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FEDERAL RESERVE BANK OF PHILADELPHIA

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Time Deposit Policies of Commercial Banks

Although overshadowed for some years by the more spectacular expansion of demand deposits, time deposits of commercial banks not only have increased at an accelerated rate since 1943, but have grown at a faster rate than demand deposits. This recent development raises questions which are of importance to banks in appraising the future. Among these are:

- 1. The nature of the long-term trends influencing the present situation.
- 2. The attitude of banks toward time deposits.
- 3. The relationship between time deposits and loan and investment policies.
- 4. The place of time deposits in the existing inflationary situation.

These questions are particularly important to banks in the Third Federal Reserve District because time deposits, while still a more important segment of total deposits in this area than nationally, in recent years have exhibited trends quite different here than in other areas.

Long-Term Trends

Importance of commercial banks in the savings field

Over the first thirty years of the century, the proportion of all time deposits in the United States which was held by commercial banks in-

creased rapidly. Reasons for this development are not difficult to find: (1) mutual savings banks were confined to a relatively small number of states and few new ones have been chartered since 1900; (2) although the Postal Savings System was established in 1910, it apparently carried little appeal to the vast majority of individuals until after the stock market collapse in 1929; its greatest growth occurred during the banking troubles of the early thirties; (3) commercial banks were multiplying rapidly throughout the country and the growing familiarity of the public with such institutions led to greater use of their savings deposit facilities; (4) the certificates of deposit offered business concerns a means of earning additional interest on temporarily idle funds—a type of service not available at savings banks; (5) the lack of any maximum limits on individual savings accounts at most commercial banks; (6) the widespread practice on the part of commercial banks of not enforcing their legal right to demand notice before withdrawal.

Between 1930 and 1933 time deposits of commercial banks sharply declined as public confidence in the banking system deteriorated. Throughout the crisis deposits at mutuals remained higher than in 1929 and 1930, while postal savings deposits increased, becoming for the first time a significant part of our deposit system. As a result of the crisis the importance

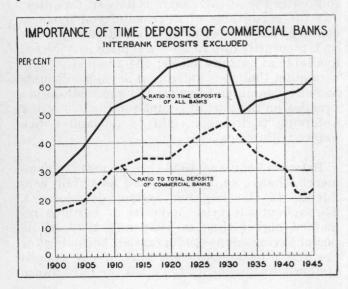
of commercial banks in the savings field decreased sharply, but after the "banking holiday" it again increased and has continued to rise since that date. At the present time commercial banks again hold well over 60 per cent of all time deposits, even though the Postal Savings System and mutual savings banks pay interest rates which are in general higher than those paid by commercial banks.

Importance of time deposits at commercial banks

The period prior to the first World War was one of rising interest rates and increasing demands for bank credit to finance expansion of American business. The high returns available on investments left attractive profits after paying interest to depositors, and stimulated commercial banks to compete actively for savings deposits. Interest paid on savings accounts by commercial banks in eastern cities ranged typically from 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, usually credited monthly. In some parts of the country, particularly in smaller towns, commercial banks paid even higher rates.

In the years from 1915 to 1920 time deposits continued to increase rapidly at commercial banks, but under the stimulus of war financing and postwar inflation, demand deposits expanded at a comparable rate. During the period of credit liquidation from 1920 to 1922, on the other hand, demand deposits contracted sharply whereas time deposits of commercial banks continued to increase moderately.

Although demand deposits again entered a period of expansion from 1922 to 1929, time de-



posits at commercial banks rose much more rapidly. In part, this rapid growth in time deposits was the result of influences similar to those prevailing before 1914, but two new factors were of great importance during this period; (1) the lower reserve requirements for time than for demand deposits; (2) the apparent attractiveness of high-yield assets, such as real-estate mortgages, in which it was considered appropriate to invest time but not demand deposits. Of the two, the desire to invest time deposits in less liquid assets at higher yields was the more important factor. Many banks actively encouraged customers to take advantage of the higher interest rates paid on time deposits by shifting part of their funds from demand to time accounts, pointing out that they did not make a practice of requiring notice if such funds should be needed later. The attractiveness of this policy is suggested by the rates listed in the following table:

AVERAGE YIELDS ON TYPES OF EARNING ASSETS, 1924-1928

More Liquid Assets		Less Liquid Assets
Short-term Governments Bankers' acceptances. Prime commercial paper Stock market renewal rate on call loans. Customers' loans in principal cities.	3½ 4¼ 4½	Bonds: Moody's Baa rating 6% Real estate mortgages: Interest and other charges 6-8

Banks that were impressed by a mere technical change in classification of their deposits, however, also were likely to be more impressed by yield than by quality in selecting individual investments within a given field. In the period of credit liquidation following 1929 many banks with large time deposits faced a serious dilemma. They had relied on the greater stability of time deposits and in large part invested them in nonliquid and perhaps even unsound assets. If a bank suddenly attempted to enforce its right of requiring legal notice before withdrawal, the innovation was apt to be interpreted as a sign of weakness and the bank might face long lines of time depositors clamoring to file withdrawal notices. Widespread loss of confidence in commercial banks played a dominant part in the decline of their time as well as their demand deposits in the later stages of the financial crisis.

