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The CPI in Business Recovery Periods

The Founding of the ILO

Work Stoppages During 1958

Contract Benefits for Accident and Sickness

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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The Labor Month in Review

NEGOTIATIONS between the United Steelworkers and the basic steel industry approached the June 30 contract expiration deadline with no public indication that a settlement was in the making. There were also other knotty bargaining situations mid-June. In the rubber industry, a 58-day strike by the United Rubber Workers at Firestone was settled on June 12. Agreements had earlier been reached by the union with U.S. Rubber (after a 3 weeks' strike), Goodrich (after an 8 weeks' strike), and Goodyear (without a strike). Nonwage matters, including pension and insurance improvements, were at issue in all situations.

Nonprofessional employees of six New York City hospitals (those of a seventh joined several weeks later), in a rare action for such workers, struck for union recognition on May 8, despite court orders forbidding a walkout. They are represented by Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union, which has contracts with some of the city's other voluntary hospitals. Makeshift help kept the nonprofit institutions running while a special mediating panel attempted to resolve the dispute. A special session of the State legislature has been suggested to deal with the matter. On June 5, six of the city's proprietary hospitals (which do not have the exemption from State and Federal labor relations laws provided for the nonprofit institutions) averted a strike by recognizing the Hotel and Restaurant Workers Union. Two nursing homes are also involved in this segment of the dispute. A further complication of the situation followed a threat by the State, County, and Municipal Employees to strike an eighth nonprofit hospital.

About 100,000 shirt and cotton garment workers will receive a 7.5-cents-an-hour wage increase on August 31 (their first since 1956) as a result of negotiations between employer groups in the industry and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers. A seventh paid holiday and other fringe benefit improvements were also granted under a reopening of the contracts which expire on June 1, 1961.

In various settlements throughout the country, thousands of construction workers received generally substantial wage increases during May and early June. Many of them stipulated annual rises in pay over a 3-year period. Some of the agreements followed strikes, and during the first week of June there still were strikes of substantial numbers of building trades workers in Michigan, Ohio, Illinois, and Pennsylvania.

SEVERAL STRIKES, of significance chiefly because of their length, were settled late in May. A 13 weeks' stoppage by the American Newspaper Guild against the St. Louis Globe-Democrat ended with resumption of publication on June 1. A new pension plan and revision of job security policies were included in the new contract. But the paper was closed again when stereotypers halted work on June 9. On May 26, an 18 weeks' strike of the Papermakers and Paperworkers against the West Virginia Pulp and Paper Co. was terminated when the company agreed not to dismiss 26 workers accused of picket line violence and the union abandoned demands dealing with seniority and a grievance procedure. The more than 6 months' strike of the Street and Electric Railway Employees, representing bus drivers of the Eastern Massachusetts Street Railway Co., ended with a wage increase.

Eleven nonoperating railroad unions early in June presented demands for longer vacations and two more paid holidays for the 550,000 employees they represent. Wage demands—already submitted by the operating crafts—will follow. Contracts expire on October 31.

On May 19, President Eisenhower signed a bill increasing retirement and unemployment benefits for all rail workers. Pensions will be increased by 10 percent and maximum job insurance by 20 percent under the new measure, which became effective June 1 and will require substantial increases in payroll taxes.

MUCH OF THE MID-MAY session of the AFL-CIO Executive Council was devoted to an attempted resolution of jurisdictional disputes. In one significant case, the council ordered the International Union of Electrical Workers to withdraw from a representation election in which it was contesting with the Sheet Metal Workers, which had a contract at Belock Instrument Corp. in New York.

The IUE, in refusing to accept the directive, claimed the contract its rival held at the plant was "collusive." The council had rejected this view.

In another case, the council held over until a future meeting a recommendation from a subcommittee that it was permissible for the AFL-CIO Metal Trades Department to organize production workers.

Two other matters were also deferred. One was the ethical practices case of Maurice Hutcheson, president of the Carpenters, until disposition of an Indiana indictment against him; the other was the application of the International Longshoremen's Association for readmission.

If there was evidence of serious conflict within the merged labor movement, there were also numerous indications of amicable cooperation. The Auto Workers and the Machinists will meet August 5 to plot a common collective bargaining course in the aircraft, missile, and related electronics fields. At the end of May the Marine Engineers Beneficial Association absorbed the Brotherhood of Marine Engineers; both were AFL-CIO organizations. Similarly, the two AFL-CIO unions of insurance workers united under the name of the Insurance Workers International Union. The new-found amity between Joseph Curran, president of the National Maritime Union, and Paul Hall, head of the Seafarers, was strengthened when Curran addressed the Seafarers' convention and stressed the need for ultimate merger of the two unions.

MAY WAS A MONTH for many conventions. Action taken and facts revealed at some of them included: *Ladies' Garment Workers*. Raised dues by 50 cents a month to \$3 and voted a \$5 million strike fund. David Dubinsky, who was reelected to a new term as president, relinquished his additional post as secretary-treasurer in favor of Louis Stulberg. *Plasterers*. Warned of a shortage of skilled workers in the trade; adopted a policy of mandatory apprenticeship training by locals; union headquarters will move from Cleveland to Washington. *Railway Clerks*. Increased dues to a minimum of \$4 a month, called for program of severance pay for technologically displaced employees, and placed an upper age limit of 70 on officers. *Jewelry*

Workers. Petitioned the AFL-CIO to place the organization under monitorship to complete an internal cleanup campaign. *Utility Workers*. Urged enactment of a Federal code to protect workers in the nuclear power industries against radiation. *Hatters*. Proposed a needle trades department for the AFL-CIO.

James R. Hoffa, Teamster President, speaking on May 19 at a district convention of the International Longshoremen's Association, delivered what was widely interpreted as a threat of a nationwide strike if certain "restrictive" labor legislation were passed. Hoffa was scheduled for another session before the McClellan Committee on June 15. Three Teamster officials, including John O'Rourke, an international vice president, on May 28 were indicted by a grand jury in New York State on counts of extortion and coercion connected with the juke box industry. On June 10, a U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals supported a district Federal Court order to the Teamsters to effect specific reforms ordered by court-appointed monitors, including a good-faith trial of certain officers accused of misconduct.

THREE trade union leaders died during May. Robert Byron, 79, president of the Sheet Metal Workers for the past 20 years, had planned to retire on July 1. Max Zaritsky, 74, president of the Hatters between 1936 and 1950, had been one of the founding members of the original Committee for Industrial Organization prior to its break with the AFL. Thomas E. Dunwody, 71, had been president of the Pressman's union since 1952.

Joseph A. Bierne, president of the Communications Workers of America, and chairman of the AFL-CIO Community Services Committee, told a session of the Federation Conference on Community Services meeting in Chicago that the AFL-CIO would push this year for a single coordinated health fund campaign, and urged management organizations to cooperate toward this objective.

Building trades unions in the Minneapolis-St. Paul area have contributed more than 50,000 hours of free labor toward the construction of summer camp facilities for underprivileged children. Businessmen of the community have matched the labor with donations of materials and furnishings.

Recollections on the Founding of the ILO

EDITOR'S NOTE.—*This year marks the 40th anniversary of the International Labor Organization and is the 25th since the United States affiliated with it. Dr. James T. Shotwell, author of the following article, participated in the founding of the ILO and, probably more than any other individual, provided the drive and dedication necessary to bring it into being. The Monthly Labor Review, as a tribute to the organization, is happy to print Dr. Shotwell's reminiscences, with their reminder of the basic purpose of the ILO and the circumstances surrounding its birth. Dr. Shotwell is President-Emeritus of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.*

THE CREATION of the International Labor Organization at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 opened a new page of history. To the surprise of everyone, "International Labor Legislation" was one of the items in the cryptic agenda of the Conference at its first general session on January 18, 1919. The item caused general bewilderment. The first blueprints of the ILO were drawn in the British Ministry of Labor, but even the Right Hon. Arthur Balfour, former British Prime Minister, in presenting the proposal was vague about it. It sounded good—and harmless. The American press wanted to know what it meant and I briefed the AP for a despatch explaining that there had been two or three government conferences on labor matters and that the British proposed to create a permanent body, composed of representatives of labor and management as well as of governments, alongside the League of Nations for the purpose of developing a world code of labor standards.

The result was that the constitution of the International Labor Organization became Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles, and a strange paradox it was that the International Labor Organization, and not the League of Nations, was the first world organization to begin functioning after the First World War. The first International Labor Conference was convened in Washington on October 29, 1919; the treaty did not come into effect until the following January and the Assembly and Council of the League of Na-

tions held its first meeting in London on January 10, 1920.

The First International Labor Conference

The reason for haste in calling the Labor Conference was that revolutionary movements had broken out during the Peace Conference in Vienna, Budapest, and Berlin, while in the background the ominous figure of Bolshevik Russia, although denied a share in the making of the peace treaties, was causing apprehension in governments throughout Western Europe. The fact that Georges Clemenceau concentrated 30,000 troops in Paris on May Day, 1919, to prevent an uprising by discontented and revolutionary elements in French labor was sufficient indication of the political force which it was feared that labor might exercise unless given recognition in the peace settlement. The threat implied in this situation led the Commission on International Labor Legislation of the Peace Conference to demand, as early as March 1919, the insertion in the peace treaty of a call for the first meeting of the International Labor Organization for the following October.¹ At that time it was expected that the Treaty of Versailles would be formally in effect in the autumn, but even when those hopes were dissipated by the United States, the leaders of labor in Europe insisted that no change should be made in the plans for calling the first ILO

¹ This was finally inserted in Article 424 of the peace treaty.

Conference, and the British and French Governments felt obliged to yield to this insistence.

The situation so far as the American Government was concerned was extremely awkward, for President Woodrow Wilson had issued the invitation on his own account while in Paris in April 1919, and the Congress delayed in ratifying it² and refused to appropriate enough money to meet the expenses of the Conference. As the League of Nations was not yet in existence, no financial assistance could come from that quarter, and the provisions in the treaty for apportioning the expenses of the first Conference among the members were still to be ratified. To prevent a complete fiasco, the British Government advanced £3,000 through Sir Eric Drummond, the Secretary-General Designate of the League of Nations—an action of far-sighted statesmanship, as the event was to prove, but one which neither then nor later received adequate recognition.

Organization of the Conference. The financial difficulty, however, was much more easily solved than the organizing of the Conference itself, for no such body had ever met before in all the history of diplomacy. Here was an international organization composed of representatives of labor and management as well as of governments, dealing with a subject which had always been considered purely domestic politics.

To those who have not taken part in international conferences, and to many who have, the framing of the rules of procedure may seem to be a mere shaping of technicalities, but the history of the United Nations has shown only too clearly how a recalcitrant government can use the rules of procedure to get its way against the will of the majority.

The work of the London conference of the Organizing Committee for the International Labor Conference, which began in May 1919, has been fully described in *The Origins of the International Labor Organization*,³ which I edited for publication, but little is said there about the preparation of rules of procedure for the ILO Conference. This was the work of a subcommittee consisting of Arthur Fontaine, Director of Labor in the French Ministry of Labor and Social Insurance, and myself. M. Fontaine was unable to act, however, and my French colleague was Monsieur Pône, subsequently Chief of the

Cabinet of the Director of the International Labor Office, who helped in the assembling of the French material.

In the framing of the rules I drew heavily upon the rules of the British Parliament and of the French Chamber of Deputies. But, as I pointed out in the report of the committee, "it should be recognized that the procedure followed in any one country or group of countries could not be inserted in the Standing Orders [of the International Labor Conference]," and that such problems as the powers of the chairman and the methods of moving and voting resolutions, which are matters of vital importance to the conduct of any gathering, would have to be solved in the light of a situation for which there were no precedents.

These rules of procedure were, as Harold B. Butler, for many years the Director of the International Labor Office, has said, "the first set of international standing orders ever framed, resting on a compromise between a large number of national practices. Although they have since been amended from time to time, they have on the whole stood the test of practical application, and have rendered great service to the Organization by providing it with a body of rules to which the members of the Conference have gradually become thoroughly accustomed. The resulting expedition is the dispatch of business and the avoidance of confusion in regard to procedure have saved the Conference many hours of time and much loss of patience."⁴

This pioneering work in the framing of rules for the ILO was slight enough in itself compared with the elaborate mechanism which the United Nations has had to create to regulate its proceedings, but, slight as it was, it was the starting point for the rules of procedure for the League of Nations, which in turn were drawn upon by the organizers of the United Nations. Sir Eric Drummond, the first Secretary-General of the League of Nations, sent one of his chief lieutenants to the Washington Conference to study it

² A law enacted in 1913 specifically prohibited the President from calling an international conference of any nature except with the specific consent and approval of the Congress. The resolution authorizing the Washington Conference was not passed until August 1919.

³ Vol. I, History; Vol. II, Documents (New York, Columbia University Press, 1934).

⁴ *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 315.

procedure, and his report had a definite bearing upon the methods followed by the League.

As a matter of fact, our problem in 1919 resembled that of the United Nations more than that of the League of Nations, for we were confronted with the choice of building a whole series of organizations dealing with the different industries—textile, mining, transport, shipping, etc.—or creating a central body to which all of these would be subordinate. The union leaders naturally were in favor of working through the separate bodies and the American labor leaders were reluctant to be drawn into political action, although they were all agreed that final action should be through the Governing Body and the Conference itself. In addition, experienced government functionaries, like M. Fontaine and Sir Malcolm Delevingne of the British Home Office, interested in getting programs adopted in a workmanlike way and with little patience over the waste of time in much of the parliamentary procedure, argued that the special commissions should deal with the business in hand and that the Conference should meet only to ratify. They were somewhat appalled at the idea of an international body of this size, made up of such diverse membership, dealing with the difficult and intricate questions of labor conditions and social welfare in several different languages, and so were inclined to minimize the work of the general sessions of the Conference.

For my part, I felt that the best hope for acceptance of the International Labor Organization by the American public, as well as labor, which was becoming weary or suspicious of investigating commissions and executive action, was to give it the publicity afforded by an open-session, deliberative, legislating body. Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor and head of the labor section of the United States delegation to the Peace Conference, and his colleagues came to agree with this point of view, for they readily saw that labor leaders could not afford to participate in anything resembling secret diplomacy and that the alternative, although it might be wasteful of time, was the only way to succeed. Therefore, I was happy to be able to head off the motion in the organizing committee which would have resulted in subordinating the general sessions of the Conference to commissions which, from the mere fact of their

specialization, would almost certainly act without regard to the wider economic, social, and political implications of their proposals. The fact that the Standing Orders of the International Labor Conference, substantially as presented by my subcommittee, have governed the Conference's procedure throughout its history is their best justification.

Agenda of the Conference. These questions of procedure, which seem so important in retrospect, received much less attention in our organizing committee than the subjects with which the Washington Conference would have to deal. Fortunately there was no debate as to the choice of the program, for that was set forth as follows in an annex to the article of the treaty of peace which called the Conference (Article 424.1): (1) Application of the principle of the 8-hour day or the 48-hour week; (2) prevention of or provision against unemployment; (3) the conditions of employment of women; (4) employment of children; and (5) extension and application of international conventions prohibiting nightwork for women industrial workers and banning the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

But when our organizing committee set about reducing these topics to definite terms, difficulties at once arose in what seemed like the most obvious of statements. How, for example, was one to apply "the principle of the 48-hour week" to countries where there were industries working on a 40-hour week without lessening the safeguards of labor, which would be contrary to the terms of the treaty? On the other hand, in countries where some industries had a 56- or 60-hour week, a sudden change at the behest of an international body might cause a major dislocation in the national economy. While the problems of differences in conditions of labor among the Western powers were not too difficult, those occasioned by contrast with the Orient were almost insuperable.

United States Attitude Toward ILO

Although he had invited the International Labor Conference to hold its first meeting in Washington, as previously noted, President Wilson never showed much interest in the creation of the ILO. I had gathered the distinct impres-

sion in Paris that he and Col. Edward M. House viewed Mr. Gompers and the other labor leaders more from the standpoint of their political influence in the United States than from that of the purposes of the ILO, to which they paid little attention. On the voyage home I made several futile efforts to present the whole situation to the President, having in mind the fact that the attacks upon the ILO as a part of the Treaty of Versailles had already begun in Washington. Not until the last day of the voyage did I have my interview with the President, and I owed it to the intervention of Thomas Lamont, partner in the J. Pierpont Morgan banking firm, who was one of the wisest and most far-sighted of President Wilson's advisers as well as one of the most social-minded of the American delegation.

Mr. Wilson listened carefully to a fairly long outline of the work with which I had been associated in the Peace Conference, but I do not recall his having intervened in support of Mr. Gompers' fight for acceptance of the ILO except in the case of a single telegram which was sent from Paris. In my talk with him I found him keen and interested, but it was evident that he had never given the labor program in the peace treaty any serious consideration before, at least not on a par with the other parts of the treaty. This has always puzzled me in my judgment of Wilson. It would seem that the author of *The New Freedom*⁵ was too sincerely devoted to the ideals of laissez faire to be much drawn toward the plan for an international labor organization, the main purpose of which was to better social conditions by law.

This point of view had also been held by most of the labor leaders who had come to Paris with Mr. Gompers, and indeed was the subconscious basis of Mr. Gompers' own thinking. The labor movement in the United States, under the leadership of Mr. Gompers and the American Federation of Labor, had made it a point to "stay out of politics," but at Paris, when faced with the alternative of socialistic or communistic revolution in Europe, they had accepted the principles of the International Labor Organization, although keeping close watch not to go too far toward trying to rectify abuses by legislation instead of by the direct action of labor unions.

Moreover, many of the American labor leaders were still strongly isolationist. This was espe-

cially the case with Andrew Furuseth, head of the American Seamen's Union and the chief architect of the LaFollette Seamen's Act, which had extended the 8-hour day to American ships. Furuseth was firmly of the opinion that the International Labor Organization was a subtly disguised plan of the British shipowners to deprive the seamen of the gains which they had made in protecting their rights. A fight over the treaty came up at the annual convention of the American Federation of Labor in June 1919 and Mr. Gompers was barely able to hold a majority against Furuseth's opposition.

If the attitude of Mr. Gompers and other labor leaders toward the ILO seemed to lack wholehearted support, it could hardly be expected that public opinion, concentrated as it was on the great struggle between President Wilson and his opponents in the Senate, would pay much attention to it either. Practically all labor legislation in the United States was considered to be under the jurisdiction of the States, and the States could have no relations with foreign governments. Thus, the initial British proposal on the ILO, which called for the framing of treaties (conventions) to build up a world code of improved labor standards, was clearly going much too far for a federal State like the United States. To meet this problem, the Labor Commission of the Peace Conference, which drafted the ILO constitution, had accepted an amendment of the British plan, which it had fallen to me to negotiate:

In the case of a federal State, the power of which to enter into conventions on labor matters is subject to limitations, it shall be in the discretion of that Government to treat a draft convention to which such limitations apply as a recommendation only, and the provisions of this Article with respect to recommendations shall apply in such case.

As there was some hesitancy, even in the American labor delegation, for fear the transfer of problems from a national to an international body might result in delays or reactionary measures, I drafted an additional paragraph, which the Commission also adopted:

In no case shall any Member be asked or required, as a result of the adoption of any recommendation or draft convention by the [International Labor] Conference, to lessen the protection afforded by its existing legislation to the workers concerned.

⁵ New York, Doubleday, Page & Co. 1913.

Public opinion of the United States was nevertheless obviously working toward the recognition of national labor legislation.⁶ But Mr. Gompers and his associates could not depend on any such interpretation of American political tendencies with respect to an international agreement. They had to take the situation as it actually was, with all the historic limitations on the Federal Government's power in the field of social legislation.

The weakness of United States support for the ILO section of the treaty led opponents of the treaty to attack the ILO even more vigorously than the Covenant of the League. The organization which the treaty intended as a means for reform by legal methods instead of by revolution was presented to the American people as anything from anarchy to Bolshevism. The word "international" was bandied about as if the ILO were a part of the Third International of Moscow instead of being the very opposite.

The situation had by no means cleared when I arrived in Washington in July 1919 to facilitate the work of the Organizing Committee. I was unable to get an appointment with the Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson, who was designated to represent the President in making arrangements for the Conference. But I found an audience among those who had been watching the scene in Paris and the subsequent developments in the United States with grave anxiety. One of the finest and most outspoken of these was Grace Abbott, then head of the Children's Bureau, whose influence extended throughout the Department of Labor. She arranged for meetings at which I could tell the story of the negotiations in Paris, on which there was almost complete ignorance in Washington. This fact was partly due to the overshadowing political battle against the President's diplomacy, but it was largely caused by his having kept the Department of Labor at arm's length while Mr. Gompers held the limelight in Paris as the leader of the labor section of the American delegation.

⁶ For example, although a law banning interstate commerce in articles made with child labor was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in June 1918, the next Congress at once passed a new child labor law which both Houses accepted simultaneously; this time, it proposed to go even further and boldly enforce the law by its power of taxation. The new law was held unconstitutional on May 15, 1922, and the Congress passed a child labor amendment to the Constitution on June 2, 1924, which only 28 of the necessary 36 States have thus far ratified.

In any event, a congressional stipulation that no United States delegates be appointed to the Conference until the treaty had been ratified prevented this country from participating officially in the Washington Conference. In fact, the United States did not join the ILO until 1934.

The Role of Japan

The blundering in Washington was in striking contrast with the action of the Government of Japan. During the Paris Conference, it was clear that the Japanese negotiators on the Labor Commission were often embarrassed by having to admit a lower level of living in Japan at the very time when, in the League of Nations Commission, they were insisting on racial equality. The embarrassment took the form of reticence rather than of any strong word of protest about being placed in an awkward position, and the Japanese negotiators won the respect of everyone by their obviously sincere effort to find a way to cooperate. They were evidently acting under strict orders from home, however, and on more than one occasion they avoided replying to questions by pleading a breakdown in the cable communications with Tokyo. For example, the Japanese delegates on the Labor Commission told us for several days that they were unable to report their government's position with respect to adoption of the 48-hour week, which was one of the general principles for regulating labor conditions embodied in the constitution. Japan, as the most industrialized of the Asiatic powers and an ally of the Entente in the war, needed to have some concession if it were to take part in the Washington Conference and become a working member of the ILO. Finally, when we inserted in the text the clause recognizing that due consideration should be given to those countries in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organization, and other special circumstances made immediate application of the principles difficult, our Japanese colleagues reported that Japan would accept membership in the ILO.

The granting of this concession to Japan turned out to be one of the most important events in subsequent months. At the Paris Peace Conference, Baron Makino of Japan had given it as his measured view that the betterment of labor conditions would be a dominant problem for the fu-

ture in the Orient, for it would affect not only industrialization at home, but emigration abroad. The bearing of this upon Japanese-American relations was obvious although little attention was paid to it at the time. Japan, however, took the matter very seriously, and when the Conference met in Washington, the disappointment of the Japanese at the hostile attitude of Congress and of American opinion was an important element in their attitude with reference to the American policy generally. Hostility to Japan was then at its height, because under the peace treaty it retained its hold on the Chinese ports which it had taken from Germany in the war, and President Wilson was bitterly accused of selling out China to Japan on that account. The importance of having the strongest Asiatic power on the side of the International Labor Organization was not appreciated in Washington, although the London Times gave it editorial support.

Japan was the one government that took the Washington Conference most seriously. The Japanese delegation was the largest of all. More important was the fact that in the years that followed, while Japan was developing its dangerous imperialistic policies in Asia, the evils attendant upon an extremely rapid industrialization were countered by the influence of the ILO in such enlightened measures as those which ended child labor in the mills. That influence was directly felt through such social reformers as Dr. Iwao Ayusawa, formerly an ILO staff member.

ILO Achievements

This passing reference to the influence of the ILO in Japan is only a reminder of the far reach of the one enduring instrument of international cooperation created by the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. The ILO now has to its credit the achievement not merely of survival through World War II but of a vast cooperative effort at human betterment, the register of an ever-strengthening social conscience the world over.

During the 40 years of its existence, the ILO has adopted 111 international labor conventions covering a great variety of labor problems. These include forced labor; discrimination in employment; the safety and health of workers, not only those in industries at home but also seamen and sailors on the high seas; the employ-

ment of women; collective bargaining; unemployment; the 8-hour day; social security; and freedom of association. So carefully are its draft conventions considered in Conference, after being painstakingly worked out by the highly qualified staff of the International Labor Office, that more than 90 of them have become effective and binding upon the countries which ratified them. The measure of this achievement can best be appreciated against the background of history, for when the ILO was founded there were only three international labor conventions, one dealing with conditions of nightwork in bakeries and the two mentioned previously which were on the agenda of the first conference. Although the United States has ratified only seven, six of which have to do with maritime problems, this record does not mean that our country has lagged behind other nations in the betterment of industrial conditions; it is primarily due to the difference in procedure which leaves legislation on many social problems in the hands of the States. Throughout the years, the United States has built up an impressive record in labor legislation—Federal as well as State.

Since 1946, when the ILO joined the United Nations as a Special Agency, its work in the development of international labor standards has emphasized a broad technical assistance program, which today provides labor experts in many fields, who have been sent to nearly 60 countries of Asia, the Middle East, Latin America, Europe, and Africa. In this way, the ILO has been helping underdeveloped nations to help themselves, and this without any political implications.

At present, the ILO is embarking on many approaches to the problems of world labor in helping to build worker-employer relations and to better human relations in industry. It is placing more and more emphasis on the improvement of labor-management relations, workers' education, and management development programs. The ILO is keeping abreast of problems plaguing the world's industries, including the effects of automation and other technological developments, such as the industrial uses of atomic energy and the protection of workers against radiation.

With a membership of 80 nations, the ILO stands today as an expression of a world growingly aware of the problems of the daily life of peoples everywhere.

A Review of Work Stoppages During 1958

ANN JAMES HERLIHY*

THE NUMBER OF WORKERS involved in strikes and lockouts and total man-days of idleness were substantially higher in 1958 than in 1957, but relatively low compared to postwar levels (chart).¹ A total of 3,694 stoppages² involving 2,060,000 workers and 23,900,000 man-days of idleness were recorded in 1958 (table 1). Idleness caused by stoppages amounted to 0.22 percent of the estimated working time of all workers in nonagricultural establishments, excluding government.

Size and Duration of Stoppages

The 1958 increase in workers involved in stoppages, as against 1957,³ can be attributed to an increase in large stoppages. The 332 stoppages in 1958 that affected 1,000 workers or more (table 2), an increase of 53 stoppages over 1957, involved about 700,000 more workers. Stoppages idling 1,000 or more workers accounted for three-fourths of the workers and man-days of idleness in all 1958 stoppages.

*Of the Division of Wages and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

¹ A forthcoming bulletin will provide a more complete analysis and additional data on stoppages during 1958.

² All work stoppages known to the Bureau of Labor Statistics and its various cooperating agencies, involving six or more workers and lasting a full day or shift or longer, are included in these statistics. Figures on "workers involved" and "man-days idle" include all workers made idle for as long as one shift 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.

³ For detailed data on 1957, see Analysis of Work Stoppages During 1957 (in Monthly Labor Review, May 1958, pp. 485-491), and BLS Bull. 1234 (1958).

Twenty-one major stoppages (involving 10,000 or more workers) resulted in idleness totaling almost 11 million man-days, or about 45 percent of the total idleness recorded in 1958. On the other hand, more than half the stoppages involved fewer than 100 workers each, and accounted for only about 5 percent of total workers involved and man-days of idleness.

Although there was a slight increase in the average duration of stoppages ending in 1958, the difference between 1957 and 1958 idleness is accounted for less by this reason than by the increase in workers involved. The average work stoppage ending in 1958 lasted 19.7 calendar days, as compared with 19.2 in 1957 and 18.9 in 1956. Slightly more than two-fifths of the stoppages lasted less than a week—most of them only 1 to 3 days—accounting for 35 percent of the workers idle but only 8 percent of the total man-days of idleness (table 3). Only 5 of the year's 21 major stoppages were in this group; the other 14 ending in 1958 lasted from 13 to 54 days.

Stoppages lasting a month or more, a fifth of the total, caused more than half of all idleness. More than a third of the idleness in this category was attributable to nine major stoppages.

TABLE 1. WORK STOPPAGES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1945-58¹

Year	Work stoppages		Workers involved ²		Man-days idle during year		
	Number	Average duration (calendar days) ³	Number (thousands)	Percent of total employed	Number (thousands)	Percent of estimated total working time	Per worker involved
1945----	4,750	9.9	3,470	12.2	38,000	0.47	11.0
1946----	4,985	24.2	4,600	14.5	116,000	1.43	25.2
1947----	3,693	25.6	2,170	6.5	34,600	.41	15.9
1948----	3,419	21.8	1,960	5.5	34,100	.37	17.4
1949----	3,606	22.5	3,030	9.0	50,500	.59	16.7
1950----	4,843	19.2	2,410	6.9	38,800	.44	16.1
1951----	4,737	17.4	2,220	5.5	22,900	.23	10.3
1952----	5,117	19.6	3,540	8.8	59,100	.57	16.7
1953----	5,091	20.3	2,400	5.6	28,300	.26	11.8
1954----	3,468	22.5	1,530	3.7	22,600	.21	14.7
1955----	4,320	18.5	2,650	6.2	28,200	.26	10.7
1956----	3,825	18.9	1,900	4.3	33,100	.29	17.4
1957----	3,673	19.2	1,390	3.1	16,500	.14	11.4
1958----	3,694	19.7	2,060	4.8	23,900	.22	11.6

¹ The number of stoppages and workers relate to those beginning in the year; average duration, to those ending in the year. Man-days of idleness include all stoppages in effect during the year. Estimated working time is computed by multiplying the average number of employed workers by the number of days worked by most employees. This number excludes Saturdays when customarily not worked, Sundays, and established holidays. For other definitions, see text footnote 2.

A available information for earlier periods appears in Handbook of Labor Statistics, BLS Bull. 1016, table E-2. For a discussion of the procedures involved in the collection and compilation of work stoppage statistics, see Techniques of Preparing Major BLS Statistical Series (BLS Bull. 1168), pp. 106-112.

² Workers are counted more than once if they were involved in more than 1 stoppage during the year.

³ Figures are simple averages; each stoppage is given equal weight regardless of its size.

TABLE 2. WORK STOPPAGES, BY SIZE OF STOPPAGE, 1958

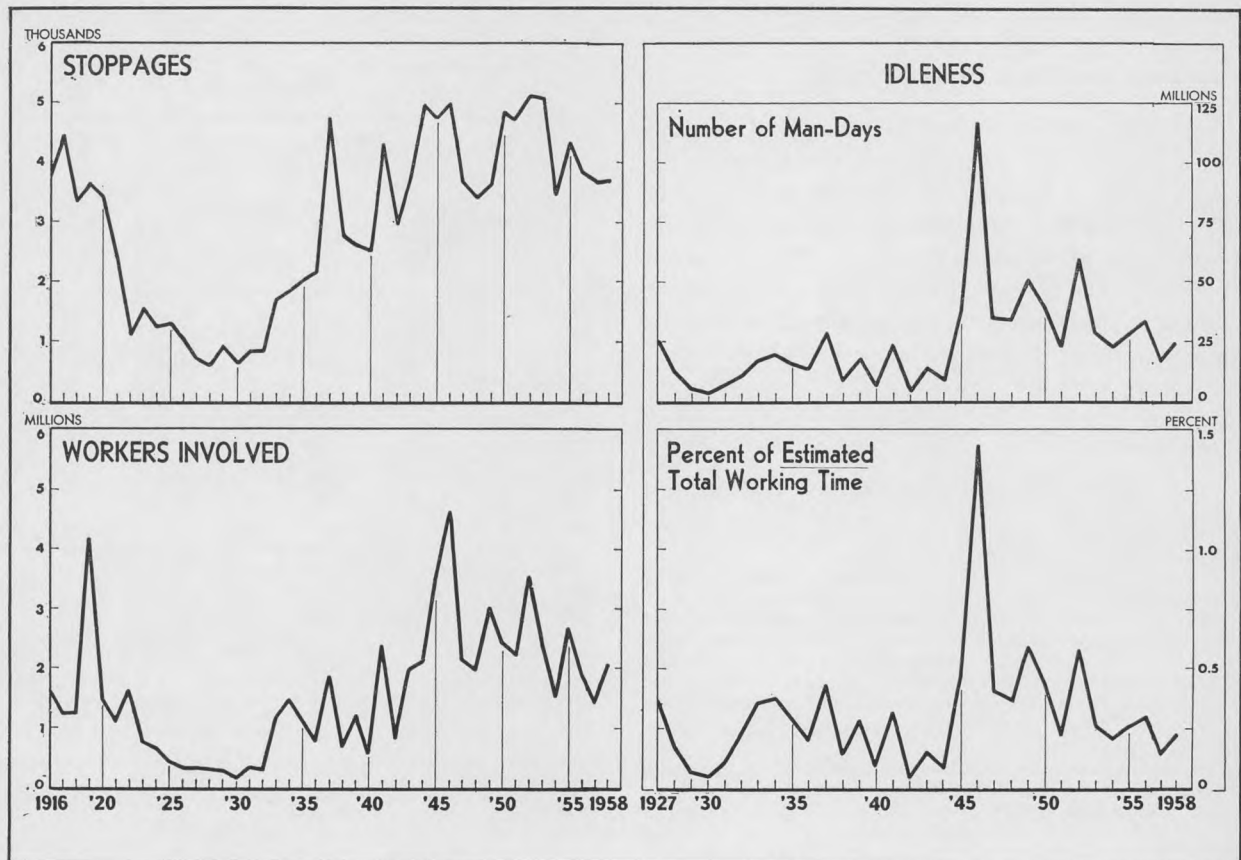
Size of stoppage (number of workers involved)	Stoppages beginning in 1958				Man-days idle during 1958 (all stoppages)	
	Number	Per- cent of total	Workers involved			
			Number	Per- cent of total	Number	Per- cent of total
All sizes.....	3,694	100.0	2,060,000	100.0	23,900,000	100.0
6 and under 20.....	646	17.5	7,790	0.4	119,000	0.5
20 and under 100.....	1,406	38.1	68,200	3.3	1,100,000	4.6
100 and under 250.....	705	19.1	111,000	5.4	1,570,000	6.6
250 and under 500.....	371	10.0	127,000	6.2	1,530,000	6.4
500 and under 1,000.....	234	6.3	160,000	7.8	1,720,000	7.2
1,000 and under 5,000.....	279	7.6	548,000	26.6	5,280,000	22.1
5,000 and under 10,000.....	32	.9	216,000	10.5	2,020,000	8.4
10,000 and over.....	21	.6	823,000	40.0	10,600,000	44.2

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Among these was one of the year's largest stoppages—an industrywide dispute involving 105,000 dress workers, members of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. While wide-

spread idleness in the dress industry lasted less than 10 days in early March, the duration of the stoppage was extended by intermittent idleness of about 10,000 workers in New York and Pennsylvania, both before and after the industrywide walkout. A stoppage involving the United Automobile Workers and two plants of the Caterpillar Tractor Co. was of 51 days' duration; the Eastern Airlines dispute with the Flight Engineers' International Association and the International Association of Machinists was settled in 38 days; and truckers in 11 Western States were idle for 37 days. Also in the group of long stoppages were four involving construction workers in disputes over contract matters—a 37-day stoppage in Oregon and southwest Washington in July and August, a 48-day stoppage in the Cleveland area in May and June, a 50-day stoppage in the Houston and Galveston, Tex., area in early fall, and a 54-day construction stoppage in New York State in midsummer.

Trends in Work Stoppages



Although the Libbey-Owens-Ford Glass Co. and the Glass and Ceramic Workers reached agreement in less than a month, the strike at the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Co., starting in October and continuing into 1959,⁴ became the longest major stoppage which began in 1958. The second longest major work stoppage also continued into 1959; 32,000 workers struck at various plants of the International Harvester Co. (United Automobile Workers) for a period of 71 days. The largest stoppage of the year, involving 275,000 workers of the General Motors Corp., lasted for 26 days (which included the disputes over local plant matters).

Major Issues

Stoppages resulting from disputes in which adjustments in wages, hours, and supplementary benefits were the major issues accounted for two-thirds of the workers and three-fourths of total man-days of idleness in 1958 (table 4). Most of the year's major stoppages were attributed to disputed issues in this category.

Disputes over other working conditions, such as job security, shop conditions and policies, and workload, accounted for almost 25 percent of the year's stoppages, slightly more than 25 percent of the workers, and about 15 percent of the idleness. Numerous stoppages on seniority is-

⁴ A new agreement was ratified on February 16, 1959.

TABLE 3. DURATION OF WORK STOPPAGES ENDING IN 1958¹

Duration (calendar days)	Stoppages		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All periods.....	3,632	100.0	1,990,000	100.0	21,400,000	100.0
1 day.....	418	11.5	129,000	6.5	129,000	0.6
2 and less than 4 days..	579	15.9	271,000	13.6	551,000	2.6
4 and less than 7 days..	548	15.1	304,000	15.2	1,040,000	4.9
7 and less than 15 days..	779	21.4	340,000	17.1	2,040,000	9.5
15 and less than 30 days.....	593	16.3	477,000	24.0	5,690,000	26.6
30 and less than 60 days.....	446	12.3	407,000	20.4	8,210,000	38.3
60 and less than 90 days.....	136	3.7	33,100	1.7	1,410,000	6.6
90 days and over.....	133	3.7	32,000	1.6	2,350,000	11.0

¹ The totals in this table differ from those in the other tables because these relate to stoppages ending during the year, including any 1957 idleness in these strikes.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

TABLE 4. MAJOR ISSUES INVOLVED IN WORK STOPPAGES, 1958

Major issues	Stoppages beginning in 1958				Man-days idle during 1958 (all stoppages)	
	Number	Percent of total	Workers involved		Number	Percent of total
			Number	Percent of total		
All issues.....	3,694	100.0	2,060,000	100.0	23,900,000	100.0
Wages, hours, and supplementary benefits.....	1,875	50.8	1,380,000	67.2	18,300,000	76.7
Wage increase.....	1,204	32.6	979,000	47.5	11,800,000	49.5
Wage decrease.....	27	.7	6,230	.3	77,100	.3
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	42	1.1	29,800	1.4	200,000	.8
Wage increase, pension, and/or health and welfare benefits.....	290	7.9	199,000	9.6	3,700,000	15.5
Pension and/or health and welfare benefits.....	21	.6	9,150	.4	188,000	.8
Other.....	291	7.9	162,000	7.9	2,330,000	9.7
Union organization, wages, hours, and supplementary benefits.....	221	6.0	33,300	1.6	1,260,000	5.3
Recognition, wages, and/or hours.....	153	4.1	8,170	.4	284,000	1.2
Strengthening bargaining position, wages, and/or hours.....	25	.7	18,400	.9	782,000	3.3
Union security, wages, and/or hours.....	43	1.2	6,790	.3	194,000	.8
Discrimination, wages, and/or hours.....					21,080	(³)
Union organization.....	362	9.8	39,600	1.9	639,000	2.7
Recognition.....	252	6.8	13,300	.6	286,000	1.2
Strengthening bargaining position.....	24	.6	11,800	.6	228,000	1.0
Union security.....	69	1.9	11,400	.6	98,500	.4
Discrimination.....	8	.2	290	(³)	14,300	.1
Other.....	9	.2	2,790	.1	11,800	(³)
Other working conditions.....	876	23.7	558,000	27.1	3,430,000	14.4
Job security.....	434	11.7	254,000	12.3	1,990,000	8.3
Shop conditions and policies.....	358	9.7	258,000	12.5	1,120,000	4.7
Workload.....	81	2.2	43,200	2.1	295,000	1.2
Other.....	3	.1	2,840	.1	27,300	.1
Interunion or intraunion matters.....	321	8.7	42,100	2.0	218,000	.9
Sympathy.....	59	1.6	16,200	.8	84,500	.4
Union rivalry.....	24	.6	1,470	.1	20,600	.1
Jurisdiction.....	232	6.3	22,400	1.1	105,000	.4
Union administration.....	3	.1	1,540	.1	6,300	(³)
Other.....	3	.1	440	(³)	890	(³)
Not reported.....	39	1.1	3,190	.2	15,500	.1

¹ Issues such as retroactivity, holidays, vacations, job classification, piece rates, incentive standards, or other related matters unaccompanied by proposals to effect general changes in wage rates are included in this category. Slightly less than a third of the stoppages in this group occurred over piece rates or incentive standards.

² Idleness in 1958 resulting from stoppage that began in 1957.

³ Less than 0.05 percent.

⁴ Includes disputes between unions of different affiliation.

⁵ Includes disputes between unions of the same affiliation.

⁶ Includes disputes within a union over the administration of union affairs or regulations.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

sues in connection with job retention affecting individual plants in the automobile industry are included in this category. Four of the year's major stoppages were concerned with matters in this group—the stoppage of construction workers in the Buffalo area, the dispute between the International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers and the General Electric Co. in Louisville, Ky., the Steelworkers union and the Inland Steel Co. dispute,

and the controversy between the Flight Engineers' International Association with Eastern Airlines, Inc., in November and December.

Union organization issues were dominant in a tenth of the strikes in 1958, but since smaller companies were typically involved, they accounted for only about 2 percent of the workers and 3 percent of the idleness. Matters of union security or bargaining position, in combination with wage

and supplementary benefit issues, were responsible for an additional 6 percent of the stoppages, 2 percent of the workers, and 5 percent of the total idleness.

Strikes involving interunion or intraunion matters, such as work jurisdiction, union rivalry, and sympathy strikes, were responsible for 2 percent of the workers and 1 percent of total idleness in 1958 stoppages.

TABLE 5. WORK STOPPAGES BY INDUSTRY GROUP, 1958

Industry group	Stoppages beginning in 1958		Man-days idle during 1958 (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of estimated total working time
All industries ¹	3,694	2,060,000	23,900,000	² 0.22
Manufacturing ¹	1,955	1,490,000	15,400,000	0.39
Primary metal industries.....	167	102,000	711,000	0.25
Fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment).....	256	147,000	1,220,000	.46
Ordnance and accessories.....	12	12,800	94,700	.29
Electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies.....	93	102,000	1,030,000	.36
Machinery, except electrical.....	223	152,000	2,760,000	.72
Transportation equipment.....	210	551,000	4,310,000	1.06
Lumber and wood products, except furniture.....	69	18,200	282,000	.18
Furniture and fixtures.....	74	13,800	254,000	.28
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	117	44,900	1,200,000	.91
Textile mill products.....	51	6,370	111,000	.05
Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics and similar materials.....	126	152,000	1,100,000	.37
Leather and leather products.....	41	7,720	78,900	.09
Food and kindred products.....	176	60,600	661,000	.18
Tobacco manufactures.....	4	270	2,170	(³)
Paper and allied products.....	60	18,100	252,000	.18
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	46	22,300	324,000	.15
Chemicals and allied products.....	100	20,300	318,000	.15
Petroleum refining and related industries.....	16	8,090	141,000	.23
Rubber and miscellaneous plastics products.....	58	23,800	147,000	.24
Professional, scientific, and controlling instruments; photographic and optical goods; watches and clocks.....	27	14,300	233,000	.29
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	58	8,330	141,000	.12
Nonmanufacturing ¹	1,739	574,000	8,520,000	² .12
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries.....	6	4,010	14,300	(⁴)
Mining.....	168	38,600	302,000	0.16
Contract construction.....	844	326,000	4,790,000	.71
Transportation, communication, electric, gas, and sanitary services.....	242	132,000	2,270,000	.23
Wholesale and retail trade.....	358	57,000	942,000	.03
Finance, insurance, and real estate services.....	8	600	4,560	(⁴)
Services.....	102	14,100	196,000	(⁴)
Government.....	15	1,720	7,510	(⁴)

¹ Stoppages extending into 2 or more industry groups have been counted in each industry group affected; workers involved and man-days idle were allocated to the respective groups.

