007	982	978	963	955	743	559	938	932	934	971	991	940	1,083
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....		522.1	506.4	512.3	510.5	506.6	324.8	130.3	498.7	497.6	505.8	523.0	533.9	476.7	536.8
Iron and steel foundries.....		188.0	182.0	177.1	172.0	172.2	169.4	171.9	173.4	177.3	175.9	184.0	186.3	188.9	230.9
Primary smelting and refining of non-ferrous metals.....		45.5	45.7	45.3	42.5	41.2	38.3	39.4	41.8	41.4	42.3	44.9	45.4	43.3	46.8
Rolling, drawing, and alloying of non-ferrous metals.....		77.1	76.5	75.0	73.7	72.8	62.6	70.0	67.2	63.8	62.4	64.4	67.3	70.6	86.0
Nonferrous foundries.....		70.7	69.8	67.8	66.0	65.9	62.4	64.1	62.0	59.5	58.7	59.5	59.9	63.3	73.2
Other primary metal industries.....		103.4	101.2	100.0	97.9	95.8	85.0	83.5	95.1	92.4	88.4	95.2	98.2	97.1	109.1
Fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment).....	735	721	709	698	693	698	666	677	708	688	671	679	683	701	812
Tin cans and other tinware.....		39.0	38.0	36.3	35.9	36.6	38.2	40.6	43.2	43.6	41.8	41.0	38.3	39.9	42.2
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware.....		129.2	127.6	123.7	121.2	119.3	115.6	116.3	113.7	111.4	109.2	113.8	116.7	118.4	131.6
Heating apparatus (except electric) and plumbers' supplies.....		117.5	114.0	112.3	107.4	111.1	113.0	116.2	109.6	99.7	91.8	93.6	97.2	106.0	137.1
Fabricated structural metal products.....		145.6	142.8	140.6	141.5	142.2	133.6	129.0	155.8	155.4	155.0	156.0	155.8	152.3	168.7
Metal stamping, coating, and engraving.....		134.7	131.4	130.4	129.6	124.8	119.8	127.2	129.8	124.9	121.5	120.7	117.9	125.8	148.6
Other fabricated metal products.....		154.7	155.5	155.1	157.0	153.7	145.8	148.0	156.1	152.5	151.5	154.3	157.3	159.0	183.8
Machinery (except electrical).....	1,014	1,002	981	960	937	929	908	922	935	927	939	977	1,014	1,001	1,203
Engines and turbines.....		53.4	51.1	48.9	48.8	48.0	48.4	46.7	49.3	49.0	50.7	53.2	56.4	53.9	63.9
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....		141.6	139.3	137.4	133.2	130.6	125.0	127.8	139.9	140.4	139.8	145.2	148.0	142.4	151.7
Construction and mining machinery.....		68.4	68.2	66.5	64.4	63.7	62.3	63.7	62.3	64.2	67.7	72.5	76.0	72.4	91.1
Metalworking machinery.....		155.6	152.1	149.2	146.5	146.4	145.9	148.0	149.1	146.9	149.5	155.8	161.1	157.9	186.6
Special industry machinery (except metalworking machinery).....		121.0	119.2	117.7	116.8	117.3	117.4	119.3	121.8	122.6	124.0	129.2	134.9	131.1	158.6
General industrial machinery.....		125.2	122.7	121.6	120.4	121.2	121.2	123.3	124.8	124.5	129.3	134.4	132.3	134.3	154.3
Office and store machines and devices.....		73.0	71.8	70.5	69.9	71.1	72.2	73.5	73.8	71.7	72.5	74.7	75.3	75.4	93.0
Service industry and household machines.....		143.5	138.0	132.6	124.0	118.7	109.1	107.9	101.9	98.3	98.5	104.5	107.5	115.4	156.3
Miscellaneous machinery parts.....		120.4	118.2	115.7	112.5	111.5	106.8	112.2	112.1	109.8	110.6	112.6	120.6	120.4	147.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A-3: Production Workers in Mining and Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry group and industry	1950					1949									Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1949	1948	
Manufacturing—Continued																
Electrical machinery.....	606	595	580	573	561	559	546	548	531	507	505	518	538	552	656	
Electrical generating, transmission, distribution, and industrial apparatus.....		216.6	212.4	211.4	207.8	207.6	202.4	202.8	200.8	196.5	195.6	200.1	209.1	210.7	251.4	
Electrical equipment for vehicles.....		52.5	50.9	50.7	50.4	49.8	43.8	50.5	49.6	47.0	45.8	46.3	48.1	49.0	54.6	
Communication equipment.....		217.2	211.3	207.3	202.5	200.6	200.4	193.4	182.4	173.4	175.5	181.4	185.4	191.8	224.4	
Electrical appliances, lamps, and miscellaneous products.....		109.0	105.3	103.3	100.6	100.8	99.3	101.0	97.9	90.1	88.4	90.6	95.1	100.8	125.5	
Transportation equipment.....	1,000	895	879	872	978	896	898	986	1,017	998	1,014	995	955	987	1,031	
Automobiles.....		590.8	575.5	567.1	675.4	585.1	582.1	666.1	688.3	678.0	669.5	646.1	600.5	643.5	657.6	
Aircraft and parts.....		185.2	184.1	184.0	184.3	184.0	183.7	187.9	190.7	185.3	192.4	187.1	186.5	188.5	166.6	
Aircraft.....		123.4	122.2	122.4	122.9	122.7	122.3	125.4	127.6	128.6	129.5	127.2	126.7	126.6	111.5	
Aircraft engines and parts.....		36.3	36.1	35.7	35.8	36.0	36.7	37.6	37.9	31.9	37.9	38.5	39.0	37.4	33.6	
Aircraft propellers and parts.....		5.3	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.2	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.3	4.9	
Other aircraft parts and equipment.....		20.2	20.4	20.5	20.2	19.9	19.3	19.4	19.7	19.6	19.5	16.0	15.6	19.2	16.6	
Ship and boat building and repairing.....		66.8	66.7	67.6	66.1	69.0	71.3	68.5	74.0	79.5	85.5	88.2	92.3	85.0	123.2	
Ship building and repairing.....		55.6	56.7	58.5	57.5	60.5	62.8	60.2	65.4	70.4	75.7	77.8	81.3	75.0	109.3	
Railroad equipment.....		43.5	44.2	45.4	46.1	49.9	50.6	53.2	56.2	46.5	58.5	65.6	67.4	61.0	69.6	
Other transportation equipment.....		8.6	8.0	7.5	6.1	8.1	10.1	10.5	9.9	8.8	7.7	7.8	8.7	9.2	14.5	
Instruments and related products.....	175	174	172	171	172	173	174	174	172	169	170	176	177	177	200	
Ophthalmic goods.....		20.2	20.2	20.3	20.2	20.3	20.8	20.8	21.0	21.1	21.2	22.1	22.5	21.9	23.8	
Photographic apparatus.....		34.9	34.6	34.5	34.7	35.3	35.3	35.8	35.3	36.0	37.5	38.7	39.5	38.4	45.4	
Watches and clocks.....		24.1	24.4	24.7	25.6	26.8	27.2	27.6	27.1	26.0	25.0	26.0	26.0	26.6	35.0	
Professional and scientific instruments.....		94.6	93.1	91.8	91.4	91.0	90.3	89.4	88.3	86.3	86.7	88.7	89.4	90.1	95.4	
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	361	363	362	356	345	361	381	383	366	347	313	333	333	354	394	
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware.....		42.3	42.7	43.7	43.8	45.4	46.8	46.8	44.6	42.2	39.1	43.1	43.9	45.0	49.6	
Toys and sporting goods.....		60.7	58.2	54.5	52.3	57.4	67.3	67.8	63.4	61.3	54.9	56.6	56.8	59.8	71.5	
Costume jewelry, buttons, notions.....		44.3	47.6	50.0	46.9	48.2	53.1	53.8	52.2	48.5	43.8	42.3	41.0	48.3	53.9	
Other miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....		215.2	213.0	207.5	202.2	209.5	213.8	214.5	205.5	194.5	175.2	190.5	191.5	200.5	219.4	

¹ Data are based upon reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time production and related workers who worked during, or received pay for, the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Data have been adjusted to levels indicated by Unemployment Insurance Agencies and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance data through 1947 and have been carried forward from 1947 bench-mark levels, thereby

providing consistent series. Comparable data from January 1947 are available upon request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Such requests should specify the series for which data are desired. Revised data in all except the first four columns will be identified by an asterisk (*) for the first month's publication of such data.

TABLE A-4: Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Weekly Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average=100]

Period	Employment	Weekly pay roll	Period	Employment	Weekly pay roll	Period	Employment	Weekly pay roll
1939: A average.....	100.0	100.0	1947: Average.....	156.2	325.9	1949: October.....	138.8	320.9
1940: A average.....	107.5	113.6	1948: Average.....	155.2	351.4	November.....	137.8	313.9
1941: A average.....	132.8	164.9	1949: Average.....	141.6	325.3	December.....	140.4	329.3
1942: A average.....	156.9	241.5	1949: May.....	138.2	312.8	1950: January.....	139.8	329.2
1943: A average.....	183.3	331.1	June.....	138.4	315.7	February.....	139.9	330.0
1944: A average.....	178.3	343.7	July.....	136.9	312.8	March.....	141.0	333.3
1945: A average.....	157.0	293.5	August.....	141.1	323.0	April.....	141.5	337.1
1946: A average.....	147.8	271.1	September.....	143.7	335.1	May.....	143.5	-----

¹See footnote 1, table A-3.

TABLE A-5: Federal Civilian Employment by Branch and Agency Group

Year and month	All branches	Executive ¹				Legislative	Judicial
		Total	Defense agencies ²	Post Office Department	All other agencies		
Total (including areas outside continental United States)							
1948.....	2,066,152	2,055,397	916,358	470,975	688,064	7,273	3,482
1949.....	2,100,407	2,089,151	899,186	511,083	678,882	7,661	3,595
1949: May.....	2,095,814	2,084,764	934,969	476,440	673,355	7,478	3,572
1949: June.....	2,106,927	2,095,881	935,966	479,722	680,193	7,480	3,566
1949: July.....	2,114,767	2,103,698	934,661	482,447	686,590	7,498	3,571
1949: August.....	2,106,242	2,095,156	917,001	485,196	692,959	7,507	3,579
1949: September.....	2,094,877	2,083,448	902,401	491,408	689,639	7,842	3,587
1949: October.....	2,081,793	2,070,269	886,890	494,087	689,292	7,924	3,600
1949: November.....	2,047,312	2,035,748	860,286	496,038	679,424	7,937	3,627
1949: December.....	1,999,681	1,988,079	814,548	497,814	675,417	7,992	3,610
1950: January.....	2,288,367	2,276,635	799,888	804,038	672,709	7,954	3,778
1950: February.....	1,976,093	1,964,246	791,048	503,106	670,092	8,063	3,784
1950: March.....	1,970,815	1,959,063	782,788	503,815	672,460	7,986	3,766
1950: April.....	1,970,603	1,958,806	776,324	504,420	678,062	8,048	3,749
1950: May.....	2,110,903	2,099,036	773,711	503,916	821,409	8,102	3,765
1950: June.....	2,061,939	2,050,132	775,769	501,911	772,452	8,048	3,759
Continental United States							
1948.....	1,846,840	1,836,158	734,484	469,279	632,395	7,273	3,409
1949.....	1,921,903	1,910,724	761,362	509,184	640,178	7,661	3,518
1949: May.....	1,918,278	1,907,309	787,045	477,940	642,324	7,480	3,489
1949: June.....	1,929,461	1,918,469	790,087	480,651	647,731	7,498	3,494
1949: July.....	1,925,251	1,914,242	777,454	483,390	653,398	7,507	3,502
1949: August.....	1,920,248	1,908,896	770,034	489,562	649,300	7,842	3,510
1949: September.....	1,912,227	1,900,780	760,059	492,227	648,494	7,924	3,523
1949: October.....	1,882,859	1,871,372	738,195	494,178	638,999	7,937	3,550
1949: November.....	1,843,246	1,831,721	700,374	495,963	635,384	7,992	3,633
1949: December.....	2,134,592	2,122,937	688,599	801,008	633,330	7,954	3,701
1950: January.....	1,825,245	1,813,475	683,018	501,257	629,200	8,063	3,707
1950: February.....	1,820,625	1,808,950	675,316	501,969	631,665	7,986	3,689
1950: March.....	1,821,470	1,809,750	670,546	502,571	636,633	8,048	3,672
1950: April.....	1,959,746	1,947,956	668,180	502,025	777,751	8,102	3,688
1950: May.....	1,910,210	1,898,480	670,049	500,017	728,414	8,048	3,682

¹ Includes Government corporations (including Federal Reserve Banks and mixed-ownership banks of the Farm Credit Administration) and other activities performed by Government personnel in establishments such as navy yards, arsenals, hospitals, and force-account construction. Data, which are based mainly on reports to the Civil Service Commission, are adjusted to maintain continuity of coverage and definition with information for former periods.

² Covers civilian employees of the Department of Defense (Secretary of Defense, Army, Air Force, and Navy), Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, the Panama Canal, Philippine Alien Property Administration, Philippine War Damage Commission, Selective Service System, National Security Resources Board, National Security Council, War Claims Commission.

TABLE A-6: Federal Civilian Pay Rolls by Branch and Agency Group

[In thousands]

Year and month	All branches	Executive ¹			Legislative	Judicial	
		Total	Defense agencies ²	Post Office Department			All other agencies
Total (including areas outside continental United States)							
1948.....	\$6,223,486	\$6,176,414	\$2,660,770	\$1,399,072	\$2,116,572	\$30,891	\$16,181
1949.....	6,699,270	6,647,671	2,782,266	1,558,741	2,306,664	34,437	17,162
1949: May.....	562,080	557,889	242,059	122,930	192,900	2,762	1,429
June.....	574,990	570,757	247,993	124,673	198,091	2,792	1,441
July.....	540,440	536,210	223,458	124,914	187,838	2,884	1,346
August.....	574,046	569,536	239,178	125,794	204,564	3,005	1,505
September.....	557,436	553,011	230,016	125,064	197,931	2,968	1,457
October.....	539,248	534,992	222,221	125,164	187,607	2,936	1,320
November.....	567,296	562,539	230,206	131,577	200,756	3,137	1,620
December.....	610,344	605,564	218,404	186,462	200,698	3,160	1,620
1950: January.....	553,090	548,372	214,670	132,177	201,525	3,148	1,570
February.....	521,041	516,525	198,064	131,085	187,376	3,083	1,433
March.....	583,186	578,339	225,091	133,461	219,787	3,222	1,625
April.....	539,430	534,757	192,199	131,117	211,441	3,232	1,441
May.....	583,005	578,116	221,623	129,985	226,508	3,246	1,643
Continental United States							
1948.....	\$5,731,115	\$5,684,494	\$2,272,001	\$1,394,037	\$2,018,456	\$30,891	\$15,730
1949.....	6,234,345	6,183,230	2,442,580	1,552,992	2,187,658	34,437	16,678
1949: April.....	522,002	517,853	212,447	122,474	182,932	2,762	1,387
May.....	533,002	528,810	216,532	124,210	188,068	2,792	1,400
June.....	500,642	496,451	194,463	124,446	177,542	2,884	1,307
July.....	532,977	528,509	209,583	125,321	193,605	3,005	1,463
August.....	518,493	514,109	202,222	124,596	187,291	2,968	1,416
September.....	501,648	497,431	195,446	124,700	177,285	2,936	1,281
October.....	523,694	518,979	196,868	131,088	191,023	3,137	1,578
November.....	573,588	568,849	193,321	185,796	189,732	3,160	1,579
December.....	516,707	512,032	189,825	131,669	190,538	3,148	1,527
1950: February.....	488,138	483,662	176,371	130,599	176,692	3,083	1,393
March.....	546,866	542,061	201,071	132,969	208,021	3,222	1,583
April.....	506,707	502,074	171,555	130,629	199,890	3,232	1,401
May.....	545,682	540,838	197,839	129,498	213,501	3,246	1,598

¹ See footnote 1, table A-5.² See footnote 2, table A-5.

TABLE A-7: Civilian Government Employment and Pay Rolls in Washington, D. C.,¹ by Branch and Agency Group

Year and month	Total government	District of Columbia government	Federal						Legislative	Judicial
			Total	Executive ²						
				All agencies	Defense agencies ³	Post Office Department	All other agencies			
Employment										
1948.....	231,239	18,774	212,465	204,601	68,409	7,826	128,266	7,273	591	
1949.....	241,812	19,511	222,301	214,026	70,461	8,164	135,401	7,661	614	
1949: May.....	242,370	19,144	223,226	215,133	72,545	7,755	134,833	7,480	613	
June.....	243,896	19,767	224,129	216,019	72,440	7,749	135,830	7,498	612	
July.....	245,067	19,708	225,359	217,237	72,521	7,770	136,946	7,507	615	
August.....	244,743	19,736	225,007	216,546	71,246	7,784	137,516	7,842	619	
September.....	242,426	19,416	223,010	214,470	69,448	7,773	137,249	7,924	616	
October.....	240,886	19,504	221,382	212,828	68,069	7,749	137,010	7,937	617	
November.....	240,095	20,420	219,675	211,064	66,121	7,891	137,052	7,992	619	
December.....	244,467	20,031	224,436	215,840	65,860	12,888	137,092	7,954	642	
1950: January.....	238,935	20,110	218,825	210,106	65,699	7,859	136,548	8,063	656	
February.....	238,713	20,245	218,468	209,817	65,456	7,643	136,718	7,986	655	
March.....	238,933	20,168	218,765	210,056	65,445	7,786	136,825	8,048	661	
April.....	239,754	20,011	219,743	210,980	65,380	7,853	137,747	8,102	661	
May.....	239,887	20,048	219,839	211,130	65,603	7,826	137,701	8,048	661	
Pay rolls (in thousands)										
1948.....	\$817,554	\$54,248	\$763,306	\$729,791	\$233,589	\$31,298	\$464,904	\$30,891	\$2,624	
1949.....	906,842	60,602	846,240	808,918	253,433	33,458	521,997	34,437	2,885	
1949: May.....	74,803	4,676	70,127	67,128	21,020	2,670	43,438	2,762	237	
June.....	74,475	4,748	69,727	66,695	20,080	2,678	43,937	2,792	240	
July.....	72,686	3,775	68,911	65,793	21,238	2,691	41,864	2,884	234	
August.....	80,173	4,185	75,988	72,733	23,851	2,760	46,122	3,005	250	
September.....	77,040	5,379	71,661	68,457	20,921	2,737	44,799	2,968	236	
October.....	73,815	5,187	68,628	65,458	20,137	2,685	42,636	2,936	234	
November.....	79,552	5,526	74,026	70,621	21,561	2,809	46,251	3,137	268	
December.....	80,004	5,503	74,501	71,068	21,274	3,829	45,965	3,190	273	
1950: January.....	80,747	5,531	75,216	71,787	22,673	2,868	46,246	3,148	281	
February.....	73,142	5,218	67,924	64,686	19,387	2,787	42,412	3,093	255	
March.....	83,331	5,699	77,632	74,132	22,744	2,926	48,462	3,222	278	
April.....	74,469	5,029	69,440	65,944	20,416	2,786	42,742	3,232	264	
May.....	84,380	5,680	78,700	75,172	23,033	2,832	49,307	3,246	282	

¹ 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.

² See footnote 1, table A-5.
³ See footnote 2, table A-5.

TABLE A-8: Personnel and Pay of the Military Branch of the Federal Government

[In thousands]

Year and month	Personnel (average for year or as of first of month) ¹						Pay (all types—for entire month)					
	Total	Army	Air Force	Navy	Marine Corps	Coast Guard	Total	Army	Air Force	Navy	Marine Corps	Coast Guard
1948.....	1,492	964	(*)	424	84	20	\$3,442,962	\$2,136,384	(*)	\$1,077,694	\$173,368	\$55,516
1949.....	1,642	672	418	443	86	23	3,648,239	2,343,312	(*)	1,067,697	177,102	60,128
1949: May.....	1,650	673	418	449	87	23	284,790	181,962	(*)	83,572	14,318	4,938
June.....	1,639	664	418	447	87	23	291,583	186,302	(*)	86,706	13,655	4,920
July.....	1,638	659	419	450	86	24	302,994	113,244	\$77,176	92,881	14,860	4,833
August.....	1,638	655	423	451	86	24	298,893	112,192	78,881	87,722	15,011	5,087
September.....	1,630	656	420	444	86	24	304,426	116,312	78,679	88,911	15,221	5,303
October.....	1,614	656	418	432	84	24	331,472	123,001	89,342	96,199	15,575	5,355
November.....	1,605	657	417	425	83	23	328,637	123,380	88,346	96,381	15,192	5,338
December.....	1,600	658	416	420	82	24	334,301	124,985	92,455	94,673	16,652	5,536
1950: January.....	1,573	639	413	416	81	24	327,527	120,331	87,414	90,169	14,997	5,616
February.....	1,534	613	415	402	80	24	317,939	118,830	87,344	90,802	15,685	5,678
March.....	1,510	605	415	389	78	23	314,824	117,266	87,500	89,426	15,300	5,332
April.....	1,496	601	412	383	77	23	318,397	117,495	85,839	92,771	16,711	5,681
May.....	1,487	597	410	381	76	23	310,300	115,734	85,026	89,713	14,552	5,275

¹ Represents persons on active duty as of the first of the month. Reserve personnel are excluded if on inactive duty or if on active duty for only a brief training or emergency period. Persons on terminal leave were included through October 1947. Data for Army include Philippine Scouts.

² Separate figures for Army and Air Force not available. Combined data shown under Army.

TABLE A-11: Insured Unemployment Under State Unemployment Insurance Programs,¹ by Geographic Division and State

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	1950				1949								1948	
	April	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	April
Continental U. S.....	1,908.8	2,112.1	2,325.9	2,380.9	2,200.0	2,019.9	1,855.7	1,885.6	2,140.4	2,111.2	2,062.1	2,035.1	1,967.8	1,089.0
New England.....	225.1	162.5	181.5	202.8	191.2	180.9	174.9	207.9	269.9	281.4	303.4	306.3	258.1	112.2
Maine.....	22.7	17.5	19.5	21.8	20.9	16.9	11.2	12.0	16.7	16.6	19.0	21.8	19.4	11.7
New Hampshire.....	16.3	13.1	12.3	13.1	12.9	12.2	10.9	12.2	15.4	15.2	16.2	17.7	17.5	6.6
Vermont.....	4.6	4.5	5.5	6.1	5.5	4.0	3.4	3.9	5.6	5.3	5.2	5.5	5.6	2.2
Massachusetts.....	123.6	78.0	89.6	101.4	99.2	95.1	89.6	106.1	137.3	146.8	155.8	154.7	119.2	61.4
Rhode Island.....	25.9	15.4	16.3	19.2	17.1	17.4	20.2	27.5	33.2	37.7	48.4	51.7	42.1	13.9
Connecticut.....	32.0	34.0	38.3	41.2	35.6	35.3	39.6	46.2	61.7	59.8	58.8	54.9	54.3	16.4
Middle Atlantic.....	526.0	594.2	622.2	685.5	678.3	663.7	637.4	631.8	692.9	680.4	614.1	558.5	536.7	324.8
New York.....	292.2	319.3	343.1	379.1	385.9	378.3	361.3	355.5	386.4	413.7	361.0	320.0	312.9	197.0
New Jersey.....	84.9	88.3	92.1	101.5	91.4	84.4	78.5	82.1	94.5	96.7	98.2	96.6	87.3	56.8
Pennsylvania.....	148.9	186.6	187.0	204.9	201.0	201.0	197.6	194.2	212.0	170.0	154.9	141.9	136.5	71.0
East North Central.....	373.4	417.6	462.3	477.9	510.9	462.0	384.6	371.4	409.1	390.0	393.1	396.0	359.0	187.4
Ohio.....	103.5	130.9	146.9	157.4	141.6	144.9	135.2	112.9	113.5	100.8	93.4	91.4	84.9	36.5
Indiana.....	26.7	34.6	38.6	38.8	40.3	37.1	30.9	29.7	37.3	37.9	37.9	38.1	37.5	17.2
Illinois.....	148.1	133.2	148.4	158.4	141.1	133.4	134.3	149.0	166.2	160.7	159.4	148.5	121.1	76.8
Michigan.....	75.9	94.6	98.6	89.3	150.7	114.5	62.0	58.7	67.4	68.8	80.8	95.6	92.2	49.1
Wisconsin.....	19.2	24.3	29.8	34.0	37.2	32.1	22.2	21.1	24.7	21.8	21.6	22.4	23.3	7.8
West North Central.....	101.7	124.9	140.6	130.8	93.6	73.3	58.7	58.0	64.6	64.4	68.2	76.4	86.2	54.4
Minnesota.....	32.8	37.8	40.1	34.7	24.0	16.8	13.8	15.8	17.3	16.4	17.3	23.2	28.6	14.2
Iowa.....	8.9	13.5	15.8	15.2	10.0	6.6	5.0	5.5	7.3	7.5	7.5	7.9	9.5	5.1
Missouri.....	39.3	44.5	50.2	50.2	41.1	39.0	31.5	29.1	31.9	32.5	35.5	36.2	35.3	26.4
North Dakota.....	3.7	4.6	4.8	3.8	1.9	.6	.2	.2	.3	.3	.3	.5	1.4	.8
South Dakota.....	1.9	2.9	3.5	3.0	1.8	.7	.4	.4	.5	.4	.4	.5	1.0	.6
Nebraska.....	5.4	8.4	9.5	7.9	4.5	2.2	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.1	3.0	2.0
Kansas.....	9.7	13.2	16.7	16.0	10.3	7.4	6.1	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.4	6.0	7.4	5.3
South Atlantic.....	164.0	172.2	181.1	180.3	168.3	161.4	163.3	181.5	220.0	219.7	206.4	192.5	172.2	81.1
Delaware.....	2.7	3.5	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.2	3.4	3.1	3.4	2.6	2.3	2.5	2.4	1.4
Maryland.....	29.3	25.1	29.6	31.8	30.8	28.6	27.2	28.8	36.3	38.6	36.3	37.3	30.0	14.7
District of Columbia.....	5.9	6.5	6.6	5.0	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.4	5.0	4.2
Virginia.....	15.7	20.9	21.6	20.6	18.2	15.8	15.9	17.8	26.5	28.2	29.3	21.1	18.1	7.7
West Virginia.....	21.8	26.2	27.6	28.7	25.4	28.2	27.9	26.6	30.9	28.7	22.7	21.3	20.0	9.5
North Carolina.....	37.3	34.1	32.5	30.3	27.7	26.7	26.2	31.2	38.2	39.8	41.0	39.7	38.9	15.8
South Carolina.....	14.4	15.5	15.9	15.8	16.5	15.1	14.8	17.0	20.8	20.5	20.5	20.2	17.3	5.4
Georgia.....	22.8	25.0	26.5	24.7	22.2	19.5	19.0	23.5	28.1	28.4	28.2	26.8	24.0	10.9
Florida.....	14.1	15.4	17.0	19.6	19.3	20.0	24.6	28.8	31.4	28.5	21.9	19.2	16.5	11.5
East South Central.....	105.4	116.8	122.9	113.2	100.2	101.1	97.4	98.4	114.1	113.3	114.4	111.7	109.4	49.8
Kentucky.....	25.2	29.7	30.7	26.7	25.2	26.6	25.8	25.2	27.6	27.4	28.0	26.4	24.4	10.4
Tennessee.....	40.1	41.9	45.0	42.5	37.5	35.4	31.2	33.6	39.4	40.3	45.0	45.7	47.4	22.2
Alabama.....	25.9	28.3	28.6	27.1	25.6	30.1	31.5	29.6	34.5	33.5	30.3	27.7	25.6	12.0
Mississippi.....	14.2	16.9	18.6	16.9	11.9	9.0	8.9	10.0	12.6	12.1	11.1	11.9	12.0	5.2
West South Central.....	95.0	107.6	116.4	100.4	73.3	63.7	64.2	67.8	73.8	68.2	67.0	73.4	80.8	44.1
Arkansas.....	17.6	19.9	23.2	20.4	13.3	10.8	10.3	10.1	11.0	10.3	10.5	12.4	15.2	7.9
Louisiana.....	29.9	33.4	36.4	30.0	23.5	21.6	22.5	23.1	24.3	22.3	20.6	21.9	24.4	13.8
Oklahoma.....	16.9	19.2	21.7	20.1	14.8	12.7	12.2	13.0	14.6	13.2	12.9	13.0	13.5	8.6
Texas.....	30.6	35.1	35.1	29.9	21.7	18.6	19.2	21.6	24.0	22.4	23.0	26.1	27.7	13.8
Mountain.....	37.9	53.9	65.7	60.1	39.2	29.4	27.9	23.5	25.2	22.2	19.7	22.1	28.8	18.7
Montana.....	8.2	11.8	13.3	11.3	6.0	3.0	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.8	4.7	3.3
Idaho.....	5.6	9.8	12.8	11.7	7.2	3.5	2.6	2.3	1.9	1.6	1.3	2.0	3.8	2.8
Wyoming.....	2.0	3.2	3.9	3.1	1.6	.9	.7	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	1.1	.6
Colorado.....	5.6	7.0	8.6	8.5	6.1	6.7	7.4	4.0	4.9	4.6	4.8	5.3	4.8	2.8
New Mexico.....	3.4	4.4	5.0	4.3	3.2	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.3	1.8	2.1	2.6	1.5
Arizona.....	4.7	5.8	7.1	7.0	5.8	5.5	5.6	6.1	6.7	5.3	4.9	4.8	5.8	3.0
Utah.....	5.9	8.6	11.1	10.3	6.5	5.2	5.6	4.3	4.4	3.9	2.5	2.7	3.8	3.1
Nevada.....	2.5	3.3	3.9	3.9	2.8	2.4	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.7	2.2	1.6
Pacific.....	280.4	362.7	432.9	430.1	345.3	284.3	246.8	245.1	270.9	271.3	275.3	298.3	336.4	216.3
Washington.....	36.0	54.3	82.6	87.4	62.9	48.0	36.4	30.6	31.4	25.5	22.4	26.7	35.3	25.5
Oregon.....	20.6	35.0	57.1	56.8	36.3	27.7	21.1	17.7	18.1	15.2	10.2	13.4	19.7	11.8
California.....	223.8	273.4	293.2	285.9	246.1	208.6	189.3	196.8	221.4	230.6	242.7	258.2	281.4	179.0

¹ Average of weeks ended in specified months. Figures may not add to exact column totals because of rounding.

For a technical description of this series, see The April 1950 Monthly Labor Review (p. 382).*

SOURCE: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security.

B: Labor Turn-Over

TABLE B-1: Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries, by Class of Turn-Over ¹

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total accession:												
1950.....	3.6	3.2	3.6	² 3.4								
1949.....	3.2	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.5	4.4	3.5	4.4	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.2
1948.....	4.6	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	5.7	4.7	5.0	5.1	4.5	3.9	2.7
1947.....	6.0	5.0	5.1	5.1	4.8	5.5	4.9	5.3	5.9	5.5	4.8	3.6
1946.....	8.5	6.8	7.1	6.7	6.1	6.7	7.4	7.0	7.1	6.8	5.7	4.3
1945.....	7.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	7.4	8.6	8.7	6.9
1939 ³	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8
Total separation:												
1950.....	3.1	3.0	2.9	² 2.9								
1949.....	4.6	4.1	4.8	4.8	5.2	4.3	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.2
1948.....	4.3	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.3	4.5	4.4	5.1	5.4	4.5	4.1	4.3
1947.....	4.9	4.5	4.9	5.2	5.4	4.7	4.6	5.3	5.9	5.0	4.0	3.7
1946.....	6.8	6.3	6.6	6.3	6.3	5.7	5.8	6.6	6.9	6.3	4.9	4.5
1945.....	6.2	6.0	6.8	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	17.9	12.0	8.6	7.1	5.9
1939 ³	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
Quit: ⁴												
1950.....	1.1	1.0	1.2	² 1.3								
1949.....	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.8	2.1	1.5	1.2	.9
1948.....	2.6	2.5	2.8	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.4	3.9	2.8	2.2	1.7
1947.....	3.5	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.5	3.1	3.1	4.0	4.5	3.6	2.7	2.3
1946.....	4.3	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.6	5.3	5.3	4.7	3.7	3.0
1945.....	4.6	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	6.7	5.6	4.7	4.0
1939 ³9	.6	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.1	.9	.8	.7
Discharge:												
1950.....	.2	.2	.2	² .2								
1949.....	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2
1948.....	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3
1947.....	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4
1946.....	.5	.5	.4	.4	.4	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4
1945.....	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.7	.6	.7	.6	.5	.5	.4
1939 ³1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: ⁵												
1950.....	1.7	1.7	1.4	² 1.3								
1949.....	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.8	3.3	2.5	2.1	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.5	2.0
1948.....	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.4	2.2
1947.....	.9	.8	.9	1.0	1.4	1.1	1.0	.8	.9	.9	.8	.9
1946.....	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.2	.6	.7	1.0	1.0	.7	1.0
1945.....	.6	.7	.7	.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	10.7	4.5	2.3	1.7	1.3
1939 ³	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.7

¹ Month-to-month changes in total employment in manufacturing industries as indicated by labor turn-over rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and payroll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month, while the latter, for the most part, refer to a 1-week period ending nearest the 15th of the month. The turn-over sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and payroll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included. The major industries excluded are: printing and publishing; canning and preserving; women's, misses' and children's outerwear; and fertilizers. Plants on strike are also excluded.

² Preliminary figures.

³ Prior to 1943 rates relate to wage earners only.

⁴ Prior to September 1940, miscellaneous separations were included with quits.

⁵ Including temporary, indeterminate (of more than 7 days' duration) and permanent lay-offs.