In the decade following 1933 the ratio of time to total deposits declined almost constantly be-

cause of the more rapid increase in demand than in time deposits. Important reasons for a decline in the relative importance of time deposits since 1933 are to be found in the low interest rates earned on banks' loans and investments, and in the large excess reserves held by banks throughout most of this period. As interest rates fell to unprecedentedly low levels. some banks felt that any interest paid on time deposits left an insufficient margin of net earnings to make such deposits desirable, and attempted to withdraw completely from the savings field. Other banks reduced interest paid on time deposits by successive stages. commercial banks today offer more than 11/2 per cent, and most banks pay 1 per cent or less on such accounts. The steadily mounting volume of excess reserves in the later thirties and early forties made commercial banks even less enthusiastic in their competition for time deposits.

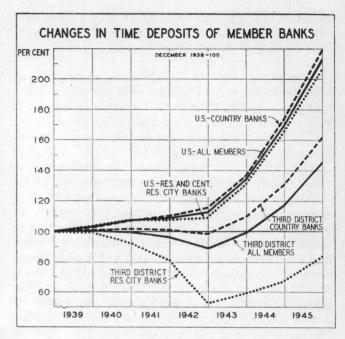
The war brought increased competition for individual savings from another source at the same time that commercial banks were reducing efforts to attract savings deposits. Higher rates could be earned on United States Savings Bonds, and a far larger proportion of personal savings has been invested in Government securities than in time deposits during recent years. Deposits in the Postal Savings System, which paid higher interest rates than commercial banks, also increased more rapidly than time deposits at commercial banks.

Time Deposit Policies of Third District Banks

For many years time deposits have provided a larger proportion of total deposits at member banks in the Third Federal Reserve District than at member banks throughout the country.

The accompanying chart indicates that since 1938 the time deposits of country banks in this district (all banks outside of Philadelphia) increased more slowly than those of member banks throughout the country. The disparity, however, is little greater than might be expected in view of the extent to which the growth of total deposits in the Third District lagged behind that for the rest of the country.

In contrast, Philadelphia member banks experienced a decline of almost 50 per cent in time deposits by the end of 1942, and at the end of 1945 their time deposits were still about 16



per cent below their 1938 level. The war contributed little to this unusual local situation and the explanation must be sought in bank policy or other influences.

In several respects the time deposit situation in Philadelphia before the war differed from that in the rest of the district and that in central reserve and reserve city banks throughout the country. In the first place, savings accounts were a much less important part of total time Other time deposits of individuals, deposits. partnerships, and corporations (composed mostly of business funds) were therefore a much more important part. And in the second place, the deposits of mutual savings banks in Philadelphia were much larger than the total time deposits of Philadelphia member banks.

The largest factor in the decline of time deposits of Philadelphia member banks was the drastic reduction of non-savings deposits of individuals, partnerships, and corporations. composed principally of business accounts. Savings deposits, which increased elsewhere in the country, decreased by one-third at Philadelphia member banks prior to June 1942, accounting for about 40 per cent of the total decline in their time deposits. During this period all member banks in the city cut interest rates on savings substantially. Several of the large banks eliminated all interest payment, put savings deposits on a demand basis, and recommended that savings depositors invest their savings through other channels such as mutual savings banks or war savings bonds.

Out of the total decline in savings deposits at member banks in Philadelphia between 1938 and June 1942, 73 per cent was accounted for by banks which eliminated all interest payment on savings; 22½ per cent by changes in membership, most important of which was the liquidation of one large bank whose savings accounts were transferred to a mutual savings institution; and 8½ per cent by banks which had reduced interest rates during the period to either one-half or 1 per cent. On the other hand, the very small number of banks still paying 1½ per cent interest in 1942 had experienced a rate of growth greater than that shown by all member banks in the United States. The increase in this small group was equivalent to 4 per cent of the total decline in savings at Philadelphia member banks.

Over the entire period, mutuals have paid from one-half to 1 per cent higher interest rates than those paid at member banks in the city. The prevailing rate paid by mutuals was $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent at the beginning of the period, 2 per cent from July 1939 to the end of 1944, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent since the beginning of 1945. By the end of 1945, deposits at mutuals had increased 60 per cent, although time deposits of member banks in the city were still considerably below 1938 levels.

In 1945, for the first time during the war, the percentage increase of time deposits in the Third District exceeded that of demand deposits and was almost as high as at member banks throughout the United States. Furthermore, the rate of expansion of time deposits at Philadelphia banks approximately equaled that of other member banks in the district.

Significance for Banking Policy

Do commercial banks want savings deposits? Some institutions have reduced interest rates drastically to discourage such business. Others have withdrawn from the field entirely. Very few member banks have advertised or otherwise pushed the development of their time deposit business in recent years.

Schedules of rates have been introduced by most Philadelphia member banks in recent

years. In the majority of schedules, rates are scaled downward as the size of the account increases and many banks make a deduction for required reserves before figuring interest. For example, 1½ per cent may be paid on net balances up to \$1,000; 1 per cent on the next \$4,000; and one-half of 1 per cent on balances over \$5,000. It has been a common practice in recent years for member banks not only to set a minimum of, say, \$100 before interest is allowed but also to set maximum limits on savings accounts, with no interest paid on amounts in excess. Such limits are usually either five or ten thousand dollars.