² Excludes government and agriculture.

³ Less than 0.005 percent.

⁴ Not available.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

TABLE 6. WORK STOPPAGES BY STATE, 1958

State	Stoppages beginning in 1958		Man-days idle during 1958 (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of estimated total working time
United States.....	13,694	2,060,000	23,900,000	0.22
Alabama.....	72	12,100	130,000	0.09
Arizona.....	15	2,400	48,400	.09
Arkansas.....	26	4,470	57,000	.08
California.....	221	73,100	1,130,000	.12
Colorado.....	23	8,770	267,000	.29
Connecticut.....	53	17,300	209,000	.10
Delaware.....	17	13,200	92,400	.28
District of Columbia.....	13	1,950	28,800	.05
Florida.....	91	31,400	444,000	.18
Georgia.....	38	25,900	306,000	.15
Idaho.....	8	1,220	22,200	.08
Illinois.....	230	103,000	1,720,000	.23
Indiana.....	108	129,000	884,000	.30
Iowa.....	69	21,600	228,000	.17
Kansas.....	33	12,000	106,000	.10
Kentucky.....	63	28,700	417,000	.32
Louisiana.....	68	23,600	295,000	.18
Maine.....	15	2,270	28,200	.05
Maryland.....	36	9,410	127,000	.07
Massachusetts.....	164	49,000	504,000	.13
Michigan.....	275	437,000	3,400,000	.72
Minnesota.....	76	18,800	218,000	.11
Mississippi.....	15	4,830	42,400	.06
Missouri.....	109	38,300	676,000	.24
Montana.....	23	2,600	44,100	.13
Nebraska.....	16	7,300	197,000	.28
Nevada.....	14	1,630	19,200	.11
New Hampshire.....	23	5,970	61,800	.16
New Jersey.....	260	96,900	939,000	.22
New Mexico.....	27	8,620	121,000	.29
New York.....	473	264,000	2,430,000	.18
North Carolina.....	28	5,110	79,000	.03
North Dakota.....	11	1,230	10,300	.04
Ohio.....	359	234,000	3,160,000	.48
Oklahoma.....	33	5,700	96,300	.09
Oregon.....	51	41,500	743,000	.77
Pennsylvania.....	394	150,000	1,810,000	.22
Rhode Island.....	19	3,700	46,100	.08
South Carolina.....	16	3,050	18,500	.02
South Dakota.....	8	350	5,620	.02
Tennessee.....	57	21,200	248,000	.14
Texas.....	70	32,500	917,000	.17
Utah.....	24	10,700	90,000	.20
Vermont.....	8	370	6,700	.03
Virginia.....	47	12,500	166,000	.08
Washington.....	58	31,600	680,000	.43
West Virginia.....	125	26,000	241,000	.23
Wisconsin.....	78	25,600	364,000	.15
Wyoming.....	7	350	10,600	.06

¹ Stoppages extending across State lines have been counted in each State affected; workers involved and man-days idle were allocated among the States.

Industries Affected

About 4.3 million man-days, or nearly a fifth of the year's total strike idleness, were recorded for transportation equipment manufacturers, which had the highest rate of worktime lost (table 5). Strike idleness in this industry group was greater than at any time in the past 12 years except in 1950 when 8 million man-days were recorded.

More than 1 million man-days of strike idleness each were recorded for five other manufacturing industries—fabricated metal products, electrical machinery, machinery (except electrical), stone, clay, and glass products, and apparel. In each of these five manufacturing industries, at least one major work stoppage contributed to the idleness total. Three groups—fabricated metal products, machinery (except electrical), and transportation equipment—accounted for more than 200 stoppages each.

The construction industry exceeded all others in man-days of idleness caused by strike activity. The level of strike idleness registered in this industry in 1958 was exceeded only in 1952 and 1953. About two-fifths of the idleness was attributable to five stoppages involving approximately 100,000 workers.

Although fewer workers were involved in stoppages in the transportation, communication, and

public utility group, compared with 1957, the man-days of idleness increased. Five stoppages were largely responsible for the increase—three in the airlines industry, the western trucking strike, and a prolonged strike of almost a thousand bus workers in the Midwestern and Western States.

The number of stoppages and workers involved in stoppages in mining industries dropped to the lowest levels in many years. However, the man-days of idleness, while remaining at a low level, increased by about 25 percent over 1957.

Idleness by State

Idleness rose in 1958 in 37 States. States having considerable employment in the manufacture of automobiles and farm equipment (Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio) registered significant increases over 1957 (table 6). Major stoppages involving construction workers contributed to the sharp increase in man-days of idleness in Oregon and Texas.

The Eastern Airlines dispute and a construction strike contributed to the increased idleness in Florida. Several less industrialized States, for example, Arizona and New Mexico, had greatly increased idleness as the result of major interstate strikes.

Union Conventions, July 16 to August 15, 1959

<i>Date</i>	<i>Organization</i>	<i>Place</i>
July 21.....	Stove Mounters International Union of North America.	Kankakee, Ill.
August 10---	International Union of United Brewery, Flour, Cereal, Soft Drink & Distillery Workers of America.	San Antonio, Tex.
August 10---	International Photo-Engravers' Union of North America.	Los Angeles, Calif.
August 11---	National Rural Letter Carriers' Association (Ind.)---	Washington, D.C.
August 15---	International Mailers Union (Ind.)-----	Dayton, Ohio
August 15---	International Typographical Union-----	Philadelphia, Pa.

Behavior of the CPI in Periods of Business Recovery

EWAN CLAGUE*

DURING 1957 AND EARLY 1958, considerable public attention was centered on the apparent anomaly of rising prices in the midst of business recession. This paradox was frequently pointed out in the press as well as occasionally being analyzed in the professional journals.¹

With business recovery from the 1957-58 recession under way, the Consumer Price Index (CPI) has been quite stable for a full year. Yet many people are now looking forward with apprehension to an early rise in the index, in the expectation that continued business recovery will soon result in the strengthening of prices generally.

Behavior of the Consumer Price Index

In this connection, a review of the behavior of the index in the six periods of business recovery since the beginning of the CPI is enlightening. The panels of chart 1 show the price index compared with the index of industrial production of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System for a period of 24 months following the trough of each business cycle, as determined by the National Bureau of Economic Research. The uniform period of 24 months was selected arbitrarily; it is not designed to measure the time to the next business cycle peak. The production index is seasonally adjusted in order to emphasize its cyclical characteristics during the recovery period. In addition to the CPI as a whole, the chart shows separately the subordinate indexes for food and for all items less food.

In the 1920-21 cycle, the production index rose over 60 percent in the 2 years from July 1921, while the Consumer Price Index was actually lower than it had been at the bottom of the recession.

In fact, it was not until 4 years later, in the summer of 1925, that the index surpassed its 1921 level. In the next cycle, after the March 1933 trough, the production index fluctuated sharply and widely, probably because of the varying activities of the National Recovery Administration, but 2 years later, it was nearly 60 percent above the low point. During that recovery period, the price index rose about 8 percent, which was almost wholly due to a more than 30-percent rise in the food index. Farm prices were extremely low in 1933, and so they rebounded sharply under the stimulus of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration. In the 1937-38 business cycle, the production index gained about 50 percent in the 24 months following the June 1938 trough, while once again the CPI was slightly lower at the end of the period than it was at the beginning of the recovery. Both the food and nonfood groups declined.

The three business recessions following World War II did not go as deep or last as long as the three previously mentioned. Hence, the rise in the production index after the turning point was substantially less. Nevertheless, the same general pattern can be seen in the next three panels on the chart.

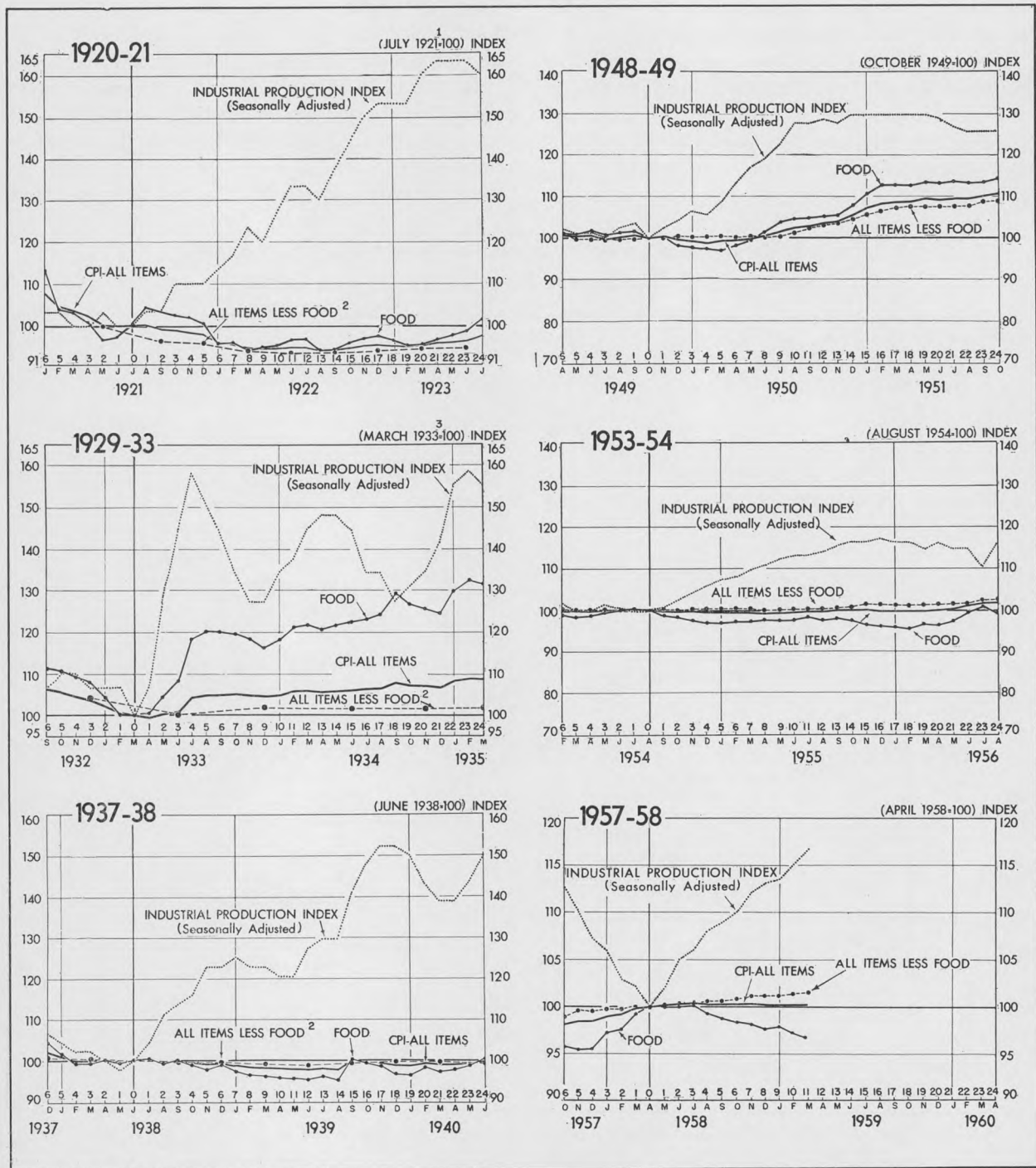
Following October 1949, the low point in the 1948-49 recession, the production index rose rapidly—about 30 percent within 10 months—and then leveled out. The Consumer Price Index lagged for about 8 months and then began to climb sharply. But this was due to the outbreak in Korea, which brought considerable hoarding, accompanied by the prospect of price controls. The food index, which had fallen about 5 percent during the business downturn, remained stable until Korea, and then rose about 12 percent within a year. However, the CPI as a whole was only about 11 percent higher at the end of 2 years, and it remained at about that level for nearly 4 more years.

In the 2 years following August 1954, the production index rose about 15 percent, while the CPI rose by less than 2 percent. The CPI did not decline in the recession and it did not rise much during the recovery.

*Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

¹See *The Consumer Price Index in the Business Cycle* (in *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1958, pp. 616-620).

Chart 1. Behavior of Consumer Price Index and Industrial Production Index in Six Business Cycles



¹ For All Items Less Food, May 1921=100.
² Data for selected months.
³ For All Items Less Food, June 1933=100.

SOURCE: Industrial Production Index, Board of Governors, Federal Reserve System; Consumer Price Index, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

NOTE: The base period in each panel is the business cycle trough as determined by the National Bureau of Economic Research.

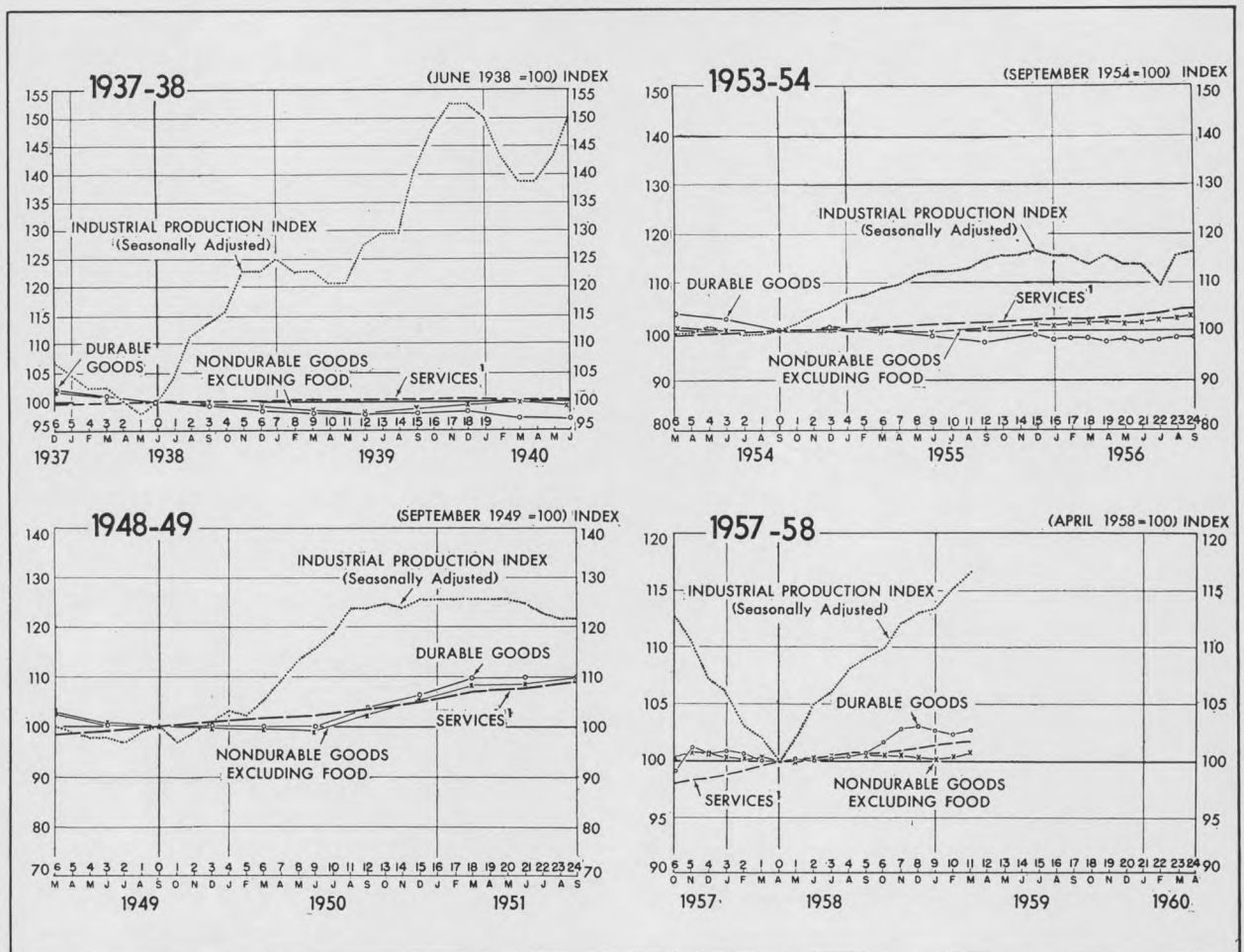
During the 1958-59 recovery period, the production index has risen roughly 15 percent in the 11 months since the April 1958 low point, while the Consumer Price Index leveled out in the spring of 1958 and has been stable since that time.

A feature of the CPI which can be examined in recent recessions, but for which information is not available prior to 1935, is the breakdown of the index for all items less food into three component parts: durable goods, nondurable goods, and all services, including rent. (See chart 2.)

During the 24 months following June 1938, the durable goods index dropped 3.4 percent and was a major factor in causing the slight decline in the index as a whole. Nondurable goods excluding food declined only 0.8 percent. The services remained practically unchanged, rising 0.1 percent.

In the 1949-51 and 1954-56 business recovery periods, the services rose slowly but steadily, while both durable and nondurable goods fluctuated to some extent. In the earlier period, the goods indexes remained stable for the first three quarters

Chart 2. Behavior of Selected Consumer Price Index Components and Industrial Production Index in Six Business Cycles



¹ Includes rent, gas, electricity, dry cleaning, laundry service, domestic service, telephone, water, postage, shoe repairs, auto repairs, auto insurance, auto registration, transit fares, railroad fares, professional medical services, hospital services, group hospitalization, barber and beauty shop services, television repairs, motion-picture admissions, and from 1953 forward, home purchase, real-estate taxes, mortgage interest, property insurance, repainting garage, repainting rooms, reshingling roof, and refinishing floors.

NOTE: The base period in each panel is the business cycle trough as determined by the National Bureau of Economic Research or the month nearest the trough for which CPI component data (computed on a quarterly basis) were available.

SOURCE: Industrial Production Index, Board of Governors, Federal Reserve System; Nondurable Goods Excluding Food, Durable Goods, Services (components of the Consumer Price Index), Bureau of Labor Statistics.

and then rose about 10 percent before controls were imposed in the first quarter of 1951. Services, however, rose steadily from the bottom of the recession and reached a level nearly 10 percent higher by the end of 2 years. In 1954-56, the goods indexes changed very little, durables declining about 1 percent and nondurables rising about 3 percent. But the services continued their slow, steady climb, increasing nearly 5 percent by the end of the period. This same general pattern has existed so far in the recovery of 1958-59.

Conclusions

What, then, are the general conclusions from these facts? First, the Consumer Price Index as a whole tends to lag during the early stages of business recovery. Production can climb substantially, and reemployment can follow (though at a lower rate of increase), but prices at retail do not respond immediately. In fact, prices tend to remain stable until recovery has passed into prosperity.

The subgroups in the index behave quite differently from each other. Families suffering from unemployment or reduced incomes tend to cut down on heavy capital purchases, while they keep up their spending on food, rent, utilities, and other nondeferrable purchases. So commodities, especially durables, may actually decline in price during the early stages of business recovery. Services, however, remain firm or even rise in price. In 1938-40, the services index held firm for 2 years; but in recent recessions, that index has climbed slowly but steadily throughout the recession and the subsequent recovery. The same pattern is being followed in 1958-59—the outlook is for a continuing rise in the services.

Of all groups in the index, foods are the most responsive to changing economic conditions; but they respond more to the agricultural cycle than to the industrial cycle—and these two cycles do not exactly correspond in timing. In the 1948-49

recession, food prices were declining when the business downturn began and they finally reached bottom in February 1950, which was also the low point for the CPI as a whole.

By 1954, the farm cycle was lagging a little; the decline in food prices occurred after the business recovery began, and continued throughout 1955 and into the spring of 1956. In fact, declining food prices were a major factor in the remarkable stability of the CPI from the year 1952 to early 1956.

When the next business downturn began in the autumn of 1957, the farm cycle was lagging still more behind business. Food prices rose sharply in the spring of 1956, fluctuated seasonally during 1957, and then rose to a new alltime peak in the spring of 1958. The rise was due partly to exceptionally bad crop weather in some sections of the country, but also to the unfavorable corn-hog price ratio in 1955-56, resulting in reduced herds of meat animals. But now in 1959, a downturn in farm prices is under way. Farmers have been building up their herds, and larger marketings of meat animals will follow eventually. A typical but moderate seasonal rise in fruit and vegetable prices should occur in the late spring and early summer of 1959, but this temporary strengthening will be followed by seasonal price declines beginning about midsummer. At that same time, according to the U.S. Department of Agriculture, there is the likelihood of some decline in meat prices. So, cheaper foods may hold the CPI down during the latter part of this year.

Finally, the lag in the CPI during business recovery ceases with the advent of prosperity. When production reaches new peaks, when industry is operating near capacity, and when reemployment has reduced unemployment to prosperity levels, then the pressure on prices grows and the CPI begins to rise more sharply, as in 1956-57. When full prosperity is reached some time in the future, the CPI is likely to move to higher levels.

Summaries of Studies and Reports

Accident and Sickness Benefits Under Collective Bargaining, 1958

ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS COVERAGE in health and insurance plans—also referred to as cash disability benefits—provides payments to workers to compensate partially for the loss of wage income during absences caused by accidents and illnesses. Such plans generally apply to accidents or illnesses arising off the job, which workmen's compensation does not cover. An increasing number of plans have, since their inception, extended coverage to occupational accidents and illnesses, thereby supplementing benefits which the injured worker receives through workmen's compensation.

This insurance against loss of wage income generally covers a fixed term of absence, e.g., 26 weeks, which may apply to a particular disability incurred by the worker or may express the maximum protection available during a year. In either case, a long siege of illness extending beyond the specified insured period will exhaust a worker's protection. Normally, however, this protection is renewed for another disability on the worker's return to the job or at the start of his next benefit year. Unlike other benefits provided under health and insurance plans, which may be extended to dependents and to retired workers, accident and sickness benefits, related to wage loss, are available only to active workers.

With few exceptions, disabled workers are required to be under a physician's care in order to collect benefits, and, in many cases, the disability has to be attested to in writing by the physician. Total disability, or confinement to the home or in a hospital, is seldom a requirement for receiving benefits. In most plans, accident and sickness benefits are provided through group insurance policies. An alternative method is self-insurance, that is, contributions are made to a fund from which benefits are paid.

A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor, from which this article was excerpted,¹ covered the key features of accident and sickness benefits, as provided in selected collectively bargained programs in effect in the fall of 1958, including eligibility requirements, waiting periods for accident and for sickness benefits, amounts of weekly benefits paid, duration of benefit payments, supplementation of workmen's compensation, benefits payable in maternity cases, financing arrangements, and related aspects. A similar study based on plans in effect in late 1955² provides a basis for evaluating the changes that have taken place over the past 3 years.

Scope of Study

The 300 health and insurance plans studied were in effect in the fall of 1958. They were selected to provide a broadly representative view of the type of protection provided under major plans, i.e., those covering 1,000 or more workers. The 300 selected plans, which ranged in coverage to a half million workers, provided protection to a total of 4.9 million workers, or about 40 percent of the estimated number of workers under all health and insurance plans under collective bargaining agreements. Of these 300 plans, 271 had been included in the Bureau's previous study.

Virtually every major manufacturing and non-manufacturing industry was represented in the sample studied. Almost 3 out of 4 plans (219), covering two-thirds of the workers, were in manufacturing industries. Almost a third of the plans (93), covering more than 40 percent of the workers, were negotiated by multiemployer groups.

Of the 300 health and insurance plans studied, 232, covering 3,567,000 workers, included accident and sickness benefits. Almost 7 out of 8 plans in

¹ For detailed findings of this study, see *Health and Insurance Plans Under Collective Bargaining: Accident and Sickness Benefits, Fall 1958* (BLS Bull. 1250).

² *Analysis of Health and Insurance Plans Under Collective Bargaining, Late 1955* (BLS Bull. 1221, 1957).

manufacturing industries, and half of the non-manufacturing programs studied, contained this feature.³

Under all but two of the plans with accident and sickness benefits, workers were covered during absences caused by disabilities not related to the job. Sixty-five plans supplemented workmen's compensation benefits by covering occupational disabilities. About 90 percent of these 65 plans covered workers in manufacturing industries.

The employer paid the full cost of accident and sickness benefits in 6 out of 10 plans. Under almost all of the remaining plans, workers shared the cost of this coverage by contributing directly toward the cost of this benefit or of the health

and insurance program as a whole. Approximately the same proportion of workers were covered by employer-financed and jointly financed benefits. A majority of plans involving single employers required the worker to pay part of the cost of this coverage. With few exceptions, benefits under multiemployer plans were financed entirely by the employers participating in the plan. Since late 1955, no significant change has occurred in the method of financing accident and sickness benefits in the plans studied.

Eligibility Requirements⁴

Accident and sickness benefits, for other than maternity cases, became available to newly hired workers after a period of service which was usually long enough to separate the temporary and regular employees but not so long as to constitute a service requirement of the paid vacation type. Four out of five plans required employment of less than 4 months. Only five plans held off coverage for 11 or 12 months. In 57 plans, the new worker was covered within a month after reporting to work, in some cases on the first day.

³ In many cases, plans excluding this benefit provided paid sick leave, or workers were covered by State temporary disability laws.

⁴ As discussed in this section, eligibility requirements refer only to the period of employment required before a worker is eligible to participate in the plan. The specified waiting period for accident and sickness benefits, and the period a worker must be insured in order to be eligible for accident and sickness benefits for maternity cases, are discussed separately. In addition to specifying an employment requirement, a few plans also required a period of union membership. This period rarely exceeded the employment requirement.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF PLANS PROVIDING FLAT AMOUNTS OF NONOCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS BENEFITS, BY AMOUNT PROVIDED AND DURATION OF BENEFIT PERIOD, FALL 1958¹

Amount of weekly nonoccupational benefits	All plans		Maximum duration of benefits—													
			Per disability								Per year					
			13 weeks		20 weeks		26 weeks		52 weeks		13 weeks		20 weeks		26 weeks	
	Number	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)		
All plans providing a flat amount..	² 123	1,354	44	405	4	71	65	524	2	11	³ 2	281	1	16	2	24
Under \$15.....	3	92	3	92												
\$15.....	3	20	3	20												
\$20.....	4	23	4	23												
\$20.01 and under \$25.....	2	21	1	4												
\$25.....	12	101	11	97			1	4								
\$25.01 and under \$30.....	4	320			1	35	1	4			2	281				
\$30.....	19	96	8	24			10	56					1	16		
\$30.01 and under \$35.....	4	19	2	4					1	9					1	6
\$35.....	12	154	5	77	1	3	5	73								
\$35.01 and under \$40.....	2	3	2	3												
\$40.....	22	241	2	44			20	198								
\$40.01 and under \$45.....	1	4					1	4								
\$45.....	10	65	1	8	2	33	7	25								
\$45.01 and under \$50.....	12	101					12	101								
\$50.....	10	67	1	2			7	60	1	2						
\$50.01 and under \$55.....	1	18													1	18
\$55.....	1	1					1	1								
\$65.....	1	9	1	9												

¹ Based on a study of 300 health and insurance plans under collective bargaining, covering approximately 5 million workers; of these, 230 plans, covering 3,553,000 workers, provided nonoccupational accident and sickness benefits.

² Excludes 1 plan, covering 6,000 workers, that provided a lower benefit the first week than that provided during the remainder of the benefit period. Includes 1 plan, covering 17,000 workers, that provided benefits for an un-

limited period; 2 plans, covering 4,300 workers, that provided benefits for 39 weeks per disability; and 9 plans, covering 164,800 workers, that provided a lower benefit for women.

³ These 2 plans provided separately for 13 weeks per year for accidents and 13 weeks per year for sickness.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals

Presumably for accounting purposes, about one out of five plans covered the worker at the beginning of the month following the completion of the eligibility period.

Nonoccupational Benefits

The three key elements of accident and sickness plans which determine the amount of financial protection the worker receives in the event of disability arising off the job are (1) the amount of weekly payment provided, (2) the waiting period, i.e., the number of initial days of absence for which he does not receive payments, and (3) the maximum duration of benefit payments.

With few exceptions among the plans studied, the weekly benefit payable was either a flat (uniform) amount or a variable amount determined by an earnings scale or the individual worker's earnings. More than half of the plans (124) specified a uniform amount for all covered workers. However, a larger proportion of workers were covered by the 99 plans graduating the amount according to earnings. Some of the plans in this study that had provided a flat amount in late 1955 based benefits on earnings in 1958.

Under nine uniform plans covering 56,000 workers, a ceiling was placed on the amount payable in relation to earnings. In six cases, the stipulated amount was payable only if it was not greater than 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ percent of the worker's earnings. Two plans set the limit at 70 percent and one at 75 percent.

Plans which graduated the accident and sickness benefits according to earnings either paid a percentage of the worker's weekly wage (32 plans) or a fixed amount assigned to the wage classification in which the worker's weekly earnings fell (67 plans). Fifteen of the plans paying a stipulated percent of the worker's wage designated 50 percent of weekly earnings as the weekly amount allowable.

*Amount of Benefit.*⁵ The weekly benefit provided under the 123 flat plans ranged from less than \$15 to \$65, with the median plan paying \$35 (table 1). Approximately half of the workers covered by flat plans received less than \$35 a week in benefits. Almost 12 percent of the workers (under 12 plans) received less than \$25 a week, and 7 percent (under 13 plans) received \$50

or more. On the whole, method of financing does not appear to be a major factor in accounting for differences among plans in the level of benefits.

About 3 out of 10 flat plans paid weekly benefits of \$45 or more in late 1958, compared with about 1 out of 16 in late 1955 (chart). The proportion of plans paying less than \$35 a week decreased from almost 3 out of 5 in 1955 to slightly more than 2 out of 5 in 1958.

Under graduated plans relating benefit levels to earnings levels, the weekly benefit provided workers⁶ earning \$4,000 yearly ranged from \$15, or 20 percent of the weekly wage (before deductions), to \$56, or more than 70 percent of the weekly wage (table 2). The median plan paid \$40 a week, or slightly more than half the weekly wage. The levels provided by contributory plans were, on the average, higher than those provided under plans financed entirely by the employer.

Almost half of the plans paid more than \$40 a week to the \$4,000-a-year worker in 1958, as compared with slightly more than a fourth in 1955. The upward trend in benefit levels since 1955, as reflected in the accompanying chart, was caused by changes in plan provisions affecting the \$4,000-a-year level,⁷ and does not take into account the likelihood that the \$4,000-a-year worker

⁵ In order to tabulate the amount of benefits provided by graduated plans, it is necessary to choose a specific earnings level and to calculate the amount of benefit payable to a worker at that level. For this study, a \$4,000-a-year level (weekly equivalent \$76.92) was selected. The weekly payments shown in this report for \$4,000-a-year workers under graduated plans, it is important to note, would not be applicable to another earnings level.

Under flat or uniform plans, the relationship of benefit levels to a weekly wage of \$76.92 or to any other arbitrarily selected earnings level can, of course, be readily computed. However, the benefit amount under many flat plans is geared to the expected level of earnings of workers covered by the plan. If this level varies substantially from the one arbitrarily selected, the relationship mentioned above would be unrealistic. For example, if workers covered by a flat plan are expected to earn \$120 a week, the level of accident and sickness benefits provided by the plan would tend to reflect this expectancy. Relating this level of benefits to a weekly wage of \$76.92 would exaggerate the proportion of earnings provided by the plan.

For these reasons, this study must deal separately with benefit levels of flat and graduated plans, without combining them to present a picture of all 230 plans providing nonoccupational accident and sickness benefits. In addition, data for flat and graduated plans have been tabulated separately in order to relate waiting periods to the basis for determining amount of benefit as well as duration of payments to the amounts of benefits.

⁶ Since benefit levels for only the \$4,000-a-year worker were computed for graduated plans, the numbers of workers shown in table 2 at various benefit levels do not indicate the numbers receiving the benefit (as in the case of flat plans), but the total number of workers covered by the plans.

⁷ Whether other wage categories were affected to a greater or lesser extent than the \$4,000 level was not investigated in this study.

in late 1955 would be in a higher bracket in 1958, as a result of wage increases alone, and would therefore be entitled to a higher benefit without any change in plan provisions.

Waiting Period and Duration. In 7 out of 10 plans, workers were entitled to immediate benefits for absences caused by accidents happening off the job (table 3). In the case of sickness, prevailing practice was much more restrictive. Only three plans covered workers for the first 3 days of absence. Eight out of ten plans started benefits on the eighth day of absence and one of seven started payments on the fourth day. Under some of these plans, however, accident and sickness benefits became available immediately upon being hospitalized.⁸

Retroactive payments following the completion of a waiting period or an extended period of ill-

⁸ The extent to which nonoccupational benefits were supplemented by separate paid sick leave plans covering the first few days of absence was not determined in this study.

⁹ Some plans provided retroactive payments for both accident and sickness disability and are therefore listed twice in the footnotes.

ness were provided by 11 plans. (See footnotes 4-8, table 3.⁹)

All but one of the plans studied limited accident and sickness benefits payments to a fixed period. More than 9 out of 10 plans with a non-occupational benefit provided a maximum number of weekly benefit payments for each disability (table 4). Under these plans, the number of weekly payments a worker previously collected from the plan had no bearing on the number available to him for future disabilities if the disabilities were due to unrelated causes and were separated by a return to work, usually for a specified period. In 15 plans, workers were limited to a certain number of benefit weeks in a year.

The duration of the accident and sickness benefits under the plans studied was uniform for all covered workers except for certain modifications based on age. Over half of the plans with a non-occupational benefit made benefit payments for up to 26 weeks per disability. The next most frequent maximum duration specified was 13 weeks per disability (61 plans). Seven plans covered workers for a full year of disability.

TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF PLANS PROVIDING GRADUATED AMOUNTS OF NONOCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS BENEFITS, BY AMOUNT PROVIDED WORKERS EARNING \$4,000 YEARLY AND DURATION OF BENEFIT PERIOD, FALL 1958¹

Amount of weekly nonoccupational benefits for \$4,000-a-year worker ²	All plans		Maximum duration of benefits—													
			Per disability								Per year					
	Number	Workers (thousands)	13 weeks		20 weeks		26 weeks		52 weeks		13 weeks		20 weeks		26 weeks	
			Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)
All plans graduating the amount according to earnings alone.....	³ 97	1,938	15	87	4	40	⁴ 64	1,599	4	92	⁵ 3	59	⁶ 3	21	3	27
\$15.....	1	5	1	5												
\$25.01 and under \$30.....	1	3	1	3												
\$30.....	5	56	1	8			3	10			1	39				
\$30.01 and under \$35.....	4	32														
\$35.....	9	44	3	13			4	12								19
\$35.01 and under \$40.....	15	336	3	11	4	40	3	244			2	20	3	21		
\$40.....	15	105	5	43			10	62								
\$40.01 and under \$45.....	13	439					12	426								
\$45.....	13	571					13	571								
\$45.01 and under \$50.....	10	257					6	164	3	85					1	8
\$50.....	5	56					5	56								
\$50.01 and under \$55.....	5	25	1	5			3	13	1	7						
\$55.01 and under \$60.....	1	10					1	10								

¹ For coverage, see footnote 1, table 1, and text footnote 6.

² Weekly equivalent—\$76.92.

³ Excludes 2 plans, covering 26,000 workers, under which the weekly amount provided during the first part of the benefit period was higher than that provided during the latter part of the benefit period. Includes 1 plan, covering 13,000 workers, that provided benefits for 15 weeks per disability; and 2 plans, covering 8,300 workers, that provided a lower benefit for women.

⁴ Includes 1 plan, covering 19,300 workers, that provided benefits for 26 weeks per disability but limited the number of benefit payments per year to 36.

⁵ Includes 1 plan, covering 18,000 workers, that provided benefits separately for 13 weeks per year for accidents and 13 weeks per year for sickness.

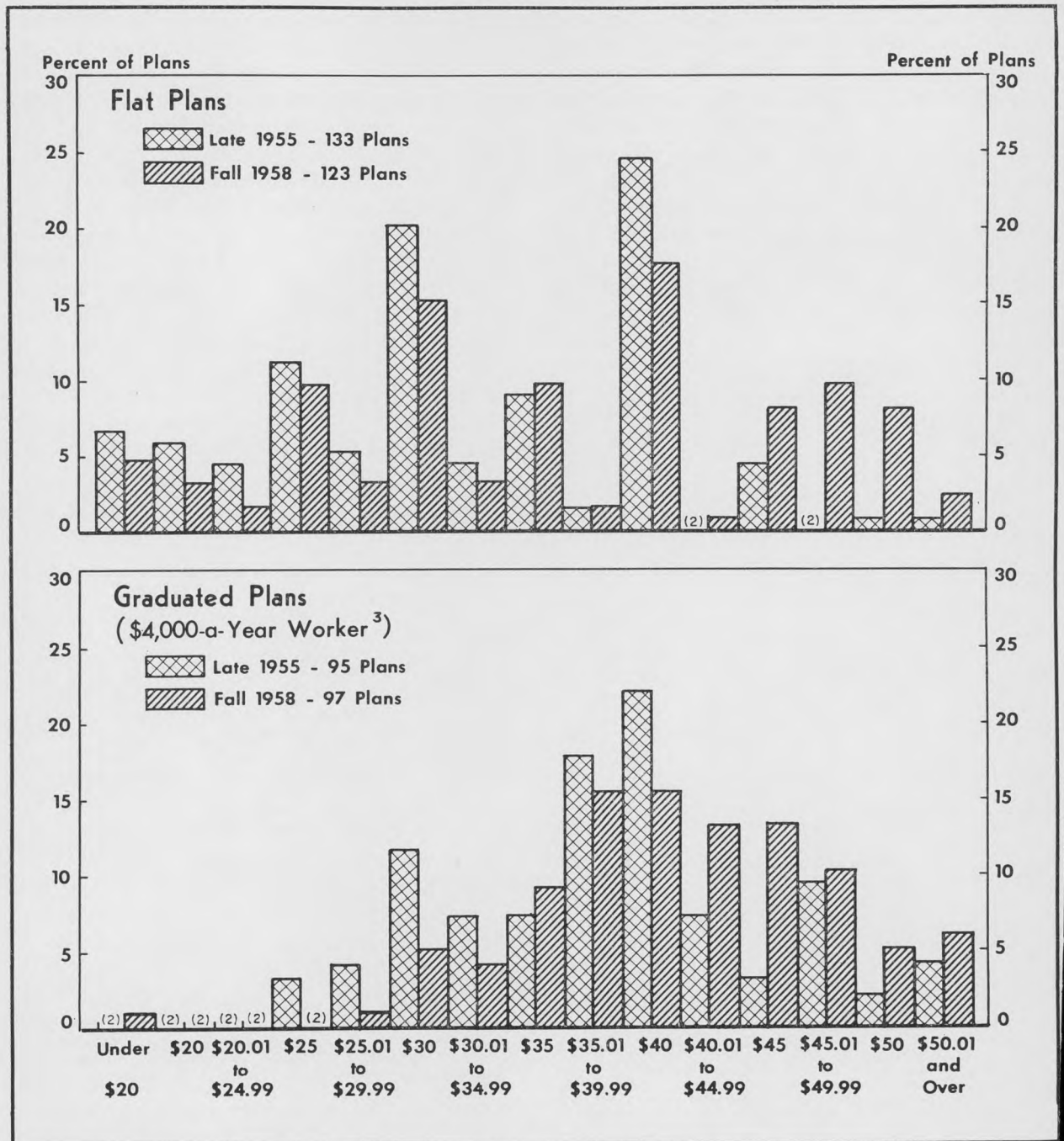
⁶ Includes 1 plan, covering 2,500 workers, that provided benefits separately for 20 weeks per year for accidents and 20 weeks per year for sickness.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals

The relationships between benefit levels and maximum duration of benefits, as shown in tables 1 and 2, reveal a marked tendency for longer durations to accompany higher benefit levels.

Reduction of Benefits for Older Workers. In four out of five plans, the same benefits were available to all eligible workers regardless of age. In 47 plans, however, benefit terms were modified

Weekly Nonoccupational Accident and Sickness Benefits in Selected Health and Insurance Plans Late 1955 and Fall 1958¹



¹ Based on studies of 300 health and insurance plans under collective bargaining.

² None.
³ Weekly equivalent—\$76.92.

TABLE 3. DISTRIBUTION OF PLANS PROVIDING NON-OCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS BENEFITS, BY WAITING PERIOD AND BASIS FOR DETERMINING AMOUNT OF BENEFIT, FALL 1958 ¹

Type of benefit and waiting period	All plans		Basis for determining amount of benefit			
	Number	Workers (thousands)	Flat amount		Amount graduated according to earnings	
			Plans	Workers (thousands)	Plans	Workers (thousands)
All plans providing nonoccupational accident and sickness benefits.....	2 230	3, 553	124	1, 360	99	1, 964
ACCIDENT						
Benefit begins—						
Immediately.....	160	2, 400	98	865	59	1, 376
After 3 days.....	³ 14	132	3	45	11	88
After 6 days.....	⁴ 4	302	2	281	2	21
After 7 days.....	⁵ 39	356	16	125	21	197
After 7 days or when hospitalized.....	5	265	1	6	4	259
Upon being hospitalized.....	2	38	1	3		
Other.....	6	61	3	36	2	24
SICKNESS						
Benefit begins—						
Immediately.....	3	9	2	7		
After 3 days.....	31	402	12	153	19	250
After 3 days or when hospitalized.....	3	34	1	1	2	33
After 7 days.....	⁶ 160	1, 795	94	760	62	845
After 7 days or when hospitalized.....	⁷ 21	912	9	119	12	793
After 13 days.....	⁸ 4	302	2	281	2	21
Upon being hospitalized.....	2	38	1	3		
Other.....	6	61	3	36	2	24

¹ Based on a study of 300 health and insurance plans under collective bargaining covering approximately 5 million workers.

² Includes 7 plans, covering 228,200 workers, that based the amount of benefit on factors such as marital status or amount of State disability insurance.

³ Includes 1 plan, covering 4,000 workers, providing a waiting period of 3 days or when hospitalized, whichever occurs first.

⁴ These plans provided for retroactivity of benefits to first day of disability.

⁵ Includes 1 plan, covering 11,500 workers, providing for retroactivity of benefit payments if disability lasted for a specified period; 1 plan, covering 17,000 workers, providing benefits for hospitalized cases only and providing retroactivity of benefit payments to first day of hospitalization; and 2 other plans, covering 8,000 workers, providing for retroactivity of benefits to first day of disability.

⁶ Includes 2 plans, covering 13,600 workers, providing for retroactivity to first day if disability lasted for a specified period; 1 plan, covering 17,000 workers, providing benefits for hospitalized cases only and providing retroactivity of benefit payments to first day of hospitalization; and 1 other plan, covering 6,000 workers, providing for retroactivity of benefits to first day of disability.

⁷ Includes 1 plan, covering 4,000 workers, providing for retroactivity to first day if hospitalized during disability period.

