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This Issue in Brief

State Labor Agencies.

IN THE effort to build up adequate machinery for the administration and enforcement of the many new labor laws that have been enacted in recent years, administrative agencies have been created in several States and materially strengthened in others. Most of the Southern States have, within the past 4 years, established State departments of labor with enforcing and rule-making powers. In other instances, notably Arkansas, Indiana, and Rhode Island, existing agencies have been greatly strengthened through increased authority and through the unification of various activities under one administrative head. In several States with long-established labor departments, particularly in Pennsylvania, reorganization and expansion of the departments have been necessary to meet the need for a more effective medium to deal with a broadened program of labor legislation. Page 529.

Cooperatives in Cleveland.

TWO old-established consumers' cooperative associations and 12 newly organized cooperatives beginning business on a small scale were found in operation in Cleveland, Ohio, in a study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in June 1937. Counting the families of cooperative members, some 5,000 persons were participating in the activities of these associations. Their membership is drawn not only from wage earners, but also from the professional and business people. The local cooperative associations have formed a federation to carry on educational work and to coordinate the varied activities of the different groups. Page 541.

Distribution of Farm Labor.

FARMING in the United States is still primarily a family matter. In January 1935, according to census figures, less than 15 percent of the farms employed hired labor and the average number of laborers on farms employing hired labor was only 1.7. This average, however, conceals the fact that a substantial proportion of farms employed hired labor in considerable number and, also, the fact that the census figures apply to January, which is, for the country as a whole, a month of low farm employment. This study is significant in view of the discussions regarding the exclusion of farm laborers from the various social security acts. Page 561.

Railroad Grade Crossings.

RAILROAD grade crossings constitute one of the most serious forms of accident hazard. It was peculiarly appropriate, therefore, that the Federal program of work relief should have included appropriations for the purpose of eliminating a large number of such grade crossings. According

to the most recent reports 361 grade crossings have been eliminated by the construction of either overpasses or underpasses. An analysis of the cost reports shows that of the total money spent, 25 cents out of each dollar went for labor at the site, 42 cents for construction materials, and 33 cents for other expenses. The employment created at the site and in the fabrication of materials amounted to about 16½ million man-hours (equivalent roughly to one year's labor for some 8,000 men). Page 579.

Expenditures of California Workers.

THE EXPENDITURES of American workers' families do not show any important geographical differences. They do vary greatly in character according to amount of income, but for a given income group the distribution of expenditures among the various classes of consumption goods are almost the same in California cities for which data are now available, as in the cities of the East and South for which reports have already been published. Favored by climatic conditions, workers' expenditures in California averaged, out of each dollar, 2 or 3 cents less for fuel, light, and refrigeration than did families in cities farther east. Expenditures on automobile purchase and operation were somewhat higher in California than elsewhere, owing, no doubt, to the climate, to good roads, and to the ease with which outings can be arranged. Page 663.

Minimum Wages on Government Contracts.

MINIMUM-WAGE rates of 32½ to 67½ cents per hour for employees engaged on Government contracts were established in seven industries by the Secretary of Labor in July 1937 under powers granted by the Walsh-Healey Act. In only one case—the production of men's underwear—was a geographical differential introduced. For this industry employees in specified Southern States might receive a minimum hourly rate of 32.5 cents instead of the 35 cents established elsewhere. The other industries covered are men's neckwear, hats and caps, raincoats, cotton garments, seamless hosiery, and work gloves. Six of the seven determinations permit special rates below the industry minima for learners, handicapped or superannuated workers, or a combination of these classes. The 40-hour workweek is the maximum under all seven decisions. Page 694.

Wages of Women in the District of Columbia.

PREVAILING wage rates and earnings of woman workers in the District of Columbia, employed in manufacturing and service industries and mercantile establishments, in 1937, as given in an article on page 626, are to a great extent lower than the minimum rates fixed in 1919–22 for those industries under the minimum-wage law then in force.

Special Articles

THE EXPANDING ACTIVITIES OF STATE LABOR DEPARTMENTS

By ESTELLE M. STEWART, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

THE RECENT rapid expansion of labor legislation, combined with numerous court decisions of far-reaching significance, has greatly enhanced the importance of State agencies concerned with the administration and enforcement of labor laws. The most widely felt stimulus has come from three sources—the Wagner-Peyser act setting up Federally aided State employment systems; unemployment compensation legislation; and the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States supporting the principle of minimum wage for women, as embodied in the Washington Minimum Wage Act. Other laws of less general application which have materially affected the work of State labor agencies include those dealing with industrial home work, hours of labor, child labor, and industrial disputes.

To meet the need for administrative and enforcing machinery demanded by a broadening legislative program, some States have created departments of labor for the first time, others have vitalized and expanded departments heretofore functioning in a limited way, and still others have consolidated scattered activities into a unified agency for the administration of all labor laws. Even among the long-established agencies of the large industrial States, reorganization and increased activity are evident.

At the request and with the cooperation of the executive board of the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has recently undertaken a study of governmental activities in the interest of labor, particularly those that come within the province of State departments of labor. The purpose of the study is, broadly, to determine what the duties of these agencies are, the machinery and procedures through which they are carried on, and the instrumentalities, in terms of money, personnel, and statutory authority, that are available for their discharge. Emphasis has been placed upon functions and methods rather than on results, in the various fields covered by State labor departments. The administration of workmen's compensation acts, which was the subject of another special Bureau survey, recently completed, is not included.

One striking point that developed during the course of the survey of governmental labor agencies, in which 34 States have thus far been visited, was the number of newly created State departments of labor, the increased activity of others that have for many years been an important factor in labor-law administration, and the new vigor that was apparent in still others whose scope had heretofore been circumscribed by insufficient statutory authority and funds. This article points out the extent to which recent labor legislation has accelerated the movement, begun more than 50 years ago, to create within State governments special machinery to serve the interests of the workers. Since not all the States covered by the Bureau's survey have experienced the kind and degree of expansion and development that determined the general theme of the article, they are not all referred to in the discussion. Later articles dealing with the entire subject of the Bureau's survey will be more representative of the whole field, and will present functional activities and procedures in detail. The information relating to immediate as well as future plans, as given in this article, was obtained chiefly through personal interviews with department officials. Statutes and published reports were used to supplement the data thus obtained.

This trend toward strengthening State departments of labor is particularly interesting because early in the depression they suffered serious curtailment of activities through decreased appropriations and personnel, in spite of the fact that the depression itself imposed additional burdens. In this revitalizing process, unemployment-compensation legislation has been of chief importance in those States where the department of labor was made the administrator of the benefit system. On the other hand, inauguration of that phase of the social security program has tended in some instances to limit the field of the departments, because, where an independent agency was created to administer the unemployment-compensation law, the State employment system was in most instances transferred from the department of labor to the newer body.

Newly Created Agencies

While departments of labor have for many years been a significant factor in State government in practically all the industrial States, most of the southern States, which have entered the industrial field comparatively recently, have limited their activities in the labor field to child labor and workmen's compensation. However, since 1930, departments of labor have been created in the South along the same structural and functional lines as the older organizations in other sections of the country.

The first of these new agencies was that of North Carolina. Prior to 1931, the State agency concerned with the administration of certain

labor laws was the department of labor and printing, and the money and staff available for the labor division were extremely limited. Child labor came under the jurisdiction of the child welfare commission. An act of 1931 (Consol. Stat., secs. 7309–7310) created an independent department of labor to which all labor activities except workmen's compensation were delegated. In 1935 a State employment service, which affiliated with the United States Employment Service, was organized in the department. Two years later it was transferred to the newly created unemployment compensation commission. Thus both forms of insurance—against industrial accidents and against unemployment—were excluded from the jurisdiction of the department of labor. Within its field, however, the department is vested with adequate authority, even to the extent of making rules and regulations enforceable as law.

Alabama had, until 1935, confined State efforts in the interests of labor to the enforcement of the child-labor laws, through the labor division of the child welfare department, and to the administration of workmen's compensation insurance, through a division of the State insurance department. In 1935 a department of labor was established (Gen. Acts, 1935, No. 433) which took over the administration of the child-labor laws and created new divisions for mediating industrial disputes and compiling labor statistics. In its first annual report, the Alabama Department of Labor stated that although "operating on the comparatively small sum of $20,000 a year", this "infant, little more than a year old, has become one of the best-known and most active departments of our State government." [1] Much of the time of its officials was devoted to the settlement of "more than 50 major strikes and lock-outs and many smaller ones." Another important activity was the collection of statistical data on State industries; in which the department had not only to develop methods and procedures but also to acquire and assemble its own source material. The organic act creating the Alabama Department of Labor, however, while conferring upon it the right of entry into places of employment for purposes of inspection, did not grant the power to condemn unsafe machinery and to establish safety regulations. For that reason the department has not organized a safety division. The Unemployment Compensation Commission of Alabama is separate from the labor department, as is the State Board of Coal-mine Inspectors.

South Carolina, prior to 1936, had a State department embracing agriculture, commerce, and industries, a subordinate bureau of which carried on limited labor activities. In May 1936 an independent department of labor was created by act of the legislature (No. 694, Session

[1] Alabama. Department of Labor. First annual report, 1935–36. Montgomery, 1936, p. 9.

Laws, 1936) in which, as stated in the department's first annual report, "all the various functions of the State government, dealing with labor and industrial problems and relationships are to some extent consolidated, and where a systematic policy is being developed." [2] The department superseded an inactive State board of conciliation and immediately undertook to intercede in current labor disputes, at the request of the Governor. Later legislation made intercession in industrial disputes mandatory on the part of the commissioner of labor or his representative. Workmen's compensation and unemployment compensation are outside the jurisdiction of the department of labor, and each of these benefit systems is administered by an independent commission.

An act of the Georgia Legislature, early in 1937 (Act No. 333, Laws of 1937), created an inclusive department of labor for the administration and enforcement of all State labor laws, including workmen's compensation and unemployment benefits. The department of industrial relations, the former agency administering the workmen's compensation law, was abolished and its functions with regard to workmen's compensation were specifically transferred to the industrial board created within the new department of labor by the organic act. Instead of limiting the scope of labor-law administration to workmen's compensation, as had been very largely the case under the former statute creating the department of industrial relations, the 1937 act empowers the department of labor to enforce all State labor laws, and to that end to make investigations, inspections, and rules and regulations; to provide for conciliation and arbitration of labor disputes; to make surveys and collect statistics relating to working conditions; and to administer the unemployment-compensation law and operate a system of State employment offices. The department is given jurisdiction over all types of employment except agriculture, domestic service, and steam transportation and over all establishments where eight or more persons are employed.

At the time of the Bureau's survey in Georgia, machinery for the administration of the unemployment-compensation act and the operation of the State employment service was being organized, and the commissioner of labor planned to organize factory inspection and mediation staffs after July 1. Because labor legislation and safety regulations have so far not been developed in Georgia to any extent, the department will first have to formulate its own safety codes and inspection procedure. Under the act (sec. 9d) the commissioner of labor is authorized to propose to the industrial board, for adoption and promulgation "such rules or changes in rules as he may deem advisable for the prevention of accidents or the prevention of industrial or occupational disease in every employment or place of employment,

[2] South Carolina. Department of Labor. First annual report—June 1, 1936–Jan. 1, 1937. Columbia, 1937, p. 5.

and such rules, or changes in rules, for the construction, repair, and maintenance of places of employment * * * as he may deem advisable to render them safe." Actual rule-making power is vested in the industrial board, an agency within the department, the three members of which represent employers, workers, and the public and are appointed by the Governor.

The Louisiana Legislature in 1936 passed a law (Act No. 30, Laws of 1936) the general provisions of which are similar to those of the Georgia law. Although a labor agency existed, in the bureau of labor and industrial statistics, it was limited in both scope and activities, so that in effect the new organization represents the first effort in Louisiana to create a State agency actively functioning in the interest of the workers. The new plan contemplates unified control, under a commissioner, of all activities in the interest of labor except that concerned with workmen's compensation which, in Louisiana, is the province of the courts. While the department was only in the formative stage at the time of the Bureau's survey there, the State labor laws had been codified and published and plans were under way for launching the unemployment-compensation program, through which the commissioner hoped to compile the information on occupations and employment in Louisiana that would be needed in mapping out the future course of the department. Although the present labor laws are considered inadequate, the new department of labor is given the power to make and enforce rules and regulations on safety and health.

With the creation of these new agencies, the southern States, with two exceptions,[3] now have active and apparently vigorous departments of labor covering all or a large part of the usual functions and activities of such agencies.

Reorganized Agencies

In another group of widely scattered States, recent legislation has created departments of labor by expanding or coordinating units already functioning.

The former Bureau of Labor and Statistics of Arkansas was raised to the status of a department by Act No. 161 of the 1937 session of the general assembly. The department, under the direction of a commissioner of labor, is vested with full authority to enforce all labor laws of the State, to mediate labor disputes or arrange for the arbitration thereof, and to make all necessary investigations and to compile statistical information dealing with working conditions and the operation of the labor laws. An industrial board within the department is

[3] The exceptions are Florida, where the State activities cover only the child-labor laws, the enforcement of which is assigned to a child-labor inspector, and Mississippi, which inspects factories employing women and children as a public-health measure solely, through the Bureau of Industrial Hygiene and Factory Inspection of the Mississippi Department of Public Health.

granted rule-making power in the matter of safety, accident prevention, and occupational diseases. Rules thus made are subject to the approval of the commissioner of labor, who is also authorized to propose rules and regulations to the board for their consideration and adoption. When adopted by the board, approved by the commissioner, and published as prescribed in the act, rules and regulations governing working conditions are enforceable as law. The penalty clause of the act provides that each day on which a violation of the labor laws or departmental regulations occurs, or noncompliance with departmental orders continues, shall constitute a separate offense, punishable by fine or imprisonment or both.

The 1937 legislature also passed three important acts, the administration and enforcement of which were made part of the functions and duties of the new department of labor. These laws established an unemployment-compensation system, provided for a legal apprenticeship system under the direction of the commissioner of labor, and authorized the commissioner to inquire into and decide disputes dealing with claims for unpaid wages. The wage-collection law adopted in Arkansas conformed to the provisions of the model bill advocated by the Division of Labor Standards of the United States Department of Labor to check abuses connected with the nonpayment of wages.[4] Another important advance made by the Arkansas Department of Labor was the addition of a safety engineer to its staff, which was made possible by increased appropriation.

In Indiana, enforcement of general factory laws and of legislation affecting women and children was formerly the function of subordinate units of the industrial board, the agency administering the workmen's compensation act. A law of 1937 created a division of labor in which will be centered all labor activities of the State except the administration of the unemployment compensation act, which is the function of an independent agency. The division of labor, although placed in the department of commerce and industries under the general organizational plan of the State government, is an autonomous body under the direction of a commissioner appointed by the Governor. The creative act set up specific boards and bureaus and defined their functions and duties. These are the industrial board, concerned solely with workmen's compensation and industrial accidents; bureau of mines and mining, a safety-promotion and inspection service confined to mines and quarries; bureau of factory inspection, in charge of the general labor laws covering factories, workshops, inland navigation, and elevators; bureau of boiler inspection; and bureau of women and children. In addition, the commissioner of labor is authorized "to collect, collate, and publish such statistical and other information relating to working conditions" as may be necessary for

[4] See Monthly Labor Review, May 1937 (p. 1102): "Collection of wage claims by State labor offices", by Mary T. Waggaman.

the proper functioning of the act, and "to promote the voluntary arbitration, mediation, and conciliation of disputes between employers and employees." In the view of the commissioner, the last-named function is the most important duty assigned to the new division of labor. Another important provision of the organic act gives the commissioner power to determine and prescribe "what suitable devices, safeguards, or other means of protection for the prevention of industrial accidents or occupational diseases shall be adopted or followed" in any or all employments and places of employment, with the additional power to adopt rules and regulations for the prevention of industrial accidents and diseases, and to formulate and impose reasonable standards for the safe operation, construction, and maintenance of work places. Every rule made by the commissioner under this grant of authority shall, in prosecutions for violations, "be conclusively presumed to be just, reasonable, and lawful" unless action by a competent court has been previously sought to have the rule vacated. Similarly, an appeal against a ruling made by the commissioner is made to the commissioner, who is directed to hold a public hearing to decide the point at issue. His decision is final and binding unless an appeal is taken to the courts within 30 days. Courts, however, may hear only those cases involving rules, regulations, and orders of the division of labor which have previously been heard by the commissioner on appeal.

The Indiana agency was created in April 1937, and up to the time of the Bureau's survey it had been concerned chiefly with the adjustment of an unusually large number of strikes, including those of the independent steel plants. Moreover, the matter of appropriation had not been fully determined. However, the agencies formerly functioning under the industrial board were carrying on their customary activities, and considerable expansion was in prospect.

In the Rhode Island Department of Labor, created by statute in 1935, three unrelated agencies engaged in labor-law administration were brought together under one head. The department has since assumed jurisdiction over other phases of workers' welfare, including unemployment compensation and the State employment service, minimum wages for women and minors, and control of industrial home work. Prior to 1935, the commissioner of labor administered the workmen's compensation act but had no relation to or jurisdiction over the office of factory inspection, through which the safety and sanitation laws of the State were enforced. The boiler-inspection law came under a separate administrative agency, and a board of labor was nominally the medium for adjusting labor disputes. As at present constituted, the Rhode Island Department of Labor covers all these functions, which, like those that have been added since 1935, are discharged through bureaus and divisions under the direction of

the head of the department. The department now exercises most of the normal functions of a State labor agency, either by direct delegation of powers through statute, or by general consent, as in the matter of intercession in industrial disputes. It cooperates actively with the division of industrial hygiene of the State department of public health with reference to surveys and physical examinations to determine the location and extent of occupational-disease hazards. Department duties include also a number of extraneous activities, some of which concern consumers rather than workers as such.

The director of the department of labor is required by law to take a population census every 10 years. The present practice is to carry on this work 5 years after the United States census of population is taken. Thus the newly created department was called upon to discharge that function, but no appropriation was made for the purpose. Later, funds were made available through the State unemployment relief commission, and the work was begun early in 1936. The census was planned with a view to making it of the utmost value to the work of the department of labor itself, and in consequence every effort was made to secure information on extent and duration of unemployment, occupation statistics, industrial distribution, and population movements. The department is hopeful of organizing cooperative machinery through which a continuing census may be established.

Colorado effected, through its Administrative Code of 1933 (ch. 3., sec. 10) a like merger of independent agencies administering labor laws and otherwise engaging in activities affecting labor, whose functions were not only similar but were in some instances conflicting and overlapping. The Administrative Code set up a division of industrial relations as one of 16 divisions of the executive department of the State government. This division is under the direction of the Colorado Industrial Commission, a tripartite agency composed of 3 members appointed by the Governor. The commission is given enforcement authority over all legislation affecting workers, except those applying to coal and metalliferous mines. The agencies abolished by the Administrative Code, the functions of which were taken over by the industrial commission, were the bureau of labor statistics, the chief boiler inspector and his staff, and the minimum-wage commission. The statutory duty of the industrial commission prior to the merger was the administration and enforcement of the workmen's compensation act and the industrial disputes investigation law, the operation of public employment offices, and the regulation of fee-charging employment agencies. These duties continue under the new code, and the scattered inspection services are coordinated under one head. In addition, a new division has been created to handle unemployment benefits, and following the decision of the Supreme

Court of the United States on the Washington minimum-wage law, the industrial commission is planning to start action to enforce the 20-year-old minimum-wage law of Colorado, which has never been operative.

Extension of Activities of Established Agencies

Legislation other than that concerned with departments of labor as such has called for reorganization and expansion in several of the long-established State agencies dealing with labor and labor laws. Of chief importance in that connection is unemployment-compensation legislation. While the administration of that system, in States where it has been made the function of the department of labor, necessitates the organization of a separate unit, other divisions of the department may also be affected. This is particularly true of the statistical divisions in some States, notably Wisconsin, where one statistical division serves the entire department. The provisions of the Wisconsin unemployment-compensation law require a great deal of detailed analysis, including that of part-time employment and earnings, since benefits are payable for partial as well as total unemployment. Hence the actual administration of the unemployment-benefit system in Wisconsin will make increasing demands upon the statistical staff. In other States, the departments of labor plan to draw upon the information gathered by the unemployment-compensation agencies regarding industries and establishments in their jurisdictions, to facilitate and expand other activities such as factory inspection and checking up on workmen's compensation coverage.

The validation of the Washington minimum-wage law by the Supreme Court has infused new life into the administering agencies, and in all the States having minimum-wage laws plans for vigorous enforcement are under way. Some States, among them Massachusetts and Minnesota, intend to resume application and enforcement of existing wage awards. Massachusetts kept its administrative machinery intact and the department of labor and industries hoped that the 22 wage decrees that have been issued since the inauguration of minimum-wage legislation in Massachusetts could now be made mandatory and enforceable. As a consequence of the Supreme Court decision on the Washington law, the attorney general of Minnesota ruled that the minimum-wage law of that State could again be enforced. The original minimum-wage decision fixed a flat rate applicable to all industries, with a differential between cities and towns. Following the reestablishment of that rate by the attorney general's decision, the bureau of women and children of the Minnesota Department of Labor and Industry began an investigation of pay rolls to determine the extent to which prevailing rates were less than

the minimum rate, and created a new minimum-wage board to convene on June 8 to go into the entire matter.

The New Jersey Department of Labor had never attempted to enforce its minimum-wage law, enacted in 1933, because of lack of funds and the uncertain status of the legislation itself. Recently, however, it has organized a division of minimum wage, conducted and completed a wage survey of the laundry industry, and convoked a minimum-wage board to fix a rate for that industry. The division of women in industry and minimum wage of the New York Department of Labor plans an extensive reorganization and a new method of approach to meet the conditions imposed by the minimum-wage law of 1937, which wipes the slate clean so far as action under the old law is concerned. Both the enforcement staff and the research staff will be materially enlarged and it is hoped that wage boards for five of the principal woman-employing industries will be functioning by the end of the year. Industrial surveys and cost-of-living studies will precede the creation of the wage boards.

Probably the most comprehensive plan for enlargement and reorganization reported to the Bureau during its survey is that of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry. Recent legislation, covering unemployment insurance, minimum wages for women and minors, a 44-hour workweek (effective Sept. 1 for women and Dec. 1, 1937, for men) and industrial home work, has imposed a greatly increased responsibility upon the State agency and widened its scope very materially. With a substantial increase in appropriation, the department is planning a program of expansion that will enable it to discharge its added duties effectively. Reorganization and reassignment of bureaus within the department on a functional basis are under way, new administrative, supervisory, and coordinating positions have been created, and a training program for new personnel is being developed. A new bureau will be established to administer the minimum-wage and hours-of-labor laws, and the functional scheme calls for the reassignment of some bureaus in a manner designed not only to increase their efficiency but to enable them to contribute more effectively to other related activites.

The effect of federally aided State employment services and unemployment-benefit systems upon the prestige and influence of State departments of labor cannot yet be fully estimated, because in most States those systems are only in the formative stage. Reports of the United States Employment Service, published currently in the Monthly Labor Review, show to what extent the Federal plan for a national employment service under the Wagner-Peyser Act has stimulated placement activities and enlarged the contacts of the State agencies with the constituencies they are organized to serve. Many States are now planning to take over the federally operated

national reemployment services as units of the State system and in other instances new State offices will be opened to reach wider areas, particularly in rural communities.

Other types of laws or administrative regulations that increase the work and widen the contacts of State labor agencies may be illustrated with specific cases. For example, recent legislation in Wisconsin which declares that newsboys selling papers on the street are the employees of the publishers abrogates the "little merchant" doctrine and brings street trades under the jurisdiction of the child-labor laws enforced by the Wisconsin Industrial Commission. A growing tendency toward the licensing of occupations is suggested in the law of Massachusetts requiring painters to be examined and licensed by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries and a similar law in Wisconsin which, while not mandatory, is quite generally observed. In both States special machinery was required to fulfill the conditions of the law. The industrial home-work laws of several States—Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, particularly—carry the supervisory authority of State agencies beyond factory walls to protect both home workers and factory workers against the serious harm that could come to both through an extensive and uncontrolled use of the home-work system. In several States this has involved the making of time studies to determine earning capacity, as well as inspection of the homes of workers applying for permits to work at home. The inspection of boilers has been made an additional function of the department of labor in a number of States. Texas is one of these, and on July 1 a boiler-inspection division was organized in the Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics after the commissioner had visited the departments of labor in nearby States which have had long experience in boiler inspection, to get the benefit of their experience and advice. In his report for the biennium 1935–36 the Texas commissioner stated that "Texas has come to be known as the dumping ground for the discarded boilers of other States" [5]—a condition which the law of 1937 and its administrative machinery under the labor department are designed to end.

Significant Trends

Recognition of the importance of a labor department as a factor in State government is apparent in these recent developments. As industrialization advances, as it is doing in the South, the need for regulatory machinery is being met by establishing agencies patterned after those of the older industrial States. Probably the most significant element in this movement is the extent to which these newly created agencies are clothed with authority to make rules and regu-

[5] Texas. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Fourteenth biennial report, 1935–36, p. 42.

lations having the full force of law. Until comparatively recently that power was conferred in only a few States, where both the administrative agency and the law-making body had learned from experience that flexibility was imperative if rapidly changing conditions were to be met. That the newer industrial States are profiting by this experience is evident in the extent to which newly organized labor departments have been granted legislative authority within their fields.

Other aspects of the expansion of departments of labor, specifically, activities having to do with securing jobs for workers and compensating them for their lack of jobs, will undoubtedly tend to bring these State agencies into closer personal contact with the workers whose interests they are charged with promoting. Originally designed as instruments for the collection of statistical information concerning working conditions, State departments of labor are now functioning in fields which establish a personal relationship between workers and their governments.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATION IN CLEVELAND [1]

By ERNESTINE WILKE, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

ANALYSIS of the consumers' cooperative movement in Cleveland as of June 1937 discloses two distinct types of retail organizations. On the one hand are two old and well-established societies, operating three stores each, begun and still largely patronized by Clevelanders from the wage-earning population of foreign birth or descent. On the other hand there is a group of 12 newly organized cooperatives beginning business operations on a small scale, whose membership includes for the most part professional and business people who have recently become interested in the movement. Both types of organizations are, however, members of the Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation, and through it are working along promotional and educational lines to further consumers' cooperation in the community.

One of the two long-established associations was started in 1912 and the other in the year following. These organizations were formed, respectively, by a group of Czechoslovakians who had had experience in cooperation in the country of their birth, and by the members of a local Slovenian fraternal organization who had become interested in consumers' cooperation through several articles which appeared in the paper published by the lodge. The next two decades witnessed the rise and fall of several other cooperative ventures, but it was not until 1934 that a general revival of interest in the cooperative movement took place. All of the second group of associations mentioned above have been organized since March 1936 and most of them have been functioning independently for less than a year.

Several of these newer organizations had their origin in the Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club, formed in December 1934 by some 25 persons who had become interested through current literature and the publicity which was being given the movement here and in Europe. A buying club was started and rebate agreements were negotiated with local merchants handling coal, clothing, gasoline, magazines, dry cleaning, dairy products, etc. Some goods were bought by mail from Cooperative Distributors, Inc., with which the club was affiliated, and at times grocery orders were pooled and filled by the local cooperative stores already in existence. The club's main purpose, however, was to educate its members and promote interest in consumers' cooperation. By the summer of 1936 the membership had grown to about 275 and was drawn from all sections of the city.

[1] This article presents the results of one of a series of "spot" studies of consumers' cooperatives carried on in May and June 1937 in connection with the Bureau of Labor Statistics general survey of consumers' cooperation in the United States.

There was difficulty in getting the members out to meetings in a central locality, and inconvenience in filling and distributing orders. It was felt that several neighborhood clubs, negotiating their own buying agreements with merchants whose businesses were located in sections convenient to the members, would function more efficiently. In October 1936 therefore the Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club was dissolved and from its membership four new clubs—Cranwood, East Side, Lakewood, and West Side—were organized.

By June 1937 there were about 2,400 members of consumers' cooperative organizations in Cleveland. Since in most cases only one member of a family is a shareholder, the number of member patrons of the stores and participants in club activities may be estimated at well over 5,000.

At the end of 1936 the seven incorporated organizations operating at that time had a combined capital of $32,914 and total assets of $100,255. Including the full-year operations of the two older associations and those of the clubs for varying numbers of months during 1936, the sales totaled $298,632. No attempt to picture the activities of the various consumer cooperatives in Cleveland as of one date, and particularly to present such items as membership, capitalization, sales, patronage refunds, etc., in statistical tables would, however, be applicable to the actual situation. With the exception of the two older companies whose operations after a period of 25 years have more or less settled into a routine pattern, the record would more appropriately be a moving than a still picture. All but the two old associations date from 1936, and one was formed as late as April 1937. Interested groups as yet unorganized, are planning to set up cooperatives; buying clubs are opening grocery stores or filling stations; memberships are growing; and some of the organizations which were forced out of business during the depression are planning to begin operations again.

The two older associations and 7 of the 12 new groups are incorporated.[2] Some remained study clubs for several months after they were organized, and incorporation followed later when business operations commenced. Each club plans to incorporate eventually. As Ohio has no consumers' cooperative law, cooperative associations, in conformity with a ruling of the attorney general, incorporate as nonprofit organizations under sections 10185 and 10186 of the General Code, 1936.

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[2] Below is a list of the active cooperative associations in Cuyahoga County:

Cleveland Cooperators, Inc.
Community Cooperators, Inc., Berea, Ohio
Cranwood Consumers' Cooperative Club
Cuyahoga Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, Berea, Ohio
Downtown Consumers' Cooperative Club
East Cleveland Cooperators, Inc., East Cleveland, Ohio
East Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club
East Side Consumers' Cooperative, Inc.
Lakewood Consumers' Cooperative, Inc.
Slovenian Cooperative Stores Co.
South End Consumers' Cooperative Club
Wage Earners' Cooperative Services, Inc.
West Side Consumers' Cooperative Club
Workingmen's Cooperative Co.

Membership

In June 1937 there were 4 organizations with memberships numbering between 35 and 50; 5 with between 51 and 100 members; 1 with 125, 1 with 200, 1 with 250, 1 with 300, and 1, the oldest, with 1,100 members. The previous 6 months witnessed a rapid growth in membership. Membership in the 12 organizations set up since 1935 was about 40 percent larger (1,037) in June 1937 than it had been on December 31, 1936 (766).

The only society which places a restriction on membership is the Cuyahoga Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, whose bylaws provide that only persons engaged in the production of agricultural products, or cooperative agricultural associations complying with the Farm Credit Act of 1933 are eligible to hold common stock.

A general provision in the bylaws of each of the organizations is that one member has one vote and that there shall be no voting by proxy. Five of the organizations specify that only one person from a family may be a stockholder or member. In all cases, however, all members of a family are urged to attend meetings and are entitled to have their purchases credited toward the membership of the representative of the family who belongs to the society. At least one organization was considering removing the restriction of one family, one member, from the bylaws; the reason for this, it is reported, is the tendency toward disagreement between husbands and wives, at the meetings, as to which way the family vote should be cast on controversial issues.

In only the two old associations does one nationality predominate among the membership. In the Workingmen's Cooperative, Czechoslovaks predominate and in the Slovenian Co. only about 10 percent of the members are of other nationalities than Slovenian. The South End Club is located in a neighborhood where there are many persons of Polish extraction, and there are probably more members of this nationality than of any other, although they are not in the majority. All but one of the members of the Wage Earners' Cooperative Services are Negroes. Among the other newer groups, there is no particular nationality or racial distribution.

Except in the case of the Cuyahoga Farm Bureau Cooperative, there is no distinct occupational alinement in the different organizations. The members of the Slovenian and Czechoslovakian societies are for the most part wage earners. Professional people and employees of business firms, on the other hand, were largely instrumental in organizing the Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club in 1934 and the other newer groups. The Cranwood Club and the Community Club in Berea, for instance, were organized by teachers, and members of this profession are still predominant on their rosters. The other

groups include considerable numbers of lawyers, physicians and dentists, social workers, clergymen, and men and women employed in business. Factory workers and other wage earners are, of course, included in the membership of each organization, and in some organizations they equal or outnumber the professional and business members.

Capital

The shares of one society are priced at $20, those of three others at $10, and the five remaining incorporated groups have life membership of $5. Stockholders in the Slovenian society may hold only one share apiece, and no one member of the Wage Earner's Association may own more than 5 percent of the shares outstanding. The other groups place no restriction on the number of shares which may be owned.

The five unincorporated clubs have membership dues of $1 per year.

In order to build up the capital fund, the bylaws of the Workingmen's Cooperative Co. require that patronage refunds shall be applied on the purchase of shares until the member owns the required three shares.

The bylaws of the Cuyahoga Farm Bureau Cooperative Association provide that the maximum number of shares of stock shall be 5,000—2,500 in common stock and 2,500 in preferred; both types are priced at $10 per share.

The seven incorporated associations had paid-in share capital aggregating $32,914 and ranging in the individual associations from $75 to $25,803. Four unincorporated clubs had collected about $210 in membership dues at the end of 1936. This amount increased, with their growing membership, to nearly $250 by June of 1937. These payments are usually not held as "capital", however, but are used in part to pay the current expenses of the clubs—dues to organizations with which they are affiliated, supplies, officers' fees, contributions, etc.

Only two of the organizations provide for the payment of interest on share capital. The bylaws of the Workingmen's Cooperative Co. limit the rate of interest on share capital to 4 percent, but as the association has been operating at a loss for several years, no interest has been paid since 1933. Previous to that time, it was reported, the rate had varied from year to year "according to what the banks and building and loan associations were paying." The Cuyahoga Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, in its bylaws, stipulates that 5-percent interest shall be paid on preferred stock, the rate on common stock not to exceed 8 percent. At the end of the fiscal year 1936, the organization had been in business only 10 months, and operations were still on a relatively small scale; no interest was paid for that year, but it is expected that payments will be made for 1937.

Business Operations and Policies

Store Associations

There were, in June, eight cooperative grocery stores in Cleveland —three operated by the Workingmen's Cooperative Co., three by the Slovenian Cooperative Stores Co., and one each by the Lakewood Consumers' Cooperative and East Cleveland Cooperators. The business of the Workingmen's society had in 1929 grown to a point where six branches, in addition to the main store, were operated. During the period 1933–36, four of these branches were closed, and customers formerly purchasing at these outlets are now served by deliveries from the three remaining stores. The management, however, looks forward to reopening one or two of these closed branches. In addition to these store associations there are also the business office, retail store, and warehouse of the Cuyahoga County Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.

The Slovenians opened their first store in June 1913. They now own this building, but rent the space occupied by their two branches. The Lakewood Cooperative opened its bright and shining little store on October 1, 1936, in the center of the shopping district of Lakewood. The baby among the cooperative stores in the community is the little shop run by the East Cleveland Cooperators. It was opened October 24, 1936, in a room at the rear of a confectionery store owned by one of its members where no rent was paid and expenses were at a minimum. The society later moved from those quarters to a more desirable location where the store has a street frontage. The store was the project of the store committee of the East Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club, which still sponsors buying agreements and carries on educational and promotional activities. A separate corporation, however, was formed in January 1937 to carry on the business of the store.

Commodities handled.—The stores run by the Slovenian and Bohemian societies carry a complete line of groceries and meats, together with the dairy products and bakery goods ordinarily handled in grocery stores. Stocks are turned over about 15 or 16 times during the year. Both societies manufacture their own sausages; in 1936 each produced about $7,500 worth of this commodity.

When these stores opened, a quarter of a century ago, there were no cooperative wholesales in the territory, and the connections then established with independent wholesalers have been maintained. Hence, only a small percentage of the total amount of goods purchased is from cooperative sources. Each year, however, more stocks are being secured from The Cooperative Wholesale in Chicago. Nationally advertised brands are carried, and although these older companies have not done much along the line of investigating condi-

tions under which the groceries are manufactured, or carried on research as to standards and quality, every effort is made to stock high-grade goods and to buy union-label products wherever possible.

The Lakewood Cooperative, during the first 7 months after it was opened for business, handled only canned goods and staples. In June a refrigerator was installed, allowing dairy products and other fresh articles to be carried also.

Lack of space in the store of the East Cleveland Cooperators definitely limits the amounts and varieties of goods which can be stocked and displayed. In spite of this handicap, a rather complete line of canned goods and groceries is carried, but fresh fruits and vegetables are not yet stocked. Motor oil and paints are sold in the store, and orders are taken for men's shoes manufactured at the Wolverine Cooperative Exchange in Michigan.

The cooperative label is much in evidence in both the Lakewood and East Cleveland stores; the managers estimate that about 40 and 60 percent, respectively, are secured from cooperative sources. The manager of the Lakewood store felt it wise to carry both types of goods, allowing the customer a choice and a chance to compare prices and standards. The members are definitely interested in knowing about conditions under which products are manufactured, and in learning about standards and qualities. Union-label goods are handled whenever available. The inspections made by the cooperative board in Columbus for quality and working conditions are accepted as far as "co-op" label goods are concerned, and a member of the board of trustees who is active in the trade-union movement heads a committee to investigate labor conditions in other plants. Government standards and Ohio State standards are referred to when commodities are stocked. The manager of the East Cleveland store likewise takes great interest in the matter of grades and qualities of the various brands.

The most important commodities handled by the Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, on the basis of value, are gasoline and motor oil, followed by fertilizer, feed, seed, orchard supplies, and farm machinery. Other products, representing a smaller volume of sales, are coal, fencing, paint, electrical equipment, builders' supplies, flour, etc. Nearly all these supplies are secured through the Ohio Farm Bureau Wholesale Cooperative Association, in Columbus.

Sales, net earnings, patronage refunds.—The Slovenian association's sales in 1936—$152,119—were larger than those of any consumer cooperative in the Cleveland area. Deducting the discount allowances which it is the practice of this association to make, the store receipts were $149,997. Less than 40 percent of these receipts were from cash purchases. Accounts receivable as of December 31, 1936, amounted to nearly $12,500.

The depression brought widespread unemployment among the members and customers of its stores, most of whom are employed in automobile and steel plants, with a resulting drop in sales and increased extension of credit, in many cases beyond the $50, 30-day term allowed by the organization's regulations. In a number of cases, individual accounts ran up to $500 or $600. Beginning with 1933, losses have been sustained each year. The largest deficit was for 1935—$2,621. In 1936 the loss was $186.

Although the bylaws of the association provide that the board of directors shall have the power to refund in cash to the stockholders in proportion to their purchases, or to apply against their outstanding accounts, a sum not to exceed 50 percent of the net earnings for each 6-month period, the actual practice regarding patronage refunds has been quite different. For many years, even when the association has operated at a loss, the management has followed the plan of giving discounts of 3 percent to members or 2 percent to nonmembers at the time of the purchase if the sale is for cash, or of deducting these percentages from the monthly bill for charge sales. These rebates of course actually bear no relation to the net trading earnings. Such discounts amounted to $2,123, about 1.4 percent of total cash and charge receipts, in 1936, and $2,360 in 1935.

The Workingmen's Cooperative Co. reported sales totaling $96,532 in 1936, with a gross trading profit of $18,554. After expenses were deducted, however, there was a net loss for the year amounting to $1,881, or 1.97 percent of total sales.

The association operated at a profit each year through 1931; then, with the depression growing more severe, requests for credit became more numerous, and the management was, by its own admission, too generous in granting these requests. The largest loss, over $4,000, was reported in 1934; since then conditions have been improving and it is expected that for 1937 the company will again show a profit. The manager said that the company had been unwise, during prosperous years, in declaring too large patronage refunds instead of placing more of the profits into reserve funds. The bylaws provide that stockholders may receive credit up to 80 percent of their paid-in share capital, and that if the account is not paid within a period of 6 months, the association has the right to consider the shares its property. With the personal element entering so largely into an organization of this type, however, it was natural that this rule was not followed strictly when the stockholders were out of work and without other resources.

Accounts and notes receivable on December 31 were $9,750, taking into consideration a $3,000 reserve for "doubtful accounts."

No patronage refunds have been paid since 1931. During the company's history, however, a total of about $75,000 in such rebates

have been paid out. In the 15-year period from 1921 to 1936, although the association sustained $10,000 in losses, it was able to make patronage refunds amounting to $65,000. The practice as regards dividends to nonmembers has varied from year to year; the percentage paid to them is always smaller than to members.

The Lakewood store had been in operation only 3 months by the end of the year 1936. Sales for the period October 1–December 31 totaled $1,765. They increased steadily and for the next 3 months amounted to $2,500. The store is now making expenses plus a small margin of profit. According to present sales, stock will be turned over about 15 times during 1937. All sales are for cash.

As of June 1937, the store represented an investment of about $750, including inventory valued at $650. Bills and accounts payable were only $55, and cash on hand and in the bank was $180.

No patronage dividends were paid for 1936; expenses incidental to opening the store had been heavy, and a $38 deficit remained on December 31. Members have agreed that the net earnings for each month will be added to the manager's salary until it reaches $125 or $130 a month. The bylaws provide for the payment of patronage refunds in proportion to purchases made, after 5 percent of the net earnings have been set aside for the educational fund and after the reserve for contingencies has reached an amount equal to 25 percent of the total membership fees collected. Patronage refunds due to nonmembers will be credited toward a membership fee in the organization.

The East Cleveland Cooperators had been operating their store for only about 2 months before the close of the fiscal year on December 31; sales for the 2-month period amounted to $362. By late spring 1937 they were averaging $250 monthly. The gross profit for the first 2 months of operation was $75 and the net savings $46—20.66 and 12.63 percent, respectively, of total sales. Patronage refunds amounting to about half the net earnings were declared at the close of the year. The remaining surplus was credited to the members, but applied toward the store operations. Patronage refunds due to nonmembers are credited toward their membership fee if they wish to join the organization. If at the end of 2 years the patron had neither become a member nor demanded the dividend allotted to him, the amount is to be transferred to the educational fund. Considering these items, it must be remembered that during this period the organization had free rent and management expenses were at a minimum. The store opened largely on money borrowed from members, these loans carrying interest at 4 percent.

During the 9-month period, March to December 1936, the Cuyahoga County Farm Bureau Cooperative Association had sales of $45,890. Total income for 1936 was $6,901 and expenses amounted

to $6,580, leaving a net gain for the year of $321. Net earnings were $246, but no patronage refunds were declared for the first year's operation. Each month a percentage of sales is set aside as reserves for the payment of patronage refunds, for the educational fund, and for the payment of interest on common and preferred stock. The policy regarding payment of patronage refunds is decided by the directors at the end of the year; such refunds may be paid to nonmembers as well as to members.

If cash is not paid for purchases, 2 percent is added to the bill rendered at the end of the month. If the bill is paid by the 10th of the following month, this 2 percent charge is deducted; if not, it remains on the bill, and 1 percent additional is added for every month the account is unpaid.

The Slovenian store estimates that nearly 65 percent of its customers are not members of the society. Only a small proportion of the total sales of the Workingmen's Co. are to nonmembers, although customers come from all sections of the city to purchase the sausages made at the store. The managers of the East Cleveland and Lakewood stores estimate that about one-fifth and one-tenth of their sales, respectively, are to nonmembers. About 45 percent of the Farm Bureau Cooperative's sales are to nonmembers.

Auditing of accounts.—The books of the Workingmen's Cooperative are audited semiannually by a certified public accountant; and those of the local Farm Bureau organization are audited by the Ohio Farm Bureau Corporation, at Columbus. For the other three societies, this function is performed by committees from among the membership, although until 1935, the Slovenians also employed a C. P. A.

Advertising.—The Slovenian and Bohemian stores carry advertising in both foreign-language and English newspapers published in their neighborhoods. Both distribute handbills occasionally. The Slovenian store has also made use of radio announcements in advertising special features. The manager of the Lakewood store sends special bulletins to members, and the East Cleveland Cooperators receive regularly an inventory list, with prices and specifications of the groceries stocked.

Resources.—Total assets were available for the five organizations which operate stores; these on December 31, 1936, had combined assets of $100,255. The other cooperatives are still operating as buying clubs and their property consists of such small items as bookkeeping equipment, small stocks of groceries, etc., varying in value from month to month. In one association, of $41,914 total liabilities, on December 31, 1936, nearly $33,000 was represented by paid-in capital and surplus; of the remainder, the main items were a mort-

gage of $4,300, a $3,000 note, and $1,168 in accounts payable. Another association had total liabilities of $49,000 of which over half was in capital and surplus; this association had a mortgage of $6,799, notes and loans payable to members amounting to $9,200 (not including a $3,983 item of rebates payable), and current accounts payable of $3,983.

Employees, wages, and hours.—The Workingmen's Cooperative Co. in 1936 had 11 employees, and total wages and salaries paid out amounted to over $13,300. In June of 1937 there were nine full-time and three part-time employees; a manager, bookkeeper, a deliveryman, three grocery clerks, and three meatcutters, all on full time and two grocery clerks and a collector on part time. The manager's hours are 59 weekly, the other full-time employees' hours are 43. Overtime is seldom necessary, but if required, is paid for at the straight rate. Until 1935, 1 week's paid vacation was granted. When business conditions have improved sufficiently, it is stated, vacations will again be given. The meatcutters belong to the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. The other employees are members of the Cooperative Workers' Union.

A total of $14,060 was paid out in wages and salaries to the 12 employees of the Slovenian stores in 1936. In June 1937, there were 11 full-time employees (manager, bookkeeper, 3 grocery clerks, 5 meatcutters, and a delivery boy) and 2 part-time clerks. Store hours are long—from 6 a. m. to 5 p. m. at the main store, and 7 a. m. to 6 p. m. at the branch stores—except on Wednesdays, when following the custom in Cleveland, the stores close at noon. The general manager works 48 hours per week, but the daily schedules of the other workers are so arranged that no employee works more than 44 hours a week. There is little overtime worked; if clerks are asked to put in extra hours, they are given compensating time off.

No paid vacations are given except for holidays. The meatcutters belong to the union of their craft, but collective bargaining has never been a problem, as the company has always paid union rates or better. In listing the duties of the board of directors, the bylaws specify that "It shall provide good working conditions for its employees as well as that they receive at least the minimum wages. If the employees want to organize themselves, they have full rights to do so and the board of directors has no right to interfere with these rights."

In the Lakewood Cooperative the manager is the only employee.[3] His salary ($90 per month) is not yet as high as the society wishes to pay, and as noted previously, any store profits will go toward increas-

[3] The description of the activities of the Lakewood Cooperative in the foregoing summary has not included their buying-club operations, described later, and carried on under a separate account. About $150 received in rebates through these purchasing arrangements by December had been applied toward the expenses incidental to establishing the store.

ing his pay. The manager of the East Cleveland store had devoted only part time to his job; at the time of the survey he was being paid 5 percent of each month's sales.

The Farm Bureau Cooperative has five employees, including the manager, a bookkeeper, two tank salesmen, and a delivery man. The manager is paid on a commission basis. The tank salesmen credit two-thirds of their sales to operating expenses and retain one-third as salary. Usual hours of work are from 7:30 to 5:30.

Buying Clubs

Seven of the cooperative organizations in Cleveland are still functioning as buying clubs. In addition, the Lakewood group, although running a store, still has in effect a number of purchasing agreements with local merchants. Each of the groups looks forward to opening a business outlet—a grocery store or gasoline station—in the near future.

In a pamphlet published by the East Cleveland Club, in the fall of 1936, the purpose of the buying clubs is set forth thus:

> The club is formed to educate its members in the cooperative movement, until sufficient numbers and capital can be obtained to start a cooperative enterprise, when a corporation is organized, and a business or credit union is established. A part of this education is accomplished, and funds accumulated, by collective purchasing or bargaining with private merchants, but this practice is transitory and not truly cooperative.

The purchasing agreements most commonly in effect were with private dealers in coal, laundry and dry cleaning, groceries, and dairy products. Others were with beauty shops, and hardware, furniture, and drug stores. Groceries are often purchased from cooperative wholesales or from local cooperative stores. Other goods secured from cooperative sources are electrical equipment and such supplies, as soap, cosmetics, and wearing apparel; they are usually sold at cost, however, and the savings are not therefore reflected in patronage rebates.

There is a refund of 50 cents a ton on coal purchased from the Community Coal Co. Other rebates are on a percentage basis, ranging from 5 percent to as high as 20 percent on some of the dry-cleaning agreements.

The volume of business done by individual clubs under these arrangements varies, of course, with the number of members and the number of contracts in effect. In 1 month, December 1936, the East Side Club made purchases amounting to $1,224; the Cranwood club in the first 4 months of its existence, from September–December 1936, did $760 worth of buying; others reported a smaller volume.

The policy as to the disposition of the rebates from dealers varies among the various groups. All put aside a percentage for educational

purposes. Several have made refunds to individual members, while others are saving these earnings for capital to be used in opening a cooperative business establishment.

Previous to February 1937 most of the clubs had had contracts with local gasoline-station operators whereby 1 cent or 1½ cents per gallon was returned on purchases made by members. These had been among the most lucrative of the buying arrangements, but were terminated after a protest against them by the Gasoline Station Operators Local Union No. 18378. Most of the large oil companies have "leased" their stations to operators; out of a few cents' margin specified on each gallon, these operators must pay the expenses of the station, their own salaries, and those of other attendants. The union felt that with the paying of this patronage rebate out of the small margin between cost and selling price, the wages of the employees were necessarily beaten down.[4]

The members of the buying clubs are interested in the working conditions and treatment of labor in establishments with which they have contracts. A representative of one group made a survey of several dairies before one was recommended. In some cases, agreements have been terminated because labor conditions were deemed substandard.

Two of the groups in June were completing arrangements for opening gasoline stations: The East Side Consumers' Cooperative, Inc., had, through membership fees or loans from its members, raised nearly all the capital necessary for the minimum requirements of a station (figured at $1,172). A site had been chosen, and negotiations were being completed for securing the gasoline and oil at wholesale. The Cranwood Consumers' Cooperative is also looking toward opening a station in the fall. A new organization, probably to be called Cooperative Services, Inc., is being formed, and by June 100 persons had paid 25 cents toward costs of incorporation and promised to buy membership shares at $10 each when plans are completed. The club is hoping to secure 300 members. The station will be located in the southeast section of Cleveland, and many members of the Workingmen's Cooperative Co. and of the South End Club have signified their interest in joining.

Two other cooperative groups, functioning mainly along educational and promotional lines, are the Downtown Cooperative Club and its affiliate, Cleveland Cooperators, Inc. The Downtown Club, with about 80 members, was active throughout the fall and winter, holding discussion meetings and luncheon forums in a downtown location. The club has a successful credit union with a paid-in capital of about $500.

[4] This rebate arrangement was in effect not only with the cooperatives, but also with large department stores, whose customers redeemed coupons given at the station for cash at the store, and with other organizations.

A primary objective of the Downtown Club was the establishment of a cooperative restaurant or cafeteria, and in December a corporation, the Cleveland Cooperators, Inc., was formed to handle the business activities of the club. There are about 15 members, most of whom also belong to the club. Several organizational meetings have been held and surveys to determine a suitable location for the restaurant are being made, but no definite plans have been formulated.

Community Coal Co.

Although it is at present operating as a private enterprise for profit, the Community Coal Co. is a part of the picture of consumers' cooperation in Cleveland. The company is affiliated with the Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation, grants rebates of 50 cents a ton on all coal purchases by persons belonging to the member groups of the federation, and has given financial assistance to the development of cooperatives in Cleveland.

Educational and Recreational Activities

The promotion of consumers' cooperation in the Cleveland area is a primary responsibility of the Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation. Each of the individual companies and clubs, also, works constantly through the membership and educational committees and speakers' bureaus to bring more people into the movement and to acquaint those already belonging with the principles and possibilities of cooperation. Speakers are sent to address union meetings, women's clubs, church groups, and other gatherings. Pamphlets and other printed matter are distributed, and one downtown bookshop has been designated as headquarters for cooperative literature; the city librarians have been instructed to tell inquirers where material may be obtained. The value of personal contacts between members and their acquaintances has been stressed as a means of bringing in additional members. One group requested the ministers in its locality to devote their sermons on a given Sunday to the subject of cooperation; a suggested outline and other information were sent to them ahead of time, and several responded to the suggestion. Editors of neighborhood papers have also given the movement their support in several instances. The bylaws of each of the organizations specify that a certain amount, usually 5 percent of net earnings, shall be set aside for educational purposes. At least one group sets aside a sum equal to a certain percentage of its sales each month as a reserve for this purpose.

Most of the cooperatives sponsor social and recreational activities for their members, and these are closely allied with the "self-education" work. Picnics, dances, teas, dinner meetings, and forum discussions are all features of social programs; often an outside speaker is brought

in, or a member reviews and comments on a recent publication on cooperation. Several of the organizations have affiliated women's guilds and youth leagues. Most of the newer groups have been primarily concerned with organizational and business problems, and the social activities have not as yet become routine. Representatives of the federation and of some of the individual groups attend cooperative summer schools, training courses for managers, and meetings sponsored by regional and national organizations.

The outstanding example in Cleveland of what a cooperative may do along recreational lines is the "D. T. J." or Taborville Camp of the Workingmen's Cooperative Co. About 1925, two farms near Auburn, Ohio, comprising 110 acres, were purchased, and lots were sold to individual members; the company owns one lot. Ten acres have been set aside for parks and a gymnastic field. Fifty-two cottages have been built, besides a large clubhouse with recreation rooms and a kitchen. The two old farmhouses have been converted into clubhouses for the young men and young women. There is an outdoor theater where the young people's dramatic group stages plays to enthusiastic audiences. The stream running through the grounds has been dammed to make a lake for swimming. In a section of the clubhouse, the company sells groceries and meats from its main store. Each Fourth of July there is an elaborate celebration lasting several days and attended not only by families of members, but by Bohemians from all over Cleveland and from other cities. A feature is the exhibition by the Young People's Gymnastic Union. Last year (1936) the secretary of the Czechoslovak Senate was the honor guest. The emphasis placed upon these cultural and recreational activities, making for a unity of interest among the members, is undoubtedly one of the reasons for the success of the cooperative association.

Federated Activities in Cleveland

Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation

At the time that the Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club was dissolved, in October 1936, the Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation was established. Its membership includes the four organizations sprung from the old city-wide club, the two old store associations, and four associations which came into existence independently in 1935 and 1936. Its affiliates include a coal company, three insurance companies, and two clubs.

Only two of the known consumers' cooperative groups in the Greater Cleveland area remain outside the federation; these are the East Cleveland Cooperators, Inc., and Cleveland Cooperators, Inc.

The purpose of the Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation, as stated in its bylaws, is "to assist its member organizations in meeting

their common problems, to coordinate their business activities, to promote the development of consumers' cooperation in Cuyahoga County and vicinity and the establishment of new cooperatives, to coordinate the investigative activities of the member organizations. The federation shall at all times work in close cooperation with the Central States Cooperative League and the Cooperative Wholesale, Inc., of Chicago."

Any organization in the county or vicinity, adhering to Rochdale principles of consumers' cooperation, is eligible for membership.

The federation is controlled by a council of delegates from member organizations, but the council's actions are subject to review and veto by the board of directors of the Central States Cooperative League. Delegates are selected annually by the member organizations on the basis of membership as follows: One for memberships of 50 or less, two for 51 to 150, three for 151 to 650, four for 651 to 1,150, etc. Each delegate has one vote, and there is no voting by proxy. The league is entitled to one delegate, but without vote.

The officers—a president, secretary, and treasurer—are elected once a year from among the membership of the council. An annual meeting is held in March, and special meetings are called as necessary. The expenses of the federation, largely for education and publicity, are met by the payment of annual dues of $1 by member organizations for each delegate representing them in the council, by assistance from the Central States Cooperative League, and other sources. One source of funds is the compensation paid by cooperative insurance companies in accordance with the number and value of policies written by accredited agents from among the federation members.

The federation has three standing committees, for education, investigation, and business. The education committee seeks to acquaint members and the general public with the principles and practices of consumer cooperation and to promote the organization of new groups. It works through five subcommittees: Cooperative education and publicity, which furnishes speakers to interested groups, distributing literature, etc.; labor, which contacts trade-unions and other labor groups; youth; women; and churches. The last three subcommittees have not yet begun active work.

The investigation committee is set up to look into working conditions under which goods are produced for cooperatives and the standards (quality, purity, suitability, weight, etc.) of goods or services handled by local cooperatives. Examples of the reports issued by this committee are one on coal and one on the dairy products handled by the companies with which the individual groups have buying agreements.

The management and coordination of such of the business activities as it is feasible to handle jointly is the purpose of the business com-

mittee. Its five subcommittees each deal with a particular service, as follows:

(1) Joint purchasing of supplies for member groups which are still buying clubs and of commodities not handled by the cooperative stores.

(2) Arranging for purchases of coal from the Community Coal Co., and directing the efforts of the federation toward making this company again a consumers' cooperative.

(3) Carrying out the federation's agreement regarding cooperative insurance. Under this arrangement the federation receives from the three cooperative insurance companies affiliated with it what amounts to a commission on policies written for federation members. In return, the federation agrees to render certain services of an advertising and reporting nature, such as advertising space in its publications, assistance in the reporting of claims, information relative to the desirability of risks, recommendation of qualified persons to act as agents, etc. The service fee is used by the federation for educational purposes only.