TABLE B-2: Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries ¹

Industry group and industry	Total accession		Separation									
			Total		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Misc., inc. military	
	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950
<i>Manufacturing</i>												
Durable goods ²	4.0	4.2	2.8	2.9	1.3	1.1	0.2	0.2	1.2	1.5	0.1	0.1
Non-durable goods ³	2.5	2.8	3.0	2.9	1.4	1.3	.2	.2	1.3	1.3	.1	.1
Ordnance and accessories.....	1.4	3.2	.7	.9	.3	.4	.1	(4)	.2	.4	.1	.1
Food and kindred products.....	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.8	1.3	1.2	.2	.3	2.0	2.2	.1	.1
Meat products.....	3.6	4.3	5.0	4.9	1.4	1.4	.2	.3	3.3	3.1	.1	.1
Grain-mill products.....	1.6	1.2	2.2	1.9	1.1	.8	.2	.2	.9	.7	(4)	.2
Bakery products.....	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.7	1.6	1.4	.2	.4	.7	.8	.1	.1
Beverages:												
Malt liquors.....	4.0	3.4	2.1	2.5	.6	.8	.1	.1	1.3	1.5	.1	.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	1.6	1.7	2.9	3.7	1.3	1.4	.1	.1	1.4	2.1	.1	.1
Cigarettes.....	1.2	1.5	1.9	3.1	.5	.6	.1	.1	1.2	2.3	.1	.1
Cigars.....	2.0	2.0	3.7	4.3	2.0	2.0	.1	.1	1.6	2.2	(4)	(4)
Tobacco and snuff.....	.8	1.5	2.4	2.6	.7	1.0	.1	.1	1.2	1.3	.4	.2
Textile-mill products.....	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.4	1.5	1.6	.2	.2	1.7	1.5	.1	.1
Yarn and thread mills.....	2.8	3.1	3.7	3.8	1.5	1.6	.2	.2	1.7	1.8	.3	.2
Broad-woven fabric mills.....	3.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	1.7	1.8	.2	.3	1.5	1.4	.1	.1
Cotton, silk, synthetic fiber.....	2.9	3.5	3.2	3.0	1.8	1.9	.3	.3	1.0	.8	.1	(4)
Woolen and worsted.....	4.1	3.7	6.5	7.4	.8	.7	.2	.2	5.2	6.2	.3	.3
Knitting mills.....	1.0	2.7	3.4	3.3	1.5	1.6	.2	.2	1.7	1.5	(4)	(4)
Full-fashioned hosiery.....	1.4	2.2	1.8	2.2	1.4	1.4	.1	.1	.3	.6	(4)	(4)
Seamless hosiery.....	1.7	1.9	6.6	5.3	1.5	1.5	.1	.2	5.0	3.6	(4)	(4)
Knit underwear.....	2.8	3.5	2.9	3.2	1.8	2.1	.2	.3	.9	.8	(4)	(4)
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	1.2	1.9	3.2	2.3	.9	.8	.2	.2	2.0	1.2	.1	.1
Carpets, rugs, other floor coverings.....	1.3	2.3	1.1	1.4	.8	.9	.1	.1	.2	.3	(4)	.1
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	2.9	3.9	3.4	3.6	2.1	2.2	.2	.3	1.0	1.1	.1	(4)
Men's and boys' suits and coats.....	2.3	3.5	3.4	3.3	1.2	1.8	.1	.2	2.0	1.3	.1	(4)
Men's and boys' furnishings and work clothing.....	3.3	4.0	3.4	3.7	2.5	2.5	.1	.2	.7	.9	.1	.1
Lumber and wood products (except furniture).....	5.1	5.3	3.4	3.8	2.2	1.9	.2	.2	1.0	1.6	(4)	.1
Logging camps and contractors.....	9.1	13.5	4.6	12.1	3.1	4.3	.3	.4	1.0	7.3	.2	.1
Sawmills and planing mills.....	4.2	4.3	3.3	2.9	1.9	1.6	.2	.2	1.2	1.0	(4)	.1
Millwork, plywood, and prefabricated structural wood products.....	4.8	4.8	3.1	3.2	2.2	2.1	.3	.3	.6	.8	(4)	(4)
Furniture and fixtures.....	4.5	5.0	4.1	3.8	2.6	2.2	.5	.5	.9	1.0	.1	.1
Household furniture.....	4.8	5.6	4.7	4.1	3.1	2.6	.5	.6	1.0	.8	.1	.1
Other furniture and fixtures.....	3.8	3.6	2.8	3.1	1.6	1.3	.3	.2	.8	1.5	.1	.1
Paper and allied products.....	2.0	2.5	2.1	2.1	1.0	1.0	.2	.2	.7	.8	.1	.1
Pulp, paper, and paperboard mills.....	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.4	.7	.7	.1	.1	.6	.5	.1	.1
Paperboard containers and boxes.....	2.6	2.8	2.4	2.5	1.5	1.4	.2	.2	.6	.8	.1	.1
Chemicals and allied products.....	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.3	.7	.5	.2	.1	.5	.6	.1	.1
Industrial inorganic chemicals.....	1.7	1.6	1.1	1.2	.7	.6	.1	.1	.2	.4	.1	.1
Industrial organic chemicals.....	2.0	1.6	1.2	1.0	.6	.4	.1	.1	.4	.4	.1	.1
Synthetic fibers.....	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.0	.4	.4	(4)	(4)	.8	.5	.1	.1
Drugs and medicines.....	1.3	1.1	.9	.9	.6	.6	.1	(4)	.3	.3	.1	(4)
Paints, pigments, and fillers.....	2.8	2.5	1.8	1.5	1.1	.7	.4	.2	.3	.5	(4)	.1
Products of petroleum and coal.....	.9	1.3	.6	.8	.3	.3	(4)	.1	.1	.3	.2	.1
Petroleum refining.....	.6	.6	.4	.6	.2	.2	(4)	(4)	.1	.3	.1	.1
Rubber products.....	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.3	1.6	1.2	.2	.1	1.1	.9	.1	.1
Tires and inner tubes.....	2.7	1.8	1.7	1.5	.9	.7	(4)	(4)	.5	.6	.2	.2
Rubber footwear.....	2.4	2.9	4.5	3.4	2.1	1.9	.1	.1	2.2	1.2	.1	.2
Other rubber products.....	3.7	4.3	4.1	3.2	2.3	1.6	.3	.3	1.5	1.2	(4)	.1
Leather and leather products.....	2.3	2.3	3.7	3.6	1.5	1.5	.2	.2	1.7	1.7	.3	.2
Leather.....	1.4	1.7	3.6	2.6	.9	.7	.1	.1	2.5	1.6	.1	.2
Footwear (except rubber).....	2.2	2.6	4.2	3.4	1.6	1.8	.2	.3	1.9	1.0	.5	.3
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	3.7	3.3	1.9	2.3	1.0	1.0	.1	.2	.7	1.0	.1	.1
Glass and glass products.....	3.6	4.0	2.5	2.4	1.0	.9	.1	.2	1.3	1.2	.1	.1
Cement, hydraulic.....	2.0	1.2	1.0	2.0	.6	.8	.1	.2	.3	1.0	(4)	.1
Structural clay products.....	5.0	4.0	2.2	2.4	1.4	1.3	.3	.3	.4	.8	.1	(4)
Pottery and related products.....	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.2	1.3	.1	.2	.8	.4	.1	.1
Primary metal industries.....	3.3	3.1	2.2	2.3	1.0	.8	.2	.2	.8	1.1	.2	.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	2.2	2.2	1.7	1.2	.7	.6	.1	.1	.6	.3	.3	.2
Iron and steel foundries.....	5.3	5.1	3.2	3.1	1.5	1.1	.3	.3	1.3	1.6	.1	.1
Gray-iron foundries.....	4.8	4.3	3.1	4.1	1.4	1.4	.3	.3	1.2	2.2	.2	.2
Malleable-iron foundries.....	6.2	5.4	4.6	2.6	2.3	1.0	.6	.4	1.6	1.1	.1	.1
Steel foundries.....	5.5	6.6	2.0	2.0	1.1	.8	.2	.2	.6	.9	.1	.1
Primary smelting and refining of nonferrous metals:												
Primary smelting and refining of copper, lead, and zinc.....	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.3	.6	.3	.2	.4	.4	(4)	.2
Rolling, drawing, and alloying of nonferrous metals:												
Rolling, drawing, and alloying of copper.....	2.7	2.8	1.2	1.4	.8	.7	.1	.1	.2	.5	.1	.1
Nonferrous foundries.....	5.7	5.9	3.8	5.7	1.6	1.6	.4	.4	1.7	3.6	.1	.1
Other primary metal industries:												
Iron and steel forgings.....	3.8	3.9	1.8	2.3	1.0	.6	.3	.3	.5	1.3	(4)	.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		Misc. inc. military	
	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950
<i>Manufacturing—Continued</i>												
Fabricated metal products (except ordnance machinery, and transportation equipment).....	4.1	4.5	2.6	3.2	1.3	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.8	0.1	0.1
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware.....	3.7	4.2	2.7	2.7	1.3	1.0	.4	.3	.9	1.3	.1	.1
Cutlery and edge tools.....	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.6	.8	.9	.1	.2	1.3	1.4	(4)	.1
Hand tools.....	3.3	2.8	2.1	1.7	.9	.9	.2	.2	.9	.4	.1	.2
Hardware.....	4.6	5.5	3.2	3.3	1.7	1.1	.6	.4	.8	1.7	.1	.1
Heating apparatus (except electric) and plumbers' supplies.....	5.0	4.7	2.7	2.9	1.4	1.3	.3	.4	.9	1.2	.1	(4)
Sanitary ware and plumbers' supplies.....	3.4	3.4	2.2	1.9	1.3	1.2	.3	.4	.5	.3	.1	(4)
Oil burners, nonelectric heating and cooking apparatus, not elsewhere classified.....	6.8	6.0	3.1	3.7	1.5	1.3	.3	.3	1.2	2.1	.1	(4)
Fabricated structural metal products.....	3.5	4.9	2.6	3.5	1.1	.9	.2	.3	1.2	2.2	.1	.1
Metal stamping, coating, and engraving.....	5.5	5.2	2.9	2.8	1.7	1.3	.3	.2	.8	1.2	.1	.1
Machinery (except electrical).....	3.3	3.6	2.0	1.9	1.0	.9	.2	.2	.7	.7	.1	.1
Engines and turbines.....	4.6	5.9	2.4	2.2	1.0	.7	.2	.2	.9	1.0	.3	.3
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	3.1	3.5	3.0	1.8	1.7	1.3	.2	.2	.9	.2	.2	.1
Construction and mining machinery.....	3.2	4.0	2.1	2.2	1.1	1.0	.2	.2	.7	.9	.1	.1
Metalworking machinery.....	3.2	3.5	1.9	2.2	1.0	.9	.2	.2	.6	1.0	.1	.1
Machine tools.....	2.6	2.4	1.6	2.0	.7	.6	.1	.1	.7	1.2	.1	.1
Metalworking machinery (except machine tools).....	2.5	2.8	1.6	1.5	1.1	.9	.2	.2	.3	.3	.1	.1
Machine-tool accessories.....	5.4	6.7	3.4	3.1	1.9	1.6	.5	.5	.9	1.0	.1	(4)
Special-industry machinery (except metalworking machinery).....	3.1	3.1	2.3	1.8	.9	.7	.2	.2	1.1	.8	.1	.1
General industrial machinery.....	3.1	2.7	1.8	2.0	.7	.6	.2	.2	.7	1.0	.2	.2
Office and store machines and devices.....	2.3	2.6	1.6	1.9	.7	.7	.2	.2	.6	.9	.1	.1
Service-industry and household machines.....	3.6	4.6	1.9	1.7	1.1	1.0	.2	.2	.5	.3	.1	.2
Miscellaneous machinery parts.....	3.6	3.8	1.8	1.8	.9	.8	.3	.1	.5	.8	.1	.1
Electrical machinery.....	3.6	3.6	2.5	2.5	1.2	1.1	.2	.2	1.0	1.1	.1	.1
Electrical generating, transmission, distribution, and industrial apparatus.....	3.1	2.5	1.6	2.0	1.0	.9	.1	.1	.4	.8	.1	.2
Communication equipment.....	4.5	4.6	2.9	3.4	1.5	1.5	.3	.3	1.0	1.4	.1	.2
Radios, phonographs, television sets, and equipment.....	6.9	6.6	4.4	4.9	2.2	1.9	.5	.5	1.7	2.3	(4)	.2
Telephone and telegraph equipment.....	.5	.6	1.2	1.2	.4	.4	.1	.1	.5	.5	.2	.2
Electrical appliances, lamps, and miscellaneous products.....	2.4	4.5	2.2	2.4	.9	1.0	.2	.2	1.0	1.1	.1	.1
Transportation equipment.....	5.7	5.6	4.1	4.5	1.0	.9	.2	.2	2.8	3.2	.1	.2
Automobiles.....	5.5	4.9	2.7	3.4	.9	.8	.2	.1	1.5	2.2	.1	.3
Aircraft and parts.....	2.5	2.9	2.3	2.4	1.1	1.1	.2	.2	.9	1.0	.1	.1
Aircraft.....	2.7	3.4	2.6	2.7	1.3	1.3	.2	.1	1.0	1.2	.1	.1
Aircraft engines and parts.....	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.4	.7	.6	.1	.1	1.0	.6	.1	.1
Aircraft propellers and parts.....	1.5	.9	1.7	.8	.7	.4	.2	.1	.7	.3	.1	(4)
Other aircraft parts and equipment.....	2.7	2.0	2.0	1.7	1.0	.7	.4	.3	.5	.6	.1	.1
Ship and boat building and repairing.....	(5)	19.5	(5)	18.7	(5)	1.2	(5)	.7	(5)	16.7	(5)	.1
Railroad equipment.....	6.0	6.3	7.1	8.5	.9	.9	.2	.2	5.3	6.9	.7	.5
Locomotives and parts.....	4.2	5.5	2.8	4.9	.4	1.0	(4)	(4)	1.5	3.5	.9	.4
Railroad and street cars.....	6.4	7.1	10.3	11.4	1.3	.7	.4	.3	8.0	9.8	.6	.6
Other transportation equipment.....	5.9	4.5	.6	2.1	.5	.6	(4)	(4)	.1	1.5	(4)	(4)
Instruments and related products.....	2.1	2.1	1.4	1.5	.7	.7	.1	.1	.5	.6	.1	.1
Photographic apparatus.....	1.2	1.2	.7	1.3	.3	.3	(4)	(4)	.3	.8	.1	.2
Watches and clocks.....	2.8	2.8	2.0	3.0	.9	.8	.5	.3	.5	1.8	.1	.1
Professional and scientific instruments.....	2.5	2.5	1.6	1.4	.9	.8	.1	.1	.5	.4	.1	.1
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	3.9	4.4	4.1	3.6	1.7	1.5	.2	.3	2.1	1.7	.1	.1
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware.....	2.0	2.0	2.9	2.8	1.3	1.0	.1	.3	1.4	1.4	.1	.1
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>												
Metal mining.....	2.7	3.6	3.2	3.0	1.4	2.0	.3	.5	1.3	.4	.2	.1
Iron.....	2.9	3.0	4.3	1.1	.9	.5	.1	.1	2.9	.3	.4	.2
Copper.....	1.6	3.8	1.3	3.2	1.0	2.8	.1	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1
Lead and zinc.....	3.1	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.1	1.7	.1	.1	.3	.6	.1	.1
Anthracite mining.....	1.0	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.0	1.2	(4)	(4)	.4	.2	.2	.2
Bituminous-coal mining.....	1.9	2.9	3.0	2.2	1.3	1.4	.1	.1	1.5	.6	.1	.1
Communication.....												
Telephone.....	(5)	1.2	(5)	1.1	(5)	.8	(5)	.1	(5)	.1	(5)	.1
Telegraph.....	(5)	1.2	(5)	1.7	(5)	.7	(5)	(4)	(5)	.8	(5)	.2

¹ See footnote 1, table B-1. Data for the current month are subject to revision without notation; revised figures for earlier months will be indicated by footnotes.

² See footnote 2, table A-2.

³ See footnote 3, table A-2. Printing, publishing, and allied industries are excluded.

⁴ Less than 0.05.

⁵ Not available.

C: Earnings and Hours

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees ¹

Year and month	Mining																			
	Metal												Coal							
	Total: Metal			Iron			Copper			Lead and zinc			Anthracite				Bituminous			
	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: Average	\$60.80	42.4	\$1.434	\$58.32	41.3	\$1.412	\$65.81	45.2	\$1.456	\$61.37	41.3	\$1.486	\$66.57	36.8	\$1.809	\$72.12	38.0	\$1.898		
1949: Average	61.55	40.9	1.505	59.06	39.8	1.484	63.96	42.3	1.512	64.79	41.4	1.565	56.78	30.2	1.880	63.28	32.6	1.941		
1949: April	64.71	42.6	1.519	62.20	41.8	1.488	71.35	46.3	1.541	64.74	41.0	1.579	56.82	30.6	1.857	72.33	37.4	1.934		
May	63.72	42.2	1.510	61.64	41.4	1.489	67.37	44.5	1.514	66.03	41.9	1.576	63.63	34.1	1.866	72.98	37.5	1.946		
June	60.53	40.6	1.491	60.26	40.8	1.477	59.02	39.8	1.483	63.27	40.9	1.547	45.28	23.4	1.935	59.90	30.7	1.951		
July	58.75	39.4	1.491	56.97	38.7	1.472	59.43	39.7	1.497	61.41	39.9	1.539	66.08	35.0	1.888	47.94	25.1	1.910		
August	58.18	39.5	1.473	57.32	39.1	1.466	56.20	38.0	1.479	59.87	40.1	1.493	42.80	23.4	1.829	49.51	26.1	1.897		
September	58.96	39.6	1.489	50.15	39.3	1.505	58.27	39.4	1.479	60.34	40.2	1.501	59.24	31.8	1.863	52.46	27.0	1.943		
October	59.63	40.1	1.487	54.46	35.5	1.534	59.20	40.3	1.469	61.95	40.7	1.522	75.81	39.2	1.934	63.10	31.9	1.978		
November	52.73	35.7	1.477	38.78	26.6	1.458	59.70	40.2	1.485	61.99	40.7	1.523	67.94	35.7	1.903	68.17	34.1	1.999		
December	*62.32	*41.6	*1.498	*58.85	*40.2	*1.464	64.26	42.5	1.512	67.68	43.3	1.563	42.22	22.0	1.919	48.74	25.4	1.919		
1950: January	*63.71	*42.0	*1.517	*58.68	*39.7	*1.478	71.96	45.4	1.585	65.18	42.3	1.541	44.60	23.9	1.866	47.36	24.5	1.933		
February	62.81	41.9	1.499	59.62	40.5	1.472	68.49	44.3	1.546	63.38	41.7	1.520	40.23	20.6	1.953	49.83	25.4	1.962		
March	61.96	41.2	1.504	57.61	38.9	1.481	68.58	44.3	1.548	63.45	41.8	1.518	80.01	41.5	1.928	79.15	39.3	2.014		
April	63.33	41.5	1.526	59.40	40.0	1.485	69.67	43.9	1.587	64.17	41.4	1.550	67.25	29.0	1.974	72.72	36.0	2.020		
	Mining—Continued										Contract construction ²									
	Crude petroleum and natural gas production			Nonmetallic mining and quarrying			Total: Contract construction			Nonbuilding construction										
	Petroleum and natural gas production									Total: Nonbuilding construction			Highway and street		Other nonbuilding construction					
1948: Average	\$66.68	40.0	\$1.667	\$55.31	44.5	\$1.243	\$68.25	38.1	\$1.790	\$66.61	40.6	\$1.639	\$62.41	41.6	\$1.500	\$68.67	40.0	\$1.716		
1949: Average	71.48	40.2	1.778	56.38	43.3	1.302	70.81	37.8	1.874	70.44	40.9	1.723	65.65	41.5	1.583	73.66	40.5	1.820		
1949: April	70.30	39.9	1.762	56.38	43.3	1.302	69.86	37.3	1.872	68.47	40.1	1.709	62.44	40.2	1.555	72.29	40.0	1.807		
May	71.78	40.6	1.768	58.17	44.3	1.313	71.70	38.5	1.864	71.42	41.7	1.712	67.17	42.9	1.567	74.43	40.9	1.820		
June	70.59	39.7	1.778	57.82	43.8	1.320	71.41	38.5	1.856	71.34	41.9	1.704	66.52	42.3	1.574	75.05	41.5	1.807		
July	72.54	40.3	1.800	56.77	43.4	1.308	71.55	38.6	1.856	72.20	42.2	1.712	68.17	43.3	1.575	76.21	41.4	1.818		
August	70.74	40.1	1.764	57.86	44.3	1.306	72.13	38.7	1.862	72.56	42.4	1.712	68.55	43.4	1.578	75.69	41.5	1.822		
September	72.40	40.4	1.792	56.88	43.2	1.312	70.73	37.7	1.874	70.82	40.9	1.730	66.75	41.6	1.607	73.81	40.5	1.823		
October	73.87	41.2	1.793	57.77	44.2	1.307	72.06	38.3	1.881	72.71	41.8	1.741	68.37	42.3	1.617	75.83	41.4	1.831		
November	71.20	40.0	1.780	55.77	42.7	1.306	70.12	37.1	1.891	69.90	39.9	1.754	65.30	40.6	1.610	72.96	39.4	1.852		
December	71.52	40.0	1.788	55.08	42.4	1.299	69.75	36.4	1.917	68.15	38.3	1.777	60.75	37.0	1.644	72.76	39.2	1.855		
1950: January	76.24	41.8	1.824	53.36	41.4	1.289	68.01	35.2	1.932	65.56	37.4	1.753	58.43	35.5	1.646	69.57	38.5	1.807		
February	71.88	40.0	1.797	54.36	41.4	1.313	66.89	34.3	1.950	66.94	37.8	1.771	61.96	37.3	1.661	69.50	38.0	1.829		
March	69.35	38.7	1.792	55.00	41.7	1.319	68.92	35.2	1.958	68.48	38.6	1.774	63.83	38.2	1.671	71.00	38.8	1.830		
April	74.56	41.1	1.814	57.55	43.6	1.320	70.85	36.5	1.941	71.07	40.8	1.742	66.18	40.6	1.630	74.11	40.9	1.812		
	Contract construction ² —Continued																			
	Building construction										Special-trade contractors									
	Total: Building construction			General contractors			Total: Special-trade contractors			Plumbing and heating			Painting and decorating				Electrical work			
1948: Average	\$68.85	37.3	\$1.848	\$64.64	36.6	\$1.766	\$73.87	38.0	\$1.946	\$76.83	39.2	\$1.960	\$69.77	36.3	\$1.925	\$83.01	39.8	\$2.094		
1949: Average	70.95	36.7	1.935	67.16	36.2	1.855	75.70	37.2	2.034	78.60	38.6	2.037	70.75	35.7	1.982	86.57	39.2	2.211		
1949: April	70.33	36.4	1.934	66.88	35.9	1.862	74.84	36.9	2.027	76.93	38.3	2.009	69.66	35.5	1.965	86.84	39.3	2.200		
May	71.81	37.2	1.940	68.34	36.8	1.858	76.29	37.7	2.023	77.75	38.5	2.018	71.93	36.6	1.963	87.01	39.2	2.220		
June	71.44	37.1	1.924	67.70	36.7	1.846	76.43	37.7	2.026	77.95	38.6	2.022	72.18	36.8	1.961	87.02	39.3	2.215		
July	71.28	37.1	1.922	67.33	36.6	1.838	76.59	37.7	2.032	78.08	38.8	2.013	72.18	36.7	1.968	86.41	39.2	2.202		
August	71.95	37.2	1.932	68.02	36.8	1.848	76.99	37.8	2.036	79.13	38.9	2.033	72.51	36.4	1.992	87.80	39.7	2.210		
September	70.69	36.5	1.938	66.64	36.0	1.854	75.80	37.2	2.040	79.15	38.6	2.052	71.59	35.7	2.006	85.80	38.8	2.210		
October	71.80	36.9	1.944	67.89	36.5	1.861	76.51	37.5	2.041	80.32	38.9	2.064	71.41	35.7	2.001	86.49	39.0	2.215		
November	70.21	36.1	1.947	66.34	35.7	1.856	74.81	36.4	2.053	78.12	37.5	2.085	68.88	34.5	1.996	85.28	38.2	2.233		
December	70.26	35.8	1.964	65.99	35.1	1.880	75.15	36.5	2.057	80.19	38.7	2.071	69.40	34.8	1.997	86.85	39.2	2.217		
1950: January	68.76	34.8	1.976	63.58	34.0	1.870	73.49	35.5	2.070	78.32	38.0	2.061	67.49	33.9	1.991	86.88	38.7	2.245		
February	67.00	33.7	1.988	61.60	32.8	1.878	71.00	34.3	2.070	75.65	36.9	2.050	67.16	33.8	1.987	87.58	38.7	2.263		
March	69.13	34.6	1.998	64.36	34.0	1.893	72.87	35.1	2.076	77.87	37.6	2.071	66.13	33.5	1.974	84.93	37.9	2.241		
April	71.01	35.7	1.989	66.19	35.3	1.875	74.49	35.9	2.075	78.23	37.7	2.075	66.56	34.4	1.935	86.14	37.7	2.285		

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Contract construction ² —Continued																	
	Building construction—Continued																	
	Special-trade contractors—Continued																	
	Other special-trade contractors			Masonry			Plastering and lathing			Carpentry			Roofing and sheet-metal work			Excavation and foundation work		
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: Average	\$69.65	36.9	\$1.888	\$69.61	35.4	\$1.969	\$78.52	36.1	\$2.175	\$67.98	37.9	\$1.792	\$62.47	36.5	\$1.710	\$66.44	38.9	\$1.709
1949: Average	71.39	36.1	1.979	68.72	33.8	2.033	80.39	34.9	2.301	67.14	36.6	1.837	62.86	35.7	1.759	69.66	37.8	1.844
1949: April	70.50	35.6	1.979	68.04	33.4	2.036	80.27	35.2	2.283	65.00	36.7	1.773	61.50	35.3	1.740	66.51	37.1	1.793
May	72.77	37.0	1.968	70.97	35.2	2.018	79.88	34.7	2.303	67.09	38.1	1.763	63.99	36.9	1.735	70.28	39.0	1.803
June	73.02	36.9	1.977	71.23	35.0	2.034	83.73	35.8	2.338	67.00	38.0	1.763	64.20	36.9	1.739	71.67	38.9	1.842
July	73.46	36.8	1.998	71.47	35.1	2.037	84.59	36.0	2.352	66.40	37.0	1.795	64.50	36.8	1.753	71.93	38.6	1.863
August	73.36	36.9	1.988	71.36	35.3	2.021	83.13	35.7	2.330	66.45	36.3	1.851	64.53	36.7	1.759	72.51	38.9	1.863
September	71.58	36.1	1.982	66.31	32.9	2.015	84.39	36.3	2.322	67.22	35.8	1.876	62.95	36.0	1.750	70.58	37.6	1.878
October	72.26	36.5	1.978	70.60	34.7	2.035	81.11	35.0	2.316	68.46	36.1	1.896	65.96	37.1	1.777	72.22	38.4	1.882
November	70.77	35.7	1.984	71.68	35.0	2.047	74.76	32.5	2.302	69.57	36.3	1.915	63.73	35.9	1.775	69.46	37.3	1.864
December	69.18	34.6	2.001	60.92	29.8	2.044	77.50	33.5	2.311	67.89	35.9	1.889	61.30	34.1	1.799	66.80	35.4	1.890
1950: January	67.87	33.4	2.032	61.68	30.0	2.056	75.47	32.6	2.318	66.51	35.7	1.863	58.50	32.3	1.811	65.57	34.4	1.906
February	64.12	31.6	2.029	54.29	26.1	2.080	75.44	32.2	2.343	58.66	32.0	1.833	53.64	30.0	1.788	62.62	33.2	1.886
March	67.96	33.2	2.047	57.38	27.8	2.064	80.07	33.6	2.383	64.17	34.5	1.860	57.90	31.9	1.815	68.17	35.9	1.899
April	71.41	34.9	2.046	67.07	32.0	2.096	82.01	34.1	2.405	65.62	36.7	1.788	61.54	34.0	1.810	72.83	38.7	1.882
	Manufacturing																	
	Total: Manufacturing			Durable goods ³			Nondurable goods ⁴			Total: Ordnance and accessories			Food and kindred products					
													Total: Food and kindred products			Meat products		
1948: Average	\$54.14	40.1	\$1.350	\$57.11	40.5	\$1.410	\$50.61	39.6	\$1.278	\$57.20	41.6	\$1.375	\$51.87	42.0	\$1.235	\$58.37	43.3	\$1.348
1949: Average	64.92	39.2	1.401	58.03	39.5	1.469	51.41	38.8	1.325	58.76	40.0	1.469	53.58	41.5	1.291	57.44	41.5	1.384
1949: April	53.80	38.4	1.401	57.21	39.0	1.467	49.67	37.6	1.321	54.13	36.7	1.475	52.33	40.6	1.289	54.98	39.9	1.378
May	54.08	38.6	1.401	57.21	39.0	1.467	50.41	38.1	1.323	59.32	40.3	1.472	53.44	41.3	1.294	56.17	40.7	1.380
June	54.51	38.8	1.405	57.82	39.2	1.475	50.97	38.5	1.324	58.72	39.7	1.479	53.62	41.6	1.289	55.87	40.4	1.383
July	54.63	38.8	1.408	57.31	38.8	1.477	51.55	38.7	1.332	59.64	40.3	1.480	54.69	42.2	1.296	58.02	41.8	1.388
August	54.70	39.1	1.399	57.89	39.3	1.473	51.31	38.9	1.319	58.44	39.7	1.472	53.00	41.7	1.271	56.87	41.0	1.387
September	55.72	39.6	1.407	58.69	39.6	1.482	52.59	39.6	1.328	59.76	40.3	1.483	53.63	41.8	1.283	57.78	41.6	1.389
October	55.26	39.7	1.392	58.17	39.9	1.458	52.47	39.6	1.325	59.97	40.3	1.488	53.83	41.7	1.291	56.51	41.1	1.375
November	54.43	39.1	1.392	56.82	39.0	1.457	52.07	39.3	1.325	59.82	40.2	1.488	54.16	41.6	1.302	60.23	42.9	1.404
December	56.04	39.8	1.408	59.19	40.1	1.476	52.69	39.5	1.334	60.85	40.7	1.495	54.57	41.4	1.318	60.98	43.4	1.405
1950: January	56.29	39.7	1.418	59.40	40.0	1.485	52.91	39.4	1.343	60.70	40.2	1.510	54.94	41.4	1.327	60.19	42.9	1.403
February	56.37	39.7	1.420	59.47	40.1	1.483	53.06	39.3	1.350	60.88	40.4	1.507	54.05	40.7	1.328	55.99	40.4	1.386
March	56.49	39.7	1.423	59.74	40.2	1.486	53.04	39.2	1.353	61.31	40.6	1.510	54.38	40.7	1.336	55.92	40.2	1.391
April	56.93	39.7	1.434	61.12	40.8	1.498	52.17	38.5	1.355	61.43	40.6	1.513	54.10	40.4	1.339	55.52	39.8	1.395
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Food and kindred products—Continued																	
	Meat packing			Dairy products			Canning and preserving			Grain-mill products			Flour and other grain-mill products			Prepared feeds		
1948: Average	\$59.15	43.4	\$1.363	\$52.26	45.4	\$1.151	\$42.63	38.2	\$1.116	\$54.53	44.3	\$1.231	\$57.23	46.3	\$1.236	\$51.01	45.3	\$1.226
1949: Average	58.02	41.5	1.398	54.61	44.8	1.219	43.77	38.8	1.128	56.94	43.8	1.300	58.91	44.7	1.318	54.98	46.2	1.190
1949: April	55.32	39.8	1.390	54.10	44.6	1.213	43.07	36.5	1.180	54.66	42.7	1.280	54.36	42.7	1.273	55.07	46.2	1.192
May	56.64	40.6	1.395	54.47	45.2	1.205	43.65	37.4	1.167	55.81	43.6	1.280	55.90	43.6	1.282	55.88	47.2	1.184
June	56.44	40.4	1.397	55.23	45.8	1.206	42.63	38.3	1.113	57.84	44.7	1.294	58.10	45.0	1.291	57.36	47.6	1.205
July	58.55	41.7	1.404	55.71	45.7	1.219	43.59	39.7	1.098	59.75	45.4	1.316	61.13	46.1	1.326	57.14	47.7	1.198
August	57.34	40.9	1.402	54.72	45.0	1.216	44.27	40.8	1.085	57.46	44.0	1.306	58.70	44.3	1.325	55.75	46.3	1.204
September	58.31	41.5	1.405	55.28	44.4	1.245	44.79	40.1	1.117	58.92	44.3	1.330	62.70	45.8	1.369	56.57	47.1	1.201
October	56.89	40.9	1.391	54.76	44.2	1.239	45.92	40.0	1.148	58.56	44.4	1.319	62.88	46.0	1.367	55.67	46.7	1.192
November	61.03	42.8	1.426	53.95	43.9	1.229	41.29	37.1	1.113	55.81	42.8	1.304	57.77	43.4	1.331	54.49	45.6	1.195
December	61.99	43.5	1.425	54.29	44.1	1.231	43.26	36.6	1.182	56.76	43.1	1.317	59.54	44.1	1.350	54.10	45.2	1.197
1950: January	61.16	43.1	1.419	55.67	44.5	1.251	45.15	38.2	1.182	56.46	42.9	1.316	60.03	44.3	1.355	53.22	44.5	1.196
February	56.50	40.3	1.402	54.88	43.8	1.253	44.94	37.7	1.192	55.48	42.0	1.321	58.02	43.2	1.343	51.37	42.7	1.203
March	56.52	40.2	1.406	54.54	43.7	1.248	44.91	36.9	1.217	56.88	42.7	1.332	58.06	43.2	1.344	55.24	44.8	1.233
April	56.16	39.8	1.411	54.87	44.0	1.247	44.29	36.3	1.220	55.61	42.1	1.321	56.13	42.2	1.330	56.44	45.7	1.235