⁸ These plans provided for retroactivity of benefits to eighth day of disability.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

for workers reaching a stipulated age. In no case were workers under 60 years of age affected.

With two exceptions, the basis of payment was modified for workers upon the attainment of the specified age. In most of these plans, a change from a "per disability" to a "per year" basis took effect when the worker reached age 60. Both the accident and sickness benefits were affected in

¹⁰ Six of these plans covered only occupational accident disabilities.

about 2 out of 3 of the 47 plans; in the other plans, only the sickness benefit was involved. In addition to changing the basis of payment at age 60, one plan reduced the benefit amount for workers upon the attainment of age 65. Benefit payments were discontinued under 2 of the 47 plans; under 1 of these plans, workers were not eligible for benefits after age 65, and under the other, after age 70.

Occupational Benefits

An increasing number of health and insurance plans now provide accident and sickness benefits for occupational disabilities, a practice designed to eliminate differentials between benefits payable under a private plan for nonoccupational disabilities and the workmen's compensation benefit for occupational disabilities payable according to State law. More than a fourth of the plans with an accident and sickness benefit (65) provided coverage for on-the-job disabilities.¹⁰ All except two plans also covered nonoccupational disabilities. In late 1955, only 52 of the plans studied covered occupational disabilities.

Generally, the benefit payable for occupational disabilities was the difference between the workmen's compensation benefit and the amount provided for nonoccupational cases. For example, under a plan providing a \$40 weekly benefit for nonoccupational disabilities, an injured worker eligible for a \$25 workmen's compensation benefit would receive \$15 from the private plan.

With few exceptions, the waiting period and the duration for occupational benefits were the same as for nonoccupational benefits. Two plans covering 57,000 workers provided a longer waiting period for occupational accident benefits than for nonoccupational accident benefits; another plan covering 3,000 workers specified a longer waiting period for both occupational accident and sickness benefits than for nonoccupational benefits. The duration of occupational benefits differed from the duration of nonoccupational benefits in only two plans covering 21,000 workers.

Maternity Benefits

Partial compensation for income losses resulting from disabilities caused by pregnancy was provided women workers in almost three-fourths

(168) of the plans with weekly accident and sickness benefits. Under most of these plans (162), weekly benefits were payable; the remainder provided a general lump-sum allowance in lieu of weekly accident and sickness benefits and other plan benefits.

In addition to the eligibility requirements previously discussed, newly insured women workers under 121 of the 168 plans had to satisfy further qualification requirements for maternity benefits. Forty-seven plans made pregnancy disability benefits available immediately. Benefits were payable under 76 plans for disabilities caused by pregnancy which began after women workers became insured. Coverage for a predetermined period, generally 9 months, was required by the remaining 45 plans before benefits became payable.

The weekly maternity benefit payment provided in 160 of the plans was the same as the amount specified for nonoccupational disabilities. Two plans paid a lower weekly amount for maternity than for nonmaternity disabilities. In one of these, the benefit was \$5 less than that provided for nonmaternity cases and in the other, \$6 less.

A uniform or flat weekly benefit, ranging from \$9 to \$55 a week, was allowed for pregnancy disabilities in 87 plans (table 5). Most frequently

¹¹ Weekly equivalent—\$57.70.

TABLE 4. MAXIMUM DURATION OF NONOCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS BENEFITS, FALL 1958¹

Maximum duration	Plans	Workers (thousands)
All plans providing nonoccupational accident and sickness benefits.....	230	3,553
Per disability.....	213	3,097
13 weeks.....	61	638
20 weeks.....	8	111
26 weeks.....	131	2,142
39 weeks.....	3	6
52 weeks.....	7	138
Other.....	3	62
Per year.....	15	430
13 weeks.....	5	340
20 weeks.....	4	37
26 weeks.....	5	52
Other.....	1	1
Other.....	2	25

¹ For coverage, see footnotes 1 and 2, table 3.

² Includes 1 plan, covering 17,000 workers, that provided benefits for an unlimited period per disability.

³ Includes 3 plans, covering 299,000 workers, that provided separately for 13 weeks per year for accidents and 13 weeks per year for sickness.

⁴ Includes 1 plan, covering 2,500 workers, that provided separately for 20 weeks per year for accidents and 20 weeks per year for sickness.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

TABLE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS PLANS PROVIDING FLAT AND GRADUATED AMOUNTS OF WEEKLY BENEFITS FOR MATERNITY CASES, BY AMOUNT PROVIDED, FALL 1958¹

Amount of weekly maternity benefit	Flat plans		Graduated plans (\$3,000-a-year worker ³)	
	Number	Workers ² (thousands)	Number	Workers ² (thousands)
All plans.....	87	689	74	1,517
Under \$15.....	2	43	1	5
\$15.....	2	18	-----	-----
\$20.....	2	16	-----	-----
\$20.01 and under \$25.....	1	4	2	4
\$25.....	8	57	2	9
\$25.01 and under \$30.....	1	35	12	93
\$30.....	22	179	7	38
\$30.01 and under \$35.....	4	39	6	78
\$35.....	7	45	18	157
\$35.01 and under \$40.....	2	3	9	77
\$40.....	12	112	4	61
\$40.01 and under \$45.....	1	4	10	432
\$45.....	6	18	2	444
\$45.01 and under \$50.....	12	101	1	120
\$50.....	4	14	-----	-----
\$55.....	1	1	-----	-----

¹ Based on a study of 300 health and insurance plans under collective bargaining covering approximately 5 million workers; of these, 162 plans, covering 2,351,000 workers, provided weekly accident and sickness benefits for maternity cases. 1 plan not accounted for in this table, covering 145,000 workers, provided a benefit based on service.

² Number of workers covered by plans may not reflect an indication of use of benefit since proportion of women covered varied substantially among plans.

³ Weekly equivalent—\$57.70.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

it was \$30 (22 plans). The median flat plan provided \$35 a week.

Plans graduating the weekly benefit according to earnings alone paid women workers earning \$3,000 yearly¹¹ (an arbitrarily selected earnings level) an amount ranging from \$10 to \$48 if the disability was caused by pregnancy. Under 18 plans, \$35 a week, or 60 percent of the gross weekly wage, was paid. This was also the amount paid by the median plan.

All except 1 of the 162 plans provided weekly benefits for disabilities due to pregnancy for a shorter duration than for other types of disabilities. With four exceptions, these benefits were paid for a maximum period of 6 weeks.

Six plans provided a lump-sum maternity allowance as partial compensation for loss of income and for hospital and medical expenses incurred. Three of these plans gave women workers \$150; the other amounts were \$75, \$100, and \$200.

—DOROTHY KITTNER GREENE
AND HARRY E. DAVIS

Division of Wages and Industrial Relations

Earnings in Synthetic Fibers Manufacturing, October 1958

EARNINGS OF PRODUCTION AND RELATED WORKERS in synthetic fibers manufacturing averaged \$1.96 an hour in October 1958, exclusive of premium pay for overtime and for work on holidays, weekends, and late shifts. According to a field survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics,¹ straight-time hourly earnings of the nearly 46,500 production workers in the industry were found to range from \$1 to as much as \$3 an hour. Nearly 60 percent earned between \$1.50 and \$2.

Men accounted for three-fourths of the industry's production-worker employment and averaged \$2.02 an hour, compared with \$1.79 for women, who were usually employed in the finishing (or textile) departments.

Earnings in the South,² which accounted for 85 percent of the industry's employment, averaged \$1.99 an hour—3 cents above the industry average.

Workers in establishments primarily engaged in manufacturing cellulosic fibers averaged \$1.89 an hour, compared with \$2.12 for workers in establishments producing noncellulosic fibers. Wage level differences between the two industry branches were most pronounced for the skilled maintenance workers.

In both branches of the industry, workers in the skilled maintenance jobs were the highest paid of the occupations studied separately. Chemical operators and spinners were among the highest paid of the processing workers studied separately; workers in the finishing operations tended to be the lowest paid.

The study also provides information on certain establishment practices including hours of work; paid vacations; paid holidays; and health, insurance, and pension plans.

Industry Characteristics

Synthetic fibers now rank second to cotton in terms of total fiber consumption in the United States. Frequently referred to as manmade³ fibers, they fall into two main classifications: The cellulose fibers (rayon and acetate), and the noncellu-

losics which include nylon, acrylic fibers (Orlon), polyester fibers (Dacron), and others. In 1957, manmade fibers accounted for 28 percent of total U.S. fiber consumption by weight (compared with 66 percent for cotton).⁴ The development of this industry has taken place entirely within the past 50 years.

The first manmade fiber plant in the United States was established in 1910 at Marcus Hook, Pa., to produce rayon yarn by the viscose process. Acetate, the second of the manmade fibers, was first manufactured commercially in the United States in 1924. By 1943, rayon and acetate accounted for 10 percent of all textile fibers consumed in the United States. Nylon, the first true synthetic fiber, was introduced on a commercial scale in 1940. Other noncellulosic fibers (acrylics and polyesters) were soon added to the expanding industry. Although the production of cellulosic fibers (rayon and acetate) in 1957 was approximately 10 percent above the average for the years 1947-49, production of noncellulosic fibers in 1957 was more than 7½ times that of the base period.⁵ The production of cellulosic fibers has remained slightly above the billion pounds figure for several years, whereas noncellulosic production has steadily increased to the half billion pounds reported for 1957.

In principle, production methods or processes of the various manmade fibers have much in common. Described broadly, three basic processes are involved: (1) the chemical preparation of the spinning solution, (2) the transformation of the spinning solution into solidified filaments, and (3) the finishing (or textile) operations which place the product in the form in which it is sold.

¹ See Wage Structure: Synthetic Fibers, October 1958, BLS Report 143 (1959), for further details.

² For purposes of this study, the South is defined to include: Alabama, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia.

³ Since rayon and acetate are dependent on cellulose, a natural fibrous substance, they sometimes are not considered a true synthetic fiber.

⁴ The Cotton Situation, July 1958 (Washington, U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1958), p. 32. Manmade fibers' share of consumption is increased if comparative yields of fabrics from a specific weight of fiber ("covering power" or "utility poundage") are taken into account. For example, it has been estimated that a pound of cotton will average 3½ square yards of fabric, whereas as much as 7 square yards of fabric can be obtained from a pound of nylon.

⁵ *Ibid.*

TABLE 1. PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF PRODUCTION WORKERS IN SYNTHETIC FIBERS MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS BY AVERAGE STRAIGHT-TIME HOURLY EARNINGS¹ AND INDUSTRY BRANCH, UNITED STATES, OCTOBER 1958

Average hourly earnings ¹	All synthetic fibers establishments			All workers in—	
	All workers	Men	Women	Cellulosic fibers establishments	Noncellulosic fibers establishments
\$1.00 and under \$1.10	0.1	(2)	0.1	0.1	(2)
\$1.10 and under \$1.20	(2)	(2)	.2	.1	(2)
\$1.20 and under \$1.30	.1	0.1	.1	.1	(2)
\$1.30 and under \$1.40	.4	.2	1.0	.6	
\$1.40 and under \$1.50	1.7	.5	5.3	2.1	0.8
\$1.50 and under \$1.60	6.5	3.1	16.2	6.6	6.2
\$1.60 and under \$1.70	8.3	8.6	7.2	11.2	1.4
\$1.70 and under \$1.80	19.0	18.5	20.4	24.9	5.1
\$1.80 and under \$1.90	15.9	13.1	24.1	14.3	19.7
\$1.90 and under \$2.00	9.3	9.3	9.3	11.1	5.1
\$2.00 and under \$2.10	10.5	10.3	11.1	9.1	13.8
\$2.10 and under \$2.20	9.5	11.9	2.6	7.8	13.5
\$2.20 and under \$2.30	5.2	6.5	1.6	3.8	8.6
\$2.30 and under \$2.40	3.4	4.4	.4	2.6	5.4
\$2.40 and under \$2.50	2.6	3.5	.1	1.9	4.4
\$2.50 and under \$2.60	1.4	1.9	(2)	1.0	2.4
\$2.60 and under \$2.70	1.4	1.9	(2)	.2	4.2
\$2.70 and under \$2.80	2.5	3.3	(2)	1.5	4.6
\$2.80 and under \$2.90	1.9	2.6		.9	4.4
\$2.90 and over	.3	.3	(2)	.2	.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	46,471	34,585	11,886	32,570	13,901
Average hourly earnings ²	\$1.96	\$2.02	\$1.79	\$1.89	\$2.12

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

² Less than 0.05 percent.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal 100.

In actual practice, however, the mechanics of these operations may be quite different, accounting in large part for variations in the occupational and wage structures of the individual establishments. The preparation of the spinning solution for the noncellulosics is accomplished largely through mechanical means, whereas a greater amount of manual handling is required for the cellulose. Chemical department workers in noncellulosic establishments account for only about 8 percent of the total work force, whereas in establishments producing cellulose fibers, they account for 13 percent of the workers.

Conversion of the spinning solution into solid filaments is accomplished by one of two means. Under the wet-process method, the spinning solution is forced through the tiny holes of a spinneret into an acid bath which coagulates the fine streams of solution; the dry-process method uses warm air instead of acid to solidify the filaments. When the wet-process method is used, the filaments must be washed free from the acid and then

dried; the dry-process method makes these steps unnecessary. Rayon (viscose) uses the wet-process method; acetate and most noncellulosic fibers use the dry process.

The finishing or textile operations depend upon the form in which the product is to be sold. Continuous filament yarn is twisted and wound on bobbins for shipment; tow, on the other hand, is a ropelike strand of untwisted filaments which is packaged in the bulk and does not require winding. Staple (tow cut to specified lengths) is handled in much the same manner as tow with the exception of such added operations as crimping and cutting.

In October 1958, there were 35 establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture of synthetic fibers. These establishments employed almost 46,500 production workers (table 1). Twenty-five establishments, employing slightly more than 32,500 production workers, were primarily engaged in the production of cellulosic (rayon or acetate) fibers; the other 10 were manufacturers of noncellulosic fibers. Individual establishments generally specialized in one type of fiber; however, a few establishments produced both types. Four firms operated more than half of the plants and employed approximately three-fourths of the workers in October 1958. Establishments were located in 15 States east of the Mississippi, with the largest concentration in Virginia and Tennessee. All of the noncellulosic fibers establishments were located in the South.

At the time of the study, men accounted for 77 percent of the production workers in the cellulosic branch and 68 percent in the noncellulosic branch. Employment of women in both branches was largely confined to the finishing (or textile) departments and to inspection and testing jobs.

Both branches of the industry employ a comparatively large proportion of workers in maintenance jobs. Many of these workers are skilled tradesmen. Workers in the chemical preparation and spinning departments generally have higher skills than are required of workers in the finishing departments.

Because of the continuous nature of synthetic fiber manufacturing operations, a large proportion of the plant workers are employed on shift

work. The great majority of these workers were employed on rotating shifts, working successively on the day, evening, and night shifts.

Nine-tenths of the workers in the industry were hourly rated. In about half of the plants, single rates were established for a given classification, whereas in the remainder, rate ranges were employed. Incentive wage systems, found in about half of the establishments, applied only to workers in the finishing departments.

In October 1958, establishments employing three-fourths of the production workers in the industry had collective bargaining agreements covering a majority of their workers. The major union in the industry was the Textile Workers Union of America.

Average Hourly Earnings

Production and related workers in synthetic fibers manufacturing establishments averaged \$1.96 an hour in October 1958, exclusive of premium pay for overtime and for work on holidays, weekends, and late shifts. Men accounted for three-fourths of the production-worker employment and averaged \$2.02 an hour (table 1). Women production workers, most widely employed in finishing (or textile) operations, averaged \$1.79 an hour. Earnings in the South, which accounted for 85 percent of the industry's production-worker employment, averaged \$1.99 an hour, 3 cents more than the industry average.

Workers in establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture of cellulosic fibers averaged \$1.89 an hour, compared with \$2.12 for those in noncellulosic fibers establishments. Wage differences between the two branches of the industry were considerably more pronounced for men than for women. Thus, men in noncellulosic fibers establishments averaged \$2.24 an hour—30 cents more than men in cellulosic fibers establishments—whereas the average of \$1.86 for women in noncellulosic fibers establishments was only 12 cents an hour higher than that recorded for women in cellulosic fibers establishments.

⁶ For ease of reading, the limits of the class (earnings) intervals are designated in this fashion instead of using the more precise terminology of "\$1.60 and under \$2.40."

Individual earnings in the industry ranged from \$1 an hour to as much as \$3, with earnings of the middle 80 percent of the workers ranging between \$1.60 and \$2.40 an hour.⁶ Approximately 2 percent of the workers earned less than \$1.50 an hour, 59 percent earned between \$1.50 and \$2, and 31 percent earned between \$2 and \$2.50 an hour.

Contributing to this dispersion of earnings were such factors as differences in establishment pay levels and the wide range of skill requirements. As indicated previously, only about 10 percent of the workers were employed under incentive wage systems.

Individual earnings of men in the industry were more widely dispersed than those of women, whose employment was generally confined to the lower paying finishing jobs (e.g., creel tenders, drawtwist operators, tow operators, winders). Earnings of nearly 45 percent of the women were between \$1.70 and \$1.90 an hour.

Occupational Earnings

Wages for occupational classifications accounting for approximately three-fifths of the production and related workers in each branch of the industry were studied separately (table 2). In the cellulosic fibers branch, average earnings ranged from between \$2.20 and \$2.28 an hour for men in skilled maintenance jobs such as carpenters, electricians, machinists, millwrights, and pipefitters to \$1.53 for watchmen (not shown in the table). Men employed as laboratory assistants averaged \$2.14 an hour and guards averaged \$2.05. Men dry-process spinners, the highest paid processing job studied, averaged \$1.98. Men wet-process spinners, tow operators, and jetmen averaged \$1.91, and chemical operators \$1.90. Averages for men in other processing jobs studied were closely grouped about the \$1.85 level. The highest paid women's occupation studied separately was laboratory assistant, \$1.87; women yarn winders averaged \$1.80, with averages for warper operator and throwers only slightly less. Women employed as janitors, jetwomen, and physical test operators averaged from \$1.54 to \$1.68 an hour in establishments producing cellulosic fibers.

TABLE 2. NUMBER AND STRAIGHT-TIME AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS¹ OF WORKERS IN SELECTED PRODUCTION OCCUPATIONS IN CELLULOSIC AND NONCELLULOSIC FIBERS MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, UNITED STATES, OCTOBER 1958

Department, occupation, and sex	Cellulosic fibers establishments		Noncellulosic fibers establishments	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings ¹	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings ¹
MAINTENANCE				
Carpenters, men.....	184	\$2.22	71	\$2.76
Electricians, men.....	425	2.26	255	2.73
Helpers, trades, men.....	731	1.78	-----	-----
Machinists, men.....	371	2.20	98	2.76
Millwrights, men.....	981	2.28	-----	-----
Pipefitters, men.....	452	2.26	159	2.74
PROCESSING				
Chemical operators, men.....	3,321	1.90	940	2.35
Creel tenders.....	844	1.71	218	1.90
Men.....	162	1.83	-----	-----
Women.....	682	1.68	-----	-----
Drawtwist operators.....	-----	-----	3,115	1.96
Women.....	-----	-----	2,203	1.90
Jetmen.....	207	1.82	68	2.01
Men.....	128	1.91	38	2.09
Spinners, dry-process, men.....	1,019	1.98	1,086	2.21
Spinners, wet-process, men.....	3,008	1.91	-----	-----
Throwers (twisters).....	2,059	1.79	-----	-----
Men.....	563	1.84	-----	-----
Women.....	1,496	1.77	-----	-----
Tow operators, men.....	206	1.91	305	2.09
Warper operators, women.....	561	1.78	205	1.93
Washer operators, men.....	566	1.85	-----	-----
Winders, yarn, women.....	2,163	1.80	-----	-----
INSPECTION AND TESTING				
Laboratory assistants.....	504	2.08	504	2.22
Men.....	394	2.14	437	2.24
Women.....	110	1.87	-----	-----
Physical test operators.....	340	1.74	413	2.00
Men.....	49	2.09	-----	-----
Women.....	291	1.68	330	1.95
OTHER				
Guards, men.....	188	2.05	104	2.35
Janitors, men.....	768	1.66	266	1.65
Stock clerks, men.....	200	1.91	91	2.21
Truckers, power, forklift, men.....	227	1.77	68	1.88

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts.

NOTE: Dashes indicate no data reported or data that do not meet publication criteria.

In establishments manufacturing noncellulosic fibers, averages for workers in the skilled maintenance jobs studied (carpenters, electricians, machinists, and pipefitters) were near the \$2.75 an hour level. Men employed as guards and chemical operators averaged \$2.35 an hour and dry-process spinners averaged \$2.21. Operators of forklift trucks averaged \$1.88 an hour, compared with janitors who averaged \$1.65. Almost half of the women production workers in the noncellulosic branch of the industry were employed as drawtwist operators and averaged \$1.90 an hour. Other numerically important women's jobs

studied and their averages were: warper operators, \$1.93, and physical test operators, \$1.95.

Although average hourly earnings for men janitors were virtually the same in both branches of the industry (\$1.66 compared with \$1.65), some workers in the higher skilled jobs earned as much as 56 cents an hour more in noncellulosic fibers establishments than their counterparts in the other branch. Thus, electricians averaged 36 percent more than janitors in the cellulosic fibers branch, but 65 percent more in the noncellulosic fibers branch. Earnings of chemical operators were 14 percent above those of janitors in the cellulosic fibers branch and 42 percent higher in the other branch.

Earnings of individual workers varied greatly within the same job in both branches. In many instances, hourly earnings of the highest paid workers exceeded those of the lowest paid in the same job by \$1 or more. Thus, some workers in a comparatively low-paid job (as measured by the average for all workers) earned more than some workers in jobs for which higher averages were recorded.

The earnings dispersion for individual jobs reflects, in large measure, differences in establishment pay levels. For example, in the noncellulosic branch, plant averages for men chemical operators ranged from \$1.70 to \$2.40 an hour, and for women yarn winders, from \$1.50 to \$2.30 an hour.

Selected Establishment Practices

Data were also obtained on minimum wage rates (not mentioned in this summary); work schedules; and selected supplementary benefits, including paid holidays, paid vacations, retirement plans, life insurance, sickness and accident insurance, and hospitalization and surgical benefits.

Scheduled Weekly Hours and Shift Practices. Virtually all day-shift workers in the industry (both plant and office) were scheduled to work 40 hours a week in October 1958. Nearly three-fifths of the production workers were assigned to rotating shifts under arrangements whereby individuals periodically worked day, evening, and

night schedules. Shift differentials for these workers varied considerably by individual establishment and according to their schedule of work. Workers assigned to the day schedule of rotating shifts most frequently were provided a paid lunch period (usually 30 minutes) not given to workers assigned to the fixed day shift. When assigned to evening and night schedules, these workers on rotating shifts also usually received a cents-per-hour or percentage differential above the day rate. Workers assigned to oscillating and fixed extra shifts together accounted for only 5 percent of the total employment.⁷

Paid Holidays. Paid holidays were provided all of the plant and office workers in the industry (table 3). Approximately half of the plant workers received 6 days annually, with the remainder receiving either 7 or 8 days. All except one establishment had identical holiday provisions for plant and office workers.⁸ Four holidays (Christmas, July 4, Labor Day, and Thanksgiving) were provided by each of the 31 establishments studied; New Year's Day was provided by 27; Memorial Day by 26; Good Friday by 14; Washington's Birthday by 6; and Easter Monday by 5.

Paid Vacations. Paid vacations for qualified workers were provided by all establishments. Vacation payments for office workers were virtually always determined on the basis of the employee's regular salary for a specified length of time (i.e., 1 week, 2 weeks, etc.). This method was also the most common for production workers, although in many instances, vacation payments for these workers were based on a stipulated percentage of the employees' annual earnings.

⁷ Workers assigned to rotating shifts successively worked on the day, evening, and night schedules and, in most establishments, changed shifts every week. Those on oscillating shifts were of two groups: those alternating between day and evening schedules, and those alternating between evening and night schedules. Workers on fixed shifts regularly worked either evening or night schedules.

⁸ The slight advantage indicated for office workers in table 3 reflects differences in the relative employment of plant and office workers in the individual establishments, rather than any difference in practice for plant and office workers within establishments.

Production workers with less than a year's service usually were not provided paid vacations; however, all those with a year's service received vacation payments equaling at least 1 week's regular pay and frequently more. Two-fifths of the production workers in the industry received 2 weeks' vacation pay after 2 years of service.

TABLE 3. PERCENT OF PRODUCTION AND OFFICE WORKERS EMPLOYED IN SYNTHETIC FIBERS MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS WITH FORMAL PROVISIONS FOR SELECTED SUPPLEMENTARY BENEFITS,¹ UNITED STATES AND SOUTH,² OCTOBER 1958

Selected benefits	Production workers		Office workers	
	United States	South ²	United States	South ²
Paid vacations:^{3 4}				
After 1 year of service.....	100	100	100	100
1 week.....	36	35	5	5
Over 1 and under 2 weeks.....	38	34	1	1
2 weeks.....	26	31	94	94
After 5 years of service.....	100	100	100	100
2 weeks.....	62	66	99	99
Over 2 and under 3 weeks.....	38	34	1	1
After 15 years of service.....	100	100	100	100
2 and under 3 weeks.....	7	6	3	3
3 weeks.....	93	93	97	97
After 25 years of service.....	100	100	100	100
2 and under 3 weeks.....	7	6	3	3
3 weeks.....	55	49	46	40
4 weeks.....	37	44	52	57
Paid holidays:^{4 5}	100	100	100	100
6 days.....	52	51	46	41
7 days.....	22	19	21	22
8 days.....	25	30	33	37
Health insurance, severance, and pension plans:⁶				
Life insurance.....	100	100	100	100
Accidental death and dismemberment insurance.....	66	66	60	59
Sickness and accident insurance or sick leave ⁷	93	92	100	100
Sickness and accident insurance.....	81	78	55	58
Sick leave (full pay, no waiting period).....			88	90
Sick leave (partial pay or waiting period).....	37	44	6	6
Hospitalization insurance.....	99	99	99	99
Surgical insurance.....	99	99	99	99
Medical insurance.....	30	34	33	36
Catastrophe insurance.....	20	24	26	29
Retirement pension plan.....	89	96	98	99
Retirement severance pay.....	7	2		
Technological severance pay.....	65	62	51	38

¹ If formal provisions for supplementary benefits in an establishment were applicable to half or more of the workers, the benefits were considered applicable to all workers. Because of length-of-service and other eligibility requirements, the proportion of workers currently receiving the benefits may be smaller than estimated.

² See text footnote 2 for States making up the South as defined for the purposes of this study.

³ Vacation payments such as percentage of annual earnings and flat-sum amounts were converted to an equivalent time basis. Periods of service were arbitrarily chosen and do not necessarily reflect the individual provisions for progressions. For example, the changes indicated at 15 years may include changes in provisions occurring between 10 and 15 years.

⁴ Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

⁵ Tabulations limited to full-day holidays.

⁶ Includes only those plans for which at least a part of the cost was borne by the employer, and excludes legally required plans such as workmen's compensation and social security.

⁷ Unduplicated total of workers receiving sick leave or sickness and accident insurance shown separately.

More than nine-tenths of the production workers were employed in establishments providing 3 weeks' vacation pay after 15 years of service.

Vacation provisions for office workers were more liberal than those for plant workers. Almost 95 percent of the office workers qualified for 2 weeks' vacation pay after 1 year of service and more than half were entitled to 3 weeks' after 10 years of service. Establishments employing over a third of the production workers and slightly over a half of the office workers had provisions for a 4-week vacation after 25 years of service.

Health and Insurance Plans. Life, hospitalization, and surgical insurance for which employers paid at least part of the cost were available to virtually all of the production and office workers in the industry. Sickness and accident insurance was also applicable to four-fifths of the production workers and to somewhat more than half of the office workers. Medical insurance and catastrophe (extended medical) insurance plans were also reported for a fair proportion of workers. Hospitalization, surgical, and catastrophe insurance plans were usually jointly financed, whereas medical insurance plans were usually financed entirely by the employer. Employer-financed hospitalization, surgical, and catastrophe insurance plans frequently extended benefits to the employees' dependents; however, employer-financed medical insurance plans rarely provided benefits to dependents.

Pension and Severance Plans. Retirement pension benefits (other than those available under Federal Old-Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance) applied to virtually all of the office workers and to nine-tenths of the production workers. In addition, 7 percent of the production workers were employed by establishments providing lump-sum payments, rather than a pension, at retirement.

Provisions for severance pay for workers released because of technological changes were reported by plants employing nearly two-thirds of the production workers and half of the office workers.

—L. EARL LEWIS

Division of Wages and Industrial Relations

Union Wage Scales in the Printing Industry, July 1, 1958

UNION PAY SCALES of printing-trades workers in cities of 100,000 or more population advanced an average of 9.8 cents an hour, or 3.4 percent, between July 1, 1957, and July 1, 1958, according to the 52d annual survey of union scales in the printing industry by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics.¹

Negotiated scale increases became effective during the 12-month period for 90 percent of the workers included in the study. The advance in hourly rates ranged from 8 to 12 cents for nearly half of the printing tradesmen; from 6 to 8 cents for a tenth, and for an eighth each from 12 to 14 cents and 14 cents and over.²

Union hourly wage rates on July 1, 1958, averaged \$3.01 for all of the printing trades studied.³ Almost half of the workers included in the study had union scales ranging from \$3 to \$3.50 an hour,

¹ Union scales are defined as the minimum wage scales or maximum schedules of hours agreed upon through collective bargaining between trade unions and employers. Rates in excess of the negotiated minimum for particular classifications—paid for special qualifications or other reasons—are not included.

The information presented in this article is based on union scales in effect on July 1, 1958, and covering approximately 115,000 printing-trades workers in 53 cities with populations of 100,000 or more. Data were obtained from local union officials primarily by mail questionnaire, but in some instances, by personal visit of BLS representatives.

The current survey was designed to reflect union wage scales in the printing industry in all cities of 100,000 or more population. All cities with 500,000 or more population were included, as were most cities in the 250,000–500,000 population group. The cities in the 100,000–250,000 group selected for study were distributed widely throughout the United States. Data for some of the cities included in the study in the two smaller size groups were weighted to compensate for cities which were not surveyed. In order to provide appropriate representation in the combination of data, each geographic region and population group was considered separately when city weights were assigned.

Mimeographed listings of union scales are available for each city included in the study. Forthcoming BLS Bull. 1247 will contain more detailed information.

² For ease of reading, in this and subsequent discussions of tabulations, the limits of the class intervals such as 8 and under 12 cents or 3 and under 5 percent are expressed as 8 to 12 cents or 3 to 5 percent.

³ Average hourly scales, designed to show current levels, are based on all scales reported in effect on July 1, 1958. Individual scales were weighted by the number of union members having each rate. These averages are not designed for precise year-to-year comparisons because of fluctuations in membership and in job classifications studied. Average cents-per-hour and percent changes from July 1, 1957, to July 1, 1958, are based on comparable quotations for the various occupational classifications in both periods weighted by the membership reported for the current survey. The index series, designed for trend purposes, is similarly constructed.

and approximately a sixth had rates of \$3.50 or more.

The straight-time workweek for printing tradesmen declined slightly during the year and averaged 36.8 hours on July 1, 1958. Negotiated health and insurance programs were in effect for two-thirds of the printing-trades workers. Provisions for pension plans were contained in contracts covering a third of the workers in the study.

Scale Changes and Trend, 1957-58

Many contracts in effect on July 1, 1958, were negotiated for 2 years—a few for longer periods. Contracts of more than a year's duration frequently provided for wage reopenings or contained provisions for periodic increases. Even though individual contracts provided for increases at various specified dates, only those scales that actually became effective between July 1, 1957, and July 1, 1958, were included in the current study. Thus, the scale revisions presented herein do not reflect the total wage scale changes negotiated in individual contracts during the survey year.

Higher pay scales, effective between July 1, 1957, and July 1, 1958, as provided in labor-management contracts, resulted in a rise of 3.4 percent in the average hourly scale of union printing-trades workers. This advance, which approximated the 3.6-percent increase in the year ending July 1, 1957, and exceeded the gain registered in each of the 3 preceding 12-month periods, raised the Bureau's index of union hourly scales for these workers to 43.6 percent above the January 1948-July 1949 level (table 1). Reflected in the advance were gains of 3.4 percent in book and job shops and of 3.2 percent in newspaper establishments. The index levels for these industry branches rose to 144.7 and 140.8, respectively. In terms of cents per hour, scales advanced an average of 9.8 cents for all printing trades combined, 9.5 cents in commercial (book and job) shops, and 10.4 cents in newspaper establishments (table 2).

Average scale increases were substantially uniform among the various trades in both commercial and newspaper printing. They varied from 9.0 to 12.4 cents an hour for 10 of the 12 book

and job trades studied; for the other 2 trades, bindery women and stereotypers, the gains were 5.6 and 13.4 cents, respectively. Among the 8 newspaper trades surveyed, the rise in average hourly scales ranged from 9.6 to 11.7 cents.

On a regional basis,⁴ the variation in average hourly scale advances was narrower for newspaper work than for commercial work. For newspapers, the greatest gain (12.3 cents an hour or 3.8 percent) was in the Pacific region and the lowest (7.3 cents or 2.4 percent) was in the Southwest. In book and job shops, the rise varied from 7.6 to 9.8 cents in all regions except the Mountain and Pacific regions. Average scales rose 3.5 and 16.2 cents, respectively, in these regions. Percentage-wise, regional increases varied from 1.3 to 5.7 percent.

Hourly pay scales were increased during the year ending July 1, 1958, for 88 percent of the union workers in book and job shops and 93 percent of those engaged in newspaper printing. At least 3 of every 4 workers in each of the trades in both types of printing were affected by rate increases; in 14 of the trade classifications, more than 9 of every 10 workers had their scales adjusted upward.

Raises ranged from 6 to 14 cents an hour for seven-tenths of the printing tradesmen. In book and job shops, 14 percent of the workers had hourly scale advances of 6 to 8 cents; 21 percent, 8 to 10 cents; 22 percent, 10 to 12 cents; and 13 percent, 12 to 14 cents. For newspaper workers, the comparable percentages were 6, 16, 44, and 12, respectively. Increases of 14 or more cents an hour affected an eighth of the printing-trades workers in commercial shops and a tenth of those in newspaper establishments. The increases represented gains of 3 to 5 percent for 7 of every 10 workers in newspaper establishments and for 6 of every 10 in commercial shops. Advances of 5 percent or more affected a tenth of those on newspaper work and a fifth of those in book and job shops.

Rate Variations by Type of Work

Commercial print shops produce many different items in varying quantities; newspaper establishments, on the other hand, are geared to mass production of a single, recurring item at regular intervals. For this reason, the composition of the

⁴ For definition of regions, see footnote 1, table 3.

TABLE 1. INDEXES OF UNION WAGE SCALES AND WEEKLY HOURS IN THE PRINTING TRADES, SELECTED YEARS, 1907-58

[January 2, 1948-July 1, 1949=100]

Date	Index of wage scales			Index of weekly hours		
	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper
1907: May 15.....	(1)	15.0	19.4	(1)	144.8	123.5
1911: May 15.....	19.9	19.3	22.4	133.2	136.5	122.3
1916: May 15.....	21.4	20.8	23.7	132.9	136.4	121.5
1918: May 15.....	24.0	23.9	25.5	132.9	136.4	121.5
1919: May 15.....	23.4	29.4	30.8	132.9	136.3	121.7
1920: May 15.....	37.7	38.4	37.6	129.0	131.2	121.6
1921: May 15.....	41.3	42.2	40.9	121.2	120.7	121.3
1922: May 15.....	41.8	42.4	41.3	120.8	119.2	123.6
1926: May 15.....	46.8	47.4	46.1	119.6	118.4	121.6
1931: May 15.....	50.8	51.1	50.1	119.2	118.2	120.6
1932: May 15.....	50.5	50.6	50.0	115.2	113.6	117.5
1933: May 15.....	47.5	47.8	46.8	114.3	112.5	116.9
1936: May 15.....	51.5	51.6	51.0	106.2	107.0	104.5
1941: June 1.....	56.8	56.6	56.9	104.6	105.8	101.8
1942: July 1.....	59.3	59.1	59.4	104.3	105.8	101.7
1943: July 1.....	61.1	60.7	61.9	104.6	106.1	101.7
1944: July 1.....	62.6	62.3	63.3	104.6	106.1	101.7
1945: July 1.....	63.5	63.1	64.1	104.6	106.1	101.7
1946: July 1.....	74.3	74.2	74.5	102.0	102.4	101.3
1948: Jan. 2.....	94.3	94.3	94.3	100.1	100.1	100.3
1949: July 1.....	105.7	105.7	105.7	99.9	99.9	99.7
1950: July 1.....	107.9	108.2	107.4	99.8	99.8	99.5
1951: July 1.....	112.4	112.1	112.7	99.7	99.5	99.4
1952: July 1.....	118.8	119.3	117.6	99.5	99.2	99.3
1953: July 1.....	123.5	124.0	122.3	99.5	99.2	99.3
1954: July 1.....	127.1	127.6	125.9	99.4	99.1	99.2
1955: July 1.....	130.7	131.4	128.9	99.2	98.9	99.1
1956: July 1.....	134.1	134.9	132.1	99.1	98.7	99.0
1957: July 1.....	138.9	139.9	136.4	98.8	98.3	98.8
1958: July 1.....	143.6	144.7	140.8	98.5	98.0	98.6

¹ Combined data for year 1907 not available.

labor force differs materially in the two types of printing establishments. A substantial proportion of the labor force in commercial shops is comprised of bindery women, mailers, and press assistants and feeders who typically perform routine and less skilled tasks; in newspaper printing, however, journeymen are required in larger proportions to meet daily demands. These different work-force requirements are reflected in the average rates.

Union hourly scales on July 1, 1958, averaged \$2.85 in book and job shops and \$3.30 in newspaper establishments. Newspaper nightwork scales averaged \$3.41, compared with \$3.19 for daywork. Because relatively few workers are normally employed on night-shift work in book and job shops, information for such workers was excluded from the survey.

Individual scales varied widely in labor-management contracts covering printing-trades workers. Negotiated hourly rates for book and job shop work ranged from \$1.29 for bindery women in New Orleans to \$4.37 for certain color presswork in St. Louis. Contract provisions specifying hourly rates of \$3 to \$3.50 were applicable to

slightly more than two-fifths of the printing tradesmen in book and job shops. Scales of \$3.50 or more were reported for a tenth of these workers and of \$2.50 to \$3 for a fourth. Negotiated rates of less than \$2.50 an hour were indicated for less than a fourth of the commercial workers. This number included all of the bindery women, a third of the press assistants and feeders, and a slightly larger proportion of mailers. Among bindery women, 46 percent had contract scales varying from \$1.50 to \$1.70, and 42 percent had rates of \$1.70 to \$2 an hour. Scales varied from \$3.50 to \$3.80 for two-fifths of the electrotypers, a third of the stereotypers, and a fifth of the photoengravers. Two-fifths of the workers in the last-named trade had scales of \$3.80 or more an hour and none had rates of less than \$2.80.

In newspaper establishments, hourly rates varied from \$2.05 for day-shift mailers in New Orleans to \$4.65½ for night-shift stereotypers on German and Polish language newspapers in Chicago. Hourly rates of \$3 to \$3.50 were negotiated for 66 percent of the day-shift workers and for 54 percent of those on the night shift. Scales of less than \$3 were applicable to 22 percent of the dayworkers and 8 percent of the nightworkers, and of \$3.50 or more to 12 and 38 percent of the workers on day- and night-shift work, respectively. Some workers in all but one of the newspaper printing crafts had scales of at least \$3.50 an hour. More than 80 percent of the photoengravers and pressmen-in-charge on the night shift had such scales, as did 48 and 37 percent of the workers in these crafts, respectively, on the day shift. None of the workers in these two trades had contract scales of less than \$2.90 an hour.

Among the 12 book and job shop trades studied, average hourly scales, except for bindery women (\$1.70), varied from \$2.56 for press assistants and feeders to \$3.70 for photoengravers. Six other trades also had scales averaging in excess of \$3 an hour. In newspaper establishments, the highest average (\$3.63) was recorded by photoengravers and pressmen-in-charge and the lowest (\$2.99) by mailers. The averages for the other newspaper trades closely approximated each other and ranged from \$3.30 to \$3.35 an hour.

No consistent pattern of rate differentials was evident among the important trades common to both types of printing. Daywork scales for hand

compositors averaged 6 cents an hour higher in newspaper establishments than in commercial shops. Photoengravers and stereotypers on book and job work, however, averaged 17 and 28 cents an hour, respectively, higher than similar tradesmen on daywork in newspapers.

Hourly scales for nightwork on newspapers were on an average 22 cents, or 7 percent, above those for daywork. Among individual trades, the differential favoring night-shift workers varied from 16 cents for machine tenders to 31 cents for journeymen pressmen. In percentage terms, the differentials varied from 5 to 10 percent.

City and Regional Variations

Hourly pay scales were increased between July 1, 1957, and July 1, 1958, for some printing-trades workers in each of the 53 cities studied. In Charlotte, N.C., Salt Lake City, and Spokane, however, scale revisions were reported only for newspaper work. Some trades in book and job shop work in these cities were negotiating new scales at the time of survey. The increase in average hourly scales for book and job printing varied from 9 to 11 cents in 16 cities and from 7 to 9 cents in 14 cities. The advance ranged from 2 to 7 cents in 9 cities and from 11 to 19 cents in a similar number of cities. Average hourly scale increases in newspaper establishments varied from 9 to 11 cents in 17 cities, from 11 to 13 cents in 18 others, and from 3 to 9 cents in 14 cities. The increases represented gains of 2 to 5 percent for book and job printing in 7 of every 10 cities and a similar percentage for newspaper printing in 9 of every 10 cities.⁵

On a regional basis, union hourly scales of all trades combined averaged highest (\$3.17) on the Pacific Coast and lowest (\$2.81) in the Southwest

⁵ The city and regional averages presented in this article were designed to show current levels of rates; they do not measure differences in union scales among areas. Scales for individual crafts, of course, varied from city to city. The city and regional averages, however, were influenced not only by differences in rates among cities and regions but also by differences in the proportion of organized workers in the various crafts. Thus, a particular craft or classification may not be organized in some areas or may be organized less intensively in some areas than in others; and, also, certain types of work were found in some areas but not in others, or to a greater extent in some areas than in others. These differences were reflected in the weighting of individual rates by the number of union members at each rate. Hence, even though rates for all individual crafts in two areas may be identical, the averages for all crafts combined in each area may differ.

(table 3). The Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes regions also had scales averaging in excess of \$3 an hour. Average scales in book and job shops varied from \$3.03 an hour on the Pacific Coast to \$2.46 in the Southwest. In newspaper work, the lowest (\$2.98) and highest (\$3.39) averages were in the Southeast and Middle Atlantic regions, respectively.