(4) Surveying the possibilities of medical and dental care on a cooperative basis.

(5) Investigating the possibilities of cooperative housing in Cleveland.

The federation plans the establishment of a downtown store in the fall of 1937. A location had not been chosen at the time of the study nor had plans for financing been definitely drawn. It is probable that shares of stock or certificates of indebtedness will be sold to individuals through the member organizations. The downtown store will not compete with stores or other business outlets run by the member groups, but will serve as a general clearing house and display center. Sales will be credited to the organization to which the individual purchaser belongs. Samples of some goods, such as electrical appliances, clothing, cosmetics, etc., on which turn-over is small or which are not handled in the neighborhood stores or supply rooms could be displayed there and orders taken. A book department is also planned, to serve the students of colleges and universities in the Greater Cleveland area. None of these schools has a student cooperative at present and as it is known that there is a large margin between the purchase and resale price of second-hand books by private dealers, it is felt that such a department could provide real savings for members.

Other Affiliations of Cleveland Associations

The bylaws of the Greater Cleveland Cooperative Federation provide that in order to remain a member "all cooperatives shall become members of the Central States Cooperative League or the Ohio Farm Bureau Cooperative Association within a reasonable length of time

after joining the federation, as determined by the council." Most of the individual organizations have fulfilled this requirement, and the rest, whose business operations are only beginning to get under way, have signified their intention of doing so. The Cleveland Consumers' Cooperative Club owned shares of stock in Cooperative Distributors, Inc.—a mail-order cooperative in New York City—and with the formation of the federation, these shares were transferred to it. Thus the groups which belong to the Federation may purchase from Cooperative Distributors, or individual members may place their orders direct.

Relation to Organized Labor

Cleveland is a highly industrialized city and labor organizations have a strong hold there. The two older cooperatives in Cleveland draw their members largely from among industrial workers, and may be said to be definitely prolabor. The Slovenian stores, for instance, supplied food to workers from an automobile body plant who were on strike for 6 weeks in 1936, and the Community Coal Co. sells coal at cost to workers on strike. The leadership and the majority of members of the newer groups spring from the professional and business groups. Their sentiment, however, is also prolabor, as expressed in preference for union-label goods, requirements that there be good labor conditions in establishments in which their goods are made or with which they have buying agreements, and in efforts to bring more wage earners and trade-unionists into the movement.

A point of difference exists, however, between federation members and two other cooperatives—the Cleveland Cooperators, Inc., and the East Cleveland Cooperators, Inc. The member who was instrumental in organizing these two groups and who is president of both of them feels strongly that a cooperative organized on Rochdale principles must remain impartial on the subject of labor and especially that it should not go on record as favoring trade-unions. He fears the danger that the cooperative movement may be dominated by organized labor and coerced by it. Irked by what was felt to be the "dictatorial" attitude of federation officials on this point, these two associations have refused to join it, although their parent clubs, the Downtown and East Cleveland Clubs, respectively, are an affiliate and a member of the federation. Both groups have been excluded from membership in the Central States Cooperative League because they have not been endorsed by the federation, and because it is a rule of the league that local groups must be members of any existing city federation before they may join the regional organization. Although not a member of the league, the East Cleveland Cooperators, Inc., purchased more goods from The Cooperative Wholesale at Chicago in the first 4 months of 1937 than did any other cooperative in Cleveland.

The stand of the Cleveland Cooperators, Inc., that if it opens a cafeteria or restaurant it will be an "open shop" as far as hired labor is concerned, has alienated other consumer cooperative groups which might have lent the project active support.

Many of the individual members of the two groups remaining outside the federation, however, do not subscribe to the views expressed above. Several, in fact, are trade-union leaders or sympathizers. Opinion was expressed, however, that the majority in the two associations could be won over to the federation's stand, so that all consumer cooperatives in Cleveland could work in harmony.

Continual efforts are being made to interest trade-unionists and labor organizations in the cooperative movement. A trade-union secretary who is a member of one of the cooperatives makes it a point to acquaint keymen in local labor circles with cooperative principles, the success of the movement in Europe and the recent gains in the United States, and to point out that cooperatives not only can save the members money but, through insistence on union-label goods, can be a force toward higher wages and better conditions. Discussions of the problem in meetings of trade-union locals is encouraged, and after further promotional work has been done, trade-unionists will be circularized to secure list of names of workers who are interested in joining one of the existing groups.

In Cleveland, as elsewhere, a certain element of suspicion and antagonism is apparent in the attitude of some unionists toward cooperatives. They would like to see the union label on more goods handled in cooperative stores, as it is their guaranty of fair wages and good conditions of work, and they feel obligated to purchase union-label goods wherever possible. Furthermore, they demand assurance that employees in cooperative establishments shall be paid the highest possible wages. There is the fear that these workers will be exploited and that money which should be paid toward wages will be diverted for patronage refunds.

Problems and Prospects

The problems which consumers' cooperation faces in Cleveland are probably common to similar urban organizations throughout the country. The heavy demands for credit which were made throughout the depression period of the last 8 years are lifting as business conditions improve and opportunities for employment are increasing. The granting of extensive credit was the cause of the failure of several cooperatives and of losses to those which survived the depression. During this period also many members requested refunds on their capital stock or on reserves which had been set up to their credit.

It is understandable that new cooperatives are anxious to create a business outlet through which to put into practice their theories of

retail selling. They thus have concrete evidence of cooperative enterprise to attract prospective members and to give their own members an interest in the movement which is hard to maintain merely through discussion and study groups. There has been some disagreement, however, among members of the two cooperatives which opened stores in October as to whether sufficient capital had been raised to see the stores through the difficulties of the early stages of business operation, and whether more complete surveys should not have been made among the members to determine the volume of patronage on which they could count, the commodities which should be stocked, etc. It is still too early to judge whether they acted too hastily in opening business outlets. Each of the newer groups names as its primary concern at present the problem of raising capital.

The establishment of a cooperative wholesale in the region has removed one of the obstacles which early cooperatives faced. The Workingmen's Cooperative, for instance, in its beginning years, had difficulty in securing credit from local grocery wholesalers. An early buying club among the Cleveland teachers was denied the privilege of trading with certain wholesalers when retail stores threatened to withdraw their orders from these middlemen. Only recently, an independent wholesaler bought back from one of the new cooperative groceries, at retail prices, the stock of goods he had sold to the store, because retailers in the neighborhood objected to the wholesaler furnishing a "co-op" with supplies.

Lacking sufficient capital to equip a complete store, the cooperatives usually start on a small scale and with a limited supply of goods. Members' residences are usually scattered throughout a large area, and housewives are often loath to go out of their way to make their purchases at the co-op when a completely stocked chain store or other grocery is just around the corner. The prospect of the deferred savings from patronage of the cooperative store often gives way before the pull of convenience and long-established purchasing habits.

There are prejudices or honest convictions to be overcome in securing new members or patrons. Many consider the cooperative development radical and subversive, and because of its rather close association with the labor movement, opponents of organized labor are likely to give it a wide berth. As pointed out above, many trade-unionists also are suspicious of the cooperators' motives, and are "waiting to be shown."

The two associations which have weathered the difficulties of a quarter of a century of operation each have, significantly, a close community of cultural interests and a common nationality and language. Their trading territory is small and their market established. Their members are drawn largely from among wage earners, and while they are distinctly interested in the social and economic

aspects of cooperation, the savings which revert to them are also a very real means of keeping their interest alive and growing.

These two companies are firmly established, and the observer of cooperation in Cleveland accepts the fact of their continued success. He is wont also to predict the success of the entire movement in the community, counting on the continuation of present enthusiasm and rapidly increasing membership. Encouraged by the Cooperative Federation, two new groups were planning, in the summer of 1937, to organize and begin operations soon. The nucleus of both will be among trade-union members—machinists in Euclid and the Postal Clerks' Union, although it is planned that membership in both cooperatives shall be unrestricted. The machinists are all employed in one company and most of them reside in Euclid, so that the prospective members already have interests in common. The postal clerks are attempting to interest other Federal workers. Neither group has definite plans as to the form its cooperative activities will take, but discussions have covered groceries, cafeterias, gasoline stations, and housing.

DISTRIBUTION OF HIRED FARM LABORERS IN THE UNITED STATES

By JULIUS T. WENDZEL, *Social Security Board*

THE RELUCTANCE to extend the operation of social legislation to agricultural labor appears to be closely associated with the general feeling that agriculture in the United States is predominantly a family enterprise in which hired labor plays a relatively unimportant part. It is often pointed out that when only one or two hired hands are employed on a farm, they usually enjoy a close personal relationship with their employer which tends to assure them of more favorable consideration than is usual in ordinary employer-employee relationships.

Some students of the problem attach less importance to this factor. Louise E. Howard, for instance, feels that "in essentials the employer-employee relationship, when it exists in agriculture, is not different from the relationship in other industries." She goes on to say, nevertheless, that—

> The fact that large numbers of isolated workers exist on farms is especially important; these workers, often young unmarried men, if they are the sole employees of the farmers whom they serve, enter into rather special relations with their employers, with whom they have a natural and intimate contact. * * * Quite without question as soon as two or three workers are found on the same farm, the position of the agricultural wage earner is substantially the same as that of employed persons in other industries.[1]

Special significance thus appears to be attached to cases in which wage workers in agriculture are employed singly or in very small numbers. It is therefore particularly important to know if, where, and to what extent agricultural wage workers are employed on farms singly or in very small groups, on the one hand, and in larger numbers, on the other.

The belief that farming in the United States is largely a family enterprise in which the family head is assisted by few if any hired laborers is not unfounded. Census figures for January 1935 show that no hired labor was employed on 5,845,000 out of a total of 6,812,000 farms. The average number of hired laborers for all farms was 0.24, and for farms reporting hired labor was only 1.7. These averages, however, conceal the fact that a relatively large number of hired farm laborers were on farms employing hired labor in substantial numbers, and that these hired laborers were concentrated on a very small number of farms.

[1] Howard, Louise E.: Labour in Agriculture—An International Survey. London, Oxford University Press, 1935, p. 32.

Distribution for January 1935

In order to obtain more complete data on the number of farms employing various numbers of farm laborers, the Social Security Board requested the Bureau of the Census to make a special tabulation of the 1935 farm census data to show a distribution of farms by number of hired laborers reported. The results of this tabulation are presented in tables 1 and 2.

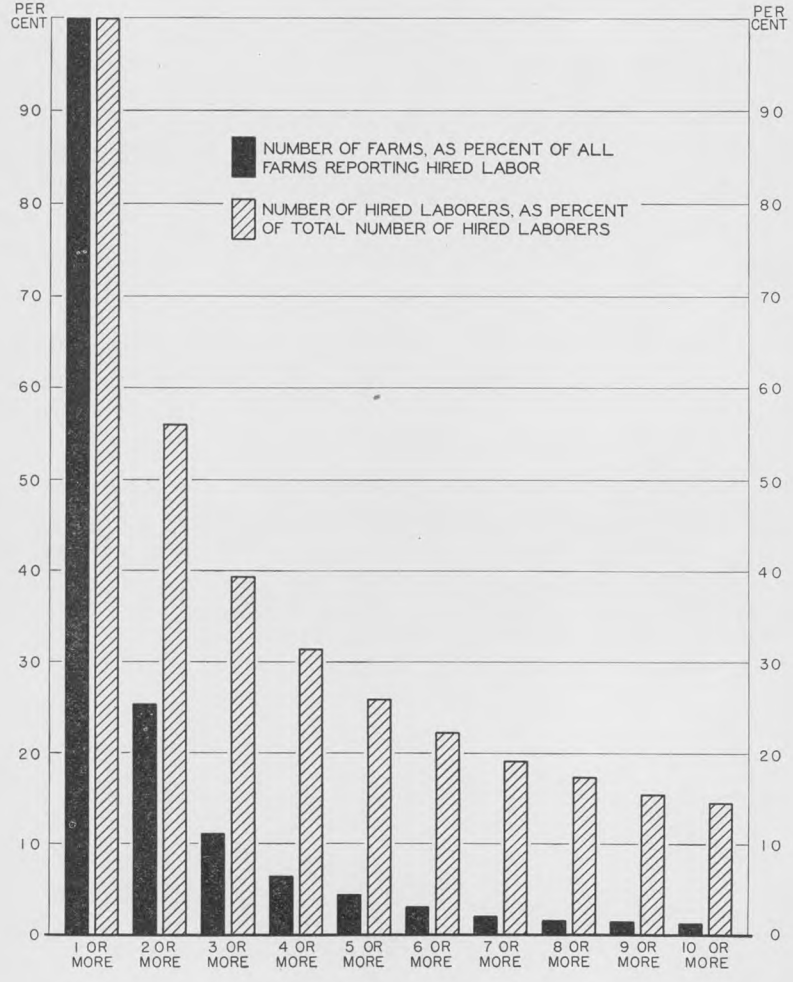
These data indicate that in January 1935 there were comparatively few farms in the United States on which more than two laborers were hired. Only 107,000 farms reported three or more laborers; this is but 11.1 percent of all farms reporting hired labor and 1.6 percent of all farms. On the other hand, nearly 650,000 laborers, or almost 40 percent of the total number, were employed on these farms. Thus a substantial proportion of all hired laborers in agriculture were employed on farms with a greater number of hired laborers than the one or two which some consider gives especially favorable status to employees.

The contrast between the small proportion of farms [2] reporting a relatively large number of hired laborers on the one hand, and, on the other, the substantial proportion of hired laborers on such farms is shown graphically in the chart on page 563.

[2] This proportion relates to all farms hiring labor and not to all farms. For the particular purpose of considering employer-employee relationships in agriculture, only the farms which report hired labor are of significance; hence, it would be misleading to compare the percentage of farms hiring given numbers with the total number of farms in the United States. As a matter of fact, many of the "farms" under the census definition are merely part-time enterprises or share-cropper holdings, among which a significant number of employees would hardly be expected.

PERCENT OF FARMS REPORTING SPECIFIED NUMBERS OF HIRED LABORERS, AND PERCENT OF HIRED LABORERS ON THESE FARMS

JANUARY, 1935



SOCIAL SECURITY BOARD BUREAU OF RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Cumulative Distribution of Farms by Number of Hired Laborers Reported, by Geographic Divisions and States, January 1935* [1]

Division and State	Total number of farms	Number of farms reporting specified numbers of hired laborers							
		1 or more	2 or more	3 or more	4 or more	5 or more	6 or more	8 or more	10 or more
United States	6,812,350	967,594	244,949	107,279	63,809	41,323	28,790	16,840	11,410
New England	158,241	37,279	10,563	4,475	2,500	1,556	1,068	607	404
Maine	41,907	7,914	1,758	695	374	206	126	55	31
New Hampshire	17,695	3,994	1,009	386	194	107	67	43	28
Vermont	27,061	8,077	1,588	443	210	122	82	38	24
Massachusetts	35,094	8,974	3,514	1,755	1,064	701	511	302	210
Rhode Island	4,327	1,167	457	222	132	88	61	44	22
Connecticut	32,157	7,153	2,237	974	526	332	221	125	89
Middle Atlantic	397,684	93,669	20,956	7,797	4,028	2,431	1,627	873	547
New York	177,025	47,831	10,087	3,608	1,740	1,009	637	314	167
New Jersey	29,375	8,878	3,052	1,362	795	501	342	203	145
Pennsylvania	191,284	36,960	7,817	2,827	1,493	921	648	356	235
East North Central	1,083,687	175,296	26,368	8,078	3,839	2,306	1,545	792	481
Ohio	255,146	36,519	6,125	2,132	1,117	693	483	262	161
Indiana	200,835	26,679	4,002	1,300	631	371	249	108	57
Illinois	231,312	38,327	5,681	1,781	835	500	338	187	133
Michigan	196,517	30,441	4,366	1,535	785	489	316	161	92
Wisconsin	199,877	43,330	6,194	1,330	471	253	159	74	38
West North Central	1,179,856	155,440	22,803	7,184	3,452	1,877	1,118	509	256
Minnesota	203,302	33,019	3,784	945	398	205	123	55	31
Iowa	221,986	40,646	4,696	1,233	517	257	138	58	31
Missouri	278,454	28,595	5,668	2,372	1,294	736	455	227	109
North Dakota	84,606	10,879	1,703	440	201	99	63	29	4
South Dakota	83,303	6,833	864	222	91	54	32	15	9
Nebraska	133,616	16,103	2,400	721	332	196	129	56	35
Kansas	174,589	19,365	3,688	1,251	619	330	178	69	37
South Atlantic	1,147,133	186,615	60,553	28,633	17,557	11,262	7,854	4,445	2,848
Delaware	10,381	1,898	418	166	97	67	45	31	25
Maryland	44,412	14,133	4,158	1,521	801	477	304	157	86
District of Columbia	89	45	25	15	11	7	6	6	5
Virginia	197,632	32,279	9,170	3,764	2,018	1,221	819	420	240
West Virginia	104,747	10,414	2,484	937	477	268	154	52	28
North Carolina	300,967	39,163	9,683	4,019	2,259	1,335	797	339	149
South Carolina	165,504	25,767	10,267	5,122	3,303	2,109	1,433	762	409
Georgia	250,544	42,701	16,204	8,585	5,533	3,645	2,604	1,522	998
Florida	72,857	20,215	8,144	4,504	3,058	2,133	1,692	1,156	908
East South Central	1,137,219	93,904	27,376	12,395	7,411	4,549	2,925	1,507	883
Kentucky	278,298	23,419	6,479	2,700	1,397	776	480	207	121
Tennessee	273,783	25,432	6,793	2,694	1,463	830	525	255	139
Alabama	273,455	27,274	8,068	3,941	2,516	1,600	1,023	509	255
Mississippi	311,683	17,779	6,036	3,060	2,035	1,343	897	536	368
West South Central	1,137,571	121,439	39,673	19,540	12,412	8,428	6,033	3,861	2,894
Arkansas	253,013	15,939	5,929	3,235	2,188	1,560	1,150	807	624
Louisiana	170,216	17,579	7,520	4,193	2,852	2,060	1,601	1,115	891
Oklahoma	213,325	21,076	5,149	2,064	1,100	638	370	169	83
Texas	501,017	66,845	21,075	10,048	6,272	4,170	2,912	1,770	1,296
Mountain	271,392	39,281	12,994	6,354	4,024	2,763	2,008	1,204	899
Montana	50,564	7,817	2,319	1,029	622	383	264	134	93
Idaho	45,113	5,495	1,483	621	352	220	142	66	36
Wyoming	17,487	3,404	1,222	632	378	258	188	100	72
Colorado	63,644	9,158	2,756	1,254	712	414	262	107	57
New Mexico	41,369	5,620	1,926	916	587	393	271	149	104
Arizona	18,824	4,297	1,946	1,246	950	792	670	533	461
Utah	30,695	2,608	963	453	294	214	146	78	55
Nevada	3,696	882	379	203	129	89	65	37	21
Pacific	299,567	64,671	23,663	12,823	8,586	6,151	4,612	3,042	2,198
Washington	84,381	10,445	3,064	1,392	760	465	302	151	84
Oregon	64,826	8,768	2,565	1,157	682	454	326	166	100
California	150,360	45,458	18,034	10,274	7,144	5,232	3,984	2,725	2,014

[1] *Source:* Bureau of Research and Statistics, Social Security Board. Prepared from unpublished data tabulated at the request of the Social Security Board by the Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Hired Laborers on Farms Reporting Specified Numbers of Hired Laborers, by Geographic Divisions and States, January 1935* [1]

Division and State	Number of hired laborers on farms reporting—							
	1 or more	2 or more	3 or more	4 or more	5 or more	6 or more	8 or more	10 or more
United States	1,645,602	922,957	647,617	517,207	427,263	364,598	289,168	244,132
New England	63,440	36,724	24,548	18,623	14,847	12,407	9,491	7,790
Maine	11,440	5,284	3,158	2,195	1,523	1,123	677	478
New Hampshire	6,067	3,082	1,836	1,260	912	712	558	432
Vermont	10,822	4,333	2,043	1,344	992	792	513	397
Massachusetts	19,247	13,787	10,269	8,196	6,744	5,794	4,479	3,708
Rhode Island	2,536	1,826	1,356	1,086	910	775	667	481
Connecticut	13,328	8,412	5,886	4,542	3,766	3,211	2,597	2,294
Middle Atlantic	139,065	66,352	40,034	28,727	22,339	18,319	13,550	10,848
New York	67,751	30,007	17,049	11,445	8,521	6,661	4,611	3,396
New Jersey	17,182	11,356	7,976	6,275	5,099	4,304	3,424	2,944
Pennsylvania	54,132	24,989	15,009	11,007	8,719	7,354	5,515	4,508
East North Central	224,444	75,516	38,936	26,219	20,087	16,282	11,515	8,948
Ohio	49,537	19,143	11,157	8,112	6,416	5,306	3,970	3,142
Indiana	34,070	11,393	5,989	3,982	2,942	2,332	1,446	1,026
Illinois	49,294	16,648	8,848	6,010	4,670	3,860	2,901	2,459
Michigan	39,192	13,117	7,455	5,205	4,021	3,156	2,167	1,591
Wisconsin	52,351	15,215	5,487	2,910	2,038	1,568	1,031	730
West North Central	196,158	63,521	32,283	21,087	14,787	10,992	7,133	5,037
Minnesota	38,846	9,611	3,933	2,292	1,520	1,110	671	470
Iowa	48,532	12,582	5,656	3,508	2,468	1,873	1,370	1,148
Missouri	40,742	17,815	11,223	7,989	5,757	4,352	2,913	1,937
North Dakota	13,495	4,319	1,793	1,076	668	488	267	58
South Dakota	8,209	2,240	956	563	415	305	197	146
Nebraska	20,300	6,597	3,239	2,072	1,528	1,193	730	557
Kansas	26,034	10,357	5,483	3,587	2,431	1,671	985	721
South Atlantic	358,175	232,113	168,273	135,045	109,865	92,825	71,341	58,116
Delaware	3,057	1,577	1,073	866	746	636	543	494
Maryland	22,973	12,998	7,724	5,564	4,268	3,403	2,469	1,881
District of Columbia	257	237	217	205	189	184	184	175
Virginia	52,310	29,201	18,389	13,151	9,963	7,953	5,449	3,945
West Virginia	15,032	7,102	4,008	2,628	1,792	1,222	592	395
North Carolina	59,321	29,841	18,513	13,233	9,537	6,847	3,944	2,375
South Carolina	53,140	37,640	27,350	21,893	17,117	13,737	9,532	6,593
Georgia	91,458	64,961	49,723	40,567	33,015	27,810	20,983	16,649
Florida	60,627	48,556	41,276	36,938	33,238	31,033	27,654	25,609
East South Central	160,025	93,497	63,535	48,583	37,135	29,015	20,103	14,928
Kentucky	36,915	19,975	12,417	8,508	6,024	4,544	2,832	2,114
Tennessee	39,496	20,857	12,659	8,966	6,434	4,909	3,210	2,242
Alabama	48,072	28,866	20,612	16,337	12,673	9,788	6,547	4,446
Mississippi	35,542	23,799	17,847	14,772	12,004	9,774	7,514	6,126
West South Central	259,426	177,660	137,394	116,010	100,074	88,099	74,438	66,448
Arkansas	39,974	29,964	24,576	21,435	18,923	16,873	14,706	13,201
Louisiana	56,416	46,357	39,703	35,680	32,512	30,217	27,152	25,303
Oklahoma	31,444	15,517	9,347	6,455	4,607	3,267	2,010	1,303
Texas	131,592	85,822	63,768	52,440	44,032	37,742	30,570	26,641
Mountain	84,141	57,854	44,574	37,584	32,540	28,765	23,656	21,124
Montana	13,523	8,025	5,445	4,224	3,268	2,673	1,853	1,513
Idaho	8,812	4,800	3,076	2,269	1,741	1,351	870	622
Wyoming	7,001	4,819	3,639	2,877	2,397	2,047	1,486	1,257
Colorado	15,228	8,826	5,822	4,196	3,004	2,244	1,250	832
New Mexico	11,364	7,670	5,650	4,663	3,887	3,277	2,505	2,129
Arizona	20,964	18,613	17,213	16,325	15,693	15,083	14,212	13,621
Utah	5,183	3,538	2,518	2,041	1,721	1,381	948	755
Nevada	2,066	1,563	1,211	989	829	709	532	395
Pacific	160,728	119,720	98,040	85,329	75,589	67,894	57,941	50,893
Washington	17,568	10,187	6,843	4,947	3,767	2,952	1,990	1,431
Oregon	15,287	9,084	6,268	4,843	3,931	3,291	2,280	1,725
California	127,873	100,449	84,929	75,539	67,891	61,651	53,671	47,737

[1] *Source:* Bureau of Research and Statistics, Social Security Board. Prepared from unpublished data tabulated at the request of the Social Security Board by the Bureau of the Census.

Geographical Differences

The January 1935 data exhibit striking differences among different areas, as may be seen from table 3. The percentage of all hired farm labor on farms with three or more varied from 16.5 percent in the West North Central to 61.0 percent in the Pacific division, and from 10.1 percent in Minnesota to 82.1 percent in Arizona. Not the least striking fact is the large proportion of hired farm labor employed in groups of eight or more in some sections of the country. Thirty-six percent of all farm laborers working for wages in the Pacific division and 68 percent in Arizona were employed on farms with eight or more hired workers. In general, the relative extent to which farm laborers are hired in relatively large numbers differs greatly from region to region.

TABLE 3.—*Cumulative Percent Distribution of Farms and Hired Laborers by Number of Hired Laborers per Farm, for Selected Areas, January 1935*

Number of hired laborers on farm	United States		West North Central division		Pacific division		Minnesota		Arizona	
	Percent of farms	Percent of farm laborers	Percent of farms	Percent of farm laborers	Percent of farms	Percent of farm laborers	Percent of farms	Percent of farm laborers	Percent of farms	Percent of farm laborers
1 or more	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2 or more	25.3	56.1	14.7	32.4	36.6	74.5	11.5	24.7	45.3	88.8
3 or more	11.1	39.4	4.6	16.5	19.8	61.0	2.9	10.1	29.0	82.1
4 or more	6.6	31.4	2.2	10.8	13.3	53.1	1.2	5.9	22.1	77.9
5 or more	4.3	26.0	1.2	7.5	9.5	47.0	.6	3.9	18.4	74.9
6 or more	3.0	22.2	.7	5.6	7.1	42.2	.4	2.9	15.6	71.9
7 or more	2.1	19.2	.5	4.4	5.5	38.4	.3	2.3	13.5	69.4
8 or more	1.7	17.6	.3	3.6	4.7	36.0	.2	1.7	12.4	67.8
9 or more	1.3	15.7	.2	2.9	3.9	33.3	.1	1.4	11.1	65.6
10 or more	1.2	14.8	.2	2.6	3.4	31.7	.1	1.2	10.7	65.0

Seasonal Fluctuations

The data so far considered relate to the single month of January 1935, the month in which the Census of Agriculture was taken. It is obvious that data for a single winter month cannot be accepted as representative, since total farm employment in summer far exceeds the January level. Moreover, the use of January data may distort regional differentials, since the relative level of January employment is different in different areas.

Unfortunately, data for other months are not available, and estimates which can be derived from existing material are subject to serious limitation as to accuracy. In order to give a rough idea of

the nature of the bias in the January data, however, tentative estimates for July have been prepared and are shown in tables 4 and 5.[3]

Table 4 permits comparison between July estimates and the census figures for January. The total number of farms with hired labor in July is estimated at 1,482,000, as compared with 967,000 in January; while the total number of hired laborers for July is estimated at 2,680,000, as compared with 1,645,000 in January. The July estimates show nearly 184,000 farms with three or more hired laborers, and more than 1,156,000 hired laborers on these farms, whereas the corresponding census figures for January were 107,000 farms and 648,000 hired laborers.

TABLE 4.—*Cumulative Distribution of Farms and Hired Laborers by Number of Hired Laborers per Farm, January and July 1935*

Number of hired laborers	Farms				Hired farm laborers			
	Number		Percent		Number		Percent	
	January	July (estimate)	January	July (estimate)	January	July (estimate)	January	July (estimate)
1 or more	967,594	1,482,697	100.0	100.0	1,645,602	2,679,340	100.0	100.0
2 or more	244,949	408,299	25.3	27.5	922,957	1,604,942	56.1	59.9
3 or more	107,279	183,880	11.1	12.4	647,617	1,156,104	39.4	43.1
4 or more	63,809	109,535	6.6	7.4	517,207	933,069	31.4	34.8
5 or more	41,325	70,994	4.3	4.8	427,263	778,905	26.0	29.1
6 or more	28,790	49,700	3.0	3.4	364,598	672,435	22.2	25.1
7 or more	20,570	36,129	2.1	2.4	315,278	591,009	19.2	22.1
8 or more	16,840	29,598	1.7	2.0	289,168	545,292	17.6	20.4
9 or more	15,006	23,269	1.3	1.6	258,496	494,660	15.7	18.5
10 or more	11,410	20,122	1.2	1.4	244,132	466,337	14.8	17.4

From the July estimates, it appears that the census data understate by a wide margin the number of farms with a relatively large number of hired laborers as well as the number of hired laborers on such farms. They appear to understate by a similar margin the total number of farms with hired labor and the total number of hired laborers.

Table 5 gives an indication of the limitations of the census data for regional comparisons. In the Middle Atlantic division the increase

[3] These estimates have been prepared for each month in 1935, although only the July figures are presented here. The method used in making these estimates was as follows: The Bureau of Agricultural Economics publishes data on the average number of hired laborers per crop-reporting farm, by months, for each geographic division. In order to make use of these data, it is necessary to make an assumption which may involve considerable error: That these farms are representative of all farms as regards changes in employment. Following this assumption, the average number of laborers per farm in each geographic division may be estimated for other months. In order to obtain an estimated distribution by number of hired laborers for each geographic division for months other than January, the counties in each geographic division were first grouped according to the January census average number of hired laborers per farm. The average distribution of farms by number of hired laborers was then obtained for the counties in each group. These distributions were plotted against the several groups of averages and a series of curves showing the average relationship between the several averages and the distributions were fitted. These curves were used to estimate the distributions underlying the averages for other months already obtained by using crop-reporter data. (Miss Laura Wendt, assistant statistician, performed the work of fitting the curves and making these estimates.) This estimating procedure involves also the assumption that the character of the distribution underlying a given average remains fairly constant throughout the year. This assumption is obviously open to question. A limited test of this assumption has, however, been made. For a single geographic division, the distribution of crop-reporting farms by number of hired laborers was estimated for months other than January by methods similar to those described above. This estimate was then compared with actual distributions reported for those months. The test was carried out on too small a scale to be conclusive, but it indicates at least that the assumption does not lead to unreasonable results.

from January to July in the total number of farms with hired laborers is 14.7 percent, and in the total number of hired laborers is 25.1 percent, whereas in the Pacific division the corresponding increases are 101.9 percent and 173.8 percent. Similar differences may be noted in the number of farms employing three or more, eight or more, etc., and in the number of hired laborers on such farms. The large regional differences in the change from January to July suggest that the regional differences shown by the January data cannot be taken as more than a very general measure of the differences at other times of the year.

TABLE 5.—*Cumulative Distribution of Farms and Laborers by Number of Hired Laborers per Farm, and by Geographic Divisions, January and July 1935*

Geographic division	Total number of farms	Number of farms with—			Number of hired laborers on farms with—		
		1 or more hired laborers	4 or more hired laborers	8 or more hired laborers	1 or more hired laborers	4 or more hired laborers	8 or more hired laborers
United States:							
January	6,812,350	967,594	63,809	16,840	1,645,602	517,207	289,168
July (estimate)	6,812,350	1,482,697	109,535	29,598	2,679,340	933,069	545,292
New England:							
January	158,241	37,279	2,500	607	63,440	18,623	9,491
July (estimate)	158,241	45,617	2,921	719	77,875	23,184	12,712
Middle Atlantic:							
January	379,684	93,669	4,028	873	139,065	28,727	13,550
July (estimate)	379,684	107,433	5,256	1,237	173,902	46,335	26,819
East North Central:							
January	1,083,687	175,296	3,839	792	224,444	26,219	11,515
July (estimate)	1,083,687	279,540	7,444	1,489	361,519	43,064	14,672
West North Central:							
January	1,179,856	155,440	3,452	509	196,158	21,087	7,133
July (estimate)	1,179,856	265,955	6,360	1,041	346,897	41,743	16,535
South Atlantic:							
January	1,147,133	186,615	17,557	4,445	358,175	135,045	71,341
July (estimate)	1,147,133	232,014	21,640	5,132	446,181	166,650	86,230
East South Central:							
January	1,137,219	93,904	7,411	1,507	160,025	48,583	20,103
July (estimate)	1,137,219	123,686	8,858	1,794	210,388	62,340	28,403
West South Central:							
January	1,137,571	121,439	12,412	3,861	259,426	116,010	74,438
July (estimate)	1,137,571	222,256	21,310	5,690	457,434	193,914	118,268
Mountain:							
January	271,392	39,281	4,024	1,204	84,141	37,584	23,656
July (estimate)	271,392	75,613	10,537	2,674	165,116	70,372	32,185
Pacific:							
January	299,567	64,671	8,586	3,042	160,728	85,329	57,941
July (estimate)	299,567	130,583	25,209	9,822	440,008	285,467	209,468

A General Qualification

Throughout the foregoing discussion, the census practice of considering sharecroppers as farm operators has been followed. There is, however, a strong basis for considering them as hired employees of the plantation owners. It is usually considered that a primary condition of an employer-employee relationship is the ownership of the tools of production by the employer, and that this condition is fundamental to employee insecurity. By this criterion, it is clear that sharecroppers should be regarded as employees rather than independent farm operators. When it is noted that the 1935 Census of Agriculture reported well over 700,000 sharecroppers, it becomes obvious that, should sharecroppers be considered as employees, many of the figures given above would be greatly modified.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN DENMARK

By E. GJESSING, *American Vice Consul, Copenhagen*

DANISH labor has gained many advantages during the course of the years through intelligent leadership and political action. The conditions under which it works and the wages it receives compare favorably with those in any of the neighboring countries. The majority of the industrial workers in Denmark, numbering about 394,000, belong to trade-unions the policies of which are outlined and directed by a central organization consisting of representatives of the various unions. In addition, about 73,000 organized workers belong to independent organizations. In time of conflict all the unions are inclined to act together. The majority of the Danish employers are also organized in a body called the Danish Employers' Association.

Danish trades and industries operate under contracts or agreements, of 1 or 2 years' duration, entered into between the respective groups of organized employers and organized workers. In case of the inability of the two parties to reach an agreement, the Board of Arbitration, a body established by law, takes action and makes proposals to serve as a basis for future agreements. These proposals may be rejected by one or both of the parties, in which case strikes or lock-outs may be declared. Besides the Board of Arbitration there is a Permanent Labor Tribunal which acts as a court in case of the violation of contract relations between labor and capital. On cases appealed to it, the Labor Tribunal has the power of an ordinary court and its decisions are binding.

Statutory Control of Industrial Disputes

In 1899 an agreement (called the September Agreement) was reached between capital and labor in settlement of a severe conflict. This agreement, which introduced the 8-hour working day, has served as a basis for all labor legislation and agreements made since that time. During the following decades the trade-unions increased numerically from year to year until all unorganized labor was absorbed. Labor gradually become more powerful politically than the employers, and the demands of labor rose, while capital became firmer in its

resistance. Disputes at the yearly expiration of the labor contracts became more and more protracted, and in 1933, 1934, 1936, and 1937, when no agreements could be reached, the Government stopped conflicts through legislative measures. In 1933 it forbade strikes and lock-outs for 1 year; in 1934 it changed the voting system of the labor unions; in 1936 it enforced compulsory arbitration for 1 year after the inception of the conflict; and in 1937 it enacted into law the arbitration proposal submitted by the Public Arbitrator. The Government declared itself in theory averse to such coercive measures, but justified its action on the ground that extensive labor conflicts would seriously endanger the country's economic situation.

Labor Disputes in 1936

In February 1936, at the beginning of negotiations for new agreements, the unskilled laborers' union made a demand for minimum and other wage increases of about 10 percent. At the same time, the building trades made demands for a 40-hour workweek and for additional wage increases of from 20 to 25 percent. The demands of the building trades were opposed by the other trades on the ground that the demand for a 40-hour workweek in Denmark, where the 8-hour workday obtained, could not be made by an isolated union and without the endorsement of the others. The employers refused the demands in toto, but offered instead a general increase in minimum wages of about 2 percent in 1937, if the labor agreements were made for 2 years instead of for 1 year. None of the parties would yield. The Public Arbitrator declared that he had no basis for an arbitration proposal. Thereupon a lock-out by the employers went into effect on February 21, 1936. It involved about 120,000 workers, not only of trade-unions demanding increases in wages but those (such as the textile union) making no demands.

On March 17, 1936, the Public Arbitrator, being of the opinion that the parties to the conflict would be more conciliatory after they had been faced with the reality of the struggle, formulated a proposal of arbitration. This proposal was kept secret and submitted to vote of both the employers and the workers, according to the provisions of the law of January 18, 1934. This law required a majority vote of all the trade-unions and of the employers in such a manner that one trade-union could not, by voting for rejection, continue the conflict, as had been done in the past, but had to abide by the decision of the majority vote of all the trade-unions. The voting on the proposal, which was made public on March 25, 1936, showed a 65-percent vote for and a 35-percent vote against acceptance of the proposal by the trade-unions, and 41 percent of the employers for acceptance and 59 percent against it.

The result of the voting was to be expected. The proposal voted on was in favor of the demands of labor, stipulating that 2-year

agreements be substituted for 1-year agreements, that minimum wages in the trades involved be raised, and that time wage scales be increased 4 percent the first year and 7 percent the following year. The demands of the building trades for a 40-hour workweek were, however, ignored.

A proposal regarding new rules for labor agreements was made with the one regarding new wage scales and the stipulations as to holidays with pay. (In nearly all trades in Denmark the workers are entitled to a week's holiday with pay for 1 year's work.) These rules provided that the dates of all agreements which, prior to 1936, had expired at various times from February to June of that year were to be changed so that the agreements would expire on March 1. If changes were desired, representatives of the various groups or subdivisions of employers and workers could come together 3 months prior to the expiration of the agreement and negotiate concerning conditions in the separate shops. If the changes did not involve hours of labor and general wage schedules, but were local in character, the matter might be left to a tribunal established for that purpose, which would decide the questions. Disputes regarding wage schedules and hours of labor were to be decided by representatives of the entire trade. In the past both minor and major questions had to be decided by the head organizations, but under the new plan all matters of detail could be decided by subdivisions prior to the expiration of the agreement and the ground cleared for discussion and decision on matters of general interest and importance.

The proposal for the new rules for labor agreements was accepted by an overwhelming majority of both employers and workers. There was a general realization, it seemed, that negotiations had become too cumbersome and protracted, owing to the various dates of termination of different labor agreements and the mass of detail with which the head organizations had to deal.

While the arbitration proposal of March 17 was under consideration, a proposal (agreed upon on March 10, 1936, between representatives of the slaughterhouse workers' trade-union, an independent organization, and a group of employers who were not affiliated with the employers' association) had been submitted to vote by the workers and rejected. This proposal provided for a 2-year contract and an additional increase of 1.00 krone [1] per week in 1937. As these conditions had been rejected the matter would normally have been submitted for arbitration, but the prospects were that a conflict would ensue. The same issues were involved in 1936 as in 1934, when a threatened conflict in this branch of industry had been averted by law on the ground that a stoppage of the export of bacon, Denmark's most important article of export, besides involving tremendous losses,

[1] Average exchange rate of krone in 1936 and 1937 = about 22 cents.

would interfere with the country's international obligations, with all the ensuing serious consequences.

Other labor agreements about to expire in April and May 1936 were not likely to be renewed as long as there was a lock-out in other trades. In the meantime, in the trades where there was a conflict both parties had sufficient means to continue the struggle indefinitely but it was clear that a protracted struggle would destroy the country's economic equilibrium, regulated as it was by control of imports. The labor situation had become so tangled and confused that it did not seem possible for a solution to be brought about by private persons.

Compulsory Arbitration Law of 1936

As soon as the arbitration proposal made by the Public Arbitrator had been rejected by the employers, the Government took action. The Prime Minister introduced a bill in the Danish Parliament by which the arbitration proposal of March 17, 1936, was made binding on both parties affected by the labor conflict of February 21, 1936. The proposal of March 10, 1936, affecting the slaughterhouse workers, was to be enforced in the same manner. As far as agreements expiring in April and later were concerned, the bill proposed that they be renewed. If differences arose, they were to be submitted for arbitration under the terms of the arbitration proposal of March 17, 1936. Strike and lock-out notices could not be issued during negotiation, but the bill contained no proposals as to what steps should be taken if agreement could not be reached.

The proposed bill was undoubtedly in line with the desires of the principal labor leaders, but the conservative opposition parties and the small radical party, which supported the Government, were in favor of compulsory arbitration. After conferences lasting several days a bill was framed which reflected the compromise reached among the various parties, and this bill became law on March 29, 1936. It applied compulsory arbitration to all labor contracts or agreements to be made in 1936, and provided for 2 years' duration for the greater part of the contracts.

While all lock-outs and strikes declared before the law was passed were made null and void, the two parties to the conflict were given an opportunity to voice their differences, and settle them voluntarily within a week, before a tribunal which would be empowered to formulate arbitration proposals. If the parties could not agree, however, another tribunal, created for the purpose, would decide the issue expeditiously within a few days and its decision would be binding upon both parties. While the tribunals were in session, work in the industries and trades concerned was to continue under the conditions which obtained before the dispute, and the decision of the tribunal would be retroactive up to March 29, 1936.

Failure of 1937 Negotiations

The opinion was general in the beginning of 1936 that compulsory arbitration would become a permanent feature of Danish labor legislation. When, in the election of September 1936, the Social-Democratic Party of the Danish Parliament obtained a majority in the upper house, public opinion changed. Labor was opposed to compulsory arbitration and made its influence felt. In 1937 the agreements between employers and workers in the iron and metal industries, embracing workers in other trades connected with these industries, and between a large number of contractors and common laborers of the unskilled laborers' trade-union, were to be renewed. The preliminary negotiations were begun in accordance with the law of 1936, but no agreement could be reached regarding wage schedules. The Public Arbitrator took action and submitted a proposal on March 27, 1937; answers from both parties were to be given on April 6. A majority of the employers voted for rejection, while a majority of the workers voted for acceptance.

Vote on Arbitration Proposal of March 27, 1937

Voting on the arbitration proposal was in accordance with the provision of the law of January 18, 1934. The manner of taking the vote differs greatly in the employers' and the workers' organizations. In the employers' organization the vote is decided by the amount of capital represented by the votes cast. In the trade-unions the members are usually summoned to take part in a general meeting and the votes are counted for or against the arbitration proposal. Where there is no quorum (usually a majority of the members), the delegates who form the trade-union board of management can vote for all the members. In the latter case, however, the delegates' votes do not count for the full number of their trade-unions, but for a reduced number obtained through multiplication by a fraction consisting of the actual members participating divided by the full number of the members of the other trade-unions.

When the arbitration proposal of March 27, 1937, was submitted to vote in the Danish Employers' Association, employers representing capital investments of 199,300,000 kroner voted for the proposal and others representing 295,900,000 kroner of capital voted against it. The proposal was thus rejected by 59.75 percent of the vote. The reason for the rejection was that the most experienced and most capable workers received no increase, all of the increase going to the poorer classes and frequently to the least capable workers.

In certain trade-unions, with a total membership of 57,749, where individual voting by the members took place, 10,933 voted for the proposal and 21,161 against it. These were all trade-unions of skilled

workers who would not be materially benefited by the arbitration proposal and who therefore voted for rejection. The 32,094 members who participated in the voting represented 55.4 percent of the membership. In the trade-unions of unskilled workers involved in the conflict, only 20,000 of the 51,646 members met to vote. As they did not form a quorum, the vote for the entire union was cast by its delegates. Under the provisions of the law, the votes were reduced to 55.4 percent, equivalent to 28,520. This number, added to the 10,933 votes of the skilled workers for the proposal, made 39,453, which was calculated at 65 percent of the total vote cast. The unskilled workers naturally voted for the proposals, as they were the principal beneficiaries.

Labor Law of April 9, 1937

Three days after the rejection of the arbitration proposal, the Government, determined that there should be no conflict, and with a safe majority in both houses, passed a bill which became law on April 9, 1937. A translation of the law follows.

Extension of Agreement Between Employers and Workers

SECTION 1. The labor agreements embraced by the arbitration proposal submitted by the Public Arbitrator on March 27, 1937, are renewed for the period of time stated and with the changes contained in chapters A to D of the above-named arbitration proposal.

If new agreements, extending the above-mentioned labor agreements, have not been reached within the time of expiration, and if, nevertheless, any one of the parties involved desires that the agreements in question be discontinued at the time of expiration, or later, the rules agreed upon as to notice of cancelation are to be observed.

SEC. 2. During the period for which the labor agreements mentioned in section 1 of this law are to be renewed according to this law, the carrying out of lock-outs or strikes is forbidden within the trades embraced by this law.

Violation of this mandate can, on request of one of the parties concerned, or according to ruling of the Permanent Labor Tribunal, be taken up for consideration by this tribunal, which will decide the question according to the provisions regarding illegal stoppage of work in the law of October 4, 1919 (no. 536).

The foregoing provisions are not to prevent the operation of the adjustable wage scales, as, for instance, in the iron and metal industries, in conformity with the purpose for which they were inaugurated and with the usual effects within the period mentioned in section 1 of this law, provided stipulations in the arbitration proposal of March 27, 1937, do not preclude the application of such adjustable scales.

SEC. 3. This law goes into effect immediately but the changes, as introduced by the arbitration proposal, will go into effect on the date when they would have been valid if the arbitration proposal had been accepted by the employers.

Unless there is an unusual increase in the cost of living, the labor agreements mentioned in this law will have 2 years' duration and will expire in March 1939. During this period of time no strikes or lock-outs will be permitted on account of disagreement as to wages and hours, and no sympathy strikes may be declared. For the duration of the agreements the wage schedules in the arbitration proposals must be observed, but in the iron and metal industries workers can be advanced from lower to higher basic wage schedules and an employer may not arbitrarily keep his workers' earnings at the lowest scale without cause.

Terms of Arbitration Under Law of 1937

The arbitration proposal forms an appendix to this law and has four chapters, A to D. A synopsis of this proposal follows.

In connection with this proposal it must be borne in mind that nearly all work in the iron and metal industries in Denmark is piece work. All skilled workers in these industries are engaged at a nominal wage rate, ranging from 0.90 to 1.50 kroner per hour, which is used as the basis in calculating earnings on piece work. For instance, if two men are engaged on piece work, one at 0.90 krone and the other at 1.50 kroner per hour, the earnings will be apportioned between the two men in relation to their nominal wages. If, for instance, 800 kroner is earned on a job, the worker at 0.90 krone per hour receives 300 kroner and the one at 1.50 kroner per hour, 500 kroner. There are no fixed hourly wages in the Danish iron and metal industries.

In the arbitration proposal, which is now a part of the law, minimum earnings per hour have been fixed. They are as follows:

	Kroner per hour	
	Under 1937 law	*In 1936*
Skilled workers	1.02	0.96
Unskilled workers	1.01	.95
Women in Copenhagen:		
Between 16 and 18 years	.59	(2)
Over 18 years	.68	
Women outside Copenhagen:		
Between 16 and 18 years	.56	
Over 18 years	.64	

For workers in the industries which have no fixed hourly wage schedules, as, for instance, the iron and metal industries, the earnings per hour were increased as follows:

Earnings per hour prior to passage of law:	*Increase per hour [3] (krone)*
1.0 kroner	0.07
1.11–1.20 kroner	.06
1.21–1.30 kroner	.05
1.31–1.40 kroner	.04
1.41–1.50 kroner	.03
1.51–1.59 kroner	.02

In the towns outside of Copenhagen, where the earnings are lower, the following additions were granted:

Earnings per hour prior to the passage of law:	*Increase per hour (krone)*
Up to 1.10 kroner	0.07
1.11–1.16 kroner	.06
1.17–1.22 kroner	.05
1.23–1.28 kroner	.04
1.29–1.34 kroner	.03
1.35–1.39 kroner	.02

[1] Increase of about 7 percent.
[3] But not to exceed 1.60 kroner.

For women an increase of 3 øre per hour was fixed.

Graduated additions to piece-work earnings ranged from 7 øre per hour when former earnings were 1.30 kroner per hour or less, to 2 øre per hour when earnings were 1.79 kroner per hour in Copenhagen and 1.49 kroner elsewhere.

Minimum earnings of unskilled workers were increased 1.00 to 1.08 kroner per hour, and those of workers in the trades connected with the iron and metal industries, where wage scales are fixed, advanced 5 øre per hour for painters and 6 øre per hour for boiler cleaners. These latter advances amounted to about 3 percent of the actual wages received. For young unskilled workers between 18 and 19 years of age, wages were set at 80 øre per hour, and for those between 19 and 20 years at 95 øre per hour. This was a protective measure. In former years when a young unskilled worker reached the age of 18 he was considered as being entitled to the normal wage, with the result that he was often dismissed and a stronger and more mature man put in his place. There is now a possibility that he may be retained because of the lower wage scale for minors.

These are the most important changes in the wage schedules. It is apparent that the unskilled workers have been favored whereas advances to skilled workers are exclusively to those of low earning capacity or to those who have been employed in activities where wages were below standard. The workers in the iron and metal trades in Copenhagen, for instance, are not benefited by the advances in the arbitration proposal, as their earnings are above the limit beyond which no advances are granted. In the Provinces where general earnings are lower, a few will be benefited.

One important provision at the end of the arbitration proposal should be mentioned. It reads as follows:

> In case the retail-price index figure published by the Danish Statistical Department on October 1, 1937, should vary by 6 points above or below that published by the Statistical Department on January 1, 1937, when it was 175, every one of the parties concerned is entitled to give notice of cancelation in 1938. (The 1914 price-index figure is used as a basis of 100 in determining the price-index figure.)

It is not likely that there will be a decrease in the retail-price index figure under present conditions, and as the retail-price index figure at the beginning of 1936 was 173, there is no great probability that it will advance to 181 points.

Government Influence in Industrial Relations

When the Office of the Public Arbitrator was established at the beginning of the century, his function was to frame a proposal which, in view of the demands of capital and labor at that time, would have a likelihood of acceptance by both parties. It was not within his

province to consider whether or not the demands were just, or whether or not they could be reconciled with the economic conditions of the country. The independence of capital and labor to bargain for the best terms possible was to be respected. The exigencies of the economic situation, however, have gradually exerted their influence on the negotiations between capital and labor. Besides, labor has become more and more inclined to use political measures. This political action has also been felt within the ranks of labor, where the numerically powerful unskilled workers have gradually enforced their demands for increased wages, so that their wage schedules are approaching those of the skilled workers. There appears to be no doubt that the more the Government steps in and decides conflicts through legislative measures, the less interest will be taken by labor, particularly in the negotiations. This is illustrated by the voting on the arbitration proposal of March 27, 1937. On account of the present economic situation in Denmark, the Government must continue to exert its influence to avoid devastating conflicts. Labor is, however, becoming reconciled to adjusting its demands to the economic capacity of the country, for which the good leadership it has enjoyed for many years is responsible.

SETTLEMENT OF INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN ESTONIA

AN ESTONIAN decree of March 12, 1937, provides for the settlement of industrial disputes through a series of successive Government steps to bring about an agreement between the parties to disputes.[1]

If one of the parties to a dispute becomes convinced that a voluntary agreement cannot be reached, he must apply to the local labor inspector requesting him to act as arbitrator for the settlement of the dispute.

Should the efforts of the labor inspector fail to settle the dispute within 3 days if the dispute concerns one establishment, or 6 days if it concerns several establishments, he must report his failure to the director of the Labor and Social Insurance Division of the Ministry of Social Affairs. The Minister of Social Affairs may refer the case to the commission for settlement of industrial disputes, or he may declare the arbitration proceedings at an end. In the latter case the workers have the right to strike.

The commission is established at the Ministry of Social Affairs. The chairman and deputy chairman of the commission are appointed by the President, and its membership is composed as follows: Director of the Labor and Social Insurance Division of the Ministry of Social

[1] Riigi Teataja (Official Gazette), Tallinn, Estonia, Mar. 12, 1937.

Affairs; one member appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs; director of the Industry Department of the Ministry of Economic Affairs; one member appointed by the Minister of Economic Affairs; four members appointed by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and four members appointed by the Chamber of Labor. The commission works in two groups.

The commission is to endeavor to bring the parties to the dispute to an agreement. Any agreement reached has the status of a trade agreement concluded through collective bargaining.

In case the commission fails to bring about an agreement, it must settle the dispute by its ruling. If, because of inadequate data or some other reason, it fails to agree on a ruling, it then declares the settlement proceedings closed and so reports to the Minister of Social Affairs. The Minister may return the case to the commission for a new attempt to bring about an agreement, but if he does not do so, the workers have the right to strike.

If the commission makes a ruling, it is communicated to the parties to the dispute. If no protest is made against the ruling within 3 days, the ruling becomes binding on the parties to the dispute. If a protest is made, the Minister of Social Affairs, with the consent of the Minister of Economic Affairs, either confirms the ruling of the commission or returns the dispute to the commission for a new attempt to settle it by another group.

Protests against a new ruling of the commission may be made in the same way as against the first ruling. In case of protest the Minister of Social Affairs, with the consent of the Minister of Economic Affairs, either confirms the ruling of the commission or leaves to the workers the right to strike.

The ruling of the commission, if accepted by the parties to the dispute or confirmed by the Minister of Social Affairs, is effective for a period fixed by the commission, not to exceed 1 year, and is binding on both the workers and their employers.

The workers are prohibited from going on strike for 4 weeks after the date when the labor inspector undertook to settle the dispute, in case of permanent employment, and 2 weeks in case of seasonal employment.

Strikes are permitted only for the purpose of obtaining higher wages and better working conditions for the strikers themselves. Strikes in the Government service are prohibited. Agitation for strikes is prohibited to persons not employed in the establishment in which a dispute is going on, and to anyone during arbitration proceedings.

A lock-out is prohibited in any establishment where there is no dispute. Agitation for a lock-out is also prohibited.

Labor Involved in Industrial Production

LABOR AND MATERIAL INVOLVED IN GRADE-CROSSING ELIMINATIONS

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IN ORDER to provide employment and at the same time reduce the hazards to human life, funds were set aside under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 for the elimination of railroad grade crossings. Such funds were apportioned by the Secretary of Agriculture on the basis of population, mileage of the Federal-aid highway system, and railroad mileage. There are four types of grade-crossing elimination projects: (1) Separation of grades at crossings, (2) protection of grade crossings, (3) reconstruction of existing grade-crossing structures, and (4) relocation of highways to eliminate grade crossings. The present study covers overpasses and underpasses constructed to separate grades at crossings. From the beginning of the program in July 1935 to March 1937 the total estimated cost on all grade crossings was $167,914,000 and on overpasses and underpasses in excess of $123,970,000.

An analysis by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the reports of contractors of 361 overpasses and underpasses completed under this program indicates that in the construction of 297 overpasses and 64 underpasses, 25 cents of each dollar spent went for labor employed by the contractor at the site of the project; 42 cents for construction material; and 33 cents for other expenses, such as equipment, surety bonds, engineering, insurance, workmen's compensation, office work at the site, etc. Each dollar spent for overpasses was distributed among the three items in virtually the above proportions. In the construction of the underpasses, however, 23 percent went for labor at the site, 39 percent for construction material, and 38 percent for other expenses.

Reports from 407 general contractors and 93 subcontractors working on the 361 overpasses and underpasses indicated that 11,043,000 man-hours of labor were created at the site of construction. Site labor includes only the labor hired by the contractors. None of the central office force or executives are included.

The total estimated cost amounted to $25,247,000 (table 1). Of this sum pay-roll disbursements at the site of construction totaled $6,205,000 or 24.6 percent; construction material, $10,558,000 or 41.8 percent; and other expenses amounted to $8,484,000 or 33.6 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Cost of Overpasses and Underpasses*

Item	Total		Overpasses		Underpasses	
	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
Total estimated cost	$25,246,627	100.0	$20,001,014	100.0	$5,245,613	100.0
Pay roll at the site	6,204,456	24.6	5,014,986	25.1	1,189,470	22.7
Cost of material	10,557,969	41.8	8,529,028	42.6	2,028,941	38.7
Other expenses	8,484,202	33.6	6,457,000	32.3	2,027,202	38.6

Disbursements for pay rolls at the site of construction were 22.3 percent of the total estimated cost in the Middle Atlantic and 28.5 percent in the East South Central States. The cost of material used in the construction of the overpasses and underpasses ranged from 37.2 percent of the total estimated cost in the Mountain States to 47.1 percent in the West North Central States. The percentage for other expenses was lowest in the West North Central States (29.1 percent) and highest in the Mountain States (37.8 percent).