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Food and kindred products—Continued																		
	Bakery products			Sugar			Confectionery and related products			Confectionery			Beverages			Bottled soft drinks			
	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: Average	\$49.35	42.4	\$1.164	\$52.04	41.8	\$1.245	\$44.00	40.0	\$1.100	\$41.46	39.6	\$1.047	\$61.43	41.9	\$1.466	\$46.26	44.1	\$1.049	
1949: Average	51.67	41.7	1.239	56.01	42.4	1.321	45.12	40.0	1.128	42.63	39.8	1.071	64.21	41.0	1.566	48.40	43.8	1.105	
1949: April	51.07	42.0	1.216	51.45	37.8	1.361	42.71	37.9	1.127	40.56	37.8	1.073	62.29	40.9	1.523	47.09	43.2	1.090	
May	51.61	42.1	1.226	55.08	40.5	1.360	42.86	38.1	1.125	40.60	37.8	1.074	64.54	41.8	1.544	48.58	44.0	1.104	
June	52.29	42.2	1.239	57.93	42.5	1.363	44.76	39.3	1.139	42.38	39.2	1.081	65.59	42.1	1.553	50.20	44.9	1.118	
July	52.62	42.2	1.247	57.72	42.5	1.358	43.69	38.8	1.126	41.39	38.9	1.064	68.79	42.7	1.611	50.69	44.9	1.129	
August	51.83	41.5	1.249	56.53	41.2	1.372	45.39	40.2	1.129	42.80	40.0	1.070	66.24	41.4	1.600	49.88	44.1	1.131	
September	52.88	42.1	1.256	59.17	43.6	1.357	47.70	42.1	1.133	44.03	41.3	1.066	64.92	40.7	1.595	48.32	43.3	1.116	
October	52.29	41.6	1.257	53.71	42.9	1.252	48.52	42.6	1.139	44.83	41.7	1.075	64.40	40.5	1.590	49.37	45.0	1.097	
November	52.12	41.4	1.259	60.82	48.0	1.267	45.86	40.8	1.124	43.44	40.9	1.062	63.60	40.1	1.586	48.24	43.7	1.104	
December	52.16	41.3	1.263	54.91	42.4	1.295	45.35	40.6	1.117	42.98	40.7	1.056	63.12	39.7	1.590	46.07	42.0	1.097	
1950: January	52.07	41.1	1.267	55.78	39.9	1.398	45.59	40.2	1.134	42.75	39.8	1.074	63.52	39.7	1.600	46.67	42.5	1.068	
February	52.96	41.6	1.273	55.44	39.8	1.393	45.26	39.7	1.140	42.60	39.3	1.084	64.52	40.0	1.613	46.98	42.4	1.108	
March	53.17	41.7	1.275	55.60	40.0	1.390	45.07	39.4	1.144	42.81	39.1	1.095	65.28	40.2	1.624	47.08	42.3	1.113	
April	52.44	41.1	1.276	55.54	39.5	1.406	43.78	38.0	1.152	41.25	37.3	1.106	66.71	40.7	1.639	48.15	42.8	1.125	
	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Food and kindred products—Continued									Tobacco manufactures									
	Malt liquors			Distilled, rectified, and blended liquors			Miscellaneous food products			Total: Tobacco manufactures			Cigarettes			Cigars			
1948: Average	\$66.40	42.0	\$1.581	\$54.92	40.5	\$1.356	\$49.74	42.3	\$1.176	\$36.50	38.1	\$0.958	\$44.51	38.6	\$1.153	\$32.71	37.6	\$0.874	
1949: Average	69.46	41.1	1.690	57.00	39.2	1.454	52.17	41.9	1.245	37.25	37.1	1.004	46.33	37.7	1.229	32.41	36.7	.880	
1949: April	67.44	41.2	1.637	55.29	38.8	1.425	50.55	40.8	1.239	35.15	34.7	1.013	44.01	35.9	1.226	29.78	33.8	.881	
May	70.85	42.5	1.667	55.39	38.9	1.424	51.71	41.7	1.240	36.27	35.7	1.016	43.98	35.9	1.225	31.63	35.7	.886	
June	71.74	42.5	1.688	55.11	38.7	1.424	51.41	41.8	1.230	38.57	38.0	1.015	47.78	39.1	1.222	32.99	37.4	.882	
July	75.60	43.3	1.746	56.42	39.1	1.443	52.33	42.3	1.237	38.19	37.4	1.021	48.13	39.1	1.231	32.13	36.6	.875	
August	72.02	41.7	1.727	57.14	38.9	1.469	53.04	42.5	1.248	38.58	38.7	.997	48.90	39.5	1.238	32.81	37.2	.882	
September	69.46	40.5	1.715	60.18	40.2	1.497	52.50	42.2	1.244	38.39	38.9	.987	47.92	38.9	1.232	33.71	38.0	.887	
October	69.33	40.1	1.729	58.30	39.5	1.476	53.38	42.5	1.256	37.86	38.2	.991	46.73	37.9	1.233	33.45	37.8	.885	
November	67.52	39.3	1.718	62.28	41.3	1.508	53.13	42.1	1.262	38.46	38.0	1.012	47.81	38.9	1.229	34.16	38.0	.899	
December	68.14	39.8	1.712	56.77	38.0	1.494	53.00	42.0	1.262	38.76	38.0	1.020	48.53	38.7	1.254	32.60	36.8	.886	
1950: January	68.52	39.7	1.726	59.70	39.8	1.500	53.21	41.8	1.273	39.25	38.0	1.033	49.15	39.1	1.257	33.25	36.5	.911	
February	69.32	40.0	1.733	58.67	38.5	1.524	52.65	41.1	1.281	38.48	36.2	1.063	46.96	37.3	1.259	33.87	35.8	.946	
March	70.30	40.1	1.753	58.52	39.3	1.489	53.41	41.4	1.290	39.45	36.6	1.078	48.65	38.7	1.257	33.53	35.0	.958	
April	72.52	40.9	1.773	57.43	38.7	1.484	53.16	41.4	1.284	38.70	35.5	1.090	48.41	38.0	1.274	31.58	33.0	.957	
	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Tobacco manufactures—Continued						Textile-mill products												
	Tobacco and snuff			Tobacco stemming and redrying			Total: Textile-mill products			Yarn and thread mills			Yarn mills			Broad-woven fabric mills			
1948: Average	\$37.21	37.7	\$0.987	\$34.24	40.0	\$0.856	\$45.59	39.2	\$1.163	\$41.49	38.1	\$1.089	\$41.42	37.9	\$1.093	\$46.13	39.6	\$1.165	
1949: Average	39.10	37.2	1.051	34.20	38.3	.893	44.83	37.7	1.189	40.51	36.4	1.113	40.55	36.3	1.117	44.48	37.5	1.186	
1949: April	36.82	35.2	1.046	34.02	35.4	.961	42.20	35.7	1.182	37.85	34.1	1.110	37.99	34.1	1.114	41.08	35.2	1.167	
May	37.35	35.5	1.052	34.55	35.0	.987	41.91	35.4	1.184	37.56	33.9	1.108	37.66	33.9	1.111	40.52	34.6	1.171	
June	40.30	38.2	1.055	33.14	38.1	1.001	42.98	36.3	1.184	39.10	35.1	1.114	39.32	35.2	1.117	42.09	35.7	1.179	
July	40.02	37.4	1.070	36.22	38.4	.995	43.26	36.6	1.182	39.73	35.6	1.116	39.84	35.6	1.119	42.87	36.3	1.181	
August	40.35	38.1	1.059	36.59	42.9	.853	44.37	37.6	1.180	40.33	36.5	1.105	40.33	36.4	1.108	44.41	37.6	1.181	
September	40.92	38.1	1.074	34.47	42.3	.815	45.82	38.6	1.187	42.07	37.9	1.110	41.88	37.7	1.111	45.74	38.5	1.188	
October	39.81	37.7	1.056	33.82	40.5	.835	47.04	39.4	1.194	43.00	38.5	1.117	42.97	38.4	1.119	47.52	39.6	1.200	
November	39.76	37.4	1.063	32.24	38.1	.893	47.20	39.5	1.195	43.46	38.8	1.120	43.46	38.7	1.123	47.76	39.8	1.200	
December	41.46	38.6	1.074	36.80	40.4	.911	47.64	39.8	1.197	44.08	39.5	1.116	43.98	39.3	1.119	48.40	40.3	1.201	
1950: January	40.69	37.4	1.088	37.58	41.8	.899	47.36	39.4	1.202	43.67	39.2	1.114	43.60	39.0	1.118	48.16	40.0	1.204	
February	40.04	36.3	1.103	35.34	35.3	1.001	47.88	39.6	1.209	43.84	39.0	1.124	43.88	38.9	1.128	48.16	40.1	1.201	
March	40.92	36.8	1.112	39.58	38.5	1.028	47.43	39.2	1.210	42.71	38.0	1.124	42.60	37.8	1.127	47.76	39.8	1.200	
April	41.96	37.4	1.122	39.14	38.0	1.030	45.51	37.8	1.204	40.84	36.4	1.122	40.72	36.1	1.128	45.93	38.5	1.193	

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees 1—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Textile-mill products—Continued																	
	Cotton, silk, synthetic fiber 4			Woolen and worsted			Knitting mills			Full-fashioned hosiery 2			Seamless hosiery 3			Knit outerwear		
	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: Average	\$44.36	39.4	\$1.126	\$52.45	40.1	\$1.308	\$41.14	37.5	\$1.097	\$52.85	38.8	\$1.362	\$30.27	35.2	\$0.860	\$39.75	38.0	\$1.046
1949: Average	42.89	37.2	1.153	51.19	38.9	1.316	41.47	36.8	1.127	52.09	37.5	1.389	31.45	35.5	.886	40.96	38.1	1.075
1949: April	40.08	35.1	1.142	46.58	36.0	1.294	39.87	35.1	1.136	50.31	36.3	1.386	30.31	34.1	.889	39.20	35.6	1.101
May	39.02	34.2	1.141	47.88	36.8	1.301	40.07	35.3	1.135	50.87	36.6	1.390	29.57	33.6	.880	40.80	37.4	1.091
June	39.78	34.8	1.143	51.64	39.3	1.314	40.73	36.2	1.125	51.11	36.9	1.385	30.50	34.7	.879	40.46	37.6	1.078
July	40.46	35.4	1.143	52.25	39.7	1.316	40.44	36.3	1.114	50.26	36.5	1.377	30.61	35.3	.867	39.93	38.1	1.048
August	42.71	37.2	1.148	51.16	39.2	1.305	41.11	37.0	1.111	51.56	37.5	1.375	31.46	35.8	.877	39.61	37.8	1.048
September	44.24	38.3	1.155	51.94	39.5	1.315	42.22	37.8	1.117	52.72	38.2	1.380	31.86	36.0	.885	40.69	38.5	1.057
October	46.09	39.6	1.164	53.25	39.8	1.335	43.68	38.9	1.123	55.02	39.5	1.393	32.76	37.8	.893	42.51	39.8	1.068
November	46.56	39.9	1.167	52.51	39.6	1.326	43.28	38.4	1.127	54.86	39.1	1.403	33.68	37.5	.898	42.34	39.5	1.072
December	47.19	40.4	1.168	53.37	40.1	1.331	42.34	37.6	1.126	53.15	37.8	1.406	33.42	37.3	.896	41.16	38.4	1.072
1950: January	47.04	40.1	1.173	52.92	39.7	1.333	41.73	36.8	1.134	51.53	36.6	1.408	32.92	36.3	.907	41.47	37.8	1.097
February	47.07	40.2	1.171	52.51	39.6	1.326	43.38	37.2	1.166	53.16	37.2	1.429	34.50	36.2	.953	42.74	38.3	1.116
March	46.92	40.0	1.173	51.04	38.9	1.312	43.48	37.0	1.175	54.33	38.1	1.426	33.29	34.5	.965	43.88	39.0	1.125
April	44.70	38.4	1.164	50.98	38.8	1.314	40.72	35.1	1.160	49.43	35.9	1.377	31.91	32.9	.970	43.13	38.2	1.129

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Textile-mill products—Continued																	
	Knit underwear			Dyeing and finishing textiles			Carpets, rugs, other floor coverings			Wool carpets, rugs, and carpet yarn			Other textile-mill products			Fur-felt hats and hat bodies		
	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: Average	\$37.40	37.7	\$0.992	\$51.00	41.0	\$1.244	\$58.13	42.0	\$1.384	\$58.09	41.7	\$1.393	\$47.96	39.7	\$1.208	\$49.17	36.5	\$1.347
1949: Average	36.34	36.2	1.004	51.50	40.3	1.278	56.80	39.5	1.438	56.23	38.7	1.453	47.89	38.9	1.231	49.21	35.3	1.394
1949: April	33.63	33.5	1.004	50.47	39.4	1.281	54.68	38.0	1.439	53.47	36.9	1.449	45.81	37.7	1.215	41.44	29.9	1.386
May	34.04	33.8	1.007	49.49	38.6	1.282	55.29	38.5	1.436	54.58	37.8	1.444	46.24	37.9	1.220	47.81	34.3	1.394
June	35.80	35.8	1.000	49.92	39.4	1.267	51.98	36.5	1.424	49.69	34.7	1.432	47.39	38.4	1.234	52.67	37.3	1.412
July	36.00	34.0	1.000	48.76	38.7	1.260	53.78	37.9	1.419	51.98	36.4	1.428	47.66	38.5	1.238	52.58	37.4	1.412
August	36.85	37.0	.996	50.59	39.9	1.268	54.14	38.1	1.421	53.24	37.1	1.436	47.48	38.6	1.230	50.41	36.4	1.385
September	38.85	38.7	1.004	52.31	40.8	1.282	56.10	39.2	1.431	55.40	38.1	1.454	49.56	39.9	1.242	49.49	35.5	1.394
October	38.78	38.7	1.002	52.60	41.2	1.279	57.26	39.9	1.435	57.31	39.2	1.462	48.87	39.6	1.234	45.55	33.3	1.368
November	37.71	37.6	1.003	52.91	41.3	1.281	58.57	40.7	1.439	58.67	40.1	1.463	48.18	39.2	1.229	45.86	32.9	1.394
December	37.07	37.0	1.002	53.84	41.9	1.285	59.99	41.4	1.449	60.58	41.1	1.474	49.64	40.1	1.250	60.55	35.7	1.416
1950: January	37.29	36.7	1.016	52.03	40.3	1.291	60.44	41.4	1.460	61.41	41.3	1.487	49.80	40.0	1.245	53.44	37.5	1.425
February	38.42	37.3	1.030	53.37	41.5	1.286	60.80	41.5	1.465	61.62	41.3	1.492	50.91	40.6	1.254	53.03	37.4	1.418
March	38.44	37.1	1.036	52.38	40.7	1.287	60.84	41.5	1.466	61.66	41.3	1.493	49.63	39.7	1.250	44.84	32.9	1.363
April	35.71	34.5	1.035	50.93	39.6	1.286	59.15	40.4	1.464	60.48	40.4	1.497	49.37	39.4	1.253	40.02	29.0	1.380

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Apparel and other finished textile products																	
	Total: Apparel and other finished textile products			Men's and boys' suits and coats			Men's and boys' furnishings and work clothing			Shirts, collars, and nightwear			Separate trousers			Work shirts		
	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: Average	\$42.79	36.2	\$1.182	\$50.11	36.6	\$1.369	\$33.20	36.2	\$0.917	\$33.50	36.1	\$0.928	\$35.81	35.7	\$0.989	\$26.49	35.7	\$0.742
1949: Average	41.89	35.8	1.170	46.67	34.7	1.345	33.30	36.2	.920	33.37	36.0	.927	34.91	35.7	.978	27.44	35.5	.773
1949: April	39.53	34.4	1.149	46.30	34.5	1.342	32.49	35.2	.923	33.03	35.4	.933	35.21	35.6	.989	26.45	34.0	.778
May	39.94	35.5	1.125	46.00	34.2	1.345	33.36	36.1	.924	34.09	36.5	.934	36.37	37.0	.983	25.91	33.3	.778
June	40.11	35.4	1.133	43.86	33.3	1.317	32.76	35.8	.915	33.19	35.8	.927	34.66	35.3	.979	26.80	34.9	.768
July	41.03	35.4	1.159	44.93	34.4	1.306	33.03	36.1	.915	32.68	34.8	.939	33.56	35.4	.948	27.60	35.7	.773
August	41.95	35.7	1.175	44.96	33.5	1.342	32.80	36.4	.901	32.02	35.7	.897	34.63	35.7	.970	27.33	36.1	.757
September	44.01	36.8	1.196	47.90	36.4	1.353	33.87	36.9	.918	33.21	36.3	.915	35.79	36.6	.978	28.19	36.7	.768
October	42.63	36.5	1.168	45.20	34.3	1.347	34.35	37.5	.916	34.30	37.4	.917	34.13	35.4	.964	28.27	36.7	.762
November	40.38	35.7	1.131	44.48	32.9	1.352	33.82	36.8	.919	34.78	37.6	.925	33.60	34.6	.971	28.22	36.7	.769
December	41.82	35.9	1.165	46.64	34.7	1.344	33.82	36.8	.919	34.52	37.2	.928	34.14	35.3	.967	27.58	35.4	.779
1950: January	42.70	36.0	1.186	47.72	35.4	1.348	33.63	36.2	.929	33.43	35.6	.939	36.47	36.8	.991	27.80	35.6	.781
February	44.48	36.7	1.212	49.88	37.0	1.348	35.64	36.4	.979	35.19	36.2	.972	39.26	37.9	1.036	30.55	35.4	.863
March	43.58	36.5	1.194	51.23	37.7	1.359	35.66	36.2	.985	35.57	36.3	.980	39.75	38.0	1.046	30.43	35.3	.862
April	40.83	35.2	1.160	47.61	35.5	1.341	34.94	35.4	.987	34.92	35.6	.981	39.63	38.0	1.043	29.58	33.8	.875

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Apparel and other finished textile products—Continued																	
	Women's outerwear			Women's dresses			Household apparel			Women's suits, coats, and skirts			Women's and children's undergarments			Underwear and nightwear, except corsets		
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: Average	\$51.49	35.1	\$1.46	\$48.72	34.8	\$1.40	\$31.59	36.1	\$0.875	\$70.60	35.0	\$2.017	\$35.32	36.6	\$0.965	\$34.12	36.3	\$0.940
1949: Average	49.69	34.7	1.432	47.20	34.4	1.372	32.23	36.5	.883	66.38	33.8	1.964	35.79	36.6	.978	34.08	36.1	.944
1949: April	45.42	33.4	1.360	46.58	34.3	1.358	31.89	36.2	.881	56.49	29.7	1.902	33.06	33.8	.978	31.50	33.4	.943
May	45.61	35.0	1.303	48.65	35.2	1.382	34.56	38.1	.907	52.42	30.6	1.713	34.57	35.6	.971	32.67	34.9	.936
June	46.33	34.6	1.339	46.06	34.3	1.343	33.03	37.2	.888	59.91	33.3	1.799	35.32	36.3	.973	33.10	35.4	.935
July	48.51	33.9	1.431	42.66	33.2	1.285	30.71	35.1	.875	66.05	34.1	1.937	34.52	36.0	.959	32.25	34.9	.924
August	50.40	34.4	1.465	46.21	34.1	1.355	30.95	35.3	.874	67.61	34.3	1.971	35.48	36.8	.964	33.84	36.1	.928
September	53.13	35.8	1.484	50.20	35.4	1.418	33.08	37.8	.875	69.73	35.2	1.981	37.24	38.0	.980	35.82	37.7	.950
October	49.49	34.2	1.447	46.98	33.7	1.394	31.45	35.9	.876	64.88	33.0	1.966	38.10	38.6	.987	36.25	38.2	.949
November	45.80	33.6	1.363	44.99	33.3	1.351	31.90	36.5	.874	58.38	30.6	1.908	37.45	38.1	.982	36.27	38.1	.952
December	49.13	34.5	1.424	47.40	34.5	1.374	31.23	35.9	.870	63.67	33.3	1.912	36.36	36.8	.988	34.45	36.0	.957
1950: January	50.86	35.0	1.453	48.30	34.9	1.384	31.38	35.1	.894	66.97	34.7	1.930	36.58	36.8	.994	34.78	36.5	.953
February	52.63	35.9	1.466	48.89	35.4	1.381	34.95	37.1	.942	69.83	35.5	1.967	37.52	37.0	1.014	36.03	36.5	.987
March	49.91	35.6	1.402	49.51	35.9	1.379	35.70	37.5	.952	61.07	32.8	1.862	37.57	36.8	1.021	35.81	36.1	.992
April	46.20	34.5	1.339	49.62	35.7	1.390	35.12	36.7	.957	51.54	29.2	1.765	36.19	35.2	1.028	34.24	34.1	1.004
Manufacturing—Continued																		
Year and month	Apparel and other finished textile products—Continued												Lumber and wood products (except furniture)					
	Millinery			Children's outerwear			Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel			Other fabricated textile products			Total: Lumber and wood products (except furniture)			Logging camps and contractors		
	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	
1948: Average	\$50.22	34.8	\$1.443	\$36.72	36.5	\$1.006	\$42.21	36.7	\$1.150	\$38.49	38.0	\$1.013	\$51.38	41.5	\$1.238	\$60.26	38.7	\$1.557
1949: Average	53.55	35.3	1.517	37.06	36.3	1.021	42.05	36.0	1.168	39.74	38.1	1.043	51.72	40.6	1.274	61.31	39.1	1.568
1949: April	52.49	34.9	1.504	33.23	33.7	.986	37.38	32.7	1.143	38.90	37.3	1.043	51.52	40.5	1.272	62.76	38.5	1.630
May	46.48	31.9	1.457	35.14	36.0	.976	40.14	34.1	1.177	39.97	38.1	1.049	52.94	41.1	1.288	64.76	40.5	1.599
June	46.06	31.7	1.453	36.04	35.9	1.004	42.28	35.2	1.201	40.52	38.3	1.058	52.91	40.7	1.300	64.96	40.0	1.624
July	51.36	34.6	1.484	37.09	36.8	1.008	42.18	35.0	1.205	39.61	37.8	1.048	50.75	39.4	1.288	60.20	37.6	1.601
August	54.40	36.1	1.507	37.98	36.9	1.013	42.54	36.3	1.172	39.77	38.2	1.041	52.87	40.7	1.299	67.16	41.1	1.634
September	64.40	39.8	1.618	38.18	37.1	1.029	44.35	37.3	1.189	40.86	38.8	1.053	52.83	40.7	1.298	64.08	40.0	1.632
October	53.68	35.6	1.508	37.76	36.9	1.023	45.31	38.4	1.180	40.62	39.1	1.039	54.17	41.7	1.289	65.00	40.6	1.601
November	43.81	29.5	1.485	36.89	36.6	1.008	43.85	37.7	1.163	38.73	37.9	1.022	52.48	41.0	1.280	61.58	39.2	1.571
December	50.35	34.7	1.451	37.07	36.2	1.024	43.57	36.8	1.184	39.36	37.7	1.044	52.66	41.3	1.275	62.13	39.8	1.561
1950: January	55.11	36.4	1.514	38.25	36.5	1.048	40.23	35.6	1.130	40.99	38.2	1.073	48.02	39.2	1.225	50.23	37.4	1.343
February	64.36	40.2	1.601	40.28	37.3	1.080	40.50	36.1	1.122	40.84	38.1	1.072	50.55	39.8	1.270	54.86	37.6	1.459
March	62.09	39.1	1.588	38.62	36.5	1.058	40.95	36.3	1.128	40.46	37.5	1.079	52.03	40.3	1.291	62.95	38.5	1.635
April	44.34	30.6	1.449	35.72	35.3	1.012	39.64	35.2	1.126	39.77	37.1	1.072	53.32	40.7	1.310	64.85	39.3	1.650
Manufacturing—Continued																		
Lumber and wood products (except furniture)—Continued																		
Year and month	Sawmills and planing mills			Sawmills and planing mills, general ^a			Millwork, plywood, and prefabricated structural wood products			Millwork			Wooden containers			Wooden boxes, other than cigar		
	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	
1948: Average	\$51.83	41.5	\$1.249	\$51.87	41.4	\$1.253	\$54.95	43.3	\$1.269	\$53.40	43.2	\$1.236	\$41.57	41.4	\$1.004	\$42.39	42.1	\$1.007
1949: Average	52.37	40.6	1.290	53.06	40.6	1.307	55.06	41.9	1.314	54.23	42.2	1.285	41.90	40.6	1.032	42.48	41.0	1.036
1949: April	52.29	40.6	1.288	52.98	40.6	1.306	54.62	41.6	1.313	52.62	41.3	1.274	40.52	40.2	1.008	40.80	40.6	1.005
May	53.78	41.1	1.308	54.42	41.1	1.324	55.09	41.8	1.318	53.29	41.7	1.278	41.66	40.8	1.021	42.11	41.0	1.027
June	53.56	40.7	1.316	54.21	40.7	1.332	55.22	41.8	1.321	54.06	42.1	1.284	42.19	40.3	1.047	42.82	40.7	1.052
July	51.25	39.3	1.304	51.83	39.3	1.320	52.74	40.2	1.312	53.19	41.2	1.291	42.40	40.3	1.052	43.31	40.0	1.059
August	53.53	40.8	1.312	54.14	40.8	1.327	54.19	41.3	1.312	53.71	41.7	1.288	42.03	39.8	1.056	42.91	40.1	1.070
September	53.35	40.6	1.314	54.04	40.6	1.331	55.66	42.1	1.322	54.91	42.4	1.295	43.04	40.6	1.060	43.89	41.1	1.068
October	54.54	41.6	1.311	55.29	41.6	1.329	57.68	43.3	1.332	56.51	43.4	1.302	43.38	41.2	1.053	44.73	41.8	1.070
November	52.89	41.0	1.290	53.63	41.0	1.308	56.18	42.4	1.325	55.94	42.9	1.304	42.02	40.4	1.040	42.92	40.8	1.049
December	52.31	40.8	1.282	53.04	40.8	1.300	58.87	44.2	1.332	57.82	44.1	1.311	43.37	41.3	1.050	43.95	41.7	1.054
1950: January	47.38	38.3	1.237	47.77	38.0	1.257	56.14	42.4	1.324	56.07	42.9	1.307	41.27	39.8	1.037	41.94	40.4	1.038
February	50.59	39.4	1.284	51.17	39.3	1.302	57.04	42.5	1.342	55.76	42.4	1.315	42.82	39.5	1.084	43.05	39.9	1.079
March	51.51	39.9	1.291	52.23	39.9	1.309	58.05	43.0	1.350	56.62	42.6	1.329	42.85	39.6	1.082	43.34	40.2	1.078
April	53.00	40.4	1.312	53.40	40.3	1.325	59.04	43.0	1.373	57.68	42.6	1.354	43.66	39.8	1.097	45.13	41.4	1.090

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees ¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Lumber and wood products (except furniture)—Con.			Furniture and fixtures														
	Miscellaneous wood products			Total: Furniture and fixtures			Household furniture			Wood household furniture, except upholstered			Wood household furniture, upholstered			Mattresses and bed-springs		
	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: Average	\$44.06	42.0	\$1.049	\$48.99	41.1	\$1.192	\$46.76	40.8	\$1.146	\$43.84	41.2	\$1.054	\$50.33	40.1	\$1.255	\$50.85	40.1	\$1.268
1949: Average	44.16	40.7	1.085	49.48	40.1	1.234	47.04	39.8	1.182	43.68	40.0	1.092	50.18	38.9	1.290	51.69	39.7	1.302
1949: April	43.66	40.8	1.070	47.60	38.7	1.230	45.08	38.3	1.177	41.68	38.2	1.091	47.82	37.3	1.282	49.67	38.5	1.290
May	44.08	40.7	1.083	47.59	38.5	1.236	44.92	38.0	1.182	41.54	37.9	1.096	46.54	36.5	1.275	49.43	38.2	1.294
June	43.63	40.0	1.092	48.36	39.0	1.240	45.70	38.6	1.184	42.09	38.4	1.096	47.39	37.2	1.274	52.00	40.0	1.300
July	43.02	39.4	1.092	47.86	38.6	1.240	44.80	38.0	1.179	41.06	37.7	1.089	46.87	36.7	1.277	51.21	39.7	1.290
August	43.52	40.0	1.088	49.69	40.4	1.230	47.23	40.3	1.172	43.17	40.2	1.074	49.82	39.2	1.271	53.94	41.4	1.303
September	43.96	40.0	1.099	50.72	41.0	1.237	48.74	41.1	1.186	44.17	40.9	1.080	52.07	40.3	1.292	57.13	42.6	1.341
October	45.14	41.0	1.101	51.42	41.7	1.233	49.74	41.9	1.187	46.15	42.3	1.091	53.83	41.5	1.297	54.18	41.2	1.315
November	44.98	40.8	1.102	50.72	41.2	1.231	48.86	41.3	1.183	46.60	42.4	1.099	55.53	42.1	1.319	45.97	36.4	1.263
December	44.54	40.9	1.089	52.50	42.2	1.244	50.88	42.4	1.200	47.10	42.7	1.103	57.68	43.3	1.332	53.85	40.7	1.323
1950: January	43.85	40.3	1.088	51.13	41.1	1.244	49.36	41.2	1.198	46.08	41.7	1.105	52.78	40.2	1.313	54.54	40.7	1.340
February	44.69	40.3	1.109	52.29	41.7	1.254	50.87	41.9	1.214	46.70	42.0	1.112	54.95	41.5	1.324	57.43	41.8	1.374
March	44.69	40.3	1.109	52.42	41.8	1.254	50.99	42.0	1.214	47.08	42.3	1.113	54.83	41.1	1.334	56.98	41.5	1.373
April	45.37	40.8	1.112	51.79	41.3	1.254	50.06	41.2	1.215	46.23	41.5	1.114	54.95	41.1	1.337	54.40	40.0	1.360
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Furniture and fixtures—Continued			Paper and allied products									Printing, publishing, and allied industries					
	Other furniture and fixtures			Total: Paper and allied products			Pulp, paper, and paperboard mills			Paperboard containers and boxes			Other paper and allied products			Total: Printing, publishing, and allied industries		
	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: Average	\$54.59	41.7	\$1.309	\$55.25	42.8	\$1.291	\$59.88	44.0	\$1.361	\$50.96	41.7	\$1.222	\$49.48	41.3	\$1.198	\$66.73	39.3	\$1.693
1949: Average	55.47	40.7	1.363	55.96	41.7	1.342	59.83	42.4	1.411	52.45	41.2	1.273	51.07	40.6	1.258	70.28	38.7	1.816
1949: April	53.74	39.6	1.357	53.48	40.3	1.327	57.35	41.2	1.392	48.81	38.8	1.258	49.84	40.0	1.246	69.39	38.4	1.807
May	54.13	39.8	1.360	53.73	40.4	1.350	57.58	41.1	1.401	49.49	39.4	1.256	49.51	39.8	1.244	70.40	38.7	1.819
June	54.86	40.1	1.368	54.54	40.7	1.340	57.95	41.1	1.410	51.38	40.3	1.275	50.13	40.2	1.247	70.47	38.7	1.821
July	55.44	40.2	1.379	55.57	41.1	1.352	59.65	41.8	1.427	51.93	40.4	1.278	50.90	40.4	1.260	70.45	38.6	1.825
August	55.94	40.8	1.371	56.26	41.8	1.346	60.32	42.6	1.416	53.00	41.5	1.277	50.82	40.3	1.261	70.69	38.5	1.836
September	55.91	40.9	1.367	57.64	42.6	1.353	61.06	43.0	1.420	55.30	42.9	1.289	52.49	41.3	1.271	72.02	39.1	1.842
October	55.91	41.2	1.357	58.36	43.1	1.354	62.10	43.7	1.421	56.20	43.5	1.292	52.54	41.4	1.269	71.22	38.6	1.845
November	55.90	41.1	1.360	58.31	43.0	1.356	62.09	43.6	1.424	56.20	43.5	1.292	52.11	41.0	1.271	70.91	38.6	1.837
December	56.65	41.5	1.365	58.09	42.9	1.354	62.09	43.6	1.424	55.21	42.9	1.287	51.99	41.1	1.265	72.27	39.3	1.839
1950: January	56.13	41.0	1.369	57.56	42.2	1.364	61.62	43.0	1.433	53.57	41.4	1.294	52.69	41.2	1.279	70.49	38.5	1.831
February	56.28	41.2	1.366	57.80	42.5	1.360	61.71	43.4	1.422	54.17	41.7	1.299	53.03	41.4	1.281	70.75	38.2	1.852
Mar.	56.18	41.1	1.367	58.11	42.6	1.364	61.85	43.4	1.425	55.07	42.1	1.308	52.91	41.3	1.281	72.18	38.6	1.870
Apr.	56.39	41.4	1.362	58.16	42.3	1.375	62.34	43.2	1.443	54.32	41.5	1.309	53.32	41.3	1.291	72.22	38.6	1.871
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Printing, publishing, and allied industries—Continued																	
	Newspapers			Periodicals			Books			Commercial printing			Lithographing			Other printing and publishing		
	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: Average	\$74.00	37.6	\$1.968	\$69.55	40.6	\$1.713	\$57.43	38.7	\$1.484	\$66.33	40.3	\$1.646	\$64.15	39.5	\$1.624	\$59.93	39.3	\$1.525
1949: Average	78.37	37.3	2.101	70.21	38.9	1.805	61.07	38.6	1.582	69.44	39.7	1.749	69.17	39.3	1.760	62.66	38.7	1.619
1949: April	78.43	37.6	2.086	69.61	38.8	1.794	60.68	38.7	1.568	68.42	39.3	1.741	66.14	37.9	1.745	61.56	38.0	1.620
May	80.02	37.8	2.117	68.62	38.4	1.787	60.53	38.7	1.564	69.51	39.7	1.751	67.86	38.6	1.758	61.62	38.2	1.613
June	78.73	37.4	2.105	68.91	38.8	1.776	59.50	37.8	1.574	70.80	40.0	1.770	68.87	39.0	1.766	61.75	38.4	1.608
July	78.02	37.1	2.103	70.21	38.6	1.819	60.87	38.5	1.581	70.05	39.8	1.760	67.75	38.3	1.769	62.89	38.7	1.625
August	77.80	36.8	2.114	70.90	39.0	1.818	63.30	39.1	1.619	69.66	39.6	1.759	71.22	39.5	1.803	63.24	38.4	1.647
September	80.14	37.5	2.137	74.20	40.0	1.855	65.17	40.3	1.617	70.22	39.9	1.760	73.71	40.7	1.811	63.09	38.8	1.626
October	80.06	37.5	2.135	71.00	38.8	1.830	62.48	39.0	1.602	69.84	39.5	1.768	73.12	40.6	1.801	62.05	37.7	1.646
November	79.05	37.2	2.125	70.21	38.6	1.819	61.05	37.8	1.615	69.36	39.3	1.765	72.36	40.7	1.778	63.73	39.0	1.634
December	81.50	38.1	2.139	70.67	38.7	1.826	61.83	38.5	1.606	71.17	40.3	1.766	70.89	40.6	1.746	64.59	39.6	1.631
1950: January	76.43	36.5	2.094	69.94	38.6	1.812	61.76	38.1	1.621	70.80	40.0	1.770	69.03	38.5	1.793	64.48	39.2	1.645
February	76.38	36.3	2.104	72.15	39.3	1.836	60.50	37.3	1.622	70.70	39.3	1.799	70.07	38.8	1.806	64.77	38.9	1.665
March	78.63	36.9	2.131	74.43	39.8	1.870	62.95	38.5	1.635	71.56	39.6	1.797	70.90	39.0	1.818	65.31	38.9	1.679
April	79.77	37.1	2.150	72.77	39.1	1.861	64.21	39.2	1.638	70.84	39.4	1.798	71.54	39.2	1.825	64.56	38.8	1.664