Other factors remaining constant, the cost of administering deposits should decrease relatively as the size of account increases. For this reason, adoption of schedules which allow higher rates on smaller than on larger accounts may indicate that banks are more concerned with public relations, or in providing convenient facilities for small savers in the community, than with the margin of profit which can be earned on individual accounts. Certainly, use of this type of rate schedule in conjunction with maximum limits indicates that a bank is not anxious to build up total volume of time deposits. At present yields on bank investments it may well be that many banks do not believe there is sufficient profit in savings deposits to justify the direct and indirect costs involved. This might be particularly characteristic of those large city banks whose organization is geared principally to the service of large individual or business accounts.

On the other hand, many banks do find savings accounts profitable. The continued growth of mutual savings banks, which are confined entirely to savings deposits, would indicate that this business can be profitable even under present conditions. The difference may lie in special organization for keeping the costs of administering such deposits at a minimum and perhaps involves the development of loan and investment policies especially adapted to relatively inactive funds such as savings.

As long as yields on loans and investments remain at present low levels and the bulk of banks' earning assets consist of Government securities, commercial banks generally are not likely to become enthusiastic about time deposits, at least not to the extent of offering sub-

stantially higher interest rates than they are now paying. General levels of bank earnings might permit the payment of higher rates on savings accounts but it must first be demonstrated that savings deposits themselves earn more than their costs before individual banks will adopt such a policy.

Certainly, banks cannot be expected to carry time deposits at a loss, and decisions as to the desirability of this type of business must rest with the individual bank. If member banks wish to maintain or to develop their time deposit business, however, interest rates paid will be an important factor as long as alternative channels for saving offer comparable safety and reasonable availability of funds. The rate of interest paid on time deposits may have little effect on the total volume of saving, but whether savings are held in cash or placed elsewhere than with commercial banks may be influenced to a considerable extent by the amount of interest offered.

What is the relationship between time deposit policies and loan and investment policies? In determining loan and investment policies, banks should consider the underlying nature of their time deposits. Do they represent relatively permanent savings of depositors; or is there a serious probability that substantial amounts may be temporarily idle funds awaiting opportunity to buy automobiles or other long-denied consumers' goods, to build or repair homes, to take delayed vacations, or to be spent in other ways not usually associated with long-term savings? Only the individual bank can answer such questions about its particular group of depositors with any degree of dependability; but to the extent that time deposits represent only temporarily unspent funds, they should be invested in much the same manner as demand deposits. Spending will not decrease bank deposits generally but it may produce shifts as between banks or communities and as between time and demand deposits.

Finally, how do time deposits fit into the liquid assets picture, and what part do they play in the existing inflationary situation? During the war,

accumulated savings of individuals reached unprecedented levels. While interest paid on time deposits declined, the same has been true of other savings channels although in some cases to a lesser degree. Familiarity with the use of savings deposits, and the ease with which withdrawals can be made, still caused many people to use this channel of savings regardless of return. Indeed, some banks which discontinued all interest payments and advised savings depositors to invest their savings elsewhere discovered that a substantial amount of such funds were not withdrawn.

The strong desire, characteristic of the war period, to keep savings easily available is further demonstrated by the great expansion of personal holdings of demand deposits and currency. In total, such accumulations of money have increased over \$30 billion since 1940 as compared with an increase of only \$20 billion in time deposits. This apparently indicates that the interest rates paid on time deposits held little appeal to many individuals who saved substantial amounts during the war. The fact that time deposits have expanded at a more rapid rate than personal holdings of either demand deposits or currency since the end of 1944, although lagging far behind in the earlier war period, may indicate that a point exists beyond which even a low interest rate may offset the advantages of further increasing money holdings.

Time deposits are not as volatile as cash holdings when it comes to spending, even though they may represent recent savings partially induced by wartime scarcity of consumers' goods. For that reason the attraction of currency holdings or even demand deposits into savings deposits should be useful in reducing the present inflationary potential of our over-expanded money supply. Furthermore, there should be a definite advantage to banks in encouraging the habit of using banking facilities as a substitute for the old teapot or mattress as a means of saving. Permanent savings habits and valuable bank customers for the future are easier to develop in times when people have accumulated unspent income.



Farmers Need Machinery

The agricultural implement industry is gearing up for one billion dollars worth of business a year and not just for one year but several years. That is quite a jump from annual sales averaging \$300 million just before the war; it would be more than double the peak of 1941 and a substantial increase over the 1945 output. Under constant pressure for greater output throughout the war, farmers ran their machinery ragged and bought all the new equipment they could get. The demand for food is as great as ever but farm machinery is old and in disrepair. Replacement of outworn and outmoded equipment with modern machinery is the best way to maintain output.

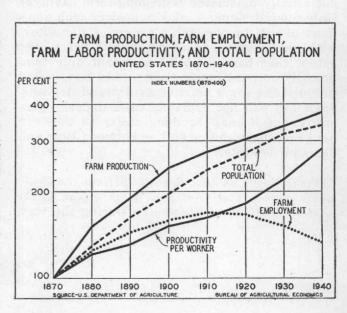
Changing Technology in Agriculture

Greater use of machinery more than anything else distinguishes one generation of farming from another. Improved technology in harvesting is illustrated by the shifts from the grain cradle to the drop reaper to the binder to the combine. But mechanization is not confined to grains. Specialized machinery is now in use on almost every major crop, such as corn, cotton, hay, sugar, potatoes, and other vegetables; and machines do the work of land clearing, plowing, planting, cultivating, and in many cases harvesting. In recent years productivity has been stepped up tremendously by substituting tractors for animal power.