Table 2 shows the total estimated cost, pay roll, cost of material, and other expenses, by geographic divisions.

TABLE 2.—*Total Estimated Cost and Expenditures for Construction of 361 Overpasses and Underpasses, by Geographic Divisions*

Geographic division	Number of projects	Total estimated cost		Pay roll at the site		Cost of material		Other expenses	
		Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
All divisions	361	$25,246,627	100.0	$6,204,456	24.6	$10,557,969	41.8	$8,484,202	33.6
New England	15	1,053,121	100.0	270,748	25.7	427,360	40.6	355,013	33.7
Middle Atlantic	9	800,050	100.0	178,616	22.3	336,410	42.1	285,024	35.6
East North Central	49	4,732,490	100.0	1,173,576	24.8	1,877,742	39.7	1,681,172	35.5
West North Central	88	4,871,101	100.0	1,161,686	23.8	2,293,316	47.1	1,416,099	29.1
South Atlantic	28	1,069,637	100.0	250,941	23.5	433,527	40.5	385,169	36.0
East South Central	31	2,290,479	100.0	653,637	28.5	917,331	40.1	719,511	31.4
West South Central	64	3,605,990	100.0	844,210	23.4	1,522,405	42.2	1,239,375	34.4
Mountain	47	4,238,784	100.0	1,058,503	25.0	1,578,353	37.2	1,601,928	37.8
Pacific	30	2,584,975	100.0	612,539	23.7	1,171,525	45.3	800,911	31.0

The pay rolls and the man-hours of direct labor at the site varied with the geographic division, depending upon the number of projects, their size, and local conditions regarding wages and hours of labor. The hourly earnings for all divisions averaged 56.2 cents (table 3). In the South Atlantic States average hourly earnings were 36.4 cents

and in the Pacific geographic division, 83.4 cents. The overpasses and underpasses constructed in the South Atlantic geographic division were located in Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Florida—States in which average hourly earnings are lower than in Maryland or the District of Columbia. There were no completed projects in the District of Columbia or in Maryland.

TABLE 3.—*Pay Roll, Average Hourly Earnings, and Employment on 361 Overpasses and Underpasses, by Geographic Divisions*

Geographic division	Pay-roll disbursements	Average hourly earnings	Man-hours worked at the site
All divisions	$6,204,456	$0.562	11,042,551
New England	270,748	.629	430,554
Middle Atlantic	178,616	.649	275,370
East North Central	1,173,576	.618	1,900,361
West North Central	1,161,686	.569	2,043,095
South Atlantic	250,941	.364	688,671
East South Central	653,637	.400	1,633,836
West South Central	844,210	.454	1,860,204
Mountain	1,058,503	.717	1,475,636
Pacific	612,539	.834	734,824

More than $8,529,000 was spent for materials used in the construction of the overpasses. The final fabrication of these materials away from the site of construction required over 4,619,000 man-hours of labor. This labor did not include the man-hours required in the extraction of raw materials, in the early processing stages, and in transportation. The estimate for structural steel, for example, covered only the labor in the rolling mill and did not account for labor created in mining and smelting the ore or in the blast furnaces, the open-hearth furnaces, or the blooming mills.

Of the total cost of material used in overpass construction, $3,038,000 was spent for structural and reinforcing steel. Over 1,501,000 man-hours were involved in the final fabrication process of this material. The production of $1,280,000 worth of cement accounted for 475,150 man-hours. Lumber and timber products costing $780,000 required 861,560 man-hours of labor in final fabrication.

All types of material used in the construction of the underpasses cost $2,029,000. The expenditures for structural and reinforcing steel totaled in excess of $634,000. The cement used on the projects was valued at $345,000 and sand and gravel cost $205,000.

The final fabrication of all material used on the underpasses involved more than 1,095,000 man-hours of work. Structural steel required 313,000 man-hours; lumber and timber products, 177,000 man-hours; sand and gravel, 164,000 man-hours; and cement, 128,000 man-hours.

The cost of material and work created in final fabrication is shown in table 4, by type of project and material.

TABLE 4.—*Cost of Material and Work Required for Final Fabrication of Material Used on 361 Overpasses and Underpasses, by Type of Material*

Type of material	Overpasses		Underpasses	
	Cost of material	Man-hours created in fabrication	Cost of material	Man-hours created in fabrication
All types of material	$8,529,028	4,619,070	$2,028,941	1,095,480
Forest products	801,544	873,800	162,351	177,990
Lumber and timber products	780,415	861,560	160,036	176,630
Planing-mill products, including finished wood flooring	21,129	12,240	2,315	1,360
Chemicals and allied products	46,801	9,180	9,107	1,700
Explosives	18,719	4,590	3,689	850
Paints and varnishes	28,082	4,590	5,418	850
Stone, clay, and glass products	2,636,748	1,385,500	757,857	407,830
Brick, hollow tile, and other clay products	12,913	12,920	14,420	14,450
Cement	1,280,274	475,150	345,258	128,180
Concrete products	355,146	156,060	112,924	49,640
Crushed stone	273,587	177,480	76,566	49,640
Marble, granite, slate, and other stone products	56,676	34,850	3,422	2,040
Sand and gravel	624,630	498,610	205,267	163,880
Tiling, floor and wall, and terrazzo	28,530	28,730	----------	----------
Wall plaster, wallboard, and insulating board	4,992	1,700	----------	----------
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	3,543,817	1,803,700	762,710	390,490
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	21,899	11,560	6,502	3,400
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	38,964	36,040	13,761	12,750
Forgings, iron and steel	17,831	8,840	7,566	3,740
Hardware	102,833	80,240	19,516	15,300
Heating and ventilating equipment	20,823	13,600	1,949	1,360
Nails and spikes	21,411	10,540	7,555	3,740
Steel-works and rolling-mill products	193,124	95,370	51,913	25,670
Structural and reinforcing steel	3,038,452	1,501,610	634,257	313,480
Tools, other than machine tools	36,621	20,910	15,624	9,010
Wire and wireworks products	51,859	24,990	4,067	2,040
Nonferrous metals and their products	64,829	25,160	31,201	12,070
Sheet-metal products	64,829	25,160	31,201	12,070
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	432,633	237,660	70,441	37,400
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	21,189	10,200	2,547	1,190
Engines, turbines, tractors, and waterwheels	121,500	64,090	15,293	7,990
Foundry and machine-shop products	255,523	143,310	37,214	20,910
Machine tools	24,694	15,470	----------	----------
Pumps and pumping equipment	9,727	4,590	15,387	7,310
Miscellaneous	1,002,656	284,070	235,274	68,000
Electric wiring and fixtures	20,086	9,690	8,978	4,420
Paving materials: Asphalt, tar, crushed slag, and mixtures	143,750	30,770	49,369	10,540
Petroleum products	544,875	55,760	99,728	10,200
Plumbing fixtures and supplies	3,505	2,380	2,295	1,530
Roofing, built-up and roll, asphalt shingles, and other roof coatings, except paint	6,799	1,360	16,497	3,400
Other materials	283,641	184,110	58,407	37,910

Social Security

STATUS OF SOCIAL SECURITY AT END OF JUNE 1937

AT THE END of June 1937, 32 States had entered into full participation in all four security plans under the Social Security Board. In announcing the progress made, the Social Security Board also reported on the status of each of the different plans.[1] Unemployment-insurance plans had been adopted by all the 48 States at the close of the month of June, as well as by the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii, and the District of Columbia. Adoption of plans for other forms of protection also increased in number during the quarter ending June 30.

In administering the old-age benefit system, the Board has assigned social-security numbers to 29,954,821 applicants. The number of field offices was extended by 31 in June, bringing the total to 171. These offices are now assuming the responsibility for assigning account numbers, thus taking over a task previously handled by the typing centers of the Post Office Department.

The Board estimates that nearly 21 million workers are in jobs covered by the 51 unemployment-insurance laws. From February 1936 to July 1, 1937, the States and Territories having approved laws received Federal grants of slightly over 10 million dollars to cover necessary administrative costs. In the middle of June this year the unemployment trust fund in the United States Treasury amounted to approximately 290 million dollars, representing deposits plus accrued interest of 35 States and the District of Columbia. Withdrawals for payment of benefits totaled 1 million dollars, all of which went to Wisconsin, which is the only State paying benefits at present.

Federal grants have been authorized in 47 States for one or more of the three public-assistance programs providing for aid to the needy aged, the needy blind, and dependent children. The Board estimated on the basis of reports received that 1,867,100 needy individuals would be entitled to aid in July, under a total of 115 approved plans. With the approval of 5 plans for aid to the needy aged in June, the total approved plans numbered 47. The average payment per beneficiary in May 1937 was $18.63. Plans for aid to the needy blind were in force in 33 jurisdictions at the end of June, those of Georgia, New York, North Carolina, and Tennessee having been approved during that

[1] United States Social Security Board. Summary of progress, July 1; Press release dated July 26. Washington, 1937.

month. The average payment to the blind in May 1937 was $24.56 per individual. Laws to secure aid to dependent children were operating with Federal assistance in 35 States at the end of the period covered. In 6 States—Georgia, Montana, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, and Tennessee—they were approved during June. Federal grants for such assistance to June 30, 1937, amounted to $17,270,666. The average payment per family in May was $30.92. Estimates of July payments from Federal, State, and local funds cover 449,400 dependent children in 177,000 families.

The following table shows the States and Territories having plans for each of the four types of assistance.

States With Public-Assistance Plans and Unemployment-Compensation Laws Approved by the Social Security Board, June 30, 1937

[(+) indicates the existence of an approved State plan or law]

State	Public-assistance plans for aid to—			Unemployment-compensation laws	State	Public-assistance plans for aid to—			Unemployment-compensation laws
	Aged	Blind	Children			Aged	Blind	Children	
Alabama	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Nebraska	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Alaska	(+)			(+)	Nevada				(+)
Arizona	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	New Hampshire	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Arkansas	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	New Jersey	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
California	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	New Mexico	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Colorado	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	New York	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Connecticut	(+)	(+)		(+)	North Carolina	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Delaware	(+)		(+)	(+)	North Dakota	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Dist. of Columbia	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Ohio	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Florida	(+)			(+)	Oklahoma	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Georgia	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Oregon	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Hawaii	(+)			(+)	Pennsylvania	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Idaho	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Rhode Island	(+)		(+)	(+)
Illinois	(+)			(1)	South Carolina				(+)
Indiana	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	South Dakota	(+)			(+)
Iowa	(+)			(+)	Tennessee	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Kansas				(+)	Texas	(+)			(+)
Kentucky	(+)			(+)	Utah	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Louisiana	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Vermont	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Maine	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Virginia				(+)
Maryland	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Washington	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Massachusetts	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	West Virginia	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Michigan	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	Wisconsin	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Minnesota	(+)			(+)	Wyoming	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Mississippi	(+)			(+)					
Missouri	(+)			(1)	Total approved plans	47	33	35	49
Montana	(+)		(+)	(+)					

[1] Law enacted prior to June 30, 1937, but not approved until after that date.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS IN CANADA, 1936–37

OLD-AGE pensioners in Canada totaled 146,524 on March 31, 1937. Payments for the fiscal year ending on that date were $21,149,352, according to an official statement on the financial condition of the fund published in the Canadian Labor Gazette.[1]

[1] Canada, Department of Labor, Labor Gazette, vol. XXXVII, May 1937, p. 513.

The pension system now embraces the Northwest Territory and nine Provinces. It was established by an act of 1927 which provided for a Dominion-Provincial pension scheme to be effective in such Provinces as might enact special laws for old-age assistance.

Pensions are payable to persons 70 years old and over whose annual income is under $365. To qualify, an applicant must have lived in Canada for 20 years and in the Province where he applies for the 5 years immediately preceding his application. The maximum payment allowed is $240 per year, but if the pensioner has a private income the pension is subject to a reduction by the amount, if any, that the private annual income exceeds $125. Originally the Dominion Government bore one-half the cost of pension payments of any Provincial government during the preceding 3 months. In 1931 this percentage was increased to three-fourths of the total expenditure.

The following statistics of operation were compiled by the Department of Finance, the agency responsible for accounting control and supervision of the system.

Summary of Old-Age Pensions in Canada, Mar. 31, 1937

Province	Date of adoption	Number of pensioners	Average monthly pension	Percent pensioners form of—		Percent persons over 70 form of total population [1]	Contributions of Dominion Government	
				Total population [1]	Population over 70 years [1]		1936–37	Since inception of act
Alberta	Aug. 1, 1929	9,100	$18.13	1.18	50.55	2.33	$1,409,060	$6,494,570
British Columbia	Sept. 1, 1927	10,824	19.29	1.44	40.09	3.60	1,823,268	9,957,075
Manitoba	Sept. 1, 1928	11,559	18.64	1.63	52.54	3.09	1,922,415	10,704,499
New Brunswick	July 1, 1936	9,803	13.39	2.25	54.46	4.14	868,308	868,308
Nova Scotia	Mar. 1, 1934	13,456	14.49	2.51	49.84	5.03	1,764,915	4,975,187
Ontario	Nov. 1, 1929	55,950	18.19	1.52	34.54	4.39	9,146,838	49,321,892
Prince Edward Island	July 1, 1933	1,768	10.58	1.92	30.48	6.30	161,528	512,516
Quebec	Aug. 1, 1936	22,620	18.68	.74	23.81	3.07	2,345,107	2,345,107
Saskatchewan	May 1, 1928	11,436	16.51	1.23	51.98	2.36	1,706,190	9,683,815
Northwest Territory	Jan. 25, 1929	8	19.10	.03	8.00	1.00	1,723	11,328
Total		146,524					21,149,352	94,874,297

[1] Percentages based on estimated population as of June 1, 1936 (Dominion Bureau of Statistics).

The table shows that on the whole the Provincial systems that have been longest in operation pay the highest average monthly pensions. Among the 10 Provinces, the average pension is over $16 in 7 and below that amount in 3. The ratio of pensioners to the total population is highest in Nova Scotia (2.51) and New Brunswick (2.25) and lowest in Northwest Territory (0.08) and Quebec (0.74). The remaining Provinces make payments to between 1 and 2 percent of the total population. When those pensioned are compared with the total number of persons over 70 years old the figures show that about one-half the persons of pensionable age received benefit in 5 Provinces, Alberta (50.55), Manitoba (52.54), New Brunswick (54.46), Nova Scotia (49.84), and Saskatchewan (51.98). The ratio was low in

Quebec (23.81) and the Northwest Territory (8.00), where the number assisted was also small in relation to the total population. Among the Provinces, Ontario received the largest amount in Government grants for pensions in the fiscal year closing March 31, 1937, and had more than twice as many pensioners as the total benefiting under any other provincial law.

COMPULSORY OLD-AGE INSURANCE IN FINLAND

A COMPULSORY system of invalidity and old-age insurance was established in Finland by an act of May 31, 1937.[1] The law will become effective January 1, 1939. All persons in Finland who are capable of working become subject to the law from the beginning of the year following that in which they reach the age of 18. However, persons who reach the age of 55 before the law becomes effective will not be covered by the insurance nor will those who settle in Finland after reaching that age.

The insurance system will be maintained by contributions by the insured persons, and by the employers in the case of wage earners; by subsidies from the State and local authorities; and by a percentage of the profits of the alcohol monopoly.

The contributions of insured persons during the first 5 years of the operation of the system are fixed at 1 percent of taxable income, with a minimum of 50 marks and a maximum of 500 marks per year; after that time the contribution will be 2 percent, with a minimum of 75 marks and a maximum of 1,000 marks. The taxable annual income is the same as that estimated for the local "rates" but does not take into account the exemptions allowed for small incomes, family responsibilities, and sickness and accident. The contribution for married persons whose combined annual income is less than 10,000 marks is reduced to 60 percent of the minimum contribution for the one who is not the principal breadwinner of the family, while if only one of the couple has an income the double contribution is paid by the one receiving the income. Insured persons who have reached the age of 64, or who are in receipt of an invalidity pension or who have been wholly dependent on assistance from public funds for an entire year are not required to contribute.

The contributions are fixed annually for each insured person by the local assessment board and are based on the income of the insured person during the previous civil year. They are collected at the same time as the local taxes, except that the contribution of wage earners is deducted from their wages by the employer and paid to the

[1] Data are from International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information (Geneva), July 19, 1937.

National Insurance Office. Wage earners who have a supplementary income are required to pay the contribution on such additional income directly to the local assessment board. Employers are required to contribute an amount equal to the amount deducted from each employee's wages.

For the calculation of the subsidies from public funds, the law provides for the division of the local areas into five classes on the basis of their relative financial condition. In addition, the local authorities bear part of the cost of the pension supplements which are added to the basic pension, the amounts payable by the local authorities varying from 10 to 30 percent of the expenditure on pension supplements payable to the insured persons of each local area. The pension-supplement fund, formed by a part of the profits of the State alcohol monopoly and direct State subsidies, pays the remainder of the supplementary pensions.

Pensions are payable for old-age and invalidity and, under certain conditions, payments are made in case of death. The right to an old-age pension is acquired at the age of 65 after 10 years' membership in the insurance system. An invalidity pension is payable to persons permanently incapacitated for work who have been insured for at least 3 years, unless the incapacity is due to willful negligence or results from a crime, in which case the insured are entitled only to the part of the pension formed from their own contributions. The invalidity pension consists of a "basic fraction" and an "accumulated fraction." The basic fraction is made up from deductions from the total contributious, which may not exceed 25 percent of the total contributions paid during the year. The rate of the basic fraction varies, however, according to the age at which the insured person entered the insurance system and his age at the time the pension becomes payable. The accumulated fraction is established in an individual account formed by the capitalization of that part of the annual contribution by the insured person (and, in the case of wage earners, by the employer) which is not used in the formation of the basic fraction. The old-age pension is formed according to the rules governing the constitution of the accumulated fraction of the invalidity pension. If either the invalidity pension, consisting of the basic fraction and the accumulated fraction, or the old-age pension is not equal to the highest pension to which the insured person would have been entitled if a pension had been granted before the materialization of the risk, the pension is increased to that amount, with a general minimum of 500 marks per year. A pension supplement, varying in size with the place of residence of the pensioner, is granted to every person receiving either an old-age or invalidity pension, unless he has an income exceeding certain limits. If he has such an income, the supplement is reduced by one-half the part of the income in excess of

the limit prescribed. For the establishment of the income upon the basis of the residence of the pensioner, the local areas will be divided into three groups according to the cost of living, the maximum rates being 2,400, 2,000 and 1,600 marks a year. These limits are increased 50 percent if the pensioner is living with a husband or wife, and the pension supplement is increased by 10 percent for each dependent child under the age of 16.

In case of death before an insured person reaches the pensionable age, the contributions paid by him, less those deducted to constitute the basic fraction of the invalidity pension and up to a maximum of 15,000 marks, may be paid to the widow and children who are under 18 years of age or unable to work, or, if there are no children, to other direct heirs who were supported mainly by the insured person. The minimum payable under this provision is 500 marks. Half of this is payable if an insured person has been drawing a pension for not more than 1 year.

Provision is also made, in case of invalidity, for medical treatment or vocational retraining in order to assist the insured person to regain his earning capacity, and preventive treatment may be provided by the local insurance authorities.

All insured persons are allowed to take out voluntary insurance to supplement the compulsory pensions, but the additional contribution for this insurance may not exceed 2,000 marks per year.

The law provides that the National Insurance Office shall maintain at least five special funds—the initial fund, the contributions fund, the basic invalidity pension equalization fund, the pension supplement fund, and the reserve fund. For several years the Finnish Government has been accumulating funds with a view to the establishment of this type of insurance, the funds amounting at the present time to between 600 and 700 million marks. Of this amount 200 million marks will be deposited in the National Insurance Office as an initial fund, 300 million marks will be placed in the pension-supplement fund, and the remainder may be used either to cover the cost of establishing the office or be paid into the supplement fund.

The administration of the pension system will be vested in a National Insurance Office under the management of an executive committee, an intermediate administrative body called the enlarged executive committee, and a managing committee. The executive committee will consist of a chairman and at least three members appointed by the Cabinet; the enlarged executive committee will be made up of the members of the executive committee and at least six others, also appointed by the Cabinet, who will have charge of financial questions (estimates, interest rates, investments, purchases, and sale of real estate) and the establishment of curative institutions. This committee, also, is a final court of appeal regarding complaints against

decisions by the insurance office in connection with invalidity pensions. General supervision of the Insurance Office will be in the hands of a managing committee appointed by Parliament which will appoint the auditors, draw up the accounts, and have general supervision of the transactions of the executive committee. The managing committee is required to submit an annual report to Parliament. A local representative of the National Insurance Office will be appointed in each insurance district. This representative must see that only persons capable of work are admitted to insurance, report to the Insurance Office when it is considered that a pensioner no longer fulfills the conditions for pension, and report cases which should receive preventive treatment or vocational retraining. The cost of administration of the National Insurance Office will be paid from the funds of the insurance system.

TEACHERS' INSURANCE IN PERU [1]

HOSPITALIZATION benefits, invalidity pensions, survivors' benefits, and loan privileges to certain members of the teaching profession and employees of the Ministry of Education and of the Teachers' Mutual Aid Association in Peru were regulated by an order of August 30, 1936, which amended the system already in operation under legislation enacted November 26, 1931.[2] The administration of the scheme is entrusted to the Teachers' Mutual Aid Association (*Asociación Mutualista Magisterial*), which is to carry out the provisions of the order through its managing committee of 12 members—3 officials of the Ministry of Education, 7 representatives of the teaching profession, and 2 employees of the association appointed in accordance with the administrative regulations.

Coverage.—Insurance is compulsory for all public-school teachers appointed by the Ministry of Education. The employees of the Ministry of Education or any of its branches and of the Teachers' Mutual Aid Association may take out voluntary insurance.

Contributions.—Members' contributions to the insurance system are (1) an entrance fee graduated according to salary and payable in 24 consecutive monthly installments; and (2) monthly contributions varying according to salary, fixed for the first year by this order, but thereafter to be fixed annually on the basis of the financial transactions of the preceding year. Members discontinue payment of entrance and monthly contributions when they are retired because of total

[1] Revista de Economia y Finanzas (Lima), October 1936, pp. 60-62, 64-68.

[2] El Peruano (Lima), Dec. 17 and 18, 1931.

incapacity for work, but survivors' benefits due at their death are paid in full, less any amounts the association has advanced to the insured person from benefits credited to his account.

For the first year the entrance fees range from 24 soles [3] for persons in salary class I (up to 70 soles per month) to 60 soles in salary class VII (over 501 soles). Monthly contributions range from 4 soles in class I to 16 soles in class VII.

Benefits.—Hospitalization benefits, invalidity pensions, and loan privileges are granted to members, and cash payment to their survivors.

Dating from January 1, 1939, the association will pay 50 percent of the cost of hospitalization for insured persons who are not in receipt of invalidity pensions, and may advance the remaining 50 percent of cost of hospitalization, charging it to the member's account, and deducting it before final settlement of account.

Insured persons who become totally incapacitated for work may claim an invalidity pension of not more than two-thirds of the last salary earned, but not to exceed 150 soles. Invalidity pensions are paid only when the financial position of the association justifies such payment. To meet these demands, an invalidity fund has been set up, into which 5,000 soles are to be paid each year until the reserve reaches a certain amount.

Lump-sum cash benefits to survivors are paid in accordance with the following scale:

	Survivors' benefit (soles)
Salary classes I and II	5,000
Salary class III	6,000
Salary classes IV and V	7,000
Salary classes VI and VII	8,000

Heirs of insured persons dying before November 18, 1938, are to receive 75 percent of survivors' cash benefits and after that date, full payments, less the member's indebtedness to the association. The cash benefit is payable to legal heirs up to the fourth degree of consanguinity; in the absence of heirs the insured person may name his beneficiary.

After each 5 years of contributions paid after the effective date of the order of August 30, 1936, and for three consecutive times, members may apply for loans up to 30 percent of total monthly quotas paid. For these loans they are to pay 6 percent interest annually; repayment is optional, but if they choose not to repay it, the amount is deducted from survivors' benefits payable at members' death. A member 65 years of age who has contributed for 20 years may draw out 50 percent of the insurance to which he is entitled, but must continue monthly contributions. On his death the heirs will receive only what is left.

[3] Sol at par=40 cents.

Refund of 30 percent of the monthly contributions paid, less all sums owed the association for any cause, is the only benefit for (1) members discharged from their positions for cause, duly proven; (2) members resigning voluntarily before they have completed 3 years of service; and (3) members resigning voluntarily after 3 or more years of service from November 18, 1933, who are in arrears more than six monthly contributions. Other persons with more than 3 years of service after November 18, 1933, may continue to be members by continuing payment of contributions.

SOCIAL INSURANCE FOR DOCK WORKERS IN RUMANIA [1]

THE GENERAL social-insurance scheme in Rumania, providing benefits in case of sickness, maternity, industrial accidents, and invalidity, and for survivors of persons employed in industry and commerce, was extended by a law of April 2, 1937, to include dock workers and certain other transfer and storage personnel. The consolidation of most parts of the general social-insurance system was brought about by a law of April 8, 1933,[2] which also governs the granting of benefits to dock workers and other persons protected by the present law.

Coverage.—Protection is provided for workers ordinarily employed in ports who have been domiciled for at least 6 months in the place where they are employed, for workers at Rumanian ports and railway stations whose customary occupation is the loading and unloading of ships and trucks and, with certain exceptions, for workers engaged in the storage of cereals and other goods in depots. Persons covered by other social-insurance schemes are excluded.

Financial resources.—For accident insurance, the employer pays 1.2 percent of the total pay roll in cash and in kind, regardless of the amount of salary, except for occasional time not exceeding 15 days; the worker pays nothing. For other benefits, equal contributions from employers and workers are fixed at 3.5 percent of the total wage of the worker. To meet the cost of sickness benefit during the first days of incapacity which lasts more than 4 days, employers must pay a supplementary contribution of 0.8 percent of wages.

Benefits.—For maternity and funeral benefits and those for invalidity not due to accident or occupational disease, a certain number of weekly contributions must have been paid during the period immediately preceding the absence from or discontinuance of work. Payment of contributions ceases at the age of 65 years, but the right to

[1] Monitorul Oficial, Bucharest, Apr. 2, 1937, pp. 3454–3457.

[2] Monitorul Oficial, Bucharest, Apr. 8, 1933, pp. 2300–2324.

invalidity benefit and to medical treatment for the worker and his family is retained through life, and his heirs are entitled to funeral benefits. In the case of harbor workers, special facilities are allowed for the acquisition and maintenance of the right to invalidity benefits notwithstanding interruptions in contributions because of rotation of port work. Sickness benefits in kind include medical treatment and hospitalization for the worker and his wife, his children under 18 years of age or unable to work, and his parents if they are unable to work, if these persons live in his household. Cash sickness benefits are due for a period of 26 weeks from one illness or 36 weeks for different illnesses in one 12-month period, but under certain circumstances may be extended or increased. Maternity benefits in kind and in cash are due for a period of 12 weeks, at least 6 of which must be after the confinement. Benefits in case of accident or occupational disease are in both kind and cash.

For the calculation of cash benefits, insured persons are divided into wage classes, taking into account the nature of the work, the size of the port in which it is carried on, average annual wage, and the amount of contributions collected during the preceding year. For the first year the insurance is in force, the law fixes the distribution of the insured persons into classes, but for following years the distribution will be carried out on the proposal of the general meeting of the Central Social Insurance Fund.

OLD-AGE PENSION SYSTEM OF SOUTH AFRICA

THE AGE at which women in South Africa are entitled to old-age pensions was lowered from 65 to 60 years, effective April 1, 1937.[1] The amendment to the Old-Age Pensions Act, 1928, which authorizes this change also provides for an increase in the amount of the benefit receivable for both men and women, white and colored, and further allows higher total gross income limits, including the amount of the pension and amounts derived from private sources.

Prior to the adoption of the 1937 amendment white and colored persons of 65 were entitled to receive pensions, regardless of sex, provided they met with the requirements governing domicile, residence, and nationality. Under the law as amended the pension age for men remains 65 but that for women is placed at 60.

The amount of the pension has been increased from £30 per annum for white pensioners, as established in 1931, to £42; and for colored

[1] Union of South Africa, Government Gazette, May 20, 1937, p. ii, Act No. 34, 1937, Old-Age Pensions Amendment Act, 1937, Cape Town, 1937; Statutes 1928, Act No. 22, p. 382, and 1931, Act No. 34, sec. 3, p. 168; and International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, July 26, 1937, p. 116.

pensioners the increase is from £18 to £21 per annum. This payment may be made to a white beneficiary provided it does not bring his annual income to a total in excess of £72, plus an addition of £12 per year for each child under the age of 16 whom he supports. For colored pensioners the total income may not exceed £39 per year and no allowance is made for children. The amendment dealing with total income permits white pensioners an increase in total annual income from £54 to £72, plus the allowance for children which is new. Colored pensioners may have a total yearly income of £39 instead of £36.

Both pensioners on the rolls on April 1, 1937, and those qualifying at that time are entitled to benefit under the liberalized terms of the law retroactive to that date. Those who became eligible on April 1, 1937, were required to apply for pensions within a period of 60 days from the date the act was promulgated.

Employment Conditions and Unemployment Relief

PLANNING OF PUBLIC WORKS IN RELATION TO EMPLOYMENT

THE CONSTRUCTION of public works is considered by most countries to have a favorable effect on economic recovery and on employment. This is shown by the reports of 38 governments submitted to the International Labor Office. The question of the planning of public works in relation to employment was placed on the agenda of the 1937 session of the International Labor Conference, and data as to the law and practice in the different countries were assembled as material for discussion at the Conference.[1]

National Planning and Coordination of Public Works

While, by their adoption of public works as a means of providing employment during the depression, most of the governments have approved that policy, the methods and principles of administration and of financing have varied greatly. In some countries the national governments have formulated more or less comprehensive programs of public works, to be spread over a period of years. The period set in some cases, however, has been so long that only a small increase in employment opportunities has been afforded, and in other cases the program has yet to be put into effect.

Some national governments have made special emergency appropriations for public works as a means of increasing employment and others have increased their regular budgets or coordinated individual items for public works in the budget with special emphasis on giving employment.

National governments have also furnished assistance to regional or local governments by grants for public works with the object of increasing employment.

Owing to the insufficient data published and the manner of presentation of such data, no summary can be made on these and other points,

[1] International Labor Office, International Labor Conference, twenty-third session, Geneva, 1937, Planning of Public Works in Relation to Employment, Geneva, 1937; Monthly Summary of International Labor Organization, June 1937 (pp. 34-36). See Monthly Labor Review for August 1937 (pp. 344-355).

the report states, but an analysis of the data for each country is presented in the report.

Public works carried on by regional (State, Provincial, cantonal, etc.) and local authorities are often of more consequence as regards expenditure and employment than those of the national government. The work provided by these authorities has generally been of an unskilled character and not always of a productive nature, mainly because of the necessity of beginning the work hurriedly and because of the lack of advance planning. In some cases, there is the requirement that any relief work must be of a kind that would not otherwise be done. Where grants have been received from the central government for wages, the maximum use of labor rather than of machinery is encouraged because of the oversupply thereof and its cheapness.

Some central and local governments have aided public-utility corporations, such as railroads, in financing capital works because of the economic effect thereof. Private industry in a number of countries has also been granted assistance by governments with the purpose of increasing the demand for labor.

Coordination and Control by Central Government

During the depression the question became important of setting up a central government organization for the planning and coordination over a number of years of the public-works policies of all the central and local governmental agencies and the public-utility enterprises of a country, which would determine when to accelerate or to slow down public-works programs. It has been claimed in recent years that attempts to give employment through public works has been greatly hindered by the lack of some central coordinating body and the lack of preparatory work. While some progress has been made recently in this direction, not many attempts at coordination have been made.

In some countries such permanent central bodies have been set up, and the representative character of these bodies insures coordination between the different bodies responsible for public works. Other countries have inaugurated plans extending over a number of years, but such bodies as have been established have been temporary and purely advisory.

Financing of Public Works

Generally the financing of public works is by current revenues of the government or by loans subscribed for by the public. In several countries special funds have been set up, their resources being derived from special taxes, subsidies, or other financial expedients. Some countries have utilized the proceeds of the revaluation of the gold reserve resulting from the devaluation of the currency.

Public-works expenditure in most countries is incurred in greater measure by regional and local authorities than by central authorities. During the depression, however, regional and local expenditures in most of the countries for which information is available decreased. This was due generally to decreased revenues from local taxation and to the fact that many authorities had already borrowed to the limit of safety. Grants or loans from the central government are often necessary and in such cases the central government exercises a certain direction over the local public-works program.

Provisions Regarding Labor

Engagement of Workers

An accurate knowledge of the employment situation in a country is considered necessary in the planning of public works. As a rule, only the public employment services can furnish dependable data on the volume of available labor, and therefore such services become important sources of information, not only in the preparation of a public-works program but also in its execution.

In employment on public works undertaken for the purpose of relief, and even in some degree on public works carried on in ordinary times, the public interest necessitates certain rules of preference in addition to skill, such as nationality or length of residence, age, family responsibilities, or degree of need. Unless the workers are recruited through public employment offices, it is hard to enforce such rules. Few States have made employment through public employment offices compulsory for all branches of economic activity, but the number of those requiring that labor on public works shall be secured through public employment offices is large and increasing. Almost every country has such a requirement for relief works, and this practice is being extended to normal public works, especially when part of a general employment program.

In a number of countries the employment of aliens on public works, and especially on relief works, has been restricted. In one country, however, employment on relief works is on the basis of need, regardless of nationality.

Hours of Work

The hours on public works financed or subsidized by central governments are limited by the draft convention adopted by the International Labor Conference in 1936 to an average of 40 per week or 42 in continuous work done in shifts. In some countries there are restrictions to shorter hours, and frequently on relief works there are greater restrictions on hours of work per day or per week. Sometimes rotation of workers is required, in order that more workers may be given employment.

Wages

In normal times the wages paid in private employment and on public works have been practically the same, but during the depression many public works developed into relief works. In such cases, because the objects sought were the provision of work for the great numbers of unemployed and the reduction of the charge on the unemployment relief funds, wage rates lower than normal have been paid, notwithstanding the protests of the labor unions. Public works financed or subsidized by relief funds and on which low wages are paid are often made part of an extensive employment program and the payment of low wages has sometimes spread to other parts of the program.

Certain countries have, however, stipulated that the wages effective in private industry be paid on public works, in order that unemployment may be reduced not only directly, but also indirectly by the effect on the entire economic system through the increased volume of wages put into circulation.

Public Works for Young Persons

The 1935 session of the International Labor Conference, in considering the question of unemployment among young persons, adopted a recommendation which, in part, advocated the establishment of special public works for unemployed young persons, such works to be adapted to their age, occupation, and training.

In some countries employment of young persons on public works is part of the compulsory labor service required of them, usually in labor camps or centers. In other countries which have employment centers for young persons, service therein is voluntary or required only of certain groups of unemployed young persons. In either case the workers are fed, usually housed and sometimes clothed, and receive a very low cash remuneration. In countries which do not have such centers the wages paid young persons on public works are much nearer normal wages.

In most countries the laws provide that the public works provided for young persons must be of such character as to prevent competition between their work and the normal employment of adult workers. In the more economically advanced countries, where the need for public works is not so urgent as in those economically more backward, there is strict compliance with this provision, the young people being given such work as draining or clearing land, local road construction, forestry work, construction of swimming pools, etc. In other countries, however, where the need for public works is more pressing, they may be employed on such normal public works as construction of main roads or railway lines.

Public Works for Nonmanual Workers

Much technical and administrative employment is created when the volume of public works is increased, either by normal or relief public works, but data as to the exact amount are not generally available. In two countries, however, such data have been collected. About 4.6 percent of the workers given employment by the 1936 public-works program in Belgium were salaried employees. In Poland an average of 3 percent of all the workers employed on work financed by the employment fund are technical and administrative workers, the proportion being higher in some kinds of work, such as the electrification work in 1934 and 1935 (9.2 percent). Indirectly, also, nonmanual workers benefit from public-works programs inasmuch as they help to restore general business activity.

Public-works programs in some countries have included features especially adapted to nonmanual workers, such as planting strips along motor roads with trees, etc., employing therein botanists, landscape gardeners, and designers; and restoration of historic monuments, etc., thereby providing work for artists and craftsmen. Special programs for providing work for white-collar groups have been adopted in some countries.

Public Works for Women

Public works of the usual kind, such as building and civil engineering, generally provide employment especially for men. Women benefit only indirectly from such works, though where much equipment is needed for such public works, the indirect benefit is appreciable. In several countries some works are undertaken which provide employment opportunities for women. Women also benefit in works provided for nonmanual workers.

Conclusions

Planning and Coordination of Public Works

From the data submitted by the different countries, the conclusion was reached that it appears desirable for public authorities to decrease the volume of public works in times of prosperity in order to increase it in times of great unemployment, but that certain conditions may operate against such a program. Many kinds of work cannot or should not be put off, such as works for protection against natural catastrophes, for promotion of public health or safety, etc. In such cases, programs of supplementary work might be prepared during normal times which would be technically and financially ready when needed to check business inactivity.

Whatever method is adopted, it was concluded, some form of government coordination or control is necessary for a practical pro-

gram. For any plan to be effective the various departments of a government which are concerned with public works must cooperate, and the regional and local authorities also must coordinate their public-works programs with that of the national government. The latter may be accomplished either by recommendations of the national government or by financial assistance therefrom.

The financing of public works during periods of prosperity should, it was concluded, be financed as far as possible from current revenue. Borrowing for public works should be limited to the strict minimum and debts paid off as soon as possible in order that the borrowing power of the government may be restored in view of a later depression. If possible, reserves should be set aside for use in such event. The principle of a balanced budget, it was suggested, should apply to periods, rather than to single years or months. Each period should comprise years of prosperity and years of depression, the surpluses of the former to be used in the latter, when income derived from taxation decreases.

The setting up of a central financial body might be found advisable, it was stated, to coordinate the borrowing policies of the national and the regional and local governments, and possibly to act for public-utility bodies and such private organizations (housing societies, etc.) as are concerned in carefully timed building-works programs. It might also govern such features of the loans to be contracted as whether they shall be for long or short terms, and whether they shall be issued in the country itself or abroad, taking into consideration the economic condition of the country.

As the expansion of public works during times of depression has as its object the revival of economic activity, such a program, it was concluded, must be coordinated with the monetary policy, and for this the cooperation of the central banks is necessary.

Provisions Regarding Labor

Engaging the workers on public relief works through the public employment offices has many advantages, and it was suggested that the 1937 Conference consider a recommendation that this practice be made general. Public employment services are in a position to take a broad view of the situation, and to furnish workers either from the locality, or, through a clearing-house system, from other places if necessary. Such offices can also take measures to keep large numbers of workers from leaving private employment for public-works employment, thus helping to prevent dislocation of private industry.

In engaging workers the first requirement is the necessary skill and experience for the job, though on relief works this requirement may be waived in order to prevent the demoralization of workers resulting from long unemployment. Nationality is frequently a requirement, especially on relief works. While measures may need to be taken to

prevent migration of workers from one country to another to obtain employment on public works, it was concluded that aliens who have been employed in the country for a considerable time before becoming unemployed should not be excluded. Long-time unemployment and heavy family responsibilities may also be requirements for employment, especially on relief works.

While the rule of most countries in regard to wages on public works is that the usual rates fixed by collective agreement, award, or custom are paid, wages on relief works are frequently lower than the usual rates. In the case of young persons at work centers the 1935 Conference recommendation was that besides board, and, where these are provided, clothing and lodging, a cash payment should be made. In other relief work the arguments for lower wages are that otherwise there is no incentive to seek private work and also that many workers are relatively inefficient because of doing work different from their usual occupations.

While a draft convention was adopted at the 1936 Conference that 40 hours per week should be the maximum on public works, the weekly hours adopted on relief works are frequently much shorter in order that a greater number of persons may be given employment. It was suggested that this and such other conditions of employment as transportation to work, living accommodations in camps, cooperative methods of work, etc., might be considered by the 1937 Conference.

The question of the use of machinery has recently become important. A number of regulations had been adopted restricting the use of machinery on relief works, so that more workers might be employed, but in some countries this policy had been abandoned after trial, not only as inefficient, but on the ground that the increased direct employment was offset by the decreased indirect employment in the manufacture of machinery.

Public Works for Young Persons, Nonmanual Workers, and Women

Public works for young persons are generally relief works and of an emergency character, and therefore, it was stated, do not come within the scope of international regulations covering normal public works. Also the 1935 Conference adopted a recommendation relating to the organization of special work for them.

The measures adopted by the various countries for finding employment for nonmanual workers in occupations for which they have the skill and training, it was suggested, should be given consideration by the 1937 Conference.

Public-works projects which provide direct employment for women and special relief works for which they are qualified have been provided in a number of countries, and the general adoption of such measures might, it was intimated, be facilitated by the 1937 Conference.

International Collaboration

A policy of advance planning of public works, for the regularization of employment, can be successfully carried out only if the relevant facts are known. With the exception of a few countries which have coordinating systems, the information available nationally, and in consequence internationally, is inadequate, the data reported reveal.

Two things are necessary, it is stated, for an effective public-works policy—centralization and coordination of information as to public works undertaken or planned in a country, and communication periodically of such information to other countries. The presentation of such information should follow a uniform plan, relating especially to methods of organization, public works planned, started, or executed, and labor conditions.

A permanent international committee is suggested to examine the reports of the International Labor Office based on the information submitted by the governments; to draw conclusions therefrom; to review periodically, and if necessary to suggest amendment of, the plan in use for the presentation of such information; and to give such advice or exercise such functions as will promote effective cooperation in the field of public works.

Draft International Regulations

On the basis of the information and analysis thereof presented in the report, the national planning of public works and international cooperation in this field were considered to be the main problems. A list of points on which governments might be consulted, and also a draft recommendation and resolution on international cooperation concerning public works, and a draft recommendation concerning the national planning of public works, as a basis for discussion at the 1937 Conference, are set forth in the report on Planning of Public Works in Relation to Employment.

Action of 1937 I. L. O. Conference

At the twenty-third session of the International Labor Conference at Geneva in June 1937, practically unanimous conclusions were reached on the question of the planning of public works. The two recommendations and one resolution drafted by the International Labor Office were thoroughly discussed by the conference committee which considered the subject and several amendments were made.[2] All three proposals as amended were passed by the Conference without a negative vote, though three governments did not participate in the final voting.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review for August 1937 (pp. 349-351).

The first recommendation was on international cooperation in the matter of public works, its object being to insure annual reports by the member States to the I. L. O. on the public works undertaken or proposed, and their cooperation in any international committee which might be formed for the study of the information so secured.

An accompanying resolution asks the Governing Body of the I. L. O. to appoint such a committee to study the reports each year, to issue summaries of the reports received, and to make recommendations as to how to make the entire program more effective both nationally and internationally. Such committee should be composed of representatives of members who have agreed to cooperate, employers' and workers' representatives in equal numbers, representatives of the competent organizations of the League of Nations, and experts if needed.

The second recommendation included a number of principles for the guidance of the States, in order that the public works adopted should, in the largest measure possible, relieve unemployment and reduce economic fluctuations. Emphasis is laid on the point that large programs of public works should be carefully planned in advance and not hastily in times of crisis. Among the principles advocated are suitable timing, which involves the increase of public works in times of depression, to be made possible by advance preparation in times of prosperity of public works which can be held in reserve for times of crisis, the setting up of a national coordinating body, etc.

As to the financing of public works, the recommendation advocates the placing in reserve, in periods of prosperity, of the resources necessary for carrying on public works prepared for depression periods; limited borrowing in times of prosperity and rapid repayment of previous loans; financing by loans in times of depression of public works likely to stimulate recovery; and a general monetary policy by which at such times credit can be expanded when necessary for speeding up public works, etc. The lowest possible rate of interest should be paid on loans for public works. Consultation of the coordinating body heretofore mentioned not only on financial policies but also on taxation policies is advocated.

The recommendation also calls attention to public works which will provide employment for such classes as women, young workers, and nonmanual workers, and considers the conditions of recruiting for employment on public works. It adopts the principle of paying workers on public works not less than the prevailing rates in the district where the work is done. In case there are no such recognized rates, then those paid in the nearest district with similar general industrial circumstances shall be paid, except that in any case the wages paid shall be sufficient for a reasonable standard of living for the workers as understood in their time and country.

EXPENDITURES FOR RELIEF, 1936–37

IN FEBRUARY 1937 there were 1,728,000 cases, or an aggregate of 5,467,000 persons, in continental United States receiving general relief, according to official estimates.[1] This represented a decline of 19.0 and 21.8 percent, respectively, from February of the year previous. The general improvement in economic conditions and the development of the public-assistance program of the Social Security Board were responsible for a much larger decrease in the number of cases during the spring and summer of 1936 than the usual seasonal decline. While increased relief needs—the result of drought, an unusual amount of sickness, and strikes, in addition to the usual seasonal conditions—resulted in a rise in relief rolls during the following winter, the net decline over the year indicated the importance of the nonseasonal factors.

Family cases declined 23.0 percent during the year ending in February 1937, as compared with a decrease of only 7.6 percent in single-person cases. This represented an important change in the make-up of the case load. Fluctuations in employment and changes in seasonal requirements seem to affect family cases more than single-person cases.

The total number of cases, both of families and of single persons, and the aggregate number of persons, receiving relief each month from January 1936 to February 1937, with the proportion the relief clients were of the total population, are shown in table 1.

The estimated amount of general relief extended in February 1937 was 15.9 percent less than in the same month in 1936. As the estimated number of cases declined 19 percent during the year, there was a slight increase in the average amount of relief per case—from $22.02 to $22.84. The total amount expended for general relief in February 1937 was $39,470,000 as compared with $46,960,000 in February of the preceding year.

[1] Data in this article are from Federal Emergency Relief Administration and Social Security Board, General Relief Statistics, January to February 1937, Washington, 1937; Works Progress Administration press release, Washington, May 3, 1937: State and Local Expenditures for All Types of Relief Show Sharp Rise, 1933–36.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Families and Persons Receiving General Relief, January 1936 to February 1937* [1]

Month	Number of cases receiving relief			Persons receiving relief	
	Total	Families	Single persons	Number	Percent of population [2]
1936					
January	2,213,000	1,661,000	552,000	7,334,000	5.7
February	2,133,000	1,579,000	554,000	6,994,000	5.4
March	2,005,000	1,470,000	535,000	6,521,000	5.1
April	1,825,000	1,316,000	509,000	5,855,000	4.6
May	1,668,000	1,181,000	487,000	5,263,000	4.1
June	1,566,000	1,091,000	475,000	4,853,000	3.8
July	1,460,000	1,007,000	453,000	4,437,000	3.5
August	1,437,000	987,000	450,000	4,369,000	3.4
September	1,394,000	954,000	440,000	4,265,000	3.3
October	1,406,000	971,000	435,000	4,312,000	3.4
November	1,415,000	981,000	434,000	4,350,000	3.4
December	1,518,000	1,057,000	461,000	4,731,000	3.7
1937					
January	1,668,000	1,170,000	498,000	5,255,000	4.1
February	1,728,000	1,216,000	512,000	5,467,000	4.3

[1] Corrected to June 9, 1937.
[2] Based on Bureau of Census estimate of population as of July 1, 1936.

The Federal, State, local, and total funds estimated to have been expended for general relief each month from January 1936 to February 1937 are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Obligations for General Relief in Continental United States, January 1936 to February 1937* [1]

Month	Total	Federal		State		Local	
		Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
1936							
January	$48,000,000	$5,400,000	11.2	$26,670,000	55.6	$15,930,000	33.2
February	46,960,000	1,260,000	2.7	27,570,000	58.7	18,130,000	38.6
March	44,660,000	1,010,000	2.3	26,150,000	58.5	17,500,000	39.2
April	40,430,000	1,110,000	2.8	22,570,000	55.8	16,750,000	41.4
May	35,500,000	630,000	1.8	19,320,000	54.4	15,550,000	43.8
June	33,660,000	420,000	1.2	18,980,000	56.4	14,260,000	42.4
July	31,150,000	290,000	.9	17,410,000	55.9	13,450,000	43.2
August	29,980,000	120,000	.4	16,800,000	56.0	13,060,000	43.6
September	30,340,000	270,000	.9	17,080,000	56.3	12,990,000	42.8
October	31,050,000	90,000	.3	17,560,000	56.5	13,400,000	43.2
November	32,270,000	50,000	.2	18,490,000	57.3	13,730,000	42.5
December	36,680,000	210,000	.6	20,700,000	56.4	15,770,000	43.0
Total, 12 months	440,680,000	10,860,000	2.5	249,300,000	56.6	180,520,000	40.9
1937							
January	38,140,000	210,000	.6	21,330,000	55.9	16,600,000	43.5
February	39,470,000	100,000	.2	22,880,000	58.0	16,490,000	41.8
Total, 14 months	518,290,000	11,170,000	2.2	293,510,000	56.6	213,610,000	41.2

[1] Corrected to June 9, 1937.

The relative amount of State funds comprised in the total expenditures for general relief was about the same in February of both years—approximately 58 percent. Federal funds expended in February 1937 formed only 0.2 percent as against 2.7 percent in the same month of the previous year. The proportion of local funds, however, increased sufficiently to make up for the decrease in the Federal proportion. During the year Federal funds used for relief declined 92 percent, State funds 17 percent, and local funds only 9 percent.

In addition to funds spent for general relief, the administrative and nonrelief costs of the general-relief program and the costs of special Emergency Relief Administration programs administered by State and local emergency relief administrations amounted to approximately $9,300,000 in February 1936, and approximately $5,270,000 in February 1937. Federal funds formed approximately 37 percent of the funds used to meet these costs in February 1936, and only about 9 percent in the same month in 1937.

State and Local Relief Expenditure, 1933-36

Nearly four times as much was spent by State and local governments from their own funds for relief and work programs in 1936 as in 1933. State and local expenditures for these purposes were $1,244,953,000 in 1936, as compared with $338,793,000 in 1933. During the 4 years, 1933 to 1936, the total State and local expenditures for these purposes amounted to $2,940,191,000, being spent as follows: $1,687,117,000 on direct and work relief; $87,036,000 on Civil Works Administration projects; $244,461,000 on Works Progress Administration projects; and $921,577,000 on Public Works Administration projects. In addition, State and local funds in connection with the Social Security program amounted to nearly $100,000,000 in 1936.

The amount spent by State and local governments for the various relief and work programs in each year 1933 to 1936 is given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Local and State Funds Expended for Relief and Work Programs, 1933–36*

[In thousands of dollars]

Program	Total, 1933 to 1936	1933	1934	1935	1936
Total	$2,940,191	$338,793	$641,808	$714,637	$1,244,953
Relief (direct and work)	1,687,117	312,115	412,380	468,072	494,550
Civil Works Administration	87,036	19,922	67,114		
Works Progress Administration	244,461			22,810	221,651
Public Works Administration	921,577	6,756	162,314	223,755	528,752

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UNEMPLOYMENT IN PHILADELPHIA, MAY 1937

SLIGHTLY under one-fourth (24.4 percent) of employable persons in Philadelphia were unemployed in the late spring of 1937, according to the annual sample survey of the jobless made between May 15 and June 5, 1937, by the industrial research department of the University of Pennsylvania.[1] About 5 percent of the employables were engaged on part-time work.

This year's investigation was made in cooperation with the National Research Project of the Works Progress Administration.

The percentage of unemployment in Philadelphia, as indicated by these sample surveys, has declined continuously since the highest point—46 percent in 1933—to below the figure reported for 1931 (25.5 percent). Part-time employment reached its peak in 1932, when the percentage was 20.8, and was reduced to 5.1 percent in 1937, or a little below the 1930 record.

A summary of the major findings of the surveys since 1929 is given in the accompanying table.

Employment Status of Employable Persons in Philadelphia Unemployment Census Sample, 1929–37

Year	Number of households enumerated	Employable persons							
		Total		Employed—				Unemployed	
				Full time		Part time			
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1929	31,551	58,866	100.0	52,756	89.6	(1)	(1)	6,110	10.4
1930	36,665	69,884	100.0	55,788	79.8	3,648	5.2	10,448	15.0
1931	36,410	67,150	100.0	40,766	60.7	9,243	13.8	17,141	25.5
1932	35,471	66,854	100.0	24,782	37.1	13,887	20.8	28,185	42.1
1933	35,820	66,454	100.0	22,630	34.1	13,256	19.9	30,568	46.0
1934	40,931	78,121	100.0	38,420	49.2	11,437	14.6	28,264	36.2
1935	43,997	78,524	100.0	41,489	52.8	11,125	14.2	25,910	33.0
1936	44,817	79,822	100.0	48,669	61.0	7,086	8.9	24,067	30.1
1937	45,928	79,610	100.0	56,150	70.5	4,007	5.1	19,453	24.4

[1] Figures for part-time employment not available.

The above tabulation is based on the findings of surveys of approximately 9 percent of the employable population of Philadelphia; each year the same selected blocks of 10 school districts have been covered, but the enumerative facilities have varied from time to time. Employable persons were defined as "those 16 years of age and over, working or seeking work." Prior to 1935 full-time employment was reported in terms of the practice of the industry. In subsequent studies, work of less than 30 hours per week was defined as part-time employment. For the purpose of these annual censuses persons on work-relief projects were regarded as unemployed.

[1] Mimeographed report of cooperating offices under date of July 11, 1937.

COAL MINING AND BRITISH UNEMPLOYMENT

PROTRACTED unemployment in the special areas of Great Britain where, on March 15, 1937, nearly a quarter of a million men between the ages of 18 and 64 were out of work, is accounted for in large part by the continued depression in the coal-mining industry. This is brought out by a special analysis of the registers of the employment exchanges in the four areas designated as "special" because of their slow recovery from the depression. The analysis was made by the Ministry of Labor and the results are presented in the Ministry of Labor Gazette of July 1937 (p. 254). The unemployment record of all men registered as unemployed on March 15, 1937, was studied to determine the number, age, occupation, and industrial classification of those who had been continuously unemployed for a period of 3 months or longer. The total number covered by the detailed analysis was approximately 150,000. Of these, 32 percent (47,779) were coal miners, practically one-half of whom (23,583) were 45 years of age or older. Moreover, the Gazette states:

> The importance of coal mining as a factor in the situation is even greater than the figures indicate, owing to the numerous instances where men who would regard themselves as coal miners, and would normally look to that industry for their livelihood, have secured a spell of work in another industry and have been reclassified to that industry. Thus in a number of such cases men are now classified under public-works contracting as the result of having obtained employment on a relief scheme, with no subsequent employment in coal mining.

The proportion of unemployed who were coal miners varied between the different areas. In England and Wales as a whole the percentage was 35 percent. This ranged from 24 percent in the Durham and Tyneside area to 47 percent in South Wales. In the special area of Scotland only 21 percent of all those who had been continuously unemployed for 3 or more months were miners.

Taking all occupations and industries into consideration, the analysis showed that 64 percent of the men in the special areas of England and Wales and 56 percent of those in the Scottish area who were out of work on March 15 had had no work for at least 3 months. Again the incidence of prolonged unemployment varied as between areas, being 56 percent in the Durham and Tyneside and Scottish areas, 67 percent in West Cumberland, and 78 percent in South Wales.

The following table shows the age and industrial distribution of the men covered by the special analysis:

Age and Industrial Distribution of Workers in Special Areas of Great Britain, Unemployed for 3 Months or Longer, as of Mar. 15, 1937

Industry and age of workers	England and Wales				Scottish area	All special areas
	West Cumberland area	Durham and Tyneside area	South Wales area	Total		
All industries and services	7,354	60,665	52,737	120,756	28,461	149,217
18 to 24 years	896	6,777	4,449	12,122	3,910	16,032
25 to 34 years	1,704	14,340	9,955	25,999	6,973	32,972
35 to 44 years	1,649	13,348	11,916	26,913	6,221	33,134
45 to 54 years	1,594	12,464	12,671	26,729	5,367	32,096
55 to 64 years	1,511	13,736	13,746	28,993	5,990	34,983
Shipbuilding and repairing	16	5,153	26	5,195	2,575	7,770
18 to 24 years	5	512	5	522	365	887
25 to 34 years	4	1,042	3	1,049	667	1,716
35 to 44 years	4	1,083	7	1,094	545	1,639
45 to 54 years	1	1,085	5	1,091	450	1,541
55 to 64 years	2	1,431	6	1,439	548	1,987
Engineering	150	2,647	332	3,129	1,402	4,531
18 to 24 years	33	386	85	504	243	747
25 to 34 years	46	549	91	686	322	1,008
35 to 44 years	27	452	65	544	265	809
45 to 54 years	21	479	52	552	254	806
55 to 64 years	23	781	39	843	318	1,161
Coal mining	2,815	14,325	24,747	41,887	5,892	47,779
18 to 24 years	344	1,269	1,959	3,572	466	4,038
25 to 34 years	655	3,014	4,731	8,400	1,345	9,745
35 to 44 years	582	2,981	5,613	9,176	1,237	10,413
45 to 54 years	619	3,082	6,634	10,335	1,252	11,587
55 to 64 years	615	3,979	5,810	10,404	1,592	11,996
Building	364	4,534	2,004	6,902	1,606	8,508
18 to 24 years	48	698	257	1,003	234	1,237
25 to 34 years	89	1,205	543	1,837	412	2,249
35 to 44 years	85	888	458	1,431	364	1,795
45 to 54 years	69	864	381	1,314	272	1,586
55 to 64 years	73	879	365	1,317	324	1,641
All other industries and services	4,009	34,006	25,628	63,643	16,986	80,629
18 to 24 years	466	3,912	2,143	6,521	2,602	9,123
25 to 34 years	910	8,530	4,587	14,027	4,227	18,254
35 to 44 years	951	7,944	5,773	14,668	3,810	18,478
45 to 54 years	884	6,954	5,599	13,437	3,139	16,576
55 to 64 years	798	6,666	7,526	14,990	3,208	18,198

Industrial and Labor Conditions

EMPLOYEE-SAVINGS PROGRAMS

THE STRAIN placed on employee-savings plans by the depression revealed certain inherent weaknesses in the plans themselves. A study [1] made by the Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University shows the status of a number of the plans immediately before and at the end of the depression and what happened to them in the intervening period.