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees 1-Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing-Continued																	
	Chemical and allied products																	
	Total: Chemicals and allied products			Industrial inorganic chemicals			Industrial organic chemicals			Plastics, except synthetic rubber			Synthetic rubber			Synthetic fibers		
	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: Average	\$56.23	41.5	\$1.355	\$62.13	40.9	\$1.519	\$57.69	40.4	\$1.428	\$58.75	41.4	\$1.419	\$62.88	39.9	\$1.576	\$53.05	39.5	\$1.343
1949: Average	58.63	41.0	1.430	63.90	40.6	1.574	60.83	39.5	1.540	60.36	40.4	1.494	66.74	39.3	1.677	55.20	38.6	1.430
1949: April	57.45	40.6	1.415	62.98	40.5	1.555	59.17	38.8	1.525	58.05	39.3	1.477	64.87	38.8	1.672	53.63	37.5	1.430
May	58.20	40.7	1.430	62.59	40.2	1.557	60.09	39.2	1.533	58.21	39.2	1.485	67.02	39.8	1.684	55.32	38.5	1.437
June	59.08	40.8	1.448	65.41	41.4	1.580	60.56	39.2	1.545	59.68	39.6	1.507	67.07	39.9	1.681	54.63	38.2	1.430
July	59.44	40.6	1.404	64.00	40.3	1.588	61.50	39.3	1.565	59.78	39.8	1.502	68.21	39.0	1.749	55.13	38.1	1.447
August	58.77	40.5	1.451	63.20	40.1	1.576	60.68	39.2	1.548	59.56	40.0	1.489	67.62	39.8	1.699	54.02	37.7	1.433
September	59.66	41.4	1.441	64.96	40.7	1.596	62.33	39.8	1.566	62.45	41.3	1.512	67.97	39.7	1.712	55.96	38.7	1.446
October	59.51	41.7	1.427	64.55	40.8	1.582	62.20	39.9	1.559	62.13	41.2	1.508	68.99	40.7	1.695	65.63	38.9	1.430
November	59.43	41.5	1.432	64.68	40.6	1.593	62.44	40.0	1.561	61.80	40.9	1.511	67.78	40.2	1.686	56.20	39.3	1.430
December	59.78	41.6	1.437	64.99	40.8	1.593	62.75	40.2	1.561	61.55	40.9	1.505	68.27	40.3	1.694	56.37	39.5	1.427
1950: January	60.05	41.3	1.454	64.64	40.2	1.608	63.63	40.3	1.579	63.84	42.0	1.520	68.48	39.7	1.725	56.45	39.2	1.440
February	59.96	41.1	1.459	65.12	40.7	1.600	62.64	40.0	1.566	61.96	40.9	1.515	68.22	40.2	1.697	55.99	39.1	1.432
March	60.17	41.1	1.464	65.52	40.8	1.606	62.60	40.0	1.565	62.25	40.9	1.522	68.93	40.5	1.702	55.97	39.0	1.435
April	60.65	41.2	1.472	65.81	40.9	1.609	63.16	40.1	1.575	62.57	41.0	1.526	70.96	41.4	1.714	56.52	38.9	1.453

Year and month	Manufacturing-Continued																	
	Chemicals and allied products-Continued																	
	Drugs and medicines			Paints, pigments, and fillers			Fertilizers			Vegetable and animal oils and fats			Other chemicals and allied products			Soap and glycerin		
	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: Average	\$53.71	40.6	\$1.323	\$58.40	42.2	\$1.384	\$42.33	41.5	\$1.020	\$50.39	47.4	\$1.063	\$57.90	41.3	\$1.402	\$65.90	42.0	\$1.569
1949: Average	56.60	40.4	1.401	59.78	41.0	1.458	44.72	41.6	1.075	51.12	47.2	1.083	60.67	40.8	1.487	66.54	40.9	1.627
1949: April	55.78	40.1	1.391	59.92	41.1	1.458	45.13	42.3	1.067	50.18	45.7	1.098	59.12	40.3	1.467	63.96	40.0	1.599
May	56.68	40.4	1.403	59.22	40.7	1.455	46.67	42.7	1.093	51.30	45.8	1.120	59.89	40.6	1.475	65.37	40.5	1.614
June	56.28	40.2	1.408	59.90	41.2	1.454	46.58	42.5	1.096	52.12	45.2	1.153	60.94	40.9	1.490	66.34	40.9	1.622
July	56.40	40.0	1.410	59.31	40.9	1.450	46.87	42.3	1.108	52.69	44.5	1.184	61.32	40.8	1.503	67.56	40.8	1.656
August	56.32	40.0	1.408	59.51	41.1	1.448	45.21	41.1	1.100	52.30	44.7	1.170	61.02	40.9	1.492	66.79	41.1	1.625
September	56.96	40.4	1.410	60.88	41.5	1.467	44.99	40.9	1.100	51.02	48.0	1.063	62.12	41.3	1.504	68.30	41.7	1.638
October	57.16	40.6	1.408	60.90	41.4	1.471	43.66	40.8	1.070	51.08	49.5	1.032	62.57	41.6	1.504	68.97	41.9	1.646
November	57.51	40.7	1.413	60.43	41.0	1.474	43.20	40.3	1.072	51.24	49.7	1.031	61.58	41.0	1.502	67.20	41.0	1.639
December	57.21	40.6	1.409	60.80	41.0	1.483	44.76	41.1	1.089	50.86	49.0	1.038	62.02	41.1	1.509	67.66	40.7	1.660
1950: January	57.37	40.6	1.413	61.21	41.0	1.493	44.80	40.8	1.098	49.89	47.2	1.057	62.79	41.2	1.524	68.14	40.9	1.666
February	58.04	40.7	1.426	61.98	41.4	1.497	44.40	40.7	1.091	50.71	45.2	1.122	62.62	41.2	1.520	68.51	41.1	1.667
March	58.65	40.9	1.434	62.59	41.7	1.501	44.72	41.1	1.088	50.77	44.5	1.141	63.04	41.2	1.530	69.50	41.2	1.687
April	58.79	40.8	1.441	63.03	41.8	1.508	46.19	41.8	1.105	51.62	44.3	1.163	62.98	41.3	1.525	68.88	40.9	1.684

Year and month	Manufacturing-Continued																	
	Products of petroleum and coal																	
	Total: Products of petroleum and coal			Petroleum refining			Coke and byproducts			Other petroleum and coal products			Total: Rubber products			Tires and inner tubes		
	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: Average	\$69.23	40.7	\$1.701	\$72.06	40.3	\$1.788	\$58.56	39.7	\$1.475	\$60.59	44.1	\$1.374	\$66.78	39.0	\$1.456	\$62.16	37.2	\$1.671
1949: Average	72.36	40.4	1.791	75.33	40.2	1.874	61.07	39.3	1.554	61.18	42.9	1.426	67.79	38.3	1.509	63.26	36.4	1.738
1949: April	71.26	40.1	1.777	73.95	39.8	1.858	61.54	39.7	1.550	60.08	42.4	1.417	55.50	36.9	1.504	60.92	35.4	1.721
May	72.12	40.7	1.772	75.21	40.5	1.857	60.83	39.6	1.536	60.09	42.8	1.404	57.08	37.7	1.514	63.20	36.3	1.741
June	71.84	40.2	1.737	74.73	39.9	1.873	61.00	39.2	1.556	60.64	43.0	1.408	58.29	38.2	1.626	64.09	36.6	1.751
July	73.59	40.7	1.808	76.90	40.4	1.896	61.47	39.2	1.568	62.03	43.9	1.413	58.37	38.4	1.520	64.45	36.6	1.751
August	72.38	40.3	1.798	75.10	39.8	1.887	60.79	39.4	1.543	63.26	44.3	1.428	57.72	38.3	1.507	62.32	36.0	1.731
September	74.47	41.1	1.812	77.11	40.5	1.904	61.43	39.1	1.571	67.43	46.6	1.447	61.01	40.3	1.514	69.95	39.1	1.789
October	74.09	41.0	1.807	76.13	40.3	1.889	61.50	39.5	1.557	67.39	45.7	1.474	59.57	39.4	1.512	64.83	37.3	1.738
November	72.12	40.0	1.803	75.44	40.0	1.886	57.09	38.2	1.577	62.36	42.8	1.457	57.91	38.4	1.508	63.91	36.9	1.732
December	71.74	39.9	1.798	74.83	39.7	1.885	61.11	39.4	1.551	59.14	41.3	1.432	59.04	39.2	1.506	64.79	37.3	1.737
1950: January	73.79	40.7	1.813	77.41	40.7	1.902	61.93	39.8	1.556	58.56	41.3	1.418	60.52	39.4	1.536	67.70	38.4	1.763
February	71.64	39.8	1.800	74.84	39.6	1.890	61.17	39.8	1.537	58.94	41.3	1.427	59.90	39.2	1.528	67.22	38.3	1.755
March	71.66	39.7	1.805	75.04	39.6	1.895	58.90	38.1	1.546	60.08	41.9	1.434	59.66	39.3	1.518	65.26	37.4	1.745
April	73.85	40.8	1.810	77.15	40.5	1.905	62.60	40.0	1.565	63.38	43.5	1.457	61.76	40.0	1.544	69.23	39.0	1.775

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

	Manufacturing—Continued																	
Year and month	Rubber products—Continued						Leather and leather products											
	Rubber footwear			Other rubber products			Total: Leather and leather products			Leather			Footwear (except rubber)			Other leather products		
	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: Average	\$51.75	41.8	1.238	\$52.47	40.3	1.302	\$41.66	37.2	1.120	\$53.26	39.6	1.345	\$39.71	36.6	1.085	\$40.49	37.7	1.074
1949: Average	48.94	38.6	1.268	54.38	40.1	1.356	41.61	36.6	1.137	54.11	38.9	1.391	39.35	35.9	1.096	41.10	37.5	1.096
1949: April	46.65	37.2	1.254	51.69	38.4	1.246	40.74	35.8	1.138	52.29	38.0	1.376	38.68	35.1	1.102	39.93	36.5	1.094
May	48.39	38.5	1.257	52.51	39.1	1.343	40.05	35.1	1.141	53.03	38.4	1.381	37.37	34.0	1.099	40.11	36.4	1.102
June	50.35	39.4	1.278	53.85	39.8	1.353	41.46	36.6	1.136	54.39	39.1	1.391	39.24	36.0	1.090	40.55	36.6	1.108
July	48.84	38.7	1.262	54.11	40.2	1.346	41.74	37.0	1.128	53.19	38.1	1.396	38.93	36.8	1.085	40.70	37.1	1.097
August	48.75	38.9	1.254	55.46	40.6	1.366	42.00	37.2	1.129	54.34	38.9	1.397	40.04	36.7	1.091	40.83	37.6	1.086
September	51.71	40.4	1.280	56.50	41.3	1.368	41.99	36.8	1.141	54.76	39.0	1.404	39.74	36.0	1.104	41.46	38.0	1.091
October	49.81	39.1	1.274	57.06	41.5	1.375	41.72	36.5	1.143	55.09	39.1	1.409	38.61	35.1	1.100	42.72	38.8	1.101
November	50.51	39.9	1.266	54.04	39.5	1.368	40.08	35.1	1.142	54.50	38.9	1.401	36.40	33.3	1.093	41.66	37.8	1.102
December	50.23	39.8	1.262	55.66	40.9	1.361	42.03	37.1	1.133	55.50	39.5	1.405	39.20	36.2	1.083	42.29	38.2	1.107
1950: January	45.87	35.7	1.285	57.04	41.3	1.381	42.90	37.7	1.138	55.34	39.0	1.419	40.77	37.4	1.090	42.21	38.1	1.108
February	43.06	34.2	1.259	56.43	41.1	1.373	44.08	38.1	1.157	55.29	39.1	1.414	42.22	37.8	1.117	42.90	38.2	1.123
March	51.04	40.0	1.276	56.21	41.0	1.371	44.00	37.8	1.164	54.93	38.9	1.412	42.11	37.4	1.126	43.54	38.6	1.128
April	50.36	39.5	1.275	57.13	41.1	1.390	41.92	35.8	1.171	54.48	38.5	1.415	39.25	34.8	1.128	42.48	37.3	1.139

	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Stone, clay, and glass products																	
Year and month	Total: Stone, clay, and glass products			Glass and glass products			Glass containers			Pressed and blown glass			Cement, hydraulic			Structural clay products		
	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: Average	\$53.46	40.9	1.307	\$54.06	39.2	1.379	\$52.05	39.7	1.311	\$47.61	38.8	1.227	\$54.76	41.9	1.307	\$49.57	40.4	1.227
1949: Average	54.45	39.8	1.368	56.71	39.0	1.454	53.80	39.3	1.369	50.30	38.6	1.303	57.49	41.6	1.382	49.73	39.0	1.275
1949: April	53.37	39.3	1.358	55.39	38.2	1.450	52.90	38.7	1.367	49.10	38.0	1.292	56.37	41.5	1.357	49.11	39.1	1.274
May	53.90	39.6	1.361	56.81	39.1	1.453	54.53	39.8	1.370	50.25	38.3	1.312	57.68	41.8	1.380	49.94	39.2	1.274
June	53.58	39.4	1.360	55.98	38.9	1.439	54.30	39.9	1.361	49.08	37.9	1.295	58.80	42.0	1.400	49.43	38.8	1.274
July	52.94	38.7	1.368	55.22	37.9	1.457	54.12	39.3	1.377	47.80	36.6	1.306	58.07	41.1	1.413	48.86	38.5	1.269
August	54.17	39.6	1.368	56.08	39.0	1.438	53.58	39.6	1.353	49.15	38.1	1.290	58.36	41.6	1.403	49.51	38.9	1.276
September	54.73	39.6	1.382	55.89	38.2	1.463	51.59	37.3	1.383	50.53	38.9	1.299	59.16	41.6	1.422	50.04	39.0	1.283
October	55.51	40.4	1.374	57.04	39.5	1.444	54.81	40.3	1.360	50.62	39.0	1.298	59.40	42.1	1.411	49.83	38.9	1.281
November	55.28	40.0	1.382	57.19	39.2	1.459	54.62	39.9	1.369	51.28	38.7	1.325	57.66	41.1	1.403	49.59	38.5	1.288
December	55.65	40.3	1.381	58.16	39.7	1.465	54.23	39.5	1.373	51.63	39.5	1.307	57.81	41.5	1.393	49.92	39.0	1.280
1950: January	55.32	39.8	1.390	59.31	39.7	1.494	55.28	39.6	1.396	51.39	38.9	1.321	57.55	40.9	1.407	49.52	38.6	1.283
February	55.56	40.0	1.389	59.36	40.0	1.484	54.93	39.6	1.387	50.90	39.0	1.305	57.73	41.5	1.391	49.37	38.6	1.279
March	55.60	40.0	1.390	59.09	39.9	1.481	55.02	39.7	1.386	51.33	39.3	1.306	57.24	41.0	1.396	50.03	38.9	1.286
April	56.42	40.3	1.400	59.25	39.9	1.485	55.66	40.1	1.388	50.00	38.7	1.292	59.01	41.7	1.415	52.33	40.1	1.305

	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Stone, clay, and glass products—Continued																	
Year and month	Brick and hollow tile			Pottery and related products			Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products			Concrete products			Other stone, clay, and glass products			Total: Primary metal industries		
	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: Average	\$49.05	42.5	1.154	\$49.46	38.7	1.278	\$56.49	44.8	1.261	\$56.92	44.4	1.282	\$55.10	41.0	1.344	\$61.03	40.1	1.522
1949: Average	49.57	41.8	1.186	48.85	36.4	1.342	57.77	43.8	1.319	59.31	43.8	1.354	54.72	39.2	1.396	60.78	38.3	1.587
1949: April	49.18	41.5	1.185	49.10	36.7	1.338	55.17	42.5	1.298	58.30	43.8	1.331	53.97	38.8	1.391	60.83	38.4	1.584
May	49.66	41.7	1.191	48.30	36.1	1.338	55.30	42.8	1.292	59.46	44.8	1.325	54.05	38.8	1.393	60.08	38.0	1.581
June	50.01	42.2	1.185	46.59	34.9	1.335	56.20	43.1	1.304	59.98	44.3	1.254	53.72	38.7	1.388	59.82	37.6	1.591
July	48.93	41.5	1.179	42.55	31.9	1.334	57.77	43.8	1.319	60.60	44.3	1.368	52.76	37.9	1.392	58.63	36.9	1.689
August	50.40	42.6	1.183	46.84	34.9	1.342	59.50	44.6	1.334	61.39	44.2	1.389	53.69	38.6	1.391	59.45	37.6	1.681
September	50.68	42.3	1.198	46.82	35.1	1.334	60.30	44.8	1.346	62.62	44.7	1.401	55.37	39.1	1.416	60.42	37.6	1.607
October	51.36	42.8	1.200	50.71	37.7	1.345	60.26	44.9	1.342	61.51	44.8	1.373	55.34	39.5	1.401	58.35	37.5	1.556
November	50.53	42.0	1.203	50.97	37.7	1.352	59.85	44.5	1.345	57.98	42.6	1.361	55.01	39.1	1.407	57.48	36.4	1.579
December	49.39	41.4	1.193	51.16	37.7	1.357	60.12	44.7	1.345	58.11	42.7	1.361	55.36	39.4	1.405	62.92	39.4	1.597
1950: January	47.81	41.0	1.166	48.99	36.1	1.357	58.16	43.6	1.334	56.80	42.2	1.346	55.33	39.3	1.408	63.79	39.5	1.615
February	47.14	40.5	1.164	50.00	36.9	1.355	58.55	43.6	1.343	55.71	41.3	1.349	55.69	39.3	1.417	63.48	39.6	1.603
March	48.42	41.1	1.178	50.48	37.2	1.357	58.64	43.6	1.345	56.40	41.5	1.359	55.65	39.3	1.416	62.36	38.9	1.603
April	51.34	42.5	1.208	50.57	37.1	1.363	58.91	43.7	1.348	58.15	42.6	1.365	56.24	39.3	1.431	65.04	40.4	1.610

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Primary metal industries—Continued																	
	Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills			Iron and steel foundries			Gray-iron foundries			Malleable-iron foundries			Steel foundries			Primary smelting and refining of non-ferrous metals		
	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: Average	\$62.41	39.5	\$1.580	\$58.45	40.7	\$1.436	\$57.46	40.9	\$1.405	\$59.19	40.4	\$1.465	\$59.93	40.6	\$1.476	\$58.22	41.0	\$1.420
1949: Average	63.04	38.3	1.646	55.09	37.2	1.481	54.38	37.5	1.450	54.30	35.7	1.521	56.73	37.3	1.521	60.36	40.4	1.494
1949: April	64.49	39.4	1.642	53.43	36.2	1.476	51.73	35.9	1.441	52.98	34.9	1.518	56.56	37.3	1.616	61.95	41.3	1.500
1949: May	63.24	38.7	1.634	52.26	35.5	1.472	50.47	35.1	1.438	51.60	34.4	1.500	56.72	36.8	1.612	61.65	40.7	1.530
1949: June	42.21	37.7	1.650	53.47	36.2	1.477	52.67	36.4	1.447	53.49	35.4	1.517	54.73	36.2	1.612	60.71	40.6	1.499
1949: July	59.88	36.4	1.645	53.62	36.3	1.477	52.63	36.4	1.446	53.49	35.1	1.524	55.57	36.8	1.616	59.00	39.1	1.509
1949: August	41.33	37.6	1.631	53.50	36.2	1.478	53.00	36.6	1.448	53.58	35.2	1.520	54.50	36.9	1.618	58.26	39.4	1.482
1949: September	62.07	37.1	1.673	54.39	36.6	1.486	55.04	37.8	1.456	54.01	35.0	1.643	53.41	35.0	1.626	59.87	40.7	1.471
1949: October	55.90	34.0	1.644	54.80	36.9	1.485	55.96	38.3	1.461	52.32	34.4	1.521	53.99	35.4	1.525	59.47	40.7	1.471
1949: November	56.48	34.4	1.642	53.83	36.3	1.483	54.31	37.3	1.456	51.14	33.6	1.522	54.66	35.7	1.531	58.43	39.4	1.483
1949: December	64.65	39.3	1.645	57.22	38.3	1.494	57.25	39.0	1.468	57.41	37.4	1.535	56.61	37.0	1.530	59.60	40.3	1.479
1950: January	65.83	39.3	1.675	58.17	38.7	1.503	57.74	39.2	1.473	59.25	38.3	1.547	57.75	37.6	1.536	62.07	41.3	1.503
1950: February	64.81	39.3	1.649	59.11	39.2	1.508	58.91	39.7	1.484	59.25	38.6	1.535	59.83	38.7	1.546	60.24	40.4	1.491
1950: March	61.60	37.4	1.647	60.41	39.9	1.514	59.85	40.3	1.485	61.50	39.5	1.557	60.72	39.1	1.553	61.17	40.7	1.503
1950: April	65.95	39.9	1.653	62.37	40.9	1.525	62.01	41.2	1.505	63.49	40.7	1.560	62.83	40.3	1.559	61.69	40.8	1.512
Manufacturing—Continued																		
Primary metal industries—Continued																		
Primary smelting and refining of copper, lead, and zinc			Primary refining of aluminum			Rolling, drawing, and alloying of nonferrous metals			Rolling, drawing, and alloying of copper			Rolling, drawing, and alloying of aluminum			Nonferrous foundries			
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: Average	\$57.14	40.9	\$1.397	\$58.05	41.4	\$1.424	\$57.81	40.2	\$1.438	\$60.42	40.8	\$1.481	\$53.88	39.1	\$1.378	\$59.06	40.0	\$1.499
1949: Average	58.99	40.1	1.471	61.95	41.3	1.500	58.05	38.7	1.500	59.29	38.5	1.540	56.21	38.9	1.445	60.92	39.0	1.562
1949: April	61.18	41.2	1.485	62.81	41.9	1.499	52.99	36.1	1.468	50.28	33.5	1.504	55.65	39.0	1.427	58.79	38.0	1.547
1949: May	60.22	40.5	1.487	61.07	41.1	1.486	53.62	36.5	1.469	51.92	34.5	1.505	55.30	38.7	1.429	59.01	37.9	1.557
1949: June	59.88	40.3	1.485	60.91	41.1	1.482	56.17	37.3	1.479	55.18	36.4	1.516	54.89	38.2	1.437	59.94	38.5	1.557
1949: July	57.77	38.8	1.489	61.10	41.2	1.483	56.36	37.9	1.487	57.42	37.8	1.519	55.02	38.0	1.448	60.67	38.8	1.561
1949: August	58.76	39.2	1.448	61.92	40.9	1.514	58.89	39.0	1.510	51.26	39.6	1.547	55.48	38.0	1.466	60.14	38.6	1.558
1949: September	57.51	39.2	1.467	62.23	41.1	1.514	59.65	39.5	1.610	61.96	40.0	1.549	55.83	38.4	1.454	61.50	39.2	1.565
1949: October	57.47	40.3	1.426	64.45	42.4	1.520	61.84	40.5	1.527	64.69	41.1	1.574	57.41	39.4	1.457	62.33	39.5	1.578
1949: November	56.12	39.0	1.439	64.83	40.8	1.589	63.57	41.2	1.543	65.44	41.6	1.573	58.55	39.8	1.471	61.93	39.1	1.584
1949: December	57.82	40.1	1.442	61.87	40.6	1.524	62.28	40.6	1.534	66.32	42.0	1.579	54.67	37.7	1.450	63.20	39.9	1.584
1950: January	61.35	41.4	1.482	61.16	40.8	1.499	61.97	40.5	1.530	64.53	41.1	1.570	57.37	39.4	1.456	62.73	39.6	1.584
1950: February	59.00	40.3	1.464	61.66	41.0	1.504	63.29	41.1	1.540	66.30	41.7	1.590	57.91	39.8	1.455	62.29	39.5	1.577
1950: March	59.99	40.7	1.474	62.25	40.9	1.522	64.29	41.4	1.553	67.00	41.9	1.599	59.54	40.5	1.479	63.47	40.4	1.571
1950: April	60.59	40.8	1.485	62.03	40.7	1.524	64.58	41.4	1.560	68.03	42.1	1.616	58.65	40.2	1.450	64.34	40.8	1.577
Manufacturing—Continued																		
Primary metal industries—Continued																		
Other primary metal industries			Iron and steel forgings			Wire drawing			Total fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery and transportation equipment)			Tin cans and other tinware			Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware			
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: Average	\$63.08	40.8	\$1.546	\$65.16	40.8	\$1.597	\$62.17	40.5	\$1.535	\$56.68	40.6	\$1.396	\$54.07	40.9	\$1.322	\$54.22	40.8	\$1.329
1949: Average	63.34	39.1	1.620	63.18	38.2	1.654	63.66	39.2	1.624	57.82	39.6	1.460	56.24	40.4	1.392	54.82	39.3	1.395
1949: April	61.61	38.3	1.606	62.24	38.0	1.638	58.99	36.8	1.603	56.19	38.7	1.482	53.68	39.1	1.373	53.87	38.7	1.392
1949: May	61.74	38.3	1.612	61.96	37.6	1.648	60.34	37.5	1.609	56.67	39.0	1.453	54.06	39.4	1.372	54.61	39.1	1.394
1949: June	62.66	38.5	1.625	62.98	38.0	1.650	61.44	37.9	1.621	57.89	39.2	1.464	55.68	40.7	1.368	53.92	38.6	1.397
1949: July	61.88	38.2	1.620	61.28	37.5	1.634	61.26	38.0	1.612	57.61	39.3	1.464	59.34	42.6	1.393	54.33	38.7	1.404
1949: August	61.65	38.1	1.618	60.37	36.9	1.686	61.28	38.9	1.612	58.13	39.6	1.468	51.13	42.6	1.474	53.27	38.2	1.397
1949: September	62.52	38.4	1.628	60.13	36.4	1.652	63.54	39.0	1.624	59.25	40.2	1.474	59.00	41.2	1.432	55.18	39.3	1.384
1949: October	62.93	38.8	1.622	60.06	36.4	1.650	66.67	41.0	1.624	58.51	40.1	1.459	55.68	39.5	1.407	53.40	38.5	1.467
1949: November	60.97	37.8	1.613	59.42	36.1	1.646	64.55	39.0	1.630	56.88	39.2	1.461	53.19	38.1	1.396	54.41	39.2	1.388
1949: December	65.97	40.5	1.629	64.01	38.4	1.667	69.34	42.0	1.651	59.66	40.5	1.473	57.16	40.8	1.401	56.84	40.4	1.407
1950: January	65.44	40.0	1.636	64.89	38.6	1.681	68.05	40.6	1.676	59.93	40.3	1.487	56.76	40.4	1.405	57.55	40.5	1.421
1950: February	67.28	40.8	1.649	66.94	39.4	1.699	71.06	42.2	1.684	59.68	40.3	1.481	56.80	40.2	1.413	58.20	40.7	1.430
1950: March	67.39	40.5	1.664	68.79	39.9	1.724	68.70	40.6	1.692	59.60	40.3	1.479	57.02	40.3	1.415	58.87	41.2	1.429
1950: April	68.10	41.1	1.657	69.01	40.1	1.721	69.72	41.5	1.680	60.63	40.8	1.486	59.00	40.8	1.446	58.83	41.2	1.428

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment)—Continued																	
	Cutlery and edge tools			Hand tools			Hardware			Heating apparatus (except electric) and plumbers' supplies			Sanitary ware and plumbers' supplies			Oil burners, nonelectric heating and cooking apparatus, not elsewhere classified		
	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: Average	\$51.13	41.3	\$1.238	\$56.07	40.9	\$1.371	54.26	40.4	\$1.343	\$57.53	40.2	\$1.431	\$50.40	40.4	\$1.495	\$55.80	40.0	\$1.395
1949: Average	50.84	40.0	1.271	54.54	38.6	1.413	56.28	39.3	1.432	57.04	38.7	1.474	59.79	38.5	1.553	55.45	38.8	1.429
1949: April	47.92	38.0	1.261	54.90	38.8	1.415	55.29	38.8	1.425	53.99	36.6	1.475	56.58	36.5	1.550	52.37	36.7	1.427
May	49.99	39.8	1.256	53.95	38.4	1.405	56.43	39.3	1.436	54.61	37.1	1.472	57.55	37.2	1.547	52.76	37.0	1.426
June	49.88	39.4	1.266	52.23	37.2	1.404	56.04	39.0	1.437	54.72	37.3	1.467	55.94	36.3	1.541	54.26	38.0	1.428
July	49.68	39.3	1.264	52.25	37.4	1.397	56.67	39.0	1.453	54.85	37.7	1.455	58.64	38.3	1.531	53.05	37.6	1.411
August	49.87	39.3	1.269	51.78	36.8	1.407	55.22	38.4	1.438	57.63	39.5	1.459	59.25	38.5	1.539	56.82	40.1	1.417
September	52.26	40.8	1.281	52.82	37.3	1.416	56.88	39.5	1.440	59.56	40.3	1.478	60.14	38.6	1.558	59.45	41.2	1.443
October	52.51	40.8	1.287	54.03	38.4	1.407	53.35	37.6	1.419	61.23	41.4	1.479	63.73	40.8	1.562	60.01	41.7	1.439
November	53.12	41.5	1.280	53.44	37.9	1.410	54.89	38.6	1.422	59.32	40.0	1.483	64.56	41.2	1.567	56.24	39.3	1.431
December	50.89	40.1	1.269	55.04	38.9	1.415	59.20	40.8	1.451	60.39	40.5	1.491	65.20	41.5	1.571	57.15	39.8	1.436
1950: January	50.79	39.9	1.273	55.92	39.3	1.423	60.19	41.0	1.468	59.23	39.7	1.492	62.24	40.0	1.556	57.14	39.6	1.443
February	51.22	40.3	1.271	55.87	39.1	1.429	61.04	41.3	1.478	59.59	39.7	1.501	63.54	40.5	1.569	56.76	39.2	1.448
March	53.07	41.2	1.288	56.49	39.5	1.430	61.24	41.6	1.472	60.47	40.1	1.508	63.74	40.6	1.570	57.91	39.8	1.455
April	53.49	41.4	1.292	56.79	39.6	1.434	60.88	41.5	1.407	60.90	40.2	1.515	63.67	40.4	1.576	58.85	40.2	1.464
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Fabricated metal products (except ordnance machinery, and transportation equipment)—Continued																	
	Fabricated structural metal products			Structural steel and ornamental metal-work			Boiler-shop products			Sheet-metal work			Metal stamping, coating, and engraving			Stamped and pressed metal products		
	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: Average	\$58.17	41.2	\$1.412	\$57.68	41.2	\$1.400	\$58.79	41.2	\$1.427	\$56.64	40.6	\$1.395	\$56.66	40.1	\$1.413	\$58.39	40.3	\$1.449
1949: Average	59.90	40.5	1.479	60.91	41.1	1.482	59.78	40.2	1.487	57.60	39.7	1.451	58.54	39.5	1.482	60.30	39.7	1.519
1949: April	58.88	40.0	1.472	59.09	40.2	1.470	59.79	40.4	1.480	55.22	37.9	1.457	57.07	38.9	1.467	58.76	39.2	1.499
May	59.90	40.5	1.479	60.75	40.8	1.489	59.68	40.3	1.481	57.93	39.9	1.452	57.11	38.8	1.472	58.69	39.1	1.501
June	59.95	40.4	1.484	61.13	41.0	1.491	59.00	39.6	1.490	57.63	38.8	1.448	59.35	39.7	1.495	61.16	40.0	1.529
July	59.32	40.0	1.483	60.13	40.3	1.492	59.75	40.1	1.490	58.25	39.9	1.460	58.08	38.8	1.497	59.50	39.9	1.532
August	59.83	40.4	1.481	62.32	41.8	1.491	59.10	39.8	1.485	57.70	39.6	1.457	60.06	39.8	1.509	61.88	40.0	1.547
September	60.59	40.8	1.485	62.31	41.9	1.487	60.71	40.5	1.499	58.32	40.0	1.458	60.78	40.2	1.512	63.02	40.5	1.556
October	59.45	40.5	1.468	60.97	41.7	1.462	59.82	40.2	1.488	55.41	38.8	1.428	58.97	39.9	1.478	60.61	39.9	1.519
November	57.89	39.3	1.473	57.95	39.5	1.467	58.97	39.5	1.493	57.98	40.1	1.446	56.38	38.8	1.453	57.82	38.7	1.494
December	60.85	40.7	1.495	63.34	42.2	1.501	59.18	39.4	1.502	58.28	40.0	1.457	60.18	40.2	1.496	62.18	40.4	1.539
1950: January	60.30	40.2	1.500	61.51	41.2	1.493	58.62	38.9	1.507	58.93	39.9	1.477	61.02	40.2	1.518	63.37	40.7	1.557
February	59.81	39.9	1.499	61.01	40.7	1.499	58.45	39.1	1.505	58.89	40.2	1.465	60.67	40.5	1.498	62.35	40.7	1.532
March	59.99	40.1	1.496	61.54	41.0	1.501	58.95	39.3	1.500	58.53	39.9	1.467	60.59	40.5	1.496	62.51	40.8	1.532
April	61.02	40.6	1.503	62.35	41.4	1.506	59.82	39.8	1.503	58.92	40.0	1.473	61.23	40.9	1.497	62.97	41.1	1.532
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment)—Con.									Machinery (except electrical)								
	Other fabricated metal products			Total: Machinery (except electrical)			Engines and turbines			Agricultural machinery and tractors			Tractors			Agricultural machinery (except tractors)		
	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: Average	\$56.88	40.4	\$1.408	\$60.52	41.2	\$1.460	\$63.50	40.5	\$1.568	\$60.59	40.5	\$1.496	\$62.05	40.5	\$1.532	\$58.62	40.4	\$1.451
1949: Average	58.38	39.5	1.478	60.44	39.5	1.530	63.13	38.9	1.623	61.11	39.3	1.555	61.86	39.2	1.578	59.93	39.3	1.525
1949: April	56.60	38.5	1.470	59.55	39.1	1.523	62.38	38.6	1.616	60.18	39.0	1.543	60.52	38.6	1.568	59.61	39.4	1.513
May	56.44	38.5	1.466	59.70	39.2	1.523	63.10	39.0	1.618	60.26	39.0	1.545	60.80	38.8	1.567	59.51	39.2	1.518
June	58.15	39.0	1.491	59.94	39.2	1.529	63.58	39.2	1.622	61.78	39.5	1.564	62.57	39.6	1.580	60.83	39.4	1.544
July	59.05	39.5	1.495	59.67	39.0	1.530	61.72	38.1	1.620	62.09	39.7	1.564	63.68	40.1	1.588	60.13	39.2	1.534
August	57.92	39.0	1.485	59.86	39.1	1.531	62.93	38.8	1.622	61.00	39.1	1.560	62.25	39.3	1.584	59.48	38.9	1.520
September	59.15	39.7	1.490	60.44	39.3	1.538	62.56	38.5	1.625	61.39	39.1	1.570	61.69	38.8	1.590	61.03	39.5	1.545
October	59.85	40.3	1.485	60.21	39.2	1.536	62.15	38.2	1.627	61.23	39.4	1.554	61.39	39.0	1.574	60.70	39.7	1.529
November	57.51	39.2	1.467	59.21	38.5	1.538	61.81	37.9	1.631	57.61	37.0	1.557	58.02	39.7	1.581	57.00	37.4	1.524
December	60.56	40.7	1.488	61.30	39.7	1.544	63.84	39.0	1.637	60.96	38.9	1.567	61.22	38.6	1.586	60.48	39.3	1.539
1950: January	61.51	40.6	1.515	61.57	39.8	1.547	63.88	39.0	1.638	61.58	39.1	1.575	61.92	38.8	1.596	60.91	39.4	1.546
February	60.47	40.5	1.493	62.55	40.3	1.552	63.69	39.0	1.633	63.24	40.0	1.581	64.28	40.2	1.598	61.93	39.8	1.556
March	59.06	39.8	1.484	63.34	40.6	1.560	63.96	39.0	1.640	62.73	39.6	1.584	63.84	39.7	1.608	62.20	39.9	1.559
April	61.23	40.9	1.497	64.33	41.0	1.569	68.72	41.0	1.676	63.16	39.9	1.583	65.04	40.4	1.610	61.42	39.6	1.551

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees 1—Con.