Standard Workweek

The straight-time workweek for printing-trades workers in cities of 100,000 or more population decreased slightly over the year ending July 1, 1958. The movement toward a shorter workweek was evidenced by the increase in the number of workers for whom a 36¼-hour weekly schedule was negotiated—from 27.5 percent on July 1, 1957, to 33.9 percent on July 1, 1958. Standard weekly schedules averaged 36.8 hours on July 1,

TABLE 2. AVERAGE UNION HOURLY WAGE RATES IN THE PRINTING TRADES, JULY 1, 1958, AND INCREASE IN RATES, JULY 1, 1957, TO JULY 1, 1958

Trade	Average rate per hour, July 1, 1958	Amount of increase, July 1, 1957, to July 1, 1958	
		Percent	Cents per hour
All printing trades.....	\$3.01	3.4	9.8
Book and job.....	\$2.85	3.4	9.5
Bindery women.....	1.70	3.4	5.6
Bookbinders.....	2.93	3.6	10.3
Compositors, hand.....	3.17	3.0	9.1
Electrotypers.....	3.42	3.6	12.0
Machine operators.....	3.16	2.9	9.0
Machine tenders (machinists).....	3.17	3.0	9.3
Mailers.....	2.57	3.9	9.8
Photoengravers.....	3.70	3.5	12.4
Press assistants and feeders.....	2.56	3.7	9.2
Pressmen, cylinder.....	3.15	3.7	11.1
Pressmen, platen.....	2.83	4.0	10.9
Stereotypers.....	3.45	4.1	13.4
Newspaper.....	3.30	3.2	10.4
Daywork.....	3.19	3.3	10.1
Nightwork.....	3.41	3.2	10.6
Compositors, hand.....	3.32	3.1	10.0
Daywork.....	3.23	3.1	9.7
Nightwork.....	3.42	3.1	10.3
Machine operators.....	3.35	3.2	10.0
Daywork.....	3.24	3.1	9.8
Nightwork.....	3.43	3.1	10.2
Machine tenders (machinists).....	3.33	3.0	9.6
Daywork.....	3.26	3.0	9.5
Nightwork.....	3.42	2.9	9.7
Mailers.....	2.99	3.9	11.2
Daywork.....	2.85	3.9	10.6
Nightwork.....	3.10	3.9	11.7
Photoengravers.....	3.63	3.3	11.7
Daywork.....	3.53	3.3	11.3
Nightwork.....	3.74	3.4	12.2
Pressmen (journeymen).....	3.33	3.2	10.4
Daywork.....	3.19	3.3	10.1
Nightwork.....	3.50	3.2	10.7
Pressmen-in-charge.....	3.63	3.0	10.7
Daywork.....	3.50	3.1	10.6
Nightwork.....	3.80	2.9	10.9
Stereotypers.....	3.30	3.2	10.3
Daywork.....	3.17	3.4	10.5
Nightwork.....	3.46	3.0	10.0

TABLE 3. AVERAGE UNION HOURLY WAGE RATES IN THE PRINTING TRADES, BY REGION,¹ JULY 1, 1958

Region	All print- ing	Book and job	News- paper
United States.....	\$3.01	\$2.85	\$3.30
New England.....	\$2.93	\$2.74	\$3.21
Middle Atlantic.....	3.07	2.90	3.30
Border States.....	2.83	2.57	3.24
Southeast.....	2.85	2.63	2.98
Great Lakes.....	3.04	2.90	3.35
Middle West.....	2.84	2.61	3.29
Southwest.....	2.81	2.46	3.06
Mountain.....	3.00	2.71	3.19
Pacific.....	3.17	3.03	3.37

¹ The regions referred to in this study include: *New England*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont; *Middle Atlantic*—New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania; *Border States*—Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia; *Southeast*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee; *Great Lakes*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin; *Middle West*—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota; *Southwest*—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas; *Mountain*—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming; *Pacific*—California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

1958, compared with 36.9 hours on July 1, 1957. Negotiated workweeks for day-shift workers averaged 36.9 hours in commercial shops and 37 hours in newspaper plants. Night-shift workers on newspapers had an average weekly schedule of 36.1 hours.

A standard workweek of 37½ hours was prevalent, although less widespread than a year earlier. This schedule was specified in labor-management contracts applicable to nearly half of the printing-trades workers in both types of printing establishments. Straight-time workweeks of 36¼ hours prevailed for nearly three-eighths of the book and job shop workers and for three-tenths of those in newspaper establishments, and of 35 hours for approximately an eighth of the workers in each type of shop. Weekly schedules of fewer than 35 hours were virtually nonexistent in book and job shops but in effect for about 6 percent of the newspaper workers. Contractual workweeks of more than 37½ hours prevailed for 5 percent of the printing tradesmen on commercial work and for practically none of those on newspaper work.

Labor-management contracts covering workers in newspaper plants usually specified shorter

weekly work schedules for nightwork than for daywork. Schedules of 35 hours or less were applicable to 30 percent of the night-shift workers and 9 percent of the day-shift workers; of 36¼ hours, for 36 and 24 percent of the night- and day-shift workers, respectively. Weekly work schedules of 37½ hours were stipulated for 33 percent of the nightworkers and for 64 percent of the dayworkers.

Insurance and Pension Plans

Negotiated health, insurance, and pension programs in the printing industry have increased in recent years, although less rapidly than in some other industries.⁶ The rate of development has undoubtedly been influenced by programs operated by a number of printing-trades unions for many years, which provide members with one or more types of benefits (old-age, death, sickness, and disability).

A substantially greater proportion of the organized printing-trades workers were included in negotiated health and insurance plans than in pension programs. On July 1, 1958, labor-management contracts providing for health and insurance plans affected two-thirds of the union printing-trades workers, while those containing pension provisions were applicable to a third. The proportion of workers covered by each of these plans increased slightly during the year. Health and insurance programs were more prevalent for workers in commercial shops than in newspaper plants—75 and 55 percent, respectively. Pension plan provisions, however, were in effect for 32 percent of the book and job shop workers and 40 percent of those on newspapers.

The vast majority of the workers (92 percent) provided health and insurance protection were covered by programs financed entirely by employers. Such plans were applicable to 94 and 86 percent of the protected workers in commercial and newspaper plants, respectively. Employer-financed pension plans prevailed for approximately 85 percent of the printing-trades workers covered by negotiated agreements providing for such plans in both book and job shops and newspaper establishments.

—JOHN F. LACISKEY

Division of Wages and Industrial Relations

⁶ The prevalence of negotiated health, insurance, and pension programs in the printing industry was first studied by the Bureau as of July 1, 1954. Information for these plans was restricted to those financed entirely or in part by the employer. Plans financed by workers through union dues or assessments were excluded. No attempt was made to secure information on the kind and extent of benefits provided or on the cost of plans providing such benefits.

Employment of June 1957 Women College Graduates

COLLEGE WOMEN who graduated in June 1957 and entered the labor market in the latter half of 1957 found job opportunities fully as favorable as those open to their counterparts in 1955 and 1956, according to a survey made by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association.¹ Annual starting salaries in 1957 averaged \$3,739—as compared with \$3,446 for June 1956 women graduates and \$3,141 for June 1955 women graduates.

Full-time employment continued to be the predominant activity of college women about 6 months after graduation. The percentage of employed graduates able to obtain first jobs related to their college major increased from 84 percent in the 1955 class to 86 percent in the 1957 class, and the percentage in professional positions rose from 80 to 83 percent. Teaching, still the foremost profession of college-educated women, was reported by three-fifths of the employed women graduates in 1957 as in the 2 previous years. Nurses were the second largest occupational group among the 1957 graduates—exceeding secretaries and stenographers, who had ranked second among the 1955 and 1956 graduates. The higher number of nurses with a baccalaureate degree stems from the intensified efforts to prepare more nurses for positions of leadership.

Survey Coverage

The mail questionnaire survey of women college graduates from the 1957 class resembled the 1955 and 1956 surveys in that it covered only women who received baccalaureate degrees during the month of June from women's or coeducational colleges and universities. A sample group of graduates was questioned in each year concerning the following: age, marital status, college major, plans for further study, employment status, relationship of occupation to education, primary job-locating source, earnings, and the value of a college education. While the three surveys are expected to interest those concerned

with the development and utilization of the Nation's trained womanpower, their primary purpose has been to help women students decide how best to use their capabilities.

The 5,978 women graduates who participated in the 1957 survey represented about 88,000 graduates throughout the country.² (As the rate of survey response was 73 percent, this evaluation assumed that nonrespondents to the questionnaire were engaged in activities similar to those of respondents.) The number for June 1957 was slightly higher than the 87,000 women graduates in June 1956 and the 81,000 in June 1955.

Description of Graduates

The typical woman graduate in 1957, as in 1955 and 1956, was 22 years old. However, in the 1957 and 1956 classes, 14 percent of the graduates were 25 years of age or older, compared with 12 percent in the 1955 class. The trend toward earlier marriage is reflected in the three surveys. Percentages of graduates that were married 6 months after graduation rose from 34 percent in 1955 to 37 percent in 1956 and 38 percent in 1957. Working wives increased from 69 percent of the married graduates of the 1956 class to 73 percent of the 1957 class. Among the married women with young children, however, the percentage of working wives was the same (36 percent) for both classes.

The extent to which the recent women graduates were engaged primarily in employment or school activities was quite similar in all three surveys. The major change was the increase in those who were employed and attending school concurrently, as shown in the tabulation on the following page.

¹ First Jobs of College Women: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1957, Women's Bureau Bull. 268 (1959). Similar surveys of women college graduates from the classes of 1955 and 1956 were published by the Women's Bureau; for summaries of these surveys, see Monthly Labor Review, September 1956 (pp. 1057-1061) and July 1958 (pp. 752-756).

² The sample was selected on a random basis from graduates of representative schools, chosen by size, type, and region. The exclusion of women who were graduated from men's colleges and of women who received their degree in months other than June accounts for the fact that the size of this group is smaller than the 118,000 women college graduates reported by the U.S. Office of Education for the school year 1956-57.

	Percent of graduates		
	1957	1956	1955
Total.....	100	100	100
Employed only.....	69	70	71
Employed and attending school...	13	11	9
Attending school only.....	8	8	8
Seeking work.....	3	3	4
Not seeking work.....	7	8	8

Half of the June 1957 women graduates earned a bachelor of science degree, 45 percent a bachelor of arts, and 5 percent other baccalaureate degrees. Their undergraduate majors had a strong resemblance to those of their immediate predecessors. Education—reported by 33 percent of the 1957 graduates³—continued to rank first. Other numerically important majors were the humanities and arts (19 percent), the social sciences (15 percent), home economics (8 percent), and business and commerce (5 percent). Percentages of women majoring in the physical sciences, the biological sciences, and mathematics did not increase from the low levels of the 2 previous years.

Over one-fifth of the 1957 women college graduates were continuing their education in the fall of 1957. The percentage of full-time students was the same—9 percent—in all three survey

classes, but part-time students increased from 8 percent of the 1955 class to 12 percent in 1957.

Education continued to be the leading field of graduate study for women graduates, according to the 1957 study. In the winter of 1957-58, it was the graduate major of over one-fifth of the full-time students and two-fifths of the part-time students. Other numerically significant majors of the full-time students included the specialized health fields (excluding nursing), home economics, and social work. Part-time students not majoring in education were distributed fairly evenly among many fields of study. Almost three-fifths of the full-time students were candidates for a master's degree and a few (4 percent) for a doctorate. Most of the others were studying for a certificate in health services or teaching.

First Jobs

The first jobs obtained by the June 1957 graduates resembled those reported by the 1956 and 1955 graduates. However, the percentage obtain-

³ Refers only to graduates who reported education as their major; does not include about 29 percent of the graduates who had a subject-matter major and were also qualified to teach.

TABLE 1. NUMBERS EMPLOYED AND ANNUAL STARTING SALARIES OF WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES, BY OCCUPATION, CLASSES OF 1957, 1956, AND 1955

Occupational classification	Number of employed graduates ¹			Average annual salary ²		
	1957	1956	1955	1957	1956	1955
Graduates represented.....	71,441	70,043	64,752	\$3,739	\$3,446	\$3,141
Advertising and editorial assistants.....	854	633	(³)	\$3,278	\$3,210	(³)
Assistant buyers, store trainees.....	470	624	914	3,381	3,056	\$2,791
Bookkeepers, accounting clerks.....	652	817	(³)	3,407	3,017	(³)
Chemists.....	586	397	470	4,847	4,453	3,900
Clerical workers, miscellaneous.....	2,428	3,389	4,120	3,247	3,179	2,852
Dietitians.....	970	696	(¹)	3,576	3,351	(⁴)
Editors, copywriters, reporters.....	578	740	650	3,397	3,120	3,020
Home economists.....	880	758	887	4,040	3,803	3,341
Library assistants.....	406	436	(³)	3,097	2,960	(³)
Mathematicians, statisticians ⁵	703	454	479	4,675	4,382	3,763
Nurses.....	4,915	3,504	2,585	3,875	3,647	3,438
Personnel assistants.....	476	551	(³)	3,676	3,497	(³)
Professional workers, miscellaneous.....	2,569	2,607	2,911	3,862	3,732	3,212
Recreation workers.....	679	480	(⁶)	3,655	3,571	(⁶)
Religious workers.....	549	699	(⁶)	3,167	2,960	(⁶)
Research workers.....	646	493	(⁷)	3,971	3,819	(⁷)
Salesclerks, retail workers.....	617	628	679	2,860	2,504	2,420
Secretaries, stenographers.....	4,753	4,391	4,908	3,295	3,148	2,895
Social and welfare workers.....	1,320	1,541	⁶ 2,005	3,792	3,440	⁶ 3,214
Teachers.....	42,023	41,133	39,651	3,799	3,492	3,197
Technicians, biological.....	1,977	2,123	1,929	3,854	3,492	3,038
Therapists.....	887	861	(⁷)	3,947	3,733	(⁷)
Typists.....	566	899	1,147	3,104	2,912	2,704
Other occupations.....	932	1,189	1,417	3,214	3,007	3,008

¹ Covers both full- and part-time workers and includes a few who did not report their salary.

² Covers only full-time workers.

³ Included in "clerical workers, miscellaneous."

⁴ Included with "home economists."

⁵ Includes a few natural scientists.

⁶ Combination job covered "recreation, religious, social, and welfare workers."

⁷ Included in "professional workers, miscellaneous."

TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF JUNE 1957 WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES WITH SPECIFIED UNDERGRADUATE MAJORS, BY OCCUPATION, WINTER 1957-58

Occupational classification	Employed graduates ¹		Percent distribution by undergraduate major in —												
			Biological sciences	Business and commerce	Education	History	Home economics	Humanities		Mathematics	Nursing	Physical sciences	Psychology	Social sciences ³	Sociology and social work
	English	Other than English ²													
Graduates represented	Number	Percent													
Graduates represented	68,268	100	1,983	3,941	24,251	2,139	5,504	5,166	6,643	1,001	4,426	1,062	1,958	2,446	2,628
Percent			100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Advertising and editorial assistants	790	1		1		3	1	4	3				2	1	1
Bookkeepers, accounting clerks	639	1	1	1										1	1
Chemists	574	1	5						1						
Clerical workers, miscellaneous	3,800	6	2	15	1	14	3	12	10	7	1	43	15	11	15
Dietitians	942	1					17								
Home economists	871	1					15								
Mathematicians, statisticians	703	1	2												
Nurses	4,816	7	4	1	1	2	1			42		4	4	3	1
Professional workers, miscellaneous	3,439	5	3	4	1	4	2	6	11	6	98	18	8	9	4
Recreation workers	657	1	2					1	1					3	2
Research workers	646	1	3	3		4	1	1	1	3		1	3	2	2
Secretaries, stenographers	4,570	7	2	39	2	6	2	10	9			1	8	18	9
Social and welfare workers	1,298	2				2		1					11	8	27
Teachers	39,744	58	26	19	94	65	51	60	49	42		15	43	40	28
Technicians, biological	1,943	3	48					1				15	1		
Therapists	853	1							8						1
Other occupations	1,983	3	1	9	1	1	7	4	6			1	3	4	4

¹ Includes employed graduates who reported both occupation and undergraduate major.

² Includes art, foreign languages, music, and speech and dramatic art.

³ Excludes history, psychology, and sociology and social work.

NOTE: Dashes indicate no data or insufficient data to warrant presentation. Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal 100.

ing professional positions increased while those doing clerical work and miscellaneous work declined, as follows:

	Percent of employed graduates		
	1957	1956	1955
Professional work	83	81	80
Clerical work	14	16	16
Miscellaneous work	3	3	4

The same five occupations were reported by at least three-fourths of the employed women in 1957 as in 1955 and 1956. (See table 1.) These occupations and the percentages of 1957 graduates they covered were: teachers, 59 percent; nurses, 7 percent; secretaries and stenographers, 7 percent; biological technicians, 3 percent; and social and welfare workers, 2 percent. The remaining graduates (22 percent) were performing a wide variety of work, including such rather unusual jobs for women as stock and bond portfolio analyst, seismograph computer, pharmacist, radio repairman in the Armed Forces, and probation officer.

Almost four-fifths of the employed graduates from the class of June 1957 reported that the job they held when surveyed in the winter of 1957-58

was their first after college. Of this group, 18 percent obtained their "present" job either before graduation or in June 1957 and another 23 percent, in July or August. Fifty-two percent of the employed graduates, probably mostly teachers, started to work in September; and most of the others, in October or November.

When asked to tell where they had first heard about their job, more than two-fifths of the employed women graduates of the 1957 class answered "direct application on own" and almost one-fifth, "family or friend." School placement bureaus gave helpful job leads to almost one-fourth, including significant numbers of assistant buyers and retail store trainees, mathematicians and statisticians, chemists, research workers, and teachers. Those aided most by their college professors were the dietitians and therapists. Private and public employment offices were a more important source for various types of clerical jobs than for professional positions.

Most of the June 1957 women graduates, like their predecessors, were able to obtain jobs in the same fields as their undergraduate major. Among the large group (three-fifths) of the 1957 graduates with a teaching certificate, 75 percent were

employed as teachers in the winter of 1957-58. Additional graduates might be teaching in the near future, as 4 percent of the certificate holders were attending school and 3 percent were seeking work. Presumably 18 percent were not at present interested in teaching: 11 percent had non-teaching jobs and 7 percent were not in the labor market.

A close relationship between college education and subsequent employment also existed for other groups. Among employed graduates, for example, 98 percent of the nursing majors became nurses; 58 percent of the physical science majors became chemists or biological technicians; 48 percent of the biological science majors became biological technicians; and 42 percent of the mathematics majors became mathematicians or statisticians. (See table 2.)

First-Year Salaries

The June 1957 women graduates who were employed full time in the winter of 1957-58 were paid at the rate of \$3,739 per year, or about \$300 more than the annual starting salary averaged by the 1956 graduates and about \$600 more than that of the 1955 graduates. Annual starting salaries of teachers, the predominant occupational group, rose \$602 between 1955 and 1957. Large salary increases were also recorded in other occupations with shortages of qualified workers: chemists (\$947), mathematicians and statisticians (\$912), biological technicians (\$816), and home economists (\$699). Jobs for which the starting salaries of recent women graduates increased relatively little over the 3 years were those of editors, copywriters, and reporters (\$377), secretaries and stenographers (\$400), and typists (\$400).

As in the two earlier surveys, women graduates with the highest starting salaries were as follows: women chemists (\$4,847) and women mathematicians and statisticians (\$4,675). Other groups of June 1957 graduates with relatively high salaries were the home economists (\$4,040), research workers (\$3,971), and therapists (\$3,947). (See table 1.)

In terms of their undergraduate majors, the June 1957 graduates with the best paying jobs were in the following fields: the physical sciences (\$4,509), mathematics (\$4,244), specialized health fields other than nursing (\$4,106), and nursing (\$3,820). The average starting salary of education majors (\$3,796) was below these but compared favorably with others.

Comments and Conclusion

In response to the question, "What are your plans for future employment?" the majority of June 1957 graduates said they expected to leave the labor market when marriage or family responsibilities required: 6 percent when they married, 18 percent a short while after marriage, and 40 percent when they had children. Another 16 percent expected to work indefinitely or when necessary but had no interest in a career. Only 18 percent said they were planning to have a career. Types of positions most popular with the career-minded graduates were: teaching (42 percent), education excluding teaching (13 percent), health fields excluding nursing (8 percent), entertainment or art (6 percent), nursing (6 percent), social work (4 percent), and journalism (3 percent).

One of the findings from the three surveys is of special significance to manpower analysts and planners. In several occupational fields with shortages of qualified workers and relatively high starting salaries—the physical sciences, the biological sciences, and mathematics—there was no evidence that more women were motivated to obtain suitable training. Since women who have entered these professions have not only demonstrated their competence but are gaining recognition, greater awareness of the attractive employment opportunities in these fields may be needed to help young women channel their abilities and interest toward both fulfillment of their individual goals and maximum service to society.

—JEAN A. WELLS
Women's Bureau

Paid Vacation Provisions in Canadian Laws

VACATIONS WITH PAY are provided to workers in 8 of the 10 provinces of Canada under provincial laws adopted over the past 15 years. These laws apply to intra-province enterprises. Vacation benefits are available, likewise, to workers in inter-province enterprises, under national legislation passed in 1958.¹

The national law provides for a 1-week vacation with pay after 1 year of service, and a 2-week vacation with pay after 2 years of service. The enterprises affected by the law are those engaged in transportation by air, rail, pipeline, inter-province highway, or ship, including longshoring and stevedoring; communications; banking; the operation of grain elevators and flour and feed mills; and uranium mining.

In some of the industries mentioned, employer-employee contracts entered into prior to October 1, 1958, the effective date of the new law, contain vacation provisions which are less liberal than those of the law. In these cases, the vacation clauses of the contracts will apply until the contracts expire. Thereafter, however, vacation privileges must conform to, or be better than, those stipulated in the 1958 law.

The number of employees in industries covered by the national law is estimated at 500,000. The National Government's act of 1958 does not exclude any employees, but it authorizes the Governor General to exempt any categories. He has not, however, exempted any thus far.

Laws in the Provinces

Of the 10 provinces, all except Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island have legislation in force in this field, providing for 1-week or 2-week paid vacations. (See table.) The latest of the eight provinces to join the group is Nova Scotia, which enacted its law in 1958, effective as of January 1, 1959. Two other provinces passed laws in 1958 on the subject of paid vacations. In addition to the changes shown in the table for New Brunswick and Saskatchewan, the latter province adopted an amendment whereby the worker may, by agreement with his employer, postpone his va-

cation and accumulate his vacation rights, 1 week each year, for a period not exceeding 4 years.

The amount of the legal vacation pay, in most of the provinces, is $\frac{1}{50}$ of the annual earnings for a 1-week vacation and $\frac{1}{25}$ for a 2-week vacation.

In addition to the national legislation covering inter-province enterprises and the provincial legislation covering intra-province enterprises, a paid vacation law is in effect in the Yukon Territory, which has a population of only about 10,000. Its Territorial Council in 1950 passed an ordinance requiring a 2-week vacation.

Statistics compiled at the beginning of 1958, before the national statute came into force, showed that the percentages of workers throughout Canada who enjoyed paid vacations of 2 weeks or more, either by law or under collective bargaining contracts, were as follows:

	<i>Office workers</i>	<i>Nonoffice workers</i>
2 weeks, after—		
1 year or less-----	91.2	17.8
2 years-----	5.2	12.6
3 years-----	.9	29.5
5 years-----	1.1	31.5
Other periods-----	.3	3.4
3 weeks, after—		
Less than 15 years-----	17.2	8.2
15 years-----	52.2	50.4
20 years-----	3.9	4.9
Other periods-----	3.1	4.1
4 weeks, after—		
25 years-----	12.2	10.0
Other periods-----	3.9	2.4

Source: Working and Living Conditions in Canada, 7th ed. (Ottawa, Canadian Department of Labor, April 1958), p. 46.

Requirements for Eligibility

The national and provincial laws on paid vacations contain carefully formulated conditions governing entitlement to a vacation. For example, the national act, providing for a vacation of 1 week after 1 "completed year of employment" and 2 weeks after 2 completed years, states that a completed year of employment means continuous employment with one employer for 12 consecutive months. It further provides that the extent of absence permitted to a worker without his for-

¹ This article draws upon summary data published in the following sources: Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), October 31, 1958, pp. 1159-1162; Industry and Labor (Geneva), February 1, 1959, p. 105; and Working and Living Conditions in Canada, 7th ed. (Ottawa, Canadian Department of Labor, April 1958).

SUMMARY OF PROVINCIAL CANADIAN LAWS ON PAID VACATIONS

Year of basic law	Province	Minimum annual vacation ¹	Longer minimum vacation after added service	Coverage
1944	Ontario	1 week		All except farm, domestic, and professional workers; persons engaged in horticulture; funeral directors and embalmers; and salesmen.
1944	Saskatchewan	2 weeks after 1 year	3 weeks after 5 years (1958 legislation).	All except farm workers.
1946	Alberta	1 week after 1 year	2 weeks after 2 years.	All except farm and domestic workers, and salesmen.
1946	British Columbia	1 week (changed to 2 weeks by a law of 1957).		All except farm, domestic, and professional workers, and persons engaged in horticulture.
1946	Quebec	1 week ²		All except farm and domestic workers; salesmen; employees of municipal and school corporations; apartment-house janitors; caretakers provided with free lodging; pieceworkers who work at home; and part-time employees working 3 hours a day or less.
1947	Manitoba	1 week	2 weeks after 3 years (1951 legislation).	All except farm workers.
1954	New Brunswick	1 week		Mine and construction workers. Added: Those who process fish, fruit, or vegetables (1958 legislation).
1958	Nova Scotia	1 week		All except farm, lumber, and domestic workers, and fishermen.

¹ A minimum period of service is generally required, as indicated in the case of Alberta, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan.

² The law in Quebec authorizes the provincial Department of Labor to establish the minimum vacation period. The Department of Labor has set the period at 1 week.

feiting the right to a vacation is to be governed by official regulations.

In Nova Scotia, the employee must have been at work 90 percent of the regular working hours during the year; in Manitoba, the figure is 95 percent; and in Alberta, British Columbia, and New Brunswick, the individual must have been at work 225 days during the year. The vacation laws of British Columbia, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia provide that an employee who has worked less than the prescribed portion of the year shall receive, in lieu of a paid vacation, pro rata pay for the amount of work performed.

Under the national act and those passed in Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, and Saskatchewan, if a holiday occurs during the vacation period, the employee is entitled to an additional day with pay. The term "holiday," as used in these provisions, is variously defined. For example, the Alberta law defines it simply as a statutory holiday on which the employer's place of business remains closed. In British Columbia, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan, the day must be a statutory holiday to which the employee would be entitled if it fell on a day on which he was scheduled to work.

The national act and the laws enacted in Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec, and

Saskatchewan provide that where an employer sells his business to another employer, the employment of the workers is to be considered continuous for the purpose of computing earned annual vacations. The laws of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Ontario are silent on this point.

Within limits laid down by the provincial laws, the employer may determine the time when each of his employees may take the annual vacation. The limits provide, for example, that the vacation must be given within 4 months after the working year ends (in New Brunswick); within 10 months after the worker becomes entitled to the vacation (British Columbia, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Saskatchewan); or within 12 months after May 1 (Quebec).

A special system of "vacation stamps" is in effect for seasonal and temporary workers (especially those on construction) in several provinces. Under the system, an employer gives the worker a number of stamps equivalent in value to 2 percent of the worker's earnings during his period of employment. The worker may cash his stamps at a bank within a year after he began work for the employer who gave him the stamps.

—WILLIAM GERBER
Division of Foreign Labor Conditions

Significant Decisions in Labor Cases*

Labor Relations

Peaceful Picketing Damages Prohibited. The U.S. Supreme Court held¹ that the Labor Management Relations Act precludes a State court from granting damages for peaceful picketing where the National Labor Relations Board has declined to exercise jurisdiction.

An employer was peacefully picketed after refusing to enter into a collective bargaining agreement until one of the unions involved had been designated as the bargaining agent by the employees. When the employer instituted representation proceedings before the NLRB, the Board declined jurisdiction, presumably because the amount of interstate commerce involved did not meet its jurisdictional standards. In a suit for an injunction and damages, brought by the employer, the unions alleged that the purpose of their activities was to educate the workers and persuade them to become members. However, finding that the sole purpose of the unions' activities was to compel execution of the proposed contracts, a State superior court enjoined the unions from picketing and using other means to force an agreement until one of the unions had been properly designated as an agent, and awarded \$1,000 damages for losses sustained. The judgment of the superior court was sustained by the California Supreme Court, which held that since the NLRB had declined to exercise its jurisdiction, the State courts had power over the dispute.

The U.S. Supreme Court vacated and remanded the judgment of the California Supreme Court,² holding that the State court did not have jurisdiction to enjoin the picketing, as refusal of the NLRB to assert jurisdiction does not leave with the States power over activities they otherwise would be preempted from regulating, and stating that the question whether the LMRA precludes

State courts from granting an award for damages arising out of the conduct in question could not be decided without a clear ruling by the State court on the basis for the damage award. On remand, the damage award was sustained by the State court on a finding that the activities constituted a wrong based on unfair labor practice under State law.

In reversing the damage award, the U.S. Supreme Court pointed out that Congress has entrusted the administration of the labor policy for the Nation to a centralized administrative agency armed with its own procedures and remedies. Inasmuch as the picketing in question is arguably protected or prohibited by sections 7 or 8 of the LMRA, adjudication of its status must be left to the NLRB. Failure of the NLRB to act, the Court held, does not give State courts power to interfere with conduct potentially covered by the LMRA either by granting equitable relief or awarding damages which, in this context, can thwart Federal policy as effectively as an injunctive decree. Although the States have been permitted to grant damages for violent conduct, the Court stated, this determination was based on State interest in domestic peace, which is not at issue here.

The concurring justices agreed with the majority decision on the ground that the unions' activity in this instance could fairly be considered protected under the LMRA and that State action is thereby precluded until the NLRB has made a contrary determination respecting such activities. However, the justices asserted, when it is clear that conduct is unprotected, a State court judgment should be sustained even though such conduct might be deemed to be federally prohibited. If activities are prohibited, primary

*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.

¹ *San Diego Building Trades Council v. Garmon* (U.S. Sup. Ct., Apr. 20, 1959).

² *San Diego Building Trades Council v. Garmon*, 353 U.S. 26 (1957). See also *Guss v. Utah Labor Relations Board*, 353 U.S. 1 (1957) and *Amalgamated Meat Cutters v. Fairlawn Meats, Inc.*, 353 U.S. 20 (1957). See also *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1957, pp. 603-604, for a summary of these cases.

decision by the Board is necessary only when State damage awards are inconsistent with Federal prohibitions, and when activities are neither protected nor prohibited, State jurisdiction is beyond challenge. Otherwise, the justices averred, State power to redress wrongful acts in the labor field would be reduced to the vanishing point.

Nonreferral of Workers as Secondary Boycott. The National Labor Relations Board held³ that a union which refuses to refer workers for work on materials produced by a rival union is engaging in an unlawful secondary boycott under the LMRA, when the union is a party to an exclusive union hiring agreement.

The union and the employer, a construction contractor engaged in erecting power units for a utility company, were parties to an agreement providing that the employer's initial requests for workers would be made to the union local having jurisdiction over the project and that the local would furnish the necessary workers. The employer was entitled to go outside the local's jurisdiction for workers only when the local was unable to meet its needs. In addition, the agreement stipulated that the union reserved the right to refuse to handle prefabricated piping over 2½ inches in diameter upon which its members had not worked. When the utility company purchased a prepackaged turbine generator containing prefabricated piping with diameters in excess of 2½ inches which was assembled by members of another union, the union refused to refer workers to install it.

In the ensuing unfair labor practice action, the trial examiner held that the refusal was not a violation of section 8(b)(4)(A) of the LMRA, as within the purview of that section it is unlawful for a union to induce or encourage the employees of any employer to engage in a strike or a concerted refusal to work on any goods for certain prescribed objects and, in this instance, the workers who were induced or encouraged were not employees, since no employment relationship existed between the contractor and members of the union who were not referred.

In reversing the decision of the trial examiner, the Board pointed out that the term "employee" is defined in section 2(3) of the act as any employee, not "limited to the employees of a par-

ticular employer . . ." Thus a determination of whether certain workers are employees depends on considerations of the peculiar character of the intended relationship, and is not controlled exclusively by any immediate employer-employee status. "Where, as here, an employer agrees by contract to look to a union as the exclusive source of supply of workers; where only union members are hired by the employer as a result of referrals by the union; and where the contract obligates the employer to contribute to fringe benefit plans in which the union members generally share," the statutory status of "employee" arises, the Board asserted, as the established arrangement has sufficient certainty and continuity to warrant a finding that the workers are employees. However, with reference to other contractors who filed similar complaints, the Board held that there was no unlawful boycott in the union's refusal to refer workers to employers who were not covered by a hiring agreement.

The Board further concluded that the union had engaged in an unlawful strike in furtherance of its boycott objectives when it failed to refer workers, since the employer's operations were interrupted as surely as if the union had called men off the job when they were already at work.

Limitation on Federal Preemption. The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania held⁴ that the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board has jurisdiction over labor relations proceedings when the business of the employer involved has only a small effect on interstate commerce, as the de minimis doctrine applies.

The employer, in this instance, was engaged in furnishing local window cleaning services. Five persons were employed to do the work, and the total business for the year prior to the proceedings amounted to \$40,000, of which about \$12,000 represented services performed for enterprises engaged in interstate commerce. Orders issued by the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board in representation and unfair labor practice proceedings involving this employer were set aside by the lower court, which held that the State board had no jurisdiction.

³ *Plumbers and Pipefitters union and Detroit Edison Co.*, 123 NLRB No. 37 (Mar. 16, 1959).

⁴ *Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board v. Friedberg* (Pa. Sup. Ct., Mar. 16, 1959).

In reversing the decision of the lower court, the Pennsylvania Supreme Court conceded that, under recent decisions by the U.S. Supreme Court, State labor relations boards unquestionably do not have jurisdiction over a labor dispute when the activity of the employer affects, or may affect, interstate commerce. The field is preempted by the Federal Government, which invested the National Labor Relations Board with exclusive jurisdiction that exists even when the Board refuses to assert such jurisdiction because of its self-imposed standards. However, the court averred, the U.S. Supreme Court has held that this jurisdiction is not without some limitations and has indicated that there are certain instances in which the *de minimis* doctrine would apply. In this case, the effect of the business of the employer on interstate commerce is so small and trivial that if it is not characterized as *de minimis*, the court asserted, that doctrine has no meaning. The effect that uncleaned windows will have on commerce, pending settlement of a dispute, is at most negligible, the court pointed out, and another window cleaning service could be engaged if a labor dispute involving the employer were to result in picketing.

Strike Threat Injunction. A U.S. court of appeals held⁵ that a union representing railroad employees may be enjoined from threatening a strike to enforce a contract demand that positions existing on a certain date be abolished only by agreement between the railroad and the union, since the demand is not within the scope of mandatory bargaining under the Railway Labor Act,⁶ and the controversy is not a labor dispute within the injunction prohibitions of the Norris-LaGuardia Act.⁷

In this case, a railroad was planning to consolidate some of its stations which were no longer fully used as a result of the innovations of modern transportation and had filed petitions with the public utilities commissions of several States for the authority to effectuate this plan. When the union requested that the collective bargain-

ing agreement be amended to provide that no position in existence on a certain date would be abolished or discontinued except by agreement between the railroad and the union, the railroad refused to consider this proposal, but indicated a willingness to discuss means of cushioning the economic impact of abolishing positions. Subsequent attempts at mediation, however, were unsuccessful.

Having received the requisite authority from public utilities commissions in two States, the railroad began its modernization program in these areas. At this time, a strike call was issued by the union, and the railroad filed for an injunction. Denying permanent injunctive relief, the district court held that the proposed contract change was a bargainable issue under the Railway Labor Act as it related to "rates of pay, rules, and working conditions."

In reversing this judgment, the court of appeals asserted that the proposed contract change was "an attempt to usurp legitimate managerial prerogative in the exercise of business judgment with respect to the most economical and efficient conduct of its operations," rather than a demand affecting "rates of pay, rules, and working conditions." Therefore, the proposal was not within the scope of mandatory bargaining under the Railway Labor Act. Moreover, the court maintained, there was no "labor dispute" within the purview of the Norris-LaGuardia Act, wherein the term "labor dispute" is defined as a "controversy concerning terms or conditions of employment." Thus, the provisions of the Norris-LaGuardia Act prohibiting Federal courts from issuing injunctions in cases involving "labor disputes" were not applicable, and the union action was enjoined as an interference with interstate commerce which would result in irreparable injury to the public and the railroad.

Unemployment Compensation

Abandonment of Functional Integration Test. The Michigan Supreme Court held⁸ that when workers were laid off at three Michigan plants because parts vital to their operation were not available owing to a strike in an Ohio plant owned by the same manufacturer, the workers were entitled to receive unemployment compensation, as the functional integration of the plants in Michi-

⁵ *Chicago & North Western Ry. Co. v. Railroad Telegraphers* (C.A. 7, Mar. 13, 1959).

⁶ 45 U.S.C. § 151 et seq. (1952).

⁷ 29 U.S.C. § 101 et seq. (1952).

⁸ *Park v. Michigan Employment Security Commission* (Mich. Sup. Ct., Jan. 12, 1959).

gan and Ohio did not make them a single "establishment" within the disqualification provision in the Michigan employment security act.

The employees laid off at the Michigan plants sought unemployment compensation, alleging that the plant in Ohio where the labor dispute existed was not part of the same establishment within the meaning of the provision in the Michigan employment security act disqualifying claimants whose unemployment results from a work stoppage because of a labor dispute in the establishment in which he is employed.⁹ The employer, on the other hand, contended that close functional integration made the plants all part of one automotive establishment, and that the Ohio strike was used as a lever to pry concessions from the company with respect to the master agreement covering all plants. The lower court denied compensation on a holding that the term "establishment" encompassed the company's plants in both States.

In reversing the decision of the lower court, the Michigan Supreme Court held the finding that the plants constituted a single establishment was erroneous. Overruling a prior determination that functional integration is the basic test of the extent of an establishment,¹⁰ the court stated that this factor must be considered along with other facts when determining whether a particular unit is a separate establishment from the standpoint of employment.¹¹ Compensation should be awarded in this instance, the court asserted, as it was in a Minnesota case¹² based on similar facts, i.e., the plants were in two different States, two separate locals were involved, their only connection being that they were members of the same international union, and the units under consideration were not integrated with regard to matters of hire, discharge, and seniority.

Wages and Hours

Exemption Inapplicable to Finance Company. The U.S. Supreme Court held¹³ that a finance company is not within the exemption for retail or service establishments in section 13(a)(2) of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

The employer, in this case, was engaged in the business of making personal loans up to \$300 and

in purchasing conditional sales contracts from dealers in furniture and appliances. The Secretary of Labor sued to enjoin the employer from violating the overtime and recordkeeping provisions of the FLSA. The employer contended that his employees were exempt from these provisions under section 13(a)(2) of the act, which provides that such requirements shall not apply to employees of a retail or service establishment when more than 50 percent of the establishment's sales of goods or services is intrastate. Retail or service establishment is defined in that section as "... an establishment 75 percentum of whose annual dollar volume of sales of goods or services (or of both) is not for resale and is recognized as retail sales or services in the particular industry. . . ." The employer argued that inasmuch as 50 percent of his business was intrastate, that none of it involved resale transactions, and that his activities were recognized in the finance industry as being the retail end of that industry, the business was within the scope of the section. A district court ruling that the employer was not exempt was reversed by a Federal court of appeals.

The U.S. Supreme Court, in reversing the court of appeals, considered only the question whether the employer should be considered as a retail or service establishment engaged in making sales of goods or services. Business entities in the finance industry were not within the scope of the exemption prior to the 1949 amendment to that section, the Court pointed out, and the legislative history shows that the amendment was intended to change an administrative ruling, not in issue here, and not to broaden the field of enterprises to which the exemption would apply. The Court noted that the sponsors of the amendatory legislation had repeatedly stated that the amendment would not exempt credit companies because "there is no concept of retail selling or servicing" in that industry.

⁹ Mich. Stat. Ann. 1953 Cum. Supp. § 17.531(1)(b).

¹⁰ *Chrysler Corporation v. Smith*, 297 Mich. 438, 298 N.W. 87 (1941).

¹¹ See *Adamski v. B.U.C. and Champion Spark Plug Co.* (Ohio Ct. of App., Feb. 9, 1959), wherein compensation was denied when a comprehensive test was applied to a second set of facts.

¹² *Nordling v. Ford Motor Co.*, 231 Minn. 68, 42 N.W. 2d 576 (1950).

¹³ *Mitchell v. Kentucky Finance Co.* (U.S. Sup. Ct., Apr. 20, 1959.)

Chronology of Recent Labor Events

April 1, 1959

A 2-year contract, retroactive to February 1, was signed by the Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union and R. H. Macy & Co. for about 8,000 employees in the New York City area, providing for weekly wage increases of \$3 this year and \$2 on February 1, 1960, higher weekly starting minimums, and other improvements. (See also p. 677 of this issue.)

THE NLRB ruled that a union that did not seek recognition but merely sought to protect its bargaining position with an employer's competitors with which it had contracts, did not violate the Labor Management Relations Act by conducting a boycott campaign, including picketing, against a broadcasting station after it had lost its bargaining rights at the station. The case was *Local 1264, International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers and WKRQ-TV, Inc.*

April 7

THE United Automobile Workers discharged Peter Zvara, of Toledo, an assistant to a UAW international vice president and in charge of a department representing employees of a large die casting corporation, after he admitted receiving commissions from a New York engineering consultant firm which was occasionally involved in collective bargaining matters in plants under contract with the union. Mr. Zvara had recently refused to testify before a New York County grand jury investigating alleged bribery of union representatives.

A NO-STRIKE CLAUSE binding a union, its members, and "any employees" in a bargaining unit is a proper bargaining subject, the NLRB ruled, and an employer may insist on such a clause. The union objected to the clause on the ground that the State "right-to-work" law would preclude union control of nonmembers' actions, but the Board held that "on its face," the clause did not make the union liable for actions it had not authorized. The case was *Lloyd A. Fry Roofing Co. and United Papermakers and Paperworkers.*

April 8

AN AFL-CIO sponsored conference on unemployment held at Washington, D.C., was attended by approximately 7,000 union delegates from 15 areas. Among

the resolutions adopted at the meeting were those calling for measures to "get America back to work" and to prevent the recurring "danger of mass unemployment." (See also p. 678 of this issue.)

April 9

THE NLRB ruled that an employer had not violated the Labor Management Relations Act by refusing, during the life of a contract, to comply with a union request for a list of written rules for contract administration purposes since the union during negotiations had waived its right to such rules for that purpose. The case was *Berkline Corp. and Local 2888, United Brotherhood of Carpenters.*

THE PRESIDENTS of the Seafarers' International Union and the National Maritime Union proposed at a New York City meeting of officials of 14 seafaring, waterfront, and associated unions, including Teamster President James R. Hoffa, to set up a committee "to develop coordinated cooperation on whatever problems . . . face the participating unions." The immediate objective of the move was to rally support for the campaign against "flag-of-convenience" shipping (see Chron. item for Jan. 23, 1959, MLR, Mar. 1959).

April 12

MEMBERS of the Textile Workers Union ratified a 3-year agreement with Berkshire Hathaway, Inc., calling for wage increases averaging 10 cents an hour for about 6,500 workers in seven Massachusetts and Rhode Island mills. The minimum hourly wage rate was raised 8.5 cents an hour (to \$1.25). (See also p. 675 of this issue.)