The employee-savings plans covered in the study include the following: Bank-deposit plans, in which deposits are made either directly or through the company in commercial or savings banks; company-investment plans, in which the company handles the funds either as individual savings accounts or as short- or long-term borrowing from the employees; stock-purchase plans; investment trusts, providing for the pooling of employee funds in the purchase and sale of stocks and bonds; building and loan associations; credit unions; and a miscellaneous group of plans in which the savings plan is coordinated with other measures such as benefit, insurance, or pension plans. The data covered 258 companies having a total of 282 plans in 1929.

Of this number 58 were bank-deposit plans; 39, company-investment plans; 117, stock-purchase plans; 9, investment-trust plans; 25, building-and-loan plans; 27, credit-union plans; and 7, composite thrift plans. If more than one plan of the same type was in effect in one company they were counted as one plan. In 1936 the lowest rate of survival was found in the stock-purchase plans, of which only 30 or 25.6 percent had been continued. The rate of survival of investment-trust plans was 55.5 percent and of composite thrift plans 85.7 percent, while the rate for bank-deposit plans, company-investment plans, and building and loan associations ranged from 64 to 68 percent. The number of investment-trust and composite thrift plans was so small that the survival rate was not regarded as particularly significant. Credit unions had the highest survival rate—96.3 percent—only 1 plan having been given up in 1936 while 51 new plans had been started.

In general, the companies included in the study represented all the principal forms of business enterprise. It was not apparent that there was any relationship between the type of enterprise and the survival rate of the plans, with the exception of the employee-stock-

[1] Princeton University. Industrial Relations Section. Princeton, N. J., 1937. Employee Savings Programs; an analysis of recent trends, by Helen Baker.

purchase group in which public utilities had the highest discontinuation rate—80 percent—although manufacturing and railroads showed a decrease of 76 and 75 percent, respectively, in this type of plan. Only 2 new stock-purchase plans were recorded, and these were in the banking and insurance group of industries.

The size of the company appeared to be a factor in the survival rate of the plans, as 62 percent of the plans in companies with fewer than 500 employees were continued, the rate declining, as size of the company increased, to 42 percent in companies with more than 10,000 employees. This was particularly true in regard to employee-stock-purchase plans, as not only were more of these plans established in the larger companies but a higher percentage was discontinued. In company-investment plans it did not seem that there was any particular relationship between the size of the company and survival, as the worst record was found in the companies having from 5,000 to 10,000 employees and the best record among the 500 to 1,000 group, while companies with fewer than 500 employees showed a much lower survival rate than those with over 10,000 employees.

Comparing the number of plans in effect in 1936 with those in force in 1929, it was found that there had been a decided shift in trends, for while in 1929 employees' stock ownership ranked first, with 117 plans, and credit unions fourth, with 27 plans, by 1936 the stock-ownership plans were in third place, with 32 plans, and credit unions occupied first place, with 77 plans.

The following table, giving the number of discontinued plans and the number of new plans between 1929 and 1936, shows the changes which have taken place during the 8-year period.

Changes Within the 1929–36 Period, by Type of Plan

Item	Bank deposit	Company investment	Employee stock purchase	Investment trust	Building and loan	Credit union	Composite thrift	Total
Number of plans discontinued	20	14	87	4	8	1	1	135
Number of new plans	12	2	2	----	----	51	3	70

In the general survey of company experience with particular savings plans it is stated that there have been two main reasons for their establishment. One has been the desire to help employees and the other to further the interests of the firm through increased employee interest and stability. In adopting a plan the management had to consider the questions of security, rate of interest, and appreciation of the funds, as well as what part of his earnings an employee could save and to what extent he could undertake long-time commitments. During the period of prosperity preceding the depression both employers and employees were inclined to take these things for granted,

but with the depression it was discovered that the feeling of security was largely illusory and that it was impossible to predict the ability to save. The reduced earnings and unemployment during the years of the depression, which made it impossible in many instances for employees to continue the savings to which they had committed themselves, and the necessity for converting their holdings into cash in numerous cases meant a loss to employees or to employers who had definitely assumed responsibility for the safekeeping of their employees' savings. This was particularly true of employee-stock-ownership plans, the company-investment plans, and the investment trusts. The decline in real-estate values was another factor, which affected building and loan associations, while the banking crisis effected the bank-deposit plans unfavorably. From the experience with these plans during the depression it appears that there is a definite tendency away from company-controlled funds and toward more independent plans. The rapid increase in the number of credit unions, which if wisely managed "provide a valuable system for the profitable and safe use of small savings and a source of small loans at reasonable rates of interest" is proof of this tendency. These organizations are in large measure independent of the companies although all credit unions organized among the employees of one company are to a certain extent subsidized by the company even if only to the extent of providing free office space or paying a salary to the treasurer of the association. Approval of the management is also implied in any savings system which requires pay-roll deductions. However, it is said that the majority of the companies report that they take no part in the organization and administration of the credit unions other than to give advice when it is specifically requested. Since credit unions are primarily cooperative thrift associations, much depends upon the development of capable administration and the ability of the members as a whole to accept joint responsibility for the activities of the union.

In conclusion it is stated in the report that—

> Employee-savings plans, as an institution, have weathered the depression. However, great changes have occurred both in the comparative number of different types of savings plans and in the prevailing opinion as to their desirability and value. Employee stock ownership survives, but with an entirely different status than in 1928. The excellent experience with credit unions, as well as a reorientation of thinking concerning the purposes of employee-savings plans, has given this particular type of organization a great impetus for growth. Bank-deposit plans, which were badly affected by the banking crisis, have found new strength in the confidence given by Federal deposit insurance. Other types of plans are profiting by the lessons of the depression and rebuilding on more solid foundations. Building and loan associations, in particular, have been strengthened and will continue to meet a specific need.
>
> What the future developments in employee-savings plans are likely to be is hardly predictable from the evidence of present status. It takes no powers of

prophecy, however, to foresee a continuing increase in the number of credit unions. There is sufficient expression of opinion to indicate that employee-stock-ownership plans will be entered into with much greater caution than before. A realization that the risks involved in stock ownership make it appropriate only for high-salaried employees may determine the field of growth for these plans.

SOCIAL-ECONOMIC STATUS OF NEGROES IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

APPROXIMATELY 4 (3.8) percent of the 73,122 Negro gainful workers in the District of Columbia in 1930 were professional persons, 1.7 percent were proprietors, managers, or officials, and 6.3 percent were clerks and kindred workers. The majority, 66.2 percent, were unskilled workers. Of the 31,311 Negro female gainful workers, 75.1 percent were unskilled, servants being included in this group.

The following table from a press release of the United States Bureau of the Census, dated May 12, 1937, shows the distribution of gainful workers in the District of Columbia in social-economic groups, by color or race, and sex, in 1930. In this presentation approximately 83.8 percent of the Negro gainful workers are classified as unskilled or semiskilled, as compared to 17.9 percent of the native white and 32.1 percent of the foreign-born white.

Gainful Workers in the District of Columbia, by Color or Race, Sex, and Class, 1930

Sex and class of workers	Number				Percent			
	Total [1]	Native white	Foreign-born white	Negro	Total [1]	Native white	Foreign-born white	Negro
Total workers	243,853	153,367	16,818	73,122	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional persons	24,903	20,399	1,666	2,784	10.2	13.3	9.9	3.8
Proprietors, managers, and officials	18,465	13,512	3,604	1,217	7.6	8.8	21.4	1.7
Clerks and kindred workers	76,023	68,151	3,161	4,640	31.2	44.4	18.8	6.3
Skilled workers and foremen	29,963	23,780	2,996	3,180	12.3	15.5	17.8	4.3
Semiskilled workers	36,164	20,551	2,617	12,871	14.8	13.4	15.6	17.6
Unskilled workers	58,335	6,974	2,774	48,430	23.9	4.5	16.5	66.2
Laborers	19,674	3,537	570	15,551	8.0	2.3	3.4	21.3
Servant classes	38,661	3,437	2,204	32,879	15.9	2.2	13.1	45.0
Male workers	155,028	99,709	13,002	41,811	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional persons	14,850	12,430	1,127	1,242	9.6	12.5	8.7	3.0
Proprietors, managers, and officials	17,110	12,529	3,367	1,084	11.0	12.6	25.9	2.6
Clerks and kindred workers	37,718	32,129	1,978	3,554	24.3	32.2	15.2	8.5
Skilled workers and foremen	29,503	23,465	2,945	3,086	19.0	23.5	22.7	7.4
Semiskilled workers	24,407	14,441	1,900	7,945	15.7	14.5	14.6	19.0
Unskilled workers	31,440	4,715	1,685	24,900	20.3	4.7	13.0	59.6
Laborers	19,223	3,422	543	15,242	12.4	3.4	4.2	36.5
Servant classes	12,217	1,293	1,142	9,658	7.9	1.3	8.8	23.1
Female workers	88,825	53,658	3,816	31,311	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional persons	10,053	7,969	539	1,542	11.3	14.9	14.1	4.9
Proprietors, managers, and officials	1,355	983	237	133	1.5	1.8	6.2	.4
Clerks and kindred workers	38,305	36,022	1,183	1,086	43.1	67.1	31.0	3.5
Skilled workers and foremen	460	315	51	94	.5	.6	1.3	.3
Semiskilled workers	11,757	6,110	717	4,926	13.2	11.4	18.8	15.7
Unskilled workers	26,895	2,259	1,089	23,530	30.3	4.2	28.5	75.1
Laborers	451	115	27	309	.5	.2	.7	1.0
Servant classes	26,444	2,144	1,062	23,221	29.8	4.0	27.8	74.2

[1] Includes figures for 546 workers of "other races"—506 males and 40 females.

MIGRATION OF PHILIPPINE LABOR TO HAWAII, 1932 TO 1936

THE EMIGRATION of Filipinos to Hawaii has practically ceased, as a result mainly of the discontinuance by the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association of its earlier policy of recruiting labor in the Philippine Islands for the Hawaiian plantations. The Tydings-McDuffie Law (approved Mar. 24, 1934), providing for the independence of the Philippines, may also have been a factor in arresting the exodus of Filipino workers to the Territory of Hawaii.

From 1932 to 1936 a total of 19,618 Filipino laborers returned from Hawaii to their own country. The yearly average for each of the last 2 years, however, was only 1,720, as compared to 8,155 in 1932. Figures showing the numbers emigrating to, and returning from, Hawaii, by year, since 1932 are presented in the following table based on the annual report of the Secretary of Labor of the Philippines for the period November 15, 1935, to December 31, 1936.

Migration of Filipinos to and from Hawaii, 1932 to 1936

Period	To Hawaii				From Hawaii			
	Men	Women	Minors	Total	Men	Women	Minors	Total
1932	97	58	58	213	6,211	516	1,428	8,155
1933	14	24	31	69	2,810	343	985	4,138
1934	8	20	30	58	2,919	264	701	3,884
Jan. 1 to Nov. 14, 1935	58	2	3	63	1,322	108	208	1,638
Nov. 15, 1935, to Dec. 31, 1936	40			40	1,402	102	299	1,803
Total	217	104	122	443	14,664	1,333	3,621	19,618

COMPULSORY LABOR SERVICE IN CHINA

REGULATIONS governing compulsory labor service in China are given in an order of the Executive Yuan,[1] which became effective October 14, 1936, according to a communication to the International Labor Office.[2] This service is to be employed on defense works, road construction, water supply, and afforestation. Every fit male between 18 and 45 years of age is required to perform compulsory labor service for 3 to 5 days per annum. The organization of the service is to be in the hands of the provincial and local authorities, who have the responsibility of seeing that all eligible males are summoned at the proper time for the required work, taking into consideration local conditions.

[1] One of the five Yuans, or Departments, of the Chinese Government.

[2] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, May 17, 1937, p. 258.

The labor period must be so fixed as to make the fullest possible use of holidays and of the time when agricultural operations are not under way. Proposals with this object in view must be approved by the Executive Yuan.

When the persons subject to the service are engaged in occupations outside their respective birthplaces, they may be drafted for compulsory labor only in the locality in which they are employed. In general, no persons may be called upon for labor service at more than 15 li [3] from their homes. If the distance is greater, the authorities in charge of compulsory labor service must make provision for board and lodging for the workers.

Three months preceding the making of the requisition for compulsory labor service, the provincial and local authorities must, in accordance with the regulations in the order under review, submit to the Executive Yuan for approval, the requisition plan and its estimated cost, together with the plans of the different projects to be undertaken. It is also the duty of these authorities to see that before these projects are carried out steps are taken for the training of foremen and technicians and that the necessary implements and tools are available and in good condition.

[3] Li equals nearly five-eighths of a mile.

Productivity of Labor and Industry

TECHNOLOGICAL TRENDS AND NATIONAL POLICY

ON JUNE 18, 1937, the National Resources Committee submitted to the President a report by its subcommittee on technology under the chairmanship of Prof. W. F. Ogburn. The report is entitled "Technological Trends and National Policy, Including the Social Implications of New Inventions." The report, which makes extensive use of information published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and various other agencies in the field of technological changes and their social effects, goes beyond most of the previously published studies in dealing with probable future trends on the ground that "anticipation of the future is the key to adequate planning for the best use of our national resources."

The report first analyzes the social aspects of technology, including the relation between technology and labor productivity on the one hand and volume of employment on the other hand. There is emphasis on the interdependence of science and technology. More than three-fourths of the report consists of a discussion of technology in the principal fields of productive enterprise. These fields as classified by the committee are agriculture, the mineral industries, transportation, communication, power, the chemical industries, the electrical-goods industries, metallurgy, and the construction industries. An effort is made to evaluate a considerable number of recent developments such as air conditioning, the airplane, the mechanical cotton picker, and tray agriculture. Attention is focused on the near future, which is defined as the next 20 years.

The subcommittee on technology is a part of the science committee of the National Resources Committee; and in a foreword the science committee summarizes the findings and presents recommendations for further action. These findings and recommendations are reproduced below from the Foreword.

Findings

"1. The large number of inventions made every year shows no tendency to diminish. On the contrary, the trend is toward further increases. No cessation of social changes due to invention is to be expected. It is customary to speak of the present age as one of great change, as

though it were a turbulent transition period between two plateaus of calm, but such a conclusion is illusory. Though the rate of change may vary in the future there is no evidence whatever of a changeless peace ahead.

"2. Although technological unemployment is one of the most tragic effects of the sudden adoption of many new inventions (which may be likened to an immigration of iron men), inventions create jobs as well as take them away. While some technological changes have resulted in the complete elimination of occupations and even entire industries, the same or other changes have called into being new occupations, services, and industries.

"3. No satisfactory measures of the volume of technological unemployment have as yet been developed, but at least part of the price for this constant change in the employment requirements of industry is paid by labor, since many of the new machines and techniques result in 'occupational obsolescence.' The growth and decay of industries and occupations caused by technological progress necessitate continuous and widespread—and not always successful—readjustments and adaptations on the part of workers whose jobs are affected by these changes.

"4. The question whether there will be a large amount of unemployment during the next period of business prosperity rests only in part on the introduction of new inventions and more efficient industrial techniques. The other important elements are changes in the composition of the country's production (such as appreciable changes in the proportion which service activities constitute of the total), the growth of population, changes in the demands for goods and services, shift in markets, migration of industry, hiring-age policies of industries, and other factors discussed in the body of the report. For instance, even if industrial technique remained the same, the volume of production would have to be greater in the future than in 1929 in order to absorb the increase in the working population and keep unemployment to the level of that date. If the productivity of 1935 (the latest year for which figures are available) continues the same in 1937, and the composition of the Nation's total product remains unchanged, production would have to be increased 20 percent over that of 1929 to have as little unemployment as existed then. Failing this there will be more unemployment and if labor efficiency is increased by new inventions or otherwise, then the production of physical goods and services must be more than 120 percent of what it was in 1929.

"5. Aside from jobs, subtracted or added, new inventions affect all the great social institutions; family, church, local community, State, and industry. The committee finds that in all the fields of technology and applied science which were investigated there are many new

inventions that will have important influences upon society and hence upon all planning problems. Particularly impressive were new inventions in agriculture, communication, aviation, metallurgy, chemistry, and electrical tools and appliances.

"6. A large and increasing part of industrial development and of the correlated technological advances arises out of science and research. Invention is commonly an intermediate step between science and technological application, but this does not make less important the point that the basic ideas upon which these programs are developed come out of scientific discovery or creative activity.

"7. Advance of many aspects of industry and the correlated technologies is dependent upon scientific research and discovery. This fact is made clear by the increasing importance of research laboratories in the great industries. The research conducted is not only well organized but it is carried forward with the cooperation of investigators having high rank in the field of science. If the contribution of research were to be reduced, the industries would tend to freeze in a particular pattern.

"8. Though the influence of invention may be so great as to be immeasureable, as in the case of gunpowder or the printing press, there is usually opportunity to anticipate its impact upon society since it never comes instantaneously without signals. For invention is a process and there are faint beginnings, development, diffusion, and social influences, occurring in sequence, all of which require time. From the early origins of an invention to its social effects the time intervals average about 30 years.

"9. While a serious obstacle to considering invention in planning is lack of precise knowledge, this is not irremediable nor the most difficult fact to overcome. Other equally serious obstacles are inertia of peoples, prejudice, lack of unity of purpose, and the difficulties of concerted action.

"10. Among the resistances to the adoption of new inventions and hence to the spread of the advantages of technological progress there is especially noted those resistances arising in connection with scrapping equipment in order to install the new. Better accounting methods and greater appreciation of the rate of inventional development facilitates the spread of improved capital goods. The rate of capital obsolescence is especially a major problem under monopolistic conditions, which probably favor the adoption of technological improvements less than do conditions of keen competition.

"11. The time lag between the first development and the full use of an invention is often a period of grave social and economic maladjustment, as, for example, the delay in the adoption of workmen's compensation and the institution of 'safety first' campaigns after the introduction of rapidly moving steel machines. This lag emphasized the necessity of planning in regard to inventions.

Recommendations

"1. The reports herewith presented reveal the imminence of a few very important inventions that may soon be widely used with resultant social influences of significance. Since these inventions may deeply affect planning, it is recommended that a series of studies be undertaken by the planning agencies herein recommended or by existing planning boards, with the aid of such natural and social scientists as may be needed, on the following inventions: The mechanical cotton picker, air-conditioning equipment, plastics, the photoelectric cell, artificial cotton and woolenlike fibers made from cellulose, synthetic rubber, prefabricated houses, television, facsimile transmission, the automobile trailer, gasoline produced from coal, steep-flight aircraft planes, and tray agriculture.

"2. A special case of the influence of invention is technological unemployment. It is recommended that a joint committee be formed from the Department of Labor, the Department of Commerce, the Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Mines, Interstate Commerce Commission, Social Security Board, and the Works Progress Administration with such other cooperation as may be needed, for the purposes of keeping abreast with technological developments and ascertaining and noting the occupations and industries which are likely to be affected by imminent technological changes and the extent to which these inventions are likely to result in unemployment. It is recommended that such information be made available through the appropriate departments to the industry and labor likely to be affected.

"3. In view of the findings regarding the importance of technology and applied science, it is recommended that the Federal Government develop appropriate agencies for continuous study of them; and more specifically that there be set up in the respective departments science committees with the definite function of investigating and reporting at regular periods on the progress and trends of science and invention and the possible and economic effects flowing therefrom as they affect the work of the departments and of the agencies to whom they render service. Copies of such reports should be supplied to the National Resources Board, and it is recommended that insofar as is feasible they be made available to the various city, county, and State planning boards, and to the public.

"4. Since the patent laws have considerable influence on the rate of technological progress, it is recommended that the whole system be reviewed by a group of social scientists and economists. This review, unlike others dealing with specific reforms, technical operations, scientific aspects, or ethical implications, should be concerned with the articulation of the patenting process with the fundamental processes of human progress and the types of economic systems.

From such basic relationships the better adaptation of the system to changing conditions can be worked out in the necessary detail.

"5. It is recommended that the Science Committee of the National Resources Committee, with the cooperation of other scientists that may be needed, make an investigation of the adequacy of the reporting of inventions and of discoveries in applied science and advise on the feasibility (*a*) of more balanced coverage, (*b*) of selecting those more socially significant, and (*c*) of assembling of such data in some central location or locations.

"6. The most important general conclusion to be drawn from these studies is the continuing growth of the already high and rapidly developing technology in the social structure of the Nation, and hence the hazard of any planning that does not take this fact into consideration. This pervasive interrelationship so clearly manifest throughout the pages of this report points to one great need, namely, a permanent over-all planning board. Such a board is needed to give breadth of consideration to the variety of factors which affect specific plans. This board would take its place in the governmental pattern as coordinator for the many special planning boards, of which there are now 47 State boards, 400 county boards, and 1,100 city boards. The technology committee, therefore, makes to the National Resources Committee, as a major recommendation of this report, the creation of a National Resouces Board, as recommended by the President's Committee on Administrative Management in their report of January 8, 1937."

Self-Help Activities

SELF-HELP COOPERATIVES IN IDAHO IN 1936

OVER $79,000 worth of goods was produced by the self-help cooperatives in Idaho in 1936, and the workers therein were paid a total of $45,750 for their work. Data as to the operations of these cooperatives in 1936 are contained in the annual report of Idaho Self-Help Cooperatives,[1] from which the following information was taken.

New Policies in Effect in 1936

The self-help cooperative program was initiated in June 1934 as an activity of the Idaho Emergency Relief Administration, and was operated as such until the termination of the latter in December 1935. Most of the self-help projects during that period were designed to meet the immediate subsistence needs of the group, and therefore included such activities as canning kitchens, clothing shops, and fuelwood enterprises, operated on the barter and exchange plan.

The Idaho Cooperative Loan Corporation and Idaho Self-Help Cooperatives were created at the close of the Idaho E. R. A., the former to act as trustee for the $71,406 net cash assets remaining from Federal self-help grants and to determine policies for the continuation of the self-help work, and the latter to administer the program adopted. It was decided that as the urgent necessity for supplementary relief activities had largely disappeared, the objective of the new program should be "making groups of our unemployed people permanently independent from relief." The conclusion was reached, from previous experience, that the greatest need of the average group of unemployed persons was qualified and effective management, which had been rarely found among the needy workers themselves, and that it was more economical for such groups to concentrate on industries close to the soil, rather than on processing activities which generally require heavy investment and long-term financing.

Certain policies, based on past experience and observation, were adopted and put into practice. Separation from relief agencies was considered necessary, in order to emphasize the idea of self-help and to get away from relief psychology. An analysis of capital investment showed that $300 was the minimum capital investment per worker in

[1] Idaho Self-Help Cooperatives: The Self-Help Cooperative Program. Annual report, 1936. Boise, 1937.

the State of Idaho which would yield a living wage, and as the limited funds available made $500 the advisable maximum, self-help projects were limited to those with a capital investment per worker of from $300 to $500. This resulted in the dissolution of 14 groups and the development of 13 rehabilitation projects and 6 supplementary-relief projects, the former composed of 6 sawmills, 4 fuel-wood units, 1 house-building unit, 1 laundry, and 1 restaurant, and the latter composed of 4 canning units and 2 combination canning and sewing units.

Simplified structure was sought, and it was decided each group should be a single, sound producer-cooperative activity, with a competent manager in charge of the business. Limitation of membership in self-help groups to actual workers was found to work best, lessening group friction and internal jealousy. Every worker in a self-help cooperative included in the program in Idaho signs an agreement which provides for automatic termination of membership if he stops working, but with retention of the right to earned dividends.

Expenditure of additional grant funds was restricted to practical capital improvements. Operating loans could be made for necessary working capital in amounts up to from 60 to 75 percent of the salable-goods inventories, repayments to be made as goods were sold. This would enable the workers to get immediate returns for their work, and to stay on the job, making for a stable group, while the necessity of repayment of the loans would promote self-reliance. Operation of projects on an all-cash basis was to be the rule, except in case of commodities which the workers could use themselves, could barter, or could sell at market prices.

The following fundamentals were to be stressed: Overhead not to exceed 10 percent of production; 10 percent to be set aside for reserves; actual cash payments into depreciation reserves; insurance and safety of workers and equipment; cooperation with existing business enterprises; observance of all fair-trade practices; and education in cooperation.

The most progressive feature of the program is considered to be the supplying of "the best grade of management available" on the existing limited budget. The expenses of management are subsidized until the gross earnings of the group are large enough to carry part or all of the cost. In most cases, at least one-half of the expenses can be assumed after 3 to 6 months' operation.

Better management is considered to be largely responsible for an increase of 8 cents in average hourly wages during 1936, as well as lower and more effective equipment investments, better vocational training of workers, better group cooperation, improved standing in the community, and a profit for the year in each group. This was brought about by an expenditure of $2,020 for technical assistance,

and by supplementing inadequate management in several groups. As compared with this record, one group which, at its own wish, operated on the old barter and exchange plan, had a lower average wage, a higher administration cost, and much internal strife.

Accomplishments in 1936

In 1936 the self-help cooperatives in Idaho produced goods valued at $79,255, provided 807 man-months of work, and had a total pay roll of $45,750. The 172 worker members, who had 582 dependents, derived an average income of $52.80 a month for their work. This compares with possible earnings of common laborers of $44 a month on the general work-relief program. Seventy-one percent of the full-time workers in the self-help cooperatives had been on relief (many of them barred from industry because of age and infirmity) and others were refugees from the dust-bowl section of the Central States. Practically all the part-time workers were relief clients.

The 13 major self-help cooperative projects have, according to the report created a permanent business organization out of what was a relief function, and have built up a trade which, in production and added purchasing power, is considered an asset by their communities. Operating at a cost of $62,469, they have produced salable goods valued at $72,494, and closed the year with an increase in net worth of $8,922, or 12.3 percent of the production value. A total of 120,789 man-hours of work was afforded the 124 workers, at an average rate of 35 cents an hour. The total pay roll was $42,541. Of this the workers received $31,264 (73 percent) in cash and $8,650 (20 percent) in salable goods.

Administration costs in these 13 groups amounted to $6,587, or 10.5 percent of production costs. In addition to $4,573 granted by the State for improvement in equipment, the groups themselves have contributed labor and lumber therefor estimated to be worth $4,558. Cash reserves for depreciation have been set aside by every group, and workmen's compensation insurance and automotive-equipment insurance have been provided.

The six minor self-help cooperative projects preserved foodstuffs valued at $2,374, and sold enough to pay all costs. A total of 3,545 hours was worked by 36 workers, at 37 cents an hour; altogether, $1,324 was paid in commodities necessary for subsistence. At the end of the year there was an increase of $242 in the net worth.

The only group which operated on the original barter and trade basis produced goods valued at $4,386, and provided 11,783 hours of work for 12 workers. Because of an operating loss, the workers received only 16 cents an hour.

Summary data for 1936 as to membership, production, and pay roll of these cooperative projects are set forth in the following table:

Membership, Labor Cost, and Goods Produced by Idaho Self-Help Cooperatives, 1936

Item	13 major projects	6 minor projects	1 project on barter basis	Total
Number of workers	124	36	12	172
Dependents of workers	448	90	44	582
Total persons	572	126	56	754
Man-hours worked	120,789	3,545	11,783	136,117
Average wage rate per hour (cents)	35	37	16	34
Total pay roll	$42,541.18	$1,324.43	$1,885.00	$45,750.61
Value of goods produced	72,494.33	2,374.19	4,386.47	79,254.99
Increase in net worth	8,922.28	242.13	[1] 1,200.00	7,964.41

[1] Loss.

The total administration costs of the self-help program in 1936 were $11,294. Two-thirds ($7,529) of these costs were in connection with the production activities of the groups. Of the $71,406 transferred to the new self-help program at the beginning of the year, there remained $45,616 at the end of the year, after all expenses of reorganization, administration, and capital investment had been paid. The total capital investment of the self-help cooperatives was $29,924 and the equipment acquired should, it is said, serve an average of 10 years.

SUBSISTENCE GARDENS IN MONROE COUNTY, N. Y.

SELF-HELP or subsistence gardens in Monroe County, N. Y., in 1936 were the means of supplying garden crops valued at nearly $290,000 to approximately 4,500 families (25,000 persons). Recent reports of the Rochester Civic Committee on Unemployment [1] present a review of 5 years' experience with such gardens.

The self-help garden project was adopted in 1932 as a means of helping the unemployed who were dependent on the community for subsistence, and was continued each year to 1936. In 1934 and 1935 the project also included a group of 100 to 175 families with very low incomes who needed gardens to supplement their incomes in order to stay off relief. In 1936, large numbers of relief clients were given W. P. A. employment, and about 1,200 (25 percent) of the gardens were assigned to applicants from this group in lieu of supplementary relief.

Summary figures relative to the program, for the 5 years 1932 to 1936, are shown in table 1:

[1] Rochester Civic Committee on Unemployment: Four Years' Experience with Self-Help or Subsistence Gardens in Monroe County, N. Y., June 1936; and Report Supplementing [that] Report . . ., January 1937.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Subsistence-Garden Activities in Monroe County, 1932–36, by Years*

Item	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Number of gardens	1,997	5,300	5,378	6,039	5,039
Number of families cultivating gardens	1,896	4,851	4,936	5,451	4,485
Number of individuals in gardeners' families	10,350	26,681	27,148	30,982	24,668
Acreage cultivated (estimated)	249	662	672	755	625

The total value of the garden crops, estimated on the basis of accurate records of the produce harvested from about 10 percent of the gardens and reliable current market prices, ranged from $44,441 in 1932 to $345,021 in 1935. In 1936, a smaller acreage was cultivated, as large numbers of relief clients had been transferred to W. P. A. work, and the value of the crops harvested was $289,985. Weather conditions in 1936 were exceptionally adverse, late frost, drought, and continued hot weather all being encountered, but the total results of the harvest equaled those of the preceding year.

The estimated value of the crops each year from 1932 to 1936 and the estimated quantities preserved for winter use are shown in table 2:

TABLE 2.—*Value of Garden Crops From Subsistence Gardens and Quantities Conserved for Winter Use, 1932–36, by Years*

Item	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Estimated value of crops	$44,441	$207,109	$262,637	$345,021	$289,985
Estimated number of quarts of vegetables canned	(1)	247,500	462,222	593,560	448,500
Estimated bushels of vegetables for winter use	(1)	30,020	41,573	92,248	50,903
Estimated pounds of squash and pumpkins stored for winter	(1)	510,384	570,263	1,344,057	1,211,775

[1] Not available.

The average cost per year of each garden during the 5 years ranged from $6.56 to $8.23. This cost included clerical help, work-relief labor for supervision, and plowing and preparing the ground. Over half of this expense was for work relief, and would have been spent for the needy in some other way if there had been no gardens, so that the additional investment per garden was low compared with the returns directly to the individual and indirectly to the community. In keeping a number of families off relief by supplementing their incomes the gardens also contributed a considerable saving of relief money.

The total cost of the gardens and the average cost per garden for each year were as follows:

	Total costs	*Average cost per garden*
1932	$16,075	$8.04
1933	35,590	6.71
1934	35,303	6.56
1935	44,861	7.42
1936	41,495	8.23

In reviewing the results of this self-help project, the committee concludes that the main objectives of the project were met. The gardens helped to maintain physical and mental health among the unemployed and produced a sufficient supply of fresh vegetables for current use and for canning and storing for winter use. As only 60 percent of the gardeners had a garden 2 years in succession, a large number of families through the 5-year period learned the values of fresh vegetables and the time and effort involved in raising them. During the drought and hot weather of the summer of 1936 "the extra amount of work put willingly into their gardens proved to the committee that the self-help idea had indeed taken root."

WOMAN WORKERS IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1937

PREVAILING wage rates and earnings of woman workers in Washington, D. C., a nonmanufacturing city where employment opportunities are largely limited to clerical work, service trades, and retail selling, are shown in a recent study made by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor.

The study was made in March and April 1937, at the request of the District Committee of the House of Representatives. The industries surveyed were factories; department, limited-price, and ready-to-wear stores; laundries; cleaning and dyeing plants; beauty shops; hotels; and restaurants. Offices as such were not surveyed, but data concerning office workers in the various industries covered were secured.

Pay-roll records were secured for a total of over 12,500 women in about 200 establishments, which were selected as a representative cross section of woman-employing industries. Excluding Government service and household employment, the largest numbers of employed women in the District of Columbia were in clerical work

TABLE 1.—*Weekly Earnings of Woman Workers in the District of Columbia, 1937, by Industry*

Industry	Number of women for whom pay-roll records were secured	Median earnings [1]	Percent of women with week's earnings of—			
			Under $4	$4 and under $6	$6 and under $8	$8 and under $10
All industries studied	[2] 11,349		3.4	4.1	5.4	8.5
Laundries	1,773	$10.90	2.0	2.8	6.9	21.1
Cleaning and dyeing	268	12.80	1.9	2.2	1.9	5.6
Manufactures	530	13.35	5.1	5.1	5.5	10.2
Stores (exclusive of part-time workers):						
Department	2,892	16.60	.6	.5	.6	1.0
Ready-to-wear	547	18.60	1.5	.4	.5	.2
Limited-price	303	12.50	1.0	.7	.7	5.3
Beauty shops:						
In stores	89	19.65		3.4	1.1	2.2
Other	282	17.80	2.8	3.5	2.8	3.5
Hotels (lodging departments) [3]	507	11.50	4.9	1.6	4.3	21.7
Restaurants [4]	2,382	9.45	10.3	13.8	15.8	13.9
Office workers [5]	1,776	16.65	.7	.7	1.6	1.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Weekly Earnings of Woman Workers in the District of Columbia, 1937, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Percent of women with week's earnings of—					
	$10 and under $12	$12 and under $14	$14 and under $16	$16 and under $18	$18 and under $20	$20 and over
All industries	12.8	17.0	13.6	13.0	9.1	13.2
Laundries	32.3	18.2	10.5	3.6	1.4	1.3
Cleaning and dyeing	19.4	34.7	14.9	10.1	6.3	3.0
Manufactures	13.0	18.1	17.9	11.7	9.4	4.0
Stores (exclusive of part-time workers):						
Department	4.9	14.6	18.3	26.3	15.8	[6] 17.4
Ready-to-wear	1.5	8.0	16.3	10.2	22.7	[7] 38.8
Limited-price	25.4	56.1	10.9			
Beauty shops:						
In stores	1.1	5.6	12.4	10.1	15.7	[8] 48.3
Other	7.1	11.3	11.7	8.2	7.4	[9] 41.5
Hotels (lodging departments) [3]	19.5	27.6	4.1	8.1	3.9	4.1
Restaurants [4]	15.6	14.2	6.3	4.7	2.1	3.4
Office workers [5]	2.0	15.2	20.0	17.8	14.5	[10] 26.2

[1] Half the women earned more and half earned less than the median.

[2] Excludes part-time workers in stores, telephone operators, and laundry workers in hotels.

[3] Earnings figures are based on cash wages, excluding allowance for lodgings or meals given to some employees.

[4] Includes dining rooms and kitchens in hotels. Earnings figures are based on cash wage, excluding an allowance for meals or lodging given to most employees.

[5] Only the office workers in the industries surveyed.

[6] 12.3 percent at $20, less than $25; 3.9 percent at $25, less than $30; 1.3 percent at $30 and more.

[7] 20.5 percent at $20, less than $25; 9.9 percent at $25, less than $30; 8.4 percent at $30 and more.

[8] 22.5 percent at $20, less than $25; 21.3 percent at $25, less than $30; 4.5 percent at $30 and more.

[9] 24.5 percent at $20, less than $25; 11.3 percent at $25, less than $30; 5.7 percent at $30 and more.

[10] 16.6 percent at $20, less than $25; 5.5 percent at $25, less than $30; 4.2 percent at $30 and more.

or in the distributive trades, and the groups ranking next probably were those in hotels and restaurants. Manufacturing, telephone operating, laundry and dry cleaning service, and beauty-shop work were other important employers of women.

The number of women for whom pay-roll records were secured, the median earnings, and the classified weekly earnings, are shown for each industry, in table 1.

Comparison With Rates Fixed by Former Minimum Wage Board

During the administration of the former District of Columbia Minimum Wage Board (1919–22) four industries or groups of industries were covered by wage orders. The full-time rates set for experienced woman workers in these groups were as follows: Printing, publishing, and allied industries, $15.50; mercantile industry, $16.50; hotel, restaurant, and allied industries, $16.50, with a maximum allowance of $2 for a week's lodging and 30 cents for each meal supplied; and laundry and dry-cleaning industry, $15.

In the recent survey by the Women's Bureau, printing and publishing was not included, but the union agreement between the bindery women and their employers sets a minimum wage of $20.50 for day workers for a week of 40 hours.

In the other minimum-wage industries, the extent to which the women's earnings in 1937 equaled or fell below the rates set by the orders of the Board at various dates from 1919 to 1922 is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Relation Between Present Earnings and Minimum-Wage Awards, in Industries Covered by the Former Minimum-Wage Law*

Industry and rate set by Board	Percent of women whose earnings in 1937 were—		
	Less than rate set by Board	Same as rate set by Board	More than rate set by Board
Laundries—$15	89.1	1.9	9.0
Dry-cleaning—$15	70.1	4.9	25.0
Stores—$16.50:			
Department [1]	45.7	8.0	46.4
Ready-to-wear [1]	30.5	6.2	63.3
Limited-price [1]	100.0		

[1] Excludes part-time workers.

The Women's Bureau survey of hotels and restaurants did not take into consideration meals and lodgings furnished to employees. Therefore, while 88 percent of the women working in hotels and approximately 91 percent of the women working in restaurants had cash earnings of less than $16.50 per week, it is not accurate to state that these proportions earned less than the amount fixed by the Minimum Wage Board, from which specific deductions for lodgings and meals were permitted. However, only 12 percent of the women in hotels and 8 percent of those employed in restaurants had cash earnings equal to or above $16.50.

Hourly Earnings

Among the six groups of establishments for which data as to hours actually worked were available, women in ready-to-wear stores had the highest hourly earnings. Two-thirds of these workers earned 40 cents an hour and more, as compared with not much more than a third of the women in department stores and less than a fifth of those in manufacturing other than printing. The largest groups in laundries, dry-cleaning establishments, and limited-price stores earned 25 but less than 30 cents an hour. Details are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Hourly Earnings of Women in Selected Occupations in District of Columbia, 1937*

Industry	Median (cents)	Percent of women with average hourly earnings of—				
		Under 25 cents	25 and under 30 cents	30 and under 35 cents	35 and under 40 cents	40 cents and over
Laundries	25.0	25.3	51.3	11.8	8.0	3.7
Cleaning and dyeing	29.2	8.8	41.8	28.0	12.9	8.4
Manufactures	34.0	11.8	10.5	30.1	29.1	18.5
Stores (exclusive of part-time workers):						
Department	36.7	2.3	12.2	19.6	30.2	35.7
Ready-to-wear	44.0	.4	7.7	13.8	10.8	67.4
Limited-price	26.0	8.6	85.1	6.3		

Hours of Labor

The Women's Bureau regarded the scheduled hours of an establishment as the regular working week. Omitting hotels and restaurants, which have considerable numbers of women on part time, these ranged from 40 to 48, but the hours actually worked by the women were in many cases much shorter and in a few cases slightly longer. Personal reasons ordinarily caused some absence on the part of the employee, but considerable loss of time was caused by irregularity of work.

By the spring of 1937 the 48-hour week had been abolished in most Washington department stores, but was still the prevailing workweek for more than 60 percent of the women working in the limited-price stores. While few laundry workers (12.2 percent) worked 48 hours and over, more than one-third of the women in dry-cleaning establishments had such hours. The largest proportion of woman workers in department stores, laundries, factories, and the offices of the establishments surveyed worked over 40 hours but not 48 hours.

In factories and ready-to-wear stores more than one-third of the women employed had employment for less than 40 hours, and in laundries about three-tenths had short hours.

Though the restaurant industry, like the others, had in most cases actual working hours of not more than 8 a day, the spread of hours—the time between beginning and ending the day's work, including idle (and unpaid) time between meals—was excessive for some women. Cases were recorded in which the interval between starting work in the morning and quitting work for the night was 14 hours or more.

Weekly hours for each group for which data were obtainable are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Hours of Labor of Woman Workers in Selected Occupations in District of Columbia, 1937*

Industry [1]	Percentage of women who worked—			
	Under 40 hours	40 hours	Over 40 hours	48 hours and over
Laundries	29.3	11.0	59.6	12.2
Cleaning and dyeing	16.4	10.8	72.6	36.9
Manufactures	35.5	17.6	47.0	8.1
Stores (exclusive of part-time workers):				
Department	10.0	.2	89.7	.5
Ready-to-wear	39.2	.9	60.0	23.7
Limited-price	8.6	7.3	84.1	60.9
Office work [2]	12.1	1.9	86.1	[3] 11.1

[1] Hours were not obtainable for beauty shops nor for hotels and restaurants.
[2] Only the office workers in the industries surveyed.
[3] No schedule over 48 hours.

Office Workers in Industries Surveyed

In the Women's Bureau study of District of Columbia industries, the pay-roll data obtained for office workers in the establishments visited were combined as one group to show the wage levels in such employment. The same has been done for telephone operators in the establishments. Of the 1,776 office women and 50 telephone operators included in the survey, 1,093 office workers and 35 telephone operators were employed in department stores. The second largest group of office employees (298) were in the laundry industry.

Week's earnings.—The median week's earnings of office workers ranged from $13.80 in cleaning and dyeing establishments to $24.30 in manufacturing firms. In the other industries in which as many as 50 office women were employed—laundries, department and ready-to-wear stores, and restaurants—the medians varied only from $16.50 to $17.85. Table 5 shows the median and the percent distribution, in $5 intervals, of the earnings of the office women in each industry with 50 or more women reported.

TABLE 5.—*Weekly Earnings of Office Workers in Selected Industries in the District of Columbia, 1937*

Industry	Median earnings	Percent of woman office workers earning—						
		Under $5	$5 and under $10	$10 and under $15	$15 and under $20	$20 and under $25	$25 and under $30	$30 and over
Laundries	$16.50	1.7	5.2	24.7	52.2	11.3	2.1	2.7
Cleaning and dyeing	13.80	-------	5.7	63.6	26.1	2.3	1.1	1.1
Manufactures	24.30	-------	-------	3.1	18.5	36.9	21.5	20.0
Department stores	16.60	1.2	2.6	25.5	45.8	16.4	4.9	3.6
Ready-to-wear stores	16.70	2.3	4.7	16.3	45.7	20.2	7.0	3.9
Restaurants	[1] 17.85	2.0	-------	19.6	39.2	25.5	9.8	3.9

[1] Exclusive of meals.

The former Minimum Wage Board did not set a separate rate for office workers, but as a matter of interest the earnings of the office workers in the Women's Bureau survey were classified according to the rates set for the industries employing these women. Nearly 32 percent of the office women in laundries earned less than the $15 minimum set for that industry, and in cleaning and dyeing plants the extremely large proportion of 69.3 percent earned less than $15. In ready-to-wear shops, department stores, and restaurants the rate set for the industry was $16.50. The proportions of office women earning less than this amount were, in the same order, 40.3, 46.8, and 31.4 percent.

Hours worked.—The number of hours actually worked by office women also varied from industry to industry, but, in general, hours were more regular for them than for the other workers in the same industry, as shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Hours of Labor of Office Workers in Selected Industries in District of Columbia, 1937*

Industry	Percent of women in the offices of establishments who worked—			
	Under 32 hours	32 and under 40 hours	40 and under 48 hours	48 hours
Laundries	2.9	1.4	69.6	26.1
Cleaning and dyeing	5.4		1.4	93.2
Manufactures		39.7	57.1	3.2
Department stores	4.9	3.3	90.1	1.7
Ready-to-wear stores	7.1	37.8	29.9	25.2

Telephone Operators

Though the earnings of the 50 telephone operators, the majority of whom were employed in department stores, had a wide range, more than half earned $15 and under $20 and about one-fourth earned $20 and more.

SALARY DIFFERENTIALS OF WOMEN IN BRITISH CIVIL SERVICE

SALARY DIFFERENTIALS as between men and women in the British civil service are considerably narrowed through a decision reached by the Committee of the National Whitley Council on Sex Differentiation in Pay, which reported on June 30, 1937.[1] The com-

[1] Report reprinted in supplement to Opportunity (official organ of the National Association of Women Civil Servants). London, July 1937.

mittee was appointed in March 1935 at the request of the civil-service employees "to consider and report upon the existing differences in the pay of men and women civil servants and the changes—if any—which should be made."

In the negotiations, the report states, the employee representatives on the committee "made it clear at the outset that they adhered to the principle of equal pay for men and women in the civil service and that anything which they proposed to do on the committee must be regarded as entirely without prejudice to their views on that principle." At the same time, in view of the fact that Government policy did not accept the equal-pay standard, staff representatives agreed "to confine their aim to adjusting anomalies and lessening differentials within the system as it stands at present."

The agreement as adopted establishes the rule that in grades and positions to which both men and women are eligible and where "common conditions of employment obtain", the spread between the maximum scale for men and for women shall not exceed 20 percent; or "in other words, the maximum of the women's scale shall be not less than 80 percent of the maximum for men in the same grade." The greatest margin of difference in maximum salary allowed under the agreement is £175 for the same grade and classification. Another clause provides that the maximum scale for a woman in a given grade shall not be less than the maximum scale of a man in the next lower grade in cases where the men's scales for consecutive grades coincide or show a gap; where such scales overlap, "the application of a similar arrangement" in favor of the woman's maximum salary "is not necessarily excluded." Minimum rates in the junior grades are the same for men and women, and in specialized occupations where the scale is the same regardless of sex, the 80 percent differential will not apply.

This adjustment of salary for women in the maximum salary grades to whom the new scale will apply is to be made retroactive to June 1. This resulting increase is in addition to the comprehensive revision of salary scales effective June 1, which raised maximum salaries for both men and women in the advanced grades.

Labor Organizations

REAFFILIATION OF AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR WITH EUROPEAN LABOR MOVEMENT

THE REAFFILIATION of the American Federation of Labor with the International Federation of Trade Unions, the federated body representing the labor movement of various European countries, occurred in July 1937 when the General Council of the International Federation of Trade Unions, meeting in Warsaw, Poland, unanimously accepted the membership application of the American Federation of Labor.[1] Thus, after several years of discussion and negotiation, the American Federation of Labor resumes its participation in the organized labor movement of Europe, as represented by the International Federation of Trade Unions,[2] which was broken off shortly after the close of the World War.

A resolution calling for reaffiliation of the organized American workers was introduced into the 1934 convention of the American Federation of Labor by delegates representing the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. The convention referred the matter to the executive council for further consideration.[3] Reporting to the next convention (1935) upon the proposal and the entire subject of the International Federation of Trade Unions, the executive council reviewed the relations between the American and European labor movements over a long period of years, during most of which the American Federation of Labor had taken an active part in the international movement. Political developments following the World War and the Versailles Treaty changed the attitude of American organizations toward participation in European affairs. Accordingly—

> The American Federation of Labor withdrew from the International Federation of Trade Unions in 1921. One of the main differences between the American Federation of Labor and the labor movements of other countries with regard to the I. F. T. U. was that American labor regarded the organization as primarily a clearing center for information. European workers expected the organization to be active in their strikes and in their political movements. The United States believed that the dues assessed * * * were higher than were warranted by the benefits to American workers.[4]

[1] American Federation of Labor. Weekly News Service, July 10, 1937.

[2] For description of the composition, character, and activities of the European body see Monthly Labor Review, September 1936 (p. 573): International Federation of Trade Unions.

[3] American Federation of Labor. Report of Proceedings of the Fifty-fourth Annual Convention, pp. 573–574.

[4] American Federation of Labor. Report of Proceedings of the Fifty-fifth Annual Convention, p. 158.

The report pointed out further that "the proposal for American reaffiliation to the I. F. T. U. has been repeatedly raised", and that considerable correspondence had been carried on looking toward a clarification of relations that would make such action feasible, but the executive council made no recommendations in the matter. However, the resolution calling for reaffiliation was introduced into the 1935 convention, which instructed the president of the American Federation of Labor to negotiate terms upon which reaffiliation could be effected on "a basis of effective cooperation." Among the reasons given for desiring active identification with the European movement was the consideration that—

> The membership of the American Government and American labor in the International Labor Organization at Geneva makes necessary the development of every device which will increase the effectiveness of the voice of American labor in the development of international labor standards. The work of the International Federation of Trade Unions has been invaluable to the trade-unions in connection with the work of the International Labor Organization. The Executive Committee of the International Federation of Trade Unions analyze the agenda and reports before each annual conference with great care; they organize caucuses of the workers' groups at such conferences and, in general, serve as a steering committee on labor strategy. In fact, the International Federation of Trade Unions serves the workers' groups at these conferences much as do the Employers' Federation serve the employers' group.[5]

Formal application for membership was made by the American Federation of Labor following conferences that were made possible by the visit to the United States of Sir Walter Citrine, president, and Walter Schevenels, general secretary, of the International Federation of Trade Unions. This application was presented by Matthew Woll, third vice president of the American Federation of Labor, to the meeting of the General Council held at Warsaw, Poland, in July 1937. In discussing the application and action thereon, the matter of the current division in the American labor movement was brought up, with the result that in admitting the American group to membership, the General Council of the International Federation of Trade Unions unanimously adopted the following resolution:

> In pursuance of its policy of realizing international trade-union unity, the General Council of the International Federation of Trade Unions accepts and welcomes the affiliation of the American Federation of Labor.
>
> It is the heartfelt wish of the General Council that this affiliation should help to unite all sections of the trade-union movement of the United States and that all the necessary efforts should be made with a view to removing the causes of the internal differences which have arisen in the trade-union movement of the United States. Consequently, the International Federation of Trade Unions, in the widest possible spirit of conciliation, would gladly use its influence in such a mediatory capacity as the bodies concerned may approve.
>
> Faithful to the traditions and in conformity with its Statutes, the I. F. T. U. has no wish to interfere in any way in the internal affairs of the American trade-

[5] American Federation of Labor. Report of Proceedings of the Fifty-fifth Annual Convention, p. 718.

union movement, and its decision should not therefore be interpreted as an approval or condemnation of the methods of action or of the form of organization of any of the bodies concerned.

It should be understood that the present decision is entirely without prejudice to the continued affiliation of unions in the United States to their respective international trade secretariats recognized by the I. F. T. U.[6]

The immediate effect of American participation in the activities of the European body was the decision of the general council to hold the 1939 meeting of the I. F. T. U. in New York City. With the addition of the American Federation of Labor, the membership of the International Federation of Trade Unions is approximately 20,000,000, according to the statement of its president.[7]

COMPULSORY UNION MEMBERSHIP IN TRANSVAAL GOLD MINES

AN AGREEMENT is reported to have been reached in South Africa whereby European employees of the gold mines are required to join one of the recognized trade-unions as a condition of employment. The events leading up to this settlement and the terms of the agreement are given in recent reports from the American consul general at Johannesburg.[8] The closed-shop policy became effective as of June 1, 1937, and is a reversal of that previously existing with respect to labor organization for employees of the mines.

Recognition of the principle of union membership on the part of employees resulted from a brief strike called on one of the shafts of a single gold mine, which involved slightly over 100 miners. The strike was a protest against efforts to establish separate trade-unions based on racial lines—that is, differentiating between native whites of European parentage and other Europeans. A settlement was reached within a week between the gold producers' committee, representing those of its members which are Witwatersrand gold-mining companies (producing over 90 percent of the bullion extracted in the Transvaal), and the following eight recognized unions: Amalgamated Engineering Union; Amalgamated Society of Woodworkers; Building Workers' Industrial Union of South Africa; Ironmolders' Union of South Africa; South African Boilermakers', Iron and Steel Workers', and Shipbuilders' Society; South African Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Association; South African Mine Workers' Union; and South African

[6] Report of the Congress as submitted by A. J. Drexel Biddle, Jr., Ambassador to Poland, in correspondence dated Warsaw, July 8, 1937.

[7] American Federation of Labor. Weekly News Service, July 10, 1937.

[8] Reports of H. Earle Russell, American consul general, Johannesburg, Union of South Africa, dated Apr. 19 and May 3, 1937.

Reduction Workers' Association. The settlement barred the rival organizations that had sought recognition. Union membership has been made compulsory for Europeans except officials, official learners, and minor apprentices. It is required that a worker join the union which embraces employees engaged in his particular line of work.

Preexisting contracts are modified only insofar as the subject matter of the new agreement affects them. Producers will recognize only one organization for each of the respective classes of employment. Formation and activities of rival unions will be discouraged if the employers consider them hostile to their interests and those of the workers. In disputes between recognized unions, producers are not bound to participate nor to support either party. Negotiations for settling disputes between an employer and a union are to be conducted directly unless the parties favor a different method. The recognized unions agree to deal only with trade-union matters and not to enforce any of their constitutional regulations that are at variance with the agreement here reviewed. Books and accounts of the unions are subject to annual audit. Strike ballots must be conducted secretly. Changes in personnel for collecting union dues at mines must be recorded with the management.

Each recognized union is required to accept as a member any European employed on June 1, 1937, or after that date, provided he is eligible to membership and is prepared to pay union dues. No official will be admitted to union membership, and no workman may join a member of an officials' organization. In the event that a workman is promoted to an official position, or vice versa, he loses the right to membership in the respective organization to which he formerly belonged. No workman may belong to more than one union. Full opportunity for defense must be accorded any unionist before he is excluded from membership. Expulsion for failure to pay dues may be ordered only if the defendant is 3 months in arrears and after a special warning and a period of 30 days' grace thereafter. Producers may request full details regarding any expulsion. Employees are forbidden to engage in union activities and the unions will discourage their members doing so during working hours or on an employer's property, if in the manager's opinion this is likely to cause unrest or undermine discipline.

Finally, the agreement leaves the producers or the joint committee free to withdraw from the closed-shop principle, if one or the other is satisfied that either the provisions of the agreement or those of the Industrial Conciliation Act are not being complied with. Such action as might be deemed necessary would then be taken with respect to the agreement, but other understandings or arrangements would remain in effect.

Industrial Accidents and Safety

MEETING OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS COMMISSIONS, 1937

THE INTERNATIONAL Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions held its twenty-fourth annual convention at York Harbor, Maine, June 28–July 2, 1937. Three Provinces and 26 States were in official attendance.[1]

In his opening address, the president of the association, D. D. Garcelon, chairman of the Industrial Accident Commission of Maine, stressed the relation of short and uncertain tenure of commissioners to the chaotic diversities of the compensation acts, which in many instances have developed without expert guidance in the States. "The rapid change of personnel in compensation administration in this country is nothing short of appalling. * * * Continuity of service in a highly technical branch such as this is absolutely essential if we are to have really efficient administration of existing laws, or the mature experience that would warrant us in endeavoring to better them. The lack of such continuity is without any question the greatest defect in our compensation laws today." Now that more than 25 years of experimentation in compensation law and administration in this country have passed, he urged the jurisdictions to discard inferior features and "adopt as standard those that have been proved by the experience of others to be genuinely successful."

R. E. Wenzel, of the Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor, presented details of a study which showed "increasing rather than decreasing nonuniformity in procedural as well as substantive provisions" of the compensation acts. Marshall Dawson, in a report upon a survey of the compensation field by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, said that in most jurisdictions the administrations are inadequately supported and understaffed. "So far as administrative arrangements are concerned" the goals are "(1) a simple form of procedure for promptly settling workmen's compensation claims; (2) an adequate spread of service; and (3) a proficient staff properly supported."

[1] The proceedings of this convention will be published later, in bulletin form, by the U. S. Department of Labor.