Agricultural machinery pays big dividends to the farmer—less labor, greater output, and more efficient utilization of land. This is illustrated by the vast changes that have taken place in American agriculture between 1870 and 1940, as shown in the accompanying chart. In 1940 the agricultural labor force was only one-third larger than in 1870, but productivity was increased almost twofold and total output rose almost threefold. Since 1910 farm employment has actually declined. The use of the tractor has increased the amount of land available to grow products for human consumption. Since 1920 the shift from animal power to machine power has released over 50 million acres of crop land and large acreages of pasture formerly used for horse and mule feed; this land is now available for growing food, fibre, and oil products.

Production of agricultural machinery had to be given high priority throughout the war years. Notwithstanding wartime scarcities, substantial quotas of steel were allotted for the production of most urgently needed farm equipment such as milking machines, pick-up balers, corn pickers, and combines. Increased reliance upon the use of machinery was about the only way farmers were able to cope with the unusual conditions that confronted them during the war years. The demand for food and fibre was greater than ever before because of the increased requirements of the armed forces and Lend Lease, and also because of the greater purchasing power at home. With high incomes, people ate more food, better food, and higherpriced food. Farmers were also confronted by a serious shrinkage in the labor supply. It is estimated that 5 million people left the farms between 1940 and 1945, and this does not include the 1,650,000 men who went into the armed forces. The loss of the latter group was particularly serious because it included the most efficient part of the agricultural labor force.

Another factor contributing to the unusual wartime demand for agricultural machinery was the effect of the shrinking labor supply upon wage rates. During the war, farm wage rates almost trebled. This was a powerful influence to mechanize the farms.



It has been estimated that in 1944 output per worker was nearly one-half above that of the 1935-1939 average. The record shows that it was accomplished largely by greater use of machinery. The grain combine, which harvested about 15 per cent of the acreage in oats and about half of the wheat crop in 1938, harvested about 40 per cent of the oats and threequarters of the wheat in 1945. This machine was also used extensively to harvest soy beans. Soy bean acreage devoted to the production of beans rose from 3 million acres in 1938 to 11 million in 1945. Corn pickers now in use are about 30 per cent above the 1942 figure. Tractor mowers which cut 15 per cent of the hay crop in 1939 now cut about half of the hay crop. The use of hay balers almost doubled between 1939 and 1944, and the number of milking machines now in use is about double that of 1942.

Heretofore agricultural mechanization had been most pronounced on the large cash crop farms. Machinery can be used most effectively on large farms such as those found in the corn and wheat growing areas and more recently in the cotton belt. But the use of machinery is by no means limited to large-scale agriculture. Specialized farm equipment is being used more and more on medium-sized and small farms of the type that predominate in the Third District.

Characteristics of Agriculture in the Third District

The three states included in the Third District produced \$833 million of agricultural products in 1945—more than double the value of pre-war output. The farming pattern in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware is somewhat mixed. While dairying and poultry raising are the most important types of enterprise, farms in this region also derive a substantial part of their income from field crops and livestock as well as fruits, vegetables, and horticultural specialties such as mushrooms. The diversified character of agriculture in this region is illustrated by the accompanying table, which shows the relative importance of its principal products.

The three states had slightly more than 200,-000 farms, according to the 1940 census. In size they ranged from less than 3 acres to over 1,000 acres each. As shown in the following table, over a quarter of the farms in the tri-state area were in the 50 to 99 acre size; almost one-

VALUE OF PRODUCTS SOLD OR TRADED—1939
(000's omitted)

(Excluding produce used on farms)	New Jersey	Pennsyl- vania	Delaware	Three States	Per Cent
Dairy	\$22,976	\$ 68,220	\$ 2,225	\$ 93,421	32.3%
Poultry and products	16,501	36,432	8,352	61,285	21.2
Other livestock products	237	3,089	42	3,368	1.2
Livestock	3,918	25,724	597	30,239	10.5
Field crops	8,436	36,905	1,838	47.179	16.3
Horticultural specialties	7,322	11,158	583	19,063	6.6
Fruits and nuts	3,927	7,939	1.075	12,941	4.5
Vegetables	11,047	7.314	1.477	19,838	6.9
Forest products	86	1,244	53	1,383	.5
Total	\$74,450	\$198,025	\$16,242	\$288,717	100.0%

Source: U. S. Census of Agriculture, 1940.

quarter were in the 100 to 174 acre group; and almost 40 per cent were small farms, that is, under 50 acres each. Compared with all farms in the United States, there are proportionately more farms in the 50 to 99 and 100 to 174 acre classes and relatively fewer farms in all classes from 175 acres and upwards. Agriculture in this area is characterized by smaller farms whose resources are utilized most profitably to supply food products for the large metropolitan markets of this region.