April 14

THE Federal court of appeals in Philadelphia ruled, in *Mitchell v. Roma*, that the Secretary of Labor was not required to answer an employer's interrogatories regarding the identity of employees who had furnished the Government with written information on matters involved in a suit for injunction against the employer under the Fair Labor Standards Act. Said the court, "The privilege for communications by informers to the government is well established and its soundness cannot be questioned."

April 15

THE GOVERNOR of NEW YORK approved the Labor Management Improper Activities Act which imposes fiduciary responsibility on union officials and agents, requires unions and employer organizations to report annually on their financial affairs to the New York Industrial Commissioner, and requires employers of 10 or more employees to report on any expenditures made to interfere with employee union organization activities.

April 16

THE United Rubber Workers reached a tentative agreement with the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co., calling for improvements in pensions, supplemental unemployment benefits, hospital and surgical insurance, and various other fringe benefits for about 23,000 employees in 11 cities. Wages were not an issue. The pension-insurance provisions were to be effective through April 30, 1964; the others until April 1961. Workers at 3 other major companies went on strike before the Goodyear agreement was reached, and at the end of April they were still out. (See also p. 675 of this issue.)

AN 18-day strike of 5,000 Ladies' Garment Workers against 121 blouse contractors in Pennsylvania ended in an agreement with the Slate Belt Apparel Contractors Association, patterned after the union's settlement in March with employers in three other States (see Chron. item for Mar. 11, 1959, MLR, May 1959). The settlement followed a court order directing the union to negotiate despite its objection (based on long-standing ILGWU practice) to dealing with a former union official who was the negotiator for the association.

THE NLRB ruled that an employer had unlawfully refused to bargain when he insisted, as a condition to entering into a contract, that a certified local union post a performance bond of \$100,000 or the international union also sign the agreement. The case was *Cosco Products Co. and Shopmen's Local 741, International Association of Bridge, Structural and Ornamental Iron Workers*.

April 18

THE UNITED AUTOMOBILE WORKERS reached agreement with the Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Corp., ending an 11-week strike of 14,000 workers at 8 plants. The settlement included annual improvement-factor increases of 6 cents an hour or 2.5 percent, whichever is higher, with the first raise retroactive to September 1, 1958. (See also p. 676 of this issue.)

April 19

MEMBERS of two Textile Workers Union locals in Henderson, N.C., ratified a contract designed to end a violence-ridden 5-month strike at four plants of the Harriet and Henderson cotton mills over the company's insistence on dropping an arbitration clause from the union contract. The pact reportedly provided that arbitration would apply to disputes over disciplinary matters and only by mutual consent to other disputes. However, violence recurred when the union charged the company with failure to carry out an alleged promise to immediately reemploy substantial numbers of strikers. (See also p. 675 of this issue.)

April 20

THE U.S. SUPREME COURT held that the Labor Management Relations Act precluded a State court from awarding damages for peaceful picketing even though it violated a State law and the NLRB had refused to take jurisdiction of the dispute. In a ruling in the same case, *San Diego Building Trades Council v. Garmon* (see Chron. item for Mar. 25, 1957, MLR, May 1957), the Court had found the State court powerless to enjoin the picketing, since it did not threaten "domestic peace."

April 21

ANNOUNCEMENT was made in New York City that the International Transportworkers Federation's executive council, meeting in London the previous week, had voted to readmit the International Longshoremens' Association (Ind.) to membership, apparently in consideration of the union's support of the federation's fight against "flag-of-convenience" shipping (see Chron. item for Jan. 23, 1959, MLR, Mar. 1959). The ILA had allowed its ITF membership to lapse prior to its expulsion in 1953 from the American Federation of Labor on charges of corruption (see Chron. item for Sept. 22, 1953, MLR, Nov. 1953).

April 22

PRESIDENT EISENHOWER created an emergency board under the Railway Labor Act to investigate a dispute between the Transport Workers Union and the Pan American World Airways, Inc., over wages and working conditions for flight attendants.

April 24

KENTUCKY NATIONAL GUARDSMEN were sent to curb strike violence in the coal fields in three southeastern counties where 7,000 miners walked out in a wage dispute between "truck mine" operators and the United Mine Workers (Ind.) on March 9. (See also p. 677 of this issue.)

On April 30, with shooting and dynamiting continuing, a temporary restraining order requested by the NLRB was issued by a Federal district court against the UMW to halt the violence.

April 29

THE NLRB ruled that employer members of a multi-employer bargaining unit, who had locked out their employees when one of their fellow members was struck, unlawfully discriminated against their employees when they later resorted to a partial lockout by offering only enough work each week to prevent them from drawing unemployment compensation. The case was *Great Falls Employers' Council, Inc. and Local 57, Retail Clerks International Association*.

Developments in Industrial Relations*

Collective Bargaining and Wage Developments

Rubber. On April 16, the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co. and the United Rubber Workers reached tentative agreement on contracts covering about 23,000 workers and providing changes in pensions, insurance, supplemental unemployment benefits, and other contract provisions; wages were not an issue. As April ended, however, strikes that had begun at United States Rubber,¹ Goodrich, and Firestone before the agreement was reached with Goodyear were still in effect.

Negotiations over the Goodyear pension and insurance agreement were conducted under a re-opening clause of a 5-year agreement reached in 1955, and the agreement was extended through April 30, 1964. Under this agreement, pension benefits (excluding social security) for employees were raised from a minimum of \$1.80 to a flat \$2.40 a month for each year of service prior to January 1, 1959, and to \$2.50 for 1959 and future years. Minimum benefit levels for employees retired since 1949 were raised to \$2.25 for each year of service. In both cases, the previous 30-year limitation on service used in computing pensions was removed. Disability benefits were raised to twice the new normal retirement benefits, early retirement provisions were revised, and vesting rights were established. In the area of welfare changes, the agreement increased certain hospital and surgical benefits.

In addition to the agreement on pensions and insurance, the parties agreed to a liberalized supplemental unemployment benefit plan which raised the weekly maximum benefit for a worker with no dependents to \$30 (from \$25), and extended the duration of benefits from 26 to 39 weeks in States where this extension has been legalized for State unemployment compensation. A 2-year working agreement, which included re-

visions in holiday pay procedures and liberalization of both vacation requirements for those who are laid off or leave the company and of funeral leave, was also signed.

Textiles. Wage increases in the textile industry have been spreading to northern plants since widespread pay advances in southern mills were first announced in February.² Over the weekend of April 11-12, the Textile Workers Union announced it had signed a 3-year contract with Berkshire Hathaway, Inc., providing a 7-percent wage increase, averaging about 10 cents an hour, for approximately 6,500 workers in seven mills in Massachusetts and Rhode Island. According to the union, skilled workers received increases of up to 13 cents an hour. The plant minimum was raised to \$1.25 an hour, from \$1.165. Settlement terms—which included wage reopening provisions in the second and third contract years—were expected to become the pattern for northern cotton and rayon textile workers. Subsequently, other firms with which the TWUA holds contracts, including the Pepperell Manufacturing Co. and Bates Manufacturing Co., signed agreements providing 7-percent increases. The latest general northern cotton industry pay increase was in the spring of 1956; some changes in fringe benefits were made in 1957. In the woolen industry, a 10-cent-an-hour across-the-board increase was included in an agreement reached on April 10 by the union and Wyandotte Worsted Co., covering 1,500 workers in Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut.

At the Harriet and Henderson cotton mills in Henderson, N.C., a new contract was ratified on April 19, temporarily ending a strike over new contract terms by about 1,000 workers represented by TWUA that had begun in November 1958. The strike had received nationwide attention as the result of violence occurring after the companies resumed limited operations in February. Following contract ratification, the strike and violence resumed when the union charged the company with failing to carry out an alleged promise

*Prepared in the Division of Wages and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the basis of currently available published material.

¹ On May 1, tentative agreement was reached at the United States Rubber Co. that was reportedly generally similar to the Goodyear settlement.

² See Monthly Labor Review, April 1959, p. 428.

to give jobs on the second and third shifts to a majority of the striking workers.

Farm Equipment. In mid-April, an agreement to end a strike in effect since early February was reached by the Allis Chalmers Manufacturing Co. and the United Automobile Workers for about 14,000 employees in 8 plants. The new contracts (one of the strike issues had been union demands for a single "master" contract covering all plants) continued the wage-improvement factor, with the first increase of 2½ percent (minimum, 6 cents an hour) retroactive to September 1, 1958. The next two improvement increases are scheduled for September 14, 1959, and October 3, 1960. The contracts are due to expire November 1, 1961. Other changes included incorporation into base rates of 15 cents of the 24-cent cost-of-living allowance, and increased pension, disability, and hospitalization payments. Supplemental unemployment benefits were liberalized and revisions were made in the method of funding the benefits provided under the plan.

Other Manufacturing. Agreement to end a strike involving members of the United Brick and Clay Workers employed by 25 clay sewer pipe plants in Ohio, Indiana, and Pennsylvania was reached in early April. The 3-year agreement, affecting about 3,800 workers, was the first of this length ever negotiated with this group of manufacturers; it provided an 8-cent-an-hour pay increase, effective April 5, for hourly workers and a 2.66-percent increase for those paid on an incentive basis. Additional 6-cent raises for hourly workers and 2.66-percent increases for pieceworkers were scheduled for each of the next 2 contract years.

Stockholders' approval of a liberalized pension plan for employees of E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co. was announced on April 13. Under the revised plan, pensions will be calculated on an employee's highest 10-year earnings instead of on earnings during his final 10 years of employment. Employees furloughed under certain conditions after 15 years' service were given an option between a deferred normal pension and an immediate but lower pension; a survivorship provision for employees' beneficiaries was also added.

A liberalized retirement plan, including increased pension payments, was also approved at

the annual stockholders meeting of the International Business Machines Corp. on April 28. The changes were not fully reported. However, retirement benefits for employees with 35 years' service who had average annual earnings of \$5,000 were increased from \$225 to \$256 a month including social security benefits. Benefits for employees with 10 years' service were raised from \$110 to \$156 a month including social security. In addition, the company reduced eligibility for early retirement to age 55 after 15 years' service, instead of age 60 after 20 years, and made improvements in the major medical and hospitalization plans. About 61,000 employees were affected.

One of the first settlements in the pulp and paper industry this year was between the Sealright-Oswego Falls Corp. and the Brotherhood of Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers, covering about 1,800 workers in Fulton, N.Y. The 2-year agreement provided a 7-cent general increase effective in the first contract year, an additional 5 cents in the second year, an advance in shift differentials, and 3 weeks' vacation after 10 instead of 15 years' service. Also included was an improved pension plan and a 7th paid holiday. A 2-year contract, which appeared to be generally similar, was also reached for workers at the company's Kansas City, Kans., plant.

A general pay increase of 4 cents an hour, retroactive to February 16, for about 3,250 employees of the Kroehler Manufacturing Co., represented by the Upholsterers' International Union, was agreed to in early April. The settlement, covering workers in 10 furniture plants in California, Illinois, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, and Texas, also provided inequity adjustments of up to 10 cents an hour, 3 weeks' vacation after 15 instead of 20 years' service, and a reduction in the employees' share of the cost of group insurance.

Early in April, in an exchange of correspondence between the United Steelworkers and major steel producers, the companies proposed a wage freeze for 1 year beyond the June 30 expiration dates of the current contracts; the union promptly rejected this proposal and called upon the industry to freeze steel prices as a contribution to "economic stability." Both parties agreed to start negotiations May 5 instead of May 18 as originally scheduled.

Construction. Conclusion of several settlements in the construction industry reflected the usual spring upturn in collective bargaining in this industry. In Chicago, an agreement with the Mason Contractors Association and the Bricklayers provided a 25-cent-an-hour raise for about 6,000 workers, effective June 1, 1959—the first increase for these workers since June 1, 1957. Journeyman scales were to go to \$4.075. A 10-cent-an-hour wage increase was scheduled for about 30,000 carpenters in the same area on June 1 under terms of a 2-year contract signed in 1958.

Wage increases totaling 50 cents an hour over 3 years were included in a new contract between the Associated General Contractors of America, Inc., and the Carpenters union for about 3,500 workers in the eastern part of the State of Washington. Scales will rise to \$3.63 an hour by February 15, 1961. About 4,000 workers, also represented by the Carpenters and employed by members of the Contractors Association of Western Pennsylvania, received pay increases ranging from 17 to 23 cents an hour effective March 16, 1959. Employer contributions to the pension fund were also raised 5 cents an hour.

Other Nonmanufacturing. At issue in a coal strike—which had started in early March in Harlan County, Ky., and subsequently spread to other counties in eastern Kentucky, and to Tennessee, and West Virginia—was the United Mine Workers' (Ind.) demand that terms of the bituminous coal agreement signed last December³ be extended to independent "truck mine" operators and ramp operators. The union was seeking the \$2-a-day increase to raise daily pay to \$24.25 and enforcement of the "protective wage clause" placing restrictions on coal mined in nonunion pits. Operators had protested that the increases would bankrupt them and had asked for an extension of the wage terms of the 1956 agreement and for some compromise on other new contract provisions. About 7,000 union members were idled in the dispute.

In the Los Angeles area, in late March, members of the Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union ratified an agree-

ment to extend for 2 years a contract with the Restaurant-Hotel Employer Council of Southern California, Inc., covering about 23,000 workers. A general wage increase, amounting to 7 percent, is scheduled for March 16, 1960. A further increase will go into effect March 16, 1961, if the Consumer Price Index rises at least 4 percent between January 15, 1959, and January 15, 1961. Beginning April 1, 1959, employer contributions to the industry's joint health, welfare, retirement, and relief funds were increased from 10 to 14 cents an hour. Vacation benefits were liberalized, including the addition of a third week's vacation after 10 years' service, and provision was made for a paid holiday—to be taken on Christmas, New Year's Eve, or New Year's Day.

A 2-year contract settlement, retroactive to February 1, 1959, was reached by R. H. Macy & Co. and the Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union on April 1 for about 8,000 employees in the New York City area. Terms included a \$3-weekly pay increase this year, an additional \$2 on February 1, 1960, and higher weekly starting minimums. The company also agreed to set aside \$50,000 for correction of wage inequities. Pensions were changed to provide \$35 a month retirement after 25 instead of 35 years' service, eligibility for severance pay was reduced to 5 instead of 10 years' employment for those resigning because of ill health, and weekly sickness benefits were raised from \$48 to \$50.

Also in New York City, considerable attention focused on efforts of the same union, together with the Teamsters union and the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, to organize nonprofessional employees of 81 private, nonprofit hospitals. At six hospitals in which an RWDSU local claimed a membership of 3,450 out of 4,500 workers, a strike deadline, set for April 22 to enforce recognition demands, was postponed for at least 2 weeks when hospital representatives agreed on April 21 to consider a proposal by New York Mayor Robert Wagner that all issues be put before a factfinding board.⁴ A statement issued by the Greater New York Hospital Association declared that the voluntary hospitals lacked the money to meet union demands and charged that strike action would be irresponsible "since the basic stakes are not income distribution but human life." The union, while threatening a strike for the right to negotiate con-

³ See Monthly Labor Review, January 1959, pp. 62-63.

⁴ On May 8, however, a work stoppage occurred after the hospitals rejected the proposal and in spite of restraining orders issued by the State supreme court.

tracts, had announced it would agree to a no-strike clause in such contracts, with all unresolved issues to be submitted to arbitration. Private, nonprofit hospitals are not subject to the Labor Management Relations Act.

Union Developments

The unemployment conference sponsored by the AFL-CIO⁵ and held in Washington, D.C., on April 8 was attended by approximately 7,000 delegates who heard Federation President George Meany, Vice President Walter P. Reuther, and other labor leaders assail Federal policy on unemployment as a "do nothing" attitude. Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell told the gathering that "neither the Administration nor Congress has done all I would like to see it do, but we live in a world of compromise"; he expressed confidence in the Nation's basic economic soundness and predicted that by October 1959, unemployment would be down to 3 million or less (from the 4.36 million mid-March figure).

Resolutions adopted by the delegates called for the Federal Government to initiate a back-to-work program previously recommended by the AFL-CIO and urged that the President "call into immediate session a conclave of leaders of industry, labor, agriculture, and government . . . to map a program that will keep America at work and abolish the suffering caused by recurring mass unemployment." They rejected as false a philosophy "that some unemployment and suffering is a necessary byproduct of a free economy."

Automation and its effects on the West Coast longshore industry was the focus of attention at the 13th biennial convention of the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union (Ind.) held in Seattle, Wash., April 6-10, 1959. To offset mechanization, delegates approved a program designed to share the savings achieved by the use of bulk containers, with resultant speedup of loading and unloading and reduction in manpower requirements. The union's proposal—to be presented to employers during negotiations to replace the contract expiring in June—called for establishing a standard of output based upon past performance against which to measure output resulting from more efficient cargo handling methods. For each man-hour of labor thus

saved, the employer would pay the union the computed straight-time wage. The union at the end of each year would pay out this cash to affected dockworkers in a manner yet to be worked out. The union argued that employers would still save money since they would be paying basic hourly wages only and would avoid overtime⁶ and fringe benefit costs. In other convention actions, ILWU leaders also proposed a 35-hour workweek, more liberal disability pensions, and action "to reduce the burden of taxes, both Federal and State." The union's four international officers were also nominated for reelection without opposition, subject to local balloting.

Prior to the convention, ILWU officials had met with Teamster representatives to discuss jurisdictional issues and set up a joint committee to work out common problems on the waterfront. According to Einar Mohn, chairman of the Western Conference of Teamsters, the committee's purpose was "to discuss the changing methods of handling cargo . . . and to find out some way to solve the jurisdictional conflicts that may arise. . . ."

While settlement of jurisdictional issues between the ILWU and the Teamsters appeared to be likely, the Marine Staff Officers, Office and Allied Personnel Union, an affiliate of the Seafarers' International Union, announced plans to compete with the Longshoremen in organizing West Coast shipping company office workers. Leonard McNichol, a West Coast representative for the SIU, said that since the ILWU was not affiliated with the AFL-CIO, his union was "in a position to organize anything that Harry Bridges now controls." A major effort was reportedly being made to wrest the dockworkers in San Francisco from ILWU Local 10.

Charges of corruption and allegations of alliances with gangster elements in the juke-box industry were leveled against officials of Teamster locals in Detroit in testimony presented before the U.S. Senate Select Committee on Improper Activities in the Labor or Management Field. Juke-box operators and other witnesses reported violence and payoffs in connection with alleged hoodlum infiltration into union and management ranks of the industry. William E. Bufalino, president of Teamster Local 985 in Detroit, when

⁵ See Monthly Labor Review, April 1959, p. 427.

⁶ Under the present contract, overtime is paid after 6 hours in an 8-hour day.

questioned about his reported involvement, denied he had ever been "either directly or indirectly connected with any unlawful activities." At the conclusion of these hearings, Senator John L. McClellan, chairman of the committee, said evidence showed clearly that Local 985 was "in alliance with racketeers" and its members had been victims of a "dastardly fraud." Mr. Bufalino subsequently filed with the Senate "a petition for redress of grievances" protesting he had not had sufficient opportunity to answer derogatory testimony.

Representatives of two independent oil refinery unions—the Central States Petroleum Union and the Independent Petroleum Workers of America—in mid-March agreed to merge. The merger was subject to membership ratification and to action at a convention scheduled for the near future. The Independent Petroleum Workers of America, representing about 5,000 workers at the Whiting, Ind., refinery of Standard Oil Co. of Indiana, was formerly a part of the 10,000 member CSPU, but withdrew from it following its 1953 convention.

In the realm of union education, a local of the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers inaugurated a mandatory course on world affairs for all its paid officials and business agents. The course was initiated by President Harry Van Arsdale, Jr., of New York City area Local 3, to give local leaders "a feel of the world." The course emphasizes historical developments with reference to such issues as imperialism, colonialism, population trends, tariffs, and ideological conflicts. Periodic examinations will be given and term papers will be required. The local already had a scholarship program for children of members, and a program for business agents to study, first hand, unions in other countries.

Other Developments

President Eisenhower on March 31 approved a bill extending until July 1, 1959, the Temporary Unemployment Compensation Act of 1958,⁷ originally due to expire April 1, 1959. The measure provides extended benefits for unemployed workers who had filed their first claim for such benefits

before April 1 (April 7 in some States) but had not exhausted their rights on that date; in no event can the extended benefits be paid after July 1, 1959. The 3-month extension of the Federal loan program to States requesting supplementary payments for qualifying unemployed workers was estimated to affect 405,000 workers and to cost about \$78 million.

The National Labor Relations Board modified its policy against picketing by a minority union⁸ in early April, when it held that a union did not violate the Taft-Hartley Act by picketing an employer after it was decertified, to protect its bargaining position with other employers. The employer filed charges that the union's object was to force recognition and that an economic hardship had been imposed, in violation of the Taft-Hartley Act. The trial examiner's findings—which were confirmed by the NLRB—upheld the union's contention that it was not seeking recognition, and although economic hardship to the employer and indirectly to its employees was a foreseeable consequence, it did "not necessarily follow that this was the respondent's objective or motive."

The NLRB general counsel announced on April 15 that the agency's New Orleans office had been ordered to adjudicate a dispute between a "foreign flag" ship (American-owned but registered in Liberia) and the Seafarers' International Union in order to obtain a decision from the Board on whether it has jurisdiction over cases of this nature. The union had filed unfair labor practice charges alleging that some of the ship's all-foreign crew—about half of whom had reportedly been organized by the SIU—had been discharged in Havana, Cuba, because of their union affiliation. The case differed slightly from an earlier one in which the NLRB ordered a representation election aboard a former American-registered ship flying the Panamanian flag. The ship in the current dispute had never sailed under the American flag.

⁷ See 1958 Congressional Action to Improve UI Benefits, *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1958, pp. 1236-1242.

⁸ See *Local 639, International Brotherhood of Teamsters and Curtis Bros., Inc.*, *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1958, pp. 62-63, and *International Brotherhood of Teamsters v. NLRB*, *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1959, p. 174.

Book Reviews and Notes

EDITOR'S NOTE.—*Listing of a publication in this section is for record and reference only and does not constitute an endorsement of point of view or advocacy of use.*

Special Reviews

Sourcebook on Labor. By Neil W. Chamberlain. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1958. 1,104 pp. \$9.75.

Dr. Chamberlain has ranged far and wide in his monumental task of searching out and organizing material which he considered representative of varying points of view on problems of labor-management relations and on the role of workers in the economy. In a blend of documentary and semidocumentary material, the *Sourcebook* contains not only court and National Labor Relations Board decisions, the text of various labor laws, union constitutions, and collective bargaining agreements, but also excerpts from speeches and from personal letters, newspaper and magazine articles, and union and management paid advertisements. Prepared for use with the author's book *Labor*, published earlier in 1958, the *Sourcebook* follows the organizational pattern of the previous volume, with the first 13 chapters supplying background material for the discussion and analysis of the people and institutions involved, and the later chapters dealing with the impact of organized labor on various phases of the economy. Each chapter opens with a statement on the subject covered; this is followed by illustrations of partisan points of view and a list of topics for discussion and analysis. Scattered through each chapter are brief comments pointing up the problems discussed.

The chapter on the background of the labor movement, tracing the changes which have oc-

curred since the earliest attempts at organization in the attitudes of workers, management, and the public toward unions, should serve as a useful introduction to the study of labor-management relations. Especially timely is the section on collective bargaining, which follows in detail the steel negotiations of 1956 and the strike which occurred at that time, and which also includes the full text of the agreement between the United Steelworkers and Bethlehem Steel. Scattered here and there throughout the book are single items of special interest, such as a sketch of Harold J. Gibbons, executive vice president of the Teamsters. This was published in the *St. Louis Globe-Democrat* before the Teamsters came under fire by the Select Committee on Improper Activities in the Labor or Management Field.

While Dr. Chamberlain states that the book "is designed to stand on its own feet," it would be no easy task for either teacher or student to make full use of the book's vast collection without the guidance provided in the previous text. Indeed even with the text, the very size and scope of the *Sourcebook* may militate against its usefulness to students except as a reference work. For teachers, however, it should prove valuable as a great timesaver since it brings together sources never before gathered into one publication.

The *Sourcebook* was compiled, Dr. Chamberlain says, with two purposes in mind. First, to make widely scattered, often fugitive, material readily accessible. This purpose has been fully accomplished although as the author himself points out, there may be some who believe that he could have selected more wisely. The second purpose was to foster in the student the ability to examine critically the issues involved in labor-management relations and to reach his own conclusions on the problems considered. Certainly the biased points of view are exposed. How the student responds will depend in large part on the student himself. The literature on labor is greatly enriched by the addition of the *Sourcebook*.

—MARJORIE C. EGLOFF
Office of Publications
Bureau of Labor Statistics

The Politics of German Codetermination. By Herbert J. Spiro. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1958. 180 pp. \$4.

Codetermination began in 1947 in Germany in the steel industry as a result of an administrative decree of the British occupying forces. It has continued and expanded since the West German Republic was established in 1949. The first of the German laws, the special codetermination law of 1951, made coal subject to the existing rules governing the steel industry. It was passed by the Christian Democrats and the Social Democrats under pressure from the unions. In 1952, a general law applied a somewhat less sweeping set of standards to most of German industry. The union federation had pressed for a more extensive law. Further modifications were made in the system in its extension, in 1955, to many government-owned operations, and in 1956 the system also was applied to holding companies in steel and coal.

The author, a political scientist, begins his analysis with the forces and ideologies that lay behind these political decisions, but is more concerned with the ways in which codetermination has actually worked and the impact of such arrangements on the political, social, and economic life of Germany.

In general, codetermination introduces representatives of the workers at three levels of the policymaking and administrative functions of German industry. Representatives elected by the workers are placed on the supervisory board (what we would call the Board of Directors). One worker designee participates as labor manager on the small managing board (three or four executives responsible for the operating decisions of the firm). A works council, elected by the employees, represents them in dealing with management on a wide variety of personnel and welfare matters.

The worker representatives on the supervisory boards receive information on the major policy developments in the firm and, to a limited degree, participate in the formulation of these general policies. The labor manager, as one of the chief executives of the company, has direct responsibility for its personnel and social affairs. The degree to which he participates in the other major

administrative policy decisions varies considerably, but frequently his role in these is limited to the exchange of information and some advisory comments.

Each works council is directly elected by proportional representation of all the employees in the establishment. Separate ballots are counted for the wage and for the salaried employees. Slates of candidates are presented to the worker voters by the trade unions and the political parties. Union representatives attend the meetings of the works councils. In practice, their role is to consider and to deal with the "labor manager" on all plant problems affecting the employees including social welfare activities. It is usual for them to work out with the labor manager the local amplification and application of the national industry collective agreements negotiated by the unions and to act on grievances.

Codetermination has had much less elaborate effect on the management of German industry than the word suggests. The author suggests that workers have had a minor advisory role on many major policy decisions of management, but an extensive participation in the determination of policies directly affecting employees and the actual administration of many aspects of such policies either by works councils themselves or, much more extensively, by the labor manager. There has been little change, the author concludes, in the type of decisions that are made by the company executives, but a significant redistribution of the responsibility for such decisions, with the indirect inclusion of workers through their representatives. The consequence has been that decisions are made only after a fuller consideration of a wider number of alternatives and, particularly as relates to personnel and social affairs, such decisions are more efficiently administered.

The most extensive effect of the system of codetermination, the author finds, is "political." Although many of its original proponents had urged it on the assumption that it would reduce the role of the government in the economic life of the country, he concludes that codetermination is now an established issue in the continuing political life of the Nation. It has served as a focus for the unions in their definition of political issues. In this connection it has provided an im-

portant rallying point for keeping both the Christian Democrats and the Social Democrats within a single trade union federation. By the same token, it has provided an issue on which these two political parties can agree on general objectives, although they may differ on specific aspects of the program. The author concludes that it has tended to redefine issues in terms of "labor relations" rather than in terms of the "class struggle." He concludes, also, that it has considerably widened the worker role in both the economic and the political life of the Nation.

—W. ELLISON CHALMERS

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Work in the Lives of Married Women: Proceedings of a Conference on Womanpower, October 20-25, 1957, Columbia University. New York, National Manpower Council, 1958. xxii, 220 pp. \$4.75, Columbia University Press, New York.

This volume is the seventh publication of the National Manpower Council since it was established at Columbia University in 1951. Earlier publications of the council treated such aspects of the manpower crisis as student deferment, scientific and professional manpower, and improving work skills. Womanpower and the implications of it was made the topic of a conference on Work in the Lives of Married Women, which the council held in October 1957. Seventy-seven participants, drawn from 34 communities in different parts of the United States and representing a wide variety of fields and interests, contributed papers, addresses, and opinions to the conference.

This volume consists of addresses by leading authorities on the principal issues discussed at the conference: (1) education, training, and guidance of women for reentry into the labor force; (2) the utilization of womanpower, especially the older workers; (3) income earned by married women; and (4) working mothers and the development of children. There is an excellent frame of reference for the conference in papers by Erwin D. Canham and James P. Mitchell.

The scope of the problem is evident from the fact that women make up almost one-third of the working population of the Nation, and that one-half of these women are over 40 years of age.

"Six out of every ten working women are married, and two out of five mothers whose children are of school age are in the labor force."

The findings of the conference as a whole reveal a pervading spirit of caution against generalizing and recognition of the need for much additional research before final conclusions can be reached.

More specifically, this reviewer is most impressed with the following findings discussed in the final chapter: (1) New patterns of work outside the home for wives and mothers have resulted, in general, in desirable economic and social consequences; (2) little is known as yet about the consequences of the so-called revolution in women's employment, and hence there is great need for extensive research and for efficient synthesizing of existing data; (3) generalizations are dangerous and should be avoided, particularly since no one problem can as yet be identified as the problem of the working mother or wife; (4) the problems of womanpower are so numerous and their scope and significance so often obscure that there is no simple or single policy applicable to all of them; (5) high levels of employment and demands for labor point to a continuation of recent trends in women's employment; and (6) man and woman, being imperfect creatures, will fashion a social organization which itself is imperfect, and much in the individual lives of these imperfect individuals will not fit neatly into an improvised ideal scheme.

This short volume is a significant addition to the literature in the field of labor. It fearlessly raises questions, the answers to which will manifestly condition our historical attitudes, our economy, and indeed the very fabric of our society.

—CATHERYN SECKLER-HUDSON

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The American University

Arbitration and Mediation

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Current Labor Statistics

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¹ This table is included in the March, June, September, and December issues of the Review.

² The labor turnover tables (B-1 and B-2) have been dropped from the Review pending a general revision of the Current Labor Statistics section because, beginning with January 1959 data, the categories for which labor turnover rates are published differ from those previously published. Current data are available monthly in Employment and Earnings or may be obtained upon request.

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³ This table is included in the January, April, July, and October issues of the Review.

A.—Employment

TABLE A-1. Estimated total labor force classified by employment status, hours worked, and sex [In thousands]

Table with columns for Employment status, 1959 (Apr, Mar, Feb, Jan), 1958 (Dec, Nov, Oct, Sept, Aug, July, June, May, Apr), and Annual average (1958, 1957). Rows include Total labor force, Civilian labor force, Unemployment, Employment, Nonagricultural, Agricultural, and sub-categories for hours worked and job status. Data is provided for Total, both sexes; Males; and Females.

1 Estimates are based on information obtained from a sample of households and are subject to sampling variability. Data relate to the calendar week ending nearest the 15th day of the month. The employed total includes all wage and salary workers, self-employed persons, and unpaid workers in family-operated enterprises. Persons in institutions are not included. Because of rounding, sums of individual items do not necessarily equal totals. 2 Beginning with January 1957, two groups numbering between 200,000 and 300,000 which were formerly classified as employed (under "with a job but not at work") were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. For a full explanation, see Monthly Report on the Labor Force,

February 1957 (Current Population Reports, Labor Force, Series P-57, No. 176). 3 Survey week contained legal holiday. 4 Includes persons who had a job or business but who did not work during the survey week because of illness, bad weather, vacation, or labor dispute. Prior to January 1957, also included were persons on layoff with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days of layoff and persons who had new jobs to which they were scheduled to report within 30 days. Most of the persons in these groups have, since that time, been classified as unemployed. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE A-3. Production or nonsupervisory workers in nonagricultural establishments, by industry¹—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1959				1958										Annual average	
	Apr. ²	Mar. ²	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1957	1956	
Transportation and public utilities:																
Other public utilities.....		525	527	528	530	532	533	540	547	548	541	534	534	540	535	
Gas and electric utilities.....		504.4	507.1	507.9	510.0	511.4	512.9	519.7	525.8	526.9	520.4	513.8	513.4	519.0	513.8	
Electric light and power utilities.....		217.1	219.3	219.5	219.7	220.5	221.0	223.9	226.3	226.6	224.9	222.4	222.5	226.0	219.6	
Gas utilities.....		135.9	135.9	135.6	136.6	136.4	137.1	139.0	141.1	141.4	138.9	136.3	136.0	136.4	133.4	
Electric light and gas utilities combined.....		151.4	151.9	152.8	153.7	154.5	154.8	156.8	158.4	158.9	156.6	155.1	154.9	156.6	160.8	
Local utilities, not elsewhere classified.....		20.3	19.8	19.9	19.9	20.2	20.4	20.6	21.0	21.1	20.7	20.5	20.4	20.7	21.2	
Wholesale and retail trade:																
Wholesale trade.....		2,610	2,618	2,621	2,666	2,656	2,646	2,625	2,601	2,597	2,593	2,571	2,592	2,695	2,661	
Wholesalers, full-service and limited-function.....		1,552.5	1,551.0	1,549.7	1,582.4	1,574.0	1,560.3	1,546.3	1,526.3	1,520.6	1,514.7	1,499.1	1,509.5	1,572.2	1,562.6	
Automotive.....		113.2	112.5	112.2	112.3	112.2	111.3	111.3	111.0	110.7	109.6	107.5	107.9	108.4	104.3	
Groceries, food specialties, beer, wines, and liquors.....		273.8	276.0	275.1	281.0	280.4	276.3	275.5	268.2	269.8	267.1	263.3	267.2	273.4	275.1	
Electrical goods, machinery, hardware, and plumbing equipment.....		380.5	380.0	380.5	383.2	382.5	381.6	380.1	379.8	379.0	378.4	376.9	379.8	402.7	402.0	
Other full-service and limited-function wholesalers.....		785.0	782.5	781.9	805.9	798.9	791.1	779.4	767.3	761.1	759.6	751.4	754.6	787.7	781.2	
Wholesale distributors, other.....		1,057.6	1,066.9	1,071.6	1,083.4	1,082.4	1,085.6	1,078.3	1,074.4	1,076.6	1,077.9	1,072.3	1,082.4	1,122.6	1,098.1	
Retail trade.....		1,281.6	1,249.2	1,296.8	1,840.7	1,474.3	1,372.2	1,322.9	1,252.8	1,238.6	1,263.6	1,259.9	1,251.8	1,356.5	1,355.3	
General merchandise stores.....		815.8	799.5	839.8	1,188.3	953.2	875.1	840.0	802.0	795.3	808.3	803.5	794.5	875.9	876.4	
Department stores and general mail-order houses.....		465.8	449.7	457.0	652.4	521.1	497.1	482.9	450.8	443.3	455.3	456.4	457.3	480.6	478.9	
Other general merchandise stores.....		1,465.6	1,471.3	1,455.6	1,507.1	1,488.3	1,475.6	1,479.8	1,468.2	1,478.0	1,481.1	1,479.2	1,477.5	1,465.5	1,440.9	
Food and liquor stores.....		1,087.1	1,089.9	1,078.3	1,108.9	1,097.3	1,084.7	1,076.8	1,060.5	1,069.6	1,070.5	1,068.8	1,067.5	1,038.4	1,014.5	
Grocery, meat, and vegetable markets.....		184.8	184.8	185.9	187.7	188.9	190.8	202.1	207.1	207.3	206.1	201.6	198.7	206.7	205.1	
Dairy-product stores and dealers.....		193.7	196.6	191.4	210.5	202.1	200.1	200.9	200.6	201.1	204.5	208.8	211.3	220.4	221.3	
Other food and liquor stores.....		682.8	680.1	678.6	693.5	676.3	667.5	667.2	670.1	668.6	668.9	669.5	670.0	719.3	727.1	
Automotive and accessories dealers.....		546.6	513.9	531.6	665.5	568.1	551.8	540.7	496.8	503.0	541.9	536.3	533.8	556.6	565.5	
Apparel and accessories stores.....		2,028.8	2,023.8	2,035.5	2,155.7	2,072.5	2,062.5	2,070.5	2,065.4	2,058.3	2,049.6	2,025.2	2,020.2	2,094.6	2,104.5	
Other retail trade (except eating and drinking places).....		351.0	351.3	353.3	373.8	360.6	355.5	352.0	349.3	349.1	350.5	350.4	349.9	361.2	363.8	
Furniture and appliance stores.....		339.8	340.5	338.9	374.0	340.7	338.0	337.0	334.5	334.2	332.5	330.4	328.9	337.7	327.5	
Drug stores.....																

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to August 1958 and coverage of the series, see footnote 1, table A-2.

Production and related workers include working foremen and all nonsupervisory workers (including leadmen and trainees) engaged in fabricating, processing, assembling, inspection, receiving, storage, handling, packing, warehousing, shipping, maintenance, repair, janitorial, watchman services,

product development, auxiliary production for plant's own use (e.g., power-plant), and recordkeeping and other services closely associated with the aforementioned production operations.

² Preliminary.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE A-4. Employees in nonagricultural establishments, by State ¹

[In thousands]

State	1959				1958										
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.
Alabama	726.8	722.1	721.7	730.4	723.1	725.0	720.2	712.4	706.4	712.5	712.7	712.2	714.1	711.2	721.7
Arizona	295.2	294.1	292.7	297.3	290.4	288.0	283.7	277.9	277.9	279.1	278.0	276.8	276.1	275.8	276.7
Arkansas	340.0	335.4	335.1	345.9	349.9	350.5	350.9	342.9	339.7	338.6	334.7	330.6	329.7	327.7	328.9
California	4,524.4	4,477.8	4,456.5	4,606.4	4,552.3	4,569.3	4,569.2	4,547.6	4,466.9	4,456.1	4,393.5	4,337.0	4,320.9	4,313.7	4,360.7
Colorado	457.4	453.8	456.5	465.6	462.8	464.7	466.5	473.8	472.5	465.6	451.0	444.0	438.2	440.3	447.4
Connecticut	870.2	866.0	865.4	891.5	878.5	874.7	871.4	851.7	850.3	865.7	860.5	860.0	860.4	861.6	873.6
Delaware	147.0	142.6	147.0	149.6	150.0	146.7	150.9	149.1	149.2	148.6	145.7	145.0	145.5	145.0	147.4
District of Columbia	502.7	500.9	502.1	518.4	505.3	503.3	502.9	502.7	502.3	502.6	496.6	495.0	493.8	490.2	492.9
Florida	1,275.1	1,271.9	1,262.4	1,254.0	1,214.3	1,180.1	1,151.1	1,136.6	1,130.8	1,134.6	1,147.1	1,170.1	1,178.8	1,190.3	1,196.3
Georgia	977.1	967.9	967.3	989.1	984.6	978.5	979.0	971.1	956.1	958.0	945.8	950.7	952.8	950.4	958.0
Idaho	143.8	141.9	144.0	149.8	152.6	155.9	161.0	160.4	158.1	153.9	149.4	145.0	139.1	136.6	138.7
Illinois	3,348.1	3,316.5	3,307.6	3,386.4	3,372.6	3,372.7	3,367.9	3,329.5	3,302.6	3,328.4	3,310.7	3,319.2	3,324.2	3,330.3	3,388.4
Indiana	1,349.7	1,335.6	1,331.3	1,356.7	1,359.2	1,334.8	1,351.7	1,323.5	1,316.0	1,325.5	1,314.3	1,308.9	1,299.2	1,311.2	1,346.9
Iowa	637.7	629.3	633.0	645.7	646.4	647.0	645.8	638.6	635.3	638.1	634.6	627.6	619.9	616.3	623.5
Kansas	541.2	531.4	533.7	547.5	545.4	547.1	548.2	541.2	539.8	541.6	542.3	539.8	528.2	526.9	534.2
Kentucky	614.3	617.2	615.5	635.8	635.0	635.9	630.1	620.7	615.9	620.7	618.4	614.2	613.6	613.3	628.3
Louisiana	756.0	754.2	758.7	783.0	776.6	771.9	770.1	762.0	760.6	768.9	766.7	766.3	765.6	765.0	770.2
Maine	252.5	255.0	257.2	264.7	267.1	271.2	273.3	277.1	274.9	271.9	258.5	250.3	250.0	254.6	257.0
Maryland	856.6	846.6	845.2	876.5	873.2	867.9	871.9	862.4	853.7	859.9	847.6	838.4	834.9	826.6	837.5
Massachusetts	1,776.3	1,773.0	1,775.1	1,842.6	1,810.2	1,807.6	1,810.5	1,812.6	1,792.6	1,802.3	1,781.2	1,771.1	1,763.3	1,769.3	1,784.4
Michigan	2,233.9	2,185.9	2,212.0	2,259.2	2,232.9	2,069.0	2,174.5	2,108.3	2,125.8	2,151.0	2,143.5	2,150.4	2,187.0	2,221.8	2,305.2
Minnesota	874.7	873.1	879.8	906.6	912.7	921.0	926.3	912.9	908.3	904.3	897.6	878.6	858.3	857.6	870.7
Mississippi	378.0	376.5	378.4	387.7	388.3	386.7	386.0	374.5	371.2	371.7	371.4	368.0	363.1	358.3	362.6
Missouri	1,275.0	1,262.2	1,266.3	1,308.8	1,285.6	1,274.0	1,281.2	1,268.9	1,266.3	1,277.1	1,262.0	1,255.9	1,256.5	1,254.6	1,270.8
Montana	151.8	150.9	152.2	157.8	160.0	162.0	165.0	167.0	165.0	164.5	159.0	153.6	149.2	149.0	151.9
Nebraska	354.1	350.8	352.2	361.0	360.1	363.4	362.2	356.1	352.7	359.6	355.7	348.7	339.7	338.3	343.4
Nevada	88.0	86.7	86.8	89.0	89.4	91.3	92.8	93.2	93.0	90.0	86.7	83.8	81.6	80.3	81.4
New Hampshire	178.9	178.3	178.5	178.8	181.6	183.0	185.7	187.3	184.2	182.9	177.3	173.5	174.0	175.3	177.6
New Jersey	1,869.5	1,853.5	1,850.2	1,896.8	1,897.6	1,892.1	1,905.1	1,899.3	1,892.5	1,893.0	1,870.8	1,875.3	1,866.9	1,875.4	1,892.4
New Mexico	224.5	223.1	222.0	226.2	224.7	222.6	222.0	219.5	221.5	221.8	216.8	212.2	208.4	208.6	209.7
New York	5,898.1	5,852.8	5,853.8	6,032.6	6,011.9	5,989.8	5,988.5	5,939.3	5,906.5	5,922.4	5,898.8	5,890.8	5,892.2	5,891.9	5,931.1
North Carolina	1,087.9	1,082.0	1,081.2	1,099.5	1,099.1	1,104.3	1,104.1	1,081.1	1,061.7	1,067.3	1,065.3	1,061.9	1,063.2	1,059.6	1,068.7
North Dakota	111.8	111.0	112.2	118.0	121.9	124.0	124.5	123.1	122.1	120.7	118.9	114.2	109.6	108.6	110.4
Ohio	3,001.3	2,975.6	2,962.1	3,023.7	3,011.4	2,970.3	2,989.3	2,924.8	2,922.7	2,937.9	2,919.6	2,936.1	2,960.5	2,981.4	3,049.2
Oklahoma	548.5	542.4	545.4	558.6	553.1	552.9	550.0	551.4	549.6	554.4	547.6	544.0	539.9	541.7	550.2
Oregon	465.1	456.6	458.9	474.3	478.9	492.6	499.4	492.4	486.9	484.8	462.8	454.1	445.7	440.7	444.0
Pennsylvania	3,548.8	3,513.9	3,520.7	3,636.9	3,606.5	3,604.7	3,610.0	3,567.2	3,555.6	3,588.3	3,576.7	3,568.3	3,556.9	3,576.7	3,630.9
Rhode Island	274.7	273.2	274.8	282.8	282.5	279.4	280.9	275.2	272.0	272.5	267.5	267.4	268.6	268.7	271.6
South Carolina	529.4	525.8	525.8	534.1	530.2	529.9	530.2	525.0	520.8	522.8	525.9	525.3	526.5	524.3	526.8
South Dakota	124.7	124.0	124.1	126.9	129.3	131.0	131.9	131.0	131.1	130.5	128.0	125.1	122.6	121.8	123.4
Tennessee	861.3	851.0	847.6	873.8	866.8	868.9	864.2	852.9	842.5	849.3	844.1	839.4	835.4	825.6	836.4
Texas	2,411.4	2,394.6	2,405.8	2,467.1	2,427.7	2,418.6	2,407.5	2,404.3	2,399.5	2,399.1	2,386.5	2,378.9	2,370.9	2,373.2	2,390.8
Utah	243.2	238.6	237.6	248.9	247.5	249.0	250.3	245.3	244.1	242.6	238.9	233.1	229.6	227.9	229.7
Vermont	100.0	99.8	100.0	102.0	101.7	104.2	105.4	109.8	109.5	104.4	101.6	99.8	98.2	98.4	99.1
Virginia	962.8	955.0	955.2	980.7	972.6	975.4	967.3	954.1	946.6	949.9	944.9	941.1	936.9	929.8	942.5
Washington	777.1	768.2	771.6	796.0	794.8	810.5	809.4	796.4	795.3	789.1	768.0	759.1	751.2	743.1	746.7
West Virginia	455.2	452.6	453.2	468.9	466.4	469.2	469.3	463.6	456.1	455.6	452.5	455.9	462.4	463.9	478.0
Wisconsin	1,086.2	1,080.9	1,085.0	1,111.1	1,107.8	1,101.6	1,115.3	1,099.7	1,105.3	1,094.7	1,083.8	1,076.0	1,077.6	1,079.0	1,095.0
Wyoming	84.7	83.9	84.6	87.4	89.1	90.4	93.0	95.4	94.8	93.9	87.3	82.3	80.3	80.1	81.3

¹ These estimates are classified by industry according to the Standard Industrial Classification Manual issued in 1957 by the Bureau of the Budget, and are not comparable with data previously published. More detailed

industry data on the new classification system are available from the cooperating State agencies listed in table A-5.