Year and month		Manufacturing—Continued																			
		Machinery (except electrical)—Continued																	Special-industry machinery (except metalworking machinery)		
		Construction and mining machinery			Metalworking machinery			Machine tools			Metalworking machinery (except machine tools)			Machine-tool accessories							
		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: Average	\$60.33	42.1	\$1.433	\$62.94	42.1	\$1.495	\$61.57	42.2	\$1.459	\$62.98	42.1	\$1.496	\$65.21	41.8	\$1.560	\$60.62	42.3	\$1.433	60.57	40.3	1.503
1949: Average	58.74	39.8	1.476	61.11	39.5	1.547	59.15	39.3	1.505	61.85	39.8	1.554	64.16	39.7	1.616	60.67	40.3	1.503			
1949: April	59.70	40.2	1.485	61.26	39.7	1.543	59.67	39.7	1.503	62.04	39.9	1.555	63.20	39.4	1.604	60.47	40.5	1.493			
May	58.67	39.8	1.474	60.72	39.4	1.541	59.04	39.2	1.506	61.61	39.9	1.544	62.80	39.2	1.602	60.57	40.3	1.503			
June	58.61	39.9	1.469	59.79	38.8	1.541	57.90	38.5	1.504	60.68	39.3	1.544	62.52	39.0	1.603	59.98	39.8	1.507			
July	56.97	38.6	1.476	59.10	38.3	1.543	57.00	37.9	1.504	59.64	38.7	1.541	62.38	38.7	1.612	60.02	39.8	1.508			
August	57.00	38.8	1.469	59.87	38.6	1.551	58.32	38.6	1.511	60.22	39.0	1.544	62.09	38.0	1.634	59.67	39.7	1.503			
September	57.11	38.8	1.472	60.37	38.9	1.552	58.06	38.4	1.512	60.26	39.0	1.545	65.27	39.8	1.640	60.30	39.8	1.515			
October	57.07	38.8	1.471	60.41	38.8	1.557	57.64	38.2	1.509	61.50	39.5	1.557	64.85	39.3	1.650	59.88	39.5	1.516			
November	55.90	37.9	1.475	59.44	38.4	1.548	57.34	38.1	1.505	59.48	38.2	1.557	63.38	39.1	1.621	59.97	39.4	1.522			
December	59.34	40.2	1.476	61.73	39.7	1.555	59.92	39.5	1.517	62.53	39.8	1.571	64.08	39.9	1.606	61.72	40.5	1.524			
1950: January	60.28	40.4	1.492	61.42	39.4	1.559	59.66	39.2	1.522	61.94	39.3	1.576	63.64	39.6	1.607	61.45	40.4	1.521			
February	61.36	40.8	1.504	63.86	40.6	1.573	61.86	40.3	1.535	66.17	41.2	1.606	65.37	40.6	1.610	61.80	40.5	1.526			
March	62.47	41.4	1.509	65.06	41.1	1.583	62.95	40.8	1.543	67.02	41.6	1.611	66.87	41.1	1.627	62.42	40.8	1.530			
April	63.16	41.5	1.522	67.37	42.0	1.604	64.52	41.6	1.551	70.11	42.8	1.638	70.31	42.2	1.666	62.73	41.0	1.530			
Manufacturing—Continued																					
Machinery (except electrical)—Continued																					
General industrial machinery			Office and store machines and devices			Computing machines and cash registers			Typewriters			Service-industry and household machines			Refrigerators and air-conditioning units						
1948: Average	\$59.78	41.2	\$1.451	\$61.49	41.1	\$1.496	\$66.54	41.2	\$1.615	\$55.65	41.1	\$1.354	\$58.98	40.4	\$1.460	\$58.29	39.9	\$1.461	59.98	39.0	1.538
1949: Average	59.53	39.5	1.507	62.53	39.5	1.583	67.87	39.9	1.701	56.04	39.0	1.437	60.66	39.7	1.528	59.98	39.0	1.538			
1949: April	59.26	39.4	1.504	61.78	39.0	1.584	67.43	39.9	1.690	53.83	37.1	1.451	56.96	37.8	1.507	55.45	36.7	1.511			
May	58.95	39.3	1.500	62.21	39.3	1.583	66.70	39.4	1.693	56.55	39.3	1.439	59.03	39.3	1.502	58.86	38.8	1.517			
June	59.26	39.3	1.508	62.73	39.6	1.584	67.28	39.6	1.699	56.76	39.2	1.448	59.66	39.3	1.518	59.02	38.5	1.533			
July	58.16	38.8	1.499	62.45	39.3	1.589	67.86	39.5	1.718	56.23	39.1	1.438	62.58	40.9	1.530	62.78	40.4	1.554			
August	58.39	38.9	1.501	60.87	38.6	1.577	67.15	39.5	1.700	54.08	37.9	1.427	62.48	40.6	1.539	62.91	40.2	1.565			
September	59.00	39.1	1.509	62.69	39.5	1.587	67.93	39.7	1.711	56.74	39.4	1.440	63.71	41.1	1.550	64.14	40.7	1.576			
October	59.72	39.5	1.512	62.53	39.5	1.583	67.89	39.7	1.710	56.85	39.7	1.432	60.99	39.5	1.544	59.32	38.2	1.553			
November	58.29	38.8	1.514	62.77	39.5	1.589	67.91	39.6	1.715	56.41	39.2	1.439	60.49	39.2	1.543	58.01	37.5	1.547			
December	59.96	39.5	1.518	64.32	40.0	1.608	69.97	40.4	1.732	56.44	38.9	1.451	62.61	40.5	1.546	61.76	40.0	1.544			
1950: January	60.04	39.5	1.520	63.84	39.8	1.604	69.60	40.3	1.727	55.77	38.7	1.441	63.24	40.8	1.550	62.16	40.1	1.550			
February	59.93	39.4	1.521	63.64	39.9	1.595	68.84	40.0	1.721	56.41	39.2	1.439	63.87	41.1	1.554	63.65	40.7	1.564			
March	61.27	40.1	1.528	63.32	39.8	1.591	68.16	39.7	1.717	56.47	39.3	1.437	66.18	42.1	1.572	66.16	41.9	1.579			
April	62.05	40.4	1.536	63.84	40.1	1.592	68.80	40.0	1.720	57.41	39.7	1.446	65.36	41.5	1.575	65.23	41.1	1.587			
Manufacturing—Continued																					
Machinery (except electrical)—Continued										Electrical machinery											
Miscellaneous machinery parts			Machine shops (job and repair)			Total: Electrical machinery			Electrical generating, transmission, distribution, and industrial apparatus			Motors, generators, transformers, and industrial controls			Electrical equipment for vehicles						
1948: Average	\$57.62	40.1	\$1.437	\$58.77	40.2	\$1.462	\$55.66	40.1	\$1.388	\$58.34	40.4	\$1.444	\$59.55	40.4	\$1.474	\$56.77	39.7	\$1.430	59.16	39.1	1.513
1949: Average	57.59	38.6	1.492	58.70	39.0	1.505	56.96	39.5	1.442	59.61	39.5	1.509	61.30	39.7	1.544	59.16	39.1	1.513			
1949: April	55.98	37.7	1.485	59.24	39.0	1.519	55.59	38.5	1.444	58.66	38.9	1.508	60.06	39.0	1.540	57.40	38.5	1.491			
May	55.35	37.3	1.484	57.45	38.1	1.508	55.99	38.8	1.443	58.36	38.6	1.512	60.06	38.9	1.544	59.80	39.5	1.514			
June	55.87	37.7	1.482	58.72	39.2	1.498	56.16	39.0	1.440	58.55	38.8	1.509	60.21	39.1	1.540	59.69	39.4	1.515			
July	55.20	37.2	1.484	58.36	38.8	1.504	56.00	38.7	1.447	59.24	39.0	1.519	61.23	39.4	1.554	60.97	39.9	1.528			
August	57.29	38.5	1.488	58.31	39.0	1.495	56.73	39.1	1.451	59.74	39.3	1.520	61.62	39.6	1.556	62.79	40.8	1.539			
September	57.37	38.4	1.494	56.44	37.7	1.497	57.88	40.0	1.447	60.22	39.8	1.513	62.16	40.1	1.550	62.90	40.9	1.538			
October	58.08	38.9	1.493	56.81	38.1	1.491	57.97	40.4	1.435	59.89	39.9	1.501	61.51	40.1	1.534	59.95	39.7	1.510			
November	58.50	39.0	1.500	55.39	37.1	1.493	57.36	40.0	1.434	59.67	39.7	1.503	61.06	39.7	1.538	52.65	35.1	1.500			
December	59.45	39.4	1.509	59.67	39.7	1.508	58.63	40.6	1.444	61.67	40.6	1.519	63.57	40.8	1.558	57.90	38.5	1.504			
1950: January	59.64	39.6	1.506	59.86	39.8	1.504	58.44	40.5	1.443	60.46	40.2	1.504	62.02	40.3	1.539	60.19	39.7	1.516			
February	61.18	40.3	1.518	60.79	40.1	1.516	58.26	40.4	1.442	60.04	40.0	1.501	61.16	40.0	1.529	61.38	40.3	1.523			
March	61.85	40.4	1.531	60.58	39.8	1.522	58.75	40.6	1.447	60.85	40.3	1.510	62.03	40.2	1.543	63.68	41.3	1.542			
April	63.13	41.1	1.536	62.05	40.5	1.532	59.16	40.8	1.450	61.31	40.6	1.510	62.73	40.6	1.545	64.86	41.9	1.548			

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Electrical machinery—Continued												Transportation equipment						
	Communication equipment			Radios, phonographs, television sets, and equipment			Telephone and telegraph equipment			Electrical appliances, lamps, and miscellaneous products			Total: Transportation equipment			Automobiles			
	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: Average.....	\$52.10	39.8	\$1.309	\$48.53	39.2	\$1.238	\$59.54	40.7	\$1.463	\$56.08	40.2	\$1.395	\$61.58	39.0	\$1.579	\$61.86	38.4	\$1.611	
1949: Average.....	53.56	39.5	1.356	50.68	39.5	1.283	61.43	39.3	1.563	56.52	39.5	1.431	64.95	39.2	1.657	65.97	38.9	1.696	
1940: April.....	52.38	38.4	1.364	48.64	38.0	1.260	61.19	39.2	1.561	54.42	38.0	1.432	63.58	38.7	1.643	64.77	38.6	1.678	
May.....	52.85	38.8	1.362	49.41	38.6	1.280	61.04	39.1	1.561	54.58	38.6	1.414	63.03	38.2	1.650	63.22	37.3	1.695	
June.....	53.25	39.2	1.361	50.42	39.3	1.283	61.50	39.4	1.561	54.49	38.7	1.408	65.49	39.5	1.658	66.94	39.4	1.699	
July.....	51.54	37.9	1.360	47.78	37.5	1.274	60.68	38.8	1.564	55.13	39.1	1.410	66.27	39.9	1.661	68.67	40.3	1.704	
August.....	52.20	38.3	1.363	48.60	38.0	1.279	61.54	39.2	1.570	55.77	39.3	1.419	65.90	39.7	1.660	67.78	39.8	1.703	
September.....	54.44	40.0	1.361	52.12	40.5	1.287	61.90	39.1	1.583	56.79	39.8	1.427	67.13	40.1	1.674	69.33	40.4	1.716	
October.....	55.66	41.2	1.351	53.46	41.6	1.285	62.33	39.4	1.592	57.67	40.3	1.431	64.75	39.1	1.656	65.87	39.0	1.689	
November.....	55.69	41.1	1.355	53.52	41.3	1.296	62.92	39.5	1.583	57.71	40.3	1.432	61.92	37.3	1.680	61.03	36.2	1.686	
December.....	55.69	41.1	1.355	53.52	41.3	1.296	63.12	39.5	1.598	58.26	40.4	1.442	65.31	38.9	1.679	65.44	38.2	1.713	
1950: January.....	55.56	41.0	1.355	53.05	41.0	1.294	63.68	39.7	1.604	59.09	40.5	1.459	68.12	40.5	1.682	70.14	40.9	1.715	
February.....	55.32	40.8	1.356	52.62	40.6	1.296	63.63	39.5	1.611	58.78	40.4	1.455	66.58	39.7	1.677	67.64	39.6	1.708	
March.....	55.07	40.7	1.353	52.80	40.8	1.294	62.92	39.2	1.605	59.17	40.5	1.461	67.38	40.2	1.676	69.04	40.4	1.709	
April.....	54.63	40.5	1.349	52.21	40.6	1.286	63.83	39.4	1.620	61.59	41.5	1.484	70.50	41.4	1.703	73.90	42.4	1.743	

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Transportation equipment—Continued																		
	Aircraft and parts			Aircraft			Aircraft engines and parts			Aircraft propellers and parts			Other aircraft parts and equipment			Ship and boat building and repairing			
	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: Average.....	\$61.21	41.0	\$1.493	\$60.21	41.1	\$1.465	\$63.40	40.9	\$1.550	\$62.13	39.7	\$1.565	\$63.59	41.0	\$1.551	\$60.68	38.7	\$1.568	
1949: Average.....	63.62	40.6	1.567	62.69	40.5	1.548	65.24	40.7	1.603	66.83	41.0	1.630	65.08	40.4	1.611	61.67	38.0	1.623	
1949: April.....	60.99	39.4	1.548	60.97	39.8	1.532	64.04	40.2	1.593	64.36	40.1	1.605	64.50	35.0	1.557	62.50	38.2	1.636	
May.....	62.98	40.5	1.555	62.26	40.4	1.541	64.08	40.3	1.598	68.14	41.6	1.638	63.53	40.7	1.561	61.61	38.1	1.617	
June.....	62.94	40.5	1.554	61.90	40.3	1.536	65.52	41.0	1.698	67.89	41.5	1.636	63.52	40.2	1.580	62.82	38.4	1.636	
July.....	62.08	39.9	1.556	60.78	39.7	1.531	63.80	39.7	1.607	69.88	42.2	1.656	65.37	40.3	1.622	61.94	38.4	1.613	
August.....	62.07	40.2	1.544	61.46	40.3	1.525	61.66	39.4	1.565	66.42	40.9	1.624	65.98	40.6	1.625	60.05	37.3	1.616	
September.....	63.58	40.6	1.566	62.26	40.4	1.541	65.72	41.0	1.603	68.60	41.4	1.657	66.83	40.8	1.638	61.00	37.7	1.618	
October.....	63.67	40.5	1.572	62.42	40.3	1.549	64.64	40.2	1.608	65.73	40.5	1.623	69.17	42.1	1.643	59.11	36.4	1.624	
November.....	66.69	41.5	1.607	66.15	41.5	1.584	68.82	42.1	1.630	64.27	39.6	1.623	67.90	41.2	1.648	56.97	34.8	1.637	
December.....	66.41	41.2	1.612	66.16	41.3	1.602	67.16	41.0	1.638	67.53	41.3	1.635	67.16	41.2	1.630	62.86	38.4	1.637	
1950: January.....	65.20	40.7	1.602	64.63	40.7	1.588	65.00	40.1	1.621	68.88	42.0	1.640	67.40	40.9	1.648	61.46	37.8	1.626	
February.....	65.69	40.7	1.614	65.00	40.6	1.601	66.34	40.7	1.630	70.18	41.6	1.687	67.81	41.0	1.654	61.16	37.5	1.631	
March.....	65.29	40.5	1.612	64.36	40.3	1.597	66.99	41.1	1.630	66.65	40.2	1.658	68.01	40.8	1.667	62.53	38.2	1.637	
April.....	64.80	40.2	1.612	64.24	40.2	1.598	66.10	40.7	1.624	67.06	40.3	1.664	67.19	40.4	1.663	61.66	37.6	1.640	

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Transportation equipment—Continued																		
	Shipbuilding and repairing			Railroad equipment			Locomotives and parts			Railroad and street cars			Other transportation equipment			Instruments and related products			
	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: Average.....	\$61.22	38.7	\$1.582	\$62.24	40.0	\$1.556	\$63.80	39.6	\$1.611	\$60.82	40.2	\$1.513	\$58.14	40.8	\$1.425	\$53.45	40.1	\$1.333	
1949: Average.....	61.88	37.8	1.637	63.54	39.2	1.621	65.47	39.3	1.666	61.70	38.9	1.586	57.60	39.7	1.451	55.28	39.6	1.396	
1949: April.....	62.90	38.1	1.651	62.42	38.6	1.617	66.20	39.5	1.676	59.54	37.9	1.571	55.50	39.0	1.423	54.51	39.3	1.387	
May.....	61.98	38.0	1.631	63.39	39.2	1.617	66.21	39.6	1.672	61.38	38.9	1.578	56.83	39.6	1.435	54.83	39.5	1.388	
June.....	63.18	38.2	1.651	62.71	39.0	1.608	64.48	39.2	1.645	61.34	38.8	1.581	56.87	39.3	1.447	54.61	39.2	1.393	
July.....	62.16	38.3	1.623	60.32	37.7	1.600	63.65	39.0	1.632	58.23	36.9	1.578	54.94	39.3	1.398	54.37	39.0	1.394	
August.....	60.14	37.1	1.621	62.05	38.4	1.616	66.62	38.8	1.717	59.93	38.1	1.573	58.46	40.4	1.447	54.25	39.0	1.391	
September.....	61.24	37.5	1.633	61.84	38.1	1.623	64.44	38.7	1.665	59.87	37.7	1.588	62.85	41.9	1.500	55.26	39.5	1.390	
October.....	59.33	36.2	1.639	62.49	38.5	1.623	65.07	39.2	1.660	60.06	37.8	1.589	63.11	42.1	1.499	56.08	39.8	1.406	
November.....	57.06	34.5	1.654	63.18	38.3	1.649	66.48	39.2	1.696	59.75	37.3	1.662	59.99	40.1	1.496	56.52	40.0	1.413	
December.....	63.31	38.3	1.653	63.39	38.7	1.638	65.56	39.4	1.664	61.18	38.0	1.610	55.43	38.2	1.451	56.84	40.0	1.421	
1950: January.....	61.74	37.6	1.642	61.60	38.0	1.621	63.29	38.9	1.627	59.77	37.1	1.611	58.67	41.0	1.431	56.49	39.7	1.423	
February.....	61.55	37.3	1.650	64.89	39.4	1.647	67.48	40.0	1.687	62.07	38.7	1.604	60.03	40.4	1.486	56.86	39.9	1.425	
March.....	63.34	38.2	1.668	63.11	39.2	1.610	67.46	40.2	1.678	53.52	38.2	1.532	57.98	39.2	1.479	57.24	40.0	1.431	
April.....	62.64	37.6	1.666	64.52	39.2	1.646	67.56	40.2	1.679	61.19	38.1	1.606	58.19	39.4	1.477	67.14	39.9	1.432	

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Instruments and related products—Continued												Miscellaneous manufacturing industries						
	Ophthalmic goods			Photographic apparatus			Watches and clocks			Professional and scientific instruments			Total: Miscellaneous manufacturing industries			Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware			
	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: Average.....	\$45.54	39.7	\$1.147	\$58.64	40.5	\$1.448	\$48.84	40.1	\$1.218	\$54.78	40.1	\$1.366	\$50.06	40.9	\$1.224	\$57.25	43.6	\$1.313	
1949: Average.....	47.04	39.6	1.188	59.91	39.7	1.509	49.53	39.0	1.270	57.01	39.7	1.436	50.23	39.9	1.259	55.06	41.4	1.330	
1949: April.....	46.61	39.3	1.186	58.80	39.2	1.500	49.34	39.1	1.262	56.03	39.4	1.422	48.95	39.0	1.255	53.76	40.7	1.321	
May.....	47.24	39.7	1.190	58.78	39.4	1.492	48.91	38.6	1.267	56.61	39.7	1.426	48.83	39.0	1.252	51.52	39.6	1.301	
June.....	46.29	38.9	1.190	58.24	38.8	1.501	48.91	38.6	1.267	56.85	39.7	1.432	49.72	39.4	1.262	51.10	39.8	1.284	
July.....	46.57	39.1	1.191	58.84	39.2	1.501	48.15	38.0	1.267	56.13	39.2	1.432	48.75	39.0	1.250	50.00	38.2	1.309	
August.....	45.47	38.6	1.178	58.73	39.1	1.502	48.43	38.5	1.258	56.43	39.3	1.436	48.51	38.9	1.247	50.13	38.5	1.302	
September.....	47.64	39.9	1.194	59.72	39.6	1.508	49.75	39.3	1.266	56.97	39.4	1.446	50.57	40.2	1.258	54.79	41.6	1.317	
October.....	47.60	40.0	1.190	60.26	39.8	1.514	50.69	39.6	1.280	58.17	39.9	1.458	51.44	40.7	1.264	60.29	44.2	1.364	
November.....	47.80	40.1	1.192	62.27	40.7	1.530	51.18	39.8	1.286	57.99	39.8	1.457	51.70	40.9	1.264	61.28	44.6	1.374	
December.....	48.20	40.2	1.199	62.40	40.6	1.537	50.23	39.0	1.288	57.69	40.1	1.463	52.23	40.9	1.277	59.69	43.6	1.369	
1950: January.....	46.88	39.2	1.196	61.60	40.0	1.540	49.86	38.8	1.285	58.64	40.0	1.466	51.78	40.2	1.288	55.52	41.9	1.325	
February.....	47.60	39.6	1.202	61.95	40.1	1.545	50.18	38.9	1.290	58.71	40.1	1.464	51.62	40.2	1.284	55.93	41.4	1.351	
March.....	47.07	39.0	1.207	62.23	40.2	1.548	50.70	39.0	1.300	59.31	40.4	1.468	51.78	40.2	1.288	56.66	41.6	1.362	
April.....	47.63	39.2	1.215	62.93	40.6	1.550	49.97	38.5	1.298	58.79	40.1	1.466	51.82	40.2	1.289	55.65	40.8	1.364	
	Manufacturing—Continued																		
	Miscellaneous manufacturing industries—Continued															Transportation and public utilities			
	Jewelry and findings			Silverware and plated ware			Toys and sporting goods			Costume jewelry, buttons, notions			Other miscellaneous manufacturing industries			Class I railroads ²			
	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: A average.....	\$50.47	41.2	\$1.225	\$62.38	45.4	\$1.374	\$47.24	40.1	\$1.178	\$45.36	40.0	\$1.134	\$50.39	40.7	\$1.238	\$59.14	46.1	\$1.284	
1949: A average.....	51.33	40.8	1.268	58.30	42.0	1.388	47.00	39.1	1.202	46.06	39.3	1.172	51.20	40.0	1.280	60.53	43.1	1.414	
1949: April.....	50.17	40.1	1.251	56.59	41.1	1.377	45.49	37.5	1.213	45.75	39.2	1.167	49.57	39.0	1.271	62.51	46.0	1.359	
May.....	49.76	39.9	1.247	52.99	39.4	1.345	45.96	38.3	1.200	44.54	38.6	1.154	50.06	39.2	1.277	60.69	44.4	1.367	
June.....	49.92	40.1	1.245	52.02	39.5	1.317	46.25	38.8	1.192	46.93	39.4	1.191	51.07	39.5	1.293	57.27	42.3	1.354	
July.....	48.56	37.8	1.289	50.94	38.5	1.323	44.76	37.8	1.184	46.49	39.4	1.180	50.24	39.4	1.275	60.37	44.1	1.369	
August.....	48.11	38.8	1.240	51.88	38.2	1.358	45.67	38.8	1.177	43.88	37.5	1.170	50.11	39.3	1.275	62.64	46.4	1.354	
September.....	51.09	41.1	1.243	57.53	41.6	1.383	47.60	39.7	1.199	45.90	39.2	1.171	51.75	40.3	1.264	60.98	39.6	1.540	
October.....	54.19	42.7	1.269	65.85	45.6	1.444	48.36	40.3	1.200	47.48	39.5	1.202	51.55	40.4	1.276	58.98	38.3	1.537	
November.....	54.44	42.7	1.275	67.23	46.3	1.452	49.45	40.8	1.212	46.18	39.3	1.175	51.77	40.6	1.275	61.80	40.0	1.543	
December.....	54.44	42.1	1.293	64.13	45.0	1.425	47.08	39.1	1.204	46.93	39.5	1.188	53.35	41.2	1.295	61.45	39.9	1.647	
1950: January.....	51.91	41.0	1.266	58.40	42.6	1.371	48.06	39.3	1.223	47.24	39.4	1.199	52.83	40.3	1.311	61.69	39.8	1.550	
February.....	51.31	40.4	1.270	60.21	42.4	1.420	48.47	39.6	1.224	47.24	39.3	1.202	52.59	40.3	1.305	62.37	39.8	1.567	
March.....	51.63	40.4	1.278	61.16	42.8	1.429	49.24	40.0	1.231	48.07	39.5	1.217	52.38	40.2	1.303	-----	-----	-----	
April.....	51.78	40.2	1.288	59.31	41.8	1.419	49.68	39.9	1.245	48.10	39.3	1.224	52.35	40.3	1.299	-----	-----	-----	

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees¹—Con.

Year and month	Transportation and public utilities—Continued																	
	Local railways and bus lines ⁸			Communication														
				Telephone ⁹			Switchboard operating employees ¹⁰			Line construction, installation, and maintenance employees ¹¹			Telegraph ¹²					
	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: Average	\$61.73	46.1	\$1.339	\$48.92	39.2	\$1.248									\$60.26	44.7	\$1.348	
1949: Average	64.61	44.9	1.439	51.78	38.5	1.345								62.85	44.7	1.406		
1949: April	64.64	45.2	1.430	50.58	38.2	1.324								63.37	45.3	1.399		
May	64.48	44.0	1.436	51.84	38.6	1.343								63.69	45.2	1.409		
June	66.01	46.0	1.435	51.49	38.4	1.341	\$44.30	36.7	\$1.207	\$68.52	41.6	\$1.647	62.96	45.0	1.399			
July	65.21	45.1	1.446	51.90	38.5	1.348	44.21	37.0	1.211	69.05	41.6	1.660	63.97	45.4	1.409			
August	64.46	44.7	1.442	51.57	38.4	1.343	44.23	36.8	1.202	69.22	41.6	1.664	63.64	45.1	1.411			
September	64.55	44.3	1.457	52.61	38.6	1.363	45.37	37.1	1.223	70.10	41.7	1.681	62.83	44.5	1.412			
October	64.31	44.2	1.455	53.29	38.7	1.377	46.35	37.2	1.246	70.35	41.6	1.691	62.97	44.5	1.415			
November	64.17	44.1	1.455	54.40	38.8	1.402	48.04	37.3	1.288	71.35	41.7	1.711	62.05	43.7	1.420			
December	65.10	44.5	1.463	52.49	38.4	1.367	44.42	36.5	1.217	70.89	41.8	1.696	62.23	43.7	1.424			
1950: January	65.11	44.2	1.473	53.13	38.5	1.380	44.58	36.3	1.228	72.46	42.3	1.713	62.84	44.1	1.425			
February	65.22	44.4	1.469	53.69	38.6	1.391	45.82	36.8	1.245	72.33	42.2	1.714	62.97	44.1	1.428			
March	65.20	44.2	1.475	53.01	38.5	1.377	45.03	36.7	1.227	70.55	41.6	1.696	62.93	44.1	1.427			
April	65.62	44.4	1.478	53.44	38.7	1.381	46.19	37.4	1.235	70.76	41.6	1.701	64.13	44.6	1.438			
				Trade														
	Transportation and public utilities—Continued			Trade														
	Gas and electric utilities			Wholesale trade			Retail trade											
Other public utilities							Retail trade (except eating and drinking places)			General merchandise stores			Department stores and general mail-order houses					
1948: Average	\$60.74	41.8	\$1.453	\$55.58	40.9	\$1.359	\$43.85	40.3	\$1.088	\$33.31	36.6	\$0.910	\$37.36	37.7	\$0.991			
1949: Average	63.99	41.5	1.642	57.55	40.7	1.414	45.93	40.4	1.137	34.87	36.7	.950	39.31	37.8	1.040			
1949: April	62.82	41.3	1.521	57.12	40.6	1.407	45.31	40.2	1.127	34.26	36.6	.936	38.80	37.6	1.032			
May	63.40	41.3	1.535	57.83	40.7	1.421	45.98	40.3	1.141	34.85	36.3	.960	39.33	37.6	1.046			
June	63.64	41.3	1.541	57.49	40.6	1.416	46.45	40.5	1.147	35.62	36.8	.968	39.95	37.8	1.057			
July	64.02	41.3	1.550	58.18	40.8	1.426	46.95	40.9	1.148	35.86	37.2	.964	39.79	38.0	1.047			
August	63.92	41.4	1.544	57.10	40.7	1.403	46.87	40.9	1.146	35.75	37.2	.961	39.58	37.8	1.047			
September	64.75	41.4	1.564	57.35	40.7	1.409	46.58	40.5	1.150	35.17	36.6	.961	39.48	37.6	1.050			
October	65.72	41.7	1.576	58.36	40.9	1.427	46.06	40.4	1.140	34.65	36.4	.952	38.90	37.4	1.040			
November	65.03	41.5	1.567	57.86	40.6	1.425	45.63	40.1	1.138	34.30	36.3	.945	38.75	37.4	1.036			
December	66.04	41.8	1.580	58.20	40.9	1.423	45.83	40.7	1.126	36.12	38.1	.948	42.12	39.7	1.061			
1950: January	66.09	41.7	1.585	58.14	40.6	1.432	46.58	40.4	1.153	35.68	36.9	.967	40.21	37.9	1.061			
February	65.08	41.4	1.572	58.27	40.3	1.446	46.26	40.4	1.145	35.44	36.8	.963	39.85	37.7	1.057			
March	64.96	41.3	1.573	58.56	40.3	1.453	46.34	40.4	1.147	35.14	36.6	.930	39.78	37.6	1.058			
April	65.09	41.3	1.576	58.73	40.2	1.461	46.30	40.3	1.151	34.46	36.2	.952	39.67	37.6	1.055			
	Trade—Continued																	
	Retail trade—Continued						Other retail trade											
	Food and liquor stores			Automotive and accessories dealers			Apparel and accessories stores			Furniture and appliances stores			Lumber and hardware supply stores					
1948: Average	\$47.15	40.3	\$1.170	\$56.07	45.4	\$1.235	\$39.60	36.5	\$1.085	\$51.15	42.7	\$1.198	\$49.37	43.5	\$1.135			
1949: Average	49.93	40.2	1.242	58.92	45.6	1.292	40.66	36.7	1.108	53.30	43.4	1.228	51.84	43.6	1.189			
1949: April	49.08	40.0	1.227	59.50	45.7	1.302	40.88	36.7	1.114	52.82	43.4	1.217	51.35	43.3	1.186			
May	48.99	39.7	1.234	60.00	45.8	1.310	40.92	36.8	1.112	53.29	43.5	1.225	52.48	44.1	1.190			
June	50.26	40.4	1.244	59.70	45.5	1.312	40.85	36.7	1.113	53.16	43.5	1.222	51.96	43.7	1.189			
July	51.13	41.1	1.244	59.83	45.6	1.312	40.37	36.5	1.106	52.78	43.3	1.219	52.34	43.8	1.195			
August	51.00	41.0	1.244	59.55	45.6	1.306	40.52	36.8	1.101	52.82	43.4	1.217	52.40	44.0	1.191			
September	50.57	40.2	1.258	59.51	45.5	1.308	41.66	37.1	1.123	53.37	43.6	1.224	52.18	43.7	1.194			
October	50.25	40.3	1.247	59.39	45.9	1.294	40.15	36.6	1.097	53.38	43.4	1.230	52.96	44.1	1.201			
November	50.37	40.1	1.256	58.78	45.6	1.289	40.26	36.5	1.103	54.32	43.7	1.243	51.79	43.3	1.196			
December	50.54	40.3	1.254	58.26	45.8	1.272	41.22	36.8	1.120	56.70	44.4	1.277	52.16	43.5	1.199			
1950: January	50.68	40.0	1.267	58.72	45.8	1.282	41.07	36.7	1.119	54.81	43.6	1.257	51.58	43.2	1.194			
February	50.85	40.1	1.268	57.76	45.3	1.275	40.07	36.9	1.086	53.25	43.4	1.227	51.72	43.1	1.200			
March	50.97	40.2	1.268	59.04	45.7	1.292	39.53	36.5	1.083	53.72	43.6	1.232	51.81	43.1	1.202			
April	50.51	40.1	1.267	60.10	45.7	1.315	39.96	35.9	1.113	54.29	43.5	1.248	52.96	43.7	1.212			

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1: Hours and Gross Earnings of Production Workers or Nonsupervisory Employees ¹-Con.