SIZE OF FARMS-1940

	Pa., N. J.	, & Del.	United States		
Acres per Farm	Number of Farms	Per Cent	Number of Farms	Per Cent	
Less than 50 acres		38.3	2,286,662	37.5	
50- 99 acres		28.1 24.0	1,291,048 1,278,617	21.2 21.0	
175–259 acres	13,468 5,298	6.6	517,460 458,787	8.5 7.5	
500 and over acres	930	0.4	264,225	4.3	
All farms	203,856	100.0	6,096,799	100.0	

Source: U. S. Census of Agriculture.

Opportunities for Mechanization

At present the market for agricultural equipment is ripe for expansion, largely because of conditions brought on by the war. Farmers are still faced with heavy demands for their products. At home there are 9 million more people to be fed than in 1939, and purchasing power continues at high levels. Abroad, food shortages are acute because of the ravages of war and several years of poor harvests. Our farmers do not have enough labor and wages are high. Much of the present equipment is run down and needs replacement—a 1944 survey revealed that half of the farm machinery was over twelve years old and a quarter of it ready to be junked.

Manufacturers are introducing a variety of new farm equipment. Machines in the experimental stage or little used before the war and now used more extensively include such equipment as field silage harvesters and land clearing machines. More and more farmers are buying corn pickers, combines, windrow pick-up balers, "baby" tractors, and tractor mowers. The equipment manufacturers are designing one- and two-man machines especially adapted to the needs of smaller farms. According to a recent survey of dairy farming in Pennsylvania, milking machines were used profitably on farms with at least 15 cows when the labor saved could be used in other productive work. Drinking cups, litter carriers, and other labor-saving equipment were also found on many of the well-managed farms.

An annual flow of a billion dollars worth of equipment, as some have estimated, from manufacturers through dealers to farmers calls for a huge job of financing. Heretofore much of the financing was done by the manufacturer who took the farmer's note, which was endorsed by the local dealer. This has not proved satisfactory because it ties up too much of the manufacturer's capital, the dealer loses part or all of his cash discount, and the farmer is delayed while his credit undergoes long-distance investigation. Furthermore, such paper is apt to be accepted more on the strength of the guarantor than that of the maker whose earning power determines the soundness of the loan.

Local banks are in the best position to extend this kind of credit and such loans can be made to the mutual advantage of banker, dealer, farmer, and manufacturer. The manufacturer avoids a type of business which is subsidiary to his major interest and which he is ill-prepared to perform. The local banker is the financial advisor to his local community and he possesses the credit information needed for prompt and intelligent credit judgment.

For the dealer, the local banks discount agricultural machinery paper and this very frequently leads to other services. The banker can give counsel on budgeting financial requirements to enable the dealer to take cash discounts, to meet payrolls, and to finance inventory purchases. Moreover, dealers frequently

need financial assistance in handling open account credits and in carrying through major overhaul jobs. Some banks also supply the credit requirements for the dealer's flooring.

For the farmer, the local bank can "tailor" the credit to the needs of each individual case. Throughout the year, cash farm income varies from low tide of 6 per cent in February to high tide of about 12 per cent in October. But credit requirements vary greatly from one area to another and from one farm to another.

While farm machinery generally increases operating efficiency, it cannot be assumed that every farm can use more equipment profitably. The competent farmer buys a machine only when he sees an opportunity to put the labor saved thereby to profitable use in another farming operation. In dairying, for example, it has been found that the most efficiently operated farms are usually those that combined dairying with another income-producing activity, that is, an auxiliary cash crop such as tobacco, potatoes, or poultry. Two or more sources of revenue not only spread the risks but also afford the means of keeping farm machinery as well as labor employed more productively throughout the day and year.

Agriculture is on the threshold of great technological developments. Substantial improvement in crop yields and productivity per animal may be expected as more and more farms are operated by modernized practices with respect to soil conservation, scientific plant and animal breeding, disease and pest control and increased mechanization. While corn picking, hay making, potato digging, sugar harvesting, cotton picking, and many other farming operations are on the eve of extensive mechanization, each farmer must buy his equipment with discrimination. Most machinery is expensive and represents a long term capital investment. On each farm there are very definite limits within which machinery may be employed economically; efficient utilization of a piece of equipment depends upon such factors as the size of the farm, the nature of the enterprise, and the opportunities for engaging in custom work.