TABLE A-5. Employees in manufacturing, by State¹
(In thousands)

State	1959			1958											
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.
Alabama	235.7	233.5	233.6	232.7	230.4	231.7	231.2	230.5	227.4	228.4	226.8	227.6	229.9	231.3	236.6
Arizona	44.3	43.7	43.1	42.6	42.0	41.6	41.1	40.2	40.6	41.3	40.9	40.6	40.2	39.9	40.1
Arkansas	93.1	91.7	90.6	91.9	92.5	93.3	92.5	91.0	90.6	90.3	87.6	85.7	85.7	86.0	86.3
California	1,248.5	1,231.7	1,221.0	1,234.7	1,238.8	1,255.3	1,270.5	1,271.5	1,208.6	1,190.3	1,175.4	1,169.3	1,172.1	1,169.3	1,178.6
Colorado	78.2	77.3	78.4	77.6	78.2	78.4	78.2	77.3	76.6	74.0	71.2	70.1	70.7	71.0	74.3
Connecticut	397.5	395.7	392.8	393.7	392.4	388.5	385.3	368.8	366.1	381.7	383.4	388.3	395.5	398.8	405.2
Delaware	58.6	54.8	59.4	59.5	60.1	57.0	59.2	57.9	57.0	57.3	56.6	56.9	58.0	58.5	60.6
District of Columbia	20.2	20.0	20.1	20.1	20.1	19.9	19.6	19.5	19.2	19.5	19.5	19.5	19.3	19.3	19.4
Florida	197.6	197.8	195.7	193.0	186.2	179.3	174.4	170.2	167.7	170.6	174.5	173.4	177.7	180.9	183.5
Georgia	323.5	322.6	320.6	322.7	325.6	320.8	322.8	318.4	312.8	311.5	301.6	310.8	315.9	317.2	320.3
Idaho	25.3	25.2	26.5	27.7	29.6	30.4	30.7	30.9	29.4	28.2	26.8	24.9	23.3	23.2	24.0
Illinois	1,197.5	1,181.9	1,165.3	1,168.3	1,169.0	1,172.6	1,174.7	1,155.6	1,129.6	1,139.2	1,131.2	1,151.6	1,173.9	1,189.8	1,210.8
Indiana	579.0	570.6	563.6	561.8	566.1	539.5	557.3	537.9	535.9	536.1	529.9	532.3	537.1	551.6	574.3
Iowa	170.8	167.9	167.9	167.1	166.3	165.4	164.9	163.2	162.7	163.1	160.6	158.6	159.2	160.0	161.2
Kansas	116.8	116.4	116.6	116.0	115.9	115.3	115.9	115.1	118.3	119.3	119.5	119.7	122.0	123.6	125.4
Kentucky	167.3	166.8	161.7	164.4	165.4	167.0	163.6	160.7	154.1	155.1	153.4	152.7	159.2	161.8	168.2
Louisiana	141.0	140.0	141.5	148.2	152.0	147.0	146.1	143.6	142.4	143.2	142.5	142.6	141.8	143.3	144.1
Maine	96.2	98.7	99.1	99.3	101.9	103.3	104.3	105.8	104.0	103.3	95.0	92.3	94.7	99.3	100.2
Maryland	257.3	256.6	254.9	256.0	260.9	257.5	261.8	264.0	256.4	255.9	252.0	251.8	255.5	255.4	258.2
Massachusetts	675.7	673.6	669.9	672.0	670.5	665.3	663.9	658.0	639.4	648.7	643.1	649.9	661.6	670.3	674.4
Michigan	976.8	939.2	958.5	950.0	935.1	776.6	879.3	812.9	825.9	845.8	847.1	867.4	911.3	944.4	1,004.9
Minnesota	218.2	216.8	217.0	219.1	219.8	222.0	228.5	224.3	221.6	215.6	215.4	213.0	212.2	212.1	215.0
Mississippi	116.6	116.2	116.2	116.9	119.4	118.7	117.6	116.3	113.4	111.1	110.1	110.2	109.0	107.4	107.2
Missouri	378.5	374.7	374.9	377.3	369.5	358.5	368.0	372.2	370.8	369.8	363.9	364.5	375.2	377.2	379.4
Montana	18.3	18.3	18.6	19.7	20.5	21.4	21.4	21.4	21.1	20.6	19.4	18.5	18.4	18.7	19.1
Nebraska	61.6	61.0	60.4	61.4	61.1	62.2	61.2	61.2	60.6	60.6	59.6	58.1	57.6	57.7	59.3
Nevada	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	5.0
New Hampshire	83.3	82.9	82.6	79.8	82.4	81.7	81.3	80.7	79.1	79.3	77.9	76.8	79.0	80.4	81.3
New Jersey	767.7	765.5	759.5	762.0	767.8	760.3	770.7	764.2	753.6	760.2	752.4	758.6	767.1	784.2	793.0
New Mexico	15.7	15.5	15.5	15.6	15.6	15.6	16.0	15.9	16.0	16.0	15.4	14.7	14.2	14.3	14.1
New York	1,856.8	1,844.1	1,825.8	1,835.7	1,875.6	1,862.8	1,871.5	1,836.4	1,792.4	1,800.3	1,795.5	1,819.2	1,864.7	1,890.3	1,887.8
North Carolina	469.1	469.3	468.9	470.8	475.8	480.3	482.2	469.2	452.4	453.7	450.7	451.6	456.8	460.8	464.8
North Dakota	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.6	6.6	6.9	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.3	6.3
Ohio	1,256.8	1,241.8	1,224.1	1,221.1	1,218.2	1,170.2	1,198.6	1,157.5	1,151.8	1,156.2	1,145.2	1,165.4	1,198.1	1,227.7	1,265.4
Oklahoma	83.9	82.9	82.8	83.6	83.8	84.2	83.9	84.2	84.2	84.3	82.9	83.0	84.7	86.6	87.7
Oregon	132.1	128.2	129.1	132.7	139.0	146.6	150.3	151.4	144.5	143.6	131.5	126.3	121.6	120.7	121.1
Pennsylvania	1,409.9	1,388.7	1,377.9	1,388.3	1,392.9	1,392.2	1,396.0	1,380.1	1,371.3	1,377.8	1,376.0	1,384.5	1,390.6	1,423.1	1,445.9
Rhode Island	113.2	114.4	114.0	115.3	115.7	114.2	116.0	110.2	106.6	108.1	104.8	106.0	109.2	111.6	112.2
South Carolina	226.3	225.3	225.0	225.2	225.4	224.2	227.0	224.6	221.4	222.3	222.9	224.7	225.8	226.9	227.8
South Dakota	12.3	12.3	12.1	12.3	12.8	12.8	12.4	12.6	12.7	12.6	12.0	11.7	11.6	11.6	11.9
Tennessee	295.2	292.2	289.6	289.9	292.3	292.9	291.4	287.9	282.3	282.7	282.3	281.2	283.8	283.6	286.3
Texas	481.1	473.9	476.1	478.3	478.3	474.0	476.8	476.3	474.0	475.4	472.2	475.6	482.1	484.7	486.9
Utah	40.8	39.6	39.3	41.0	41.5	41.5	42.1	40.9	40.5	38.4	37.0	36.3	35.9	36.2	36.9
Vermont	34.1	33.8	33.3	33.4	33.3	33.6	33.5	33.5	33.5	33.2	32.9	32.9	32.8	33.2	33.1
Virginia	259.1	258.5	257.3	260.4	264.3	265.9	261.5	257.4	251.4	250.7	249.7	250.9	255.1	255.2	260.7
Washington	222.2	220.3	222.2	224.1	225.6	230.9	230.9	228.2	226.9	221.7	212.9	208.2	206.4	203.3	203.7
West Virginia	123.4	121.2	119.9	121.3	123.2	125.1	124.4	122.2	121.2	120.1	117.4	118.9	120.4	121.5	124.8
Wisconsin	437.1	432.5	436.3	434.4	432.8	424.5	440.1	432.1	437.5	424.0	419.9	420.8	430.5	433.8	442.5
Wyoming	6.2	6.3	6.6	7.1	7.3	7.7	7.2	7.1	7.1	7.0	6.4	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.6

¹ These estimates are classified by industry according to the Standard Industrial Classification Manual issued in 1957 by the Bureau of the Budget, and are

Cooperating State Agencies

ALABAMA—Department of Industrial Relations, Montgomery 4.
ARIZONA—Unemployment Compensation Division, Employment Security Commission, Phoenix.
ARKANSAS—Employment Security Division, Department of Labor, Little Rock.
CALIFORNIA—Division of Labor Statistics and Research, Department of Industrial Relations, San Francisco 1.
COLORADO—U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Denver 2.
CONNECTICUT—Employment Security Division, Department of Labor, Hartford 15.
DELAWARE—Unemployment Compensation Commission, Wilmington 99.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—U.S. Employment Service for D.C., Washington 25.
FLORIDA—Industrial Commission, Tallahassee.
GEORGIA—Employment Security Agency, Department of Labor, Atlanta 3.
IDAHO—Employment Security Agency, Boise.
ILLINOIS—Division of Unemployment Compensation and State Employment Service, Department of Labor, Chicago 6.
INDIANA—Employment Security Division, Indianapolis 25.
IOWA—Employment Security Commission, Des Moines 8.
KANSAS—Employment Security Division, Department of Labor, Topeka.
KENTUCKY—Bureau of Employment Security, Department of Economic Security, Frankfort.
LOUISIANA—Division of Employment Security, Department of Labor, Baton Rouge 4.
MAINE—Employment Security Commission, Augusta.
MARYLAND—Department of Employment Security, Baltimore 1.
MASSACHUSETTS—Division of Statistics, Department of Labor and Industries, Boston 16.
MICHIGAN—Employment Security Commission, Detroit 2.
MINNESOTA—Department of Employment Security, St. Paul 1.
MISSISSIPPI—Employment Security Commission, Jackson.
MISSOURI—Division of Employment Security, Jefferson City.

not comparable with data previously published. More detailed industry data on the new classification system are available from the cooperating State agencies.

MONTANA—Unemployment Compensation Commission, Helena.
NEBRASKA—Division of Employment Security, Department of Labor Lincoln 1.
NEVADA—Employment Security Department, Carson City.
NEW HAMPSHIRE—Department of Employment Security, Concord.
NEW JERSEY—Bureau of Statistics and Records, Department of Labor and Industry, Trenton 25.
NEW MEXICO—Employment Security Commission, Albuquerque.
NEW YORK—Bureau of Research and Statistics, Division of Employment, State Department of Labor, 500 Eighth Avenue, New York 18.
NORTH CAROLINA—Division of Statistics, Department of Labor, Raleigh.
NORTH DAKOTA—Unemployment Compensation Division, Workmen's Compensation Bureau, Bismarck.
OHIO—Division of Research and Statistics, Bureau of Unemployment Compensation, Columbus 16.
OKLAHOMA—Employment Security Commission, Oklahoma City 2.
OREGON—Unemployment Compensation Commission, Salem.
PENNSYLVANIA—Bureau of Employment Security, Department of Labor and Industry, Harrisburg.
RHODE ISLAND—Division of Statistics and Census, Department of Labor, Providence 3.
SOUTH CAROLINA—Employment Security Commission, Columbia 1.
SOUTH DAKOTA—Employment Security Department, Aberdeen.
TENNESSEE—Department of Employment Security, Nashville 3.
TEXAS—Employment Commission, Austin 19.
UTAH—Department of Employment Security, Industrial Commission, Salt Lake City 10.
VERMONT—Unemployment Compensation Commission, Montpelier.
VIRGINIA—Division of Research and Statistics, Department of Labor and Industry, Richmond 14.
WASHINGTON—Employment Security Department, Olympia.
WEST VIRGINIA—Department of Employment Security, Charleston 5.
WISCONSIN—Statistical Department, Industrial Commission, Madison 3.
WYOMING—Employment Security Commission, Casper.

TABLE A-7. Unemployment insurance and employment service programs, selected operations ¹

[All items except average benefits amounts are in thousands]

Item	1959					1958								1957	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Mar.	
Employment service:															
New applications for work.....	742	806	896	737	740	775	776	725	812	979	866	954	951	691	
Nonfarm placements.....	445	378	398	406	413	514	545	489	459	456	439	404	332	425	
State unemployment insurance programs:²															
Initial claims ³	1,136	1,277	1,790	1,924	1,258	1,259	1,186	1,251	1,659	1,513	1,538	1,983	1,795	897	
Insured unemployment ⁴ (average weekly volume).....	2,106	2,396	2,518	2,111	1,781	1,722	1,906	2,203	2,511	2,667	2,984	3,302	3,276	1,592	
Rate of insured unemployment ⁵	5.0	5.7	6.0	5.1	4.3	4.1	4.5	5.2	6.0	6.3	7.1	7.9	7.9	4.0	
Weeks of unemployment compensated.....	8,660	8,628	9,532	7,997	5,939	7,157	7,776	8,583	10,277	10,879	12,020	13,055	12,457	6,302	
Average weekly benefit amount for total unemployment.....	\$30.38	\$30.52	\$30.50	\$30.41	\$30.46	\$30.45	\$30.66	\$30.50	\$30.62	\$30.80	\$30.80	\$30.88	\$30.53	\$27.72	
Total benefits paid.....	\$255,640	\$255,671	\$279,461	\$234,683	\$174,470	\$210,300	\$231,141	\$255,432	\$305,638	\$325,039	\$363,550	\$403,845	\$370,248	\$168,841	
Unemployment compensation for veterans:⁶															
Initial claims ³	7	9	13	14	12	13	14	19	30	38	24	27	30	21	
Insured unemployment ⁴ (average weekly volume).....	22	28	31	28	26	27	39	53	78	78	74	80	81	47	
Weeks of unemployment compensated.....	102	113	131	125	102	129	193	248	384	333	334	368	345	218	
Total benefits paid.....	\$2,688	\$2,993	\$3,486	\$3,311	\$2,693	\$3,391	\$5,047	\$6,553	\$10,151	\$8,853	\$8,922	\$9,833	\$9,285	\$5,886	
Railroad unemployment insurance:															
Applications ⁷	6	8	17	22	20	17	20	21	117	80	17	20	24	9	
Insured unemployment (average weekly volume).....	76	94	122	125	121	113	118	119	128	101	128	146	149	60	
Number of payments ⁸	199	217	311	287	229	272	260	286	250	252	307	338	319	151	
Average amount of benefit payment ⁹	\$65.47	\$65.57	\$65.68	\$69.31	\$70.15	\$69.91	\$70.35	\$69.60	\$59.44	\$66.85	\$67.27	\$68.59	\$67.86	\$59.68	
Total benefits paid ¹⁰	\$12,477	\$13,752	\$20,345	\$19,755	\$16,030	\$19,076	\$18,144	\$19,861	\$14,735	\$16,651	\$20,574	\$23,153	\$21,626	\$8,973	
All programs:¹¹															
Insured unemployment ⁴	2,273	2,584	2,729	2,307	1,957	1,863	2,062	2,374	2,717	2,847	3,186	3,527	3,505	1,700	

¹ A average weekly insured unemployment excludes Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands; other items include them.

² Data include activities under the program of Unemployment Compensation for Federal Employees (UCFE), which became effective on January 1, 1955.

³ An initial claim is a notice filed by a worker at the beginning of a period of unemployment which establishes the starting date for any insured unemployment which may result if he is unemployed for 1 week or longer.

⁴ Number of workers reporting the completion of at least 1 week of unemployment.

⁵ The rate of insured unemployment is the number of insured unemployed expressed as a percent of the average covered employment in a 12-month period.

⁶ Based on claims filed under the Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952. Excludes claims filed by veterans to supplement State, UCFE, or railroad unemployment insurance benefits.

⁷ Federal portion only of benefits paid jointly with other programs. Weekly benefit amount for total unemployment is set by law at \$26.

⁸ An application for benefits is filed by a railroad worker at the beginning of his first period of unemployment in a benefit year; no application is required for subsequent periods in the same year.

⁹ Payments are for unemployment in 14-day registration periods; the average amount is an average for all compensable periods. Not adjusted for recovery of overpayments or settlement of underpayments.

¹⁰ Adjusted for recovery of overpayments and settlement of underpayments.

¹¹ Represents an unduplicated count of insured unemployment under the State, UCFE, and Veterans' Programs, and that covered by the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act. Beginning with November 1958, includes data for ex-servicemen under the program of Unemployment Compensation for Ex-servicemen, effective October 27, 1958.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security for all items except railroad unemployment insurance, which are prepared by the U.S. Railroad Retirement Board.

The labor turnover tables (B-1 and B-2) have been dropped from the Review pending a general revision of the Current Labor Statistics section because, beginning with January 1959 data, the categories for which labor turnover rates are published differ from those previously published. Current data are available monthly in Employment and Earnings or may be obtained upon request.

TABLE C-1. Hours and gross earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers, by industry¹—Con.

Year and month	Avg. wkly. earnings		Avg. hrly. earnings		Avg. wkly. hours		Avg. hrly. earnings		Avg. wkly. earnings		Avg. hrly. earnings		Avg. wkly. hours		Avg. hrly. earnings			
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Durable goods—Continued																	
Instruments and related products—Continued			Miscellaneous manufacturing industries															
Watches and clocks			Total: Miscellaneous manufacturing industries			Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware ²			Jewelry and findings			Silverware and plated ware			Musical instruments and parts			
1956: Average	\$70.77	39.1	\$1.81	\$70.53	40.3	\$1.75	\$73.81	41.7	\$1.77	\$69.06	41.6	\$1.66	\$83.38	41.9	\$1.99	\$80.54	41.3	\$1.95
1957: Average	72.15	39.0	1.85	72.22	39.9	1.81	74.07	40.7	1.82	70.07	40.5	1.73	84.05	41.2	2.04	83.03	40.5	2.05
1958: March	72.76	38.7	1.88	72.13	39.2	1.84	72.86	39.6	1.84	69.70	39.6	1.76	81.18	39.6	2.05	82.40	40.0	2.06
April	73.32	39.0	1.88	72.15	39.0	1.85	73.28	39.4	1.86	70.13	39.4	1.78	81.35	39.3	2.07	80.32	38.8	2.07
May	71.63	38.1	1.88	71.94	39.1	1.84	74.26	39.5	1.88	70.71	39.5	1.79	81.95	39.4	2.08	79.87	38.4	2.08
June	71.82	38.2	1.88	73.08	39.5	1.85	74.74	40.4	1.85	72.22	40.8	1.77	81.16	39.4	2.06	80.47	38.5	2.09
July	74.47	39.4	1.89	72.13	39.2	1.84	72.83	39.8	1.83	70.00	40.0	1.75	80.57	39.3	2.05	81.48	38.8	2.10
August	73.52	38.9	1.89	72.68	39.5	1.84	74.34	40.4	1.84	71.28	40.5	1.76	83.79	39.9	2.10	85.65	40.4	2.12
September	75.24	39.6	1.90	74.19	40.1	1.85	76.67	41.0	1.87	72.04	40.7	1.77	88.82	41.7	2.13	87.33	41.0	2.13
October	76.38	40.2	1.90	74.56	40.3	1.85	80.33	42.5	1.89	76.08	42.5	1.79	91.81	42.7	2.15	88.81	41.5	2.14
November	75.81	39.9	1.90	75.14	40.4	1.86	72.83	39.8	1.83	78.01	43.1	1.81	95.27	43.7	2.18	88.58	41.2	2.15
December	75.83	39.7	1.91	75.95	40.4	1.88	81.98	42.7	1.92	78.51	42.9	1.83	90.52	42.1	2.15	92.88	42.8	2.17
1959: January	76.61	39.9	1.92	75.79	40.1	1.89	76.89	40.9	1.88	73.39	41.0	1.79	95.86	40.5	2.12	88.15	41.0	2.15
February	76.02	39.8	1.91	75.39	40.1	1.88	77.27	41.1	1.88	73.16	41.1	1.78	87.53	40.9	2.14	87.94	40.9	2.15
March	75.84	39.5	1.92	75.60	40.0	1.89	77.74	40.7	1.91	74.07	40.7	1.82	87.31	40.8	2.14	88.56	41.0	2.16
Toys and sporting goods ³			Games, toys, dolls, and children's vehicles			Sporting and athletic goods ³			Pens, pencils, other office supplies			Costume jewelry, buttons, notions			Fabricated plastics products			
1956: Average	\$62.56	39.1	\$1.60	\$61.85	38.9	\$1.59	\$63.83	39.4	\$1.62	\$66.58	41.1	\$1.62	\$62.33	39.2	\$1.59	\$75.35	41.4	\$1.82
1957: Average	65.69	39.1	1.68	63.80	38.9	1.64	69.70	39.6	1.76	67.30	40.3	1.67	65.07	39.2	1.66	78.31	41.0	1.91
1958: March	67.34	38.7	1.74	65.84	38.5	1.71	70.20	39.0	1.80	68.85	39.8	1.73	63.36	38.4	1.65	75.84	39.5	1.92
April	66.09	38.2	1.73	64.05	37.9	1.69	69.48	38.6	1.80	69.03	39.9	1.73	64.73	38.3	1.69	76.04	39.4	1.93
May	66.13	38.9	1.70	64.74	39.0	1.66	69.45	38.8	1.79	69.65	39.8	1.75	64.51	38.4	1.68	76.81	39.8	1.93
June	66.86	39.1	1.71	64.74	39.0	1.66	70.95	39.2	1.81	68.73	39.5	1.74	65.35	38.9	1.68	79.37	40.7	1.95
July	66.35	38.8	1.71	64.24	38.7	1.66	71.55	39.1	1.83	64.39	38.1	1.69	64.73	38.3	1.69	78.98	40.5	1.95
August	66.62	38.9	1.71	63.86	38.7	1.65	72.68	39.5	1.84	66.42	39.3	1.69	65.02	38.7	1.68	79.77	40.7	1.96
September	67.37	39.4	1.71	64.68	39.2	1.65	73.60	40.0	1.84	67.43	39.9	1.69	66.19	39.4	1.68	82.74	42.0	1.97
October	68.40	40.0	1.71	66.97	40.1	1.67	71.86	39.7	1.81	67.15	39.5	1.70	66.25	39.2	1.69	81.76	41.5	1.97
November	68.16	39.4	1.73	66.30	39.7	1.67	71.39	38.8	1.84	68.28	39.7	1.72	67.99	39.3	1.73	81.54	41.6	1.98
December	67.55	38.6	1.75	64.01	38.1	1.68	72.31	39.3	1.84	69.20	40.0	1.73	65.40	39.4	1.66	82.76	41.8	1.96
1959: January	69.66	39.3	1.77	66.52	38.9	1.71	73.05	39.7	1.84	68.68	39.7	1.73	65.57	38.8	1.69	83.20	41.6	2.00
February	67.65	38.6	1.75	64.09	37.7	1.70	73.02	39.9	1.83	69.65	39.8	1.75	67.15	39.5	1.70	82.35	41.8	1.97
March	68.82	39.1	1.76	65.88	38.3	1.72	73.93	40.4	1.83	70.18	40.1	1.75	67.03	39.2	1.71	81.16	41.2	1.97

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1. Hours and gross earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers, by industry¹—Con.

Year and month	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
	Manufacturing—Continued																	
	Nondurable goods—Continued																	
	Textile-mill products—Continued																	
	Yarn and thread mills ²			Yarn mills			Thread mills			Broad-woven fabric mills ²			Cotton, silk, synthetic fiber					
													United States			North		
1956: Average.....	\$52.39	39.1	\$1.34	\$52.53	39.2	\$1.34	\$52.79	39.1	\$1.35	\$56.28	40.2	\$1.40	\$54.66	39.9	\$1.37	\$58.46	39.5	\$1.48
1957: Average.....	52.72	38.2	1.38	53.10	38.2	1.39	55.13	39.1	1.41	56.70	39.1	1.45	55.63	38.9	1.43	58.52	38.5	1.52
1958: March.....	49.62	35.7	1.39	49.35	35.5	1.39	52.45	37.2	1.41	54.81	37.8	1.45	53.25	37.5	1.42	56.85	37.4	1.52
April.....	48.51	34.9	1.39	47.96	34.5	1.39	53.72	38.1	1.41	52.85	36.7	1.44	51.18	36.3	1.41	56.47	37.4	1.51
May.....	49.21	35.4	1.39	48.93	35.2	1.39	49.21	34.9	1.41	53.86	37.4	1.44	52.40	36.9	1.42	57.83	37.8	1.53
June.....	51.66	36.9	1.40	51.38	36.7	1.40	51.26	36.1	1.42	55.68	38.4	1.45	54.20	37.9	1.43	58.45	38.2	1.53
July.....	51.94	37.1	1.40	51.66	36.9	1.40	50.69	35.7	1.42	56.41	38.9	1.45	54.53	38.4	1.42	59.28	39.0	1.52
August.....	53.76	38.4	1.40	54.00	38.3	1.41	52.97	37.3	1.42	57.38	39.3	1.46	55.77	39.0	1.43	59.36	38.8	1.53
September.....	54.46	38.9	1.40	54.71	38.8	1.41	54.24	38.2	1.42	57.96	39.7	1.46	56.74	39.4	1.44	60.68	39.4	1.54
October.....	55.13	39.1	1.41	54.85	38.9	1.41	54.72	38.0	1.44	58.98	40.4	1.46	57.89	40.2	1.44	61.14	39.7	1.54
November.....	56.12	39.8	1.41	56.37	39.7	1.42	56.16	39.0	1.44	59.42	40.7	1.46	59.02	40.7	1.45	61.85	39.9	1.55
December.....	56.26	39.9	1.41	56.37	39.7	1.42	57.86	39.9	1.45	59.54	40.5	1.47	58.58	40.4	1.45	62.78	40.5	1.55
1959: January.....	55.70	39.5	1.41	55.55	39.4	1.41	57.71	39.8	1.45	59.09	40.2	1.47	57.60	40.0	1.44	61.91	40.2	1.54
February.....	56.52	39.8	1.42	56.66	39.9	1.42	57.13	39.4	1.45	59.98	40.8	1.47	58.73	40.5	1.45	62.62	40.4	1.55
March.....	58.25	39.9	1.46	58.95	40.1	1.47	56.98	38.5	1.48	62.17	40.9	1.52	61.31	40.6	1.51	62.00	40.0	1.55

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-1. Hours and gross earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers, by industry¹—Con.

Year and month	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	Avg. wkly. earnings	Avg. wkly. hours	Avg. hrly. earnings	Avg. wkly. earnings	
	Finance, insurance, and real estate ²			Service and miscellaneous										
	Banks and trust companies	Security dealers and exchanges	Insurance carriers	Hotels, year-round ¹⁰			Personal services							Motion picture production and distribution
				Laundries		Cleaning and dyeing plants								
1956: Average	\$61.97	\$97.56	\$77.49	\$42.13	40.9	\$1.03	\$42.32	40.3	\$1.05	\$49.77	39.5	\$1.26	\$91.66	
1967: Average	64.21	98.77	80.73	43.52	40.3	1.08	43.27	39.7	1.09	50.57	38.9	1.30	99.48	
1958: March	65.53	95.65	82.60	44.29	39.9	1.11	43.68	39.0	1.12	49.53	38.1	1.30	97.84	
April	65.60	98.64	82.38	44.29	39.9	1.11	44.30	39.2	1.13	50.70	38.7	1.31	95.43	
May	65.72	103.60	82.59	44.80	40.0	1.12	44.75	39.6	1.13	52.40	39.7	1.32	96.26	
June	65.66	105.42	82.86	45.31	40.1	1.13	45.37	39.8	1.14	53.47	39.9	1.34	96.55	
July	65.93	106.21	83.00	45.60	40.0	1.14	45.26	39.7	1.14	51.07	38.4	1.33	97.10	
August	65.80	107.55	83.49	44.91	40.1	1.12	44.80	39.3	1.14	49.48	37.2	1.33	97.67	
September	65.98	108.04	83.19	45.09	39.9	1.13	44.80	39.3	1.14	51.34	38.6	1.33	100.62	
October	66.24	115.41	82.97	45.65	40.4	1.13	44.92	39.4	1.14	52.80	39.4	1.34	102.32	
November	66.54	121.46	83.45	45.49	39.9	1.14	44.23	38.8	1.14	51.86	38.7	1.34	101.44	
December	66.48	123.49	84.36	46.40	40.0	1.16	44.69	39.2	1.14	51.32	38.3	1.34	104.29	
1959: January	66.71	122.71	84.59	45.66	39.7	1.15	45.20	39.3	1.15	51.98	38.5	1.35	101.29	
February	66.97	124.46	84.95	46.28	39.9	1.16	44.85	39.0	1.15	50.49	37.4	1.35	103.23	
March	67.45	120.32	85.05	46.17	39.8	1.16	45.82	39.5	1.16	51.82	38.1	1.36	104.98	

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to August 1958 and coverage of these series, see footnote 1, table A-2.

In addition, hours and earnings data for anthracite mining have been revised from January 1953 and are not comparable with those published in issues prior to August 1958.

For mining, manufacturing, laundries, and cleaning and dyeing plants data, refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; and for the remaining industries, unless otherwise noted, to nonsupervisory workers and working supervisors.

Data for the latest month are preliminary.

² Italicized titles which follow are components of this industry.

³ Averages shown for 1956 are not strictly comparable with those for later years.

⁴ Data beginning with January 1958 are not strictly comparable with those shown for earlier years.

⁵ Figures for Class I railroads (excluding switching and terminal companies) are based upon monthly data summarized in the M-300 report by the Interstate Commerce Commission and relate to all employees who received pay during the month, except executives, officials, and staff assistants (ICC Group I).

⁶ Data relate to employees in such occupations in the telephone industry as switchboard operators, service assistants, operating-room instructors, and pay-station attendants. In 1957, such employees made up 39 percent of the total number of nonsupervisory employees in establishments reporting hours and earnings data.

⁷ Data relate to employees in such occupations in the telephone industry as central office craftsmen; installation and exchange repair craftsmen; line, cable, and conduit craftsmen; and laborers. In 1957, such employees made up 29 percent of the total number of nonsupervisory employees in establishments reporting hours and earnings data.

⁸ Data relate to domestic nonsupervisory employees except messengers.

⁹ Average weekly hours and average hourly earnings data are not available.

¹⁰ Money payments only; additional value of board, room, uniforms, and tips not included.

NOTE: For a description of these series, see Techniques of Preparing Major BLS Statistical Series, BLS Bull. 1168 (1954).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics for all series except that for Class I railroads (see footnote 5).

TABLE C-2. Average weekly earnings, gross and net spendable, of production workers in manufacturing industries, in current and 1947-49 dollars¹

Item	1959			1958										Annual average	
	Mar. ²	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	1957	1956
<i>Manufacturing</i>															
Gross average weekly earnings:															
Current dollars	\$69.24	\$88.00	\$87.38	\$88.04	\$86.58	\$85.17	\$85.39	\$84.35	\$83.50	\$83.10	\$82.04	\$80.81	\$81.45	\$82.39	\$79.99
1947-49 dollars	72.14	71.14	70.58	71.17	69.88	68.85	69.03	68.19	67.39	67.18	66.38	65.43	66.06	68.54	68.84
Net spendable average weekly earnings:															
Worker with no dependents:															
Current dollars	72.65	71.69	71.20	72.10	70.93	69.80	69.97	69.14	68.46	68.14	67.29	66.30	66.81	67.57	65.86
1947-49 dollars	58.73	57.95	57.51	58.29	57.25	56.43	56.56	55.89	55.25	55.08	54.44	53.68	54.18	56.21	56.68
Worker with 3 dependents:															
Current dollars	80.18	79.19	78.70	79.60	78.41	77.25	77.43	76.58	75.88	75.55	74.68	73.67	74.20	74.97	73.22
1947-49 dollars	64.82	64.02	63.57	64.35	63.28	62.45	62.59	61.91	61.25	61.08	60.42	59.65	60.18	62.37	63.01

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to August 1958, see footnote 1, table A-2.

Net spendable average weekly earnings are obtained by deducting from gross average weekly earnings, Federal social security and income taxes for which the worker is liable. The amount of 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 been computed for 2 types of income-receivers: (1) a worker with no dependents; (2) a worker with 3 dependents. The primary value of the spendable series is that of measuring relative changes in disposable earnings for 2 types of income receivers.

The computations of net spendable earnings for both the worker with no dependents and the worker with 3 dependents are based upon the gross average weekly earnings for all production workers in manufacturing without direct regard to marital status, family composition, or other sources of income.

Gross and net spendable average weekly earnings expressed in 1947-49 dollars indicate changes in the level of average weekly earnings after adjustment for changes in purchasing power as measured by the Bureau's Consumer Price Index.

² Preliminary.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE C-3. Indexes of aggregate weekly man-hours in industrial and construction activities ¹

[1947-49=100]

Industry	1959				1958								Annual average		
	Apr. ²	Mar. ²	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1957	1956
Total.....	99.5	97.4	94.4	94.8	96.7	98.5	97.8	99.6	97.3	93.8	93.9	90.9	89.0	105.6	109.9
Mining.....	66.6	65.4	66.0	67.7	69.8	68.4	68.0	68.3	67.4	66.1	68.7	65.1	64.5	81.4	83.8
Contract construction.....	117.8	103.2	92.0	99.7	105.7	123.8	135.3	136.1	137.9	132.1	128.1	122.7	109.1	127.3	135.0
Manufacturing.....	99.1	98.7	96.6	95.9	97.3	96.9	94.5	96.5	93.5	90.2	90.6	88.1	87.8	104.1	108.1
Durable goods.....	106.7	105.2	102.1	101.4	102.3	101.2	96.0	98.6	94.0	92.0	93.7	91.3	91.6	112.9	117.3
Ordnance and accessories.....	323.4	329.3	320.2	327.4	330.1	317.6	297.0	305.0	293.5	295.1	300.9	297.9	303.9	339.4	378.8
Lumber and wood products (except furniture).....	74.4	73.1	69.3	70.9	74.5	76.3	80.0	79.8	77.4	73.6	76.7	70.3	66.2	76.6	88.1
Furniture and fixtures.....	104.4	105.8	105.4	104.2	105.3	105.3	106.4	105.1	100.7	91.9	92.1	88.7	89.0	103.9	107.7
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	103.3	100.3	94.5	93.6	96.4	98.6	97.9	101.9	99.3	95.6	94.9	91.0	88.9	104.5	109.6
Primary metal industries.....	105.2	102.1	97.4	93.9	92.4	90.0		86.3	81.9	80.6	81.1	77.1	77.2	105.4	110.6
Fabricated metal products (except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment).....	109.6	107.5	104.9	105.5	107.9	107.2	102.5	107.0	101.3	97.3	98.3	94.6	94.8	115.9	116.6
Machinery (except electrical).....	100.0	99.0	96.1	92.9	91.1	87.9	85.6	86.9	83.2	84.3	86.7	87.5	89.9	111.0	116.5
Electrical machinery.....	125.9	125.7	124.6	124.6	124.9	124.7	116.1	120.0	113.6	109.0	110.6	109.1	110.9	134.0	138.5
Transportation equipment.....	126.0	124.6	121.0	123.6	125.7	121.5	99.1	108.7	103.2	105.0	107.7	107.1	108.3	139.6	138.5
Instruments and related products.....	112.6	112.3	111.0	109.7	110.3	109.6	107.9	106.5	102.0	100.2	101.9	101.3	104.0	117.5	121.1
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries.....	96.1	95.4	93.7	91.0	94.4	99.3	100.9	98.9	93.6	88.0	90.9	88.3	88.6	101.2	105.9
Nondurable goods.....	90.1	90.8	90.0	89.4	91.2	91.7	92.6	94.0	92.8	88.0	87.0	84.3	83.3	93.7	97.0
Food and kindred products.....	77.2	76.1	75.5	76.9	82.2	86.2	91.4	98.1	97.0	89.2	84.7	73.7	75.4	86.4	90.6
Tobacco manufactures.....	65.9	68.1	73.0	76.0	82.7	82.7	92.1	95.8	84.1	68.3	69.1	67.1	66.1	80.8	86.4
Textile-mill products.....	74.1	73.8	72.9	71.7	73.0	73.7	72.9	71.8	70.6	67.5	68.0	65.3	64.5	74.7	80.6
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	102.2	105.3	105.3	100.8	101.3	100.3	100.7	101.2	101.1	94.1	92.4	91.3	90.5	102.0	104.1
Paper and allied products.....	111.3	110.8	109.6	109.5	110.3	111.4	112.0	112.2	110.3	105.5	106.4	104.0	104.5	113.9	116.4
Printing, publishing and allied industries.....	111.0	111.4	109.3	109.0	111.5	109.7	110.2	110.0	108.5	106.6	107.6	107.3	108.4	112.4	112.7
Chemicals and allied products.....	104.4	103.0	101.0	100.3	100.7	100.3	100.3	99.2	97.2	95.7	97.2	98.6	100.0	106.2	108.3
Products of petroleum and coal.....	84.4	84.3	80.2	83.7	82.4	83.9	81.6	85.0	84.3	85.5	85.8	84.5	84.1	91.1	93.8
Rubber products.....	98.9	106.6	104.0	102.8	104.3	100.0	99.4	96.2	92.1	86.1	86.3	82.7	83.0	104.8	106.7
Leather and leather products.....	87.7	92.8	95.1	94.9	93.3	89.5	85.9	86.8	88.8	87.2	84.8	78.3	75.3	90.8	93.9

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to August 1958, see footnote 1, table A-2.

² For mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers.

³ Preliminary.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE C-4. Indexes of aggregate weekly payrolls in industrial and construction activities ¹

[1947-49=100]

Activity	1959				1958								Annual average		
	Apr. ²	Mar. ²	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1957	1956
Mining.....		105.1	106.2	108.0	109.4	106.8	105.0	105.5	103.6	101.8	106.2	99.0	98.2	124.3	121.6
Contract construction.....		178.8	160.5	174.7	184.4	212.2	231.4	232.9	232.8	223.1	213.3	205.1	183.2	207.1	207.7
Manufacturing.....	166.5	165.1	160.4	158.2	160.4	158.4	152.5	155.7	150.0	144.8	144.9	140.9	139.6	162.7	161.4

¹ See footnote 1, table C-3.