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The bewildering effect of conflicting or abstruse court interpretation of compensation acts was shown by Charles F. Sharkey, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

In the course of discussions of procedural and administrative problems, Harry A. Nelson, of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, said that the Wisconsin experience had shown that the supposed high cost and difficulties of occupational-disease coverage, including silicosis, reflect an alarmist state of mind not in accord with the facts. M. T. Howard, of the New York Department of Labor, stressed the need for competent supervision and the limitation of the scope of the self-insuring privilege. James J. Donohue, of the Board of Compensation Commissioners of Connecticut, described the practice, in Connecticut, under which many employees are permitted to make partial waivers of compensation benefits.

After a discussion of the commission's control over attorneys' fees by O. F. McShane, commissioner, Utah Industrial Commission, Samuel B. Horovitz, attorney for the Massachusetts Federation of Labor, insisted that in such programs of control the fees of carriers' and self-insurers' attorneys should be considered, as well as the fees of the employees' attorneys.

Austin L. Staley, of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor, urged the necessity for close scrutiny of all agreement settlements of compensation claims.

James E. Green, Jr., superintendent of the Maryland State Accident Fund, warned against setting up a competitive State fund in a jurisdiction where its premium income would be less than $150,000 or $200,000 per year. Mrs. Emma S. Tousant, commissioner, Department of Industrial Accidents of Massachusetts, acknowledged the employee's right to select his physician but added that "society has a right to demand that the injured worker be protected against physicians unqualified by experience and training to treat certain specific conditions.

Dr. Leonard Greenburg, of the New York State Department of Labor, stressed the importance of thoroughness in occupational-disease diagnosis. In such a diagnosis it is necessary to know in full detail what the worker does at his work, and to make a chemical analysis of the substances manufactured, since there is a continual introduction of new substances "about whose toxicity we know little or nothing until, in some cases, the damage has been done." Such a study of the man in his environment is the necessary basis for the medical examination of the worker and its interpretation

An illustrated lecture was given by Dr. Henry H. Kessler, of the New Jersey Rehabilitation Clinic, on cineplastic surgery and its application to the injured worker. "Because of the unsatisfactory experience with the ordinary mechanical arm, attention has been

directed toward the development of a substitute arm in which the control can be achieved by natural muscular action. With the cineplastic technique the remaining muscles in the amputated stump are utilized to activate the artificial arm by means of pegs and levers, so that natural control can be exerted by the muscles in the act of grasping." The motion pictures showed that the control was adequate not only for such acts as dealing cards but even for playing a violin.

On the basis of a few selected accident reports, S. W. Wilcox, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, explained the method by which the proposed Heinrich Cause Code would make possible the statistical tabulation of the causes of accidents. In the discussion it was agreed that if this could be done it would meet a fundamental need of factory inspection and other administrative units responsible for industrial safety.

After a discussion of up-to-date conceptions of industrial safety by John Roach, Deputy Commissioner of Labor of New Jersey, a first-aid demonstration was given by a 5-man first-aid team from the Hollingsworth & Whitney Co.

A resolution was passed suggesting that special security funds be created in States having no provision for the securing of compensation to employees where the insurance carrier fails or becomes bankrupt. A resolution relating to "age discriminations" urged the State commissions to establish and publish the facts with reference to the accident experience of older workers.

The following officers were elected for 1937–38: President, A. G. Mathews, commissioner, Workmen's Compensation Department, West Virginia; vice-president, Voyta Wrabetz, chairman, Wisconsin Industrial Commission; secretary-treasurer, Verne A. Zimmer, Director, Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor. Executive committee: F. W. Armstrong, Nova Scotia; John H. Dukes, South Carolina; Jay J. James, Missouri; C. C. Joy, Oregon; and Austin L. Staley, Pennsylvania.

FEDERAL WORK-RELIEF ACT OF 1937

THE APPROVAL of Public Resolution No. 47 on June 29, 1937, made $1,500,000,000 available to continue to provide relief and work relief on useful public projects in the United States and its Territories. The money is to be used at the discretion and under the direction of the President and is to remain available until June 30, 1938, but its use must be so distributed throughout the year that it will represent the total expenditure for relief purposes. In addition to the above appropriation, the unexpended balances of appropriations made by the two former Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts and the first Deficiency Appropriation Act of 1937 may be expended. The resolution provides that the money must be used for the following classes of public projects: (*a*) Highways, roads, and streets, $415,000,000; (*b*) public buildings, parks and other recreational facilities, public utilities, electric transmission and distribution lines or systems in rural areas (including projects sponsored by and for the benefit of nonprofit and cooperative associations), sewer systems, water supply and purification, airports and other transportation facilities, flood control, conservation, eradication of insect pests, and miscellaneous work projects, $630,000,000; (*c*) assistance for educational, professional, and self-help, and clerical persons and women's projects, $380,000,000; and (*d*) National Youth Administration, $75,000,000.

No portion of the funds may be used for any purpose other than to provide relief and work relief for persons in need, and not more than 5 percent of the amount allotted may be used for administering relief, but this provision does not apply to certain departments or bureaus which are caring for primary and essential functions of relief. With the exception of flood-control and water-conservation projects authorized by other laws, no project shall be undertaken until there has been irrevocably set aside Federal funds sufficient for its completion, and non-Federal projects shall not be undertaken until the sponsors have made a written agreement to finance that portion of the cost which is not to be obtained from Federal funds. No part of the funds (except obligations incurred prior to the enactment of this resolution) may be loaned or granted for rebuilding, repairing, or replanning penal institutions unless it shall be found that the projects to be financed will not

promote competition of the products of convict labor with the products of free labor.

There are several labor provisions in the resolution. The prevailing rate of pay for work of a similar nature in the same locality must be paid. Preference in employment by the Works Progress Administration must be given to American citizens and to aliens who are in need of relief and who have declared their intention to become citizens prior to the enactment of this joint resolution, and to needy veterans of the World War and the Spanish War. The departments, agencies, or establishments administering projects financed by funds from this appropriation may not knowingly employ aliens illegally within the United States, or aliens who have not filed a declaration of intention to become citizens. Workmen's compensation is to be paid for injuries incurred while engaged on projects under the resolution, and to persons receiving payment for services under the National Youth Administration, but the amount of compensation is limited to $30 per month, exclusive of medical costs.

There are several provisions covering persons employed in administering the act. A State or regional administrator must be appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, at a yearly salary of $5,000 or more, and his salary may not be increased for 6 months after confirmation. Appointments to Federal positions of an administrative or advisory nature, in any State, must be made from citizens of the State, so far as possible, but this does not apply to temporary appointments of not more than 60 days. No part of the appropriation may be used to pay the salary or expenses of a person who is a candidate for any State, district, county, or municipal office in any election, or who is a campaign manager or an assistant manager for a candidate. All appointments to the Federal Service for employment within the District of Columbia, whether under the classified civil service or not, shall be apportioned among the several States and the District of Columbia on the basis of population. With the exception of those having military preference, in making separations or furloughs from the Federal Service in the District of Columbia, preference must be given in retaining persons to appointees from States which have not received their share of appointments according to population.

The resolution contains several new provisions concerning the recipients of work relief. Persons in need, whose names have not heretofore been placed on relief rolls, shall be given the same eligibility for employment as persons whose names have appeared on such rolls. If a person in need of relief, and employed on a work project, refuses an offer of private employment which he is capable of performing, under reasonable working conditions, and which pays as much or more in compensation for the same length of service, he forfeits his

right to employment under this appropriation for the period such private employment would be available. However, any person accepting such private employment will, at the expiration thereof, be entitled to resumption of his relief work, if he is still in need of relief and if he has lost the private employment through no fault of his own. No relief worker shall be eligible for employment on a Works Progress Administration project who has refused to accept employment on any other Federal or non-Federal project at a wage rate comparable with or higher than that of the Works Progress Administration. Any relief worker engaged on any Federal or non-Federal project whose services have been terminated through no fault of his own is eligible for restoration to the relief rolls or for reemployment on any other project. The fact that an applicant has received payment of an adjusted-compensation certificate or adjusted-service bonds shall not be considered in determining the need of his employment.

Title 2 of the resolution provides for the continuation of the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works until July 1, 1939, but after June 29, 1937, no allotment may be made for any project unless the application for the same has been approved prior to that date. While no new applications for loans or grants may be considered, the classes of projects for which loans or grants for non-Federal projects may be used (in addition to other purposes for which funds may be used) are enumerated as follows: (*a*) To replace, eliminate, or ameliorate existing school facilities which are hazardous to the life, safety, or health of school children, $60,000,000 for grants and $11,000,000 for loans; (*b*) for projects which have been authorized, or for which financing has been authorized, by elections, or for projects for which an authority or board has been created by a State legislature, $70,000,000 for grants, and $22,000,000 for loans; (*c*) for projects for which appropriations have been made by State legislatures, $15,000,000 for grants and $2,000,000 for loans; (*d*) for projects to be financed, except for the grant, by the issuance to contractors of tax or assessment securities at not less than their par value (but no allotment shall be made for any project unless the applicant has incurred substantial expenditures or obligations in contemplation of receiving an allotment), $5,000,000 for grants; (*e*) for projects for which funds have been earmarked, $54,000,000 for grants and $78,000,000 for loans.

PORTUGUESE LEGISLATION ON HOURS OF LABOR

GREATER FLEXIBILITY in penalties for violation of legislation concerning hours of labor in Portuguese industry and commerce, raising the age for admission of minors to night work from 16 to 18 years, and other amendments clarifying or modifying terms of the decree law of August 24, 1934, were introduced by a decree law of

August 24, 1936.[1] In general, the provisions of the earlier law remain in force, but the 18 articles rewritten embody changes which experience has shown to be desirable.

Hours of work in commercial and industrial establishments, with certain specified exceptions, may not exceed 8 per day. In offices (*escritorios*), the daily hours may not exceed 7, and such establishments already having a shorter day than this may not lengthen it. The daily working period of persons employed in cafes is limited to 8 hours. Commercial establishments in small towns, industrial enterprises distinctively rural, and construction and repair of roads and highways may, under specified circumstances, be exempted from compliance with certain provisions of this legislation by authorization of the competent authority. Certain construction work in small towns is unconditionally exempted from compliance with the hours legislation. The National Institute of Labor and Welfare (*Instituto Nacional do Trabalho e Previdência*) may, on petition, exempt from the provisions relating to hours of work confidential employees, supervisors or directors, and persons working for near relatives in small establishments.

An additional 15 minutes may be allowed at the close of the day for completion of work or of a commercial transaction already begun, provided this practice does not become habitual. The daily work period may be reduced or extended for sufficient cause. In case of force majeure or of actual or threatened loss, the work period may be lengthened, but the competent authority must be notified of the fact, with the reason therefor, by registered letter within 48 hours.

Minors are not to be admitted to work in commercial or industrial establishments until they have completed their twelfth year. Women and minors under 18 years may not work at night except in unusual circumstances officially approved. Night work for industrial establishments is defined as work between 8 p. m. and 7 a. m., and for offices as that between 6 p. m. and 9 a. m. Establishments directly serving the public and those of continuous operation are excepted. Opening and closing hours in establishments which sell to the public are to be fixed by the municipal authorities. The day's work must be broken, after 4 or 5 hours, by a rest period of not less than 1 hour nor more than 2 hours. The Government may, by order of the Under Secretary of State for Corporations, require longer or more frequent rest periods in occupations particularly strenuous or dangerous, as well as authorize changes in the above-mentioned time for rest.

Work in shifts and overtime work are provided for and regulated. A weekly rest day is required, which, unless there is good reason for a different arrangement, is to be Sunday. All industrial and commercial establishments, except certain enterprises whose work

[1] Diario do Govêrno (Lisbon), series 1, Aug. 24, 1934, pp. 1617-1621; Boletim do Instituto Nacional do Trabalho e Previdência (Lisbon), Aug. 31, 1936, pp. 385-387.

is continuous, those which directly serve the public in the sale of perishable goods or in other necessary services, and public-health institutions, etc., are required to close 1 day per week, preferably Sunday.

The rate of pay for extra night work and other overtime is time and a half. Pay for work on the weekly rest day and for national holidays is double the regular rate.

Each establishment is required to post in a visible place its schedule of hours, the names of persons with hours other than those worked by the majority, and the names of persons who are not required to comply with the hours regulations. Establishments carrying on various types of work and thus requiring more than one schedule of hours must have their scales of hours approved by a representative of the National Institute before they go into effect. The representatives have authority to approve certain arrangements of shifts and to authorize overtime not to exceed 3 hours per day for 5 days per week, or, in case of force majeure, without limit of hours 1 day per week. Other shift arrangements and overtime must be approved by the higher authority upon the recommendation of the representative for the district in question.

Commercial or industrial establishments which do not work out and post their schedule of hours, and those with complex activities which do not secure official approval, are subject to fines of 100 to 200 escudos and of 500 escudos respectively. Violations of the provisions of this decree law relating to women and minors are subject to a fine of 100 escudos for each woman or minor illegally employed. Fines for other violations of this decree law, including withholding of pay for overtime, for night work, and for work done on the weekly rest day, vary within certain limits according to the nature and seriousness of the offense, the economic circumstances of the offender, and the number of persons employed in the part of the enterprise in which the violation occurs; and in addition the worker whose pay for overtime, night work, or work on his weekly rest day has been held back is to be given the amount of pay to which he is entitled. In case of voluntary payment of fine the minimum is assessed; in case of resistance or of a repetition of the offense, the maximum is to be collected. The money collected for fines is payable to the State. The fines provided for in this decree law are not applicable when collective labor contracts make provision for indemnities in such cases.

No wage-earning or salaried employee can be discharged either directly or indirectly because of compliance with the scheduled hours of work. If he should be dismissed for this reason, he has the right to be reemployed or to be paid for 60 days' service, unless the law provides a higher indemnity. The wages being paid for each kind of work when this decree law was published may not be decreased because of the application of its provisions.

Workmen's Compensation

AWARD FOR NERVOUS BREAK-DOWN

A NOVEL CASE of an award of compensation on account of overwork, was recently decided by the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia (*Hoage el al.* v. *Royal Indemnity Co. et al.*, 90 Fed. (2d) 387).

James S. Rennie was engaged as a claims examiner by the Royal Indemnity Co. in May 1932. In 1933, the work of investigating accidents and settling claims increased to such an extent that Rennie was required to work overtime at the office, and many evenings at his home. He testified that he handled over 250 cases of investigation a month. Other testimony showed that an adjuster can properly handle only from 75 to 100 per month. Later "he began to worry when getting behind with his work and for 9 months suffered from fatigue, headaches, insomnia, and heartburn." On April 28, 1934, Rennie suffered a heart attack requiring medical assistance. He continued his work against the advice of a physician and a week later suffered another heart attack, similar to the previous one, but of greater severity. He was confined to a hospital for nearly a month. Upon his release he was unable to carry on his regular duties and the attending physician stated that the employee "is totally incapacitated for any arduous labor." Later, he filed a claim for compensation and medical benefits, although he had given no prior notice to either his employer or the compensation commissioner.

The Deputy Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation in the District of Columbia awarded compensation, and the employer subsequently brought an action in the Supreme Court of the District to set aside the award. The employer, in answering the claim of the employee that his disability was due to overwork and worry, contended that the employee had not suffered an accidental injury within the meaning of the workmen's compensation law. The lower court held for the employer and rendered a decree vacating the award of workmen's compensation by the deputy commissioner.

Upon an appeal to the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia, the decree of the lower court was reversed. Mr. Chief Justice Martin, in delivering the opinion, stated:

> We think that the testimony in the record fully considered tends to show that Mr. Rennie by reason of mental strain, worry, and long and excessive hours of

labor suffered a collapse which resulted in his total disability as found by the Deputy Commissioner. We think this collapse constituted an accidental injury within the purview of the statute. His case is comparable to that of a manual laborer whose heart collapses as a result of long-continued physical strain or overwork resulting from excessive exertion. Such a case was considered by this court in *Commercial Casualty Ins. Co.* v. *Hoage*, 64 App. D. C. 158, 75 F. (2d) 677, 678, in which the collapse was caused through continued use of the muscles by lifting. In that case it appeared that a grocery-store clerk who was unaware of having an enlarged heart, suffered aortic regurgitation which was precipitated by strenuous exertion in handling sacks of potatoes, and which condition in turn caused death.

Numerous cases were cited by the court to sustain the opinion. One concerned the death of a schoolhouse janitor resulting from an acute dilation of the heart, caused by excitement and exertion of answering a false fire alarm. The death was held compensable as an accidental injury even though no traumatic injury occurred. Another case involved the death of a hearse driver who, while operating a machine on an upgrade, tried to prevent it from rolling back when the emergency brake failed to hold; he suffered a cerebral apoplexy the next day. The court pointed out in this case that—

> There was no physical injury to him, other than the excitement. The claimant did not suffer any traumatic injury or physical strain. It was an accident that the brake failed to hold, but not an accident to him. The only accident to him was the mental nervous excitement due to the failure of the brake and the consequent backing down hill of the hearse, and the apoplectic stroke did not occur until the following morning.

A third case concerned the death of an employee due to mental shock from having accidentally killed a fellow employee. In that case it was held that the death was caused by an accident arising out of the employment, even though there was no external physical injury to the deceased employee.

Examination of the facts in the insurance adjuster's case indicates that the opinion of the court is apparently not inconsistent with the theory of "time, place, and circumstance" which requires that an injury, in order to be compensable, must be clearly shown to have happened at some definite time. Mr. Chief Justice Martin considered this in the following words:

> In the present case we are convinced that the claimant suffered a severe spasm of the heart muscle which occurred on May 5, 1934, caused by angina pectoris and that this was the consequence of overwork and physical and mental strain required of the employee by the employer, and resulted in coronary thrombosis, and that this sequence brought the case within the act. It is well known that nervous shock, continued anxiety, and excessive exertion at work under trying circumstances may contribute toward the collapse of persons who are already suffering from hardening of the arteries.

Family Allowances

FAMILY-ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN FRANCE IN 1936

THE MAJOR measures making for the notable expansion of the family-allowance system in France in 1936 were: Decrees further generalizing the application of the Family Allowances Act in industry and commerce and completing the introduction of family allowances in agriculture; the extension of the family-allowance funds to include all their members; and the increase, in some cases by substantial amounts, of family-allowance rates. These developments were reviewed by M. Bonvoisin, the general director of the national committee on family allowances, at the Seventeenth National Annual Congress on Family Allowances, which met in Toulon on May 5, 1937. Extracts from M. Bonvoisin's report and other information presented at this conference are published in the May and June 1937 issues of the Bulletin Mensuel des Allocations Familiales et des Assurances Sociales, which are the sources of the data here presented.

In his survey of the progress in 1936 of the family-allowance movement, M. Bonvoisin declared that his committee had come to the conclusion that the success of the regime in commerce and industry is assured. Notwithstanding hesitation in some cases, French employers are now participating in a united effort in behalf of working-class families, and have taken on responsibilities and burdens which a few years ago they would not have thought of assuming.

This official holds that on account of the flexibility of the Family Allowances Act it has been possible to apply the legislation to all employers, with some variation, according to trade and district, without imposing on any an insupportable burden.

While increases in the allowance rates were general, they were not the same in all localities, and it has seemed necessary to put them into effect gradually. In the judgment of Mr. Bonvoisin, it is a subject of congratulation for the National Committee that the workers' trade-unions, most of the members of which have no children, agreed that a large part of the recent wage increases awarded through arbitration should be considered as family allowances. The soundness of the principle of family allowances, the general director pointed out, has been thus confirmed, and recognition given to the value of these grants in promoting social accord.

The number of approved funds for family allowances in nonagricultural undertakings—222—reported at the recent congress, was the same as that reported at last year's convention, 3 new funds having taken the place of 3 dissolved funds. The total number of affiliated establishments, however, increased from 218,000 in 1935 to 280,000 in 1936—an expansion of 28 percent; and the number of wage earners from 4,238,000 to 4,803,000—a rise of 13 percent. At the same time the number of families receiving allowances increased from 1,305,000 to 1,495,000, or 14.6 percent, and the number of child beneficiaries from 2,313,000 to 2,600,000, or 12.4 percent. A comparison of these figures indicates that the working forces of the small commercial establishments which have recently become members of funds have relatively fewer children than the average for previously affiliated establishments. Consequently the percentage increase in the recipients of allowances from intertrade funds is less than the percentage increase in the working force covered. As a result the cost of allowances, expressed as a percentage of wages, would have tended to decline, if the allowance rates had not been raised to amounts which in general increased the contributions for these benefits above the previous level. As the new allowance rates became effective only during the last quarter of 1936, the amount disbursed in that year—872 million francs as compared to 780 million francs in 1935—only partially discloses the real situation.[1]

Including the allowances paid out by special services (coal mines, railway companies, and a number of independent establishments) the expenditure for these benefits totaled almost 1,680 million francs in 1936. The family allowances granted to public servants would increase this amount to about 2,200 million francs.

On the basis of a rapid survey made immediately before the opening of the recent congress it was estimated that the family-allowance funds and special services were disbursing family allowances at the rate of over 2,000 million francs [2] per year, which, combined with the expenditures for these grants to the families of public servants, would amount to 2,500 million francs.

Welfare Work

Despite the crisis and the increased burdens of all kinds which industrial and commercial enterprises have had to bear, the social services of the family-allowance funds have continued to record new progress. For example, the number of visiting nurses in the service of 87 of the funds has recently increased from 450 to 485, while the number of children sent to vacation colonies has risen from 10,000 to 17,500.

[1] Average exchange rate of franc in 1935=6.6 cents; in 1936=6.1 cents.

[2] Average exchange rate of franc in April 1937=4.5 cents.

Several recently established funds, inspired by the example of older organizations, have started in their turn certain social services which will soon result in new activities.

Other Subjects of Discussion

Among the subjects taken up at the congress by other experts on family-allowance problems were conditions in regard to the application of the family-allowance law in commerce and industry; the demographic situation in France; and the encouraging results reported by family-allowance funds with reference to the birth rate, stillbirths, and infant mortality.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN AGRICULTURE IN LATVIA

SUPPLEMENTARY family allowances are to be paid out of State funds to all citizens of Latvia who work as agricultural laborers throughout the year on State, local government, or private farms, and who live at their place of work and support minor children. These grants, which are provided for in an act that became effective May 1, 1937,[1] are to be made for children up to 10 years of age of such laborers, regardless of whether one or both of the parents of these children are engaged in agricultural work.

A monthly allowance of 4 lats is to be paid for each of the first two dependent children up to 10 years of age in an agricultural laborer's family, and 5 lats for each dependent child in excess of 2. No one family, however, shall receive more than 23 lats per month in supplementary family allowances.

If an agricultural laborer's family which receives supplementary family allowances includes children over 10 years old who have no mental or physical defects, these children may not be kept from work which is not beyond their strength, judging by the age of the child and his or her working capacity. These children shall receive the customary pay for the kind of work they perform. The present subsidies from State and local government funds shall be continued, and no reductions shall be made in the usual wages of farm hands because of the supplementary family allowances granted for their children.

It shall be the duty of local officials to see that these allowances are used in the interest of the physical and mental development of the child and the mother, or the welfare of the whole family.

The allowance shall be computed from the first day of the month after the application for it has been submitted. This benefit is to be

[1] From report of Arthur Bliss Lane, American Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, dated June 8, 1937.

granted and paid by the local government on the agricultural worker's request, payment being made at the close of each full month.

The Ministry of Social Welfare is charged with supervision of the proper execution of the act, and it is the duty of local administrators to account to this Ministry for the amounts paid out.

INCREASE IN CHILDREN'S ALLOWANCES FOR LUXEMBURG RAILWAYMEN

THE RAILWAY staffs of Luxemburg have been receiving children's allowances of 72.50 francs [1] per month for each child under 18 years of age. These benefits are now to be computed on the same basis as those for civil servants, which means a substantial increase. As of June 1, 1937, children's allowances are payable on the following scale:[2]

	Francs		*Francs*
For 1 child	77. 05	For 6 children	552. 75
For 2 children	164. 15	For 7 children	649. 90
For 3 children	261. 30	For 8 children	747. 05
For 4 children	358. 45	For 9 children	844. 20
For 5 children	455. 60	For 10 children	941. 35

Children's allowances must be adjusted to the index number, which has risen since the beginning of 1937. The difference between the amounts disbursed and those actually due is now to be paid.

CHILDREN'S ALLOWANCES IN FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY, NETHERLANDS

THE COLLECTIVE agreement concluded on July 29, 1935, and renewed on January 1, 1937, between the Federation of Footwear Manufacturers and the three trade-unions in the industry in the Netherlands, provides for the payment to workers who have more than three children of an allowance of 1 florin [3] per week for each child under 14 years of age, beginning with the fourth child.[4]

With the purpose of distributing the burden more evenly, the Federation has undertaken to establish a separate fund from which to pay the special allowance. Every manufacturer who is a party to the collective agreement will pay into the fund for this purpose a certain percentage of the total wages paid, irrespective of the number of workers employed. To avoid abuses on the part of unorganized

[1] Average rate of exchange for franc in June 1937=4.4 cents.

[2] International Transport Workers Federation, press report, Amsterdam, July 5, 1937.

[3] Average exchange rate of florin in January 1937=54.8 cents.

[4] Data are from report of Homer Brett, American Consul at Rotterdam, Mar. 5, 1937.

employers, the trade-unions will enter into an agreement with such an employer only if he contributes to the fund. One shoe factory which is not a member of the footwear manufacturers' association has a separate agreement with the trade-unions and also contributes to the fund.

Many manufacturers, it is reported, have sought where possible to replace workers with many children by unmarried young workers at lower rates of pay, in order to escape obligation for the payment of children's allowances.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates show a decrease of about 14 percent in the number of strikes beginning in July 1937 as compared with June, indicating a slight downward turn in the trend of strikes after the extremely high number which occurred during the 4 preceding months. The estimate of 475 strikes beginning in July, however, still shows an abnormally large number of disputes for the month—more than occurred in any July from 1915 to 1936. (Monthly figures are not available for the years prior to 1915.)

Trend of Strikes, January 1936 to July 1937 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1936								
Total for year		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
January	84	167	251	149	102	32,406	59,153	635,519
February	102	148	250	131	119	63,056	89,735	748,491
March	119	185	304	174	130	75,191	122,162	1,331,162
April	130	183	313	179	134	65,379	95,526	699,900
May	134	206	340	219	121	72,824	123,030	1,019,171
June	121	188	309	158	151	63,429	133,531	1,327,678
July	151	173	324	197	127	38,017	125,281	1,105,480
August	127	228	355	210	145	68,752	118,268	911,216
September	145	234	379	236	143	65,994	130,875	1,063,100
October	143	192	335	219	116	100,845	148,570	1,053,878
November	116	136	252	126	126	70,116	157,007	1,940,628
December	126	132	258	158	100	72,639	184,859	2,065,733
1937								
January	100	162	262	129	133	106,514	212,161	2,698,115
February	133	200	333	199	134	107,117	232,583	1,479,222
March	134	590	724	491	233	284,253	345,274	3,174,784
April	233	490	723	461	262	214,760	376,821	3,332,475
May	262	532	794	473	321	321,022	437,655	2,850,943
June [1]	321	550	871	531	340	205,000	375,000	4,500,000
July [1]	340	475	815	495	320	165,000	345,000	2,900,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table, nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

As compared with the preceding month, the preliminary figures for July indicate decreases of 20 percent in number of workers involved in strikes beginning during the month and 36 percent in man-days of idleness. As compared with July a year ago, the figures for July 1937 show increases of 175 percent in number of strikes, 334 percent in number of workers involved, and 162 percent in man-days of idleness.

These preliminary estimates are based on newspaper accounts of strikes and other reports available as this issue goes to press and are subject to revision as further information is received. An analysis of strikes in July, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in the November issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN MAY 1937 [1]

A TOTAL of 794 strikes were in progress during the month of May. This figure, the largest for any previous month since 1927, the earliest year for which comparable figures are available, included 532 strikes which began during the month and 262 which continued into May from preceding months. Strikes in progress at the end of the month totaled 321, the largest figure since 1927. Although the number of new strikes was less than in March of this year, the number of workers involved in strikes beginning in the month exceeded the number in any previous month since September 1935, when the bituminous-coal strike swelled the comparable figure to 453,820. There were 437,655 workers involved in the 794 strikes in progress during May, which was also the largest number since September 1935. Strikes resulted in approximately 2,851,000 man-days of idleness during the month.

About 60 percent of the new strikes in May were in seven industry groups, distributed as follows: Textiles, 80; trade, 56; domestic and personal service, 42; machinery manufacturing, 37; building and construction, 36; transportation and communication, 33; and transportation-equipment manufacturing, 30. The greatest number of workers involved in strikes in any industry group were in the iron and steel industries where the C. I. O. strike against four large independent steel companies began on May 26. The greatest number of man-days of idleness because of strikes during the month were in coal mining, textiles, and iron and steel.

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

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TABLE 1.—*Strikes in May 1937, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	532	321,022	794	437,655	2,850,943
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	27	129,857	41	131,841	395,822
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	9	124,058	11	124,560	329,534
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	3	1,526	3	1,526	12,574
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	2	1,275	2	1,275	4,400
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	2	626	2	626	4,698
Forgings, iron and steel	1	125	1	125	2,125
Hardware			1	326	3,260
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	2	215	4	285	3,055
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	2	694	3	899	16,248
Stoves	1	55	2	342	2,394
Tin cans and other tinware			1	97	582
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws) (hand tools)	1	12	3	43	244
Wirework	2	627	4	828	4,799
Other	2	644	4	909	11,909
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	37	10,019	56	24,312	290,236
Agricultural implements	2	560	3	778	3,468
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters	1	240	1	240	1,920
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	11	4,092	17	7,905	90,870
Foundry and machine-shop products	10	1,228	15	1,989	14,901
Machine tools	1	105	1	105	525
Radios and phonographs	2	1,600	3	9,626	139,916
Textile machinery and parts			1	150	3,150
Other	10	2,194	15	3,519	35,486
Transportation equipment	30	42,947	38	45,980	153,323
Aircraft	1	30	2	260	3,520
Automobiles, bodies, and parts	24	36,977	28	38,358	123,153
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	3	3,340	5	4,372	13,912
Shipbuilding	1	2,452	1	2,452	9,496
Other	1	148	2	538	3,242
Railroad repair shops			1	600	15,600
Steam-railroad			1	600	15,600
Nonferrous metals and their products	11	4,129	24	6,286	64,190
Aluminum manufactures	1	3,125	1	3,125	31,250
Brass, bronze, and copper products	1	53	2	168	946
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	1	31	3	375	1,723
Jewelry			4	469	4,167
Lighting equipment	1	170	4	718	4,928
Stamped and enameled ware	5	723	7	1,284	20,729
Other	2	27	3	147	447
Lumber and allied products	27	12,962	53	20,090	161,367
Furniture	9	1,743	23	3,281	33,658
Millwork and planing	8	1,772	10	2,918	35,751
Sawmills and logging camps	6	8,826	9	12,708	78,042
Other	4	621	11	1,183	13,916
Stone, clay, and glass products	10	1,379	21	3,262	28,487
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	2	330	5	709	9,476
Cement			1	608	608
Glass			3	185	3,110
Pottery	1	73	2	183	2,011
Other	7	976	10	1,577	13,282
Textiles and their products	80	22,068	130	33,645	428,229
Fabrics:					
Carpets and rugs	1	60	3	1,123	23,406
Cotton goods	8	4,111	12	5,989	82,899
Cotton small wares	3	877	4	995	14,375
Dyeing and finishing textiles	3	650	6	842	4,006
Silk and rayon goods	11	3,080	16	3,644	31,435
Woolen and worsted goods	4	1,298	6	2,280	22,799
Other	6	1,179	7	1,512	9,313
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	3	1,470	6	2,814	35,024
Clothing, women's	15	2,117	23	2,981	38,766
Men's furnishings			1	135	540
Hats, caps, and millinery	2	815	3	898	18,158
Shirts and collars	1	41	2	296	4,390
Hosiery	12	4,244	23	6,917	103,917
Knitgoods	5	1,212	8	1,797	19,392
Other	6	914	10	1,422	19,809

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in May 1937, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Leather and its manufactures	11	1,097	19	7,342	68,072
Boots and shoes	5	328	8	4,634	39,636
Leather	1	175	2	299	1,393
Other leather goods	5	594	9	2,409	27,043
Food and kindred products	28	8,257	42	11,425	80,918
Baking	16	3,446	22	4,013	22,394
Beverages	1	7	3	1,171	11,335
Canning and preserving	4	3,646	6	3,946	27,530
Confectionery	1	47	5	1,184	17,534
Flour and grain mills	1	55	1	55	605
Slaughtering and meat packing	1	30	1	30	150
Other	4	1,026	4	1,026	1,370
Tobacco manufactures	1	422	7	1,133	19,457
Cigars			6	711	16,925
Other	1	422	1	422	2,532
Paper and printing	18	2,390	25	5,260	64,864
Boxes, paper	5	782	5	782	8,408
Paper and pulp	2	350	3	425	1,510
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	2	68	6	1,713	39,255
Newspapers and periodicals	2	28	3	328	1,653
Other	7	1,162	8	2,012	14,038
Chemicals and allied products	12	1,853	17	4,509	46,589
Chemicals	4	540	5	547	3,933
Cottonseed oil, cake, and meal	1	300	1	300	1,800
Druggists' preparations	1	247	2	1,626	6,032
Paint and varnishes	1	175	2	197	3,372
Petroleum refining	1	234	2	282	3,588
Rayon and allied products			1	1,200	25,200
Other	4	357	4	357	2,664
Rubber products	3	468	4	1,868	8,116
Rubber tires and inner tubes	1	250	1	250	500
Other rubber goods	2	218	3	1,618	7,616
Miscellaneous manufacturing	23	4,248	28	4,754	48,255
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas	1	246	1	246	984
Broom and brush	2	64	2	64	337
Furriers and fur factories	1	6	1	6	12
Other	19	3,932	24	4,438	46,922
Extraction of minerals	13	29,422	27	72,802	490,917
Coal mining, anthracite	6	23,653	7	24,088	239,040
Coal mining, bituminous	3	5,005	14	47,750	239,304
Metalliferous mining	2	679	2	679	8,688
Quarrying and non-metallic mining	2	85	4	285	3,885
Transportation and communication	33	3,808	38	4,990	30,232
Water transportation	16	1,389	17	1,755	5,122
Motortruck transportation	11	1,677	12	1,732	9,673
Motorbus transportation	3	108	3	108	1,060
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	3	634	3	634	4,780
Electric railroad			2	653	9,489
Other			1	108	108
Trade	56	8,507	78	11,728	124,049
Wholesale	9	628	17	1,706	22,233
Retail	47	7,879	61	10,022	101,816
Domestic and personal service	42	17,889	58	24,417	217,087
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	17	8,615	22	9,313	100,838
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors	3	4,600	3	4,600	25,700
Laundries	13	2,930	20	5,771	56,478
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	5	1,582	9	4,571	32,877
Elevators and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	2	47	2	47	424
Other	2	115	2	115	770
Professional service	4	3,795	5	3,837	55,287
Recreation and amusement	4	3,795	5	3,837	55,287
Building and construction	36	4,033	47	5,313	30,357
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	21	2,884	26	3,242	21,954
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	15	1,149	21	2,071	8,403
Agriculture, etc.	7	647	8	797	6,943
Agriculture	5	347	6	497	3,443
Fishing	2	300	2	300	3,500
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	7	9,290	8	9,790	12,147
Other nonmanufacturing industries	16	1,535	19	1,674	10,399

New York, with 101, experienced more new strikes than any other State during the month of May. There were 74 strikes in Pennsylvania, 40 in New Jersey, 37 in Wisconsin, 29 in Ohio, 28 in Illinois, and 26 each in California, Massachusetts, and Michigan. The strikes in these nine States accounted for nearly three-fourths of the total number of strikes throughout the country.

Fifteen of the 794 strikes in progress during May extended into two or more States. The largest of these was the steel strike, which extended into Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in May 1937, by States*

State	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	532	321,022	794	437,655	2,850,943
Alabama	1	95	5	15,375	64,010
Arizona			1	97	485
Arkansas	2	71	2	71	1,127
California	26	11,515	37	16,321	197,440
Colorado	1	54	1	54	756
Connecticut	10	1,930	15	2,840	41,031
Delaware			1	250	250
District of Columbia	1	265	1	265	530
Florida	4	599	4	599	4,949
Georgia	2	175	3	706	14,734
Idaho	2	644	2	644	7,595
Illinois	28	7,159	47	13,037	157,221
Indiana	10	10,844	15	11,361	40,789
Iowa	7	553	10	10,605	91,311
Kansas	1	80	2	311	1,244
Kentucky	10	2,835	13	8,372	20,960
Maine			1	4,000	37,500
Maryland	1	115	1	115	115
Massachusetts	26	7,319	44	9,580	118,831
Michigan	26	21,327	41	26,218	107,923
Minnesota	7	2,074	8	2,300	18,856
Mississippi	1	185	2	396	4,801
Missouri	14	11,799	25	16,521	64,154
Montana	2	832	2	832	10,464
Nebraska	1	272	1	272	2,720
New Hampshire	1	125	5	1,163	12,345
New Jersey	40	10,238	53	13,981	140,637
New York	101	24,273	142	30,553	214,370
North Carolina	3	540	3	540	3,080
North Dakota	2	80	2	80	350
Ohio	29	13,774	47	16,617	100,779
Oklahoma	1	76	2	101	579
Oregon	6	1,245	9	5,076	37,679
Pennsylvania	74	70,597	102	84,391	626,804
Rhode Island	14	3,425	25	5,871	50,434
South Carolina	2	1,193	2	1,193	9,984
Tennessee	8	5,404	12	5,842	54,153
Texas	4	324	7	1,666	33,945
Utah	1	250	1	250	1,750
Vermont	2	88	3	98	1,105
Virginia	7	860	12	3,739	47,676
Washington	6	1,709	14	3,310	40,280
West Virginia			2	49	382
Wisconsin	37	9,861	51	13,609	124,722
Wyoming	1	30	1	30	30
Interstate	10	96,188	15	108,354	340,063

Although half of the strikes beginning in May involved less than 100 workers each, the average number of workers involved in the 532 strikes was 603. The average was raised considerably by the few large strikes beginning in the month, three of which involved more than 10,000 workers each. These three were (1) the interstate steel strike, (2) a short strike at the plants of the Jones & Laughlin Steel Corporation at Pittsburgh and Aliquippa, Pa., and (3) a strike of anthracite miners in Pennsylvania. The strikes in each industry group are classified in table 3 according to the number of workers involved.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in May 1937, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	532	68	200	178	43	33	7	3
Manufacturing								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	27	1	4	14	4	1	1	2
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	37	3	11	17	5	1	------	------
Transportation equipment	30	------	5	5	8	9	3	------
Nonferrous metals and their products	11	2	4	4	------	1	------	------
Lumber and allied products	27	1	12	9	2	2	1	------
Stone, clay, and glass products	10	1	4	5	------	------	------	------
Textiles and their products	80	5	29	33	7	6	------	------
Leather and its manufactures	11	------	7	4	------	------	------	------
Food and kindred products	28	6	8	9	3	2	------	------
Tobacco manufactures	1	------	------	1	------	------	------	------
Paper and printing	18	4	7	6	1	------	------	------
Chemicals and allied products	12	1	4	7	------	------	------	------
Rubber products	3	------	1	2	------	------	------	------
Miscellaneous manufactures	23	4	7	8	4	------	------	------
Nonmanufacturing								
Extraction of minerals	13	1	2	2	4	2	1	1
Transportation and communication	33	5	16	12	------	------	------	------
Trade	56	14	25	14	1	2	------	------
Domestic and personal service	42	9	17	8	2	6	------	------
Professional service	4	------	2	1	------	1	------	------
Building and construction	36	5	22	7	2	------	------	------
Agriculture	7	1	3	3	------	------	------	------
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	7	2	2	2	------	------	1	------
Other nonmanufacturing industries	16	3	8	5	------	------	------	------

Strikes over union-organization matters were predominant during the month of May. As shown in table 4, union-organization matters were the major issues in 56 percent of the strikes, involving 72 percent of the workers. Wages and hours were the major issues in 31 percent of the strikes, in which 12 percent of the workers were involved, and in 13 percent of the strikes, involving 16 percent of the workers, the major issues were union rivalry, jurisdiction, and other miscellaneous matters.

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in May 1937*

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	532	100.0	321,022	100.0
Wages and hours	167	31.4	39,022	12.2
Wage increase	102	19.2	20,020	6.3
Wage decrease	5	.9	708	.2
Wage increase, hour decrease	56	10.5	11,935	3.7
Hour decrease	4	.8	6,359	2.0
Union organization	298	56.0	229,936	71.6
Recognition	48	9.0	136,151	42.4
Recognition and wages	80	15.0	22,829	7.1
Recognition and hours	1	.2	625	.2
Recognition, wages, and hours	123	23.2	40,650	12.6
Closed shop	31	5.8	19,800	6.2
Discrimination	13	2.4	7,960	2.5
Other	2	.4	1,921	.6
Miscellaneous	67	12.6	52,064	16.2
Sympathy	1	.2	20	(1)
Rival unions or factions	16	3.0	3,406	1.1
Jurisdiction	4	.8	1,322	.4
Other	44	8.2	47,174	14.7
Not reported	2	.4	142	(1)

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Approximately 60 percent (473) of the 794 strikes in progress during May were terminated during the month with an average duration of 15 calendar days. About 43 percent of the 473 strikes were terminated in less than a week after they began, and 65 percent lasted less than one-half month. Thirteen of the strikes had been in progress between 2 and 3 months and only one had been in progress for more than 3 months. (See table 5.)

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in May 1937*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	473	202	107	93	57	13	1
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	21	5	7	6	2	1	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	36	9	10	12	4	1	
Transportation equipment	28	18	4	4	2		
Nonferrous metals and their products	16		4	6	5	1	
Lumber and allied products	31	6	3	16	5	1	
Stone, clay, and glass products	12	3	3	4	2		
Textiles and their products	60	22	15	14	7	1	1
Leather and its manufactures	12	5	4	2	1		
Food and kindred products	26	13	6	6		1	
Tobacco manufactures	1		1				
Paper and printing	13	4	6		2	1	
Chemicals and allied products	6	2	2	1	1		
Rubber products	3	1		2			
Miscellaneous manufactures	14	6	5	1	2		
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	17	3	2	5	7		
Transportation and communication	33	24	4	1	3	1	
Trade	52	24	13	6	6	3	
Domestic and personal service	28	15	7	1	4	1	
Building and construction	36	24	8	1	2	1	
Agriculture, etc	6	3	2		1		
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	7	6	1				
Other nonmanufacturing industries	15	9		5	1		

In about half of the strikes which were terminated during the month of May, as shown in table 6, the settlements were negotiated by the employers and representatives of organized workers directly. Fifty-one percent of the total number of workers involved were in this group. Government conciliators and labor boards assisted in negotiating settlements of 37 percent of the strikes, including 42 percent of the workers. Seven percent of the strikes, including 5 percent of the workers involved, were terminated without formal settlements. In some of these cases the striking employees simply returned to work without settlements or they lost their jobs entirely when new workers were hired to take their places or when their employers went out of business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in May 1937*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	473	100.0	241,996	100.0
Employers and workers directly	15	3.2	2,084	.9
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	237	50.1	123,386	51.0
Government conciliators or labor boards	176	37.2	100,582	41.6
Private conciliators or arbitrators	11	2.3	3,007	1.2
Terminated without formal settlement	34	7.2	12,937	5.3

Results of strikes ending in May are indicated in tables 7 and 8, the latter showing results in relation to the major issues involved. Approximately 55 percent of the strikes, including 61 percent of the workers involved, resulted in substantial gains to the workers; 30 percent of the strikes, including 26 percent of the workers, resulted in partial gains or compromises; and 11 percent of the strikes, including 7 percent of the workers, resulted in little or no gains to the workers.

The data in table 8 indicate that the striking workers were a little more successful in the union-organization strikes than in the wage-and-hour strikes. The workers won 64 percent, compromised 28 percent, and lost 8 percent of the union-organization strikes, as compared respectively with 48, 37, and 14½ percent of the strikes over wages and hours. Of the workers involved in the strikes over union-organization matters, 65 percent obtained substantially all of their demands, 29 percent obtained partial gains or compromises, and 5 percent gained little or nothing. Of the workers in the wage-and-hour strikes, 56 percent obtained substantially all of their demands, 35 percent obtained compromises, and 9 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in May 1937*

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	473	100.0	241,996	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	259	54.7	148,036	61.2
Partial gains or compromises	141	29.8	63,726	26.4
Little or no gains to workers	53	11.2	16,081	6.6
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	14	3.0	3,611	1.5
Indeterminate	1	.2	8,768	3.6
Not reported	5	1.1	1,774	.7

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in May 1937 in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issues	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Number of strikes						
All issues	473	259	141	53	14	1	5
Wages and hours	165	79	61	24			1
Wage increase	100	47	39	13			1
Wage decrease	4	1		3			
Wage increase, hour decrease	57	30	22	5			
Hour decrease	4	1		3			
Union organization	253	161	70	19			3
Recognition	29	19	5	4			1
Recognition and wages	65	46	12	5			2
Recognition, wages, and hours	122	79	39	4			
Closed shop	23	9	11	3			
Discrimination	10	6	2	2			
Other	4	2	1	1			
Miscellaneous	55	19	10	10	14	1	1
Sympathy	1	1					
Rival unions or factions	12				12		
Jurisdiction	2				2		
Other	39	18	10	10		1	
Not reported	1						1
	Number of workers involved						
All issues	241,996	148,036	63,726	16,081	3,611	8,768	1,774
Wages and hours	83,154	46,585	28,755	7,554			260
Wage increase	60,611	36,339	23,455	557			260
Wage decrease	1,071	73		998			
Wage increase, hour decrease	15,809	10,154	5,300	355			
Hour decrease	5,663	19		5,644			
Union organization	111,244	72,442	32,374	5,039			1,389
Recognition	33,868	31,781	1,325	554			208
Recognition and wages	15,307	9,049	4,112	965			1,181
Recognition, wages, and hours	36,975	24,276	10,796	1,903			
Closed shop	14,611	4,858	8,273	1,480			
Discrimination	8,861	2,355	6,412	94			
Other	1,622	123	1,456	43			
Miscellaneous	47,598	29,009	2,597	3,488	3,611	8,768	125
Sympathy	20	20					
Rival unions or factions	2,285				2,285		
Jurisdiction	1,326				1,326		
Other	43,842	28,989	2,597	3,488		8,768	
Not reported	125						125

CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, JULY 1937

DURING July 1937, conciliators of the Department of Labor were called upon in 184 disputes involving directly and indirectly about 55,997 workers. This mediation service was requested by either one or both parties to the disputes. Some of these disputes had already developed into strikes before the Department of Labor was requested to intervene. In others, strikes were threatened but had not yet taken place. In some cases, although no strike was immediately threatened, a controversy between employer and workers had developed to such a stage that an outside mediator was deemed necessary.

The Department of Labor conciliators were successful in adjusting 82 of these 184 disputes, 63 were pending at the close of the month, 18 were referred to other services, 12 were settled by disputants themselves before the arrival of the conciliator, and 9 could not be adjusted.

The majority of these disputes concerned demands for wage increases. Many were due to alleged discrimination against union members or for union recognition and selection of sole bargaining agency. Some were concerned with hours, overtime rates of pay, seniority rights, and general working conditions.

These 184 disputes were scattered among 31 different States and the District of Columbia. Workers involved in the disputes are classified in table 2.

TABLE 1.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, July 1937, in Each State*

State	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Alabama	4	[1] 148	2	(1)	2	148
California	3	310	1	92	2	218
Colorado	1	400			1	400
Connecticut	1	250			1	250
Delaware	1	85			1	85
District of Columbia	4	1,775	1	50	3	1,725
Florida	1	156			1	156
Georgia	1	30	1	30		
Illinois	8	4,487	2	832	6	3,655
Indiana	9	2,762			9	2,762
Iowa	1	167			1	167
Kansas	2	382	1	7	1	375
Kentucky	6	2,900	3	1,170	3	1,730
Maine	1	180			1	180
Maryland	2	129			2	129
Massachusetts	3	422	2	416	1	6
Michigan	2	255			2	255
Minnesota	3	281	3	281		
Mississippi	1	65	1	65		
Missouri	3	2,343	1	11	2	2,332
Nebraska	3	457	3	457		
Nevada	1	500	1	500		
New Jersey	6	1,510	1	113	5	1,397
New York	25	8,529	8	3,125	17	5,404
Ohio	10	1,428	2	78	8	1,350
Oklahoma	1	450	1	450		
Pennsylvania	61	16,330	15	3,372	46	12,958
Tennessee	5	1,558	3	1,266	2	292
Virginia	8	[1] 2,988	5	2,608	3	[1] 380
Washington	1	160			1	160
West Virginia	2	[1] 350	1	(1)	1	350
Wisconsin	4	4,210	3	3,620	1	590
Total	184	[1] 55,997	61	[1] 18,543	123	[1] 37,454

[1] Exact number not known.

TABLE 2.—*Disputes Handled by Conciliators, by Craft of Workers Involved, July 1937*

State	Total disputes		Threatened strikes and controversies		Strikes	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Bakery workers	4	358	1	58	3	300
Building trades	10	2,828	9	1,278	1	1,550
Cigarmakers	1	240			1	240
Clerks	6	[1] 2,428	1	(1)	5	2,428
Clothing workers	7	2,777	1	870	6	1,907
Coopers	3	655			3	655
Drivers	16	6,813	4	514	12	6,299
Electrical workers	1	(1)			1	(1)
Enamelers	3	520			3	520
Engineers	2	630			2	630
Food handlers	11	2,162	2	392	9	1,770
Furniture, fixtures	11	4,424	2	152	9	4,272
Glass handlers	2	700			2	700
Laboratory workers	1	(1)			1	(1)
Laundry workers	8	1,157	2	152	6	1,005
Leather workers	7	938	3	318	4	620
Longshoremen	2	91	1	16	1	75
Luggage makers	4	2,757	1	1,800	3	957
Lumber handlers	4	799	2	376	2	423
Machinists—mechanics	23	9,386	11	7,107	12	2,279
Match workers	1	275			1	275
Metal polishers	4	1,562	3	512	1	1,050
Millinery	2	690	2	690		
Newspaper workers	2	316			2	316
Paper makers	3	550			3	550
Printing	1	65	1	65		
Steel and iron	11	1,020	3	210	8	810
Textile workers	10	[1] 5,605	3	[1] 1,115	7	4,490
Timber workers	1	1,600			1	1,600
Warehousemen	1	90			1	90
Miscellaneous	22	4,561	9	2,918	13	1,643
Total	184	[1] 55,997	61	[1] 18,543	123	[1] 37,454

[1] Exact number not known.

Cost of Living

MONEY DISBURSEMENTS OF WORKERS IN CALIFORNIA [1]

FAMILIES of workers in the five California cities, San Francisco-Oakland, Los Angeles, San Diego, Sacramento, and Modesto, apportion their income among items of family living in a manner closely paralleling that found for other cities in the study of money disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers for which figures are available.[2] For the essentials of food and housing, these Pacific coast families allocate an average of approximately one-third and one-sixth of total expenditures, respectively, figures which are similar to those prevailing in other cities scattered over the United States. Favored by climatic conditions, they averaged, out of each dollar spent, 2 to 3 cents less for fuel, light, and refrigeration than did families in cities farther east. The widespread use of automobiles in localities where climate and roads are good and where outings are easily arranged is reflected in the figures for automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance, which, particularly in Los Angeles, San Diego, and Modesto, claim the highest percentage of total expenditure found in any of the cities studied to date. The percentages of each dollar going to the remaining items of family expenditure are strikingly similar to those which have been published for other communities.

Families Studied

The white families in the five California cities for which data on expenditures were secured [3] were surveyed as part of a Nation-wide study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the purpose of revising and extending its cost-of-living indexes. The same criteria for including families in the investigation were used in the California

[1] Prepared by Genevieve B. Wimsatt, of the Bureau's Cost of Living Division.

The California surveys were undertaken in cooperation with the State Emergency Relief Administration, and tabulations were completed in cooperation with the California Works Progress Administration, under Dr. James B. Sharp, coordinator of statistical projects. Mrs. Dorothea Kittredge and later Dr. Georges Weber acted as technical director. Early in 1936 Mr. Carl Vetter succeeded Dr. Weber in directing the tabulation. A complete list of cooperating individuals and agencies will be published in the final report of the survey.

[2] These data have appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1936, May 1936, June 1936, September 1936, December 1936, January 1937, and June 1937.

[3] Data for 100 Mexican families in Los Angeles are in process of tabulation and will be available at a later date.

cities as in all other communities for which data have been published. Foremost among these are the requirements of minimum employment of at least one person in the family for 1,008 hours in at least 36 weeks during the year,[4] a minimum family income of $500 during the schedule year, of which $300 must have been earned by one person, and no home relief or work relief received during the schedule year.

A general idea of the proportion of families excluded from the study because of receipt of relief can be gained from estimates of the relief load made by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration during the period when field work was under way, as compared with the number of white families reported for 1930 (the latest census figures). For the cities of Los Angeles, San Diego, Sacramento, and Modesto the data secured apply to the 12 months, March 1934 through February 1935. In San Francisco-Oakland the study covered the expenditures of employed wage earners and clerical workers for 12 months in the period, March 1934 through May 1935, with 61 percent of the data pertaining to the year, June 1934 through May 1935. During the period of scheduling, the number of families on relief in San Francisco-Oakland reached a peak of 29,100 families in July 1934, or 9.6 percent of all white families. In Los Angeles County, the maximum number of families on relief during the period of this investigation occurred in January 1935, when 82,700 or 13.8 percent of all white families received such aid. During the same month Sacramento County experienced its greatest relief load, 4,700 or 14.4 percent of all white families, while in San Diego County in February 1935, 8,800 or 15.1 percent of all white families set a high mark for number of families on relief while the survey was in progress. Eleven hundred families, or 7.4 percent of all white families, were given relief during February 1935 in Stanislaus County, in which Modesto is located.

The average size of the families on relief during these periods was 3.3 in San Diego, 4.0 in Modesto, and 3.4 in the other cities. The average number of members in the economic families which furnished data on their receipts and disbursements for this study is slightly smaller than that of the families on relief (table 1). The average number of members is, however, somewhat larger than that for all white families of two or more persons, the median size of which in San Francisco-Oakland according to the 1930 Census is 2.96, in Los Angeles 2.85, and in San Diego 2.83. Similar data are not available for Sacramento and Modesto. That more than one worker must help in winning the family bread is indicated in figures for the average number of gainful workers per family included in the present study,

[4] An exception was made in the case of families in which the chief earner was employed in an industry distinctly seasonal. Such families were included if the chief earner had employment for three and one-half 8-hour days in each of 30 weeks.

which range from 1.29 in San Diego to 1.70 in Modesto, which latter city also had the largest families (table 1). These figures represent the number of persons employed at any time during the year.

TABLE 1.—*Composition, Income, and Expenditures of White Families Studied in California Cities, 1934–35*

Item	San Francisco–Oakland [1]	Los Angeles [2]	San Diego [3]	Sacramento [1]	Modesto
Population, 1930	918,457	1,506,053	160,721	93,750	13,842
Number of families studied	446	492	199	153	151
Average number of members in economic family	3.16	3.14	3.15	3.11	3.32
Average number of expenditure units per family	2.94	2.93	2.92	2.88	3.06
Average number of gainful workers per family	1.42	1.36	1.29	1.41	1.70
Average net income per family	$1,706	$1,548	$1,533	$1,603	$1,472
Average earnings of chief earner	$1,419	$1,351	$1,374	$1,401	$1,289
Average current expenditure per family	$1,657	$1,525	$1,470	$1,520	$1,464

[1] The area studied included the territory bounded by the city limits.
[2] Including Bell, Beverly Hills, Compton, Culver City, Glendale, Huntington Park, Inglewood, Lynwood, Maywood, Pasadena, Southgate, Vernon, Hawthorne.
[3] Including National City and Coronado.

The average annual income reported by families studied in each of the five California cities exceeded their average annual current expenditure (table 1), a situation which has not been generally found in other cities surveyed. But the general pattern by which these families distributed their expenditures among the various items of family living substantiates the thesis of previous articles in this series as to the general consistency of family spending habits from city to city. Because of variation in income, in costs, and in average family size, as well as in customs and traditions, differences within this framework of similarity are apparent from city to city and from economic level to economic level within a city.