BUSINESS STATISTICS

Production Philadelphia Federal Reserve District

Adjusted for seasonal variation Not adjusted Per cent change Indexes: 1923-25 = 100July 1946 June 1946 July 1945 from 7 July 1946 June 1946 July 1945 from Mo. Year ago 1945 ago INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION MANUFACTURING. Durable goods. Consumers' goods. Metal products. Textile products. Transportation equipment. 108p 109p 112p - 15 - 23 - 25 - 48 + 8 - 42 + 9 - 60 + 4 + 26 + 18 - 15 - 2 + 20 123 126 101 104p 104p 100 - 15 - 17 - 41 + 15 - 25 131 187 91 161 103 + 5 + 6 + 4 + 6 + 3 +13 +13 101 1141 74 143 125 105p 121 76p 161p 156r 118 115r 72 144 111 112 46 152 77 118 - 25 + 14 - 62 + 19 + 27 + 22 - 11 + 9 + 14 67r 422 118 78 36 62r 410 110 70p 157p Transportation equipment. Food products... Tobacco and products... Building materials. Chemicals and products... Leather and products... Paper and printing. Individual lines 141p 99 44p 123p 107 $\begin{array}{c} +13 \\ -4 \\ +3 \\ +2 \\ +1 \end{array}$ 104 42 151 79 84 38 47p 152p 74p 117 173r 170r 811 74 106 68 102r 121 119 76 89r 80 97 180 - 19 - 26 + 16 - 41 - 24 - 46 Pig iron. Steel. Iron castings. 82 80 102 20 76 11+11111+++++++ 92 75 101 136r 37 5 57 49 44 23 46 66 124r 64 153 244 81 8 2 78 67 Iron castings. Steel castings. Electrical apparatus. Motor vehicles. Auto. parts and bodies. Locomotives and cars. Shipbuilding. Silk manufactures. Woolen and worsteds. Cotton products. Carnets and russ + 94 180r 172 232 90 185 176 22 122 58 17 104 40 127 46 20 104 41 122 - 35 - 72 + 6 + 26 + 13 + 44 + 18 + 13 + 70 + 13 - 5 - 11* 58 531 89 9 551 89 87 88 91 76 53 76 791 146 58 51 28 831 87r 73 50 74 77r 146 69 53 29 111 76 100 159 112 88 124 110 46 71 93 82r 57r 43 53 62 126 41 50 - 3 - 5 - 4 -14 -18 3 17 15 28 14 5 94 72p 48 74p 74 142 601 49 551 76 152 761 56 791 Carpets and rugs.... Hosiery.... Underwear... Cement... 90 69p 56 29 112 121 104 171p 35 52 28 591 58 Brick. Lumber and products Bread and bakery products Slaughtering, meat packing Sugar refining. 16 30 126 26 1++++++11+11++++11 -+-++++-6 13 10 13 28 91 54 170 77 87 135 80 49 90 45 83 55 133 r 102 245p 94 Canning and preserving. Canning and preserving. Cigars. Paper and wood pulp. Printing and publishing. Shoes. Leather, goat and kid. Explosives. Paints and varnishes. 107 88 123 110p 99 92 + 4 + 1 + 3 + 1 +11 +12 83 83 104 89 125 116 6 16 29 21 57 2 1 12 11 9 16 12 2 7 22 6 15 66 127 119p 45p 79 103 109r 92 57r 106r 86 51 179 94 45 71 91 220 135 62 55 1141 303 426 422 307 401 78 183 101 216 165 78 74 109 332 446 440 0 1 28 96 214p 143p 84 81 111 293 408 404 300 $\begin{array}{r} 0 \\ + 28 \\ + 6 \\ + 9 \\ - 17 \\ - 5 \\ - 5 \\ - 15 \end{array}$ Petroleum products.... Coke, by-product..... COAL MINING..... 214p 146p 86 81 220 135 60 55 100r 315 405 410 310 217 162 76 74 96 332 415 414 345 +8 +40 +47 +10 -3 +3 +2 -4 COAL MINING Anthracite Bituminous CRUDE OIL ELECTRIC POWER Sales, total, Sales to industries BUILDING CONTRACTS TOTAL AWARDS† Residential† Nouresidential† Public works and utilities† 293 439 429 294 338 13 210 249 168 188 218 206 66 + 6 +232 +153 201 206 60 235 164 7 109 8 100 122 -23 + 24 + 2387 71 +102 204 188 243 197 142 209

Preliminary

Local Business Conditions*

Percentage change— July	Factory employment		Fact pays		Building permits value			Retail sales Deb		oits
1946 from month and year ago	June 1946	July 1945	June 1946	July 1945	June 1946	July 1945	June 1946	July 1945	June 1946	July 1945
Allentown Altoona Harrisburg Johnstown Lancaster Philadelphia Reading Scranton Trenton Wilkes-Barre Williamsport Willmington York	+ 1 - 1 0 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 4 + 2 + 4	$ \begin{array}{r} -17 \\ -8 \\ -6 \\ +12 \\ -7 \\ -10 \\ +5 \\ -15 \\ -15 \\ -2 \\ -23 \\ +3 \end{array} $	+ 2 3 0 + 7 3 + 2 2 + 4 4 + 1 5 + 2	-18 - 7 - 8 +13 - 7 -16 +14 -14 -12 -22 + 2 -23 - 3	+ 59 +192 - 95 - 10 +500 + 38 + 53 - 86 - 48 + 28 +126 - 2 + 57	+147 +321 + 14 + 64 +156 +486 + 18 - 49 - 39 + 79 +234 - 64 +278	-26 -21 -23 -14 -19 -29 -22 -14 -27 -24 -24 -13	+25 +25 +25 +29 +27 +25 +31 +40 +34 +31 +20	+9 +13 +9 +17 +2 0 0 +5 +4 +1 +10 -10 0	+27 +44 +23 +30 +24 +20 +21 +45 - 7 +21 +16 - 1 +10

^{*} Area not restricted to the corporate limits of cities given here.