² Preliminary.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE C-5. Average hourly earnings, gross and excluding overtime, of production workers in manufacturing, by major industry group¹

Year and month	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²	Gross	Ex- cluding over- time ²
	Durable goods															
Total: Manu- facturing	Total: Durable goods		Ordnance and accessories		Lumber and wood products (except furni- ture)		Furniture and fixtures		Stone, clay, and glass products		Primary metal industries		Fabricated metal products			
	1956: Average	\$1.98	\$1.91	\$2.10	\$2.03	\$2.19	\$2.12	\$1.76	\$1.69	\$1.69	\$1.64	\$1.96	\$1.88	\$2.36	\$2.29	\$2.07
1957: Average	2.07	2.01	2.20	2.14	2.34	2.28	1.81	1.75	1.75	1.70	2.05	1.98	2.50	2.44	2.18	2.11
1958: March	2.11	2.07	2.25	2.21	2.45	2.39	1.82	1.77	1.77	1.74	2.09	2.03	2.57	2.54	2.23	2.19
April	2.11	2.07	2.25	2.21	2.46	2.40	1.84	1.79	1.77	1.74	2.09	2.03	2.58	2.54	2.24	2.20
May	2.12	2.07	2.26	2.21	2.46	2.41	1.88	1.82	1.77	1.74	2.09	2.02	2.58	2.55	2.25	2.21
June	2.12	2.07	2.27	2.22	2.48	2.43	1.88	1.81	1.78	1.74	2.10	2.03	2.61	2.57	2.27	2.21
July	2.13	2.08	2.28	2.23	2.48	2.42	1.89	1.83	1.77	1.73	2.11	2.04	2.68	2.64	2.28	2.22
August	2.13	2.07	2.29	2.23	2.48	2.42	1.91	1.83	1.78	1.73	2.13	2.05	2.70	2.65	2.29	2.22
September	2.14	2.08	2.30	2.24	2.50	2.43	1.94	1.86	1.80	1.73	2.16	2.07	2.73	2.67	2.29	2.22
October	2.14	2.08	2.29	2.23	2.50	2.44	1.95	1.87	1.79	1.73	2.11	2.03	2.74	2.68	2.28	2.21
November	2.17	2.11	2.34	2.26	2.51	2.44	1.93	1.85	1.79	1.73	2.14	2.06	2.75	2.69	2.32	2.24
December	2.19	2.12	2.36	2.28	2.54	2.48	1.92	1.86	1.80	1.73	2.16	2.08	2.75	2.68	2.33	2.26
1959: January	2.19	2.13	2.35	2.29	2.53	2.47	1.89	1.83	1.80	1.74	2.16	2.09	2.77	2.70	2.32	2.26
February	2.20	2.13	2.36	2.29	2.52	2.47	1.88	1.81	1.79	1.74	2.17	2.10	2.79	2.71	2.33	2.27
March ³	2.22	2.15	2.38	2.31	2.53	2.47	1.91	1.84	1.81	1.75	2.21	2.12	2.81	2.73	2.35	2.28
Durable goods—Continued																
Machinery (except elec- trical)	Electrical machinery		Transportation equipment		Instruments and related products		Miscellaneous manufacturing industries		Total: Non- durable goods		Food and kin- dred products		Tobacco manu- factures			
	1956: Average	\$2.21	\$2.12	\$1.98	\$1.92	\$2.31	\$2.23	\$2.01	\$1.96	\$1.75	\$1.69	\$1.80	\$1.75	\$1.83	\$1.76	\$1.44
1957: Average	2.30	2.23	2.07	2.02	2.41	2.35	2.11	2.06	1.81	1.76	1.88	1.83	1.93	1.86	1.52	1.50
1958: March	2.36	2.31	2.14	2.11	2.47	2.43	2.17	2.13	1.84	1.80	1.93	1.88	2.01	1.95	1.59	1.58
April	2.36	2.32	2.14	2.11	2.47	2.44	2.17	2.14	1.85	1.81	1.94	1.89	2.01	1.95	1.65	1.62
May	2.37	2.33	2.14	2.12	2.49	2.45	2.18	2.15	1.84	1.81	1.94	1.89	2.01	1.95	1.66	1.63
June	2.38	2.33	2.15	2.12	2.50	2.46	2.19	2.16	1.85	1.80	1.94	1.89	2.01	1.94	1.67	1.63
July	2.38	2.33	2.15	2.12	2.53	2.48	2.20	2.17	1.84	1.80	1.94	1.89	1.99	1.92	1.66	1.63
August	2.38	2.33	2.14	2.10	2.55	2.48	2.21	2.17	1.84	1.80	1.93	1.88	1.97	1.89	1.59	1.55
September	2.39	2.34	2.16	2.10	2.55	2.49	2.22	2.17	1.85	1.79	1.95	1.89	1.99	1.91	1.50	1.48
October	2.39	2.34	2.15	2.10	2.55	2.48	2.21	2.17	1.85	1.79	1.95	1.89	2.00	1.93	1.52	1.50
November	2.43	2.36	2.19	2.13	2.63	2.53	2.23	2.17	1.86	1.81	1.96	1.90	2.04	1.96	1.60	1.58
December	2.44	2.37	2.20	2.14	2.66	2.54	2.24	2.18	1.88	1.82	1.97	1.91	2.06	1.98	1.65	1.62
1959: January	2.44	2.38	2.20	2.15	2.62	2.55	2.24	2.19	1.89	1.84	1.98	1.92	2.09	2.02	1.64	1.62
February	2.46	2.39	2.21	2.15	2.62	2.55	2.25	2.20	1.88	1.83	1.98	1.92	2.09	2.02	1.65	1.63
March ³	2.47	2.40	2.21	2.16	2.63	2.55	2.26	2.21	1.89	1.84	1.99	1.93	2.10	2.03	1.69	1.67
Nondurable goods—Continued																
Textile-mill products	Apparel and other finished textile products		Paper and allied products		Printing, pub- lishing, and allied industries ⁴		Chemicals and allied products		Products of petroleum and coal		Rubber prod- ucts		Leather and leather prod- ucts			
	1956: Average	\$1.45	\$1.40	\$1.45	\$1.43	\$1.94	\$1.84	\$2.42	-----	\$2.11	\$2.05	\$2.54	\$2.47	\$2.17	\$2.09	\$1.49
1957: Average	1.50	1.46	1.49	1.47	2.04	1.94	2.50	-----	2.22	2.16	2.65	2.59	2.26	2.18	1.54	1.52
1958: March	1.50	1.47	1.49	1.47	2.08	2.00	2.56	-----	2.27	2.22	2.72	2.68	2.29	2.25	1.57	1.55
April	1.50	1.47	1.50	1.48	2.09	2.01	2.55	-----	2.27	2.22	2.74	2.69	2.29	2.25	1.57	1.56
May	1.50	1.47	1.50	1.48	2.10	2.01	2.58	-----	2.29	2.24	2.72	2.67	2.30	2.25	1.57	1.55
June	1.51	1.47	1.50	1.48	2.11	2.02	2.59	-----	2.31	2.26	2.73	2.68	2.33	2.28	1.57	1.55
July	1.50	1.47	1.50	1.48	2.12	2.03	2.59	-----	2.33	2.28	2.76	2.70	2.35	2.28	1.55	1.53
August	1.51	1.46	1.52	1.49	2.13	2.03	2.60	-----	2.34	2.28	2.73	2.67	2.39	2.30	1.56	1.54
September	1.51	1.47	1.53	1.50	2.14	2.03	2.62	-----	2.34	2.28	2.76	2.70	2.39	2.31	1.58	1.56
October	1.52	1.47	1.53	1.50	2.14	2.03	2.63	-----	2.34	2.27	2.74	2.69	2.39	2.31	1.58	1.55
November	1.52	1.47	1.52	1.49	2.14	2.04	2.62	-----	2.35	2.29	2.77	2.72	2.41	2.33	1.59	1.56
December	1.52	1.47	1.52	1.49	2.15	2.05	2.65	-----	2.36	2.30	2.77	2.72	2.45	2.34	1.59	1.56
1959: January	1.53	1.48	1.53	1.51	2.16	2.06	2.63	-----	2.36	2.30	2.78	2.73	2.44	2.35	1.60	1.56
February	1.53	1.48	1.53	1.50	2.17	2.06	2.65	-----	2.37	2.30	2.85	2.81	2.43	2.33	1.60	1.57
March ³	1.57	1.51	1.53	1.50	2.17	2.06	2.67	-----	2.36	2.30	2.87	2.81	2.46	2.35	1.60	1.57

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to August 1958, see footnote 1, table A-2.

² Derived by assuming that the overtime hours shown in table C-6 are paid for at the rate of time and one-half.

³ Preliminary.

⁴ A average hourly earnings, excluding overtime, are not available separately

for the printing, publishing, and allied industries group, as graduated overtime rates are found to an extent likely to make average overtime pay significantly above time and one-half. Inclusion of data for the industry in the nondurable-goods total has little effect.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE C-6. Gross average weekly hours and average overtime hours of production workers in manufacturing, by major industry group ¹

Year and month	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime ²	Gross	Overtime
	Durable goods															
	Total manufacturing		Total: Durable goods		Ordnance and accessories		Lumber and wood products (except furniture)		Furniture and fixtures		Stone, clay, and glass products		Primary metal industries		Fabricated metal products	
1956: Average	40.4	2.8	41.1	3.0	41.8	2.9	40.3	3.3	40.8	2.8	41.1	3.6	40.9	2.8	41.2	3.0
1957: Average	39.8	2.4	40.3	2.4	40.8	2.0	39.8	2.8	40.0	2.3	40.5	3.1	39.5	2.0	38.9	2.8
1958: March	38.6	1.6	39.0	1.5	40.7	1.9	38.9	2.4	38.6	1.5	39.1	2.2	37.1	.9	39.2	1.6
April	38.3	1.5	38.8	1.4	40.7	1.9	38.8	2.2	38.0	1.3	39.0	2.2	36.9	1.0	38.9	1.6
May	38.7	1.7	39.1	1.5	40.6	1.8	39.6	2.6	37.8	1.3	39.7	2.6	37.3	.9	39.4	1.7
June	39.2	1.9	39.6	1.7	40.7	1.6	40.5	2.9	38.8	1.7	40.3	2.8	38.3	1.3	40.0	2.0
July	39.2	1.9	39.4	1.8	40.7	1.9	39.3	2.7	38.9	1.9	40.0	3.0	38.4	1.3	40.0	2.0
August	39.6	2.3	39.8	2.1	40.6	2.1	40.7	3.5	40.5	2.6	40.8	3.2	38.5	1.4	40.4	2.5
September	39.9	2.4	40.2	2.3	41.2	2.4	41.3	3.7	41.0	3.0	41.1	3.4	39.1	1.7	41.0	2.6
October	39.8	2.4	40.1	2.4	41.2	2.2	41.1	3.6	41.0	3.0	41.0	3.3	38.9	1.6	40.8	2.7
November	39.9	2.6	40.3	2.6	41.1	2.3	40.2	3.4	40.8	2.7	40.9	3.3	39.3	1.8	40.8	2.6
December	40.2	2.6	40.8	2.7	41.9	2.2	40.3	3.0	41.2	3.1	40.4	3.0	39.8	2.0	41.2	2.8
1959: January	39.9	2.3	40.4	2.3	41.5	2.1	39.6	2.9	40.3	2.6	40.2	2.8	40.0	2.1	40.5	2.2
February	40.0	2.4	40.3	2.4	41.1	1.8	39.5	3.0	40.4	2.5	40.4	2.9	40.4	2.3	40.4	2.3
March ³	40.2	2.5	40.8	2.5	41.4	2.0	40.6	3.4	40.5	2.5	41.0	3.3	40.9	2.5	40.7	2.5
	Durable goods—Continued								Nondurable goods							
	Machinery (except electrical)		Electrical machinery		Transportation equipment		Instruments and related products		Miscellaneous manufacturing industries		Total: Nondurable goods		Food and kindred products		Tobacco manufactures	
1956: Average	42.2	3.7	40.8	2.6	40.9	2.9	40.8	2.3	40.3	2.6	39.5	2.5	41.0	3.3	38.9	1.1
1957: Average	41.0	2.6	40.1	1.9	40.4	2.4	40.3	2.0	39.9	2.3	39.1	2.4	40.5	3.1	38.6	1.2
1958: March	39.5	1.6	39.1	1.0	39.4	1.3	39.4	1.2	39.2	1.8	38.1	1.9	39.6	2.5	37.1	.8
April	39.3	1.5	39.0	.9	39.3	1.2	39.5	1.1	39.0	1.7	37.7	1.7	39.7	2.5	38.0	1.3
May	39.4	1.5	39.1	1.0	39.7	1.4	39.2	1.1	39.1	1.7	38.1	1.9	40.2	2.8	38.7	1.6
June	39.6	1.6	39.6	1.2	39.8	1.5	39.8	1.4	39.5	1.9	38.7	2.1	40.7	3.1	39.7	1.8
July	39.4	1.5	39.3	1.3	39.6	1.5	39.7	1.3	39.2	1.7	39.0	2.2	41.2	3.2	39.6	1.7
August	39.4	1.5	39.7	1.6	40.0	2.1	39.8	1.5	39.5	2.1	39.4	2.4	41.4	3.2	39.6	1.6
September	40.0	1.8	40.4	2.2	39.6	2.0	40.3	1.8	40.1	2.4	39.5	2.6	41.6	3.5	40.1	1.3
October	39.5	1.8	39.9	2.0	40.0	2.5	40.4	1.8	40.3	2.6	39.4	2.5	40.9	3.2	39.6	1.0
November	39.9	2.1	40.6	2.2	40.6	3.3	40.7	2.0	40.4	2.6	39.4	2.5	41.0	3.4	39.2	1.3
December	40.6	2.2	40.6	2.3	41.7	3.8	40.9	2.1	40.4	2.7	39.6	2.6	41.0	3.2	40.1	1.9
1959: January	40.7	2.2	40.4	2.0	40.7	2.2	40.7	1.9	40.1	2.4	39.3	2.4	40.5	3.0	38.8	.9
February	40.3	2.4	40.2	2.1	40.3	2.3	40.5	1.9	40.1	2.3	39.4	2.4	40.0	2.9	38.5	.7
March ³	41.3	2.6	40.3	2.0	40.7	2.5	40.4	1.9	40.0	2.4	39.5	2.6	40.2	2.8	38.1	.9
	Nondurable goods—Continued															
	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		Leather and leather products	
1956: Average	39.6	2.6	36.3	1.2	42.8	4.6	38.8	3.2	41.3	2.3	41.1	2.0	40.2	2.8	37.6	1.4
1957: Average	38.9	2.2	36.0	1.1	42.3	4.3	38.5	3.0	41.2	2.2	40.9	1.9	40.5	2.8	37.4	1.3
1958: March	37.6	1.7	34.7	.9	41.4	3.5	37.9	2.5	40.7	1.9	40.1	1.2	38.0	1.3	36.2	1.0
April	36.6	1.4	34.5	.8	41.0	3.2	37.7	2.2	40.7	1.9	40.5	1.5	37.5	1.2	34.1	.6
May	37.3	1.5	34.8	.8	41.0	3.4	37.6	2.2	40.8	1.9	40.5	1.6	38.2	1.5	35.3	.8
June	38.4	1.9	35.0	.8	41.8	3.8	37.6	2.2	41.1	2.0	41.0	1.6	39.1	2.4	36.6	.9
July	38.6	2.0	35.6	1.0	41.9	3.9	37.6	2.2	40.8	2.0	41.0	1.9	39.1	2.2	37.4	1.0
August	39.2	2.3	36.4	1.3	42.5	4.4	37.9	2.6	40.7	2.1	40.4	1.7	40.5	3.0	37.3	1.2
September	39.7	2.5	36.1	1.3	42.7	4.5	38.0	2.7	41.0	2.2	40.7	1.8	40.8	3.0	36.7	1.2
October	40.1	2.8	36.0	1.3	42.7	4.5	37.9	2.7	41.0	2.2	40.2	1.5	40.7	2.8	37.0	1.4
November	40.3	3.0	35.8	1.3	42.5	4.4	37.9	2.5	41.2	2.1	40.6	1.5	40.7	2.8	37.5	1.4
December	40.2	2.9	36.1	1.3	42.4	4.3	38.4	2.9	41.4	2.2	40.2	1.4	41.9	3.8	38.5	1.6
1959: January	39.8	2.6	36.0	1.1	42.4	4.2	38.0	2.4	41.1	2.1	40.9	1.7	41.1	3.2	39.1	2.0
February	40.3	2.9	36.7	1.4	42.4	4.4	37.9	2.4	41.2	2.2	40.3	1.3	41.6	3.7	38.8	1.8
March ³	40.4	3.0	36.4	1.4	42.7	4.5	38.3	2.9	41.2	2.3	41.1	1.9	42.0	4.0	38.0	1.5

¹ For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to August 1958, see footnote 1, table A-2.

² Covers premium overtime hours of production and related workers during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Overtime hours are those for which premiums were paid because the hours were in excess of the number of hours of either the straight-time workday or workweek. Weekend

and holiday hours are included only if premium wage rates were paid. Hours for which only shift differential, hazard, incentive, or other similar types of premiums were paid are excluded. These data are not available prior to 1956.

³ Preliminary.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE C-7. Hours and gross earnings of production workers in manufacturing, by State and selected areas ¹—Continued

Year and month	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
	Minnesota—Con.			Mississippi						Missouri								
	Minneapolis-St. Paul			State			Jackson			State			Kansas City			St. Louis		
1958: January	\$87.78	39.4	\$2.23	\$55.54	38.3	\$1.45	\$62.25	39.4	\$1.58	\$78.29	38.6	\$2.03	\$88.69	39.7	\$2.23	\$86.76	39.0	\$2.22
February	87.19	39.2	2.22	55.50	37.5	1.48	63.52	40.2	1.58	77.71	38.2	2.03	86.86	39.1	2.22	86.51	38.8	2.23
March	87.03	39.1	2.23	59.10	39.4	1.50	64.74	41.5	1.56	77.68	38.1	2.04	87.24	39.1	2.23	86.26	38.8	2.23
April	87.18	39.1	2.23	58.67	38.6	1.52	65.94	42.0	1.57	77.55	37.8	2.05	87.25	39.0	2.24	86.43	38.6	2.24
May	88.51	39.4	2.24	59.80	39.6	1.51	66.01	41.0	1.61	78.61	38.2	2.06	87.63	39.1	2.24	87.45	38.9	2.25
June	89.89	39.9	2.25	60.10	39.8	1.51	70.38	42.4	1.66	80.41	38.8	2.07	89.90	40.0	2.25	89.59	39.3	2.28
July	89.66	39.7	2.25	59.19	39.2	1.51	66.67	40.9	1.63	81.05	39.0	2.08	90.85	39.8	2.28	90.18	39.5	2.28
August	91.29	40.2	2.27	62.27	40.7	1.53	69.66	43.0	1.62	81.73	39.4	2.08	91.29	40.6	2.25	91.02	39.7	2.29
September	92.20	40.3	2.29	63.04	41.2	1.53	69.54	42.4	1.64	81.83	39.0	2.09	92.85	40.7	2.28	90.95	39.4	2.31
October	91.85	40.0	2.29	63.08	41.5	1.52	69.12	43.2	1.60	83.46	38.9	2.10	93.91	40.5	2.32	91.11	39.8	2.30
November	92.66	40.1	2.31	62.47	41.1	1.52	68.00	42.5	1.60	83.78	39.0	2.15	98.19	41.3	2.38	94.27	40.2	2.35
December	94.01	40.5	2.32	61.80	41.2	1.50	67.72	41.8	1.62	85.79	40.1	2.14	100.34	42.2	2.38	94.69	40.3	2.35
1959: January	93.28	40.1	2.33	60.09	40.6	1.48	66.08	41.3	1.60	83.84	39.4	2.13	94.91	40.3	2.35	92.37	39.8	2.32
February	93.86	40.3	2.33	60.45	40.3	1.50	67.14	41.7	1.61	83.01	39.3	2.11	-----	-----	-----	91.78	39.7	2.31
March	94.41	40.5	2.33	60.35	40.5	1.49	67.88	41.9	1.62	83.64	39.6	2.11	-----	-----	-----	92.78	39.8	2.33
New Jersey																		
New Mexico																		
New York																		
New Mexico—Con.																		
New York																		
Albuquerque																		
State																		
Albany-Schenectady-Troy																		
Binghamton																		
Buffalo																		
Elmira																		
1958: January	\$89.46	42.2	\$2.12	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
February	82.82	40.4	2.05	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
March	89.89	42.4	2.12	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
April	78.99	39.3	2.01	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
May	82.01	40.6	2.02	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
June	84.23	41.7	2.02	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
July	88.10	43.4	2.03	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
August	87.78	41.8	2.10	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
September	87.15	41.5	2.10	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
October	90.52	42.7	2.12	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
November	83.82	40.3	2.08	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
December	92.88	43.4	2.14	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
1959: January	84.03	40.4	2.08	\$86.13	39.0	\$2.21	\$93.68	39.2	\$2.39	\$79.36	39.1	\$2.03	\$103.16	39.9	\$2.59	\$83.85	39.3	\$2.14
February	83.60	40.0	2.09	86.81	39.2	2.22	94.28	39.4	2.39	79.52	39.1	2.04	104.80	40.4	2.60	84.43	39.5	2.14
March	86.62	41.2	2.10	86.76	39.0	2.22	94.98	39.6	2.40	79.15	39.1	2.03	104.23	40.0	2.60	85.06	39.7	2.14

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C-7. Hours and gross earnings of production workers in manufacturing, by State and selected areas¹—Continued

Year and month	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	
	Washington—Con.			West Virginia						Wisconsin						
	Tacoma			State			Charleston		Wheeling-Steubenville		State					
1958: January	\$88.69	37.9	\$2.34	\$83.38	37.9	\$2.20	\$103.86	40.1	\$2.59	\$86.62	35.5	\$2.44	\$85.85	39.7	\$2.16	
February	89.15	38.1	2.34	84.29	37.8	2.23	101.79	39.3	2.59	88.18	35.7	2.47	85.13	39.5	2.16	
March	89.77	38.2	2.35	83.10	37.6	2.21	101.14	39.2	2.58	89.75	35.9	2.50	85.80	39.7	2.16	
April	87.66	37.3	2.35	83.03	37.4	2.22	103.88	39.8	2.61	90.27	35.4	2.55	84.81	39.3	2.16	
May	89.52	37.3	2.40	83.32	37.7	2.21	103.08	39.8	2.59	88.50	35.4	2.50	87.57	40.1	2.18	
June	91.68	38.2	2.40	85.57	38.2	2.24	105.67	40.8	2.59	92.72	35.8	2.59	88.31	40.5	2.18	
July	88.64	37.4	2.37	88.30	38.9	2.27	106.49	40.8	2.61	101.30	37.8	2.68	86.81	41.3	2.10	
August	92.88	38.7	2.40	87.91	38.9	2.26	104.00	40.0	2.60	100.44	37.9	2.65	86.79	40.6	2.14	
September	98.06	39.7	2.47	87.69	38.8	2.26	104.14	39.9	2.61	102.94	38.7	2.66	87.11	40.7	2.14	
October	96.19	39.1	2.46	87.85	38.7	2.27	103.95	38.5	2.70	103.35	39.0	2.65	89.11	40.9	2.18	
November	96.58	39.1	2.47	90.00	39.3	2.29	108.81	40.6	2.68	105.07	39.5	2.66	90.01	40.6	2.22	
December	96.36	38.7	2.49	91.18	39.3	2.32	110.03	40.6	2.71	103.33	38.7	2.67	93.02	41.3	2.25	
1959: January	95.12	38.2	2.49	90.40	38.8	2.33	111.52	40.7	2.74	103.47	37.9	2.73	93.08	41.2	2.26	
February	96.97	39.1	2.48	90.94	39.2	2.32	110.29	40.4	2.73	105.54	38.8	2.72	90.84	40.4	2.25	
March	97.54	38.4	2.54	92.59	39.4	2.35	111.38	40.8	2.73	106.08	39.0	2.72	95.47	41.8	2.28	
	Wisconsin—Continued															
	Kenosha			La Crosse			Madison			Milwaukee			Racine			
1958: January	\$90.59	38.8	\$2.34	\$85.68	38.6	\$2.22	\$91.26	38.8	\$2.35	\$93.17	39.3	\$2.37	\$90.71	39.6	\$2.29	
February	90.20	38.5	2.34	89.69	40.1	2.24	90.43	38.5	2.35	92.00	38.9	2.36	91.16	39.6	2.30	
March	91.52	38.9	2.36	89.46	39.8	2.25	90.68	38.5	2.36	92.95	39.2	2.37	92.19	40.0	2.31	
April	91.26	38.9	2.35	89.94	40.1	2.24	92.55	39.8	2.33	91.60	38.6	2.37	91.77	39.7	2.31	
May	107.45	43.0	2.50	88.52	39.5	2.24	91.42	38.9	2.35	95.31	39.7	2.40	92.81	39.5	2.35	
June	99.70	40.8	2.44	89.64	40.1	2.24	91.43	39.1	2.34	96.23	39.9	2.41	92.46	39.7	2.33	
July	94.71	39.5	2.39	89.32	39.9	2.24	96.31	39.7	2.42	95.36	39.7	2.40	91.66	39.7	2.31	
August	95.48	39.8	2.40	90.84	39.8	2.28	92.10	38.9	2.37	95.57	39.8	2.40	90.61	39.4	2.30	
September	95.07	39.7	2.39	89.08	39.2	2.27	95.78	39.1	2.45	95.96	39.7	2.42	92.02	39.6	2.32	
October	107.20	42.7	2.51	87.07	39.2	2.22	96.47	39.4	2.45	96.06	39.7	2.42	93.81	40.1	2.34	
November	99.63	40.4	2.47	88.00	39.4	2.24	100.88	40.4	2.50	96.71	39.6	2.44	93.39	39.8	2.35	
December	115.76	43.5	2.66	88.27	39.8	2.22	102.05	40.8	2.50	98.89	40.3	2.46	94.24	40.1	2.35	
1959: January	119.26	44.6	2.67	87.93	39.5	2.23	97.29	39.4	2.47	99.83	40.4	2.47	96.14	40.4	2.38	
February	101.30	41.0	2.47	86.58	38.9	2.23	93.59	38.1	2.46	98.79	39.9	2.48	95.37	40.3	2.37	
March	123.29	45.5	2.71	93.36	40.8	2.29	98.37	39.7	2.48	103.96	41.4	2.51	97.36	40.8	2.39	
	Wyoming															
	State			Casper												
1958: January	\$98.09	40.2	\$2.44	\$115.20	40.0	\$2.88										
February	92.40	38.5	2.40	111.04	39.1	2.84										
March	93.65	38.7	2.42	114.40	40.0	2.86										
April	96.43	39.2	2.46	116.64	40.5	2.88										
May	96.62	39.6	2.44	118.61	40.9	2.90										
June	94.77	39.0	2.43	118.49	41.0	2.89										
July	94.09	39.7	2.37	113.72	39.9	2.85										
August	94.89	40.9	2.32	113.72	39.9	2.85										
September	94.13	40.4	2.33	118.84	40.7	2.92										
October	89.72	39.7	2.26	112.12	39.9	2.81										
November	92.97	39.9	2.33	111.04	39.1	2.84										
December	94.60	40.6	2.33	112.22	39.1	2.87										
1959: January	96.32	39.8	2.42	117.56	40.4	2.91										
February	89.28	37.2	2.40	112.90	38.4	2.94										
March	91.37	37.6	2.43	112.86	39.6	2.85										

¹ These estimates are classified by industry according to the Standard Industrial Classification Manual issued in 1957 by the Bureau of the Budget, and are not comparable with data previously published. More detailed industry data on the new classification system are available from the cooperating State agencies listed in table A-5.

² Not available.

³ Not strictly comparable with current data shown.

⁴ Subarea of New York-Northeastern New Jersey.

⁵ The change to the 1957 Standard Industrial Classification has made it necessary to modify the time periods for which data are shown.

D.—Consumer and Wholesale Prices

TABLE D-1. Consumer Price Index ¹—United States city average: All items and major groups of items

[1947-49=100]

Year and month	All items	Food	Housing	Apparel	Transportation	Medical care	Personal care	Reading and recreation	Other goods and services
1947: Average	95.5	95.9	95.0	97.1	90.6	94.9	97.6	95.5	96.1
1948: Average	102.8	104.1	101.7	103.5	100.9	100.9	101.3	100.4	100.5
1949: Average	101.8	100.0	103.3	99.4	108.5	104.1	101.1	104.1	103.4
1950: Average	102.8	101.2	106.1	98.1	111.3	106.0	101.1	103.4	105.2
1951: Average	111.0	112.6	112.4	106.9	118.4	111.1	110.5	106.5	109.7
1952: Average	113.5	114.6	114.6	105.8	126.2	117.2	111.8	107.0	115.4
1953: Average	114.4	112.8	117.7	104.8	129.7	121.3	112.8	108.0	118.2
1954: Average	114.8	112.6	119.1	104.3	128.0	125.2	113.4	107.0	120.1
1955: Average	114.5	110.9	120.0	103.7	126.4	128.0	115.3	106.6	120.2
1956: Average	116.2	111.7	121.7	105.5	128.7	132.6	120.0	108.1	122.0
1957: Average	120.2	115.4	125.6	106.9	136.0	138.0	124.4	112.2	125.5
1958: Average	123.5	120.3	127.7	107.0	140.5	144.6	128.6	116.7	127.2
1955: January	114.3	110.6	119.6	103.3	127.6	126.5	113.7	106.9	119.9
February	114.3	110.8	119.6	103.4	127.4	126.8	113.5	106.4	119.8
March	114.3	110.8	119.6	103.2	127.3	127.0	113.5	106.6	119.8
April	114.2	111.2	119.5	103.1	125.3	127.3	113.7	106.6	119.8
May	114.2	111.1	119.4	103.3	125.5	127.5	113.9	106.5	119.9
June	114.4	111.3	119.7	103.2	125.8	127.6	114.7	106.2	119.9
July	114.7	112.1	119.9	103.2	125.4	127.9	115.5	106.3	120.3
August	114.5	111.2	120.0	103.4	125.4	128.0	115.8	106.3	120.4
September	114.9	111.6	120.4	104.6	125.3	128.2	116.6	106.7	120.6
October	114.9	110.8	120.8	104.6	126.6	128.7	117.0	106.7	120.6
November	115.0	109.8	120.9	104.7	128.5	129.8	117.5	106.8	120.6
December	114.7	109.5	120.8	104.7	127.3	130.2	117.9	106.8	120.6
1956: January	114.6	109.2	120.6	104.1	126.8	130.7	118.5	107.3	120.8
February	114.6	108.8	120.7	104.6	126.9	130.9	118.9	107.5	120.9
March	114.7	109.0	120.7	104.8	126.7	131.4	119.2	107.7	121.2
April	114.9	109.6	120.8	104.8	126.4	131.6	119.5	108.2	121.4
May	115.4	111.0	120.9	104.8	127.1	131.9	119.6	108.2	121.5
June	116.2	113.2	121.4	104.8	126.8	132.0	119.9	107.6	121.8
July	117.0	114.8	121.8	105.3	127.7	132.7	120.1	107.7	122.2
August	116.8	113.1	122.2	105.5	128.5	133.3	120.3	107.9	122.1
September	117.1	113.1	122.5	106.5	128.6	134.0	120.5	108.4	122.7
October	117.7	113.1	122.8	106.8	132.6	134.1	120.8	108.5	123.0
November	117.8	112.9	123.0	107.0	133.2	134.5	121.4	109.0	123.2
December	118.0	112.9	123.5	107.0	133.1	134.7	121.8	109.3	123.3
1957: January	118.2	112.8	123.8	106.4	133.6	135.3	122.1	109.9	123.8
February	118.7	113.6	124.5	106.1	134.4	135.5	122.6	110.0	124.0
March	118.9	113.2	124.9	106.8	135.1	136.4	122.9	110.5	124.2
April	119.3	113.8	125.2	106.5	135.5	136.9	123.3	111.8	124.2
May	119.6	114.6	125.3	106.5	135.3	137.3	123.4	111.4	124.3
June	120.2	116.2	125.5	106.6	135.3	137.9	124.2	111.8	124.6
July	120.8	117.4	125.5	106.5	135.8	138.4	124.7	112.4	126.6
August	121.0	117.9	125.7	106.6	135.9	138.6	124.9	112.6	126.7
September	121.1	117.0	126.3	107.3	135.9	139.0	125.1	113.3	126.7
October	121.1	116.4	126.6	107.7	135.8	139.7	126.2	113.4	126.8
November	121.6	116.0	126.8	107.9	140.0	140.3	126.7	114.4	126.8
December	121.6	116.1	127.0	107.6	138.9	140.8	127.0	114.6	126.8
1958: January	122.3	118.2	127.1	106.9	138.7	141.7	127.8	116.6	127.0
February	122.5	118.7	127.3	106.8	138.5	141.9	128.0	116.6	127.0
March	123.3	120.8	127.5	106.8	138.7	142.3	128.3	117.0	127.2
April	123.5	121.6	127.7	106.7	138.3	142.7	128.5	117.0	127.2
May	123.6	121.6	127.8	106.7	138.7	143.7	128.5	116.6	127.2
June	123.7	121.6	127.8	106.7	138.9	144.2	128.6	116.7	127.2
July	123.9	121.7	127.7	106.7	140.3	145.0	128.9	116.6	127.2
August	123.7	120.7	127.9	106.6	141.0	145.3	128.9	116.7	127.1
September	123.7	120.3	127.9	107.1	141.3	146.5	128.7	116.6	127.1
October	123.7	119.7	127.9	107.3	142.7	147.1	128.8	116.6	127.2
November	123.9	119.4	128.0	107.7	144.5	147.4	129.1	117.0	127.3
December	123.7	118.7	128.2	107.5	144.3	147.6	129.0	116.9	127.3
1959: January	123.8	119.0	128.2	106.7	144.1	148.0	129.4	117.0	127.3
February	123.7	118.2	128.5	106.7	144.3	149.0	129.8	117.1	127.4
March	123.7	117.7	128.7	107.0	144.9	149.2	129.7	117.3	127.3
April	123.9	117.6	128.7	107.0	145.3	149.6	130.0	117.7	128.2

¹ The Consumer Price Index measures the average change in prices of goods and services purchased by urban wage-earner and clerical-worker families. Data for 46 large, medium-size, and small cities are combined for the United States average.

NOTE: For a description of this series, see Techniques of Preparing Major BLS Statistical Series, BLS Bull. 1168 (1954).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-2. Consumer Price Index ¹—United States city average: Food, housing, apparel, transportation, and their subgroups

[1947-49=100]

Group	1959				1958								Annual average		
	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1958	1957
Food ¹	117.6	117.7	118.2	119.0	118.7	119.4	119.7	120.3	120.7	121.7	121.6	121.6	121.6	120.3	115.4
Food at home	115.3	115.5	116.1	117.1	116.8	117.6	118.0	118.7	119.2	120.5	120.4	120.5	120.5	118.8	113.8
Cereals and bakery products	134.1	134.1	133.8	133.9	134.0	134.0	133.9	133.5	132.9	132.9	132.9	132.8	132.7	133.1	130.5
Meats, poultry, and fish	111.5	111.3	112.6	113.8	113.0	113.5	114.6	115.8	117.7	119.2	118.3	116.6	115.9	115.1	105.2
Dairy products	112.9	113.8	114.0	114.1	114.3	114.5	114.5	114.1	113.0	112.4	111.7	111.8	112.5	113.5	111.8
Fruits and vegetables	123.6	120.7	121.2	121.7	120.1	121.1	121.0	120.7	124.9	131.9	134.3	137.4	136.6	127.1	118.6
Other foods at home ²	104.7	107.3	108.1	109.9	110.7	112.6	113.2	115.2	112.8	111.8	110.9	111.5	112.4	112.4	112.9
Housing ⁴	128.7	128.7	128.5	128.2	128.2	128.0	127.9	127.9	127.9	127.7	127.8	127.8	127.7	127.7	125.6
Rent	139.3	139.1	139.0	138.8	138.7	138.4	138.3	138.2	138.1	137.8	137.7	137.5	137.3	137.7	135.2
Gas and electricity	118.2	118.5	118.5	118.2	118.2	118.1	118.1	118.0	117.5	117.0	116.9	116.5	116.0	117.0	113.0
Solid fuels and fuel oil	138.7	140.3	140.0	138.9	137.0	135.8	135.6	135.2	133.6	132.3	131.7	131.6	134.2	134.9	137.4
Housefurnishings	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.2	103.6	103.5	103.4	103.6	103.3	104.0	104.1	104.0	104.0	103.9	104.6
Household operation	133.8	133.7	133.1	133.1	132.8	132.6	132.4	132.2	132.1	131.2	131.1	130.9	130.9	131.4	127.5
Apparel	107.0	107.0	106.7	106.7	107.5	107.7	107.3	107.1	106.6	106.7	106.7	106.7	106.7	107.0	106.9
Men's and boys'	108.0	107.8	107.8	108.0	108.4	108.5	107.9	108.3	108.3	108.5	108.8	108.9	109.1	108.6	109.0
Women's and girls'	98.9	99.0	98.8	98.7	100.2	100.6	100.2	99.6	98.5	98.6	98.5	98.4	98.2	99.1	99.2
Footwear	132.4	132.0	131.3	130.8	130.4	130.3	130.1	130.1	130.0	129.7	129.8	129.7	129.8	129.8	127.9
Other apparel ³	91.9	91.8	91.7	91.7	92.3	92.3	91.8	92.0	91.9	92.0	91.9	92.1	91.9	92.0	92.1
Transportation	145.3	144.9	144.3	144.1	144.3	144.5	142.7	141.3	141.0	140.3	138.9	138.7	138.3	140.5	136.0
Private	134.4	134.0	133.3	133.1	133.3	133.6	131.8	130.4	130.1	129.3	128.0	128.0	127.6	129.7	125.8
Public	192.6	192.0	191.8	191.8	191.8	191.1	190.4	189.8	189.5	189.5	187.7	186.1	186.1	188.0	178.8

¹ See footnote 1, table D-1.² In addition to subgroup shown here, total food includes restaurant meals and other food bought and eaten away from home.³ Includes eggs, fats and oils, sugar and sweets, beverages (nonalcoholic), and other miscellaneous foods.⁴ In addition to subgroups shown here, total housing includes the purchase price of homes and other homeowner costs.⁵ Includes yard goods, diapers, and miscellaneous items.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-3. Consumer Price Index ¹—United States city average: Special groups of items

[1947-49=100]

Year and month	All items less food	All items less shelter	All commodities	All commodities less food	Durable commodities ²	Nondurable commodities less food ³	All services ⁴	All services less rent ⁵
1947: A average	95.1	95.6	96.3	95.7	94.9	95.7	94.5	94.7
1948: A average	101.9	103.1	103.2	102.9	101.8	103.1	100.4	100.1
1949: A average	103.0	101.3	100.6	101.5	103.3	101.1	105.1	105.2
1950: A average	104.2	102.0	101.2	101.3	104.4	100.9	108.5	108.1
1951: A average	110.8	110.5	110.3	108.9	112.4	108.5	114.1	114.6
1952: A average	113.5	112.7	111.7	109.8	113.8	109.1	119.3	120.1
1953: A average	115.7	113.1	111.3	110.0	112.6	110.1	124.2	124.6
1954: A average	116.4	113.0	110.2	108.6	108.3	110.6	127.5	127.7
1955: A average	116.7	112.4	109.0	107.5	105.1	110.6	129.8	130.1
1956: A average	118.8	114.0	110.1	108.9	105.1	113.0	132.6	133.0
1957: A average	122.8	117.8	113.6	112.3	108.8	116.1	137.7	138.6
1958: A average	125.5	121.2	116.3	113.4	110.5	116.9	142.4	143.8
1958: April	125.0	121.2	116.6	112.8	109.6	116.6	142.1	143.5
May	125.1	121.3	116.6	112.9	109.7	116.5	142.3	143.8
June	125.2	121.4	116.6	112.9	109.6	116.7	142.3	143.8
July	125.4	121.6	116.8	113.1	109.8	116.9	142.6	144.1
August	125.6	121.4	116.4	113.2	109.9	116.9	143.0	144.4
September	125.8	121.5	116.4	113.5	110.3	117.2	143.0	144.4
October	126.0	121.5	116.4	113.9	111.2	117.2	143.1	144.5
November	126.5	121.7	116.6	114.5	112.8	117.1	143.4	144.8
December	126.5	121.5	116.3	114.4	112.9	117.0	143.5	145.0
1959: January	126.4	121.5	116.2	114.0	112.4	116.7	143.9	145.4
February	126.7	121.4	116.0	114.2	112.2	117.1	144.2	145.7
March	126.9	121.4	115.9	114.4	112.5	117.4	144.4	145.9
April	127.1	121.5	115.9	114.5	112.6	117.5	144.8	146.4

¹ See footnote 1 and Note, table D-1.² Includes household appliances, furniture and bedding, floor coverings, dinnerware, automobiles, tires, radio and television sets, durable toys, sporting goods, and from 1953 forward, water heaters, kitchen sinks, sink faucets, and porch flooring.³ Includes solid fuels, fuel oil, textile housefurnishings, household paper, electric light bulbs, laundry soap and detergents, apparel (except shoe repairs), gasoline, motor oil, prescriptions and drugs, toilet goods, nondurable toys, newspapers, cigarettes, cigars, beer, whiskey, and from 1953 forward, house paint and paint brush.⁴ Includes rent, gas, electricity, dry cleaning, laundry service, domestic service, telephone, water, postage, shoe repairs, auto repairs, auto insurance,

auto registration, transit fares, railroad fares, professional medical services, hospital services, group hospitalization, barber and beauty shop services, television repairs, motion picture admissions, and from 1953 forward, home purchase, real estate taxes, mortgage interest, property insurance, repainting garage, repainting rooms, reshingling roof, and refinishing floors.

⁵ Formerly all services less shelter for 1953 and later years; for definition of services, see footnote 4.

NOTE: Indexes from 1953 forward have been revised to reflect the distribution of shelter items, formerly included in "all services and shelter" now entitled "all services," among the appropriate commodity and service classifications.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-4. Consumer Price Index ¹—United States city average: Retail prices and indexes of selected foods—Continued

Commodity	Average price, ² Apr. 1959	Indexes (1947-49=100, unless otherwise specified)														Annual average	
		1959				1958										1958	1957
		Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec. ³	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1958	1957	
Other foods at home:																	
Partially prepared foods: <i>Unit</i>	<i>Cents</i>																
Soup, tomato ⁴11-oz. can	12.6	100.5	100.0	99.7	99.5	99.2	99.1	99.3	99.3	99.9	100.5	100.3	100.4	100.3	99.8	99.0	
Beans with pork ⁴16-oz. can	15.1	106.7	106.9	106.8	106.8	106.9	107.1	107.3	106.7	106.5	106.5	106.4	106.7	106.6	106.5	103.9	
Condiments and sauces:																	
Pickles, sliced ⁴15 oz	26.6	99.7	99.5	99.6	100.2	99.8	99.5	99.5	99.6	99.9	99.8	99.9	100.0	100.6	100.0	100.0	
Catsup, tomato ⁴14 oz	22.7	99.9	99.7	99.7	99.4	99.3	98.8	98.7	97.9	97.2	96.9	96.4	96.1	96.4	97.5	99.2	
Beverages:																	
Coffee.....(10)	141.7	143.6	145.0	150.2	153.9	157.8	158.4	159.2	164.4	167.3	168.9	169.9	171.6	166.2	187.4	187.4	
Tea bags ⁴package of 16	24.1	124.9	125.0	125.0	124.9	124.4	124.7	124.5	124.4	124.5	124.4	124.5	124.2	124.2	124.3	122.9	
Cola drink ⁴carton, 36 oz	29.4	130.1	128.9	125.1	125.4	125.2	124.4	123.8	123.8	123.1	121.9	121.7	120.7	120.8	122.2	118.1	
Fats and oils:																	
Shortening, hydrogenated																	
3-lb. can	88.8	84.4	84.9	85.6	87.8	88.4	82.2	88.1	88.2	89.2	89.9	89.9	90.9	91.0	89.7	93.1	
Margarine, colored.....lb	28.0	73.5	74.4	75.7	76.0	76.2	76.0	76.1	76.3	76.2	76.5	77.3	77.7	78.0	77.0	78.5	
Lard.....lb	20.4	75.3	76.3	78.6	81.7	83.4	84.3	84.7	85.2	84.4	83.3	83.1	82.7	82.6	83.4	83.8	
Salad dressing.....pt	37.9	100.9	100.8	100.6	100.6	100.9	100.8	100.8	100.7	100.9	100.7	100.8	101.0	100.6	100.8	99.2	
Peanut butter ⁴lb	55.9	114.0	114.0	114.4	114.6	115.4	115.7	115.7	115.9	115.4	113.7	112.5	111.5	111.0	113.2	109.8	
Sugar and sweets:																	
Sugar.....5 lbs	56.7	118.1	118.5	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.3	118.4	118.3	118.4	118.1	117.6	116.2	115.9	117.2	116.6	
Corn syrup ⁴24 oz	26.4	112.7	112.6	112.5	112.2	112.1	111.9	111.5	111.3	110.9	110.7	110.5	110.2	109.7	110.2	104.0	
Grape jelly ⁴12 oz	28.3	118.1	117.4	117.4	117.4	116.6	116.4	116.8	116.4	116.3	116.2	115.9	115.7	115.9	116.1	114.5	
Chocolate bar ⁴1 oz	5.1	114.0	114.2	114.2	114.1	114.3	114.2	114.4	114.3	114.2	113.8	113.2	109.6	110.3	100.4	100.4	
Eggs, grade A, large.....doz	48.0	68.9	77.5	80.0	83.3	84.4	89.9	91.4	98.5	87.2	82.5	78.9	81.1	84.5	86.5	82.2	
Miscellaneous foods:																	
Gelatin, flavored ⁴3-4 oz	9.2	107.4	107.3	106.9	106.4	105.7	104.7	104.3	104.4	104.4	104.4	104.6	104.3	104.1	104.4	103.0	

¹ See footnote 1 and Note, table D-1.
² Based on prices in the 46 cities used in compiling the Consumer Price Index. Average prices for each of the 20 large cities listed in table D-5 are available upon request.
³ Prices collected 1 week earlier than the usual week containing the 15th.
⁴ December 1952=100.
⁵ Not available.
⁶ 10 months' average.
⁷ 11 months' average.
⁸ May 1953=100.
⁹ Priced only in season.
¹⁰ January 1953=100.
¹¹ 7 months' average.