Table 2 offers interesting observations of these differences from city to city by placing in juxtaposition the percentage distribution of expenditures by the families covered in each of the five cities. The percentages allotted to food and housing in San Francisco-Oakland are greater than for any of the four other cities, in spite of the fact that the families in that city had the largest total expenditures. For these same items families in Modesto spent the smallest percentage of any of the five cities, but surpassed each of the four other cities in the percentage expended for clothing; fuel, light, and refrigeration; furnishings and equipment; automobile purchase, maintenance, and operation; and personal care. In San Francisco-Oakland, where ferry boat and streetcar transportation are widely used, automobiles claim a markedly smaller proportion of total expenditures than is the case in Los Angeles, San Diego, or Modesto.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by White Families in California Cities, 1934–35*

Item	San Francisco-Oakland	Los Angeles	San Diego	Sacramento	Modesto
Number of families studied	446	492	199	153	151
Average number of members in economic family	3.16	3.14	3.15	3.11	3.32
Average number of expenditure units per family	2.94	2.93	2.92	2.88	3.06
Average total current expenditure	$1,657	$1,525	$1,470	$1,520	$1,464
	Percentage distribution				
Expenditure for—					
Food	33.1	30.9	32.3	31.2	30.2
Clothing	11.0	10.8	9.4	10.3	11.4
Housing	16.6	15.3	15.2	15.5	13.1
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	4.2	4.6	5.4	6.1	6.5
Other household operation	5.1	4.1	4.0	4.4	4.0
Furnishings and equipment	3.3	4.3	3.9	4.3	4.8
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	6.7	11.2	11.0	8.0	11.3
Other transportation	2.7	1.9	1.7	1.4	.5
Personal care	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.5
Medical care	4.6	4.1	4.4	5.6	4.9
Recreation	5.9	5.9	6.3	6.1	5.7
Education	.6	.7	.3	.7	.6
Vocation	.5	.3	.3	.5	.3
Community welfare	.7	1.0	1.0	.8	.9
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.5
Miscellaneous items	.2	.5	.5	.7	.8
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

These average figures for all families studied in a given city obscure the interesting changes in patterns of expenditure between families at different economic levels. As a measure of economic level the total amount spent per year per expenditure unit [5] has been used to classify families within a city. From table 3 can be observed such changes in allocation of family spending as take place when families are classified according to relative economic status in this manner.

[5] The phrase "amount spent per expenditure unit" is that which has been agreed upon by representatives of the various Government and private agencies interested in family expenditures to express the measure formerly called "expenditure per consumption unit." The explanation of this measure was given in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1936 (pp. 558–559).

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by White Families at Different Economic Levels in California Cities, 1934–35*

Item	Families spending per expenditure unit per year—								
	Under $200	$200 and under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and under $800	$800 and under $900	$900 and over
Los Angeles									
Number of families	6	33	78	85	103	88	34	31	34
Average number of members in economic family	6.00	4.80	3.89	3.51	2.85	2.73	2.18	2.28	2.06
Average number of expenditure units per family	5.28	4.34	3.55	3.26	2.69	2.58	2.09	2.21	2.04
Average total current expenditure	$919	$1,145	$1,265	$1,461	$1,465	$1,677	$1,545	$1,866	$2,214
	Percentage distribution								
Expenditure for—									
Food	43.7	39.6	36.4	32.9	32.1	28.9	27.8	25.4	23.6
Clothing	11.4	9.3	10.4	11.6	10.7	11.5	10.9	9.4	10.5
Housing	21.1	13.2	15.0	14.3	16.2	16.3	16.1	17.8	12.7
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	4.7	6.1	5.5	4.8	4.7	4.2	4.5	3.9	3.1
Other household operation	2.5	4.1	3.6	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.3	5.1	4.1
Furnishings and equipment	.8	3.4	3.2	4.3	4.4	3.8	3.6	6.4	5.7
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	2.2	7.6	8.8	9.6	9.6	11.7	13.1	13.1	19.5
Other transportation	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.8	1.2	1.9
Personal care	1.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.2
Medical care	1.3	4.2	3.7	4.3	4.4	4.5	3.5	3.9	3.7
Recreation	3.2	4.2	5.1	5.3	5.3	6.5	6.2	7.3	7.5
Education	1.0	.6	.9	.9	.5	.8	.8	.2	.1
Vocation	.5	.1	.2	.2	.2	.3	.5	.2	.4
Community welfare	2.8	.6	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	.8	.5	1.0
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family	.7	1.8	.9	1.5	2.1	2.1	3.2	2.9	3.4
Miscellaneous items	.1	.4	.6	.7	.3	.2	.6	.3	.6
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Item	Families spending per expenditure unit per year—				
	Under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $700	$700 and over
Modesto					
Number of families	16	33	36	38	28
Average number of members in economic family	5.21	4.02	3.32	2.69	2.30
Average number of expenditure units per family	4.55	3.65	3.05	2.53	2.22
Average total current expenditure	$1,088	$1,294	$1,375	$1,475	$1,993
	Percentage distribution				
Expenditure for—					
Food	38.9	34.5	32.6	28.1	24.2
Clothing	9.8	11.9	12.4	11.7	10.3
Housing	13.7	13.0	14.5	13.7	11.6
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	7.3	7.9	7.1	6.0	5.2
Other household operation	3.7	3.5	4.3	3.9	4.2
Furnishings and equipment	4.5	3.0	4.7	4.9	6.2
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	7.4	7.8	8.4	13.6	15.2
Other transportation	.6	.3	.3	.7	.4
Personal care	1.9	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.6
Medical care	3.2	6.3	3.7	4.3	6.1
Recreation	5.2	5.6	5.2	5.4	6.9
Education	.6	.4	.7	.7	.7
Vocation	.3	.2	.1	.3	.4
Community welfare	1.1	.6	.9	.7	1.0
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family	1.1	1.6	1.9	2.4	4.1
Miscellaneous items	.7	.8	.6	1.3	.9
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by White Families at Different Economic Levels in California Cities, 1934–35—Continued*

Item	Families spending per expenditure unit per year—					
	Under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and over
Sacramento						
Number of families	9	30	27	32	22	33
Average number of members in economic family	4.89	3.67	3.55	2.97	2.52	2.28
Average number of expenditure units per family	4.38	3.33	3.21	2.70	2.37	2.22
Average total current expenditure	$1,150	$1,212	$1,444	$1,536	$1,561	$1,918
	Percentage distribution					
Expenditure for—						
Food	44.0	37.0	34.5	31.7	26.1	26.2
Clothing	10.0	9.5	10.5	9.5	10.4	11.1
Housing	15.9	15.9	16.1	13.9	14.6	16.7
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	6.5	7.2	6.9	5.9	6.6	4.8
Other household operation	5.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.5	4.8
Furnishings and equipment	2.1	2.1	3.9	4.3	6.7	5.0
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	1.7	5.6	5.8	7.4	10.0	11.1
Other transportation	2.9	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.3	1.3
Personal care	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.0	2.4
Medical care	1.8	5.1	4.6	6.8	5.9	5.8
Recreation	5.4	5.4	6.4	6.1	6.8	6.1
Education	.4	.4	.4	1.0	0	1.0
Vocation	.3	.9	.8	.3	.3	.5
Community welfare	.6	.6	.6	1.0	.8	.8
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family	.8	1.1	1.8	3.2	2.0	2.2
Miscellaneous items	0	1.2	.1	.7	2.0	.2
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Item	Families spending per expenditure unit per year—						
	Under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $560	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and under $800	$800 and over
San Diego							
Number of families	19	41	33	33	28	20	25
Average number of members in economic family	4.67	3.78	3.56	2.80	2.62	2.35	2.10
Average number of expenditure units per family	4.19	3.43	3.28	2.60	2.47	2.25	2.06
Average total current expenditure	$1,068	$1,230	$1,439	$1,424	$1,581	$1,680	$1,993
	Percentage distribution						
Expenditure for—							
Food	41.6	36.1	35.1	33.2	30.2	29.6	24.2
Clothing	7.4	9.5	10.5	9.5	9.4	9.3	8.2
Housing	13.9	17.6	15.2	15.1	14.0	13.5	15.1
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	6.6	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.4	5.2	4.0
Other household operation	4.4	4.0	3.7	4.1	4.4	4.0	3.8
Furnishings and equipment	1.8	3.3	3.7	4.1	2.8	6.6	4.8
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	6.9	8.0	6.8	9.4	10.7	12.0	20.6
Other transportation	2.2	2.2	1.8	1.5	1.6	2.1	.9
Personal care	2.2	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.9
Medical care	3.8	3.0	5.1	4.9	5.0	4.7	4.4
Recreation	5.0	5.0	5.8	6.2	7.3	8.4	6.7
Education	.5	.3	.8	.4	.1	.3	.1
Vocation	.7	.2	.3	.3	.3	.2	.2
Community welfare	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.1	.5	1.1
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family	1.1	1.1	2.0	1.7	4.2	1.7	3.5
Miscellaneous items	.5	.4	.2	.6	1.5	.1	.5
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Annual Current Expenditures by White Families at Different Economic Levels in California Cities, 1934–35—Continued*

Item	Families spending per expenditure unit per year—								
	Under $300	$300 and under $400	$400 and under $500	$500 and under $600	$600 and under $700	$700 and under $800	$800 and under $900	$900 and under $1,000	$1,000 and over
San Francisco-Oakland									
Number of families	23	56	96	76	66	53	24	21	31
Average number of members in economic family	4.25	4.37	3.71	3.07	2.73	2.40	2.35	2.18	2.16
Average number of expenditure units per family	3.84	3.98	3.41	2.90	2.58	2.26	2.32	2.11	2.07
Average total current expenditure	$1,037	$1,429	$1,541	$1,570	$1,685	$1,722	$1,977	$1,984	$2,468
	Percentage distribution								
Expenditure for—									
Food	40.9	39.4	37.6	32.8	32.1	30.9	29.4	29.1	25.1
Clothing	10.0	10.2	10.6	11.6	11.7	11.3	12.1	10.6	10.0
Housing	16.5	17.6	16.6	16.3	17.2	17.6	15.8	15.9	14.7
Fuel, light, and refrigeration	5.9	5.2	4.8	5.0	4.1	3.9	3.2	3.2	2.5
Other household operation	5.5	4.2	4.9	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.2	4.8	5.0
Furnishings and equipment	1.8	2.1	2.5	3.3	3.4	3.3	5.6	3.2	4.9
Automobile purchase, operation, and maintenance	4.1	4.1	4.5	6.4	5.0	7.1	8.2	8.7	15.2
Other transportation	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.5	2.7	2.9	2.5	3.0	1.8
Personal care	2.6	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.3	2.1
Medical care	2.3	3.2	4.5	4.3	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.2	7.0
Recreation	5.0	5.5	5.4	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.6	7.7	5.8
Education	.6	.8	.9	.6	.8	.3	.3	.2	.2
Vocation	.3	.6	.6	.4	.4	.5	.7	.9	.6
Community welfare	.7	.8	.6	.6	.8	.6	.6	.9	.4
Gifts and contributions to persons outside the economic family	.9	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.9	3.1	2.6	5.2	4.4
Miscellaneous items	.3	.2	.1	.1	.2	.1	.2	.1	.3
Total current expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Of the more striking relationships observed, the consistent decline of the percentage spent for food with increase in economic level and the relative stability of the percentage spent for personal care are in accordance with the situation found in all other cities. The sharp increase in proportion spent for automobiles is shown more strikingly in these cities than in any others for which data are so far available, except for those in Michigan. The percentage of expenditures devoted to housing and to clothing shows no clear change with a rise in economic level, suggesting that these items represent a relatively steady demand at all levels. The distinct increases in percentages spent for furnishings and equipment, medical care, and recreation with better economic circumstances accord with findings elsewhere.

Household Facilities

That Californians like space and to have their domiciles set apart from those of other families is evidenced by the fact that in each of the five cities, except San Francisco-Oakland, over 95 percent of the home owners lived in 1-family detached houses. Of the renting families, those living in similar dwellings constituted about 50 percent in Los Angeles, about 61 percent in Sacramento, about 83 percent in Modesto, and 88 percent in San Diego. In San Francisco-Oakland about three-fifths of the home owners occupied 1-family detached dwellings in contrast to one-fourth of the renters. Not only did a large majority

of these California families have 1-family houses, but they possessed household facilities and comforts above the average found in many eastern cities. In the four larger cities, less than 5 percent of both home owners and renters were without the combination of the following housing facilities: Inside flush toilet, running hot water inside dwelling unit, electric lights, and gas or electricity as kitchen fuel. An arresting fact, though in accord with the popular opinion as to the mildness of the California climate, is the small number of both home owners and renters having facilities for central heating. With the exception of San Francisco-Oakland renters, ice refrigerators were used more extensively than mechanical refrigerators by both owners and renters.

TABLE 4.—*Household Facilities and Equipment of White Renters and Home Owners in California Cities, 1934–35*

Equipment	San Francisco-Oakland	Los Angeles	San Diego	Sacramento	Modesto
Number of families in survey	446	492	199	153	151
	Renters				
Number of renters	273	320	114	85	90
Number of families having—					
1-family detached house	67	165	100	52	75
1-family semidetached or row house	23	24	2	5	4
2-family house	61	55	4	10	4
Apartment	122	76	8	18	7
Inside flush toilet	272	320	114	83	90
Outside flush toilet	1	0	0	1	0
Other type toilet	0	0	0	1	0
Sole use of toilet by household	269	318	111	85	88
Water inside dwelling	273	320	114	85	90
Running	273	320	114	85	90
Hot running	268	314	112	82	85
Water outside dwelling	0	0	0	0	0
Sink	273	320	114	85	90
Electric light	273	319	114	85	90
Gas or electric kitchen fuel	272	320	114	83	85
Mechanical refrigerator	64	109	18	23	14
Ice refrigerator	43	192	80	60	68
No refrigerator	166	19	16	2	8
Hot-air, hot-water, or steam heat	96	37	1	11	5
Telephone	153	119	35	47	23
Inside flush toilet, and running hot water inside dwelling and electric lights and gas or electricity as kitchen fuel	266	313	112	82	82
	Home owners				
Number of home owners	173	172	85	68	61
Number of families having—					
1-family detached house	105	166	84	67	58
1-family semidetached or row house	52	0	0	0	3
2-family house	15	5	1	1	0
Apartment	1	1	0	0	0
Inside flush toilet	173	170	84	67	58
Outside flush toilet	0	2	1	1	2
Other type toilet	0	0	0	0	1
Sole use of toilet by household	173	172	85	68	61
Water inside dwelling	173	172	85	68	61
Running	173	172	85	68	61
Hot running	172	169	82	66	54
Water outside dwelling	0	0	0	0	0
Sink	173	172	85	68	61
Electric light	173	172	84	68	61
Gas or electricity for kitchen fuel	169	172	83	68	55
Mechanical refrigerator	26	52	18	25	23
Ice refrigerator	41	110	54	43	34
No refrigerator	106	10	13	0	4
Hot-air, hot-water, or steam heat	47	14	1	18	9
Telephone	135	86	44	53	28
Inside flush toilet, and running hot water inside dwelling and electric lights and gas or electricity as kitchen fuel	169	168	81	65	50

Automobiles

That automobiles constitute an important item in California family living is demonstrated by table 5. Modesto had the highest percentage of families owning cars and also the highest percentage purchasing second-hand cars during the schedule year. San Francisco-Oakland had the highest percentage of families purchasing new cars, 4.3 percent. Except for the lowest economic level in four cities and the two lower levels in Sacramento, where no new and few second-hand cars were purchased, and the $600-$700 level in San Francisco-Oakland, the proportion of families purchasing cars during the year was 11 percent or over. This proportion is larger than among cities in New England, Pennsylvania, and the South, and compares closely with Michigan cities, Seattle, Columbus, and Rochester. The limitation to second-hand rather than new cars is marked except at the highest economic level.

TABLE 5.—*Ownership of Automobiles by White Families at Different Economic Levels in California Cities, 1934–35*

City, and annual expenditure per expenditure unit	Number of families	Families owning cars		Families purchasing cars in the year covered					
				New		Second hand		Total	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
San Francisco-Oakland, total	446	253	56.7	19	4.3	45	10.1	64	14.4
Under $300	23	11	47.8	0	0	1	4.3	1	4.3
$300 and under $400	56	27	48.2	1	1.8	6	10.7	7	12.5
$400 and under $500	96	47	49.0	1	1.0	10	10.4	11	11.4
$500 and under $600	76	47	61.8	2	2.6	10	13.2	12	15.8
$600 and under $700	66	38	57.6	2	3.0	2	3.0	4	6.0
$700 and under $800	53	29	54.7	1	1.9	7	13.2	8	15.1
$800 and over	76	54	71.1	12	15.8	9	11.8	21	27.6
Los Angeles, total	492	399	81.1	20	4.1	72	14.6	92	18.7
Under $300	39	25	64.1	0	0	3	7.7	3	7.7
$300 and under $400	78	61	78.2	0	0	11	14.1	11	14.1
$400 and under $500	85	68	80.0	1	1.2	12	14.1	13	15.3
$500 and under $600	103	80	77.7	0	0	14	13.6	14	13.6
$600 and under $700	88	77	87.5	5	5.7	13	14.8	18	20.5
$700 and over	99	88	88.9	14	14.1	19	19.2	33	33.3
San Diego, total	199	156	78.4	7	3.5	31	15.6	38	19.1
Under $400	60	41	68.3	0	0	4	6.7	4	6.7
$400 and under $600	66	52	78.8	0	0	9	13.6	9	13.6
$600 and over	73	63	86.3	7	9.6	18	24.7	25	34.3
Sacramento, total	153	104	68.0	5	3.3	14	9.2	19	12.5
Under $400	39	22	56.4	0	0	3	7.7	3	7.7
$400 and under $600	59	42	71.2	0	0	5	8.5	5	8.5
$600 and over	55	40	72.7	5	9.1	6	10.9	11	20.0
Modesto, total	151	132	87.4	5	3.3	26	17.2	31	20.5
Under $400	49	42	85.7	0	0	7	14.3	7	14.3
$400 and under $600	60	50	83.3	2	3.3	10	16.7	12	20.0
$600 and over	42	40	95.2	3	7.1	9	21.4	12	28.5

Medical Care

Families of wage earners and clerical workers in each of the five California cities except Modesto spent more per person for dental services, an average of about $5, than for any other item of medical care. Average expenditure per person for home visits of general practitioners took from $1 to $2 per person per year, while the expenditure per person for office visits to general practitioners was about $2 to $3 in four cities but nearer to $6 in Modesto. Less than 40

cents per person was spent in each of the five cities for clinic visits or for any type of nursing service except in Sacramento, where an average expenditure per person of over $1 was reported for nursing service in hospital. In San Francisco-Oakland, Los Angeles, and Sacramento no families made any expenditure for visiting nurses.

TABLE 6.—*Annual Expenditure for Medical Care by White Families in California Cities, 1934–35*

Item	San Francisco-Oakland	Los Angeles	San Diego	Sacramento	Modesto
Number of families studied	446	492	199	153	151
Average number of persons per economic family	3.16	3.14	3.15	3.11	3.32
Average expenditure per family for—					
Doctors' services:					
General practitioners'—					
Home visits	$4.15	$4.22	$3.47	$5.05	$6.24
Office visits	8.28	8.63	6.56	8.08	19.12
Clinic visits	.72	.60	.75	.55	.16
Dental service	18.12	14.65	15.18	17.30	8.39
Services, other specialists	13.54	8.12	14.02	12.05	1.26
Nurses' services:					
Private nurse—					
In home	.88	.31	.80	.00	.16
In hospital	.45	.39	.25	4.00	1.19
Visiting nurse in home	0	0	.08	0	.17
Hospital services:					
Private room	3.20	2.86	3.54	5.37	6.10
Bed in ward	1.90	1.88	1.03	1.30	.76
Accident and health insurance	6.62	5.90	4.37	10.12	4.06
Medicine and drugs	11.19	9.65	10.30	12.56	15.56
Eyeglasses	3.17	4.20	3.44	4.62	3.05
Medical appliances	.17	.17	.25	.28	.27
Other goods and services purchased for medical care	3.39	1.10	1.24	3.24	5.72
Total (average per family)	75.78	62.68	65.28	84.52	72.21
Average expenditure per person in economic family for—					
Doctors' services:					
General practitioners'—					
Home visits	$1.31	$1.34	$1.10	$1.62	$1.88
Office visits	2.62	2.75	2.08	2.60	5.76
Clinic visits	.23	.19	.24	.18	.05
Dental service	5.74	4.67	4.82	5.56	2.53
Services, other specialists	4.29	2.59	4.45	3.87	.38
Nurses' services:					
Private nurse—					
In home	.28	.10	.25	0	.05
In hospital	.14	.12	.08	1.29	.36
Visiting nurse in home	0	0	.03	0	.05
Hospital services:					
Private room	1.01	.91	1.12	1.73	1.84
Bed in ward	.60	.60	.33	.42	.23
Accident and health insurance	2.10	1.88	1.39	3.25	1.22
Medicine and drugs	3.54	3.07	3.27	4.04	4.68
Eyeglasses	1.00	1.34	1.09	1.49	.92
Medical appliances	.05	.05	.08	.09	.08
Other goods and services purchased for medical care	1.07	.35	.39	1.04	1.72
Total (average per person in economic family)	23.98	19.96	20.72	27.18	21.75

The average expenditure per person for all types of medical care ranged from $20 in Los Angeles to $27 in Sacramento, or $63 and $85 respectively in terms of average amount spent per family. These figures compare very favorably with those for the other cities studied but are still lower than the average amount required for adequate care according to the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care.[6] The signifi-

[6] Publications of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care: No. 28, p. 31. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1932.

cant position held by health and accident insurance in the budget of the families under review is attested by a range of average expenditure for such insurance per family from $4 in Modesto to $10 in Sacramento.

Personal Care

Expenditures for personal care, including barber and beauty-shop services, toilet articles, and cosmetics, ranged from $31 to $38 per family in California cities. Of these amounts about one-third was spent for haircuts, the largest expenditure for any item of personal care. In all cities except Modesto cosmetics and toilet preparations took second place among the items of personal care, with an average per family of about $5. In Modesto this item received about $3 on an average, but was surpassed both by "toilet articles" and "tooth paste, tooth powder, and mouth washes." This latter item accounted for about $4 average expenditure per family in each of the five cities.

When the families are divided according to economic level, expenditures for personal care continue to claim a strikingly constant proportion of total family expenditure.

Assets and Liabilities

Since the average current expenditure by families in each of the five cities was less than the average net income, the net increase in assets plus the net decrease in liabilities were higher than the net increase in liabilities plus the net decrease in assets. The average net amount by which the financial position of the families scheduled was bettered during the schedule year varied from $17 in Modesto to $97 in Sacramento. The most frequent form of investment was life insurance, with over three-fourths of the families in each city reporting payment of premiums averaging per family from $52 in Modesto to $80 in San Diego. From 16 to 26 percent of the wage earners and clerical workers in these cities made payments on principal of mortgages on their own homes, such items being treated in the present investigation as investment or savings.

With the exception of San Diego, fewer than 4 percent of the families surveyed in each city paid installments on cars purchased prior to the beginning of the schedule year. In San Diego about 6 percent of the families purchasing cars on the installment plan prior to the schedule year made payments during the year.

When unable to finance their families out of current income, the wage earners and clerical workers turned most frequently to withdrawal of funds from savings accounts and to purchase of goods other than automobiles by means of installment purchases. The average net amount per family withdrawn from savings accounts ranged from $30 in Los Angeles to $49 in San Francisco. Goods other than automobiles purchased by installments accounted for approximately $14 in Sacramento and $23 in Los Angeles.

Inheritances were reported in three out of the five cities studied. Two, three, and four families in San Francisco-Oakland, San Diego, and Los Angeles respectively were the recipients of amounts averaging $172, $467, and $569 per family receiving such inheritances. Such windfalls occurred with great infrequency among families investigated elsewhere.

TABLE 7.—*White Families Reporting Increase in Assets or Decrease in Liabilities, in California Cities, 1934–35*

Item	San Francisco-Oakland	Los Angeles	San Diego	Sacramento	Modesto
Number of families studied	446	492	199	153	151
Number of families reporting increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities:					
Increase in family assets:					
Increase in cash:					
On hand	11	15	26	1	3
In checking account	13	16	9	3	5
In savings account	80	85	31	36	24
Investment in—					
Improvement in own home	23	22	19	11	10
Other real estate including real-estate mortgages	8	10	6	1	2
Building and loan shares	0	0	0	0	0
Stocks and bonds	2	9	0	1	1
Other property	6	8	4	1	2
Insurance policies and annuities:					
Premium payments, life insurance	330	397	168	136	119
Premium payments, annuities	41	22	29	51	6
Increase in loans to others	9	14	2	5	10
Decrease in family liabilities:					
Mortgage on own home	88	81	43	35	39
Other mortgages	8	7	6	3	2
Debts payable to banks	4	2	0	2	0
Debts payable to insurance companies	4	6	1	1	0
Debts payable to small loan companies	4	8	3	4	4
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:					
Automobiles	10	19	12	5	4
Other goods	43	52	23	20	21
Debts payable to individuals	24	24	11	7	7
Other debts	37	25	31	11	32
Average amount of increase in assets and/or decrease in liabilities per family:					
Increase in family assets:					
Increase in cash:					
On hand	$2.62	$2.89	$3.12	$0.02	$1.99
In checking account	3.08	5.21	2.86	3.30	4.91
In savings account	46.92	27.40	27.17	33.45	17.70
Investment in—					
Improvement in own home	6.26	5.58	6.67	5.75	12.82
Other real estate including real-estate mortgages	3.41	3.50	2.14	.92	2.52
Building and loan shares	0	0	0	0	0
Stocks and bonds	.27	1.19	0	.39	.24
Other property	.66	1.97	12.63	.01	4.93
Insurance policies and annuities:					
Premium payments, life insurance	63.10	72.14	80.33	70.15	51.85
Premium payments, annuities	6.77	2.82	8.12	11.67	1.35
Increase in loans to others	1.00	1.97	.63	3.17	6.36
Total increase in assets	134.08	124.67	143.67	128.81	104.67
Decrease in family liabilities:					
Mortgages on own home	53.03	33.97	43.95	42.21	47.43
Other mortgages	5.85	1.98	4.36	2.27	1.38
Debts payable to banks	1.37	.59	0	.75	0
Debts payable to insurance companies	.34	.62	1.51	.93	0
Debts payable to small loan companies	.58	1.56	.66	2.66	3.28
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:					
Automobiles	5.28	6.66	9.30	7.85	3.65
Other goods	8.99	6.89	10.37	12.81	8.12
Debts payable to individuals	6.12	3.69	4.51	4.05	2.93
Other debts	6.13	1.93	9.18	5.29	15.32
Total decrease in family liabilities	87.69	57.89	83.84	78.82	82.11

TABLE 8.—*White Families Reporting Decrease in Assets or Increase in Liabilities, in California Cities, 1934–35*

Item	San Francisco-Oakland	Los Angeles	San Diego	Sacramento	Modesto
Number of families studied	446	492	199	153	151
Number of families reporting decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities:					
Decrease in family assets:					
Reduction in cash:					
On hand	12	7	18	1	4
In checking account	8	13	6	14	9
In savings account	100	76	29	30	28
Sale of—					
Real estate, including real-estate mortgages	4	1	6	2	2
Building and loan shares	1	1	0	1	0
Stocks and bonds	6	11	2	1	3
Goods and chattels	18	13	6	2	17
Other property	2	2	2	2	0
Insurance policies and annuities:					
Surrender of insurance policy	21	26	12	3	6
Settlement of life insurance and/or endowment policy	7	3	1	4	2
Reduction in outstanding loans to others	13	9	4	2	2
Funds received by inheritance	2	4	3	0	0
Increase in family liabilities:					
Mortgage on own home	3	3	2	1	1
Other mortgages	1	3	0	2	0
Debts payable to banks	7	7	4	3	1
Debts payable to insurance companies	13	18	5	9	4
Debts payable to small loan companies	15	17	10	3	5
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:					
Automobiles	24	57	15	7	17
Other goods	96	130	54	34	39
Debts payable to individuals	18	44	19	9	14
Other debts	102	72	36	42	40
Average amount of decrease in assets and/or increase in liabilities per family:					
Decrease in family assets:					
Reduction in cash:					
On hand	$1.96	$2.26	$13.83	$0.98	$3.74
In checking account	3.84	5.37	2.90	7.46	12.43
In savings account	48.86	30.10	38.77	30.40	39.03
Sale of—					
Real estate, including real-estate mortgages	28.53	.11	5.62	2.25	3.31
Building and loan shares	.50	.09	0	.35	0
Stocks and bonds	2.61	5.67	.92	.65	5.63
Goods and chattels	2.45	1.33	2.08	.14	10.19
Other property	.47	.03	.21	.06	0
Insurance policies and annuities:					
Surrender of insurance policy	4.54	6.38	7.45	1.92	4.87
Settlement of life insurance and/or endowment policy	7.57	2.09	.96	4.20	5.42
Reduction in outstanding loans to others	3.48	2.40	1.86	.17	1.07
Total decrease in family assets	104.81	55.83	74.60	48.58	85.69
Funds received by inheritance	.77	3.80	8.58	0	0
Increase in family liabilities:					
Mortgage on own home	1.87	1.18	2.04	.98	.67
Other mortgages	.17	.66	0	1.50	0
Debts payable to banks	1.67	2.40	2.99	3.15	1.99
Debts payable to insurance companies	2.16	6.56	6.42	4.58	.84
Debts payable to small loan companies	3.28	4.01	9.68	.96	3.30
Debts payable to firms selling on installment plan:					
Automobiles	13.77	24.83	14.40	10.40	28.27
Other goods	16.20	22.59	17.76	14.23	16.01
Debts payable to individuals	5.59	10.72	12.09	8.08	17.11
Other debts	17.59	12.84	9.00	18.61	15.86
Total increase in liabilities	62.30	85.79	74.38	62.49	84.05

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 15, 1937

LIVING COSTS for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States increased 0.9 percent during the quarter ending June 15, 1937. This reflected a rise in each of the groups of items included in the family budget, with the exception of fuel and light.

The index of all costs for the 32 cities combined, on a base of average costs in 1923–25 as 100, was 84.5 on June 15, compared with 83.8 on March 15, 1937. Costs on June 15, 1937, were 3.1 percent higher than on July 15, 1936, and 13.5 percent higher than at the low point in June 1933. Costs on June 15, 1937, were still 15.2 percent lower than in December 1929.

Twenty-seven of the thirty-two cities reported higher costs on June 15 than on March 15, 1937, the largest advance, 3.0 percent, occurring in Pittsburgh. In each of the five cities reporting declines, the drop was 0.5 percent or less.

Average food costs were 1.1 percent higher on June 15 than on March 15. Increased cost of food was reported for 22 of the 32 cities for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics prepares indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers. Portland, Maine, showed the greatest advance—4.3 percent—while Buffalo, Detroit, Cleveland, and Scranton showed advances ranging from 3 to 4 percent. Higher prices for meats, particularly beef, and for certain fruits and vegetables were largely responsible for the increases in these cities. Declines were reported in 10 cities. The largest decrease—4.7 percent, in Los Angeles—was due in large part to the drop in prices of fresh fruits and vegetables.

As in the preceding quarter, clothing costs rose in each of the 32 cities. The average increase was 1.4 percent. In 8 cities, advances of between 2.0 and 2.8 percent were noted, with Seattle showing the greatest rise. Increases occurred in the cost of many individual wearing-apparel items, particularly in the cost of shoes.

During the quarter ending June 15, average rents actually paid by wage earners' and lower-salaried workers' families advanced 2.4 percent. Increases, most of them small, were noted in all but four cities, but in three cities large rises were reported. In Pittsburgh the increase was 10.8 percent, in Chicago, 6.9 percent, and in Buffalo, 6.6 percent.

Average fuel and light costs showed a drop of 3.6 percent, due largely to seasonal declines in coal and wood prices. This reflected a

decline in 27 of the 32 cities, with 10 of the 27 reporting decreases of more than 5 percent. The largest drop—7.8 percent—was reported for Portland, Oreg., where wood prices declined. In Portland, Maine, and Baltimore, lower anthracite prices caused declines of 7.3 and 7.2 percent, respectively.

Every city reported a general advance in the cost of housefurnishing goods. On the average, this increase amounted to 2.3 percent. In two cities, New Orleans and Buffalo, there was an increase of more than 5 percent.

The change in the cost of miscellaneous items was slight, as is generally the case. An increase of 0.5 percent occurred on the average in the 32 cities, with 28 cities showing increases or reporting no change. Only two cities showed increases of over 2 percent—Seattle, 2.4 percent, due to an increase in the price of daily newspapers, laundry, and barbers' services, and Mobile, 2.3 percent, because of a rise in the cost of laundry and barbers' services.

The cost-of-living indexes presented here show changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from time to time in each of the 32 large cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but they do not measure differences in the cost of these goods from city to city. There are serious technical difficulties in determining the cost of the same level of living from one part of the country to another. No satisfactory techniques have been developed for measuring differences in such costs from large to small cities or from cities to rural communities. In large cities with similar climate, comparisons are possible with the use of standard specifications, but such studies, because of their great expense, are beyond the present resources of this Bureau.

In pricing for the Bureau's indexes, the type of goods priced has been varied from city to city in conformity with the purchasing habits of moderate-income families in each city where prices are secured. Accordingly, although in any one city the kind and quality of goods priced are held constant from year to year insofar as possible, differences between the indexes of the various cities at any particular date are due entirely to differences in the rate of change of living costs in each city. Similarly, the differences in the average costs from which the indexes are computed in different cities may be due to varying standards and purchasing habits in these cities as well as to varying prices for goods of given grades.

Thus, even though these series furnish no information as to differences in absolute cost in dollars among the 32 cities, the indexes for the various cities may be used to indicate comparative rate of change in the cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers. For example, the index of the cost of all items purchased by this group was 79.4 for Los Angeles in June 1937,

on the 1923–25 base; that for Cincinnati was 89.0. In other words, in June 1937 costs in Los Angeles were considerably lower, as compared with 1923–25 costs in that city, than were costs in Cincinnati, as compared with 1923–25 costs in the latter city.

The indexes are constructed by pricing, from time to time, a list of the goods most important in the spending of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as shown by the Bureau's study of the expenditures of 12,096 families in 1917–19.[1] In the construction of the index, price changes, noted from period to period, are weighted according to the importance of these items in family spending, as shown by that study. A new Nation-wide study, now under way, will provide weights more nearly approximating present-day consumption. The field work for this study is completed, and the data secured are now being tabulated and analyzed.

Pending this basic revision in weights, several important revisions in method have been incorporated in the indexes beginning with the March 15, 1935, period. The food and all-items indexes, as well as the indexes for the 32 cities combined, have been revised back to the base years.[2] The pamphlets containing data for July 15, 1935, December 15, 1936, and March 15, 1937, together with the current report, present complete revised series.

The prices used in the construction of the food indexes are taken from retail-price quotations secured in 51 cities. Beginning with the year 1935, they cover 84 articles, instead of 42 as in the past. For all goods and services other than food and fuel and light, prices have been secured in 32 cities. Prices of the items included in the food and fuel and light indexes are obtained by mail, all others by personal visits of representatives of the Bureau.

Changes in Cost of Living, June 1937

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 32 large cities of the United States, March 15 to June 15, 1937, are shown in table 1.

[1] The results of this study were published in the Bureau's Bulletin No. 357.

[2] For details of this revision, see the article which appeared in the September 1935 Monthly Labor Review, "Revision of Index of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers."

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Changes From Mar. 15, 1937, to June 15, 1937, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	+0.9	[1] +1.1	+1.4	+2.4	-3.6	+2.3	+0.5
New England:							
Boston	+1.0	+2.6	+1.6	+.1	−5.6	+2.6	+.6
Portland, Maine	+1.1	+4.3	+.9	−.1	−7.3	+1.5	+.1
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+2.6	+3.7	+1.7	+6.6	−2.3	+5.4	+.3
New York	−.3	−.9	+.8	+.4	−5.1	+1.2	+.3
Philadelphia	+.8	+2.1	+1.9	+.7	−5.7	+2.3	+.1
Pittsburgh	+3.0	+1.9	+2.5	+10.8	−.1	+4.6	+.3
Scranton	+1.0	+3.0	+1.2	[2]	−5.8	+2.0	+.3
East North Central:							
Chicago	+1.7	+1.5	+1.0	+6.9	−5.5	+2.7	+1.0
Cincinnati	+.5	+1.0	+.7	+.8	−4.7	+1.5	+.4
Cleveland	+1.2	+3.5	+.5	+2.1	−.6	+2.6	−.9
Detroit	+2.0	+3.6	+2.0	+3.2	−2.0	+1.0	+.5
Indianapolis	+1.2	+2.6	+1.2	+2.4	−1.5	+1.1	[2]
West North Central:							
Kansas City	+1.4	+1.2	+1.6	+.2	+1.0	+2.7	+1.9
Minneapolis	−.2	−1.5	+1.2	+1.5	−3.0	+1.5	+.5
St. Louis	+.8	+.5	+2.3	+1.3	−2.0	+3.1	+.5
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	+.3	+.9	+.3	+.6	−6.5	+1.2	+.7
Baltimore	+.5	+1.2	+2.3	+1.1	−7.2	+1.3	[3]
Jacksonville	+.7	+2.4	+.7	−.3	−.8	+1.0	[3]
Norfolk	+.3	+.7	+1.2	+.1	−3.8	+1.3	[4]
Richmond	−.3	−.8	+2.1	+.4	−5.7	+1.2	[4]
Savannah	+.8	+.8	+1.8	+.2	[4]	+1.6	+.6
Washington, D. C	+1.1	+2.5	+2.6	+.3	−4.2	+3.0	−.4
East South Central:							
Birmingham	+1.1	+1.8	+2.4	+1.9	−3.8	+2.0	+.2
Memphis	+.2	−.7	+.9	+1.0	+.1	+2.8	[3]
Mobile	+.9	+.3	+.9	−.1	−2.5	+1.4	+2.3
West South Central:							
Houston	−.5	−2.4	+1.1	+1.1	−2.7	+1.0	−.1
New Orleans	+.2	−.5	+1.5	+.2	−1.6	+6.1	[3]
Mountain:							
Denver	+1.0	−.7	+1.7	+2.4	+3.2	+3.4	+1.2
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	−.5	−4.7	+1.6	+2.6	−.5	+.9	+.9
Portland, Oreg	+.7	+1.8	+1.0	+2.3	−7.8	+2.8	+.2
San Francisco	+.8	−.6	+.9	+1.2	−.6	+2.6	+2.0
Seattle	+.9	−2.6	+2.8	+1.1	+2.6	+2.4	+2.4

[1] Covers 51 cities.
[2] Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.
[3] Increase of less than 0.05 percent.
[4] No change.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from a peak point in June 1920, from December 1929, from the low point June 1933, and from July 15, 1936, to June 15, 1937, in 32 cities, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods*

City	Percentage decrease from—		Percentage increase from—	
	June 1920 to June 15, 1937	December 1929 to June 15, 1937	June 1933 to June 15, 1937	July 15, 1936, to June 15, 1937
Average: 32 large cities	30.3	15.2	13.5	3.1
New England:				
Boston	30.2	16.1	11.0	1.0
Portland, Maine	30.3	12.8	11.4	1.3
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	28.1	14.3	13.7	3.6
New York	28.2	16.4	8.6	1.2
Philadelphia	29.3	15.9	12.2	2.4
Pittsburgh	29.7	15.6	15.5	4.8
Scranton	30.2	16.5	12.0	2.0
East North Central:				
Chicago	30.5	18.4	15.0	4.8
Cincinnati	29.2	14.8	13.7	2.0
Cleveland	28.3	11.6	15.0	3.6
Detroit	35.0	14.9	25.6	4.6
Indianapolis	33.7	14.1	15.8	3.8
West North Central:				
Kansas City	34.7	11.6	13.0	4.1
Minneapolis	29.3	12.5	16.0	3.2
St. Louis	31.5	15.9	13.7	3.2
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	36.8	15.2	15.9	2.5
Baltimore	27.6	13.1	12.5	1.6
Jacksonville	33.9	14.6	15.2	2.4
Norfolk	33.6	13.7	14.4	2.4
Richmond	31.5	12.5	14.0	2.3
Savannah	36.3	16.5	10.5	2.2
Washington, D. C	27.6	10.3	13.6	2.0
East South Central:				
Birmingham	37.2	17.2	18.4	4.7
Memphis	32.9	14.2	13.5	3.1
Mobile	33.4	16.5	13.4	2.7
West South Central:				
Houston	33.0	16.0	15.7	2.4
New Orleans	28.2	14.9	11.7	2.4
Mountain:				
Denver	31.4	11.2	15.3	3.4
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	28.4	15.5	13.8	5.7
Portland, Oreg	32.9	10.6	17.8	4.4
San Francisco	26.1	12.9	11.2	3.6
Seattle	29.9	11.6	12.7	4.8

Indexes on 1923–25 Base

Indexes of the average cost of goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed, for each of the 32 cities surveyed, and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1923–25 as the base. These indexes from 1913 through June 15, 1937, for the cities combined, are shown in table 3. Similar data for individual cities will be furnished by the Bureau upon request.

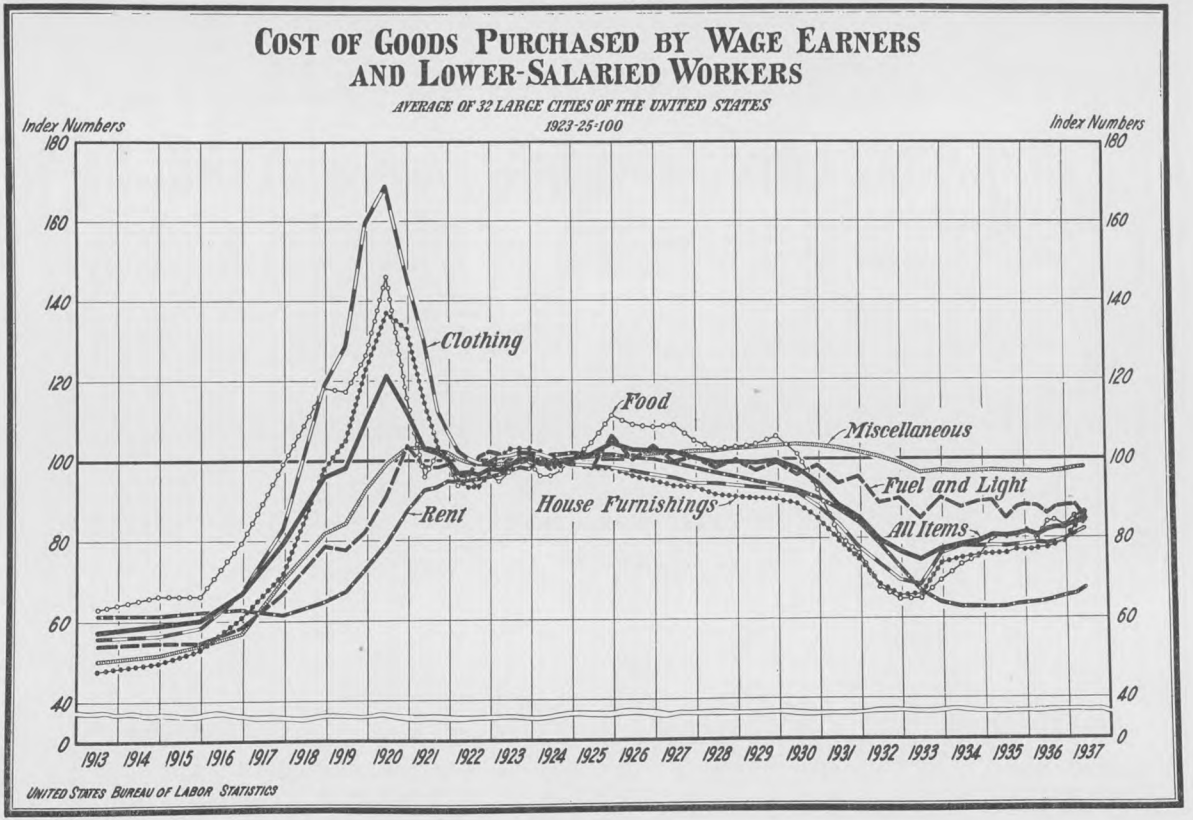


TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through June 15, 1937*

[Average 1923–25=100]

Date	All items	Food [1]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913—Average	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914—December	58.9	66.3	56.3	61.4	54.5	49.6	51.6
1915—December	60.1	66.3	58.3	62.3	54.5	52.8	53.9
1916—December	66.9	79.5	66.9	62.8	58.5	61.0	56.8
1917—December	79.4	99.1	83.1	61.5	66.9	71.8	70.4
1918—December	95.8	118.2	118.9	64.7	78.7	97.8	81.9
1919—June	98.2	117.3	128.8	67.3	77.8	104.0	84.3
December	109.8	126.4	159.5	73.1	82.6	123.0	92.9
1920—June	121.2	146.1	168.6	79.4	91.3	137.0	99.2
December	112.2	115.7	151.0	87.5	103.7	132.8	103.2
1921—May	102.8	95.8	129.8	92.7	98.4	114.3	103.2
September	101.7	102.1	112.2	93.3	98.2	103.2	102.5
December	100.3	99.7	107.2	94.8	99.1	100.4	102.0
1922—March	96.8	93.5	102.4	94.6	96.3	95.0	100.4
June	97.0	95.6	100.4	95.0	95.9	93.2	99.5
September	96.4	93.3	99.3	95.2	100.9	93.4	99.2
December	97.7	96.7	99.4	95.8	102.2	96.3	98.9
1923—March	97.6	94.6	100.8	96.3	101.5	100.7	99.0
June	98.6	97.2	101.1	97.3	98.7	102.8	99.1
September	100.1	100.6	101.9	98.2	99.8	102.9	99.6
December	100.2	99.5	101.8	99.7	101.1	102.9	100.0
1924—March	99.0	95.9	101.5	100.2	99.9	102.1	99.7
June	98.9	96.0	100.6	101.3	97.6	99.4	99.8
September	99.2	97.3	99.5	101.4	98.9	98.6	99.8
December	100.0	99.5	98.9	101.7	99.5	99.1	100.2
1925—June	101.4	104.2	98.5	101.4	97.9	97.9	100.8
December	104.0	111.1	97.9	101.3	105.8	97.8	101.1
1926—June	102.5	108.9	97.1	100.4	100.0	95.8	101.0
December	102.3	108.1	96.2	100.0	103.4	94.7	101.4
1927—June	101.9	108.7	95.3	99.0	99.4	93.4	101.7
December	100.4	104.7	94.0	97.9	100.6	93.0	102.1
1928—June	99.2	102.5	93.8	96.5	97.7	91.1	102.1
December	99.4	103.2	93.3	95.5	99.7	90.5	102.8
1929—June	99.1	103.7	92.8	94.3	97.0	90.2	103.0
December	99.6	105.7	92.2	93.3	99.1	89.9	103.4
1930—June	97.7	101.2	91.5	92.0	95.9	88.8	103.7
December	93.8	92.1	88.1	90.1	98.1	85.1	103.4
1931—June	88.3	80.6	83.4	87.3	93.7	79.3	102.8
December	85.1	76.2	77.6	83.9	95.3	74.9	101.8
1932—June	79.7	67.6	73.5	78.5	88.8	68.4	100.4
December	76.6	64.7	69.5	72.7	89.8	65.6	98.8
1933—June	74.5	64.9	68.4	66.8	84.9	65.8	96.4
December	77.2	69.6	76.2	63.9	90.0	73.5	96.8
1934—June	78.4	73.4	77.9	62.7	87.7	75.0	96.6
Nov. 15	79.1	75.3	77.8	62.7	89.0	75.5	96.7
1935—Mar. 15	80.6	79.8	78.0	62.6	89.3	76.0	96.8
July 15	80.4	80.2	77.8	62.7	84.9	76.2	96.7
Oct. 15	80.7	80.2	78.0	63.3	87.7	77.0	96.6
1936—Jan. 15	81.3	81.6	78.3	63.5	88.3	77.0	96.6
Apr. 15	80.6	79.4	78.6	63.7	88.0	77.3	96.5
July 15	82.0	84.0	78.4	64.2	86.1	77.5	96.4
Sept. 15	82.4	84.3	78.6	64.6	87.4	78.2	96.5
Dec. 15	82.4	82.9	79.6	65.4	87.8	79.2	96.8
1937—Mar. 15	83.8	85.4	[2] 80.9	65.9	88.1	83.1	97.3
June 15	84.5	86.3	82.1	67.5	84.9	85.0	97.7

[1] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

[2] Corrected figure.

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes, however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for 32

cities combined, from 1913 through 1936. The annual average indexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the indexes falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing, rent, fuel and light, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, costs in December of the preceding year and in June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these costs is expressed for December of the previous year by 2½; for June of the given year by 6; and for December of the given year by 3½. In computing the annual average for the year 1936, when indexes were computed at five dates, the weights are as follows: October 15, 1935, weight 1; periods in 1936, weight January 15, 47; April 15, 72; July 15, 60; September 15, 60; December 15, 47; and March 15, 1937, weight 1. Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated* [1] *Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in 32 Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through 1936*

[Average 1923-25=100]

Year	All items	Food [2]	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
1913	57.4	63.1	55.7	61.4	53.9	47.7	50.1
1914	58.5	65.3	56.1	61.4	54.3	49.0	51.2
1915	59.5	66.3	57.4	61.9	54.5	51.3	52.8
1916	63.8	73.4	62.9	62.6	56.6	57.2	55.5
1917	73.7	90.1	75.6	62.1	63.0	66.9	64.2
1918	88.2	109.4	102.5	63.2	73.3	85.9	76.7
1919	101.1	120.2	135.7	68.4	79.4	108.2	86.3
1920	116.2	133.1	161.6	80.4	93.1	132.8	99.1
1921	103.6	101.6	124.4	92.4	99.3	111.8	102.8
1922	97.2	95.0	101.0	95.1	98.6	94.8	99.7
1923	99.0	97.9	101.2	97.5	100.3	101.8	99.3
1924	99.2	96.9	100.4	101.0	99.1	100.1	99.9
1925	101.8	105.0	98.4	101.5	100.6	98.1	100.8
1926	102.6	108.5	97.0	100.5	102.2	95.9	101.1
1927	100.6	104.5	95.1	98.9	100.6	93.6	101.7
1928	99.5	103.3	93.7	96.5	98.9	91.3	102.3
1929	99.5	104.7	92.7	94.3	98.2	90.2	103.1
1930	97.0	99.6	90.7	91.7	97.2	87.9	103.5
1931	88.6	82.0	82.7	86.9	95.1	79.2	102.7
1932	79.8	68.3	73.2	78.0	90.4	68.9	100.2
1933	75.8	66.4	70.9	67.2	87.4	68.0	97.0
1934	78.6	74.0	77.5	62.9	88.6	74.9	96.7
1935	80.7	80.4	77.9	62.9	87.5	76.4	96.7
1936	81.6	82.1	78.7	64.2	87.5	77.8	96.5

[1] For explanation of method used, see above.

[2] Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

Table 5 presents June 15, 1937, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1923–25 as 100, for each of the 32 cities, by groups of items.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, June 15, 1937*

[Average 1923–25=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and light	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous
Average: 32 large cities	84.5	[1] 86.3	[2] 82.1	67.5	84.9	85.0	97.7
New England:							
Boston	85.1	81.3	86.9	75.5	82.1	84.3	99.5
Portland, Maine	87.6	86.9	82.0	76.2	80.0	89.5	103.5
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	87.1	87.3	81.3	72.6	96.0	94.3	99.1
New York	84.9	83.6	81.8	75.9	84.1	79.0	98.1
Philadelphia	84.0	89.1	77.3	67.3	79.9	82.7	95.2
Pittsburgh	84.6	85.4	81.3	69.1	100.6	85.5	96.1
Scranton	84.9	84.5	83.4	73.1	70.8	91.4	97.3
East North Central:							
Chicago	81.3	89.0	75.1	56.1	88.0	76.8	101.5
Cincinnati	89.0	90.5	81.7	76.1	95.2	95.1	97.8
Cleveland	[3] 86.5	86.8	[4] 84.5	66.4	100.0	83.2	101.9
Detroit	82.5	89.0	81.9	65.1	77.3	83.9	93.6
Indianapolis	84.5	90.2	79.9	63.6	83.3	89.5	92.8
West North Central:							
Kansas City	85.3	91.3	81.2	60.2	82.0	80.1	100.0
Minneapolis	86.6	94.2	80.1	67.7	89.2	88.7	97.1
St. Louis	85.4	92.3	82.0	57.0	85.6	91.5	101.0
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	82.7	82.8	83.9	62.5	70.3	91.0	94.6
Baltimore	87.4	89.0	82.0	73.4	78.4	82.4	104.3
Jacksonville	82.1	82.3	82.3	58.0	88.6	83.5	92.9
Norfolk	86.8	86.0	88.2	62.6	79.6	87.5	103.8
Richmond	86.3	81.7	88.5	71.2	78.9	93.7	99.7
Savannah	82.5	84.3	85.4	60.6	83.7	88.7	92.2
Washington, D. C.	88.7	87.1	83.0	88.0	80.7	88.3	97.6
East South Central:							
Birmingham	79.6	80.2	88.6	53.1	79.8	83.2	91.8
Memphis	83.0	83.5	87.3	58.6	88.9	94.2	95.1
Mobile	84.9	81.6	89.7	64.0	70.1	90.5	99.2
West South Central:							
Houston	82.8	81.5	76.8	71.3	73.8	91.8	94.6
New Orleans	84.2	85.8	80.9	71.1	76.4	95.2	91.6
Mountain:							
Denver	85.9	93.2	79.1	62.7	77.7	91.5	98.4
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	79.4	79.4	85.6	53.1	82.1	83.5	92.8
Portland, Oreg.	85.6	90.0	82.7	59.8	81.5	85.1	99.3
San Francisco	87.5	85.9	90.7	72.0	79.4	86.9	100.6
Seattle	88.1	86.5	89.8	66.7	95.0	92.1	99.8

[1] Covers 51 cities.
[2] Clothing index for average 32 large cities for Mar. 15, 1937, corrected from 81.0 to 80.9.
[3] Cleveland all-items index for Mar. 15, 1937, corrected from 85.5 to 85.4.
[4] Cleveland clothing index for Mar. 15, 1937, corrected from 84.5 to 84.1.

COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

THE TREND of cost of living in the United States and 23 foreign countries for March, July, and October 1935; January, April, July, September, and December 1936; and March and June 1937 is shown in the following table. In cases where indexes for specified dates are not available, the indexes relating to the nearest preceding pricing period are given. The number of countries included varies according to the available information.

A general index and indexes for the individual groups of items are presented for all countries shown with the exception of Australia, Irish Free State, the Netherlands, Peru, South Africa, and Yugoslavia. The Irish Free State and the Netherlands publish a general index and an index for food only.

Caution should be observed in the use of the figures because of differences in the base periods, in the number and kind of articles included, and the number of localities represented. There are also radical differences in the method of the construction and calculation of the indexes.

The table shows the trend in the general cost of living and for the groups of food, clothing, fuel and light, and rent for the countries for which such information is published in original sources.

9696—37——11

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries*

Country	United States [1]	Australia (30 towns) [2]	Austria, Vienna	Belgium	Canada	China, Shanghai	Czechoslovakia, Prague	Estonia, Tallin
Groups of items included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, house-furnishing goods, miscellaneous	Food and groceries, clothing, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries
Computing agency	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Federal Statistical Bureau	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare	Dominion Bureau of Statistics	National Tariff Commission	Office of Statistics	Central Bureau of Statistics
Base period	1923–25 =100	1923–27 =1000	July 1914=100	1921=100	1926=100	1926=100	July 1914=100	1913=100
General:								
1935—March	80.6	824	104	164.7	78.8	104.8	690	87
July	80.4	827	105	174.8	78.8	105.2	717	87
October	80.7	836	106	185.5	80.3	103.9	709	93
1936—January	81.3	838	106	187.4	80.5	111.0	712	94
April	80.6	838	104	183.4	79.6	111.7	712	97
July	82.0	841	104	179.6	80.4	112.2	709	99
September	82.4	854	105	187.5	81.1	113.5	706	100
December	82.4	860	105	194.1	81.7	117.5	706	101
1937—March	83.8	862	104	197.2	82.0	116.8	715	103
June	84.5	----------	106	----------	82.9	119.0	725	----------
Food:								
1935—March	79.8	795	98	130.8	69.5	85.7	629	76
July	80.2	812	102	143.8	69.3	90.3	685	76
October	80.2	827	103	159.5	72.4	86.3	668	83
1936—January	81.6	812	102	161.4	73.9	93.3	673	84
April	79.4	815	98	155.3	71.0	97.9	674	87
July	84.0	825	100	149.0	72.6	99.8	675	91
September	84.3	842	101	160.2	75.1	102.3	667	91
December	82.9	854	101	169.0	75.3	106.8	661	92
1937—March	85.4	842	99	170.5	75.7	104.9	665	97
June	86.3	----------	101	----------	76.4	104.0	683	----------
Clothing:								
1935—March	78.0	785	157	206.6	70.3	80.7	681	128
July	77.8	789	157	214.1	69.9	77.9	681	131
October	78.0	793	157	215.1	71.6	77.6	683	135
1936—January	78.3	794	157	217.4	70.6	84.0	683	135
April	78.6	795	157	218.2	70.2	84.3	687	135
July	78.4	----------	157	219.2	70.7	85.3	687	135
September	78.6	----------	157	220.7	70.6	84.3	687	135
December	79.6	----------	157	222.9	71.6	100.7	722	135
1937—March	80.9	----------	160	231.5	72.6	100.7	754	135
June	82.1	----------	160	----------	72.9	108.9	765	----------
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	89.3	----------	109	149.8	88.7	123.3	789	54
July	84.9	----------	109	155.0	84.7	101.8	769	56
October	87.7	----------	109	154.1	86.4	116.3	777	65
1936—January	88.3	----------	109	160.0	87.2	137.6	776	73
April	88.0	----------	109	158.3	87.3	132.5	776	79
July	86.1	----------	108	161.9	85.8	127.4	755	76
September	87.4	----------	108	164.5	86.1	126.8	767	75
December	87.8	----------	108	169.6	86.7	127.0	765	75
1937—March	88.1	----------	108	178.7	86.6	128.7	776	75
June	84.9	----------	107	----------	84.2	129.7	776	----------
Rent:								
1935—March	62.6	818	31	389.8	80.3	111.4	734	112
July	62.7	823	31	391.6	81.4	111.4	734	112
October	63.3	832	31	392.0	82.6	111.0	734	116
1936—January	63.5	839	33	391.9	82.6	111.0	734	116
April	63.7	852	33	392.1	82.6	110.3	734	115
July	64.2	----------	33	392.6	83.8	109.6	717	115
September	64.6	----------	33	392.9	83.8	109.0	717	125
December	65.4	----------	33	394.0	84.9	109.0	717	125
1937—March	65.9	----------	33	395.4	84.9	109.1	737	125
June	67.5	----------	33	----------	87.3	109.4	737	----------

[1] Indexes relate to the 15th of the month.