Employment and Income in Pennsylvania

Industry, Trade and Service

	En	ploym	ent	Payrolls			
Indexes: 1932 =100		Per	cent e from		Per chang	cent e from	
	1946 index	June 1946	July 1945	1946 index	June 1946	July 1945	
GENERAL INDEX. Manufacturing Bituminous coal mining Building and construction Quar. and nonmet. mining. Crude petroleum prod. Public utilities Retail trade. Wholesale trade. Hotels Laundries. Dyeing and cleaning.	126 159 75 66 98 148 115 125 119 128 110 104	+ 1 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 1 - 3 + 1 + 2 0	+ 2 - 4 + 7 + 35 + 28 + 13 + 17 + 7 + 16 + 20 + 9 + 5	304 401 391 152 345 269 188 207 192 252 237 237	0 +1 -15 +5 +4 -3 +2 -1 +3 -2 -1 -4	0 -10 +29 +29 +39 +6 +24 +26 +24 +33 +32 +27	

Manufacturing

	Em	ploym	ent*	P	Payrolls*			
Indexes: 1923-25 =100				July	Per cent changefrom			
	1946 index	June 1946	July 1945	1946 index	June 1946	July 1945		
TOTAL	102	+ 1	- 4	163	+ 1	-10		
Iron, steel and products	104	+1	- 8	199	+ 1	-18		
Nonferrous metal products.		- 2	-11	404	- 6	- 8		
Transportation equipment.	88	+4	-34	147	+ 4	-38		
Textiles and clothing	83	- 1	+11	145	- 2	+24		
Textiles	78	- 1	+12	138	- 2	+25		
Clothing	103	0	+ 6	182	- 4	+18		
Food products	116	- 1	- 1	200	+ 3	+ 6		
Stone, clay and glass	102	$\frac{+2}{+4}$	+26	165	+ 3 + 1 + 5	+31		
Lumber products		+ 4	+11	94	+ 5	+15		
Chemicals and products		+ 2	- 2	198	+ 5	- 6		
Leather and products	84	- 1	+18	141	- 3	+16		
Paper and printing	123	0	+19	205	- 1	+28		
Printing	120	0	+21	192	- 1	+30		
Others:								
Cigars and tobacco	54	0	+17	89	+ 2	+26		
Rubber tires, goods	142	0	+ 4	333	0	+10		
Musical instruments	1111	- 3	+38	189	- 4	+68		

^{*} Figures from 2757 plants.

Hours and Wages

Factory workers Averages July 1946	Weekly working time*		ing Hou			ekly nings†	
and per cent change from year ago	Average hours	Ch'ge	Aver-	Ch'ge	Aver- age	Ch'ge	
TOTAL. Iron, steel and prods Nonfer. metal prods. Transportation equip. Textiles and clothing. Textiles. Clothing Food products Stone, clay and glass. Lumber products. Chemicals and prods. Leather and products. Paper and printing. Printing.	38.5 37.5 38.3 39.8 38.5 39.5 35.8 42.5 37.2 42.8 40.0 38.3 41.4 40.3	-11 -15 -12 -11 -1 -1 -1 -4 -8 0 -13 -11 -6 -5	.937 .847 .942 1.086 .848 1.226	+ 8 +11 + 3 +12 +13 + 9 +13 +12 + 7 +14 +11 +15	\$43.74 46.23 43.21 51.14 35.16 37.04 30.91 40.54 40.36 36.06 49.10 33.31 45.05 50.16	- 6 - 8 - 2 - 9 +11 +12 + 8 + 9 + 4 + 7 - 1 - 1 - 2 + 7 + 7	
Others: Cigars and tobacco Rubber tires, goods Musical instruments.	38.3 41.8 42.8	- 9 - 9 + 5	.782 1.252 1.035		29.97 52.27 44.29	+ 7 + 5 +22	

^{*} Figures from 2614 plants.

^{*}Unadjusted for seasonal variation.
† 3-month moving daily average centered at 3rd month.
**Increase of 1000% or more from the low level of a year ago.

[†] Figures from 2757 plants.

Distribution and Prices

	Per c	ent cha	ange	
Wholesale trade Unadjusted for seasonal		1946 om	1946 from	
variation	Month	Year ago	mos. 1945	
Sales Total of all lines Boots and shoes Drugs Dry goods Electrical supplies. Groceries Hardware Jewelry. Paper	$ \begin{array}{r} -37 \\ +9 \\ +6 \\ -17 \\ -4 \\ -25 \\ -15 \end{array} $	+ 35 + 16 + 23 + 69 + 106 + 30 + 36 + 47 - 2	+26 +16 +36 +36 +26 +38 +76 +10	
Inventories Total of all lines Dry goods Electrical supplies Groceries. Hardware Paper	$\begin{array}{c} +3 \\ +8 \\ -10 \\ -3 \end{array}$	+ 57 + 27 + 59 + 33 + 14 + 22		

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce.