Year and month	Finance ^{1a}			Service									
	Banks and trust companies	Security dealers and exchanges	Insurance carriers	Hotels, year-round ¹⁴			Laundries			Cleaning and dyeing plants			Motion picture production and distribution ¹⁵
				Avg. wkly. 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	
1948: Average	\$41.51	\$66.83	\$54.93	\$31.41	44.3	\$0.709	\$34.23	41.9	\$0.817	\$39.50	41.1	\$0.961	\$92.27
1949: Average	43.64	68.32	56.47	32.84	44.2	.743	34.98	41.5	.843	40.71	41.2	.988	92.17
1949: April	43.49	67.48	56.48	32.35	44.2	.732	35.24	41.8	.843	42.15	42.4	.994	90.24
May	44.05	67.82	57.26	32.99	44.7	.738	36.04	42.4	.850	43.17	42.7	1.011	90.96
June	43.10	66.12	56.59	32.85	44.1	.745	35.32	41.6	.849	42.17	42.3	.997	94.73
July	43.80	65.70	56.70	32.90	44.1	.746	35.03	41.5	.844	40.43	41.0	.986	95.52
August	43.10	65.30	55.54	32.93	44.2	.745	34.27	40.8	.840	38.63	39.5	.978	92.65
September	43.62	67.29	55.33	32.90	44.1	.746	34.69	41.2	.842	41.28	41.7	.990	92.26
October	43.94	71.25	56.04	32.84	44.2	.743	34.57	41.1	.841	40.15	41.1	.977	94.38
November	43.96	72.54	55.89	33.13	44.0	.753	34.23	40.9	.837	39.96	40.9	.977	91.54
December	43.95	74.12	56.52	33.24	43.8	.759	34.77	41.2	.844	40.47	41.0	.987	93.39
1949: January	45.29	75.78	57.78	33.06	43.9	.753	35.15	41.5	.847	40.75	41.2	.989	87.82
February	45.52	77.61	57.65	33.51	43.8	.765	34.39	40.8	.843	39.26	39.9	.984	88.94
March	45.41	78.81	57.07	32.99	43.7	.755	34.69	41.0	.846	40.32	40.6	.993	90.91
April	45.81	81.29	57.93	33.12	43.7	.758	35.55	41.1	.865	40.08	40.2	.997	91.23

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during, or received pay for, the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. For mining, manufacturing, laundries, and cleaning and dyeing plants industries, the data relate to production and related workers only. For the remaining industries, unless otherwise noted, the data relate to nonsupervisory employees and working supervisors. All series, beginning with January 1947, 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 will be identified by an asterisk (*) for the first month's publication of such data.

^{1a} Data relate to all construction workers, both on-site and off-site, engaged in actual construction work including pre-assembly and precutting operations. Both privately and publicly financed construction are included. Data are based on comparable but not necessarily identical samples.

² Includes ordnance and accessories; lumber and wood products (except furniture) furniture and fixtures; stone, clay, and glass products; primary metal industries; fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment); machinery (except electrical); electrical machinery; transportation equipment; instruments and related products; and miscellaneous manufacturing industries.

³ Includes food and kindred products; tobacco manufactures; textile-mill products; apparel and other finished textile products; paper and allied products; printing, publishing, and allied industries; chemicals and allied products; products of petroleum and coal; rubber products; and leather and leather products.

⁴ Data by region, North and South, from January 1949, are available upon request.

⁵ Data by region, South and West, from January 1949, are available upon request.

⁷ These averages are based on reports summarized in the M-300 report prepared by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and relate to all hourly rated employees who received pay during the month. Most executive, professional, and supervisory personnel are excluded. Switching and terminal companies are excluded. The annual average data include retroactive pay when such payments are made. Monthly data do not include retroactive payments. Beginning with September 1, 1949, data reflect the following changes for nonoperative employees (about two-thirds of the total): (1) scheduled weekly hours were reduced from 48 to 40; (2) hourly rates were adjusted to maintain the former weekly earnings for 48 hours; (3) an additional wage increase of \$0.07 an hour was granted.

⁸ Data include privately and municipally operated local railways and businesses.

⁹ Through May 1949 the averages relate mainly to the hours and earnings of employees subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act. Beginning with June 1949 the averages relate to the hours and earnings of nonsupervisory employees. Data for June comparable with the earlier series are \$51.47, 38.5 hours, and \$1.337.

¹⁰ Data include employees such as switchboard operators, service assistants, operating-room instructors, and pay-station attendants.

¹¹ Data include employees such as central office craftsmen; installation and exchange repair craftsmen; line, cable, and conduit craftsmen; and laborers.

¹² Data relate mainly to land-line employees, excluding employees compensated on a commission basis, general and divisional headquarters personnel, trainees in school, and messengers.

¹³ Data on average weekly hours and average hourly earnings are not available.

¹⁴ Money payments only; additional value of board, room, uniforms, and tips, not included.

TABLE C-2: Gross Average Weekly Earnings of Production Workers in Selected Industries, in Current and 1939 Dollars ¹

Year and month	Manufacturing		Bituminous-coal mining		Laundries		Year and month	Manufacturing		Bituminous-coal mining		Laundries	
	Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars		Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars
1948: Average	\$54.14	\$31.43	\$72.12	\$41.87	\$34.23	\$19.87	1949: September	\$55.72	\$32.66	\$52.46	\$30.75	\$34.69	\$20.33
1949: Average	54.92	32.28	63.28	37.20	34.98	20.56	October	55.26	32.60	63.10	37.22	34.57	20.39
1949: April	53.80	31.51	72.33	42.37	35.24	20.64	November	54.43	32.09	68.17	40.19	34.23	20.18
May	54.08	31.77	72.98	42.87	36.04	21.17	December	56.04	33.26	48.74	28.92	34.77	20.63
June	54.51	31.95	59.90	35.11	35.32	20.70	1950: January	56.29	33.52	47.36	28.21	35.15	20.93
July	54.63	32.23	47.94	28.28	35.03	20.66	February	56.37	33.65	49.83	29.75	34.39	20.53
August	54.70	32.21	49.51	29.15	34.27	20.18	March	56.49	33.62	79.15	47.11	34.69	20.65
							April ²	56.93	33.82	72.72	43.21	35.55	21.12

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 the Monthly Labor Review, March 1947, p. 498. See Note, table C-4. Comparable data from January 1947 are available upon request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

² Preliminary.

TABLE C-3: Gross and Net Spendable Average Weekly Earnings of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries, in Current and 1939 Dollars ¹

Period	Gross average weekly earnings		Net spendable average weekly earnings				Period	Gross average weekly earnings		Net spendable average weekly earnings			
	Amount	Index (1939=100)	Worker with no dependents		Worker with 3 dependents			Amount	Index (1939=100)	Worker with no dependents		Worker with 3 dependents	
			Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars				Current dollars	1939 dollars	Current dollars	1939 dollars
1941: January	\$26.64	111.7	\$25.41	\$25.06	\$26.37	\$26.00	1949: April	53.80	225.5	47.14	27.61	52.88	30.97
1945: January	47.50	199.1	39.40	30.81	45.17	35.33	May	54.08	226.7	47.38	27.83	53.12	31.21
July	45.45	190.5	37.80	29.04	43.57	33.47	June	54.51	228.5	47.74	27.98	53.48	31.34
1946: June	43.31	181.5	37.30	27.81	42.78	31.90	July	54.63	229.0	47.84	28.22	53.58	31.61
1939: A verage	23.86	100.0	23.58	23.58	23.62	23.62	August	54.70	229.3	47.90	28.21	53.64	31.59
1940: A verage	25.20	105.6	24.69	24.49	24.95	24.75	September	55.72	235.5	48.75	28.57	54.50	31.94
1941: A verage	29.58	124.0	28.05	26.51	29.28	27.67	October	55.26	231.6	48.37	28.53	54.11	31.92
1942: A verage	36.65	153.6	31.77	27.11	36.28	30.96	November	54.43	228.1	47.67	28.10	53.41	31.49
1943: A verage	43.14	180.8	36.01	28.97	41.39	33.30	December	56.04	234.9	49.02	29.09	54.77	32.50
1944: A verage	46.08	193.1	38.29	30.32	44.06	34.89	1950: January	56.29	235.9	48.94	29.15	54.70	32.53
1945: A verage	44.39	186.0	36.97	28.61	42.74	33.68	February	56.37	236.3	49.00	29.25	54.74	32.99
1946: A verage	43.74	183.3	37.65	26.87	43.13	30.78	March ²	56.49	236.8	49.10	29.22	54.86	32.65
1947: A verage	49.97	209.4	42.76	26.70	48.24	30.12	April ²	56.93	238.6	49.46	29.39	55.23	32.81
1948: A verage	54.14	226.9	47.43	27.64	53.17	30.87							
1949: A verage	54.92	230.2	48.09	28.27	53.83	31.64							

¹ Net spendable average weekly earnings are obtained by deducting from gross average 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 2 types of income-receivers: (1) A worker with no dependents; (2) A worker with 3 dependents.

The computation of net spendable earnings for both the factory worker with no dependents and the factory worker with 3 dependents are based upon the

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 2 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. See Note, table C-4. Comparable data from January 1947 are available upon request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

² Preliminary.

TABLE C-4: Average Hourly Earnings, Gross and Exclusive of Overtime, of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries ¹

Period	Manufacturing			Durable goods		Nondurable goods		Period	Manufacturing			Durable goods		Nondurable goods	
	Gross amount	Excluding overtime		Gross	Excluding overtime	Gross	Excluding overtime		Gross amount	Excluding overtime		Gross	Excluding overtime	Gross	Excluding overtime
		Amount	Index (1939=100)							Amount	Index (1939=100)				
1948: A verage	\$1.356	\$1.210	207.0	\$1.410	\$1.266	\$1.278	\$1.241	1949: September	\$1.407	\$1.369	216.3	\$1.482	\$1.444	\$1.328	\$1.290
1949: A verage	1.401	1.367	216.0	1.469	1.434	1.325	1.292	October	1.392	1.353	213.7	1.458	1.419	1.325	1.287
1949: April	1.401	1.373	216.9	1.467	1.437	1.321	1.294	November	1.392	1.357	214.4	1.457	1.425	1.325	1.289
May	1.401	1.371	216.6	1.467	1.437	1.323	1.294	December	1.408	1.368	216.1	1.476	1.435	1.334	1.296
June	1.485	1.373	216.9	1.475	1.443	1.324	1.293	1950: January	1.418	1.380	218.0	1.485	1.445	1.343	1.307
July	1.408	1.376	217.4	1.477	1.447	1.332	1.298	February	1.420	1.382	218.3	1.483	1.442	1.350	1.316
August	1.394	1.366	215.8	1.473	1.440	1.319	1.286	March ²	1.423	1.385	218.8	1.486	1.443	1.353	1.319
								April ²	1.434	1.392	219.9	1.498	1.448	1.355	1.323

¹ Overtime is defined as work in excess of 40 hours per week and paid for at time and one-half. The computation of average hourly earnings exclusive of overtime makes no allowance for special rates of pay for work done on holi-

days. Comparable data from January 1947 are available upon request to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

² Preliminary.

D: Prices and Cost of Living

TABLE D-1: Consumers' Price Index ¹ 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 ²				Housefurnishings	Miscellaneous ³
					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	152.2	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
December 15	171.4	205.0	200.4	119.5	137.8	95.3	191.3	138.4	198.6	154.0
1949: Average	169.1	201.9	190.1	120.8	137.5	96.7	187.7	141.7	189.0	154.6
May 15	169.2	202.4	191.3	120.4	135.4	96.9	182.7	140.1	189.5	154.5
June 15	169.6	204.3	190.3	120.6	135.6	96.9	183.0	140.0	187.3	154.2
July 15	168.5	201.7	188.5	120.7	135.6	96.9	183.1	139.9	186.8	154.3
August 15	168.8	202.6	187.4	120.8	135.8	97.1	183.1	141.1	184.8	154.8
September 15	160.6	204.2	187.2	121.2	137.0	97.1	185.9	141.5	185.6	155.2
October 15	168.5	200.6	186.8	121.5	138.4	97.0	188.3	145.6	185.2	155.2
November 15	165.6	200.8	186.3	122.0	139.1	97.0	190.0	146.6	185.4	154.9
December 15	167.5	197.3	185.8	122.2	139.7	97.2	191.6	145.5	185.4	155.5
1950: January 15	166.9	196.0	185.0	122.6	140.0	96.7	193.1	145.5	184.7	155.1
February 15	166.5	194.8	184.8	122.8	140.3	97.1	193.2	145.5	185.3	155.1
March 15	167.0	196.0	185.0	122.9	140.9	97.1	194.4	146.6	185.4	155.0
April 15	167.3	196.6	185.1	123.1	141.4	97.2	195.6	146.6	185.6	154.8
May 15	168.6	200.3	185.1	123.5	138.8	97.1	189.1	146.6	185.4	155.3

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 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 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."

³ 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.

⁴ Data not available.

⁵ Rents not surveyed this month;

TABLE D-2: Consumers' Price Index for Moderate-Income Families, by City,¹ for Selected Periods

[1935-39=100]

City	May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950	Mar. 15, 1950	Feb. 15, 1950	Jan. 15, 1950	Dec. 15, 1949	Nov. 15, 1949	Oct. 15, 1949	Sept. 15, 1949	Aug. 15, 1949	July 15, 1949	June 15, 1949	May 15, 1949	June 15, 1946	Aug. 15, 1939
Average.....	168.6	167.3	167.0	166.5	166.9	167.5	168.6	168.5	169.6	168.8	168.5	169.6	169.2	133.3	98.6
Atlanta, Ga.....	169.3	(2)	(2)	168.3	(2)	(2)	170.5	(2)	(2)	172.3	(2)	(2)	170.5	133.8	98.0
Baltimore, Md.....	(2)	(2)	170.1	(2)	(2)	170.9	(2)	(2)	174.0	(2)	(2)	174.2	(2)	135.6	98.7
Birmingham, Ala.....	169.0	167.7	168.4	166.4	166.9	168.4	170.5	170.3	171.8	171.1	171.0	172.1	171.4	136.5	98.5
Boston, Mass.....	163.3	162.3	162.0	160.7	161.5	162.7	164.0	164.1	165.4	163.8	162.6	163.3	162.2	127.9	97.1
Buffalo, N. Y.....	(2)	166.3	(2)	(2)	164.8	(2)	(2)	167.4	(2)	(2)	169.4	(2)	(2)	132.6	98.5
Chicago, Ill.....	175.3	172.9	172.9	172.0	172.3	173.2	175.3	174.4	176.8	174.4	173.9	175.9	174.2	130.9	98.7
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	169.7	167.3	167.9	167.2	167.7	167.8	168.3	168.7	170.8	168.8	168.7	170.5	169.1	132.2	97.3
Cleveland, Ohio.....	170.1	(2)	(2)	168.7	(2)	(2)	170.3	(2)	(2)	171.6	(2)	(2)	171.5	135.7	100.0
Denver, Colo.....	(2)	165.7	(2)	(2)	164.5	(2)	(2)	164.6	(2)	(2)	167.8	(2)	(2)	131.7	98.6
Detroit, Mich.....	171.4	169.5	168.3	168.1	168.5	169.1	169.8	168.7	170.4	169.9	170.4	172.0	171.6	136.4	98.5
Houston, Tex.....	172.4	171.9	172.9	172.0	172.8	173.2	173.3	172.0	171.4	170.4	170.4	170.5	170.6	130.5	100.7
Indianapolis, Ind.....	(2)	170.9	(2)	(2)	170.6	(2)	(2)	172.1	(2)	(2)	171.0	(2)	(2)	131.9	98.0
Jacksonville, Fla.....	(2)	(2)	174.8	(2)	(2)	175.5	(2)	(2)	176.5	(2)	(2)	174.9	(2)	135.4	98.5
Kansas City, Mo.....	(2)	161.1	(2)	(2)	160.6	(2)	(2)	161.1	(2)	(2)	162.1	(2)	(2)	129.4	98.6
Los Angeles, Calif.....	166.7	166.9	165.9	166.1	166.9	165.4	166.6	166.5	167.1	166.8	167.2	168.7	169.6	136.1	100.5
Manchester, N. H.....	(2)	167.1	(2)	(2)	167.1	(2)	(2)	169.3	(2)	(2)	170.0	(2)	(2)	134.7	97.8
Memphis, Tenn.....	(2)	(2)	169.4	(2)	(2)	170.8	(2)	(2)	172.7	(2)	(2)	173.5	(2)	134.5	97.8
Milwaukee, Wis.....	170.9	(2)	(2)	167.6	(2)	(2)	168.4	(2)	(2)	166.9	(2)	(2)	169.3	131.2	97.0
Minneapolis, Minn.....	(2)	(2)	167.1	(2)	(2)	167.4	(2)	(2)	168.3	(2)	(2)	169.1	(2)	129.4	98.7
Mobile, Ala.....	(2)	(2)	166.2	(2)	(2)	167.4	(2)	(2)	169.2	(2)	(2)	170.3	(2)	132.9	98.6
New Orleans, La.....	171.5	(2)	(2)	170.6	(2)	(2)	173.3	(2)	(2)	173.8	(2)	(2)	172.5	138.0	99.7
New York, N. Y.....	165.4	164.5	164.0	163.7	163.7	164.9	165.8	165.9	167.5	166.8	167.1	167.0	166.8	135.8	99.0
Norfolk, Va.....	170.9	(2)	(2)	167.1	(2)	(2)	168.2	(2)	(2)	170.2	(2)	(2)	170.3	135.2	97.8
Philadelphia, Pa.....	167.1	166.0	166.0	165.1	165.9	167.3	168.6	168.9	169.6	168.7	167.5	169.2	169.9	132.5	98.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	172.0	170.1	169.5	169.5	169.9	170.3	171.3	171.1	172.3	172.4	171.9	173.1	172.9	134.7	98.4
Portland, Maine.....	(2)	(2)	163.7	(2)	(2)	162.8	(2)	(2)	164.9	(2)	(2)	165.8	(2)	128.7	97.1
Portland, Oreg.....	(2)	174.8	(2)	(2)	173.8	(2)	(2)	173.6	(2)	(2)	175.1	(2)	(2)	140.3	100.1
Richmond, Va.....	(2)	161.9	(2)	(2)	161.8	(2)	(2)	164.9	(2)	(2)	164.4	(2)	(2)	128.2	98.0
St. Louis, Mo.....	(2)	(2)	167.4	(2)	(2)	167.8	(2)	(2)	168.9	(2)	(2)	169.8	(2)	131.2	98.1
San Francisco, Calif.....	(2)	(2)	172.3	(2)	(2)	171.5	(2)	(2)	173.0	(2)	(2)	173.7	(2)	137.8	99.3
Savannah, Ga.....	(2)	170.9	(2)	(2)	169.1	(2)	(2)	173.4	(2)	(2)	173.3	(2)	(2)	140.6	99.3
Scranton, Pa.....	167.3	(2)	(2)	163.7	(2)	(2)	166.3	(2)	(2)	169.5	(2)	(2)	168.4	132.2	96.0
Seattle, Wash.....	171.8	(2)	(2)	171.6	(2)	(2)	171.6	(2)	(2)	170.8	(2)	(2)	172.5	137.0	100.3
Washington, D. O.....	165.2	(2)	(2)	163.7	(2)	(2)	166.2	(2)	(2)	166.0	(2)	(2)	165.3	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.

³ Corrected.

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	
	May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950	May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950	May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950	Total		Gas and electricity		May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950	May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950
							May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950	May 15, 1950	Apr. 15, 1950				
Average.....	200.3	196.6	185.1	185.1	123.5	123.1	138.8	141.4	97.1	97.2	185.4	185.6	155.3	154.8
Atlanta, Ga.....	194.7	192.6	191.4	(1)	127.8	(2)	146.9	155.3	83.4	83.4	187.2	(1)	159.6	(1)
Baltimore, Md.....	211.0	206.1	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	149.2	153.2	126.2	127.5	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Birmingham, Ala.....	193.1	189.6	194.2	194.5	143.8	143.8	131.6	131.4	79.6	79.6	178.0	178.5	150.3	149.8
Boston, Mass.....	191.7	188.4	174.7	174.2	119.3	118.9	149.9	154.4	117.2	117.6	178.2	178.4	153.8	153.7
Buffalo, N. Y.....	195.9	193.3	(1)	178.4	(2)	125.3	148.1	149.5	110.0	110.0	(1)	183.2	(1)	157.8
Chicago, Ill.....	208.2	201.5	190.1	188.6	142.3	142.4	133.0	136.0	83.5	83.5	169.8	169.8	158.3	158.2
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	202.9	196.7	184.2	184.3	115.9	115.8	146.7	151.4	101.9	101.9	177.9	176.0	156.0	154.6
Cleveland, Ohio.....	206.3	203.1	182.5	(1)	129.4	(2)	147.0	149.6	105.6	105.6	167.6	(1)	151.2	(1)
Denver, Colo.....	203.8	198.6	(1)	181.7	(2)	126.7	112.9	112.9	69.2	69.2	(1)	206.0	(1)	151.3
Detroit, Mich.....	198.7	194.2	181.6	181.1	129.9	129.8	149.5	152.5	89.7	89.8	197.0	197.2	168.1	166.2
Houston, Tex.....	205.5	205.1	195.2	195.7	144.5	143.2	98.4	98.4	81.8	81.8	184.0	184.0	158.4	157.9
Indianapolis, Ind.....	197.1	192.6	(1)	182.4	(2)	134.1	157.6	163.5	86.6	86.6	(1)	177.1	(1)	161.1
Jacksonville, Fla.....	202.7	200.0	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	149.4	149.4	100.5	100.5	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Kansas City, Mo.....	187.3	184.0	(1)	178.4	(2)	128.5	127.2	127.1	67.3	67.2	(1)	179.1	(1)	154.9
Los Angeles, Calif.....	199.8	200.6	181.8	182.7	131.4	130.1	100.1	100.2	95.5	95.5	183.2	183.8	151.9	152.1
Manchester, N. H.....	197.5	192.1	(1)	175.2	(2)	115.7	149.8	151.5	97.5	97.6	(1)	197.1	(1)	149.0
Memphis, Tenn.....	204.3	201.3	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	140.3	140.3	77.0	77.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Milwaukee, Wis.....	203.9	197.6	183.9	(1)	135.7	(2)	142.7	146.5	99.0	99.0	187.6	(1)	150.4	(1)
Minneapolis, Minn.....	192.2	187.9	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	142.7	142.7	79.6	79.6	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Mobile, Ala.....	199.5	199.1	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	129.2	129.2	84.3	84.3	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
New Orleans, La.....	209.3	209.3	197.1	(1)	115.9	(2)	113.1	113.1	75.1	75.1	190.1	(1)	145.4	(1)
New York, N. Y.....	200.1	197.1	183.7	184.0	108.9	108.9	140.4	141.6	102.0	102.1	173.2	173.8	157.5	158.1
Norfolk, Va.....	202.2	197.0	178.9	(1)	121.7	(2)	159.5	159.5	106.4	106.4	186.9	(1)	156.1	(1)
Philadelphia, Pa.....	194.6	191.5	181.8	180.9	121.7	121.7	141.5	146.0	104.2	104.2	191.2	189.8	152.3	152.0
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	205.9	200.5	213.4	213.4	122.6	121.8	137.1	138.9	103.3	103.4	186.9	189.9	149.9	149.8
Portland, Maine.....	189.7	187.8	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	145.2	148.9	105.8	105.7	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Portland, Oreg.....	217.2	213.0	(1)	184.3	(2)	129.9	131.5	132.0	91.9	92.9	(1)	182.2	(1)	159.1
Richmond, Va.....	192.0	188.2	(1)	185.0	(2)	115.0	145.3	151.6	109.4	109.4	(1)	196.0	(1)	145.5
St. Louis, Mo.....	208.4	202.5	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	135.2	139.4	88.4	88.4	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
San Francisco, Calif.....	213.2	212.9	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)	86.8	86.8	76.5	76.5	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Savannah, Ga.....	205.5	200.5	(1)	185.0	(2)	120.8	151.9	152.1	108.6	108.6	(1)	193.8	(1)	159.0
Scranton, Pa.....	199.6	192.6	193.5	(1)	113.0	(2)	147.2	149.2	98.3	98.3	168.0	(1)	144.2	(1)
Seattle, Wash.....	206.8	205.2	182.3	(1)	126.7	(2)	130.9	130.9	91.7	91.7	189.7	(1)	159.8	(1)
Washington, D. C.....	198.4	193.3	209.4	(1)	106.8	(2)	142.4	145.6	105.5	105.5	196.0	(1)	158.0	(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 D-4: Indexes of Retail Prices of Foods,¹ by Group, for Selected Periods

[1935-39=100]

Year and month	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats, poultry, and fish	Meats				Chick-ens	Fish	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables				Bever-ages	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
				Total	Beef and veal	Pork	Lamb					Total	Fresh	Canned	Dried			
1923: Average	124.0	105.5	101.2							129.4	136.1	160.5	173.6	124.8	175.4	131.5	126.2	175.4
1926: Average	137.4	115.7	117.8							127.4	141.7	210.8	226.2	122.9	162.4	170.4	145.0	120.0
1929: Average	132.5	107.6	127.1							131.0	143.8	169.0	173.5	124.3	171.0	164.8	127.2	114.3
1932: Average	86.5	82.6	79.3							84.9	82.3	103.5	105.9	91.1	91.2	112.6	71.1	89.6
1939: Average	95.2	94.5	96.6	96.6	101.1	88.9	99.5	93.8	101.0	95.9	91.0	94.5	95.1	92.3	93.3	95.5	87.7	100.6
August	93.5	93.4	95.7	95.4	99.6	88.0	98.8	94.6	99.6	93.1	90.7	92.4	92.8	91.6	90.3	94.9	84.5	95.6
1940: Average	96.6	96.8	95.8	94.4	102.8	81.1	99.7	94.8	110.6	101.4	93.8	96.5	97.3	92.4	100.6	92.5	82.2	96.8
1941: Average	105.5	97.9	107.5	106.5	110.8	100.1	106.6	102.1	124.5	112.0	112.2	103.2	104.2	97.9	106.7	101.5	94.0	106.4
December	113.1	102.5	111.1	109.7	114.4	103.2	108.1	100.5	138.9	120.5	138.1	110.5	111.0	106.3	118.3	114.1	108.5	114.4
1942: Average	123.9	105.1	126.0	122.5	123.6	120.4	124.1	122.6	163.0	125.4	136.5	130.8	132.8	121.6	136.3	122.1	119.6	126.5
1943: Average	138.0	107.6	133.8	124.2	124.7	119.9	136.9	146.1	206.5	134.6	161.9	168.8	178.0	130.6	158.9	124.8	126.1	127.1
1944: Average	136.1	108.4	129.9	117.9	118.7	112.2	134.5	151.0	207.6	133.6	153.9	168.2	177.2	129.5	164.5	124.3	123.3	128.5
1945: Average	139.1	109.0	131.2	118.0	118.4	112.6	136.0	154.4	217.1	133.9	164.4	177.1	188.2	130.2	168.2	124.7	124.0	126.5
August	140.9	109.1	131.8	116.1	118.5	112.6	136.4	157.3	217.8	133.4	171.4	183.5	196.2	130.3	168.6	124.7	124.0	126.6
1946: Average	159.6	125.0	161.3	150.8	150.5	148.2	163.9	174.0	236.2	165.1	168.8	182.4	190.7	140.8	190.4	139.6	152.1	143.9
June	145.6	122.1	134.0	120.4	121.2	114.3	139.0	162.8	219.7	147.8	147.1	183.5	196.7	127.5	172.5	125.4	126.4	136.2
November	187.7	140.6	203.6	197.9	191.0	207.1	205.4	188.9	265.0	198.5	201.6	184.5	182.3	167.7	251.6	167.8	244.4	170.5
1947: Average	193.8	155.4	217.1	214.7	213.6	215.9	220.1	183.2	271.4	186.2	200.8	199.4	201.5	166.2	263.5	186.8	197.5	180.0
1948: Average	210.2	170.9	246.5	243.9	258.5	222.5	246.8	203.2	312.8	204.8	208.7	205.2	212.4	158.0	246.8	205.0	195.5	174.0
1949: Average	201.9	169.7	233.4	229.3	241.3	205.9	251.7	191.5	314.1	186.7	201.2	208.1	218.8	152.9	227.4	220.7	148.4	176.4
May	202.4	170.1	232.3	228.0	235.2	203.9	275.5	190.5	315.4	182.6	190.9	220.7	234.6	156.3	227.5	207.2	144.4	176.1
June	204.3	169.7	240.6	239.3	247.8	216.0	278.4	184.4	312.6	182.0	198.0	217.9	231.1	155.3	227.3	207.6	142.9	176.5
July	201.7	169.5	236.0	234.4	245.3	209.8	265.5	182.8	307.7	182.2	204.1	210.2	221.2	154.2	228.1	208.2	141.0	176.2
August	202.6	169.4	239.5	237.3	246.3	221.9	247.8	191.5	308.9	184.9	222.2	201.9	211.4	149.7	229.6	208.8	144.0	176.5
September	204.2	169.7	243.6	242.0	249.9	227.6	254.7	192.5	311.9	185.3	232.6	199.8	209.0	148.0	230.1	211.0	148.3	176.8
October	200.6	169.1	235.1	233.1	248.2	207.7	246.1	184.6	306.8	186.7	227.8	194.5	202.3	147.0	225.5	213.8	144.5	177.5
November	200.8	169.2	229.1	226.4	248.5	189.7	242.0	184.5	300.6	186.4	207.8	202.0	212.7	146.2	224.7	265.3	139.7	178.9
December	197.3	169.2	223.2	220.0	245.2	178.3	236.1	179.5	299.0	186.2	178.0	198.2	208.0	145.1	224.3	292.5	136.7	178.8
1950: January	196.0	169.0	219.4	217.9	242.3	177.3	234.3	158.9	301.9	184.2	152.3	204.8	217.2	143.3	223.9	299.5	135.2	178.9
February	194.8	169.0	221.6	220.5	241.9	184.0	238.6	165.1	293.7	183.6	141.1	199.1	210.0	142.6	222.4	304.5	133.5	178.0
March	196.0	169.0	227.3	224.5	244.5	188.9	246.7	180.4	302.5	182.4	150.2	195.2	204.8	142.8	222.5	311.6	134.2	176.9
April	196.6	169.3	227.9	224.8	245.8	185.9	252.1	187.5	297.4	179.3	150.5	200.5	211.8	142.6	223.4	307.6	135.2	175.2
May	200.3	169.6	239.5	239.9	260.0	204.2	262.7	183.8	293.2	177.8	144.4	206.5	219.6	142.6	224.7	299.2	137.3	174.6

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics retail food prices are obtained monthly during the first three days of the week containing the fifteenth of the month, through voluntary reports from chain and independent retail food dealers. Articles included are selected to represent food sales to moderate-income families.

The indexes, based on the retail prices of 50 foods, are computed by the fixed-base-weighted-aggregate method, using weights representing (1) relative importance of chain and independent store sales, in computing city average prices; (2) food purchases by families of wage earners and moderate-

income workers, in computing city indexes; and (3) population weights, in combining city aggregates in order to derive average prices and indexes for all cities combined.

Indexes of retail food prices in 56 large cities combined, by commodity groups, for the years 1923 through 1948 (1935-39=100), may be found in Bulletin No. 965, "Retail Prices of Food, 1948," Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, table 3, p. 7. Mimeographed tables of the same data, by months, January 1935 to date, are available upon request.