[2] General, clothing, and rent indexes relate to the quarter.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	Finland [3]	France [4]	Germany	Hungary, Budapest	India, Bombay	Irish Free State [5]	Italy, Milan	Netherlands, The Hague [6]
Groups of items included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, taxes, and sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries
Computing agency	Ministry of Social Affairs	Commission for study of cost of living	Federal Statistical Bureau	Central Office of Statistics	Labour Office	Department of Industry and Commerce	Municipal Administration	Bureau of Statistics
Base period	1935=100	1930=100	1913–14 =100	1913=100	July 1914=100	July 1914=100	June 1928=100	1921=100
General:								
1935—March		82.3	122.2	89.4	98	153		66.2
July		78.7	124.3	92.8	101	151	81.2	65.6
October		78.7	122.8	93.0	103	156	84.6	65.2
1936—January	100	77.8	124.3	95.0	103	162	87.5	65.8
April	99	77.8	124.3	96.4	100	159	87.2	65.5
July	99	80.3	125.3	95.1	101	157	88.8	64.8
September	99	80.3	124.4	97.0	102	159	89.2	64.7
December	101	91.1	124.3	97.7	103	166	92.0	65.3
1937—March	102	96.5	125.0	102.1	104	167	92.5	66.6
June	104		125.3		106	167		
Food:								
1935—March		77.7	118.8	78.2	89	136		56.4
July		72.2	122.9	84.7	93	132	73.4	55.3
October		72.2	119.6	84.2	94	140	79.8	54.4
1936—January	100	71.8	122.3	85.8	96	150	82.3	55.9
April	98	71.8	122.4	88.5	92	145	81.6	55.4
July	98	76.3	124.0	85.8	93	141	82.9	55.1
September	99	76.3	122.0	88.0	94	145	83.5	54.6
December	101	88.5	121.0	88.5	95	155	86.6	54.9
1937—March	106	93.3	122.3	93.4	96	153	87.5	56.2
June	104		122.9		98	152		
Clothing:								
1935—March		72.0	117.2	101.7	114			
July		70.7	117.8	101.7	112		63.0	
October		70.7	118.4	103.6	112		71.8	
1936—January	100	71.3	118.5	114.0	113		78.4	
April	100	71.3	118.7	114.6	111		78.4	
July	100	70.7	119.9	115.0	111		84.3	
September	100	70.7	121.0	121.2	111		84.3	
December	100	82.7	124.2	123.9	111		89.8	
1937—March	101	94.0	124.5	136.9	111		89.8	
June	103		125.2		112			
Fuel and light:								
1935—March		92	127.6	133.1	136			
July		92	124.6	132.7	136		94.6	
October		92	126.8	134.6	136		95.5	
1936—January	103	88	127.1	133.3	128		103.8	
April	109	88	126.3	133.1	126		107.3	
July	108	88	124.5	133.3	126		108.3	
September	110	88	125.5	133.5	126		108.3	
December	116	98	126.8	134.4	126		115.2	
1937—March	123	102	126.6	136.4	128		115.2	
June	127		123.7		132			
Rent:								
1935—March		107	121.2	86.3	158			
July		107	121.2	86.3	158		107.8	
October		107	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
1936—January	100	99	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
April	100	99	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
July	100	99	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
September	100	99	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
December	104	102	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
1937—March	104	104	121.3	86.3	158		107.8	
June	104		121.3		158			

[3] General, clothing, and rent indexes relate to January, April, July, and October.

[4] Indexes for 1935 and 1936 relate to May and November; indexes for March 1937 relate to February.

[5] Indexes relate to February, May, August, and November.

[6] Indexes relate to March, June, September, and December.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	New Zealand [7]	Norway [8]	Peru, Lima	South Africa	Sweden [9]	Switzerland	United Kingdom	Yugoslavia, Beograd
Groups of items included	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, rent, sundries	Food, fuel, light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent	Food, clothing, fuel and light, rent, sundries	Food, clothing fuel and light, sundries
Computing agency	Census and Statistics Department	Central Statistical Bureau	General Office of Statistics	Office of Census and Statistics	Board of Social Welfare	Federal Office of Industry, etc.	Ministry of Labour	National Bank
Base period	1926–30=1000	July 1914=100	1913=100	1914=1000	July 1914=100	June 1914=100	July 1914=100	1926=100
General:								
1935—March	826	149	152	1157	155	127	141	70.7
July	835	151	152	1156	156	128	143	68.0
October	836	153	153	1146	157	129	145	69.9
1936—January	853	153	157	1157	158	130	147	71.1
April	840	155	158	1161	158	130	144	70.4
July	856	155	160	1157	158	130	146	67.8
September	870	155	161	1153	157	130	147	68.8
December	884	157	162	1162	158	132	151	70.1
1937—March	900	161	167	1173	161	136	151	69.7
June	----------	166	----------	----------	----------	137	152	----------
Food:								
1935—March	819	135	148	1024	126	112	122	72.6
July	826	140	147	1019	129	115	126	71.0
October	875	142	147	998	131	117	128	72.5
1936—January	841	142	154	1016	132	118	131	73.6
April	845	145	155	1024	134	119	126	73.0
July	875	145	157	1011	134	120	129	70.8
September	899	143	159	1002	132	121	131	72.0
December	914	145	159	1000	133	123	136	73.4
1937—March	923	152	170	1013	137	129	135	72.6
June	----------	157	----------	----------	----------	131	136	----------
Clothing:								
1935—March	831	144	167	----------	167	115	188	73.7
July	828	143	170	----------	167	114	188	71.2
October	829	145	173	----------	167	112	185	70.7
1936—January	825	145	173	----------	168	112	185	72.1
April	823	146	173	----------	169	111	188	72.1
July	828	146	176	----------	169	111	190	71.8
September	843	147	176	----------	169	111	190	70.6
December	854	148	176	----------	170	111	190	72.1
1937—March	884	153	176	----------	174	118	195	73.1
June	----------	159	----------	----------	----------	120	203	----------
Fuel and light:								
1935—March	837	138	----------	----------	137	115	173	73.2
July	872	139	----------	----------	137	113	168	71.4
October	874	141	----------	----------	138	113	170	71.5
1936—January	876	143	----------	----------	138	113	175	71.2
April	874	145	----------	----------	140	113	178	71.2
July	875	147	----------	----------	139	112	173	68.7
September	898	155	----------	----------	140	111	173	69.2
December	926	160	----------	----------	141	114	175	69.2
1937—March	929	165	----------	----------	143	116	178	69.2
June	----------	182	----------	----------	----------	116	175	----------
Rent:								
1935—March	766	166	153	----------	198	182	156	----------
July	771	166	153	----------	198	180	158	----------
October	776	166	156	----------	198	180	158	----------
1936—January	783	166	156	----------	198	180	158	----------
April	789	167	161	----------	196	180	158	----------
July	800	167	161	----------	196	177	159	----------
September	812	170	161	----------	196	177	159	----------
December	816	170	161	----------	196	177	159	----------
1937—March	820	171	161	----------	195	177	159	----------
June	----------	171	----------	----------	----------	175	159	----------

[7] Indexes relate to February, May, August, and November for all groups except food.
[8] Indexes for clothing and rent relate to March, June, September, and December.
[9] Indexes relate to January, April, July, and October.

FAMILY-BUDGET SURVEY IN JAPAN, 1935–36

THE AVERAGE actual monthly income from work and other sources, of salaried-employee and wage-earner families in Japan in 1935–36 was 90.59 yen,[1] according to an official inquiry made during the period September 1935 to August 1936.[2] The average actual monthly expenditure of these families was 80.11 yen, of which 37.65 percent was spent for food and drink, 16.83 percent for lodging, 4.98 percent for fuel and light, 11.34 percent for clothing, and 29.20 percent for miscellaneous expenses. The surplus amount to 10.48 yen.

Incomes and Expenditures of Workers' Families in Japan, by Income Groups, September 1935 to August 1936

[Average exchange rates of yen for years 1935 and 1936=28.7 and 29.0 cents, respectively]

Item	All groups	Average monthly income of—						
		Under 50 yen	50 and under 60 yen	60 and under 70 yen	70 and under 80 yen	80 and under 90 yen	90 and under 100 yen	100 yen and over
Average number of persons per household	4.12	3.13	3.89	3.91	4.09	4.14	4.17	4.22
	Yen	*Yen*	*Yen*	*Yen*	*Yen*	*Yen*	*Yen*	*Yen*
Actual income	90.59	43.54	56.23	65.56	75.17	84.88	95.04	115.53
From work	83.48	40.30	52.73	61.13	70.18	78.88	87.88	104.92
From other sources	7.11	3.24	3.50	4.43	4.99	6.00	7.16	10.61
Actual expenditures	80.11	47.30	52.37	60.03	67.14	76.15	83.87	99.96
Food and drink	30.16	22.33	24.78	25.67	27.41	29.86	31.15	33.97
Rice and corn	11.32	9.22	10.81	10.88	11.29	11.34	11.41	11.55
Other foods	10.49	8.48	8.18	8.79	9.38	10.24	11.06	11.94
Sweetmeats	5.88	3.09	4.46	4.43	4.94	6.04	6.07	7.02
Meals outside of home	2.47	1.54	1.33	1.57	1.80	2.24	2.61	3.46
Lodging	13.48	9.05	8.90	10.31	11.46	12.67	14.40	16.54
Fuel and light	3.99	3.23	3.10	3.38	3.59	3.92	4.21	4.49
Clothing	9.09	3.28	4.68	6.15	7.17	8.50	9.57	12.11
Miscellaneous	23.39	9.41	10.91	14.52	17.51	21.20	24.54	32.85
Sanitation and hygiene, education, etc	9.07	3.11	4.25	6.01	7.09	8.30	9.85	12.13
General taxes	.56	.14	.37	.38	.44	.51	.56	.77
Culture, amusements, travel	4.89	2.87	2.18	2.84	3.69	4.39	5.17	6.96
Other	8.70	3.29	3.86	5.13	6.12	7.87	8.73	12.84
Not specified	.17	-------	.25	.16	.17	.13	.23	.15
Surplus (income over expenses)	10.48	[a] 3.76	3.86	5.53	8.03	8.73	11.17	15.57
	PERCENT							
Actual income	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
From work	92.15	92.56	93.78	93.24	93.36	92.93	92.47	90.82
From other sources	7.85	7.44	6.22	6.76	6.64	7.07	7.53	9.18
Actual expenditures	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Food and drink	37.65	47.21	47.32	42.76	40.82	39.21	37.14	33.98
Rice and corn	14.13	19.49	20.64	18.12	16.81	14.89	13.60	11.55
Other foods	13.10	17.93	15.62	14.64	13.97	13.45	13.19	11.95
Sweetmeats	7.34	6.53	8.52	7.38	7.36	7.93	7.24	7.02
Meals outside of home	3.08	3.26	2.54	2.62	2.68	2.94	3.11	3.46
Lodging	16.83	19.13	16.99	17.17	17.07	16.64	17.17	16.55
Fuel and light	4.98	6.83	5.92	5.63	5.35	5.15	5.02	4.49
Clothing	11.34	6.94	8.94	10.25	10.68	11.16	11.41	12.12
Miscellaneous	29.20	19.89	20.83	24.19	26.08	27.84	29.26	32.86
Sanitation and hygiene, education, etc	11.33	6.57	8.11	10.01	10.57	10.89	11.74	12.13
General taxes	.70	.30	.71	.63	.66	.67	.67	.77
Culture, amusements, travel	6.10	6.06	4.16	4.73	5.49	5.77	6.17	6.96
Other	10.86	6.96	7.37	8.55	9.11	10.34	10.41	12.85
Not specified	.21	-------	.48	.27	.25	.17	.27	.15

[a] Deficit.

[1] Average exchange rates of yen in 1935 and 1936 were 28.7 and 29.0 cents, respectively.

[2] Japan. Bureau de la Statistique Générale. Résumé statistique de l'Empire du Japon. Tokyo, 1937.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, JUNE 1937

AN INCREASE in the turn-over rate in manufacturing industries was indicated for June by the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of labor turn-over in manufacturing establishments. The total separation rate in June was 4.02 per 100 employees. In May the rate was 3.37. The accession rate increased from 3.56 to 3.69 during the same period. The increase in the total separation rate was due in part to a quit rate of 1.89 as against 1.37 in May. A slight decline was shown in the discharge rate. The lay-off rate increased from 1.79 to 1.94.

Compared with the corresponding month in 1936 the quit rate increased from 1.13 per 100 employees to 1.89. The discharge rate declined from 0.23 to 0.19. A small increase from 1.92 in June 1936 to 1.94 in June 1937 was shown in the lay-off rate. The total separation rate increased from 3.28 to 4.02. The accession rate declined from 4.49 to 3.69.

A comparison of turn-over rates in June with the average monthly rates in 1936 indicated that the quit rate (1.89) was higher than the average monthly quit rate (1.09) in 1936. This high quit rate caused the total separation rate (4.02) in June to rise above the average monthly rate (3.37) in 1936. The discharge rate (0.19) was lower than the 1936 average (0.22). It is of particular significance that the lay-off rate (1.94) in June, although higher than in the preceding month or in the corresponding month in 1936, was lower than the average monthly rate (2.06) in 1936.

The average monthly accession rate in 1936 was 4.35 per 100 employees, as compared with 3.69 in June 1937.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments, which in June employed over 2,500,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 16 industries for which

separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows the quit, discharge, and lay-off rates, as well as the total separation rate and the accession rate for each month of 1936 and for the first 6 months of 1937 for manufacturing as a whole. The average monthly rates for 1936 are also presented.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*

Class of rate and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
Quit rate:													
1937	1.27	1.19	1.43	1.38	1.37	1.89							
1936	.71	.68	.86	1.16	1.06	1.13	1.15	1.23	1.57	1.29	1.13	1.05	1.09
Discharge rate:													
1937	.21	.22	.24	.23	.21	.19							
1936	.20	.17	.19	.21	.20	.23	.23	.27	.26	.24	.21	.22	.22
Lay-off rate: [1]													
1937	1.90	1.44	1.53	1.48	1.79	1.94							
1936	2.66	2.21	1.83	1.92	2.06	1.92	1.84	3.23	1.47	1.72	1.70	2.14	2.06
Total separation rate:													
1937	3.38	2.85	3.20	3.09	3.37	4.02							
1936	3.57	3.06	2.88	3.29	3.32	3.28	3.22	4.73	3.30	3.25	3.04	3.41	3.37
Accession rate:													
1937	4.60	4.71	4.74	4.04	3.56	3.69							
1936	3.65	2.95	3.97	4.46	4.05	4.49	4.94	4.72	5.09	4.83	4.60	4.41	4.35

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Sixteen Industries

In addition to the information for manufacturing as a whole, detailed labor turn-over rates are available for 16 separate manufacturing industries.

The highest accession rate (6.77 per 100 employees) in any of the 16 industries occurred in sawmills, and the lowest (0.60) in plants manufacturing rubber tires.

The preliminary figures from the iron and steel plants indicated a quit rate of 12.76. Petroleum refining reported a quit rate of 0.49. A discharge rate of 0.36 per 100 employees was shown in furniture manufacturing. The lowest rate (0.05) in this class of separations occurred in petroleum refineries and in the men's clothing industry. Establishments making men's clothing registered the highest lay-off rate (5.57); iron and steel the lowest (0.60). The total separation rates ranged from a high of 13.44 in iron and steel to a low of 2.26 in electrical machinery.

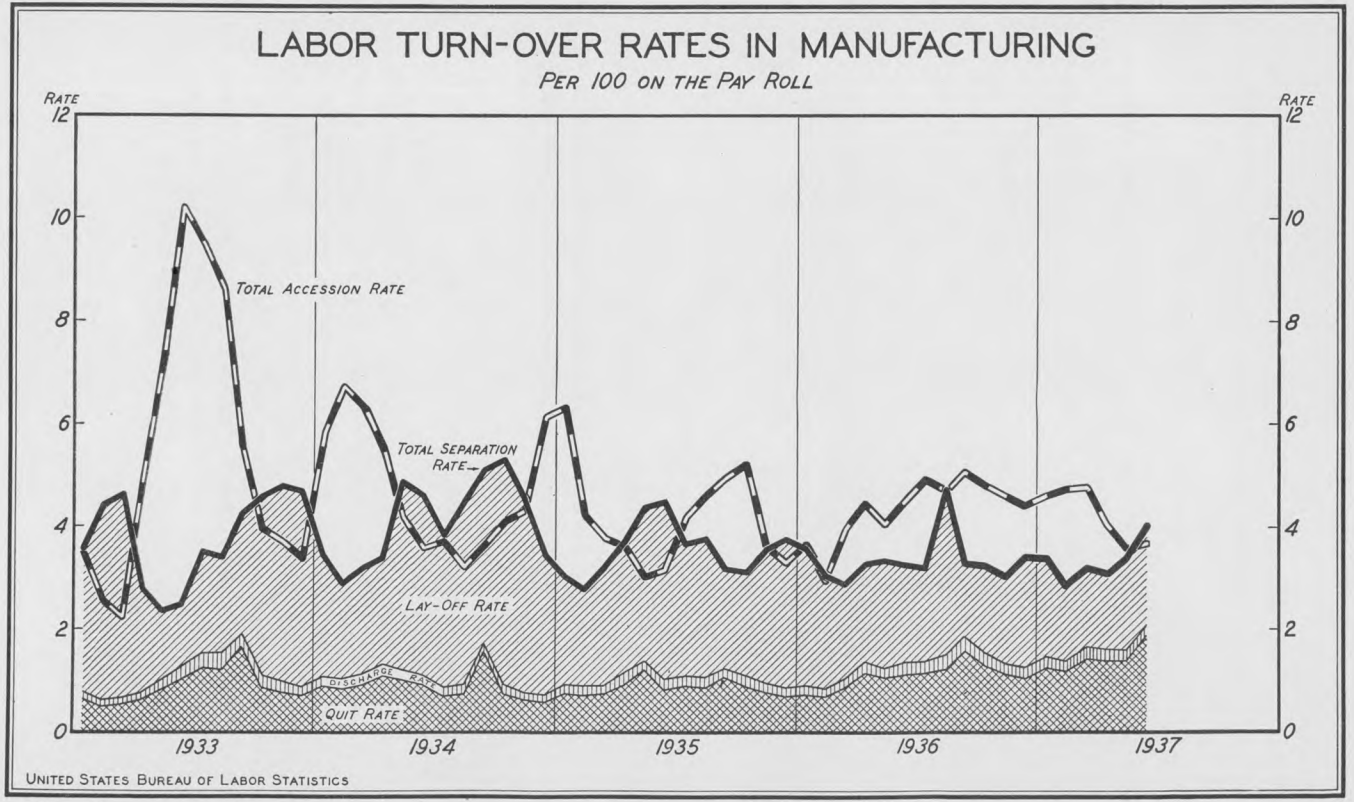


TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*

Class of rates	June 1937	May 1937	June 1936	June 1937	May 1937	June 1936	June 1937	May 1937	June 1936
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	1.31	1.41	1.23	1.67	1.92	1.64	1.01	1.06	0.74
Discharge	.15	.17	.29	.29	.35	.37	.16	.19	.33
Lay-off	2.62	1.81	2.99	4.69	2.92	4.26	2.00	4.78	2.86
Total separation	4.08	3.39	4.51	6.65	5.19	6.27	3.18	6.03	3.93
Accession	2.51	3.09	3.08	3.95	5.53	4.22	4.60	2.62	3.49
	Brick			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Quit	1.40	1.22	1.10	1.69	2.29	2.17	1.91	1.57	1.43
Discharge	.34	.32	.18	.07	.10	.21	.26	.33	.26
Lay-off	3.73	2.53	2.16	1.18	1.16	6.43	3.03	2.46	1.60
Total separation	5.47	4.07	3.44	2.94	3.55	8.81	5.20	4.36	3.29
Accession	4.99	4.92	7.69	3.38	2.46	4.35	3.94	3.20	4.70
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Quit	1.19	0.99	0.91	1.59	1.39	1.17	1.31	2.48	1.18
Discharge	.16	.19	.11	.29	.33	.41	.36	.41	.34
Lay-off	.91	.67	.74	1.98	1.11	1.49	2.09	2.18	1.98
Total separation	2.26	1.85	1.76	3.86	2.83	3.07	3.76	5.07	3.50
Accession	4.10	4.33	5.42	3.89	4.34	5.25	4.41	5.13	8.58
	Hardware			Iron and steel			Men's clothing		
Quit	1.14	1.93	1.28	[1] 12.76	1.04	1.00	1.13	1.15	0.94
Discharge	.17	.19	.29	.08	.09	.10	.05	.04	.07
Lay-off	2.45	1.23	.54	.60	.53	.46	5.57	4.76	3.45
Total separation	3.76	3.35	2.11	[1] 13.44	1.66	1.56	6.75	5.95	4.46
Accession	1.70	3.36	2.25	2.51	2.86	4.61	4.59	2.15	6.87
	Petroleum refining			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Quit	0.49	0.43	0.56	0.83	0.70	0.63	2.57	2.88	2.68
Discharge	.05	.06	.12	.12	.09	.09	.28	.29	.42
Lay-off	1.83	2.06	2.31	1.49	.85	1.08	2.68	2.35	4.76
Total separation	2.37	2.55	2.99	2.44	1.64	1.80	5.53	5.52	7.86
Accession	3.06	4.06	4.82	.60	1.02	2.45	6.77	7.84	6.13
	Slaughtering and meat packing								
Quit	0.76	0.89	1.03						
Discharge	.17	.23	.29						
Lay-off	4.50	5.07	4.10						
Total separation	5.43	6.19	5.42						
Accession	6.49	5.70	8.41						

[1] Preliminary.

WAGE DETERMINATIONS FOR GOVERNMENT CONTRACTS

DETERMINATIONS of the prevailing minimum wage in seven industries were issued by the Secretary of Labor in July 1937 under the powers delegated by the Walsh-Healey Act governing conditions of employment on public contracts.[1] The industries affected are those manufacturing men's neckwear, men's hats and caps, men's raincoats, cotton garments and allied products, seamless hosiery, men's underwear, and work gloves. The decision on the cotton garment and allied industries is an extension of one issued earlier in the current year dealing with the manufacture of work clothing.[2] Minimum rates vary from a low of 32½ cents for operators in certain sections of the South manufacturing men's underwear to 67½ cents per hour in the men's hat and cap industry. The determination covering men's underwear production is the only one where a geographic differential in wages is introduced. In six of the seven decisions made, special rates are fixed either for learners, handicapped and superannuated employees, or a combination of these classes. A 40-hour week is the standard in every case. The chief provisions of the determinations are here given in brief.

Neckwear industry.—Evidence brought forward at the hearings on the men's neckwear industry, showed that the workers are 60 percent organized and wages are relatively high. The determination deals only with fabric ties, as the Government does not buy knitted neckwear. No effort was made to obtain a North-South differential in wages, 41 percent of the industry being located in New York City and its immediate environs, 35 percent in the eastern States, 18 percent in the midwestern States, and 6 percent in the far western States. There was, however, a demand for a lower rate of pay for learners engaged in unskilled productive tasks. This was met by establishing a special rate for 10 percent of the employees in any shop, the percentage being subject to reduction if shown to be justified after study by the Division of Public Contracts of the United States Department of Labor.

[1] See press releases of Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary, nos. 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, and 95.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, March 1937 (p. 686).

The minimum rates of pay fixed in the determination for a 40-hour week are 50 cents per hour or $20 per week for productive workers and 37.5 cents per hour or $15 per week for learners, handicapped and superannuated workers, boxers, and trimmers. These rates apply to hourly and piece-work employees alike.

Hat and cap industry.—Investigation has shown that the Government's purchases of hats and caps are manufactured in what is commonly called the uniform as distinguished from the civilian branch of the industry. In the uniform branch approximately 85 percent of the workers are organized and therefore the union rates may be regarded as prevailing rates. Representatives of labor sought separate determinations of minimum wages for different occupational classifications. These were not granted, since the act authorizes fixing only one minimum wage. Both employers and employees opposed geographic differentials. No need was found for a special rate covering learners, as most of the workers making hats and caps for the Government are skilled and have had training in other branches of hat making before being employed on Government contracts.

In view of these considerations the prevailing minimum rate for this industry was determined as 67.5 cents per hour or $27 per week of 40 hours, whether arrived at on a time- or piece-work basis.

Raincoat industry.—Men's raincoat manufacture is carried on primarily in Massachusetts and New York, with scattered production in Ohio, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Indiana, New Jersey, and Tennessee. Wages vary considerably from firm to firm within a given State and there are overlapping rates between States. No claim was made for a differential minimum wage. The prevailing rate was determined by arranging the minima by 10-cent intervals and, although not over 6 percent of the workers received any specific wage, the distribution showed a decided concentration between 35 and 45 cents. It was believed essential to establish a learners' rate as well as a general minimum, in order to build up the personnel of the industry; this learners' rate applies to 10 percent of the workers in any plant.

Wage rates established are 40 cents per hour or $16 per 40-hour week for the industry and 25 cents per hour or $10 per week for learners, handicapped, and superannuated workers.

Cotton garment and allied industries.—This determination applies to workers engaged in the manufacture of overalls, unionalls, service uniforms, work pants and work coats, sheep-lined jackets, leather jackets, mackinaws, and work shirts and blouses, made of khaki, denim, drills, twills, cottonades, ducks, corduroys, or other fabrics, in whole or in part of cotton or wool. Under the decision on work clothing rendered on January 30, 1937, shirt and sport jacket manufacture were omitted so that another hearing was held and the determination extended. Even though shirts and sport jackets often include wool, in contrast with other work garments, work is often

done in the same plants and involves the same processes. It was, therefore, believed that they might be treated as one industry for wage-setting purposes.

Testimony showed that a $15 minimum wage is provided for 40 hours of work for some 29,000 members of the United Garment Workers of America and $14.40 for a 36-hour week under Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America contracts (equivalent to $16 for 40 hours). These rates apply to 38,000 of the 55,000 workers in the men's clothing industry. Consideration was given to establishing geographic differentials but it was found that "existing differences defied any regional apportionment." It was ruled that to fill the need for replenishing labor in the cotton-garment industries and to take care of the least productive, it would be necessary to permit producers to employ learners, handicapped, and superannuated employees up to 20 percent of the plant personnel at wages below the standard minimum.

The rate of pay established is 37.5 cents per hour or $15 per 40-hour week whether workers receive time- or piece-rate remuneration. For 10 percent of the employees of any plant classified as learners, minimum wages are placed at $8 per week for the first 4 weeks, $10 for the next 4 weeks, $12 for the following 4 weeks, and the full pay of $15 per week thereafter, provided that they shall not receive less than the piece rate for commensurate work during the learning period and that learners are on the pay roll at the time performance of a contract is started. An additional 10 percent of employees, made up of the handicapped and superannuated, may not be paid less than the piece rates established in the same shop.

Seamless hosiery.—Determination of the prevailing wage in the seamless-hosiery industry was facilitated, since there is "a concentration in the distribution of all wages and the average for the lowest-paid occupational groups." In North Carolina, for example, where the largest volume of seamless hosiery is manufactured, the average hourly earnings are 38.3 cents as compared with 37.6 cents in Pennsylvania. Need for a tolerance below the industry minimum for learners, handicapped, and superannuated appeared smaller than in some of the other industries studied and the group allowed a wage tolerance was restricted to 5 percent of the employees of any one firm.

For employees working on Government contracts in the manufacture of seamless hosiery the minimum hourly rate was fixed at 35 cents. This results in minimum earnings of $14 per 40-hour week, arrived at either on a time- or piece-work basis. Learners, handicapped, and superannuated workers may not be paid less than 28 cents per hour or $11.20 per week.

Underwear industry.—Employers and workers agreed that knit and woven underwear would properly fall under a single determination as to prevailing minimum wages. Opposition was expressed at public hearings to the establishment of geographic differentials in setting

wages for this industry, but subsequent investigation and review showed that the weight of evidence favored recognition of existing differences. It was found that learners in this industry are not used on Government work and that no tolerance would be needed on their account. To take care of the handicapped or superannuated a lower wage was provided, covering 10 percent of the employees of any plant.

The wage for the manufacture and supply of men's underwear in the South was placed at 32.5 cents per hour or $13 per 40-hour week. Included in the South are the States of Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, and Oklahoma. For employees of all other States and the District of Columbia engaged in this type of manufacture, the hourly rate is 35 cents and the weekly rate for 40 hours, $14, whether arrived at on a time- or piece-work basis. For the handicapped or superannuated the wage may not be less than 25 cents an hour or $10 per week.

Work-glove industry.—Minimum wages in the work-glove industry are concentrated at approximately the same level in different localities, according to studies introduced as evidence in establishing rates for employees engaged on Government contracts. Production is concentrated in the Middle West, in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa. A secondary center in the East is located in New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. The output of Missouri, North Carolina, and Tennessee is of minor importance. If wages are correlated, a lower rate results for Illinois than in certain Southern States and in all Eastern States the rates are below those of Ohio. To permit a steady flow of new help into the industry and to retain the handicapped and superannuated employees, it was determined that 10 percent of the employees of any plant might be paid below the going minimum rate.

Therefore rates of 35 cents per hour, or $14 per 40-hour week, were determined as the minimum for regular employees and 25 cents per hour or $10 per week for learners, the handicapped, and superannuated. In this decision as in others the workers paid below the general industry minimum are entitled to receive not less than the piece-rate minima for other employees for the same work.

INCREASED BASIC WAGE IN AUSTRALIA

A GENERAL increase in basic wages was established in Australia during June 1937 by the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration.[1] In ordering higher wage payments the court held that the rise in national income, increased prices and productivity, declining

[1] Australia. Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration. Basic Wage Inquiry, 1937. Canberra, 1937.

unemployment, and related indicators of economic recovery justified an upward revision, just as the break-down in 1931 made it necessary to reduce wages. Statistics presented to prove the need for changes included series showing that quantity of production was 25 percent greater in 1934–35 than in 1925–26, that manufacturing industries have been more than restored to the 1929 level, that public finance has improved, and that private finance has steadily improved its position since 1934. Calculating by the best methods available, the court found that real national per-capita income was as great as at any time before the depression.

Employee representatives urged additions to wages to bring the level to that of 1929. To support their case they brought forward a statement of one of Australia's economists, arguing that the payment of higher wages would deter employers from making superfluous additions to plants or from creating new enterprises which might cause an unhealthy boom. "Higher wages would induce more sober estimates of the prospects whilst delay in raising wages would directly contribute to undue inflation of values", it was added. Further arguments were that a rise in real wages would go into circulation immediately, thus creating an accelerated demand for goods.

Employers did not dispute that there should be a wage increase but took exception to some of the foregoing arguments for wages as high as those paid in 1929.

While the court's deliberations led to the conclusion that appreciable increases in the basic wage were desirable, the need for equal increases throughout the States, as previously decreed, was questioned. The decision finally reached was that the basic wage for "needs" should be increased uniformly throughout the country, so that all wage earners might secure a particular standard of living whatever the industry or the locality in which they are employed. Additions to wages authorized because of prosperity, the court found, could not be shared by all alike, since not all States enjoy the same advantages. Therefore, a system was adopted whereby fixed "loading additions" were authorized, varying according to the capacity to pay in each district. For example, the "loading addition" approved for Sydney is 6s. per week, which, added to the "needs" basic wage (subject to adjustment) of £3 12s., brings the total new basic weekly wage to £3 18s. In Adelaide, the "loading addition" is 4s. per week and the basic wage based on cost of living is £3 8s., bringing the total to £3 12s.

The court ruled further that minimum rates for adult female workers should be increased so as to retain substantially the same ratio to the new total basic wage as to the existing basic wage in earlier awards.

The following table shows total basic hourly and weekly wages established in June 1937, comprising the "needs" wages and "loading additions" combined.

Basic Wage Established in Australia, June 1937

[Pound at par=$4.8665; shilling=24.33 cents; penny=2.03 cents]

District and branch of employment	Total amount of wage		
	Per week	Per hour	
		44-hour basis	48-hour basis
	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Industry:			
Sydney	3 18 0	1 9 3/11	1 7½
Melbourne	3 15 0	1 8 5/11	1 6¾
Brisbane	3 14 0	1 8 2/11	1 6½
Adelaide	3 12 0	1 7 1/11	1 6
Perth	3 14 0	1 8 2/11	1 6½
Hobart	3 14 0	1 8 2/11	1 6½
Six capitals	3 15 0	1 8 5/11	1 6¾
30 towns	3 15 0	1 8 5/11	1 6¾
Railways:			
New South Wales	3 16 0	1 8 8/11	1 7
Victoria	3 14 0	1 8 2/11	1 6½
South Australia	3 11 0	1 7 4/11	1 5¾
Tasmania	3 11 0	1 7 4/11	1 5¾
Maritime	[1] 13 15 0	----------	----------

[1] Per month.

ANNUAL INCOME IN THE ENGINEERING PROFESSION, 1929 TO 1934[1]

Part 2.—SOURCES OF INCOME

THIS article deals with the annual incomes of engineers engaged in engineering and in nonengineering work, as well as of those who were unemployed at the end of the years reported.[2] The data were derived from reports from 52,589 engineers furnished to the Bureau in its survey of the engineering profession, undertaken in May 1935 at the request of the American Engineering Council.

Summary

In 1929 there was greater spread in the earnings of engineers engaged in nonengineering work than in those obtained from engineering work. Thus, among engineers 40 to 47 years of age, 10 percent of those engaged in nonengineering earned more than $12,424 and 10 percent earned less than $2,420 per year. The respective annual incomes of similar proportions of all those engaged in engineering work were $9,615 and $2,705; and of graduates in engineering $10,088 and $2,936.

The age of maximum earning power for engineers arrives more quickly for nonengineering than for engineering work. At 48 to 55 years of age, however, those college graduates who stayed in engineering were doing as well as those who had gone into nonengineering work. This was true even at the highest income levels.

Despite the fact that in 1929 the tendency was for average annual incomes of engineers engaged in nonengineering to exceed slightly those from engineering work, the opportunities in the former field did not embrace more than 7 percent of the total in any one age classification.

[1] Prepared by Andrew Fraser, Jr., of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions.

[2] This is the sixth of a series of summary articles covering the results of the survey. The Monthly Labor Review for June 1936 contained a discussion of the educational qualifications of the professional engineer. Data on unemployment, employment, and security of employment in the engineering profession are to be found in the Monthly Labor Review for January, April, and May 1937, respectively. The first half of the present article on earned annual incomes appeared in the August 1937 issue.

Over the period 1929–34 the relationship changed between the jobs engineers took in engineering and nonengineering work. On the whole it appears that in 1929 nonengineering work was an alternative to engineering work, but from 1929 to 1934 many nonengineering jobs were accepted as an alternative to unemployment or work relief.

The extent to which earning opportunities from nonengineering work depreciated between 1929 and 1934 differs at the various age levels. The average earnings of two groups in nonengineering who were 28 to 40 years in 1929 declined by almost one-third from 1929 to 1934. As between the groups that were over 48 years in 1929 the average income of the 1934 group is only one-half the average of the 1929 group. Similarly at each of the other income levels a greater fall is found in the average income of older men in nonengineering.

Those who were able to stay in engineering fared better. Furthermore the changes which occurred in the earnings from engineering work, as reported by all engineers and by graduates only, were consistently uniform.

The relative changes as between nonengineering earnings and those for engineering work of engineers, with advancing age and experience, are also found to be the same for men with comparable periods of experience.

It was among those newcomers who were trying to force their way into the profession that the greatest fall in income occurred. Thus average earnings in engineering in 1934, 2 years after graduation, were 37 percent less than in 1929. The earnings of those who had been out of college 10 years were 31 percent lower in 1934 than in 1929. At higher ages all groups averaged a decrease of 26 percent.

In 1934 almost one-tenth of the engineers were unemployed or on work relief at the end of the year. The low level of earnings of this group during 1934 contributed to lowering the average earnings of all engineers. Thus of those engineers who were unemployed at the end of 1934 the average earnings for the preceding 12 months of those who were less than 28 years of age ranged from $700 to $950. Engineers of 40 to 50 years averaged $1,350. Only about 10 percent of the unemployed, even though they were in those ages at which engineering earnings reached a peak, had made as much as $2,000 in the preceding 12 months. Ten percent made less than $300 a year.

Scope and Method [3]

The earned annual income data used in the preceding analysis were those reported for personal services of all classes of engineers, irrespective of whether or not they were engaged primarily in engineer-

[3] See Income in the Engineering Profession, 1929 to 1934, Monthly Labor Review, August 1937 (pp. 412–445), for details of the scope and method of analysis.

ing or nonengineering work. They related, in other words, to the incomes of engineers, not to the incomes of men engaged in engineering. Consideration is here given to the annual incomes, classified by age, as related to the professional engineers' employment status.

While income was reported for the year, the type of employment was reported only as of December 31, 1929, 1932, and 1934. Consequently it has been necessary to assume that the kind of engineering or nonengineering employment engaged in at the end of the year was the source of the income for that year. This assumption makes possible valid general comparisons of the earnings of engineers in these two types of employment. But in that section dealing with the annual incomes of engineers who were unemployed, or who were employed on relief projects at the end of the year, it must not be assumed that they reflect the source of income. They are merely the incomes which had accrued during the year to those who were unemployed at the end of the year.

Before presenting the annual incomes from all kinds of engineering work and nonengineering work attention is directed to the following:

It must be noted that the requirements of editing the questionnaires caused the selection of a relatively large proportion of the engineers engaged in nonengineering work in 1929 who had college degrees in engineering. Thus, elsewhere it has been shown that the general movement from 1929 to 1934 was out of engineering work either into unemployment or into work not in the engineering field. Consequently a substantial number of those who were in pursuits other than engineering in 1929 would also have so reported in 1932 and 1934. Such returns from nonengineering graduates and "other" engineers were, in general, discarded. Therefore, the tabulations for nonengineering work in 1929 tend to be those of graduate engineers. On the other hand, a number of nongraduates who were practising their profession in 1929 passed into nonengineering employment in 1932 and 1934. The schedules for such engineers were retained. Clearly the situation which prevailed in 1929 was less true in 1932 and 1934. Hence it is as well to compare the earnings for nonengineering both with the earnings of graduates and with those of all persons reporting who were engaged in engineering. These data are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of 5 Levels of Annual Earnings from Nonengineering and Engineering Work Reported in 1929, 1932, and 1934*

Age	Year of graduation	Years after graduation	Proportion with annual earnings of more than specified amount as derived from—														
			10 percent			25 percent			50 percent			75 percent			90 percent		
			Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—	
				All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates
			1929 income (in dollars)														
64 years and over	Prior to 1889	41+	[2]	9,937	10,148	[3]	6,917	7,346	2,400	4,476	4,971	[3]	3,060	3,469	[2]	1,957	2,413
56–63 years	1889–96	33–40	[2]	12,625	13,516	7,155	7,500	7,955	4,400	4,979	5,590	2,893	3,422	3,760	[2]	2,420	2,624
48–55 years	1897–1904	25–32	12,495	11,709	12,478	7,867	7,108	7,610	5,057	4,912	5,232	3,494	3,481	3,777	2,280	2,661	3,020
40–47 years	1905–12	17–24	12,424	9,815	10,088	8,106	6,407	6,747	5,346	4,562	4,876	3,408	3,405	3,624	2,420	2,705	2,936
36–39 years	1913–16	13–16	10,140	7,751	8,294	6,620	5,680	6,099	4,347	4,102	4,353	3,013	3,210	3,354	1,998	2,582	2,756
32–35 years	1917–20	9–12	8,052	6,480	6,578	5,502	4,814	4,988	3,685	3,672	3,822	2,792	3,010	3,146	1,945	2,458	2,581
28–31 years	1921–24	5–8	5,460	4,753	4,842	4,099	3,776	3,847	3,042	3,145	3,207	2,349	2,577	2,664	1,642	2,150	2,258
26–27 years	1925–26	3–4	4,170	3,618	3,641	3,075	3,104	3,124	2,331	2,558	2,582	1,821	2,164	2,200	1,308	1,850	1,891
24–25 years	1927–28	1–2	2,910	3,043	2,992	2,344	2,501	2,477	1,786	2,105	2,095	1,407	1,834	1,831	889	1,476	1,493
23 years	1929	0	2,496	2,356	2,165	1,973	1,933	1,858	1,500	1,322	1,168	936	888	862	446	502	449
			1932 income (in dollars)														
67 years and over	Prior to 1889	44+	[2]	9,009	9,386	[3]	6,032	6,363	3,000	3,846	4,100	[3]	2,242	2,469	[2]	1,145	1,233
59–66 years	1889–96	36–43	[2]	9,020	9,643	5,000	6,252	6,589	2,550	4,126	4,689	1,200	2,640	3,143	[2]	1,300	1,571
51–58 years	1897–1904	28–35	9,146	8,405	9,008	5,069	5,892	6,163	3,011	4,046	4,411	1,395	2,823	3,119	525	1,807	1,989
43–50 years	1905–12	20–27	9,188	7,567	7,979	5,528	5,242	5,557	3,129	3,742	4,007	1,528	2,720	2,968	736	1,903	1,999
39–42 years	1913–16	16–19	7,450	6,387	6,700	4,980	4,643	4,990	2,800	3,490	3,711	1,602	2,604	2,854	809	1,926	2,090
35–38 years	1917–20	12–15	5,486	5,579	5,858	3,675	4,191	4,400	2,320	3,223	3,381	1,276	2,475	2,664	587	1,851	1,999
31–34 years	1921–24	8–11	4,290	4,332	4,415	3,007	3,457	3,546	1,963	2,790	2,885	1,123	2,195	2,299	490	1,619	1,728
29–30 years	1925–26	6–7	3,301	3,501	3,565	2,465	2,934	2,799	1,639	2,411	2,455	964	1,942	1,990	454	1,468	1,533
27–28 years	1927–28	4–5	2,463	3,005	3,021	1,908	2,504	2,521	1,319	2,103	2,128	765	1,702	1,751	306	1,257	1,310
26 years	1929	3	2,034	2,518	2,504	1,585	2,140	2,134	1,045	1,871	1,878	570	1,523	1,546	228	1,119	1,169
25 years	1930	2	1,930	2,167	2,155	1,465	1,946	1,941	1,069	1,662	1,658	585	1,325	1,324	234	937	927
24 years	1931	1	1,766	2,039	2,014	1,348	1,742	1,725	921	1,394	1,381	470	1,024	1,008	188	539	515
23 years	1932	0	1,689	1,910	1,826	1,240	1,335	1,243	814	766	716	406	383	358	163	153	143

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of 5 Levels of Annual Earnings from Nonengineering and Engineering Work Reported in 1929, 1932, and 1934*—Continued

Age	Year of graduation	Years after graduation	Proportion with annual earnings of more than specified amount as derived from—														
			10 percent			25 percent			50 percent			75 percent			90 percent		
			Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—		Nonengineering work by all engineers [1]	Engineering work by—	
				All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates		All engineers [1]	All graduates
			1934 income (in dollars)														
69 years and over	Prior to 1889	46+	[2]	7,367	7,570	[3]	5,155	5,513	2,500	3,292	3,700	[3]	1,861	2,225	[2]	1,050	1,229
61–68 years	1889–96	38–45	[2]	8,460	9,372	[3]	5,700	6,264	2,200	3,793	4,280	[3]	2,294	2,625	[2]	1,105	1,160
53–60 years	1897–1904	30–37	7,848	7,951	8,548	4,147	5,443	5,841	2,523	3,745	4,095	1,305	2,520	2,751	631	1,558	1,711
45–52 years	1905–12	22–29	9,171	7,230	7,665	5,426	4,980	5,271	3,040	3,524	3,788	1,579	2,526	2,688	921	1,826	1,893
41–44 years	1913–16	18–21	7,293	6,221	6,542	4,576	4,518	4,863	2,892	3,319	3,540	1,667	2,471	2,655	1,042	1,829	1,966
37–40 years	1917–20	14–17	5,560	5,393	5,656	3,667	4,058	4,278	2,414	3,101	3,271	1,514	2,379	2,525	848	1,839	1,960
33–36 years	1921–24	10–13	4,101	4,323	4,405	3,055	3,387	3,499	1,992	2,676	2,801	1,276	2,113	2,219	694	1,625	1,752
31–32 years	1925–26	8–9	3,560	3,554	3,601	2,468	2,892	2,949	1,700	2,380	2,442	1,123	1,929	2,002	526	1,513	1,581
29–30 years	1927–28	6–7	2,658	3,066	3,120	2,028	2,507	2,533	1,439	2,106	2,141	1,015	1,745	1,806	500	1,298	1,362
28 years	1929	5	2,209	2,635	2,658	1,764	2,209	2,227	1,296	1,929	1,946	934	1,593	1,621	431	1,244	1,266
27 years	1930	4	2,149	2,370	2,371	1,621	2,044	2,044	1,224	1,789	1,797	889	1,431	1,443	408	1,083	1,093
26 years	1931	3	2,028	2,155	2,146	1,536	1,900	1,895	1,171	1,578	1,571	835	1,265	1,261	352	954	949
25 years	1932	2	1,793	2,002	1,999	1,442	1,701	1,693	1,113	1,396	1,392	815	1,107	1,104	336	837	835
24 years	1933	1	1,664	1,911	1,895	1,325	1,562	1,551	991	1,272	1,265	606	960	954	242	526	520
23 years	1934	0	1,388	1,391	1,311	1,093	976	939	744	642	617	372	321	309	149	128	123

[1] That is, includes all graduates and all "other" engineers.
[2] Between 50 and 100 engineers reported.
[3] Between 10 and 50 engineers reported.

Caution should be exercised in comparing earnings with various types of employment in 1929, 1932, and 1934. The earnings of all engineers in engineering work reflect best the changes in what was being paid for engineering services. Both sets of figures of engineering earnings do reflect changes in the rates for given kinds and qualities of work. This is not true of the earnings from nonengineering; they indicate merely what individual engineers were able to earn in miscellaneous employments called "nonengineering." Conceivably such persons might all have been managers of industrial establishments in 1929 and gasoline-station attendants in 1932. Obviously a decrease in earnings from nonengineering employment would not then measure the fall in earnings of industrial managers. Actually the changes reflect the composite effect of a lowering of pay for various types of nonengineering work and a lowering of the quality of nonengineering work that was accepted as an alternative to unemployment.

Finally, among those reported at the end of the year as engaged in both engineering and nonengineering, there were some who suffered unemployment during part of the year. Inasmuch as unemployment was far more common in 1932 and 1934 than in 1929, this accounts for part of the decreases in annual incomes previously noted for both engineering and nonengineering. As regards engineering, rate change alone will be more fully analyzed later when monthly earnings from engineering employment are presented.[4]

Incomes from Engineering and Nonengineering Work

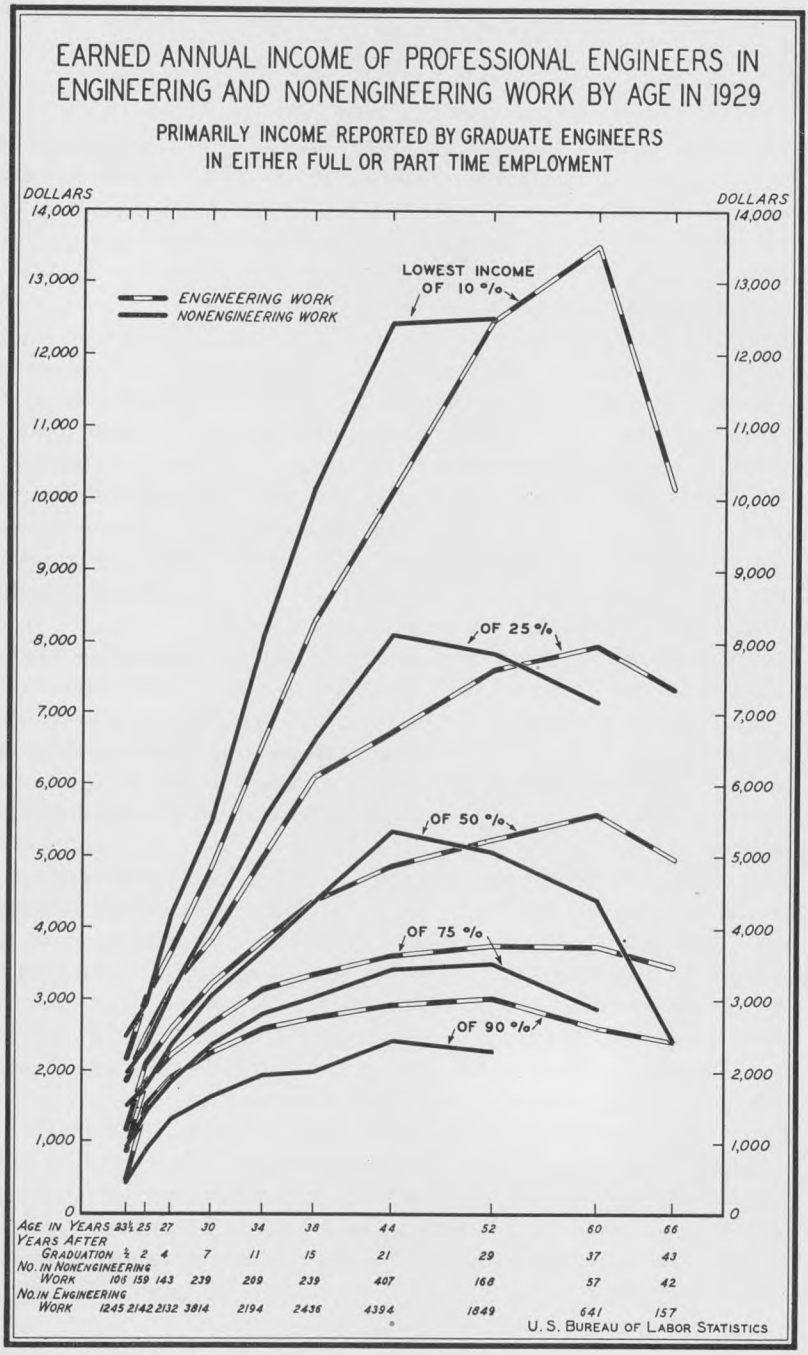
The first significant point of comparison between the incomes in 1929 of engineers engaged in engineering and those in nonengineering work is that the earnings of the latter showed greater dispersion. Thus, among engineers 40 to 47 years of age, 10 percent of those engaged in nonengineering earned more than $12,424 and 10 percent earned less than $2,420 per year. The respective annual incomes for similar proportions of all those in engineering work were $9,815 and $2,705; and of graduates in engineering $10,088 and $2,936. It seems apparent from these figures and others for 1929, that on the one hand many engineers were attracted out of engineering jobs by favorable opportunities, whereas, on the other hand, an almost equally large proportion dropped out of engineering work and were forced to find alternative employment. This point appears to be substantiated by a consideration of the variation in the relationship between engineering and nonengineering earnings in moving from the lowest to the highest of the 5 income levels.

[4] In the present article it must be borne in mind that the influence of unemployment in decreasing annual income was probably somewhat more important among those who reported nonengineering work as the source of income. It has been stated that the major direction of flow was from engineering work into nonengineering work. While some such transfers were made without an intervening period of unemployment, there must have been unemployment for many who lost an engineering job and went into nonengineering work after failure to find work of an engineering nature.

Only at the lowest 10-percent income group or level did engineering incomes exceed those from nonengineering work at all ages for which comparison can be made. At the middle levels the engineering incomes were greater than nonengineering by only 10 percent at 25 and 27 years of age, and by only 5 percent at age 30. From this point the more rapid advance in average nonengineering earnings to a maximum at age 44 brought about an equalization of the incomes near to age 34 at a value of $3,700 per year. They again equalized at 54 years. That is, between 44 and 54 years, while the average returns from nonengineering had declined from $5,346 to $4,900, those from engineering had advanced from $4,562 to $4,900. The advance in the latter continued to age 60, attaining a value of $4,979 per year, as against $4,400 for nonengineering at the same age. At the upper 10 and 25 percent income groups or levels engineering work ceased to have an advantage over nonengineering near to age 26. Thereafter the latter diverged upwards from the former to reach a maximum of $12,495 at age 52 at the highest level, and of $8,106 at age 44 in the case of the next lowest level. The corresponding values of engineering earnings were $11,709 and $6,407 per annum. The steady advance in engineering earnings, together with the declines in nonengineering earnings, brought about an equalization of incomes at age 58.

A second point of significance is that, in 1929, engineering work as such ultimately offered rewards as high as engineers were able to find in nonengineering. This arose primarily from the fact that the age of maximum earning power for engineers arrived more quickly for nonengineering than for engineering work. For at 48 to 55 years of age those college graduates who stayed in engineering were doing proportionately as well as those who had gone into nonengineering. This was true even at the highest income levels. The earnings of the upper 10 percent of the college graduates continued to advance from $10,088 at age 44 to $13,516 at 60. The average at these ages rose from $4,876 to $5,590, whereas the average from nonengineering fell from $5,346 to $4,400 between these ages.

From the preceding analysis, therefore, it appears that in 1929 the tendency was for average annual incomes of engineers who engaged in nonengineering work to exceed slightly those from engineering work. Notwithstanding, it should be noted that the opportunities outside the engineering field did not embrace more than 7 percent of the total reporting in any one age classification. Furthermore, since there is no knowledge of the basis of selection, it cannot be said that nonengineering earnings would have been greater or less for the engineer had he stayed in engineering work. The only justifiable assumption is that in 1929 there was a preference to remain in engineering by those in the two lower income groups or levels and a definite tendency to accept attractive openings in nonengineering work at the two



higher income levels. The turning point in this movement occurred near to the middle levels of income reported.

Changes in Income, 1929 to 1934

In an earlier article the changes from 1929 to 1934 in the incomes of all engineers were analyzed on an age basis. The decreases noted were due partly to salary reductions on given jobs. They were also due to the fact that incomes were reduced by extended periods of unemployment and by the necessity for accepting poorer jobs. That article described what happened between 1929 and 1934 on the average, for example, to engineers 40 to 47 years of age.

From the data presented in table 1 it is now possible to trace more precisely the influence of these several factors on the incomes of engineers. The first point to be noted is that the relationship changed between the jobs that engineers took in engineering and nonengineering work. In 1929 the essential elements of the story are to be found in the similarities of earnings in the two fields, rather than in the differences. On the whole it appears that nonengineering work was an alternative to engineering work. But from 1929 to 1934 many nonengineering jobs were accepted as an alternative to unemployment or work relief. Thus, the average earnings of those who were 40 to 47 years of age in 1929 and were in nonengineering work were $5,346. In 1934 a larger number of men from this age class were in nonengineering, and the average of this larger group was $3,040, a decline of 43 percent. By way of contrast the average annual income of graduates in engineering work of from 40 to 47 years of age was $4,876 in 1929. A smaller number still in engineering in 1934 averaged $3,788, a decrease of only 23 percent.

The extent to which earning opportunities from nonengineering work depreciated between 1929 and 1934 differed at the various age levels. The average earnings of two groups in nonengineering whose ages were 28 to 40 in 1929 declined by almost one-third from 1929 to 1934. As between the groups of those who were over 48 in 1929, the average income of the 1934 group was only half the average of the 1929 group. Similarly at each of the other income levels there was a greater fall in the average income of older men in nonengineering.