¹² July 1953=100.
¹³ 3 months' average.
¹⁴ April 1953=100.
¹⁵ 2 months' average.
¹⁶ 4 months' average.
¹⁷ 5 months' average.
¹⁸ June 1953=100.
¹⁹ Price of 1-lb. can, 78.1 cents. Price of 1-lb. bag, 61.5 cents (priced only in chain stores and large supermarkets).

NOTE: March average prices available upon request.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-5. Consumer Price Index ¹—All items indexes, by city

[1947-49=100]

City	1959					1958								Annual average	
	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1958	1957
United States city average ¹	123.9	123.7	123.7	123.8	123.7	123.9	123.7	123.7	123.7	123.9	123.7	123.6	123.5	123.5	120.2
Atlanta, Ga.....	(3)	124.3	(3)	(3)	124.4	(3)	(3)	124.6	(3)	(3)	124.9	(3)	(3)	124.5	121.4
Baltimore, Md.....	(3)	126.4	(3)	(3)	125.5	(3)	(3)	124.8	(3)	(3)	124.8	(3)	(3)	124.5	121.0
Boston, Mass.....	125.1	(3)	(3)	125.4	(3)	(3)	125.4	(3)	(3)	125.4	(3)	(3)	124.5	124.8	121.2
Chicago, Ill.....	127.4	127.2	127.1	127.1	127.0	127.4	127.3	127.4	126.9	127.6	127.5	127.0	127.0	127.0	123.3
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	(3)	122.2	(3)	(3)	122.4	(3)	(3)	122.5	(3)	(3)	122.7	(3)	(3)	122.3	119.6
Cleveland, Ohio.....	(3)	(3)	124.8	(3)	(3)	124.5	(3)	(3)	125.1	(3)	(3)	125.0	(3)	124.8	122.1
Detroit, Mich.....	123.5	123.2	123.3	123.3	123.3	123.4	123.3	123.8	123.7	124.3	124.2	124.3	124.4	123.9	122.2
Houston, Tex.....	(3)	(3)	124.1	(3)	(3)	124.2	(3)	(3)	124.0	(3)	(3)	123.7	(3)	123.6	121.5
Kansas City, Mo.....	125.5	(3)	(3)	124.5	(3)	(3)	124.9	(3)	(3)	124.8	(3)	(3)	123.7	124.1	121.1
Los Angeles, Calif.....	126.6	126.6	126.7	126.5	126.5	126.5	125.9	126.0	125.5	125.7	125.5	125.2	125.6	125.4	121.2
Minneapolis, Minn.....	125.1	(3)	(3)	125.3	(3)	(3)	124.5	(3)	(3)	124.9	(3)	(3)	124.1	124.3	121.1
New York, N.Y.....	122.0	121.7	121.7	121.8	121.3	121.7	121.5	121.4	121.1	121.1	121.0	121.1	121.2	121.1	117.6
Philadelphia, Pa.....	123.6	123.4	123.3	123.4	123.5	123.5	123.3	123.4	123.4	123.3	123.0	122.9	122.9	123.1	120.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	124.5	(3)	(3)	124.4	(3)	(3)	124.5	(3)	(3)	124.7	(3)	(3)	123.8	124.0	120.2
Portland, Ore.....	125.3	(3)	(3)	124.2	(3)	(3)	124.5	(3)	(3)	124.7	(3)	(3)	125.0	124.4	121.7
St. Louis, Mo.....	(3)	126.0	(3)	(3)	125.7	(3)	(3)	125.3	(3)	(3)	124.5	(3)	(3)	124.7	121.2
San Francisco, Calif.....	(3)	129.0	(3)	(3)	127.9	(3)	(3)	128.4	(3)	(3)	128.0	(3)	(3)	127.5	123.1
Scranton, Pa.....	(3)	(3)	120.3	(3)	(3)	120.7	(3)	(3)	120.4	(3)	(3)	120.7	(3)	120.2	116.9
Seattle, Wash.....	(3)	(3)	126.9	(3)	(3)	126.0	(3)	(3)	126.3	(3)	(3)	126.1	(3)	125.8	123.1
Washington, D.C.....	(3)	(3)	121.3	(3)	(3)	121.5	(3)	(3)	121.2	(3)	(3)	121.3	(3)	121.1	118.3

¹ See footnote 1 and Note, table D-1. Indexes measure time-to-time changes in prices of goods and services purchased by urban wage-earner and clerical-worker families. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than in another.
² Average of 46 cities.

³ Indexes are computed monthly for 5 cities and once every 3 months on a rotating cycle for 15 other cities.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-6. Consumer Price Index¹—Food and its subgroups, by city
[1947-49=100]

City	Total food ²			Food at home								
				Total food at home			Cereals and bakery products			Meats, poultry, and fish		
	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958
United States city average ³	117.6	117.7	121.6	115.3	115.5	120.5	134.1	134.1	132.7	111.5	111.3	115.9
Atlanta, Ga.....	115.7	114.9	119.4	114.1	113.4	119.2	125.5	125.8	126.3	114.5	113.0	119.3
Baltimore, Md.....	117.3	117.2	122.5	113.9	113.9	120.0	128.6	128.3	128.4	111.8	110.8	115.2
Boston, Mass.....	117.3	118.3	120.4	113.9	115.1	119.0	132.4	132.2	131.0	112.7	113.4	114.2
Chicago, Ill.....	115.2	115.4	118.4	112.5	112.7	116.5	129.5	129.6	124.4	104.8	104.3	108.3
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	118.1	117.8	123.3	115.4	115.0	122.0	133.4	133.5	132.5	110.6	110.0	117.2
Cleveland, Ohio.....	114.3	114.2	118.5	111.8	111.7	117.0	128.9	129.3	130.1	105.6	104.3	110.9
Detroit, Mich.....	117.2	117.0	123.1	114.7	114.5	121.6	125.2	124.8	125.6	107.6	107.0	113.1
Houston, Tex.....	114.7	115.6	118.2	112.7	113.8	116.8	125.7	125.8	126.6	106.7	107.7	110.7
Kansas City, Mo.....	111.6	111.6	115.5	108.7	108.8	114.1	127.2	127.2	127.6	105.3	104.7	112.3
Los Angeles, Calif.....	123.1	123.4	125.2	118.7	119.2	122.3	146.1	146.0	141.3	111.1	110.8	116.4
Minneapolis, Minn.....	118.1	(4)	120.0	115.0	(4)	119.1	134.5	(4)	134.3	107.6	(4)	109.3
New York, N.Y.....	119.5	119.3	122.1	116.8	116.9	120.5	141.6	142.4	137.7	113.8	114.8	116.6
Philadelphia, Pa.....	120.2	120.4	123.4	117.3	117.6	121.4	138.7	138.7	133.8	113.8	112.4	116.5
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	118.7	118.8	122.7	116.9	117.4	121.7	132.9	133.0	130.7	110.6	110.5	114.1
Portland, Ore.....	119.2	119.4	121.2	116.9	117.4	120.4	140.4	140.3	135.3	114.4	114.9	117.0
St. Louis, Mo.....	118.7	118.7	122.1	114.0	114.0	118.9	124.5	124.8	125.5	106.4	106.8	113.2
San Francisco, Calif.....	122.2	122.8	124.1	120.1	120.9	123.1	147.2	147.3	141.0	116.2	115.8	120.4
Scranton, Pa.....	114.4	114.8	119.7	113.7	114.2	120.1	135.9	136.0	135.3	112.6	111.4	116.8
Seattle, Wash.....	120.2	119.6	122.5	118.4	117.9	122.6	146.7	145.6	142.0	113.7	112.4	116.7
Washington, D.C.....	118.5	118.9	123.2	115.8	116.3	122.0	132.2	132.0	132.1	112.2	112.6	115.5

City	Food at home—Continued								
	Dairy products			Fruits and vegetables			Other foods at home ⁵		
	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958	Apr. 1959	Mar. 1959	Apr. 1958
United States city average ³	112.9	113.8	112.5	123.6	120.7	136.6	104.7	107.3	112.4
Atlanta, Ga.....	113.8	114.0	113.9	125.7	121.8	137.7	99.7	100.8	105.7
Baltimore, Md.....	116.9	117.2	117.3	116.6	113.6	132.0	103.4	106.5	113.2
Boston, Mass.....	110.9	115.6	113.9	117.8	117.2	133.5	101.0	102.3	107.9
Chicago, Ill.....	113.4	113.3	111.1	121.0	119.1	132.0	108.8	111.9	117.6
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	112.4	112.5	116.0	124.1	120.1	136.7	108.0	110.0	116.3
Cleveland, Ohio.....	110.3	110.4	107.7	115.4	114.4	127.3	108.0	110.3	115.9
Detroit, Mich.....	108.1	108.4	110.2	133.8	129.6	148.6	104.4	107.1	114.3
Houston, Tex.....	113.5	113.7	112.6	125.8	124.8	131.7	102.4	106.2	110.5
Kansas City, Mo.....	107.9	108.0	98.7	115.5	112.8	129.0	97.2	100.6	106.4
Los Angeles, Calif.....	110.9	110.8	108.5	133.7	133.4	142.2	106.6	109.3	112.8
Minneapolis, Minn.....	104.8	(4)	104.7	132.2	(4)	141.9	110.3	(4)	119.5
New York, N.Y.....	115.1	117.7	114.0	120.6	113.3	132.0	105.1	107.7	111.8
Philadelphia, Pa.....	116.2	118.4	115.6	123.5	122.1	135.4	103.1	105.7	111.9
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	114.5	117.2	114.5	121.3	118.4	136.2	114.4	116.9	121.8
Portland, Ore.....	117.3	117.3	117.0	119.2	118.9	128.2	106.3	107.8	113.5
St. Louis, Mo.....	105.6	105.8	101.6	132.1	127.0	140.3	111.5	114.3	119.5
San Francisco, Calif.....	115.4	116.9	113.9	132.3	131.6	139.9	105.3	108.4	110.8
Scranton, Pa.....	110.5	113.2	110.8	115.1	113.3	133.4	101.4	104.3	110.7
Seattle, Wash.....	116.0	115.4	118.5	128.4	126.4	140.1	103.7	105.5	109.4
Washington, D.C.....	117.5	117.7	118.0	119.2	117.5	136.2	105.6	108.1	114.3

¹ See footnote 1, table D-1.² See footnote 2, table D-2.³ Average of 46 cities.⁴ Insufficient data, owing to work stoppage in food stores.⁵ See footnotes, table D-2.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-10. Indexes of wholesale prices, by stage of processing¹

[1947-49=100]

Commodity group	1959				1958									Annual average	
	Apr. ²	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1958 ²	1957
All commodities.....	120.0	119.6	119.5	119.5	119.2	119.2	119.0	119.1	119.1	119.2	119.2	119.5	119.3	119.2	117.6
Crude materials for further processing.....	99.6	98.9	98.0	98.1	97.0	98.4	98.0	98.4	99.1	100.0	100.7	101.7	100.3	99.4	97.2
Crude foodstuffs and feedstuffs.....	91.1	³ 89.8	89.0	89.7	88.4	89.9	89.3	90.7	92.1	94.3	95.7	97.7	95.4	92.8	87.7
Crude nonfood materials except fuel.....	112.6	112.7	111.3	110.5	110.1	111.2	111.1	109.6	109.3	107.7	107.0	106.7	106.3	108.4	112.5
Crude nonfood materials, except fuel, for manufacturing.....	111.2	³ 111.3	109.8	109.0	108.6	109.8	109.7	108.1	107.8	106.0	105.2	104.1	104.4	106.8	111.5
Crude nonfood materials, except fuel, for construction.....	140.2	140.2	140.2	140.2	139.2	139.1	139.1	139.1	139.1	139.0	138.9	139.0	138.9	139.0	136.0
Crude fuel.....	121.1	125.4	126.4	126.1	123.5	123.0	123.1	121.8	120.6	118.8	118.2	117.9	117.9	121.2	119.7
Crude fuel for manufacturing.....	120.6	124.9	125.9	125.7	123.1	122.6	122.7	121.4	120.3	118.5	117.9	117.6	117.7	120.9	119.4
Crude fuel for nonmanufacturing industry.....	121.8	126.3	127.2	126.7	124.1	123.6	123.7	122.3	121.1	119.2	118.5	118.3	118.3	121.8	120.1
Intermediate materials, supplies, and components.....	127.1	126.7	126.5	126.3	126.3	125.7	125.4	125.4	125.3	125.0	124.7	124.9	125.1	125.3	125.1
Intermediate materials and components for manufacturing.....	128.6	128.2	128.0	127.7	127.8	127.8	127.6	127.3	127.2	126.7	126.9	126.8	126.9	127.2	126.9
Intermediate materials for food manufacturing.....	97.4	97.7	98.5	99.2	100.4	101.2	101.4	101.5	101.0	102.6	103.4	103.5	103.2	102.2	99.9
Intermediate materials for nondurable manufacturing.....	106.4	105.2	104.8	104.5	104.5	104.3	104.2	104.1	104.2	104.3	104.5	104.6	105.0	104.7	105.7
Intermediate materials for durable manufacturing.....	157.7	157.6	157.1	156.6	156.6	156.6	156.2	155.4	155.0	152.9	152.9	152.9	152.9	154.3	153.2
Components for manufacturing.....	150.9	151.1	151.0	150.8	150.7	150.7	150.2	149.8	149.5	149.5	149.4	149.0	148.5	149.5	148.3
Materials and components for construction.....	136.4	135.7	135.3	134.5	134.2	134.1	134.2	133.7	132.7	132.1	132.1	132.0	131.8	132.9	132.9
Processed fuels and lubricants.....	107.4	107.4	106.8	105.9	105.6	105.4	105.6	107.7	107.6	106.0	105.0	104.6	105.4	106.5	113.0
Processed fuels and lubricants for manufacturing industry.....	106.6	106.6	106.2	105.3	105.0	104.8	104.9	106.6	106.5	105.1	104.5	104.2	105.0	105.8	111.2
Containers, nonreturnable.....	108.8	108.7	108.0	106.9	106.6	106.5	106.9	109.6	109.5	107.6	106.0	105.4	106.2	107.7	116.0
Supplies.....	136.7	137.8	138.0	137.8	138.7	138.0	137.9	137.7	137.5	137.4	137.5	137.5	137.1	137.4	134.3
Supplies for manufacturing.....	118.3	117.2	117.6	118.7	118.6	114.9	113.5	113.7	114.8	116.1	114.6	116.3	117.3	115.1	112.5
Supplies for nonmanufacturing industry.....	141.7	141.6	141.3	140.6	140.5	140.3	140.5	139.3	138.2	139.1	139.4	139.6	140.6	139.9	137.6
Manufactured animal feeds.....	107.0	105.6	106.2	107.9	107.9	103.0	101.0	101.8	103.5	105.0	102.9	105.1	106.1	103.4	101.1
Other supplies.....	82.0	78.7	80.9	85.2	85.6	72.4	66.9	69.5	74.0	77.7	71.7	76.9	79.8	73.0	67.6
Other supplies.....	121.6	121.3	121.1	121.1	120.9	120.9	121.0	120.7	120.9	121.0	121.2	121.6	121.6	121.2	120.7
Finished goods (goods to users, including raw foods and fuels).....	120.8	³ 120.6	120.7	120.8	120.5	120.6	120.6	120.9	120.6	120.8	120.7	121.0	120.9	120.8	118.1
Consumer finished goods.....	112.9	³ 112.7	112.9	113.1	112.8	113.0	113.3	113.7	113.3	113.7	113.6	113.9	113.7	113.5	111.1
Consumer goods.....	106.2	³ 105.6	106.8	107.8	107.6	108.5	109.6	110.8	110.0	111.5	111.6	112.5	111.9	110.5	104.5
Consumer crude foods.....	92.1	89.4	³ 95.3	95.1	95.5	97.8	100.6	100.6	94.1	95.7	93.2	102.4	105.9	101.0	95.0
Consumer processed foods.....	109.2	109.0	109.3	110.5	110.2	110.9	111.5	110.3	114.8	115.5	114.7	113.3	112.6	116.4	106.6
Consumer other nondurable goods.....	113.6	113.7	113.1	112.7	112.2	112.0	112.2	112.2	111.4	111.0	110.9	111.1	111.1	111.7	112.4
Consumer durable goods.....	126.5	³ 126.5	126.4	126.4	126.1	126.0	125.0	124.6	124.7	124.7	124.7	124.8	124.8	125.0	123.3
Producer finished goods.....	152.8	³ 152.8	152.4	152.2	152.0	151.6	150.3	150.1	150.0	150.0	150.0	150.0	150.0	150.1	146.7
Producer goods for manufacturing industries.....	157.7	157.6	157.2	157.1	156.7	156.3	155.0	154.8	154.6	154.6	154.7	154.7	154.7	155.0	151.2
Producer goods for nonmanufacturing industries.....	148.7	³ 148.7	148.4	148.2	148.0	147.5	146.3	146.1	146.2	146.0	146.0	146.0	146.3	146.4	142.9

¹ See footnote 1, table D-7.
² Preliminary. ³ Revised.

NOTE: For a description of these series, see New BLS Economic Sector Indexes of Wholesale Prices, Monthly Labor Review, December 1955 (p. 1448).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE D-11. Indexes of wholesale prices, by durability of product

[1947-49=100]

Commodity group	1959				1958									Annual average	
	Apr. ¹	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1958 ¹	1957
All commodities.....	120.0	119.6	119.5	119.5	119.2	119.2	119.0	119.1	119.1	119.2	119.2	119.5	119.3	119.2	117.6
Total durable goods.....	145.4	145.4	145.1	144.7	144.5	144.4	143.7	143.2	142.8	142.1	142.1	141.9	141.9	142.8	141.4
Total nondurable goods.....	106.2	³ 105.6	105.5	105.7	105.4	105.5	105.6	106.1	106.2	106.8	106.8	107.3	107.1	106.4	104.7
Durable manufactures.....	125.8	³ 125.5	125.3	125.2	125.1	124.8	124.5	124.6	124.6	124.6	124.5	124.5	124.5	124.5	123.2
Nondurable manufactures.....	146.6	146.4	146.2	145.8	145.6	145.4	144.7	144.3	143.9	143.3	143.3	143.2	143.3	144.0	142.0
Total raw or slightly processed goods.....	109.4	108.8	108.7	108.9	108.8	108.4	108.5	109.1	109.4	109.8	109.7	109.7	109.6	109.2	108.4
Durable raw or slightly processed goods.....	100.6	100.1	100.2	100.3	99.5	100.6	100.8	101.0	100.6	101.3	101.4	103.1	102.6	101.6	98.9
Nondurable raw or slightly processed goods.....	109.7	116.2	115.5	113.4	111.7	114.4	113.7	111.5	111.7	106.8	106.1	102.9	103.1	108.3	122.3
Nondurable raw or slightly processed goods.....	100.1	99.2	99.3	99.6	98.8	99.8	100.0	100.4	100.0	101.0	101.2	103.2	102.6	101.2	97.7

¹ Preliminary.
² Revised.

NOTE: For a description of these series and data beginning with 1947, see Wholesale Prices and Price Indexes, 1957, BLS Bull. 1235 (1958).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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
1947-49 (average).....	3,573	-----	2,380,000	-----	39,700,000	.46
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
1950.....	4,843	-----	2,410,000	-----	38,800,000	.44
1951.....	4,737	-----	2,220,000	-----	22,900,000	.23
1952.....	5,117	-----	3,540,000	-----	59,100,000	.57
1953.....	5,091	-----	2,400,000	-----	28,300,000	.26
1954.....	3,468	-----	1,530,000	-----	22,600,000	.21
1955.....	4,320	-----	2,650,000	-----	28,200,000	.26
1956.....	3,825	-----	1,900,000	-----	33,100,000	.29
1957.....	3,673	-----	1,390,000	-----	16,500,000	.14
1958.....	3,694	-----	2,060,000	-----	23,900,000	.22
1958: April.....	275	375	110,000	160,000	1,250,000	.13
May.....	350	475	150,000	200,000	2,000,000	.21
June.....	350	500	160,000	250,000	1,650,000	.18
July.....	350	525	160,000	240,000	1,700,000	.18
August.....	300	475	140,000	250,000	2,000,000	.22
September.....	400	575	400,000	500,000	2,500,000	.28
October.....	300	525	450,000	525,000	5,250,000	.53
November.....	200	400	225,000	300,000	2,500,000	.30
December.....	150	300	60,000	180,000	2,000,000	.21
1959: January ²	225	325	75,000	150,000	2,000,000	.23
February ²	200	300	75,000	140,000	1,500,000	.18
March ²	250	350	90,000	150,000	1,000,000	.11
April ²	350	475	175,000	250,000	2,500,000	.26

¹ The data include all known work stoppages involving six or more workers and lasting a full day or shift or longer. Figures on workers involved and man-days idle cover all workers made idle for as long as one shift 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.

NOTE: For a description of this series, see Techniques of Preparing Major BLS Statistical Series, BLS Bull. 1168 (1954).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

F.—Building and Construction

TABLE F-1. Expenditures for new construction ¹

[Value of work put in place]

Type of construction	Expenditures (in millions of dollars)														1958	1957
	1959					1958										
	May ²	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Total		
Total new construction	4,595	4,172	3,792	3,475	3,666	4,024	4,448	4,745	4,751	4,707	4,548	4,347	4,000	48,980	48,115	
Private construction	3,160	2,918	2,698	2,500	2,610	2,887	3,119	3,184	3,172	3,153	3,082	2,959	2,752	33,947	33,988	
Residential buildings (nonfarm).....	1,867	1,714	1,530	1,369	1,448	1,605	1,741	1,764	1,732	1,708	1,645	1,559	1,421	17,884	17,019	
New dwelling units.....	1,430	1,340	1,215	1,070	1,150	1,260	1,330	1,340	1,315	1,275	1,205	1,125	1,015	13,405	12,615	
Additions and alterations.....	376	318	261	245	243	288	354	370	366	382	388	382	355	3,859	3,903	
Nonhousekeeping.....	61	56	54	54	55	57	57	54	51	51	52	52	51	620	501	
Nonresidential buildings ³	687	629	628	638	660	722	760	750	741	743	754	735	698	8,720	9,556	
Industrial.....	154	156	161	167	173	176	178	175	174	179	185	193	204	2,443	3,557	
Commercial.....	320	272	265	262	268	305	327	319	315	316	326	315	285	3,561	3,564	
Office buildings and ware- houses.....	159	146	144	148	153	163	167	165	167	169	169	169	165	1,986	1,893	
Stores, restaurants, and garages.....	161	126	121	114	115	142	160	154	148	147	157	146	120	1,575	1,671	
Other nonresidential buildings.....	213	201	202	209	219	241	255	256	252	248	243	227	209	2,716	2,435	
Religious.....	71	67	67	70	73	78	81	81	80	79	75	70	65	863	868	
Educational.....	41	40	41	44	47	50	52	53	53	52	50	46	43	567	525	
Hospital and institutional ⁴	46	46	47	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	52	51	51	610	525	
Social and recreational.....	41	36	34	34	35	39	42	44	43	42	41	37	32	424	311	
Miscellaneous.....	14	12	13	14	16	25	30	27	24	22	25	23	18	252	206	
Farm construction.....	143	124	111	101	98	100	114	134	161	173	169	160	146	1,600	1,590	
Public utilities.....	448	438	416	380	390	444	487	519	520	512	494	486	470	5,554	5,624	
Railroad.....	24	26	21	20	23	19	21	22	27	25	19	25	25	276	406	
Telephone and telegraph.....	67	71	70	64	60	66	71	79	75	71	76	77	81	903	1,068	
Other public utilities.....	357	341	325	296	307	359	395	418	418	416	399	384	364	4,375	4,150	
All other private.....	15	13	13	12	14	16	17	17	18	17	20	19	17	189	199	
Public construction	1,435	1,254	1,094	975	1,056	1,137	1,329	1,561	1,579	1,554	1,466	1,388	1,248	15,033	14,127	
Residential buildings ⁵	88	92	93	92	91	88	84	82	73	71	69	65	63	832	506	
Nonresidential buildings (other than military facilities).....	386	383	366	322	356	361	379	427	430	428	421	411	386	4,622	4,503	
Industrial.....	30	30	29	27	28	28	30	31	31	32	33	34	34	370	473	
Educational.....	226	228	219	197	223	227	229	259	259	259	262	257	239	2,877	2,825	
Hospital and institutional.....	38	36	34	29	30	32	37	41	40	39	37	34	32	401	350	
Administrative and service.....	53	51	48	39	42	41	47	55	58	55	49	46	43	530	439	
Other nonresidential buildings.....	39	38	36	30	33	33	36	41	42	43	40	40	38	444	416	
Military facilities ⁶	132	118	105	98	105	110	125	140	135	120	105	95	88	1,235	1,322	
Highways.....	545	405	295	265	285	350	485	630	645	635	585	545	455	5,350	4,971	
Sewer and water systems.....	121	115	111	96	105	109	117	124	130	133	128	123	118	1,388	1,344	
Sewer.....	73	70	68	60	66	69	72	76	80	81	77	73	69	837	781	
Water.....	48	45	43	36	39	40	45	48	50	52	51	50	49	551	563	
Public service enterprises.....	48	37	31	25	28	30	35	45	52	52	47	41	39	450	393	
Conservation and development.....	93	84	75	63	71	74	88	96	97	100	98	96	87	1,004	971	
All other public.....	22	20	18	14	15	15	16	17	17	15	13	12	12	152	117	

¹ Estimated monetary value of new construction put in place during the periods shown, including major additions and alterations but excluding maintenance and repair. These figures differ from permit-valuation data reported in the tabulations for building-permit activity (tables F-3, F-4, and F-5) and the data on value of contract awards (table F-2).

² Preliminary.

³ Expenditures by privately owned public utilities for nonresidential buildings are included under "Public utilities."

⁴ Includes Federal contributions toward construction of private nonprofit hospital facilities under the National Hospital Program.

⁵ Includes nonhousekeeping public residential construction as well as house-keeping units.

⁶ Covers all building and nonbuilding construction, except production facilities (which are included in public industrial building), and Armed Forces housing under the Capehart program (which is included in public residential building).

NOTE: For a description of these series, see Techniques of Preparing Major BLS Statistical Series, BLS Bull. 1168 (1954). See also Technical Note on Revised Estimates of Residential Additions and Alterations, 1945-56 (in Monthly Labor Review, August 1957, p. 973).

SOURCE: Joint estimates of the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics and U.S. Department of Commerce, Business and Defense Services Administration.

TABLE F-2. Contract awards: Public construction, by ownership and type of construction ¹

Ownership and type of construction	Value (in millions of dollars)														
	1959			1958									1958	1957	
	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar.	Total	Total
Total public construction.....	1,058.0	718.4	847.3	986.8	812.6	954.4	1,177.7	1,277.6	1,252.1	1,812.8	1,608.0	1,165.5	941.5	13,508.1	11,473.8
Federally owned ²	345.8	111.1	136.4	238.3	111.9	121.0	222.7	223.6	166.8	695.2	474.2	273.9	189.7	2,959.4	2,317.3
Residential buildings.....	22.7	7	3.2	2.2	7.8	22.7	86.4	115.1	42.4	101.3	52.4	29.2	33.0	592.0	406.2
Nonresidential buildings.....	110.3	37.1	73.4	87.7	39.3	41.5	28.3	54.6	44.8	239.8	184.9	122.8	79.0	987.7	776.5
Educational.....	.1	2.9	1.3	8.2	3.2	.8	.6	2.2	1.8	13.8	5.0	6.3	5.8	51.7	48.4
Hospital and institutional.....	(3)	3.0	12.6	22.4	3.4	.8	.1	1.2	.4	11.2	27.0	12.9	14.7	95.2	78.9
Administrative and service.....	56.0	4.1	10.3	15.9	10.8	10.4	6.9	1.2	14.0	37.8	29.1	24.7	16.2	183.9	148.3
Other nonresidential buildings.....	54.2	27.1	49.2	41.2	21.9	29.5	20.7	50.0	28.6	177.0	123.8	78.9	42.3	656.9	500.9
Airfield buildings.....	26.2	12.6	22.4	11.0	5.9	1.5	.4	11.9	9.0	63.6	37.7	38.1	13.9	196.7	98.9
Troop housing.....	4.0	1.2	5.2	1.3	1.1	4.3	1.8	5.7	3.9	36.2	22.5	8.0	4.0	89.3	60.9
Warehouses.....	2.1	.7	1.4	1.2	1.8	.1	.9	1.8	1.6	10.2	9.2	3.5	4.4	36.5	35.0
All other.....	21.9	12.6	20.2	27.7	13.1	23.6	17.6	30.6	14.1	67.0	54.4	29.3	20.0	334.4	306.1
Airfields ⁴	28.3	17.5	23.7	28.1	14.7	11.4	2.7	21.4	53.2	150.3	120.3	29.7	18.0	475.6	182.2
Conservation and development.....	106.1	46.4	19.2	51.5	17.0	29.4	23.2	23.3	6.1	133.1	73.9	68.5	28.5	475.2	563.8
Highways.....	6.5	.5	3.2	2.0	2.0	9.9	8.0	3.4	9.3	25.4	11.8	9.9	3.6	95.5	91.5
Electric power.....	54.0	1.7	4.2	31.0	26.9	1.0	18.2	1.9	6.3	13.9	13.1	3.4	16.6	137.8	140.3
All other federally owned.....	17.9	7.2	9.5	35.8	4.2	5.1	55.9	3.9	4.7	31.4	17.8	10.4	11.0	195.6	156.8
State and locally owned.....	712.2	607.3	710.9	748.5	700.7	833.4	955.0	1,054.0	1,085.3	1,117.6	1,133.8	891.6	751.8	10,548.7	9,156.5
Residential buildings.....	19.9	16.0	34.7	20.1	26.9	31.7	64.8	35.8	31.9	67.6	70.3	47.2	30.9	479.7	326.7
Nonresidential buildings.....	279.9	208.6	226.1	271.9	246.0	286.7	271.0	325.9	327.0	335.6	355.9	326.5	311.0	3,576.2	3,409.4
Educational.....	199.4	149.1	144.1	178.2	162.0	196.6	197.3	227.1	225.1	212.3	229.2	208.8	213.2	2,407.6	2,450.5
Hospital and institutional.....	38.3	29.7	15.1	20.2	14.4	17.3	19.6	31.4	36.7	55.8	36.4	32.5	37.3	334.5	287.1
Administrative and service.....	27.5	10.3	18.7	45.2	40.8	28.1	25.7	34.8	35.8	40.6	53.4	40.5	31.6	455.6	315.4
Other nonresidential buildings.....	14.7	19.5	48.2	28.3	28.8	44.7	28.4	32.6	29.4	26.9	36.9	44.7	28.9	378.5	356.4
Highways.....	273.5	249.3	320.5	343.6	336.3	387.5	420.2	519.0	525.6	461.0	418.8	365.5	291.4	4,489.3	3,825.1
Sewer and water systems.....	80.7	106.4	94.4	82.1	67.0	74.9	76.6	91.0	116.1	104.7	129.2	95.9	80.4	1,050.0	1,034.2
Sewer.....	56.1	52.5	51.4	56.2	51.8	50.5	49.3	66.9	77.3	74.5	73.1	66.0	48.9	708.2	619.4
Water.....	24.6	53.9	43.0	25.9	15.2	24.4	27.3	24.1	38.8	30.2	56.1	29.9	31.5	341.8	414.8
Public service enterprises.....	36.0	14.3	15.3	13.6	10.9	21.8	89.4	53.9	55.4	114.0	137.4	24.5	24.4	669.5	364.2
Electric power.....	9.4	7.4	9.5	8.8	6.1	6.0	69.4	21.2	18.9	84.2	107.3	12.1	6.1	450.0	200.1
Other.....	26.6	6.9	5.8	4.8	4.8	15.8	20.0	32.7	36.5	29.8	30.1	12.4	18.3	219.5	164.1
Conservation and development.....	6.1	6.0	8.0	10.9	5.8	12.5	12.0	12.2	9.0	17.1	6.4	15.7	3.4	123.3	112.7
All other State and locally owned.....	16.1	6.7	11.9	6.3	7.8	18.3	21.0	16.2	20.3	17.6	15.8	16.3	10.3	160.7	84.2

¹ Includes major force account projects started (construction done directly by a government agency using a separate work force to perform nonmaintenance construction on the agency's own property).

² Includes construction contracts awarded under Lease-Purchase programs which terminated with P.L. 85-844, approved August 23, 1958.

³ Less than \$50,000.

⁴ Beginning with January 1958, includes missile launching facilities which were previously included under "All other federally owned."

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics and U.S. Department of Commerce, Business and Defense Services Administration.

TABLE F-5. Building-permit activity: Valuation, by metropolitan-nonmetropolitan location and State ¹

State and location	Valuation (in millions of dollars)														1958 Total	1957 Total
	1959		1958										Total			
	Feb.	Jan. ²	Dec. ²	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	Mar. ²		Feb. ²		
All States.....	1,460.5	1,374.4	1,335.8	1,499.8	1,907.7	1,857.3	1,942.0	1,952.6	2,042.6	1,920.1	1,797.1	1,523.8	1,114.1	20,086.9	18,168.8	
Metropolitan areas ³	1,168.0	1,089.4	1,045.3	1,176.4	1,493.7	1,446.4	1,533.2	1,533.0	1,581.6	1,483.0	1,388.9	1,203.1	884.1	15,718.1	14,130.7	
Nonmetropolitan areas.....	292.5	285.0	290.5	323.4	414.0	410.9	408.8	419.6	461.0	437.1	408.2	320.7	230.0	4,368.8	4,038.1	
Alabama.....	21.5	21.4	16.7	16.3	21.1	18.8	23.9	22.8	25.3	20.8	18.2	21.1	16.6	236.8	190.6	
Arizona.....	25.8	27.6	24.6	18.3	26.0	23.0	39.9	23.6	25.5	33.1	20.5	23.6	19.9	292.2	224.6	
Arkansas.....	6.4	6.6	6.6	4.1	7.5	7.5	6.6	7.0	9.8	5.3	7.9	6.3	4.6	77.5	72.7	
California.....	299.3	293.4	269.6	240.4	301.2	298.7	313.8	373.2	340.4	308.1	275.0	318.7	208.8	3,500.6	3,055.5	
Colorado.....	17.3	24.5	25.0	27.4	26.3	25.5	27.4	27.9	34.8	37.9	25.6	16.1	24.3	313.0	261.9	
Connecticut.....	19.3	20.0	18.9	27.6	32.6	35.4	33.1	32.0	30.8	30.6	30.9	20.2	17.7	328.6	390.6	
Delaware.....	3.0	3.3	2.7	5.9	8.3	7.6	13.1	8.4	6.2	6.7	6.1	3.6	6.9	82.4	68.9	
District of Columbia.....	2.4	5.3	6.1	21.3	10.5	10.3	42.9	12.6	13.8	66.5	8.3	6.6	9.3	220.9	133.8	
Florida.....	87.9	80.3	73.9	65.0	93.0	81.6	76.7	88.9	78.3	84.1	83.3	69.6	83.5	948.0	948.0	
Georgia.....	37.6	30.3	28.4	28.4	24.3	26.4	23.7	24.4	25.8	27.8	36.6	27.3	19.6	321.3	252.4	
Idaho.....	3.1	2.4	2.9	5.0	4.0	3.9	4.5	4.6	3.5	4.5	5.9	3.9	1.6	45.5	38.2	
Illinois.....	61.1	54.9	66.9	115.8	122.9	115.0	105.5	130.0	233.0	136.2	112.9	110.6	54.0	1,362.6	1,240.0	
Indiana.....	18.4	17.9	21.9	28.8	40.6	43.3	33.3	33.2	33.1	33.4	33.7	30.4	21.3	375.5	419.5	
Iowa.....	8.9	8.9	10.0	15.2	26.3	20.5	36.9	21.6	19.3	18.5	16.8	17.4	3.9	212.9	160.5	
Kansas.....	12.4	8.3	9.9	12.5	15.8	14.3	13.5	12.7	11.3	12.6	14.6	10.6	10.0	149.3	134.8	
Kentucky.....	13.4	7.7	8.4	12.8	17.3	19.2	17.8	15.6	19.8	12.2	13.5	15.5	6.3	172.1	169.1	
Louisiana.....	22.7	23.0	19.0	21.7	29.4	35.1	34.6	26.6	29.3	29.6	21.0	31.2	17.3	327.3	250.5	
Maine.....	2.4	1.9	1.0	3.1	2.3	3.4	4.2	3.3	4.4	2.9	4.1	2.9	3.0	30.7	29.2	
Maryland.....	28.6	41.5	27.6	32.2	46.0	49.1	67.4	41.2	48.3	39.4	35.7	35.5	29.3	479.3	448.7	
Massachusetts.....	22.1	21.5	33.2	34.1	42.1	41.0	34.8	48.3	68.8	47.4	50.3	31.5	14.0	469.5	440.5	
Michigan.....	33.8	38.9	40.3	66.3	95.7	88.3	88.1	104.8	90.6	83.3	78.9	64.5	27.7	867.3	933.4	
Minnesota.....	16.5	16.3	22.1	29.3	55.6	54.4	40.8	45.6	39.8	51.6	60.4	22.1	14.1	449.8	390.7	
Mississippi.....	4.8	4.6	2.5	3.9	6.7	3.1	4.8	3.2	6.6	3.9	7.3	2.9	7.5	54.5	54.2	
Missouri.....	30.2	29.2	23.4	50.7	35.2	39.4	32.3	40.7	40.4	31.1	31.9	23.1	18.7	385.2	302.0	
Montana.....	1.1	1.2	1.5	3.9	4.0	3.8	5.6	4.0	2.9	4.5	4.7	1.5	1.4	38.9	35.1	
Nebraska.....	5.7	5.4	9.4	8.6	10.1	15.1	12.4	9.0	7.1	11.8	17.1	5.4	2.5	111.8	78.5	
Nevada.....	5.4	6.1	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.1	5.4	4.3	5.9	5.7	8.3	3.8	4.7	63.2	60.2	
New Hampshire.....	1.5	1.8	3.0	2.4	2.8	2.7	2.5	3.2	4.3	2.7	2.5	3.4	2.0	32.7	30.1	
New Jersey.....	43.0	40.6	46.6	63.9	77.0	73.3	62.8	75.0	65.6	80.0	76.7	62.6	27.8	763.3	727.4	
New Mexico.....	11.7	12.5	10.2	7.8	15.1	11.6	15.0	12.9	11.4	12.1	6.8	9.6	8.5	134.5	88.4	
New York.....	208.4	134.5	120.4	134.6	126.8	160.7	181.2	129.3	128.3	145.7	122.1	102.7	91.4	1,529.1	1,453.4	
North Carolina.....	18.5	18.6	15.7	20.1	17.1	20.1	19.6	17.4	20.9	26.3	22.7	17.6	18.0	231.7	194.3	
North Dakota.....	.3	.5	.4	2.9	5.3	6.4	5.3	4.6	7.9	4.6	5.6	1.6	.4	45.2	37.2	
Ohio.....	60.8	46.4	78.2	77.3	122.6	97.5	108.2	116.3	115.8	98.2	118.8	78.7	52.0	1,116.5	1,093.7	
Oklahoma.....	15.2	12.4	13.1	11.0	16.6	14.5	14.1	18.3	16.8	13.2	14.4	22.6	15.9	180.9	121.3	
Oregon.....	12.8	11.3	10.7	10.0	19.3	16.7	17.0	16.0	22.7	18.4	36.2	12.9	9.7	197.9	138.0	
Pennsylvania.....	51.7	54.1	39.9	54.1	67.2	62.3	73.3	66.2	74.8	65.7	68.6	47.7	35.2	697.5	749.3	
Rhode Island.....	2.5	3.0	3.0	4.7	6.9	5.2	4.3	6.2	7.4	4.6	4.5	3.7	1.6	55.0	48.8	
South Carolina.....	6.2	7.9	5.3	4.9	6.5	6.9	5.6	6.0	7.5	9.3	6.6	5.4	4.8	74.0	63.4	
South Dakota.....	1.5	1.4	1.9	3.6	4.2	4.3	3.3	3.5	2.4	3.6	4.1	3.4	.6	35.6	36.4	
Tennessee.....	19.5	17.9	17.1	12.8	19.3	21.8	17.9	23.9	20.0	24.5	25.8	15.1	22.7	233.0	179.3	
Texas.....	94.9	102.5	88.9	88.3	99.4	106.1	112.3	128.0	108.1	103.7	102.4	97.6	77.6	1,196.3	1,013.4	
Utah.....	8.5	5.9	12.4	7.1	11.3	10.3	15.7	15.9	16.3	16.7	20.8	14.2	12.4	159.4	113.5	
Vermont.....	.4	.2	3.1	.7	.6	1.3	.9	.5	2.7	.7	.6	1.1	.2	12.6	15.6	
Virginia.....	40.0	35.5	32.0	30.3	86.0	40.2	44.3	47.3	58.1	38.5	36.2	35.0	26.5	502.9	385.2	
Washington.....	30.5	40.5	30.4	25.6	43.1	55.9	45.4	36.6	37.5	45.8	34.8	28.3	34.3	440.4	335.3	
West Virginia.....	3.2	5.8	2.7	4.1	7.1	5.3	7.1	7.3	13.6	6.4	11.1	6.4	5.5	81.1	80.8	
Wisconsin.....	17.8	18.1	21.9	28.5	41.7	43.8	38.7	46.2	42.4	46.7	44.1	28.2	19.8	421.0	457.8	
Wyoming.....	2.4	1.5	2.0	1.8	2.4	2.6	3.5	2.3	3.1	3.1	2.0	2.9	1.8	29.0	21.1	

¹ See footnote 1, table F-3.² Revised.³ Comprised of 168 Standard Metropolitan Areas used in 1950 Census.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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