TABLE D-5: Indexes of Retail Prices of Foods, by City

[1935=100]

City	May 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Feb. 1950	Jan. 1950	Dec. 1949	Nov. 1949	Oct. 1949	Sept. 1949	Aug. 1949	July 1949	June 1949	May 1949	June 1946	Aug. 1939
United States.....	200.3	196.6	196.0	194.8	196.0	197.3	200.8	200.6	204.2	202.6	201.7	204.3	202.4	145.6	93.5
Atlanta, Ga.....	194.7	192.6	193.8	190.0	192.5	194.7	197.7	199.9	206.9	203.9	198.3	200.5	197.0	141.0	92.5
Baltimore, Md.....	211.0	206.1	206.5	205.0	206.6	208.1	211.9	211.5	216.4	215.4	211.5	216.2	213.0	152.4	94.7
Birmingham, Ala.....	193.1	189.6	189.8	184.5	186.4	190.5	197.2	197.2	201.9	199.8	198.6	201.4	198.5	147.7	90.7
Boston, Mass.....	191.7	188.4	187.7	184.8	186.6	189.5	193.2	193.7	197.1	194.6	194.2	195.9	192.4	138.0	93.5
Bridgeport, Conn.....	201.8	197.8	197.0	192.5	195.5	197.0	200.3	198.2	204.8	201.1	200.3	205.0	201.7	139.1	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y.....	195.9	193.3	193.0	189.6	189.8	189.3	193.2	195.1	198.2	199.5	200.2	199.6	198.9	140.2	94.5
Butte, Mont.....	201.3	198.5	195.9	194.8	194.1	194.1	199.8	200.2	201.4	200.8	202.1	206.7	202.6	139.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa ¹	208.6	202.3	201.9	201.0	200.3	200.3	203.4	201.2	205.2	203.9	205.1	211.2	208.1	148.2	-----
Charleston, S. C.....	186.7	185.2	186.0	183.3	185.3	187.9	193.2	190.5	193.0	193.9	190.3	195.4	191.3	140.8	95.1
Chicago, Ill.....	208.2	201.5	201.5	198.6	199.9	202.2	208.3	206.5	212.1	209.2	207.4	211.6	207.0	142.8	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	202.9	196.7	197.9	196.8	197.4	197.3	198.7	199.7	205.4	201.6	200.5	204.2	200.3	141.4	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio.....	206.3	206.1	201.6	201.8	202.6	202.6	206.0	209.2	211.1	210.4	208.9	211.2	208.1	149.3	93.6
Columbus, Ohio.....	183.3	179.1	179.0	177.7	177.2	179.3	180.8	183.6	187.9	186.2	182.9	185.4	184.3	136.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex.....	199.8	196.3	196.3	197.6	198.4	201.9	205.0	204.8	207.0	205.3	204.8	204.9	204.4	142.4	91.7
Denver, Colo.....	203.8	198.6	198.9	196.2	196.8	196.2	200.2	196.0	200.2	199.1	204.5	208.2	206.6	145.3	92.7
Detroit, Mich.....	198.7	194.2	190.8	190.4	191.8	193.4	195.5	192.4	197.4	197.2	197.9	201.5	200.0	145.4	90.6
Fall River, Mass.....	197.2	193.7	192.3	190.7	191.9	193.8	198.1	198.7	201.7	201.2	199.3	201.1	197.0	138.1	95.4
Houston, Tex.....	205.5	205.1	208.3	205.6	207.7	210.5	212.7	212.4	212.2	211.6	211.0	211.8	211.3	144.0	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind.....	197.1	192.6	193.0	191.2	192.3	194.5	196.9	198.9	200.5	199.3	195.7	200.5	197.3	141.5	90.7
Jackson, Miss. ¹	199.7	198.0	196.7	196.1	199.9	204.5	206.5	204.4	206.0	205.5	207.8	205.5	204.7	150.6	-----
Jacksonville, Fla.....	202.7	200.0	201.2	198.7	200.7	202.8	206.9	205.9	208.5	206.0	207.0	208.3	205.6	150.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo.....	187.3	184.0	183.2	182.7	183.6	184.5	186.9	186.0	190.7	187.2	188.5	190.5	189.0	134.8	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn. ¹	220.5	217.5	217.3	216.1	216.7	220.0	223.3	223.6	227.3	226.5	222.3	226.0	223.2	165.6	-----
Little Rock, Ark.....	197.4	194.6	194.5	194.5	196.4	197.0	198.8	198.2	201.4	201.6	192.8	204.2	201.9	139.1	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif.....	199.8	200.6	197.7	198.3	201.4	197.2	200.5	200.6	202.8	201.7	202.3	206.6	208.7	154.8	94.6
Louisville, Ky.....	188.9	183.4	184.2	183.1	183.7	185.0	188.3	189.7	194.3	192.4	189.4	194.1	189.4	135.6	92.1
Manchester, N. H.....	197.5	192.1	193.1	189.9	191.6	192.9	195.5	197.2	203.3	202.1	200.3	205.2	199.4	144.4	94.9
Memphis, Tenn.....	204.3	201.3	202.7	202.2	203.1	206.9	210.2	209.7	213.0	214.3	217.1	215.3	215.6	153.6	89.7
Milwaukee, Wis.....	203.9	197.6	198.2	196.6	196.3	196.1	199.3	199.4	203.7	200.0	201.6	205.6	204.9	144.3	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn.....	192.2	187.9	188.1	188.3	189.1	188.7	192.0	191.1	192.8	190.1	190.6	194.3	193.5	137.5	95.0
Mobile, Ala.....	199.5	199.1	198.6	194.8	196.4	201.3	203.6	204.8	207.0	206.6	205.8	207.9	204.6	149.8	95.5
Newark, N. J.....	197.2	193.4	192.0	190.3	192.4	191.3	198.6	198.2	201.2	198.5	198.5	199.6	198.5	147.9	95.6
New Haven, Conn.....	195.7	191.5	191.1	189.6	190.6	193.1	198.4	197.9	198.3	194.2	194.7	198.5	194.3	140.4	93.7
New Orleans, La.....	209.3	209.3	207.9	206.9	209.6	211.7	213.2	210.0	215.5	214.4	214.0	215.2	210.1	187.6	97.6
New York, N. Y.....	200.1	197.1	195.7	195.3	195.9	198.8	201.5	201.0	205.8	204.1	204.1	203.4	202.2	149.2	95.8
Norfolk, Va.....	202.2	197.0	197.9	195.0	194.8	198.0	200.8	203.5	208.9	206.1	202.0	206.9	204.9	146.0	93.6
Omaha, Nebr.....	197.3	190.8	190.4	188.9	189.8	190.9	194.7	195.7	197.9	196.4	196.2	201.1	196.9	139.5	92.3
Peoria, Ill.....	214.3	208.8	208.2	206.9	205.9	206.5	210.0	211.9	214.4	214.9	214.6	218.9	212.4	151.3	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa.....	194.6	191.5	191.9	189.5	191.3	193.5	196.8	197.9	199.9	198.3	195.2	198.7	198.1	143.5	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	205.9	200.5	198.7	198.8	199.7	200.8	205.4	204.8	208.0	207.9	205.3	208.8	208.0	147.1	92.5
Portland, Maine.....	189.7	187.8	190.8	186.7	187.3	187.2	188.4	189.7	193.8	194.8	194.7	197.2	191.1	138.4	95.9
Portland, Ore.....	217.2	213.0	211.1	211.8	210.4	206.3	207.8	209.7	211.1	211.6	213.6	219.4	218.8	158.4	90.1
Providence, R. I.....	204.9	200.2	199.4	197.4	198.3	201.3	205.2	207.0	210.9	209.0	209.7	208.9	206.5	144.9	93.7
Richmond, Va.....	192.0	188.2	190.5	188.5	188.3	191.3	195.0	197.4	202.4	203.7	195.8	197.5	195.0	138.4	92.2
Rochester, N. Y.....	195.1	189.6	191.0	190.0	190.7	192.0	193.5	193.7	198.1	198.6	197.5	199.3	198.3	142.5	92.3
St. Louis, Mo.....	208.4	202.5	204.5	202.9	204.6	206.2	208.6	207.5	211.6	210.6	206.8	212.8	207.8	147.4	93.8
St. Paul, Minn.....	190.4	186.9	187.5	186.8	186.4	186.0	187.9	187.5	190.3	188.8	189.1	192.3	191.6	137.3	94.3
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	198.4	195.1	196.5	199.4	199.7	196.6	202.0	202.6	203.1	201.0	204.9	207.5	206.6	151.7	94.6
San Francisco, Calif.....	213.2	212.9	211.6	212.2	214.3	210.1	212.9	213.1	213.7	209.9	212.6	215.5	215.3	155.5	93.8
Savannah, Ga.....	205.5	200.5	200.9	197.1	197.0	201.8	207.1	208.2	218.3	212.5	210.2	217.1	213.2	168.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa.....	199.6	192.6	193.5	191.0	192.4	193.2	198.1	200.9	208.3	206.1	202.7	204.1	202.6	144.0	92.1
Seattle, Wash.....	206.8	205.2	204.2	205.6	205.8	203.1	207.4	205.0	208.0	205.5	205.8	208.5	209.3	151.6	94.5
Springfield, Ill.....	209.0	202.0	201.5	201.4	200.9	201.6	204.4	204.7	209.6	210.1	208.4	214.0	207.8	160.1	94.1
Washington, D. C.....	198.4	193.3	193.6	193.6	194.4	196.1	202.6	200.1	203.8	203.5	200.4	202.2	201.2	145.5	94.1
Wichita, Kans. ¹	207.6	204.2	206.8	205.1	205.9	207.8	210.9	211.2	211.8	211.9	210.7	216.4	214.0	154.4	-----
Winston-Salem, N. C. ¹	192.9	191.5	191.8	188.6	191.0	196.3	197.8	197.5	200.6	200.6	198.9	200.6	197.8	145.3	-----

¹ June 1940=100.

² Estimated index based on half the usual sample of reports. Remaining reports lost in the mails. Index for December 15 reflects the correct level of food prices for New Haven.

TABLE D-6: Average Retail Prices and Indexes of Selected Foods

Commodity	Average price May 1950	Indexes 1935-39=100													
		May 1950	Apr. 1950	Mar. 1950	Feb. 1950	Jan. 1950	Dec. 1949	Nov. 1949	Oct. 1949	Sept. 1949	Aug. 1949	July 1949	June 1949	May 1949	Aug. 1939
Cereals and bakery products:															
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>														
Flour, wheat.....5 pounds..	49.0	190.1	189.2	188.2	187.7	187.3	186.6	186.3	184.8	184.2	183.6	183.9	184.9	186.3	82.1
Corn flakes.....11 ounces..	16.7	176.7	176.6	176.7	177.3	177.8	177.9	177.7	177.3	177.8	178.0	179.0	178.7	178.6	92.7
Corn meal.....pound..	8.6	178.7	175.9	175.8	175.8	177.7	178.2	178.2	179.8	182.2	182.4	181.7	181.7	184.6	90.7
Rice ¹do.....	16.5	92.6	92.5	92.2	92.4	92.2	93.5	94.1	98.4	103.3	106.1	104.9	104.6	106.6	(?)
Rolled oats ¹20 ounces..	16.1	145.8	145.8	146.2	146.2	146.4	146.7	147.4	148.0	148.1	148.4	149.0	149.2	149.3	(?)
Bakery products:															
Bread, white.....pound..	14.0	164.1	164.1	163.9	163.9	163.8	164.0	164.1	164.1	164.2	164.1	164.2	164.3	163.8	93.2
Vanilla cookies.....do....	44.7	191.1	189.6	189.6	190.0	189.9	190.6	190.4	190.1	193.2	191.3	190.8	190.9	194.0	(²)
Meats, poultry, and fish:															
Meats:															
Beef:															
Round steak.....do.....	93.0	275.3	256.1	252.9	249.2	252.1	257.5	262.2	260.8	269.2	264.7	263.1	264.6	246.8	102.7
Rib roast.....do.....	73.4	255.2	241.4	239.4	237.0	238.5	242.1	244.2	243.7	241.7	237.8	237.0	239.6	228.2	97.4
Chuck roast.....do.....	59.4	265.1	249.9	248.9	245.7	245.1	254.5	260.3	261.3	253.8	248.1	249.6	252.0	236.6	97.1
Hamburger ³do.....	54.5	176.1	167.4	166.2	164.6	164.6	165.7	166.8	166.8	168.0	167.2	168.0	168.0	162.7	(⁴)
Veal:															
Outlets.....do.....	105.7	264.8	258.4	262.1	261.4	255.8	248.3	250.8	252.1	254.6	252.6	249.7	254.7	248.1	101.1
Pork:															
Chops.....do.....	78.9	239.4	207.3	210.6	201.4	186.9	182.7	201.6	228.3	264.0	253.6	234.6	252.4	229.5	90.8
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	60.0	157.5	154.2	155.0	154.6	154.7	160.8	170.7	183.9	177.6	173.5	169.4	168.4	166.9	80.9
Ham, whole.....do.....	60.8	206.9	193.5	198.0	195.2	192.5	194.2	195.1	208.5	233.0	232.7	222.5	218.6	211.3	92.7
Salt pork.....do.....	31.8	152.5	148.3	152.2	149.9	153.2	169.0	181.8	176.1	171.3	169.5	163.1	161.9	161.4	69.0
Lamb:															
Leg.....do.....	75.6	266.9	256.2	250.6	242.4	238.1	239.9	245.8	250.1	258.7	251.7	269.7	282.8	279.8	95.7
Poultry:															
Frying chickens: ⁵															
New York dressed ⁶do....	46.4	183.8	187.5	180.4	165.1	158.9	179.5	184.5	184.6	192.5	191.5	182.8	184.4	190.5	94.6
Dressed and drawn ⁷do....	59.3														(⁸)
Fish:															
Fish (fresh, frozen) ⁸do....	(*)	270.6	276.0	281.2	265.1	272.2	287.1	266.4	268.4	260.1	254.4	251.1	252.2	254.5	98.8
Salmon, pink ⁹16-ounce can..	43.0	327.8	328.2	332.1	346.6	355.9	359.8	367.9	385.7	428.8	434.1	439.0	454.4	458.4	97.4
Dairy products:															
Butter.....pound..	71.3	196.0	197.5	200.6	201.5	201.8	201.9	201.3	200.4	200.1	198.5	192.9	193.2	194.6	84.0
Cheese.....do.....	51.5	227.7	228.9	230.1	230.7	231.1	232.2	232.4	232.2	230.2	228.6	225.8	226.4	226.5	92.3
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart..	19.7	160.5	161.7	165.4	166.9	167.9	171.1	171.3	172.3	169.8	169.8	168.4	167.9	168.4	97.1
Milk, fresh (grocery).....do.....	18.3	162.5	165.0	168.4	169.7	170.2	173.4	174.2	175.6	174.1	174.6	172.2	171.6	171.6	96.3
Milk, evaporated.....14½-ounce can..	12.4	174.1	174.4	174.9	174.8	175.1	175.7	178.1	176.3	177.3	177.5	179.2	180.5	181.9	93.9
Eggs: Eggs, fresh.....do.....	50.0	144.4	150.5	150.2	141.1	162.3	178.0	207.8	227.8	232.6	222.2	204.1	198.0	190.9	90.7
Fruits and vegetables:															
Fresh fruits:															
Apples.....pound..	13.6	260.0	221.9	206.0	187.7	178.6	174.9	165.8	165.0	184.7	192.1	248.1	309.9	811.4	81.6
Bananas.....do.....	16.6	274.8	274.8	278.5	278.3	273.1	273.9	277.9	273.9	271.4	275.0	280.7	284.3	274.1	97.3
Oranges, size 200.....dozen..	47.6	167.9	173.2	177.1	176.3	166.5	146.8	167.3	195.3	183.4	200.1	215.5	209.0	194.2	96.9
Fresh vegetables:															
Beans, green.....pound..	23.1	211.4	201.8	180.4	219.2	274.9	245.9	198.1	137.4	156.4	154.1	168.5	175.0	186.8	61.7
Cabbage.....do.....	6.5	172.4	167.4	178.2	169.6	173.9	164.0	143.0	147.9	163.1	176.3	164.2	170.0	214.3	103.2
Carrots.....bunch..	9.6	178.3	175.5	177.0	184.3	202.6	205.8	219.9	202.0	197.0	191.3	187.2	188.9	187.4	84.9
Lettuce.....head..	15.7	189.5	158.8	155.8	170.9	220.1	158.3	222.9	199.7	254.7	209.3	166.5	131.8	163.6	97.6
Onions.....pound..	6.7	161.2	143.8	155.5	184.8	216.9	220.9	204.9	191.9	179.3	160.3	186.6	204.3	187.8	86.8
Potatoes.....15 pounds..	75.4	208.9	199.5	195.4	195.6	196.5	195.3	194.1	196.0	208.4	222.1	233.5	259.7	271.6	91.9
Spinach.....pound..	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)	(¹⁰)
Sweet potatoes.....do.....	11.3	218.5	210.2	209.5	205.5	205.6	195.8	182.6	183.0	206.1	270.8	322.6	330.4	312.4	115.7
Tomatoes ¹¹do.....	23.4	153.8	177.2	141.4	157.4	165.3	175.4	168.8	¹² 100.0	(¹³)	(¹³)	(¹³)	(¹³)	(¹³)	(¹³)
Canned fruits:															
Peaches.....No. 2½ can..	26.7	138.4	138.6	139.4	140.1	141.8	148.2	149.8	152.4	155.5	158.3	161.6	163.5	166.8	92.3
Pineapple.....do.....	37.3	171.9	173.1	173.9	173.6	174.2	175.2	177.0	179.4	180.9	183.0	183.7	182.5	182.2	96.0
Canned vegetables:															
Corn.....No. 2 can..	17.0	137.3	138.8	139.7	142.1	144.1	149.8	152.4	153.1	155.1	155.3	155.7	155.7	156.9	88.6
Peas ¹⁴No. 303 can..	20.8	113.6	114.7	114.8	114.0	113.1	112.5	112.6	112.8	112.3	112.9	113.5	113.8	113.8	89.8
Tomatoes.....No. 2 can..	14.5	161.7	159.9	159.3	157.7	158.2	157.8	158.4	158.4	158.8	161.4	171.8	174.5	175.2	92.5
Dried fruits: Prunes.....pound..	24.1	236.6	234.9	232.9	231.7	232.5	231.8	230.7	232.0	231.3	230.2	228.9	226.9	226.2	94.7
Dried vegetables: Navy beans.....do....	14.9	202.7	201.9	202.9	204.2	206.9	209.0	211.7	219.2	224.4	224.7	223.1	223.9	225.7	83.0
Beverages: Coffee.....do.....	75.0	298.6	307.0	311.0	303.9	298.9	291.9	264.8	213.4	210.6	208.4	207.8	207.2	206.8	93.3
Fats and oils:															
Lard.....do.....	16.8	112.6	109.5	110.6	110.0	113.1	114.2	119.3	130.4	133.9	129.4	120.1	121.4	121.2	65.2
Hydrogenated veg. shortening ¹⁴do....	31.4	151.7	148.6	147.4	146.3	148.8	154.3	158.5	159.1	159.3	165.9	163.7	165.4	167.1	93.9
Salad dressing.....pint..	34.0	140.5	139.1	137.7	138.0	138.3	138.6	139.3	140.9	142.6	139.3	140.2	143.0	145.9	(¹⁵)
Margarine.....pound..	29.3	160.8	160.2	156.6	154.4	155.3	156.1	157.9	161.0	171.8	163.0	167.7	159.0	161.3	93.6
Sugar and sweets:															
Sugar.....5 pounds..	47.1	175.4	176.1	177.8	178.8	179.8	179.7	179.8	178.4	177.7	177.4	177.1	177.4	176.9	95.6

¹ July 1947=100.² Index not computed.³ February 1943=100.⁴ Not priced in earlier period.⁵ New specifications introduced in April 1949, in place of broasting chickens.⁶ Priced in 29 cities.⁷ Priced in 27 cities.⁸ 1938-39=100.⁹ Average price not computed.¹⁰ Discontinued October 1949.¹¹ October 1949=100.¹² First inclusion in Retail Food Price Index.¹³ No. 303 can Fancy grade peas introduced in April 1950, in place of No. 2 can Standard grade peas.¹⁴ Formerly published as shortening in other containers.

TABLE D-7: Indexes of Wholesale Prices,¹ by Group of Commodities, for Selected Periods

[1926=100]

Year and month	All commodities ¹	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products ²	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous commodities	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products ³	All commodities except farm products ⁴	All commodities except farm products and foods ⁵
1913: Average.....	69.8	71.5	64.2	68.1	57.3	61.3	90.8	56.7	80.2	56.1	68.8	74.9	69.4	69.0	69.0	70.0
1914: July.....	67.3	71.4	62.9	69.7	55.3	55.7	79.1	52.9	77.9	56.7	88.1	67.3	67.8	66.9	65.7	65.7
1918: November.....	136.3	150.3	128.6	131.6	142.6	114.3	143.5	101.8	178.0	99.2	142.3	138.8	162.7	130.4	131.0	129.9
1920: May.....	167.2	169.8	147.3	193.2	188.3	159.8	155.5	164.4	173.7	143.3	176.5	163.4	253.0	157.8	165.4	170.6
1929: Average.....	95.3	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932: Average.....	64.8	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1939: Average.....	77.1	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
August.....	75.0	61.0	67.2	92.7	67.8	72.6	93.2	89.6	74.2	85.6	73.3	66.5	74.5	79.1	77.9	80.1
1940: Average.....	78.6	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0
1941: Average.....	87.3	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.4	94.3	82.0	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0
December.....	93.6	94.7	90.5	114.8	91.8	78.4	103.3	107.8	90.4	101.1	87.6	92.3	90.1	94.6	93.3	93.7
1942: Average.....	98.8	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	95.5	102.4	89.7	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5
1943: Average.....	103.1	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	94.9	102.7	92.2	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9
1944: Average.....	104.0	123.3	104.9	116.7	98.4	83.0	103.8	115.5	95.2	104.3	93.6	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5
1945: Average.....	105.8	128.2	106.2	118.1	100.1	84.0	104.7	117.8	95.2	104.5	94.7	116.8	95.9	101.8	100.8	99.7
August.....	105.7	126.9	106.4	118.0	99.6	84.8	104.7	117.8	95.3	104.5	94.8	116.3	95.5	101.8	100.9	99.9
1946: Average.....	121.1	148.9	130.7	137.2	116.3	90.1	115.5	132.6	101.4	111.6	100.3	134.7	110.8	116.1	114.9	109.5
June.....	112.9	140.1	112.9	122.4	109.2	87.8	112.2	129.9	96.4	110.4	98.5	126.3	105.7	107.3	106.7	105.6
November.....	139.7	169.8	165.4	172.5	131.6	94.5	130.2	145.5	118.9	118.2	106.5	153.4	129.1	134.7	132.9	120.7
1947: Average.....	152.1	181.2	168.7	182.4	141.7	108.7	145.0	179.7	127.3	131.1	115.5	165.6	148.5	146.0	145.5	135.2
1948: Average.....	165.1	188.3	179.1	188.8	149.8	134.2	163.6	199.1	135.7	144.5	120.5	178.4	158.0	159.4	159.8	151.0
1949: Average.....	155.0	165.5	161.4	180.4	140.4	131.7	170.2	193.4	118.6	145.3	112.3	163.9	150.2	151.2	152.4	147.3
May.....	155.8	171.5	163.8	179.2	140.4	130.1	168.9	193.9	118.1	146.3	113.5	166.1	149.4	151.6	152.1	146.9
June.....	154.5	168.8	162.4	178.8	139.1	130.0	167.1	191.4	116.7	145.3	111.0	164.5	146.5	150.6	151.1	145.5
July.....	153.6	166.2	161.3	177.8	138.0	130.1	167.9	189.0	118.0	143.0	110.3	163.2	146.0	149.8	150.6	145.1
August.....	152.9	162.3	160.6	178.9	138.1	129.6	168.2	188.3	119.6	142.9	109.8	161.3	147.9	149.4	150.6	145.0
September.....	153.5	163.1	162.0	181.1	139.0	129.9	168.2	189.4	117.6	142.9	109.6	162.0	147.8	150.1	151.2	145.3
October.....	152.2	159.6	159.6	181.3	138.0	130.6	167.3	189.3	115.9	143.0	109.0	160.4	145.3	149.1	150.3	145.0
November.....	151.6	156.8	158.9	180.8	138.0	130.2	167.3	189.6	115.8	143.4	109.7	160.4	145.1	148.2	150.3	145.0
December.....	151.2	154.9	155.7	179.9	138.4	130.4	167.8	190.4	115.2	144.2	110.7	159.5	144.7	147.9	150.1	145.4
1950: January.....	151.5	154.7	154.8	179.3	138.5	131.4	168.4	191.6	115.7	144.7	110.0	159.8	144.8	148.2	150.5	145.8
February.....	152.7	159.1	156.7	179.0	138.2	131.3	168.6	192.8	115.2	145.2	110.0	162.4	144.3	149.1	151.1	145.9
March.....	152.7	159.4	155.5	179.6	137.3	131.5	168.5	194.2	116.3	145.5	110.7	162.8	144.1	148.9	151.0	146.1
April.....	152.9	159.3	155.3	179.4	136.4	131.2	168.7	194.8	117.1	145.8	112.6	162.5	143.9	149.4	151.2	146.4
May.....	155.9	164.7	159.9	181.0	136.1	132.1	169.7	198.1	116.4	146.6	114.7	166.3	145.6	152.2	153.7	147.6

¹ BLS wholesale price data, for the most part, represent prices in primary markets. They are prices charged by manufacturers or producers or are prices prevailing on organized exchanges. The weekly index is calculated from 1-day-a-week prices; the monthly index from an average of these prices. Monthly indexes for the last 2 months are preliminary.

The indexes currently are computed by the fixed base aggregate method, with weights representing quantities produced for sale in 1929-31. (For a detailed description of the method of calculation see "Revised Method of Calculation of the Bureau of Labor Statistics Wholesale Price Index," in the Journal of the American Statistical Association, December 1937.)

Mimeographed tables are available, upon request to the Bureau, giving monthly indexes for major groups of commodities since 1890 and for subgroups and economic groups since 1913. The weekly wholesale price indexes are

available in summary form since 1947 for all commodities; all commodities less farm products and foods; farm products; foods; textile products; fuel and lighting materials; metals and metal products; building materials, and chemicals and allied products. Weekly indexes are also available for the subgroups of grains, livestock, and meats.

² Includes current motor vehicle prices beginning with October 1946. The rate of production of motor vehicles in October 1946 exceeded the monthly average rate of civilian production in 1941, and in accordance with the announcement made in September 1946, the Bureau introduced current prices for motor vehicles in the October calculations. During the war, motor vehicles were not produced for general civilian sale and the Bureau carried April 1942 prices forward in each computation through September 1946.

³ Corrected.

TABLE D-8: Indexes of Wholesale Prices,¹ by Group and Subgroup of Commodities

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1950					1949								1946	1939
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	June	Aug.
All commodities ²	155.9	152.9	152.7	152.7	151.5	151.2	151.6	°152.2	°153.5	152.9	°153.6	154.5	°155.8	112.9	75.0
Farm products.....	164.7	159.3	159.4	159.1	154.7	154.9	156.8	159.6	163.1	162.3	166.2	168.8	°171.5	140.1	61.0
Grains.....	172.3	169.6	165.4	161.3	160.2	160.9	156.4	155.3	156.4	150.4	154.1	154.9	159.9	151.8	51.5
Livestock and poultry...	194.6	178.0	180.3	179.9	170.5	167.0	169.6	177.7	186.6	186.3	188.5	193.3	191.5	137.4	66.0
Livestock.....	218.5	197.9	199.7	200.6	192.0	187.0	188.3	197.6	207.5	206.6	209.4	212.6	207.7	143.4	67.7
Poultry.....	79.6	84.0	89.7	81.4	66.7	71.1	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(3)	(3)
Other farm products.....	143.7	144.2	144.2	144.9	142.6	145.0	148.2	148.8	149.8	150.1	155.0	156.7	°161.4	137.5	60.1
Eggs.....	85.4	°90.7	94.6	87.3	86.0	99.1	132.5	147.5	158.3	146.4	138.7	126.9	125.2	97.3	47.5
Foods.....	159.9	155.3	155.5	156.7	154.8	°155.7	158.9	159.6	162.0	160.6	161.3	162.4	163.8	112.9	67.2
Dairy products.....	138.0	141.1	144.8	147.5	148.8	154.4	154.7	154.6	153.5	152.7	149.2	145.5	145.9	127.3	67.9
Cereal products.....	146.0	145.9	145.6	144.8	144.3	144.6	144.6	°144.6	143.7	142.8	146.1	145.6	145.1	101.7	71.9
Fruits and vegetables...	139.2	137.6	134.9	138.2	134.3	°132.4	°130.7	°128.0	126.9	130.3	145.4	157.5	167.3	136.1	58.5
Meats, poultry, and fish.....	217.1	200.6	200.0	201.6	194.5	193.5	198.9	205.0	215.1	210.7	212.2	215.5	215.2	110.1	73.7
Meats.....	234.0	214.7	213.6	216.3	208.3	206.5	212.9	219.6	230.4	224.4	227.3	230.3	227.0	116.6	78.1
Poultry.....	90.0	89.9	92.7	86.8	83.1	85.6	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(3)	(3)
Other foods.....	130.9	°129.3	129.8	129.6	131.0	132.6	139.6	137.4	137.8	136.5	130.5	127.8	128.5	98.1	60.3
Hides and leather products...	181.0	179.4	179.6	179.0	179.3	179.9	180.8	181.3	181.1	178.9	177.8	178.8	179.2	122.4	92.7
Shoes.....	185.0	184.3	184.3	184.3	184.3	184.3	184.3	183.4	183.8	183.8	183.8	184.1	184.0	129.5	100.8
Hides and skins.....	194.1	187.2	190.4	188.2	189.0	192.8	199.5	205.6	204.8	194.5	184.7	186.0	188.2	121.5	77.2
Leather.....	179.3	179.1	177.9	176.6	177.6	178.1	177.0	176.5	175.5	173.7	175.4	177.1	177.4	110.7	84.0
Other leather products.....	143.1	143.1	143.1	143.1	143.1	141.1	141.1	141.1	141.1	141.1	142.4	144.4	144.6	115.2	97.1
Textile products.....	136.1	136.4	137.3	138.2	138.5	138.4	138.0	138.0	139.0	138.1	138.0	°139.1	°140.4	109.2	67.8
Clothing.....	143.8	144.2	143.5	143.1	143.9	144.0	144.2	144.6	144.8	144.8	144.8	145.6	146.0	120.3	81.5
Cotton goods.....	172.0	172.9	176.5	178.4	178.7	178.4	177.9	177.6	174.8	172.0	167.3	°169.3	°172.1	139.4	65.5
Hosiery and underwear...	97.7	°97.7	98.0	98.6	98.5	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.4	°98.4	°99.5	°100.3	75.8	61.5
Rayon and nylon.....	39.9	39.9	39.9	39.9	39.6	39.6	39.6	39.6	39.6	39.6	39.6	39.6	40.8	30.2	28.5
Silk.....	49.3	49.1	49.1	50.1	50.1	49.9	49.5	49.2	49.2	49.2	49.2	49.2	50.1	(4)	44.3
Woolen and worsted.....	146.2	146.1	146.3	147.2	147.0	146.9	146.0	145.1	150.4	152.6	157.6	159.7	159.7	112.7	75.5
Other textile products...	164.6	°165.8	166.9	170.3	171.7	171.5	169.0	175.6	181.5	180.9	178.8	177.7	179.1	112.3	63.7
Fuel and lighting materials...	132.1	°131.2	131.5	131.3	131.4	°130.4	°130.2	°130.6	°129.9	°129.6	°130.1	°130.0	130.1	87.8	72.6
Anthracite.....	139.2	142.6	141.9	139.3	139.3	139.3	139.3	139.1	138.6	135.9	135.4	134.2	133.7	106.1	72.1
Bituminous coal.....	192.6	°193.4	198.5	196.7	196.2	194.1	°192.4	190.5	188.8	188.9	188.9	188.9	188.9	132.8	96.0
Coke.....	225.6	225.6	224.7	223.7	222.2	222.2	222.2	222.2	222.0	222.0	222.0	222.4	222.7	133.5	104.2
Electricity.....	(3)	(3)	67.9	69.6	68.9	69.6	70.3	70.1	68.5	68.5	70.0	68.9	68.2	67.2	75.8
Gas.....	(3)	86.8	88.3	87.4	85.0	87.2	88.3	87.8	89.3	88.9	89.5	90.1	90.9	79.6	86.7
Petroleum and products...	112.6	109.5	108.6	109.4	109.4	108.5	108.5	109.9	109.1	109.7	110.2	110.4	110.7	64.0	51.7
Metals and metal products ¹ ...	169.7	168.7	168.5	168.6	168.4	167.8	167.3	167.3	168.2	168.2	167.9	°167.1	°168.9	112.2	93.2
Agricultural machinery and equipment.....	143.5	143.4	143.1	143.1	143.0	°143.0	°143.1	°143.6	°143.8	°143.9	°144.0	°144.1	°144.1	104.5	93.5
Farm machinery.....	145.8	145.8	145.6	145.7	145.7	°145.6	°145.7	°146.3	°146.4	°146.4	°146.5	°146.6	°146.6	104.9	94.7
Iron and steel.....	168.6	°168.9	169.0	168.8	167.3	165.4	163.4	163.3	164.0	163.8	164.2	164.6	165.1	110.1	95.1
Motor vehicles.....	175.2	175.1	175.1	175.6	176.5	176.7	176.7	177.0	177.1	177.2	177.2	°175.8	°176.4	135.5	92.5
Passenger cars.....	185.2	185.2	185.2	185.7	186.7	186.7	186.7	187.0	187.0	187.0	187.0	185.3	185.7	148.8	95.6
Trucks.....	133.1	132.8	132.8	133.0	133.8	134.7	134.9	135.0	135.3	135.7	135.7	°135.7	°136.8	104.3	77.4
Nonferrous metals.....	136.3	128.9	127.2	128.1	128.6	129.2	131.7	131.5	135.7	135.9	132.1	128.8	138.2	99.2	74.6
Plumbing and heating.....	156.4	°154.7	151.9	148.7	151.7	154.6	154.6	154.6	154.6	154.7	154.7	154.7	154.8	106.0	79.3
Building materials.....	198.1	194.8	194.2	192.8	191.6	190.4	189.6	°189.3	189.4	°188.3	189.0	191.4	193.9	129.9	69.6
Brick and tile.....	163.8	163.4	163.3	163.2	163.5	161.9	161.9	161.8	161.8	161.5	161.5	160.8	160.8	121.3	90.5
Cement.....	134.9	134.9	134.9	134.9	134.8	134.5	134.5	134.5	133.0	133.0	133.1	133.7	133.7	102.6	81.6
Lumber.....	310.8	299.4	295.9	292.1	287.5	285.2	283.5	°282.0	°279.8	277.4	277.4	280.7	285.2	176.0	90.1
Paint and paint materials.....	136.8	136.7	138.2	139.0	139.0	°139.6	°140.1	°141.4	°144.1	°144.0	°145.4	°153.8	°157.7	108.6	82.1
Prepared paint.....	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	138.5	151.3	151.3	99.3	92.9
Paint materials.....	137.6	137.3	140.5	142.2	142.2	°143.4	°144.6	°147.2	°153.0	°152.8	°155.8	°159.5	°167.6	120.9	71.8
Plumbing and heating.....	156.4	°154.7	151.9	148.7	151.7	154.6	154.6	154.6	154.6	154.7	154.7	154.7	154.8	108.0	79.3
Structural steel.....	191.6	191.6	191.6	191.6	191.6	185.2	178.8	178.8	178.8	178.8	178.8	178.8	178.8	120.1	107.3
Other building materials.....	172.7	172.0	172.2	171.1	170.5	169.2	168.6	168.1	168.9	167.3	168.8	168.5	170.5	118.4	89.5
Chemicals and allied products.....	116.4	117.1	116.3	115.2	115.7	°115.2	°115.8	°115.9	°117.6	°119.6	°118.0	°116.7	°118.1	96.4	74.2
Chemicals.....	116.5	116.4	115.4	114.7	114.7	°114.3	°115.0	°115.3	°117.2	°117.8	°117.9	°116.7	°116.7	98.0	83.8
Drug and pharmaceutical materials.....	122.3	122.0	121.9	121.4	121.5	121.6	123.0	123.1	125.0	125.0	124.7	124.3	123.6	109.4	77.1
Fertilizer materials.....	116.8	117.4	117.3	116.9	117.4	117.9	118.3	120.2	120.4	121.8	120.7	117.5	118.9	82.7	65.5
Mixed fertilizers.....	103.5	103.5	103.5	103.5	104.6	106.5	107.0	°107.1	108.2	107.9	108.3	108.3	108.3	86.6	73.1
Oils and fats.....	122.2	127.5	125.6	120.9	122.7	118.2	118.3	115.6	118.4	130.3	118.5	116.9	127.0	102.1	40.6
Housefurnishing goods.....	146.6	°145.8	°145.5	145.2	144.7	144.2	143.4	143.0	142.9	142.9	143.0	°145.3	°146.3	114.4	85.6
Furnishings.....	154.1	152.6	152.2	151.8	151.5	151.2	149.4	149.2	149.1	149.1	149.1	°151.1	°152.2	114.5	90.0
Furniture.....	138.9	°138.8	°138.6	138.4	137.8	137.0	136.8	136.7	136.6	136.6	136.8	139.3	140.3	108.5	81.1
Miscellaneous.....	114.7	112.6	110.7	110.0	110.0	110.7	109.7	108.0	109.6	109.8	110.3	111.0	113.5	98.5	73.3
Tires and tubes.....	65.8	65.0	64.3	64.3	64.3	64.3	62.5	60.7	60.6	60.6					

E: Work Stoppages

TABLE E-1: Work Stoppages Resulting From Labor-Management Disputes ¹

Month and year	Number of stoppages		Workers involved in stoppages		Man-days idle during month or year	
	Beginning in month or year	In effect during month	Beginning in month or year	In effect during month	Number	Percent of estimated working time
1935-39 (average).....	2,862	-----	1,130,000	-----	16,900,000	0.27
1945.....	4,750	-----	3,470,000	-----	38,000,000	.47
1946.....	4,985	-----	4,600,000	-----	116,000,000	1.43
1947.....	3,693	-----	2,170,000	-----	34,600,000	.41
1948.....	3,419	-----	1,960,000	-----	34,100,000	.37
1949.....	3,606	-----	3,030,000	-----	50,500,000	.59
1949: May.....	449	678	231,000	309,000	3,430,000	.49
June.....	377	632	572,000	673,000	4,470,000	.61
July.....	343	603	110,000	249,000	2,350,000	.35
August.....	365	643	134,000	232,000	2,140,000	.27
September.....	287	536	607,000	603,000	6,270,000	.87
October.....	256	475	570,000	977,000	17,500,000	2.49
November.....	197	388	56,600	914,000	6,270,000	.93
December.....	170	323	45,500	417,000	1,350,000	.19
1950: January ²	225	340	185,000	300,000	2,600,000	.38
February ²	210	325	75,000	515,000	7,850,000	1.27
March ²	260	400	80,000	530,000	3,750,000	.49
April ²	400	550	160,000	300,000	3,150,000	.47
May ²	450	650	325,000	500,000	3,000,000	.40

¹ All known work stoppages, arising out of labor-management disputes, involving six or more workers and continuing as long as a full day or shift are included in reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Figures on "workers involved" and "man-days idle" cover all workers made idle for one or

more shifts in establishments directly involved in a stoppage. They do not measure the indirect or secondary effects on other establishments or industries whose employees are made idle as a result of material or service shortages.