	T1	Per cen	t chang	ge from
Prices	July 1946	Month ago	Year ago	Aug. 1939
Basic commodities (Aug. 1939 = 100)	240	+22	+31	+140
Wholesale	240	722	731	7130
(1926 = 100)	124	+10	+17	+ 66
Farm	157	+12	+22	+157
Food	140	+24	+31	+109
Other	109	+ 3	+ 9	+ 36
Living costs				h as dead
(1935-1939=100)			1	The state of
United States	141	+6	+ 9	+ 43
Philadelphia	140	+6		+ 43
Food	161	+12	+16	+ 73
Clothing	156	0	+ 6	+ 57
Fuels	120	+4	+ 6	+ 24
Housefurnishings	159	0	+11	+ 58
Other	126	+1	+ 4	+ 25

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

	Ad	justed	for s	easona			Not	adju	sted
				Per	cent cha	ange	- 11		14
Indexes: 1935-1939 = 100	July 1946		July 1945	July fro		1946 from	July 1946	June 1946	July 1945
				Month ago	Year ago	7 mos. 1945			
RETAIL TRADE Sales									
Department stores—District Philadelphia	252p 231	253 238	199r 188	- 1 - 3	+27 + 23	+ 27 + 24 + 32 + 32 + 38	174p 148	228	137 120
Women's apparel	312p	271	226r	+ 15	+ 38	+ 32	175p	234	127
Men's apparel	223p 205	201 228	152 181	$+ 11 \\ - 10$	+ 47	+ 32	148p 158	225	101
Shoe. Furniture.			101		+ 13 + 66*	+ 38		245	
Inventories									
Department stores—District Philadelphia	197p 196p		163 162	+ 4	$^{+\ 21}_{+\ 21}_{+\ 32}$		187p 180p		155
Women's apparel	290p		219	+ 4	+ 32		217p	228	164
ShoeFurniture	73	. 65	70	+ 13 + 6*	+ 4		63	63	61
FREIGHT-CAR LOADINGS									
Total Merchandise and miscellaneous	143 129	130 120	147	+ 10 + 7	- 3 - 3	- 15 - 15	146 129	134	150
Merchandise-l.c.l	94	100	86	- 6	+ 9 + 3	+ 6	94	100	86
Coal	171	174	165	$\frac{-2}{+41}$	+ 3	- 9 - 43	162 278	156	157 305
Coke	191	146	221	+ 30	- 14	- 41	176	137	203
Forest products	117	91	99	+ 28	+ 18	- 4 - 10	131	104	111
Livestock	196	142 108	146 123	-19 + 82	- 22 + 60	+ 6	154 169	123 98	105
MISCELLANEOUS Life insurance sales	015	222	700		1 60	1	205	00/	100
Business liquidations	215	222	133	- 3	+ 62	+ 66	205	226	126
Number				+397*		+ 93*	15	3	3
Amount of liabilities	227	215	199	+ 6	+ 14	+734*	216	232	189

*Computed from unadjusted data. p—Preliminary. **Increase of 1000% or more from low level.

r-Revised.

Changes

BANKING STATISTICS

MEMBER BANK RESERVES AND RELATED FACTORS

Reporting member	Aug.	Chang	es in—
banks (Millions \$)	21, 1946	Four weeks	One year
Assets Commercial loans. Loans to brokers, etc Other loans to carry secur Loans on real estate. Loans to banks. Other loans.	\$ 314 44 41 47 3 166	+\$11 - 6 - 2 + 2 + 3	+\$100
Total loans	\$ 615	+\$ 8	+\$137
Government securities Obligations fully guar'teed Other securities	\$1618 196	-\$68 	-\$389 + 12
Total investments	\$1814	-\$68	-\$377
Total loans & investments. Reserve with F.R. Bank Cash in vault. Balances with other banks. Other assets—net	\$2429 423 32 85 48	-\$60 - 6 + 1 - 4 + 4	-\$240 - 2 + 3 + 2 - 1
Liabilities Demand deposits, adjusted. Time deposits. U.S. Government deposits. Interbank deposits. Borrowings. Other liabilities. Capital account.	\$1803 268 300 358 2 25 261	-\$39 + 1 - 26 	+\$ 22 + 55 - 311 - 20 - 4 + 8 + 12

Third Federal Reserve District	- CAAG	HPOR III "	COME CHICO.		in four
(Millions of dollars)	July 31	Aug. 7	Aug. 14	Aug. 21	weeks
Sources of funds: Reserve Bank credit extended in district. Commercial transfers (chiefly interdistrict). Treasury operations.	-13 16	+13 +14 -23	+ 6 + 8 -16	-27 +20	$ \begin{array}{r} -21 \\ +42 \\ -23 \end{array} $
Total	+ 3	+ 4	- 2	- 7	- 2
Uses of funds: Currency demand	+ 5	+ 3 - 1 + 2	+ 2 - 2 - 2	- 3 - 3 - 1	- i - i
Total	+ 3	+ 4	- 2	- 7	- 2

Member bank reserves (Daily averages; dollar figures in millions)	Held	Re- quired	Ex- cess	Ratio of excess to re- quired
Phila. banks 1945: Aug. 1-15 1946: July 1-15 July 16-31 Aug. 1-15	\$407 424 421 416	\$397 416 413 409	\$10 8 8 7	2% 2 2 2
Country banks 1945: Aug. 1-15 1946: July 1-15 July 16-31 Aug. 1-15	\$332 378 378 384	\$273 325 326 328	\$59 53 52 56	22% 16 16 17

Federal Reserve		Changes in—		
Bank of Phila. (Dollar figures in millions)	Aug. 21, 1946	Four weeks	One year	
Disc. and advances. Industrial loans U. S. securities	\$ 17 1 1637	-\$ 2 + 8	+\$ 6 - 2 + 53	
Total		+\$ 6 + 8 - 1 - 12 - 16 - 2 - 26 - 0.7%	+\$ 57 + 77 + 48 - 15 - 43 - 1 + 24 + 0.1%	