² Preliminary estimates.

F: Building and Construction

TABLE F-1: Expenditures for New Construction ¹

[Value of work put in place]

Type of construction	Expenditures (in millions)														
	1950						1949						1949 ²	1948 ²	
	June ³	May ³	Apr. ³	Mar. ³	Feb. ³	Jan. ³	Dec. ³	Nov. ³	Oct. ³	Sept. ³	Aug. ³	July ³	June ³	Total	Total
Total new construction ⁴	\$2,441	\$2,220	\$1,950	\$1,750	\$1,618	\$1,712	\$1,852	\$2,044	\$2,177	\$2,214	\$2,195	\$2,119	\$2,039	\$22,594	\$21,572
Private construction	1,798	1,635	1,453	1,313	1,262	1,298	1,401	1,484	1,506	1,513	1,514	1,481	1,428	16,204	16,665
Residential building (nonfarm)	1,086	980	852	741	717	742	806	837	832	809	782	757	712	8,290	8,580
New dwelling units	990	890	770	675	655	680	730	750	740	715	689	659	614	7,280	7,500
Additions and alterations	82	77	70	55	51	51	-61	72	76	78	77	81	81	825	925
Nonhousekeeping ⁵	14	13	12	11	11	11	15	15	16	16	16	17	17	185	155
Nonresidential building (nonfarm) ⁶	306	275	249	249	252	257	267	270	264	262	271	273	272	3,228	3,621
Industrial	78	73	70	69	70	69	68	68	68	69	71	72	76	972	1,397
Commercial	110	92	76	77	77	79	86	88	84	83	89	93	94	1,027	1,253
Warehouses, office and loft buildings	48	26	24	25	27	28	28	27	24	23	27	26	26	321	352
Stores, restaurants, and garages	82	66	52	52	50	51	58	61	60	60	62	67	68	706	901
Other nonresidential building	118	110	103	103	105	109	113	114	112	110	111	108	102	1,229	971
Religious	33	31	28	28	29	31	32	34	33	33	33	31	30	360	251
Educational	23	21	20	21	22	23	24	24	24	23	23	23	21	269	253
Social and recreational	21	19	17	17	18	20	21	21	22	23	24	24	23	262	224
Hospital and institutional ⁷	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	20	19	17	16	202	126
Miscellaneous	11	10	10	10	10	12	12	11	11	12	13	12	12	136	117
Farm construction	108	100	88	79	75	74	75	87	104	127	140	138	131	1,292	1,397
Public utilities	285	267	253	235	209	216	246	283	299	308	313	305	305	3,316	3,002
Railroad	28	27	26	21	16	22	23	29	29	30	32	33	32	352	379
Telephone and telegraph	42	41	40	38	32	30	37	40	40	40	43	43	50	533	713
Other public utilities	215	199	187	176	161	164	186	214	230	238	238	229	223	2,431	1,910
All other private ⁸	13	13	11	9	9	9	7	7	7	7	8	8	8	78	65
Public construction	643	585	506	437	356	414	451	560	671	701	681	638	611	6,390	4,907
Residential building ⁹	29	28	28	28	26	35	34	36	41	40	37	32	33	359	156
Nonresidential building (other than military or naval facilities)	192	187	178	170	154	155	158	179	215	218	187	176	172	2,056	1,301
Industrial ¹⁰	18	17	13	11	7	7	9	11	11	11	11	12	16	177	196
Educational	90	88	87	84	79	80	80	82	85	90	87	83	80	934	618
Hospital and institutional	44	42	40	40	38	37	40	44	48	48	47	44	42	477	223
Other nonresidential	40	40	38	35	30	31	29	42	71	69	42	37	34	468	264
Military and naval facilities	11	9	9	8	9	9	12	14	16	15	15	12	11	137	158
Highways	240	200	145	100	55	90	117	184	233	255	275	266	236	2,129	1,856
Sewer and water	52	52	51	49	46	49	49	51	56	57	55	54	53	619	535
Miscellaneous public service enterprises ¹¹	17	15	13	11	10	12	13	16	22	25	23	22	18	203	185
Conservation and development	93	85	74	62	49	56	60	71	80	81	80	78	80	792	629
All other public ¹²	9	9	8	9	7	8	8	9	8	10	9	8	8	95	87

¹ Joint estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, and the Office of Domestic Commerce, U. S. Department of Commerce. Estimated construction expenditures represent the monetary value of the volume of work accomplished during the given period of time. These figures should be differentiated from permit valuation data reported in the tabulations for building authorized (tables F-3 and F-4) and the data on value of contract awards reported in table F-2.

The estimates shown in this table represent extensive revisions of the data previously published in this series, primarily in order to reflect segments of expenditures formerly omitted because of inadequate source data. The entire revised series (showing data annually from 1915, and monthly from 1939) is available on request.

² Revised.

³ Preliminary.

⁴ Includes major additions and alterations.

Includes hotels, dormitories, and tourist courts and cabins.

⁶ Expenditures by privately owned public utilities for nonresidential building are included under "Public utilities."

⁷ Includes Federal contributions toward construction of private nonprofit hospital facilities under the National Hospital Program in approximately the following amounts: 1948, \$1,000,000; 1949, \$16,000,000; first quarter 1950, \$7,000,000; second quarter 1950, \$10,000,000.

⁸ Includes privately owned sewer and water systems, roads and bridges, and miscellaneous nonbuilding items such as parks and playgrounds.

⁹ Includes nonhousekeeping public residential construction as well as housekeeping units.

¹⁰ Represents primarily expenditures to construct facilities under the atomic energy program.

¹¹ Covers primarily airports and publicly owned electric light and power systems and local transit facilities.

¹² Includes publicly owned parks and playgrounds, memorials, etc.

TABLE F-2: Value of Contracts Awarded and Force Account Work Started on Federally Financed New Construction, by Type of Construction ¹

		Value (in thousands)														
Period	Total new construction ²	Airports ³	Building								Conservation and development					
			Total	Residential	Nonresidential					Total	Reclamation	River, harbor, and flood control	Highways	All other ⁶		
					Total	Educational ⁴	Hospital and institutional								Administrative and general ⁵	Other nonresidential
							Total	Veterans	Other							
1935	\$1,478,073	(7)	\$442,782	\$7,833	\$434,949	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	\$438,725	\$158,027	\$280,698	\$381,037	\$215,529
1936	1,533,439	(7)	561,394	63,465	497,929	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	189,710	73,797	115,913	511,685	270,650
1937	990,410	(7)	344,567	17,239	327,328	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	133,010	59,051	73,959	360,865	151,968
1938	1,609,208	(7)	676,542	31,809	644,733	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	303,874	175,382	128,492	372,238	256,554
1939	1,586,604	\$4,753	669,222	231,071	438,151	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	225,423	115,612	109,811	355,701	331,505
1940	2,516,467	137,112	1,537,910	244,671	1,293,239	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	1,977,589	69,028	128,561	364,048	79,808
1941	5,931,536	499,427	4,422,131	322,248	4,099,883	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	1,992,684	41,880	157,804	446,903	363,391
1942	7,775,497	579,176	6,130,389	549,472	5,580,917	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	2,177,795	150,708	67,087	347,888	500,149
1943	2,506,786	243,443	1,698,079	375,471	1,322,608	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	1,155,737	101,270	54,467	161,852	247,675
1944	1,297,602	110,872	875,002	101,491	773,511	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	1,112,415	66,679	45,736	111,805	87,508
1945	902,265	41,219	617,001	53,133	563,868	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	72,150	30,765	41,385	100,969	70,926
1946	1,450,512	15,068	564,743	445,647	119,096	\$14,664	\$14,281	\$9,032	\$5,249	\$9,713	\$80,438	230,163	149,870	140,293	534,653	45,685
1947	1,298,015	25,075	278,698	51,309	227,389	47,750	101,992	96,140	5,852	32,550	45,097	307,695	75,483	232,212	659,645	26,902
1948	1,722,157	55,577	358,809	8,355	350,454	1,424	263,296	168,616	94,680	29,926	65,808	494,871	147,732	347,139	767,460	45,440
1949	1,937,110	49,317	638,628	30,317	608,311	1,041	353,671	123,967	229,704	88,856	164,743	501,937	189,183	312,754	690,469	56,759
1948: January	119,951	892	14,684	149	14,535	306	8,945	8,626	319	1,974	3,310	54,115	4,876	49,239	47,696	2,564
February	165,435	1,586	47,132	860	46,272	164	41,781	41,557	224	1,735	2,592	65,119	1,229	63,890	50,194	1,404
March	149,480	5,675	66,262	60	66,202	257	59,417	56,214	3,203	1,229	5,299	22,439	6,639	15,800	51,682	3,522
April	161,316	3,850	10,245	562	9,683	12	5,773	5,049	724	1,871	2,027	84,888	56,984	27,904	58,247	4,086
May	120,771	5,634	26,538	463	26,075	468	21,783	20,044	1,739	1,869	1,955	10,495	4,738	5,757	75,645	2,459
June	146,665	4,930	43,918	790	43,128	92	19,201	13,876	5,325	9,735	14,100	24,564	8,887	15,677	68,569	4,684
July	147,609	5,251	17,405	272	17,133	6	11,887	1,697	10,190	1,413	3,827	41,947	1,327	40,620	76,428	6,478
August	136,447	6,616	13,770	119	13,651	4	10,453	872	9,581	1,054	2,140	22,505	4,269	18,236	91,510	2,246
September	134,778	8,142	27,699	66	27,633	31	18,711	13,287	5,424	3,184	5,707	29,191	2,959	26,232	65,975	3,771
October	146,999	3,678	44,369	785	43,584	0	36,316	6,498	29,818	3,312	3,956	37,158	19,371	17,787	55,747	6,047
November	118,263	3,792	21,751	2,374	19,377	84	11,830	4,366	11,394	891	6,572	35,409	13,895	21,514	51,972	5,339
December	174,543	5,531	25,036	1,855	23,181	0	17,199	460	16,739	1,659	4,323	67,041	22,558	44,483	74,095	2,840
1949: January	94,454	5,520	37,817	101	37,716	148	8,192	428	7,764	25,008	4,368	15,141	7,596	7,545	34,465	1,511
February	98,637	242	42,397	1,970	40,427	635	12,651	5,477	7,174	22,719	4,422	24,032	3,083	20,949	29,000	2,966
March	176,245	4,288	38,304	1,773	36,531	0	26,663	9,612	17,051	1,747	8,121	84,342	22,546	61,796	41,646	7,665
April	131,007	4,212	31,620	2,899	28,721	18	21,352	1,204	20,148	940	6,402	39,899	18,778	21,121	52,099	3,177
May	238,444	7,233	51,993	6,245	45,748	30	23,649	1,045	22,604	13,658	8,411	89,636	61,537	27,999	83,769	5,113
June	296,661	12,262	114,534	14,955	99,579	0	64,985	14,814	50,171	10,564	24,030	80,530	26,603	53,927	80,348	8,987
July	140,007	4,818	35,218	821	34,397	10	22,756	202	22,554	2,018	9,613	22,115	6,822	15,293	75,448	2,408
August	233,211	3,385	95,088	49	95,039	140	43,544	25,492	18,052	969	50,386	52,304	12,375	39,929	79,020	3,414
September	173,519	1,902	79,526	446	79,080	0	56,125	26,500	29,625	538	22,417	15,059	14,559	10,500	63,035	3,997
October	102,474	3,413	35,576	672	34,904	0	15,004	8,737	6,267	4,333	15,567	12,914	1,091	11,823	49,910	661
November	116,346	790	25,964	9	25,955	60	16,600	7,387	9,213	5,308	3,987	42,186	5,677	36,509	38,100	9,306
December	136,105	1,252	50,591	377	50,214	0	42,150	23,069	19,081	1,045	7,019	13,879	8,516	5,363	63,629	6,754
1950: January	122,600	4,383	42,805	86	42,719	144	27,477	19,328	8,149	12,805	2,293	25,678	17,933	7,645	40,998	8,836
February	111,613	2,899	34,865	127	34,738	138	30,676	17,302	13,374	1,052	2,872	25,637	7,087	18,450	42,357	5,955
March	203,333	7,997	26,584	1,036	25,548	20	19,901	14,391	5,510	3,457	2,170	101,266	69,797	31,469	61,026	6,460
April ⁹	135,352	5,556	43,310	717	42,593	70	35,797	21,459	14,338	2,364	4,362	19,063	2,763	16,300	63,453	3,970
May ¹⁰	169,861	(8)	25,741	316	25,425	0	20,349	12,979	7,370	2,195	2,881	59,922	7,365	52,557	80,493	3,705

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 customhouses. Includes contract awards for construction at United Nations Headquarters in New York City, the principal awards having been for the Secretariat Building (January 1949: \$23,810,000), and for the Meeting Hall (January 1950: \$11,238,000).

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 Preliminary.

TABLE F-3: Urban Building Authorized, by Principal Class of Construction and by Type of Building¹

Period	Valuation (in thousands)								Number of new dwelling units—Housekeeping only					
	Total all classes ²	New residential building						New non-residential building	Additions, alterations, and repairs	Privately financed				Publicly financed
		Housekeeping				Publicly financed dwelling units	Non-housekeeping ³			Total	1-family ⁴	2-family ⁵	Multi-family ⁶	
		Privately financed dwelling units												
Total	1-family	2-family ⁷	Multi-family ⁸											
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	95,946
1946-----	4,743,414	2,114,833	1,830,260	103,042	181,631	355,587	43,369	1,458,602	771,023	430,195	358,151	24,326	47,718	98,310
1947-----	5,561,754	2,892,003	2,362,600	156,757	372,646	35,177	29,831	1,712,817	891,926	603,094	393,720	34,105	75,269	5,100
1948-----	6,971,576	3,422,937	2,745,219	181,493	496,225	139,326	38,034	2,366,730	1,004,549	516,179	392,532	36,306	87,341	15,113
1949 ⁹ -----	7,379,890	3,717,215	2,839,222	132,332	745,661	285,419	39,727	2,400,693	936,845	674,190	412,656	26,415	135,119	32,140
1949: April-----	635,111	322,063	254,245	13,782	54,036	24,021	6,397	199,181	83,449	50,800	37,538	2,862	10,400	2,738
May-----	665,644	359,364	254,546	13,446	91,372	30,497	3,084	186,151	86,548	54,199	36,563	2,580	15,056	3,110
June-----	748,046	356,816	256,544	10,547	89,725	28,782	3,850	259,474	99,124	55,331	36,947	2,131	16,253	3,373
July-----	598,943	307,631	231,617	8,711	67,303	22,342	3,937	181,367	83,666	48,425	34,324	1,765	12,336	2,791
August-----	683,898	368,133	278,286	11,004	78,843	12,889	3,074	207,335	92,467	57,051	40,340	2,282	14,429	1,507
September-----	722,056	401,433	302,265	12,119	87,049	17,825	3,144	215,605	84,049	63,316	43,982	2,316	17,018	2,116
October-----	678,540	376,556	297,200	13,893	65,463	18,987	3,635	196,076	83,286	57,320	41,794	2,747	12,779	2,254
November-----	619,910	353,262	292,227	10,626	50,409	18,482	2,662	181,081	64,423	52,357	41,562	2,095	8,700	2,037
December-----	559,540	276,820	218,851	9,838	48,131	10,350	4,669	212,214	55,487	43,363	31,349	1,984	10,030	1,287
1950: January-----	558,374	315,529	243,446	11,354	60,729	8,564	2,421	166,233	65,627	49,128	36,041	2,287	10,800	868
February-----	572,464	352,248	283,164	11,888	57,196	1,506	2,971	156,049	59,690	52,818	40,200	2,377	10,241	177
March ⁷ -----	855,618	545,665	442,035	21,040	82,590	9,197	9,011	205,704	86,041	79,408	59,785	4,209	15,414	1,135
April ⁸ -----	918,711	577,987	481,856	17,666	78,465	13,591	4,725	234,795	87,613	81,251	63,430	3,187	14,634	1,626

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 Totals for 1949 include revisions which do not appear in data shown for January through December. Revised monthly data will appear in a subsequent issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

⁷ Revised.

⁸ Preliminary.

TABLE F-4: New Nonresidential Building Authorized in All Urban Places,¹ by General Type and by Geographic Division²

Geographic division and type of new nonresidential building	Valuation (in thousands)														
	1950					1949								1949 ³	1948
	Apr. ⁴	Mar. ⁵	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Total	Total
	\$234,795	\$205,704	\$156,049	\$166,233	\$212,214	\$181,081	\$196,076	\$215,605	\$207,335	\$181,367	\$259,474	\$186,151	\$199,181	\$2,400,693	\$2,366,730
All types.....	15,446	10,377	17,552	17,361	13,095	6,467	7,178	12,194	10,192	6,683	13,859	8,455	15,672	113,834	148,039
New England.....	31,881	25,617	20,195	32,357	57,807	35,105	35,337	33,335	37,961	28,468	35,246	26,378	28,400	434,807	393,374
Middle Atlantic.....	68,442	47,228	28,422	23,663	39,623	29,005	50,274	46,910	41,852	38,795	55,772	38,941	37,251	491,550	511,794
East North Central.....	21,983	15,939	10,674	6,977	15,994	15,327	14,153	34,351	17,666	17,824	19,736	12,255	17,178	203,495	173,152
West North Central.....	28,515	26,591	22,332	23,464	21,362	24,630	25,963	23,330	19,614	19,536	28,257	31,298	26,965	306,418	269,427
South Atlantic.....	9,014	10,637	10,806	12,586	9,124	11,748	8,027	13,155	15,638	8,279	16,128	8,897	9,621	129,686	100,715
East South Central.....	29,920	22,513	10,800	23,529	16,894	18,419	24,130	19,598	29,701	30,554	33,808	14,088	19,910	269,915	274,663
West South Central.....	6,730	16,307	5,740	3,078	10,478	13,789	5,344	10,256	7,676	6,847	17,729	7,390	6,647	102,208	83,458
Mountain.....	22,820	30,496	24,548	23,219	28,737	26,591	25,670	22,476	27,033	24,381	38,938	38,450	37,537	348,780	412,108
Pacific.....	1,421	431	90	11,856	14,008	10,896	18,792	17,160	15,617	15,645	16,473	14,358	19,829	202,440	299,286
Industrial buildings⁶.....	18,974	15,353	11,828	190	321	209	202	706	352	350	367	623	972	6,357	19,839
New England.....	2,740	3,000	4,406	3,522	1,804	2,250	5,111	2,201	2,743	5,660	2,281	2,410	4,416	40,367	65,911
Middle Atlantic.....	6,217	5,457	4,706	4,455	8,442	3,909	5,462	8,275	5,674	3,826	6,959	4,889	5,009	77,307	100,035
East North Central.....	1,329	844	984	709	785	792	966	2,328	1,150	780	1,995	1,122	2,063	15,689	15,993
West North Central.....	1,201	1,019	482	864	1,149	841	2,529	942	1,889	715	910	1,241	2,475	18,132	27,776
South Atlantic.....	1,708	1,264	885	416	753	170	180	795	1,145	775	612	570	1,664	8,736	9,054
East South Central.....	1,664	851	783	1,262	308	406	1,117	249	495	645	533	703	560	6,859	15,864
West South Central.....	330	349	90	135	113	320	242	345	100	142	329	994	493	4,264	2,770
Mountain.....	2,363	2,139	2,191	2,454	1,178	1,999	2,994	1,319	2,569	2,764	2,489	1,806	2,177	24,999	42,044
Pacific.....	82,852	85,607	55,559	61,799	52,095	59,805	67,403	73,899	70,047	57,349	65,896	65,862	64,539	751,264	926,551
Commercial buildings⁷.....	6,099	4,348	1,379	1,785	2,094	1,849	2,953	5,513	3,041	2,137	3,195	2,956	3,878	36,564	55,660
New England.....	13,025	11,071	10,059	22,522	10,388	9,618	9,125	14,596	13,905	7,720	8,333	9,315	14,109	127,033	133,219
Middle Atlantic.....	15,242	16,952	9,930	7,588	10,119	9,991	16,635	15,951	14,642	11,229	13,037	12,616	11,625	147,620	177,322
East North Central.....	10,371	8,209	3,454	3,185	5,818	5,014	4,170	4,604	4,732	5,139	4,240	4,641	4,802	52,907	72,808
West North Central.....	10,904	11,642	10,331	5,411	6,365	9,434	8,420	9,291	9,502	5,844	12,853	10,092	8,447	105,106	121,552
South Atlantic.....	3,512	3,395	2,893	2,747	2,457	2,756	2,879	1,976	3,231	2,833	3,268	3,207	4,949	36,020	39,391
East South Central.....	10,431	10,144	6,290	10,006	5,207	4,446	10,333	10,522	9,022	11,453	9,705	5,954	6,777	101,025	126,064
West South Central.....	3,639	5,560	4,070	1,483	1,400	1,139	2,167	3,059	1,467	2,436	2,688	1,827	1,827	25,094	35,274
Mountain.....	9,631	14,187	7,154	7,103	8,433	9,800	10,148	9,278	9,013	9,529	8,798	14,853	8,124	119,895	165,361
Pacific.....	105,016	85,294	70,844	68,718	105,286	74,737	73,706	98,681	98,164	83,691	138,831	68,573	71,780	1,005,376	788,601
Community buildings⁸.....	5,721	4,977	15,335	14,515	4,622	3,110	586	4,783	5,385	3,129	8,203	3,445	3,171	42,343	47,255
New England.....	12,257	9,544	7,370	3,744	44,000	20,452	14,109	13,731	15,845	11,236	19,215	10,360	7,427	176,009	153,423
Middle Atlantic.....	42,015	20,053	9,967	10,150	15,451	10,110	21,923	16,015	15,428	19,317	30,333	14,273	13,376	200,974	154,846
East North Central.....	7,424	5,101	4,458	2,503	4,438	7,201	6,609	23,380	7,823	9,451	11,976	4,649	8,274	100,396	54,207
West North Central.....	13,369	12,586	8,320	15,470	7,344	6,942	7,464	10,224	7,050	8,733	12,159	8,007	9,172	101,126	80,384
South Atlantic.....	2,281	5,155	6,852	5,392	5,613	5,609	4,116	9,022	10,887	4,371	6,748	4,438	6,488	67,423	36,344
East South Central.....	7,273	8,798	6,728	7,061	8,613	6,451	7,499	7,474	18,432	16,192	18,617	6,708	135,128	106,205	
West South Central.....	1,322	9,787	1,142	746	7,692	8,852	2,940	5,452	3,722	4,350	14,205	2,351	3,768	58,773	34,577
Mountain.....	13,356	9,293	11,173	9,137	7,512	6,011	8,461	8,600	11,592	6,860	17,374	14,296	13,138	123,204	121,360
Pacific.....	5,519	1,542	4,159	2,490	16,223	12,790	9,689	3,904	2,761	5,270	12,643	13,277	11,046	150,075	74,414
Public buildings⁹.....	505	0	158	2,040	185	154	128	18	282	702	55	11	431	8,908	5,966
New England.....	734	110	52	552	264	747	3,851	107	409	620	991	575	453	3,508	8,680
Middle Atlantic.....	33	234	177	268	2,792	332	1,816	175	534	381	211	1,149	111	8,156	11,852
East North Central.....	425	58	300	192	1,571	284	441	178	440	1,105	283	55	74	9,532	5,438
West North Central.....	1,337	68	1,823	369	1,748	5,567	1,377	937	538	1,418	803	10,712	2,103	50,094	8,875
South Atlantic.....	331	0	0	18	0	0	0	500	0	28	5,120	0	0	6,257	8,936
East South Central.....	954	477	71	126	146	243	774	229	292	361	1,731	42	75	5,041	6,132
West South Central.....	170	15	56	54	799	2,059	28	1,371	5	121	55	39	82	5,327	3,965
Mountain.....	1,300	581	1,682	771	6,845	3,372	1,249	280	526	954	2,746	649	7,716	27,297	15,070
Pacific.....	5,404	5,558	5,153	8,968	15,474	11,724	11,424	6,527	10,045	8,508	13,928	10,635	20,304	159,642	148,681
All other buildings¹⁰.....	569	236	187	430	3,615	345	2,135	53	702	129	778	790	6,459	16,010	11,438
New England.....	1,334	532	307	823	544	599	513	319	3,467	1,986	2,743	2,127	274	39,494	16,651
Middle Atlantic.....	424	2,287	2,112	361	920	2,031	390	1,828	1,839	1,309	1,813	1,158	3,714	22,303	35,809
East North Central.....	760	319	977	150	1,735	922	329	1,994	2,004	442	208	569	745	11,337	13,015
West North Central.....	540	366	765	204	4,070	1,108	5,484	1,031	459	1,039	799	645	3,889	22,706	21,450
South Atlantic.....	80	308	0	638	41	2,326	491	112	70	0	20	402	24	7,223	3,750
East South Central.....	812	663	292	3,982	1,663	1,034	1,357	700	499	1,234	2,431	257	1,021	11,944	12,792
West South Central.....	406	2	73	333	121	126	138	219	164	243	177	838	40	2,566	2,055
Mountain.....	480	845	440	2,049	2,765	3,232	586	270	840	2,128	4,960	3,850	4,138	26,059	31,721
Pacific.....	17,030	12,450	8,478	10,249	8,284	11,629	15,061	15,435	12,701	10,903	11,704	13,446	11,684	181,896	129,197
New England.....	1,132	385	324	283	404	768	1,147	1,010	694	657	613	616	761	7,757	7,981
Middle Atlantic.....	1,792	1,360	1,002	1,195	808	1,438	2,628	2,382	1,592	1,256	1,683	1,691	1,721	18,336	15,490
East North Central.....	4,512	2,245	1,531	871	1,899	2,132	4,050	4,665	3,836	2,733	3,420	4,857	3,416		

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 non-farm	Urban	Rural non-farm	Total non-farm	Urban	Rural non-farm	Total non-farm	Urban	Rural non-farm			
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	619,500	369,500	250,000	86,600	64,800	21,800	2,825,895	2,530,765	\$295,130
1944 ⁶	141,800	96,200	45,600	138,700	93,200	45,500	3,100	3,000	100	495,054	483,231	11,823
1946	670,500	403,700	266,800	662,500	395,700	266,800	8,000	8,000	0	3,769,767	3,713,776	55,991
1947	849,000	479,800	369,200	845,600	476,400	369,200	3,400	3,400	0	5,642,798	5,617,425	25,373
1948	931,600	524,900	406,700	913,500	510,000	403,500	18,100	14,900	3,200	7,203,119	7,028,980	174,139
1949	1,025,100	588,800	436,300	988,500	556,600	432,200	36,300	32,200	4,100	7,702,971	7,374,269	328,702
1948: First quarter	180,000	103,000	77,000	177,700	100,800	76,900	2,300	2,200	100	1,315,287	1,296,612	18,675
January	53,500	30,800	22,700	52,500	29,800	22,700	1,000	1,000	(7)	383,634	374,984	8,650
February	50,100	29,100	21,000	48,900	28,000	20,900	1,200	1,100	100	368,985	359,420	9,565
March	76,400	43,100	33,300	76,300	43,000	33,300	100	100	(7)	562,668	562,208	460
Second quarter	297,600	166,100	131,500	295,900	164,600	129,300	3,700	1,500	2,200	2,287,624	2,252,961	34,663
April	99,500	55,000	44,500	98,100	54,600	43,600	1,400	400	1,000	748,976	736,186	12,790
May	100,300	56,700	43,600	99,200	56,100	43,100	1,100	600	500	769,369	758,635	10,734
June	97,800	54,400	43,400	96,600	53,900	42,700	1,200	500	700	769,279	758,140	11,139
Third quarter	264,000	144,200	119,800	259,300	140,100	119,200	4,700	4,100	600	2,113,496	2,065,770	47,726
July	95,000	52,200	42,800	93,700	51,000	42,700	1,300	1,200	100	750,977	738,659	12,318
August	86,700	47,700	39,000	85,100	46,600	38,500	1,600	1,100	500	720,523	703,066	17,457
September	82,300	44,300	38,000	80,500	42,500	38,000	1,800	1,800	(7)	641,996	624,045	17,951
Fourth quarter	190,000	111,600	78,400	182,600	104,500	78,100	7,400	7,100	300	1,486,712	1,413,337	73,375
October	73,400	41,300	32,100	71,900	39,800	32,100	1,500	1,500	(7)	573,950	560,347	13,603
November	63,700	38,100	25,600	61,300	35,800	25,500	2,400	2,300	100	498,296	471,336	26,960
December	52,900	32,200	20,700	49,400	28,900	20,500	3,500	3,300	200	414,466	381,954	32,512
1949: First quarter	169,800	94,200	75,600	159,400	84,100	75,300	10,400	10,100	300	1,287,228	1,189,640	97,588
January	50,000	29,500	20,500	46,300	25,800	20,500	3,700	3,700	(7)	374,020	340,973	33,047
February	50,400	28,000	22,400	47,800	25,500	22,300	2,600	2,500	100	382,778	357,270	25,508
March	69,400	36,700	32,700	65,300	32,800	32,500	4,100	3,900	200	530,430	491,397	39,033
Second quarter	279,200	157,300	121,900	267,200	147,800	119,400	12,000	9,500	2,500	2,120,637	2,007,563	113,074
April	88,300	49,500	38,800	85,000	46,700	38,300	3,300	2,800	500	666,969	637,170	29,799
May	95,400	53,900	41,500	91,200	50,600	40,600	4,200	3,300	900	733,967	692,063	41,904
June	95,500	53,900	41,600	91,000	50,500	40,500	4,500	3,400	1,100	719,701	678,330	41,371
Third quarter	298,000	171,600	126,400	289,900	164,500	125,400	8,100	7,100	1,000	2,222,103	2,153,937	68,166
July	96,100	53,300	42,800	92,700	50,100	42,600	3,400	3,200	200	710,341	682,863	27,478
August	99,000	55,900	43,100	96,600	54,300	42,300	2,400	1,600	800	743,389	722,208	21,181
September	102,900	62,400	40,500	100,600	60,100	40,500	2,300	2,300	(7)	768,373	748,866	19,507
Fourth quarter	278,100	165,700	112,400	272,300	160,200	112,100	5,800	5,500	300	2,073,003	2,023,129	49,874
October	104,300	60,000	44,300	101,900	57,700	44,200	2,400	2,300	100	776,674	756,712	19,962
November	95,500	56,700	38,800	93,400	54,700	38,700	2,100	2,000	100	723,097	704,220	18,877
December	78,300	49,000	29,300	77,000	47,800	29,200	1,300	1,200	100	573,232	562,197	11,035
1950: First quarter	271,600	148,200	103,500	268,800	147,300	103,500	2,800	2,800	0	2,090,134	2,066,135	23,999
January	78,700	48,200	30,500	77,800	47,300	30,500	900	900	0	589,997	581,497	8,500
February ⁸	82,900	51,000	31,900	82,300	50,800	31,500	600	200	400	637,753	632,690	5,063
March	110,000	(9)	(9)	108,700	(9)	(9)	1,300	(9)	(9)	862,384	851,948	10,436
April ¹⁰	126,000	(9)	(9)	124,100	(9)	(9)	1,900	(9)	(9)	1,012,505	995,315	17,190

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. 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 48,000 and 52,000.

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 Less than 50 units.

⁸ Revised.

⁹ Not available.

¹⁰ Preliminary.