Those who were able to stay in engineering fared better. As illustrating this point, table 2 is presented, covering graduates of advancing age and experience, who were engaged in engineering work. A similar table based on the data in table 1 might be presented for all engineers. Essentially, however, the changes which occurred in the earnings from engineering work, as reported by all engineers and by graduates only, were consistently uniform.

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of 5 Levels of Annual Earnings from Engineering Work, for 5 Age Groups of Older Graduates* [1] *Reporting in 1929, 1932, and 1934*

Percent at specified income level	Engineers with annual earnings of more than specified amount, whose ages were—											
	60 in 1929	63 in 1932	65 in 1934	38 in 1929	41 in 1932	43 in 1934	30 in 1929	33 in 1932	35 in 1934	25 in 1929	28 in 1932	30 in 1934
10 percent	13,516	9,643	9,372	8,294	6,700	6,542	4,842	4,415	4,405	2,992	3,021	3,120
25 percent	7,955	6,589	6,264	6,099	4,990	4,863	3,847	3,546	3,499	2,477	2,521	2,533
50 percent	5,590	4,689	4,280	4,353	3,711	3,540	3,207	2,885	2,801	2,095	2,128	2,141
75 percent	3,760	3,143	2,625	3,354	2,854	2,655	2,664	2,299	2,219	1,831	1,751	1,806
90 percent	2,624	1,571	1,160	2,756	2,090	1,966	2,258	1,728	1,752	1,443	1,310	1,362
	Percentage increase or decrease											
	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34
10 percent	−31	−29	−3	−21	−19	−2	−9	−9	(2)	+4	+1	+3
25 percent	−21	−17	−5	−20	−18	−3	−9	−8	−1	+2	+2	(2)
50 percent	−23	−16	−9	−19	−15	−5	−13	−10	−3	+2	+2	+1
75 percent	−30	−16	−16	−21	−15	−7	−17	−14	−3	−1	−4	+3
90 percent	−56	−40	−26	−29	−24	−6	−23	−24	+1	−9	+12	+4

[1] Includes postgraduates, nonengineering graduates, and first degree engineering graduates who were professionally active prior to 1930.

[2] Less than 1 percent.

In the period from 1929 to 1934 the average earnings of graduatss in engineering who were 60 years old in 1929 declined 23 percent. There was a smaller decrease for the middle-aged groups, and among those averaging 30 years of age in 1929 the decline amounted to 13 percent. For the youngest groups shown in the table—those who were 25 in 1929 and 30 in 1934—the 5 years of added experience resulted in an actual increase in the average earnings of those who remained in engineering in 1934, as against the average for the larger numbers in the profession in 1929. The nature and extent of these changes in the averages of graduate earnings from engineering work were closely paralleled by those which occurred at the two upper income groups or levels. The increase in average earnings that was noted at 25 and 30 years did not occur for this age group at the two lower levels of income for the period 1929 to 1934. Furthermore, the declines in earnings for the lowest 10 percent in each of the three older groups were greater than the average.

The relative changes as between nonengineering earnings and those for engineering work of engineers with advancing age and experience are also found to be the same for men with comparable periods of experience (table 3).

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of 5 Levels of Annual Earnings, for Corresponding Years After Graduation, in 1929, 1932, and 1934*

Age of engineers	Years after graduation	Proportion with annual earnings of more than specified amount														
		10 percent			25 percent			50 percent			75 percent			90 percent		
		1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934	1929	1932	1934
Nonengineering work—All engineers:																
23½ years	½	$2,496	$1,689	$1,388	$1,973	$1,240	$1,093	$1,500	$814	$744	$936	$406	$372	$446	$163	$149
25 years	2	2,910	1,850	1,710	2,344	1,380	1,365	1,786	990	1,040	1,407	520	685	889	210	275
28 years	5	4,560	2,463	2,160	3,320	1,908	1,680	2,525	1,319	1,250	1,995	765	910	1,410	306	420
33 years	10	7,320	4,290	3,770	5,060	3,007	2,640	3,500	1,963	1,790	2,670	1,123	1,170	1,840	490	575
43 years	20	11,950	7,950	7,293	7,780	5,140	4,576	5,100	2,880	2,892	3,390	1,580	1,667	2,340	785	1,042
53 years	30	(1)	9,130	8,400	7,730	5,200	4,770	4,970	3,050	2,775	3,420	1,425	1,435	(1)	570	760
60 years	37	(1)	(1)	(1)	7,155	5,020	(2)	4,400	2,725	2,400	2,893	1,270	(2)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Engineering work—All engineers:																
23½ years	½	2,356	1,910	1,391	1,933	1,335	976	1,322	766	642	888	383	321	502	153	128
25 years	2	3,043	2,100	1,960	2,501	1,840	1,610	2,105	1,520	1,310	1,834	1,150	1,020	1,476	690	650
28 years	5	3,910	3,005	2,470	3,320	2,504	2,115	2,750	2,103	1,840	2,280	1,702	1,490	1,940	1,257	1,150
33 years	10	5,940	4,332	3,800	4,480	3,457	3,020	3,520	2,790	2,470	2,890	2,195	2,000	2,385	1,619	1,550
43 years	20	9,400	6,660	6,221	6,250	4,800	4,518	4,440	3,580	3,319	3,400	2,660	2,471	2,690	1,920	1,829
53 years	30	11,900	8,230	7,620	7,060	5,640	5,180	4,900	3,990	3,620	3,460	2,790	2,530	2,650	1,840	1,680
60 years	37	12,625	8,800	8,150	7,500	6,130	5,550	4,979	4,070	3,750	3,422	2,710	2,440	2,420	1,470	1,370
Engineering work—Graduates only:																
23½ years	½	2,165	1,826	1,311	1,858	1,243	939	1,168	716	617	862	358	309	449	143	123
25 years	2	2,992	2,100	1,940	2,477	1,840	1,610	2,095	1,510	1,310	1,831	1,150	1,015	1,493	690	650
28 years	5	4,030	3,021	2,470	3,360	2,521	2,110	2,800	2,128	1,840	2,375	1,751	1,505	2,010	1,310	1,170
33 years	10	6,100	4,415	3,860	4,660	3,546	3,110	3,680	2,885	2,530	3,040	2,299	2,110	2,495	1,728	1,640
43 years	20	10,350	7,100	6,542	6,620	5,140	4,863	4,770	3,865	3,540	3,600	2,890	2,655	2,910	2,060	1,966
53 years	30	12,500	8,820	8,100	7,620	5,980	5,560	5,270	4,320	3,910	3,780	3,030	2,710	2,960	1,980	1,790
60 years	37	13,516	9,400	8,850	7,955	6,400	5,980	5,590	4,580	4,150	3,760	3,080	2,690	2,624	1,710	1,460

		Percent of increase or decrease														
		1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34	1929–34	1929–32	1932–34
Nonengineering work—All engineers:																
23½ years	½	−44	−32	−18	−45	−37	−12	−50	−46	−9						
25 years	2	−41	−36	−8	−42	−41	−1	−42	−45	+5	−51	−63	+32	−69	−76	+31
28 years	5	−53	−46	−12	−48	−43	−12	−50	−48	−5	−54	−62	+19	−70	−78	+37
33 years	10	−48	−41	−12	−50	−41	−16	−49	−44	−9	−56	−58	+4	−69	−73	+17
43 years	20	−39	−33	−8	−41	−34	−11	−43	−44	(3)	−51	−53	+6	−55	−66	+33
53 years	30			−8	−38	−33	−8	−44	−39	−9	−58	−58	+1			+33
60 years	37					−30		−45	−38	−12		−56				

Engineering work—All engineers:																	
23½ years	½	−41	−19	−27	−50	−31	−27	−51	−42	−16							
25 years	2	−36	−31	−7	−36	−26	−13	−38	−28	−14	−44	−37	−11	−56	−53	−6	
28 years	5	−37	−23	−18	−36	−25	−16	−33	−24	−13	−35	−25	−12	−41	−35	−9	
33 years	10	−36	−27	−12	−33	−23	−13	−30	−21	−11	−31	−24	−9	−35	−32	−4	
43 years	20	−34	−29	−7	−28	−23	−6	−25	−19	−7	−27	−22	−7	−32	−29	−5	
53 years	30	−36	−31	−7	−27	−20	−8	−26	−19	−9	−27	−19	−9	−37	−31	−9	
60 years	37	−35	−30	−7	−26	−18	−9	−25	−18	−8	−29	−21	−10	−43	−39	−7	
Engineering work—Graduates only:																	
23½ years	½	−39	−16	−28	−49	−33	−24	−47	−39	−14							
25 years	2	−35	−30	−8	−35	−26	−13	−37	−28	−13	−45	−37	−12	−56	−54	−6	
28 years	5	−39	−25	−18	−37	−25	−16	−34	−24	−14	−37	−26	−14	−42	−35	−11	
33 years	16	−37	−28	−13	−33	−24	−12	−31	−22	−12	−31	−24	−8	−34	−31	−5	
43 years	20	−37	−31	−8	−27	−22	−5	−26	−19	−8	−26	−20	−8	−32	−29	−5	
53 years	30	−35	−29	−8	−27	−22	−7	−26	−18	−9	−28	−20	−11	−40	−33	−10	
60 years	37	−35	−30	−6	−25	−20	−7	−26	−18	−9	−28	−18	−13	−44	−35	−15	

[1] Between 50 and 100 engineers reported.
[2] Between 10 and 50 engineers reported.
[3] Less than 1 percent.

As far as the comparison of nonengineering and engineering earnings is concerned, this table merely reenforces the evidence already advanced as to the severe fall of income that occurred when engineers were forced out of the profession. However, the table sets forth more clearly than table 2 the picture of the fall of earnings from engineering. It was among those newcomers who were trying to force their way into the profession that the greatest fall of income occurred. Thus, average earnings in engineering in 1934, 2 years after graduation, were 37 percent less than in 1929. The earnings of those who had been out of college 10 years were 31 percent lower in 1934 than in 1929. At higher ages all groups averaged a decrease of 26 percent. A similar movement occurred in the level of earnings of the upper and lower 25 percent of those in engineering, but at the level of the upper 10 percent the declines were greater for the older engineers.

Income of Unemployed Engineers

In 1934 almost one-tenth of the reporting engineers were unemployed or on work relief at the end of the year. The low level of earnings of this group during 1934 contributed to lowering the average earnings of all engineers.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of 5 Levels of Earned Annual Income in 1932 and 1934, for all Engineers Reporting Unemployment, on an Age Basis*

[Without regard to type of education]

Age	Year of graduation	Years after graduation	Proportion earning more than specified amount				
			10 percent	25 percent	50 percent	75 percent	90 percent
			1932 income				
67 years and over	Prior to 1889	44 and over	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
59–66 years	1889–96	36–43	(2)	(2)	$720	(2)	(2)
51–58 years	1897–1904	28–35	$2,453	$1,477	793	$396	$159
43–50 years	1905–12	20–27	2,790	1,867	1,105	528	211
39–42 years	1913–16	16–19	2,497	1,574	1,008	494	198
35–38 years	1917–20	12–15	2,420	1,417	1,057	559	223
31–34 years	1921–24	8–11	2,150	1,416	932	462	185
29–30 years	1925–26	6–7	1,754	1,250	761	380	152
27–28 years	1927–28	4–5	1,690	1,178	751	375	150
26 years	1929	3	1,232	925	605	303	121
25 years	1930	2	1,280	907	581	290	116
24 years	1931	1	1,233	891	588	294	118
20–23 years	1932	0	(3)	754	503	251	(3)
			1934 income				
69 years and over	Prior to 1889	46 and over	(2)	(2)	$1,000	(2)	(2)
61–68 years	1889–96	38–45	(3)	$1,300	688	$344	(3)
53–60 years	1897–1904	30–37	$2,349	1,700	1,080	542	$217
45–52 years	1905–12	22–29	2,546	1,943	1,357	748	299
41–44 years	1913–16	18–21	2,151	1,730	1,357	867	353
37–40 years	1917–20	14–17	2,250	1,780	1,316	769	308
33–36 years	1921–24	10–13	1,959	1,634	1,304	836	340
31–32 years	1925–26	8–9	2,138	1,746	1,243	716	287
29–30 years	1927–28	6–7	1,796	1,495	1,045	546	219
28 years	1929	5	1,805	1,417	893	449	180
27 years	1930	4	1,638	1,374	948	534	214
26 years	1931	3	1,545	1,210	836	419	167
25 years	1932	2	1,548	1,200	716	358	143
24 years	1933	1	1,460	1,107	756	378	151
20–23 years	1934	0	1,257	881	571	285	114

[1] Less than 10 persons reported.
[2] Between 10 and 50 persons reported.
[3] Between 50 and 100 persons reported.

The distribution of the earnings of this group has significance only as indicating the income which a group, unemployed in December 1934, had earned in the preceding 12 months. Some were probably men who had had a few months' work at a good rate, and a long period of unemployment. Others may have worked quite steadily at a low rate and become recently unemployed. All were unemployed at the end of the year. They could look back on average earnings for the preceding 12 months of $700 to $950 if they were less than age 28, while those of 40 to 50 had averaged $1,350. Only about 10 percent of the unemployed, even though they were in those ages at which engineering earnings reach a peak, had made as much as $2,000 in the preceding 12 months. Ten percent had made less than $300 a year.

SALARIES OF SCHOOL EMPLOYEES, 1936–37

AN UPWARD trend in salaries in city school systems in 1936–37 in the United States is shown in the eighth biennial survey on this subject by the Research Division of the National Education Association. A summary of the findings of this inquiry is published in the March 1937 issue of the Research Bulletin of the organization. This recent rise in remuneration was especially marked in cities of over 100,000 in population where the medians in general for 1936–37 were above those of 1932–33.

Among the more substantial increases in median salaries in 1936–37, as compared with those in 1934–35, in cities having over 100,000 population were: 24.24 percent for part-time or continuation-school principals, 13.75 percent for junior-high-school deans, 13.02 percent for secretaries to boards of education, and 12.87 percent for heads of departments of high schools. However, even in these larger communities salaries are still under those of 1930–31 as recorded in the accompanying table giving the median salaries of various classes of school employees based on four biennial studies. This tabulation shows that the median salaries paid to almost all types of school employees declined from 1930–31 to 1932–33 and were reduced still further in 1934–35. In 1936–37, however, salaries were higher than in 1934–35, and in most instances above those of 1932–33. They are still considerably below those of 1930–31.

TABLE 1.—*Trends in Salaries of School Employees in Cities of Over 100,000 Population, 1930–31 to 1936–37*

Occupation	Median salary paid in—				Percent of change		
	1930–31	1932–33	1934–35	1936–37	1931–37	1933–37	1935–37
Classroom teachers:							
Kindergarten	$2,077	$1,909	$1,926	$2,045	−1.54	+7.12	+6.18
Elementary school	2,118	1,947	1,922	2,027	−4.30	+4.11	+5.46
Atypical classes	2,372	2,100	1,996	2,182	−8.01	+3.90	+9.32
Junior high school	2,348	2,204	2,078	2,303	−1.92	+4.49	+10.83
High school	2,731	2,479	2,436	2,551	−6.59	+2.90	+4.72
Part-time or continuation school	2,695	2,793	2,693	2,886	+7.09	+3.33	+7.17
Heads of departments in high school	3,436	3,008	2,913	3,288	−4.31	+9.31	+12.87
Deans:							
Junior high school	3,092	2,730	2,539	2,888	−6.60	+5.79	+13.75
High school	2,942	2,667	2,268	2,464	−16.25	−7.61	+8.64
Principals:							
Elementary school:							
Assistant principals	4,280	4,614	4,042	4,245	−.82	−8.00	+5.02
Teaching principals	2,436	2,184	2,135	2,207	−9.40	+1.05	+3.37
Supervising principals	3,519	3,102	3,016	3,225	−8.35	+3.97	+6.93
Junior high school:							
Assistant principals	3,496	2,899	2,850	3,106	−11.16	+7.14	+8.98
Principals	4,500	3,961	3,718	4,064	−9.69	+2.60	+9.31
High school:							
Assistant principals	5,544	3,647	3,453	3,569	−35.62	−2.14	+3.36
Principals	5,100	4,468	4,252	4,473	−12.29	+.11	+5.20
Part-time or continuation school: Principals	4,111	3,700	4,125	5,125	+24.67	+38.51	+24.24
Administrative and supervisory staff:							
Superintendents	10,000	8,267	7,288	7,825	−21.75	−5.35	+7.37
Associate, assistant, or deputy superintendents	6,527	5,672	5,578	5,645	−13.51	−.48	+1.20
Business managers	5,361	4,500	4,186	4,543	−15.26	+.96	+8.53
Directors, assistant directors, or supervisors of—							
Research, tests, and measurements	3,400	3,010	2,925	3,020	−11.18	+.33	+3.25
Vocational education	3,550	3,380	3,075	3,187	−10.23	−5.71	+3.64
Physical education	3,100	3,123	2,909	2,989	−3.58	−4.29	+2.75
Health	3,167	2,500	2,800	2,175	−31.32	−13.00	−22.32
Evening schools	-------	3,325	3,000	2,700	-------	−18.80	−10.00
Americanization classes	3,240	3,033	2,750	2,950	−8.95	−2.74	+7.27
Art	2,867	2,744	2,687	2,860	−.24	+4.23	+6.44
Music	2,909	2,825	2,569	2,813	−3.30	−.42	+9.50
Penmanship	2,933	2,789	2,727	2,907	−.89	+4.23	+6.60
Manual training or industrial arts	3,450	3,308	3,278	3,136	−9.10	−5.20	−4.33
Home economics	3,219	2,967	2,818	3,040	−5.56	+2.46	+7.88
Other school employees:							
Secretarial and clerical employees:							
Secretaries to superintendents	2,329	1,978	1,779	1,918	−17.65	−3.03	+7.81
Secretaries of boards of education	4,450	3,700	3,333	3,767	−15.35	+1.81	+13.02
Clerks in principals' offices	1,281	1,133	1,147	1,218	−4.92	+7.50	+6.19
Clerks in other administrative and supervisory offices	1,581	1,442	1,450	1,528	−3.35	+5.96	+5.38
Superintendents of buildings and grounds	4,267	3,400	3,109	3,156	−26.04	−7.18	+1.51
Head janitors	2,500	2,000	1,564	2,657	+6.28	+32.85	+69.88
Janitors	1,541	1,265	1,211	1,297	−15.83	+2.53	+7.10
Head nurses	2,138	2,029	1,875	1,943	−9.12	−4.24	+3.63
Nurses	1,715	1,611	1,512	1,706	−.52	+5.90	+12.83
Chief attendance officers	3,125	2,783	2,530	2,767	−11.46	−.57	+9.37
Attendance officers	2,078	1,971	1,888	2,063	−.72	+4.67	+9.27

From table 2 comparisons may be made of the median and mean salaries of kindergarten and elementary-school teachers and junior and senior high-school teachers in cities of over 100,000 population in 1936–37. Marked differences are shown in the remuneration paid in the various communities, the median salaries of elementary school teachers ranging from $1,038 in Jacksonville, Fla., to $3,127 in New York City, and of senior-high-school teachers from $1,238 in El Paso, Tex., to $4,000+ in New York City.

TABLE 2.—*Median and Mean Salaries of Specified Groups of Teachers, in Cities of Over 100,000 Population, in 1936–37*

City	Kindergarten teachers		Elementary-school teachers		Junior high-school teachers [1]		Senior high-school teachers [2]	
	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean
Birmingham, Ala			$1,485	$1,483			$1,811	$1,716
Long Beach, Calif	$1,975	$1,941	2,107	2,055	$2,525	$2,441	2,521	2,401
Los Angeles, Calif	2,202	2,031	2,219	2,118	2,675	2,569	2,773	2,591
Oakland, Calif	2,345	2,264	2,363	2,330	2,623	2,485	2,638	2,509
San Diego, Calif	1,945	1,850	1,969	1,964			2,341	2,217
San Francisco, Calif	2,225	2,121	2,527	2,357	2,405	2,378	3,204	2,919
Denver, Colo	2,096	2,154	2,238	2,160	2,524	2,320	2,540	2,358
Bridgeport, Conn	1,422	1,505	1,630	1,610	1,906	1,752	1,950	1,874
Hartford, Conn	1,888	1,752	1,930	1,832	1,994	1,966	2,963	2,881
New Haven, Conn	1,822	1,739	1,858	1,832	2,100	2,074	2,462	2,495
Wilmington, Del	1,500	1,483	1,912	1,688	1,800	1,666	1,991	1,998
Washington, D. C	2,246	2,225	2,234	2,156	2,444	2,403	2,841	2,785
Jacksonville, Fla			1,038	1,053	1,184	1,194	1,293	1,283
Miami, Fla			1,350	1,362	1,390	1,401	1,535	1,521
Tampa, Fla			1,203	1,169	1,225	1,204	1,280	1,261
Atlanta, Ga	1,314	1,326	1,398	1,361	1,756	1,648	1,798	1,719
Chicago, Ill	1,913	1,913	1,913	1,864			2,813	2,649
Peoria, Ill	1,500	1,415	1,500	1,480	1,594	1,581	1,968	2,000
Evansville, Ind	1,400	1,346	1,739	1,670			2,123	2,026
Fort Wayne, Ind	1,550	1,605	1,701	1,577			2,176	2,143
Gary, Ind	1,480	1,525	1,429	1,446			2,022	2,019
Indianapolis, Ind			1,839	1,790			2,332	2,154
South Bend, Ind	1,525	1,382	1,603	1,542	1,756	1,682	2,069	1,992
Des Moines, Iowa	1,777	1,763	1,732	1,728	1,827	1,829	1,987	1,982
Kansas City, Kans	1,350	1,350	1,520	1,428	1,723	1,655	2,138	2,020
Wichita, Kans	1,310	1,358	1,676	1,616	1,746	1,717	1,759	1,692
Louisville, Ky	1,642	1,538	1,431	1,435	1,658	1,661	2,109	2,089
New Orleans, La	1,210	1,200	1,344	1,316			1,843	1,712
Baltimore, Md	1,692	1,708	1,615	1,641	1,886	1,807	2,347	2,294
Boston, Mass	1,943	1,920	2,331	2,229	2,446	2,434	3,074	3,140
Fall River, Mass			1,351	1,346	1,652	1,673	1,819	1,749
Lowell, Mass	1,500	1,482	1,700	1,700			2,258	2,321
Lynn, Mass			1,900	1,811	2,141	2,123	2,367	2,429
New Bedford, Mass	1,533	1,456	1,547	1,535	1,908	1,908	2,242	2,183
Somerville, Mass	1,600	1,620	1,982	1,824	1,994	1,893	2,138	2,113
Springfield, Mass	2,079	1,956	2,032	1,895	2,299	2,238	2,794	2,712
Worcester, Mass	2,000	1,971	2,053	2,035	2,519	2,432	2,772	2,841
Detroit, Mich	2,281	2,138	2,344	2,171	2,849	2,822	2,857	2,815
Flint, Mich	1,469	1,470	1,453	1,424	1,583	1,587	1,759	1,734
Grand Rapids, Mich	1,530	1,433	1,533	1,463	1,832	1,773	1,858	1,842
Duluth, Minn	1,343	1,386	1,389	1,428	1,712	1,668	1,912	1,741
Minneapolis, Minn	1,963	1,857	2,118	1,998	2,113	2,010	2,306	2,154
St. Paul, Minn	1,544	1,532	1,544	1,521	2,088	1,969	2,115	2,037
Kansas City, Mo	1,630	1,599	1,670	1,672	1,980	1,954	2,185	2,190
St. Louis, Mo	2,538	2,429	2,514	2,196			3,161	3,062
Omaha, Nebr	1,528	1,441	1,523	1,429			1,800	1,653
Camden, N. J	1,615	1,610	1,720	1,624	2,000	1,898	2,238	2,154
Elizabeth, N. J	1,975	1,820	1,845	1,769	2,027	2,050	2,400	2,394
Jersey City, N. J	1,350	1,440	1,884	2,020	3,163	2,465	2,983	2,627
Newark, N. J	2,769	2,677	2,566	2,548	2,192	2,520	3,055	3,064
Paterson, N. J	2,100	2,050	1,875	1,766			2,250	2,113
Trenton, N. J	1,683	1,646	1,753	1,638	1,996	1,931	2,572	2,458
Albany, N. Y	1,957	1,936	1,989	2,016	2,376	2,384	2,400	2,400
Buffalo, N. Y	2,000	1,954	2,052	2,036			2,459	2,365
New York, N. Y	3,124	2,918	3,127	2,967	3,534	3,389	4,000+	3,627
Rochester, N. Y	2,182	2,181	2,097	2,081			2,678	2,666
Syracuse, N. Y	2,000	2,000	2,000	1,986	2,400	2,330	2,400	2,400
Utica, N. Y	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,093	2,086	2,444	2,373
Yonkers, N. Y	2,879	2,803	2,892	2,799	3,479	3,196	3,740	3,378
Akron, Ohio			1,780	1,630			1,883	1,834

[1] Excludes teachers in pre-vocational schools.

[2] Excludes teachers in vocational schools.

TABLE 2.—*Median and Mean Salaries of Specified Groups of Teachers, in Cities of Over 100,000 Population, in 1936–37*—Continued

City	Kindergarten teachers		Elementary-school teachers		Junior high-school teachers		Senior high-school teachers	
	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean
Canton, Ohio			$1,516	$1,373			$1,958	$1,809
Cincinnati, Ohio	$2,129	$2,116	2,329	2,228	$2,492	$2,319	2,661	2,590
Cleveland, Ohio	2,046	1,828	2,138	2,058	2,386	2,164	2,863	2,651
Columbus, Ohio			1,735	1,663	2,234	2,118	2,240	2,160
Dayton, Ohio			1,481	1,421	1,725	1,656	2,117	1,928
Toledo, Ohio	1,943	1,901	1,922	1,793	2,074	2,072	2,340	2,247
Youngstown, Ohio			1,731	1,617	2,093	2,136	2,679	2,481
Oklahoma City, Okla	1,364	1,503	1,387	1,507	1,353	1,476	1,892	1,813
Tulsa, Okla	1,550	1,535	1,783	1,709	1,825	1,824	1,895	1,941
Portland, Oreg	1,092	1,296	1,760	1,770			1,930	1,847
Erie, Pa	1,850	1,758	1,851	1,766	2,125	2,063	2,282	2,244
Philadelphia, Pa			2,200	2,117	2,800	2,721	3,246	3,147
Pittsburgh, Pa	2,236	2,129	2,233	2,125	2,732	2,671	3,278	3,331
Reading, Pa	1,400	1,500	1,929	1,819	2,097	2,059	2,335	2,309
Scranton, Pa	1,640	1,586	1,864	1,875	2,200	2,020	2,200	2,031
Providence, R. I	2,013	1,687	1,840	1,649	2,298	1,973	2,545	2,246
Knoxville, Tenn			1,023	1,124	1,281	1,305	1,522	1,511
Memphis, Tenn			1,370	1,318	1,423	1,354	1,719	1,652
Nashville, Tenn			1,266	1,271	1,346	1,345	1,700	1,700
Dallas, Tex			1,668	1,558	1,723	1,662	2,227	2,119
El Paso, Tex	1,067	1,100	1,106	1,128			1,238	1,279
Fort Worth, Tex	1,350	1,255	1,405	1,276	1,405	1,350	1,716	1,570
Houston, Tex	1,533	1,469	1,838	1,795	1,817	1,766	2,169	2,016
San Antonio, Tex			1,473	1,463	1,608	1,562	1,659	1,662
Salt Lake City, Utah	1,367	1,327	1,610	1,501			1,839	1,681
Norfolk, Va			1,302	1,197	1,445	1,405	1,683	1,609
Richmond, Va			1,800	1,715	2,103	2,019	2,224	2,141
Seattle, Wash	1,993	1,954	2,093	2,050	2,337	2,243	2,381	2,283
Spokane, Wash			1,790	1,767	1,956	1,893	2,009	1,959
Tacoma, Wash			1,800	1,769	1,931	1,817	2,005	1,921
Milwaukee, Wis	2,426	2,273	2,440	2,373	2,435	2,330	2,646	2,652

Salaries of Rural Teachers

Annual median or mean salaries paid to teachers in rural communities[1] in 33 States are also published in the National Education Association Research Bulletin of March 1937. The survey, however, upon which the findings are based was much less comprehensive than that of the city school systems. In 1936–37 in Mississippi the mean annual salary for all rural Negro teachers was as low as $150, and the highest rural mean annual salary—$1,309—was reported for all teachers in New York in towns having less than 4,500 population, as shown in table 3.

[1] The term "rural community" as here used is not in every case defined in strict accordance with the census classification, namely, "with a population of less than 2,500."

TABLE 3.—*Salaries Paid Rural Teachers in 33 States*[1]

State, year, and group of teachers	Annual salary
Alabama (1934–35):	
Elementary teachers:	*Mean*
White	$531.00
Negro	225.00
High-school teachers:	
White	823.00
Negro	443.00
All teachers:	
White	621.00
Negro	249.00
Arkansas (1935–36):	
Elementary teachers:	
Men, white	422.00
Women, white	429.00
Men, Negro	325.00
Women, Negro	240.00
High-school teachers:	
Men, white	694.00
Women, white	533.00
Men, Negro	666.00
Women, Negro	360.00
Connecticut (1936–37):	
Elementary teachers:	
Men	1,109.00
Women	1,105.00
High-school teachers:	
Men	1,456.00
Women	1,344.00
Delaware (1936–37):	
Elementary teachers:	*Median*
White	1,225.00
Negro	1,178.00
Both races	1,218.00
Secondary teachers:	
White	1,445.00
Negro	1,250.00
Both races	1,440.00
All teachers:	
White	1,280.00
Negro	1,190.00
Both races	1,267.00
Georgia (1935–36):	
Elementary teachers:	*Mean*
White	605.19
Negro	246.03
High-school teachers:	
White	1,008.74
Negro	605.95
Indiana (1935–36):	*Median*
All rural teachers	912.69
Iowa (1936–37):	
1- 2- and 3-room schools: All teachers	516.00
Kansas (1934–35):	
1-teacher elementary schools:	*Mean*
Men	463.00
Women	452.00
2-or-more-teacher schools (elementary only):	
Men	654.00
Women	628.00
2-or-more-teacher schools (both elementary and high schools):	
Men (elementary)	720.00
Women (elementary)	667.00
Men (junior high school)	832.00
Women (junior high school)	711.00
Men (high school)	1,003.00
Women (high school)	877.00
Rural high schools:	
Men	1,011.00
Women	863.00
Louisiana (1935–36):	
Elementary teachers:	*Median*
White	$755.67
Negro	288.59
High-school teachers:	
White	1,127.07
Negro	536.67
Maryland (1936–37):[2]	
Elementary teachers, white:	*Mean*
1-teacher schools	1,098.00
2-teacher schools	1,170.00
3-or-more-teacher schools	1,282.00
All elementary	1,248.00
Elementary teachers, Negro	646.00
High-school teachers:	
White	1,474.00
Negro	812.00
Massachusetts (1936):	
Elementary teachers:[3]	
Men	1,356.00
Women	1,112.00
Junior high school:[3]	
Men	1,897.00
Women	1,393.00
Michigan (1934–35): All teachers	670.54
Minnesota (1935–36):	
All teachers:	*Median*
Men	536.00
Women	488.00
Both sexes	488.00
Mississippi (1936–37):	
All teachers:	*Mean*
White	458.00
Negro	150.00
Missouri (1935–36):	
Rural teachers:	
Men, white	496.00
Women, white	456.00
Men, Negro	379.00
Women, Negro	348.00
Elementary teachers (town districts):	
Men, white	706.00
Women, white	587.00
Men, Negro	627.00
Women, Negro	513.00
High-school teachers:	
Men, white	948.00
Women, white	775.00
Men, Negro	812.00
Women, Negro	729.00
Nebraska (1936–37): 1- and 2-teacher schools	*Median* 479.78
Nevada (1936–37): All teachers	*Mean* 1,117.00
New Hampshire (1935–36): All teachers	*Range of medians* 750.00 to 849.00
New Jersey (1935–36):	*Mean*
1-room rural schools:	
Men	1,153.00
Women	997.00
2-room rural schools:	
Men	1,106.00
Women	1,093.00
New Mexico (1935–36): All teachers	779.00
New York (1934–35): All teachers	1,309.43

[1] The United States census classifies as rural communities with a population of less than 2,500. The term "rural" as used in this table is not in every instance defined in strict accordance with the census classification.

[2] All schools under county superintendents. Although there are cities in some of the counties, the salary schedule prevails throughout each county for all schools whether in cities or rural territory.

[3] Includes principals and supervisors.

TABLE 3.—*Salaries Paid Rural Teachers in 33 States*—Continued

State, year, and group of teachers	Annual salary
North Dakota (1935–36):	*Mean*
1-room rural schools	$454.53
Graded and consolidated schools in open country	611.25
Graded and consolidated schools in towns	800.22
Ohio (1936): All teachers	1,046.68
Pennsylvania (1935–36):	*Median*
Elementary schools	886.00
Junior high schools	1,260.00
All other high schools	1,215.00
All teachers	932.00
South Dakota (1935–36):	
Elementary schools:	*Mean*
Men	511.77
Women	473.45
Tennessee (1935–36):	
Elementary teachers:	
Men, white	571.04
Women, white	571.20
Men, Negro	508.73
Women, Negro	333.41
High-school teachers:	
Men, white	1,014.00
Women, white	824.88
Men, Negro	627.52
Women, Negro	495.04
Texas (1935–36):	
All schools:	
Men, white	893.00
Women, white	743.00
Texas (1935–36)—Continued	
All schools—Continued.	*Mean*
Men, Negro	$569.00
Women, Negro	435.00
Vermont (1936–37):	
Rural teachers	645.00
Elementary teachers	946.49
High-school teachers	1,286.62
All teachers	918.91
Virginia (1935–36):	
Elementary teachers:	
White	592.00
Negro	378.00
Both races	535.00
High-school teachers:	
White	818.00
Negro	523.00
Both races	788.00
All teachers:	
White	649.00
Negro	391.00
Both races	588.00
Washington (1936–37):	
Elementary teachers:	
Men	790.06
Women	774.92
West Virginia (1936–37): All teachers	1,027.00
Wisconsin (1935–36): All teachers	*Median* 671.77
Wyoming (1935–36): All teachers	*Mean* 630.91

WAGES AND HOURS IN LOCK AND WOOD-SCREW INDUSTRIES, CONNECTICUT

THE MEDIAN hourly earnings of workers employed in the lock and wood-screw industries in Connecticut in 1936 amounted to 48.5 cents. The median hours per week were 44.2, and the median weekly earnings were $21.15. These figures are shown in a recent report of the Department of Labor of Connecticut.

The report covers such topics as composition of the labor force, personnel practices, hours and earnings of the various classes of employees, variations in hourly earnings between shops, present wage rates as compared with N. R. A. code minima, and a comparison of earnings with living costs. The report was based upon a study of 10 Connecticut plants manufacturing wood screws, padlocks, cabinet locks, door locks, luggage locks, and certain similar articles, the data reported being for a week during November or December 1936.

Labor Force and Personnel Practices

Male workers predominated in the composition of the labor force in the plants covered; 70 percent, or 2,971 of the 4,223 employees included, were men and boys.

The workers, with the exception of a few office employees, were paid chiefly by the hour or the piece. Three plants reported having a mutual-benefit association or group-insurance scheme, whereby members received sick benefits. In four factories, piece workers were paid for all time lost during the working day through delays over which the worker had no control. Only two plants reported an increased rate for overtime work, the remaining eight plants paying the regular hourly or piece rate for work in excess of normal hours. Only salaried employees received vacations with pay.

Seven firms reported minimum entrance rates. In each instance, however, these were lower for women than for men (women 28 to 35 cents per hour and men 32 to 40 cents per hour).

Hours and Earnings of Various Classes of Employees

Hourly earnings were distributed over a wide range, from as low as 18 cents for some untrained office workers, to more than a dollar for highly skilled model makers. Nearly 15 percent of the workers earned less than 40 cents per hour, about 59 percent earned 40 and less than 60 cents, 15 percent earned 60 and less than 70 cents, and about 11 percent 70 cents and over.

As to weekly earnings, the greatest concentration was between $15 and $25, a little over 60 percent of all employees coming within this range. Exactly 2 percent earned less than $10 per week, and nearly 4 percent had weekly earnings of $35 and over.

According to the report, there was very little part-time work in the plants, as only 10.6 percent of the workers averaged less than 40 hours per week. Nearly 78 percent had a workweek of 40 and less than 50 hours, 10 percent worked from 50 to 60 hours, and 1.5 percent 60 hours and over.

The report also shows a marked difference between the earnings of men and women. The median hourly pay of male workers was 54.1 cents—29 percent higher than the 42-cent figure for females, while the difference in median weekly earnings was 36 percent, men being paid $23.78 and women $17.52. About 89 percent of the females earned less than 50 cents per hour, while but 38 percent of the males earned less than that amount. Weekly earnings of 78.4 percent of the women were less than $20 but only 28.4 percent of the men earned less than this amount. The median hours of work were practically the same for both sexes, or 44.4 and 43.7 for males and females respectively.

The report suggests that probably the chief reason why male employees received higher pay than females was that males "tended to perform semiskilled or highly skilled jobs, while girls and women usually did unskilled or, at most, semiskilled work."

By occupation, the median hourly earnings for females varied from a low of 38.5 cents for factory clerks to a high of 42.6 cents for bench assemblers. Median weekly earnings for females ranged from $16.38 for bench hands to $18.34 for bench assemblers. In the male occupations, the range in median hourly earnings was from a low of 40 cents for night watchmen to a high of 80.5 cents for die makers; and the range in median weekly earnings was from $18 for shaver- and slotter-machine operators to $34 for tool makers and die makers.

Variations in Hourly Earnings Between Shops

A wide variation was found in the median hourly earnings for the various establishments. Average wage rates in the highest-paid plant (52.1 cents) were 30 percent above those in the lowest (40 cents). The report suggests that these wage differentials may reflect differences in operating efficiency, and to some extent in wage policy, between factories. The report also showed a close correlation between size of shop and hourly earnings. Plants of less than 100 workers (with but two exceptions) had the lowest hourly earnings, and plants of 500 or more employees had the highest earnings.

Present Wage Rates as Compared With N. R. A. Code Minima

Although the N. R. A. code required a higher minimum for men than for women (40 cents as compared with 35 cents per hour) in the fabricated-metal industry, nevertheless more women than men are now employed at less than the minimum wage. While the great majority of employees were paid as much per hour as the N. R. A. required, certain shops were found to have abandoned code standards and made wholesale wage cuts. In one shop, 39 percent of the employees received less than the N. R. A. code minimum wages.

Of all employees included in the survey, 6.4 percent received less than the code minimum, ranging from 2.2 percent of the employees in one plant to 38.7 percent of the employees in another plant. By sex, 4.4 percent of the males and 11.2 percent of the females received less than the minimum, and in one small plant, the report shows, 33.3 percent of the males and 47.8 percent of the females had been reduced below the code standard.

Comparison of Earnings With Living Costs

"The general inadequacy of wages in the industry is shown when the average weekly pay of $21.15 is compared with the cost of living. On the basis of Government figures, it is estimated that at the time this study was made, a wage earner's family of five persons, in Hartford, Conn., had to spend $2,031, and in New Haven $1,974, during a year, to secure the essentials for health and decency. Although the

factories included in this study were located in smaller communities, it is doubtful whether living costs there differed greatly from those in New Haven or Hartford. If an employee worked for 50 weeks in the year, his weekly pay would have to average $40.63 in Hartford and $39.49 in New Haven to allow him to meet the necessary expenses for himself and four members of his family."

WAGES AND COST OF LIVING IN THE PHILIPPINES, 1936

THE AVERAGE daily wage of a laborer in the Philippines excluding Manila was 0.70 peso,[1] according to a special survey in 1936 [2] by the Department of Labor of the islands. The same investigation showed a range of daily wages for common laborers in the Provinces from 0.46 peso in the Province of Abra to 1.21 pesos in Cavite, and for skilled laborers from 0.63 peso in Albay to 1.97 pesos in the mining district of Mountain Province. In Manila the wages of common and skilled laborers covered in the survey ranged from 0.53 and 0.67 peso to 1.20 and 1.99 pesos, respectively.

The wages prevailing in the Philippines are also indicated by the following typical rates offered to applicants at the employment agencies of the Commonwealth's Bureau of Labor in 1936:

		Pesos
Carpenters	per day	1. 00– 1. 80
Chauffeurs	per month	20. 00–30. 00
Clerks	do	20. 00
Cooks	do	12. 00–20. 00
Electricians	per day	1. 00– 1. 50
Gardeners	per month	7. 00–10. 00
Houseboys	do	5. 00– 8. 00
Housegirls	do	5. 00– 8. 00
Laundrymen	do	15. 00
Laundrywomen	do	10. 00
Laborers	per day	0. 60– 1. 20

The following analysis of the daily cost of living of families of five persons, supported by common and skilled laborers, in the Provinces and in Manila, is based on a special survey of family budgets in relation to wages, made by the Philippine Department of Labor. The investigation in the Provinces included 1,978 common and 1,932 skilled laborers. The coverage of the Manila survey is not reported.

[1] Peso=50 cents in United States currency.

[2] Findings published in Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor (of the Commonwealth of the Philippines), Manila, 1937, pp. 12–13.

Daily Cost of Living of a Family of Five in Manila and in the Philippine Provinces, 1936

[Peso=50 cents in United States currency]

Items in budget	Manila		Provinces	
	Common laborer's family	Skilled laborer's family	Common laborer's family	Skilled laborer's family
	Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Food	0. 593	0. 690	0. 739	0. 79
Shelter	. 161	. 152	. 006	. 011
Clothing	. 077	. 095	. 041	. 052
Fuel and light	. 064	. 084	. 036	. 042
Miscellaneous	. 182	. 213	. 176	. 217
Total	1. 077	1. 235	. 998	1. 112

In the family budgets for the Provinces the expenditures for food represented approximately three-fourths of the total cost, while the expenditures for miscellaneous items considerably exceeded the outlay for the remaining items of the budget—shelter, clothing, fuel and light—combined. As a matter of fact, most of the laborers in the Provinces own their own homes. Furthermore fuel is cheap and it can be gathered without cost. Clothing is not an important item, as the climate is equable. The miscellaneous items, however, constitute an expensive group, including education of the children, medicines, etc.

As indicated in the above table, the cost of living in Manila is somewhat higher than in the Provinces. However, the proportion of the budget reported for food was less than in the Provinces, being 55.0 percent for the common laborer's family and 55.9 percent for the skilled laborer's family. A larger proportion of the budget of the common laborer's family was expended for rent—15 percent—as compared to 12.3 percent of the skilled laborer's family expenditures.

WAGES OF UNSKILLED FARM WORKERS IN DENMARK

A NEW collective agreement was recently concluded, covering nearly 15,000 members of the landworkers' group of the Danish union of unskilled workers.[1]

Farm servants under 20 years of age, who are given board and lodging, are to receive a minimum rate of 645 kroner [2] yearly instead of 560 kroner; those over 20 years of age receive a minimum wage of 760 kroner as against 660 kroner. The minimum wage for farm servants who also are cattlemen was set at 890 kroner and if they do milking, at 1,080 kroner per year.

[1] Bulletin of the International Landworkers' Federation, Copenhagen, June 1937, p. 6.

[2] Average exchange rate of krone (100 øre) in April 1937=21.9 cents.

Hourly wages of forest workers were increased from 70 to 80 øre. The wages for piece work were increased 6 percent, effective immediately, with a further increase of 3 percent in 1938. Of other increases provided for, the most important were as follows:

	Increase per day (in øre)
Married landworkers	40
In harvest season	50
Unmarried landworkers	20
In harvest season	30
Women:	
In summer	30
In winter	25

The term of the agreement is 2 years, but notice can be given on May 1, 1938, if the cost-of-living index rises 6 points in 1937 from the time the agreement was signed, or if the surplus of the agricultural capital is increased by at least 1 percent.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN CHEMICAL INDUSTRY IN JAPAN, NOVEMBER 1936

WAGES IN THE chemical industry in Japan declined from 1931 to 1934, but a slight rise occurred in 1935, and in 1936 the upward trend seems to have been somewhat accelerated. This information is given in a report recently issued by the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.[1] It is stated in the same source that the average daily wages in November 1936, in various chemical groups in Japan were as low as 0.57 [2] yen for female workers in match factories, and as much as 2.20 yen for male operators in ammonium-sulphate plants. These figures were compiled by the Japanese Department of Commerce and Industry. The average daily wage for 8 groups was 1.60 yen, as compared with 1.55 yen in November, 1935. These wages do not include the indirect labor costs, which were estimated as adding approximately 50 percent to the nominal wage scale in the chemical industry.

The report points out the fact that the inclusion of the match industry, in which so many low-paid females work, unduly reduces the average for the chemical industry. Excluding the match industry, the average nominal wage per day in November 1936 for the chemical groups was 1.84 yen. The estimated indirect labor charges increased this amount to 2.75 yen.

[1] Trade Promotion Series No. 169: World Chemical Developments in 1936, by C. C. Concannon and A. H. Swift. Washington, 1937.

[2] Average exchange rate of yen in November 1936=28.6 cents; in November 1935=28.7 cents.

In November 1936 the average daily hours of labor in the Japanese chemical industry ranged from 9.38 for female workers in match factories to 11.09 for male workers in mills in which foreign-style paper is produced. The average hours for 8 chemical groups were 10.25—an almost negligible decrease from 10.27 hours in November 1935.

WAGES IN SWITZERLAND, 1936

THE REDUCTION in the average earnings of Swiss workers which started in 1931 was continued from 1935 to 1936, when both hourly and daily earnings were below the averages for 1935, according to the annual report of wages in certain industries made by the Federal Bureau of Industry, Arts and Trades, and Labor. These wage statistics [1] are secured from workers injured in industrial accidents. The reports for 1936 covered 56,325 injured workers, of whom 43,260 reported hourly earnings, and 13,065 daily earnings. No average was computed for the different classes in an industry unless at least 50 reports were received for the particular class.

The purchasing power of wages, based on the Swiss cost-of-living index, decreased more in 1936 than the nominal wage. The daily and hourly wages of the principal classes of workers were from 2 percent to 4 percent lower in 1936 than in 1935, while the cost-of-living index increased from 128.2 in 1935 to 130.4 in 1936, or 1.7 percent.

The following table shows the average daily and hourly earnings reported for the different classes of workers in the various industries in 1936.

[1] La Vie Économique, Berne, June 1937, pp. 294–296, 317–320.

Average Daily and Hourly Earnings of Workers in Specified Industries in Switzerland in 1936

[Average exchange rate of Swiss franc for 1936 was 30.2 cents]

Industry	Foremen and master workmen	Skilled and semi-skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Women 18 years of age and over	Young persons under 18 years of age
	Average daily earnings				
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Metals and machines	16.58	10.71	10.03	----------	----------
Building	16.59	12.28	10.99	----------	----------
Wood	15.28	9.14	7.60	----------	----------
Textiles	13.69	11.01	8.62	6.06	3.27
Watches	----------	10.70	----------	----------	----------
Stone and earth	----------	11.44	8.50	----------	----------
Shoes	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------
Paper	----------	12.64	----------	----------	----------
Graphic arts	----------	15.51	8.88	6.11	----------
Chemicals	16.77	13.43	11.38	----------	----------
Food, drink, and tobacco	17.48	14.10	11.70	5.58	----------
Conveyances	----------	10.94	9.89	----------	----------
Commercial establishments	----------	13.25	11.29	8.03	----------
Electric light and power	19.19	15.58	12.12	----------	----------
Gas and water	----------	16.91	13.75	----------	----------
Mining and quarrying	----------	9.76	7.02	----------	----------
Forestry	----------	9.07	7.05	----------	----------
Average, all occupations	16.15	12.12	9.51	6.11	4.11
	Average hourly earnings				
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Metals and machines	1.59	1.33	1.08	0.70	0.45
Building	1.56	1.39	1.02	----------	.67
Wood	1.45	1.23	.92	.62	.44
Textiles	1.29	1.06	.92	.68	.43
Watches	----------	1.30	.96	.76	.48
Stone and earth	----------	1.24	1.03	----------	----------
Shoes	----------	1.21	----------	.72	.45
Paper	----------	1.29	1.03	.65	.41
Graphic arts	----------	1.92	1.16	.75	----------
Chemicals	----------	1.46	1.23	.73	----------
Food, drink, and tobacco	----------	1.44	1.26	.66	.48
Conveyances	----------	----------	1.16	----------	----------
Commercial establishments	----------	1.26	1.19	----------	----------
Electric light and power	----------	1.47	1.18	----------	----------
Gas and water	----------	1.75	1.41	----------	----------
Mining and quarrying	----------	1.21	.94	----------	----------
Forestry	----------	.95	.85	----------	----------
Average, all occupations	1.52	1.33	1.03	.69	.48

Employment Offices

OPERATIONS OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, JULY 1937

CONTINUING a decline almost uninterrupted since October, the active file of the United States Employment Service fell during July below the 5-million mark for the first time in the history of the Service.

On July 31 there were 4,938,998 active applicants—1.5 percent less than at the end of June and 26.7 percent less than in July 1936. Actually, there were some 1,800,000 fewer people seeking work through the Employment Service in July than there were a year earlier, and 2,620,000 fewer than there were 2 years earlier.

The decline in the active file from June to July, though slight, ran counter to the experience of 1935 and 1936, in both of which the active file was larger in July than in June. This is further evidence of the extent to which general expansion of industry and trade is reflected in the decrease in the number of active registrants.

The decline was general throughout sections of the country except the East North Central region, where the active file increased by 1 percent. Decreases in the other regions ranged from 0.2 percent in the South Atlantic to a maximum of 5.4 percent in the Mountain States.

During July the Service placed 207,588 persons in jobs in private industry. This, though 7.6 percent less than private placements in June, still represented an increase of 76 percent over July 1936. The decline from the June figure was more pronounced among women than among men: private placements of men numbered 136,526, only 3.5 percent less than in June, and 93 percent more than in July 1936; while placements of women were 71,062, 14.5 percent fewer than in June and 50 percent greater than in the preceding July.

The decrease in private placements was not uniform among various regions. Six recorded decreases ranging from 1 percent in the West South Central to 33.5 percent in the East South Central. On the other hand, private placements increased slightly in the West North Central, Mountain, and Pacific regions.

The Service also filled 129,573 jobs in public employment, most of them on Government construction projects. Because of the reduced number of such projects undertaken, public placements were 9.6

percent fewer in July than in June, and only half as numerous as in July 1936. Virtually all of these jobs were filled by men.

Security-wage placements on relief projects, which played so important a part in the activities of the Service in 1935 and 1936, declined during July to a little over 4,000, or less than a tenth as many as in the preceding year. Largely as a result of this decline, total placements were 22 percent below the figure for July 1936, although only 8.7 percent less than the total for June 1937.

New applicants to the service during July numbered 295,219. This was 12.6 percent smaller than the number for June (and 25.6 percent below July 1936), although larger than the registration of new applicants in any other month of 1937. The increase in June and July, compared to the preceding 5 months, probably represents the registrations of young people just out of school and in search of work.

Total applications—new applications plus renewals of applications that had become inactive—totaled 664,299, practically the same as in June but 21 percent fewer than in July 1936. Contrary to the trend in new applications, renewals were 11.8 percent more numerous in July than in June, although 16.6 percent below the figure for the preceding July.

The trend of services to war veterans was in general similar to the trend for nonveteran males, except that the decline in the active file of veterans was fractionally greater, and the decline in placements also somewhat greater. Services to veterans in the employment offices during July are summarized in the following table.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Veterans' Activities, July 1937*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		June 1937	July 1936	July 1935
New applications	8,855	−6.0	−22.3	−76.5
Total placements [1]	20,010	−8.9	−23.2	−35.4
Private	9,994	−8.7	+130.0	+54.9
Public	9,696	−8.8	−48.6	−56.9
Active file	265,165	−2.5	−30.7	−45.3

[1] Includes 320 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Operations of U. S. Employment Service, July 1937*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		June 1937	July 1936	July 1935
New applications	295,219	−12.6	−25.6	−65.8
Total placements [1]	341,353	−8.7	−22.1	+20.3
Private	207,588	−7.6	+76.1	+96.8
Public	129,573	−9.6	−50.5	−15.7
Active file	4,938,998	−1.5	−26.7	−34.7

[1] Includes 4,192 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of U. S. Employment Service, July 1937*

TOTAL

Division and State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total		Private		Public		Number	Percent of change from June	July 31	Percent of change from June 30
	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June				
United States	[1] 341,353	[1] −8.7	207,588	−7.6	129,573	−9.6	295,219	−12.6	4,938,998	−1.5
New England	11,649	−14.8	7,108	−8.7	4,506	−22.8	14,703	−22.4	395,857	−3.5
Maine	1,807	−23.3	523	+24.2	1,284	−33.7	1,264	−18.0	16,817	−19.7
New Hampshire	1,231	−4.6	758	+2.2	473	−13.8	1,079	−24.6	17,759	−.6
Vermont	1,353	−9.3	835	+10.7	513	−30.3	833	−4.1	4,260	+41.8
Massachusetts	2,949	−14.8	1,837	−13.7	1,092	−17.8	5,005	−21.8	271,896	−5.2
Rhode Island	1,123	−12.2	807	−13.4	306	−.6	1,595	−23.8	36,675	+.4
Connecticut	3,186	−15.8	2,348	−16.4	838	−14.3	4,927	−25.4	48,450	+7.1
Middle Atlantic	45,985	−10.7	27,892	−11.3	16,838	−6.1	50,486	−7.0	1,260,630	−3.1
New York	25,400	−1.2	16,684	−7.3	8,525	+12.0	22,857	+7.3	322,327	−10.4
New Jersey	4,982	−18.2	4,139	−20.4	840	−3.2	8,065	−17.5	178,409	−3.5
Pennsylvania	15,603	−20.7	7,069	−14.3	7,473	−20.9	19,564	−15.8	759,894	+.5
East North Central	72,380	−11.1	52,293	−13.5	18,468	−6.9	71,666	−13.6	921,414	+1.0
Ohio	20,054	−15.1	15,166	−15.8	4,705	−10.3	17,316	−7.9	280,423	+2.9
Indiana	6,075	−14.3	4,387	−18.8	1,684	+.4	9,383	−17.5	108,194	+.4
Illinois	25,840	−5.9	19,042	−12.9	5,874	+6.7	21,498	−20.4	298,894	+.6
Michigan	10,624	−13.3	7,510	−11.7	2,765	−15.4	10,722	+4.3	117,411	−1.5
Wisconsin	9,787	−10.8	6,188	−7.0	3,440	−16.9	12,747	−17.4	116,492	+.8
West North Central	49,348	+2.5	28,380	+18.5	20,769	−12.9	31,460	−9.9	530,330	−1.3
Minnesota	11,870	+13.6	8,550	+19.9	3,252	−.2	7,129	−13.4	115,043	−1.3
Iowa	10,212	+8.4	6,094	+24.9	4,002	−8.6	5,472	−19.2	54,964	−2.4
Missouri	7,203	−20.5	3,522	−16.2	3,677	−23.7	7,361	−8.2	178,523	+.6
North Dakota	5,931	+63.1	4,543	+198.3	1,386	−32.8	3,532	+66.1	30,077	−7.1
South Dakota	3,663	−9.8	1,041	−15.0	2,616	−7.3	1,779	−33.4	45,762	+.5
Nebraska	5,879	−1.0	2,018	−4.6	3,858	+1.3	3,675	−8.9	40,889	−.5
Kansas	4,590	−17.7	2,612	−9.2	1,978	−26.7	2,512	−18.4	65,072	−3.9
South Atlantic	40,101	−16.4	18,713	−27.4	21,361	−3.4	32,232	−11.9	510,946	−.2
Delaware	1,704	−21.7	1,318	−21.8	386	−20.6	1,201	−4.1	10,133	−1.9
Maryland [2]	2,685	−18.3	1,275	−17.5	1,408	−19.0	2,900	+1.6	47,000	−1.8
District of Columbia	2,104	−25.0	1,924	−26.2	180	−10.0	2,539	−13.9	28,905	+14.4
Virginia	5,849	−23.5	2,198	−34.6	3,644	−14.8	3,758	−19.5	52,349	−3.5
West Virginia	3,655	+5.3	1,398	−26.0	2,257	+43.3	2,819	−12.0	78,442	+.5
North Carolina	8,921	−19.3	4,551	−31.3	4,368	−1.2	7,291	+.2	79,267	−2.8
South Carolina	4,810	−4.6	1,286	−21.0	3,521	+3.6	3,129	−2.7	49,795	+2.0
Georgia	5,814	−13.9	2,296	−31.6	3,518	+4.6	4,805	−3.7	101,700	0
Florida	4,559	−20.6	2,467	−19.8	2,079	−21.4	3,790	−38.9	63,355	−.9
East South Central	18,564	−22.8	5,915	−33.5	12,590	−16.6	21,140	−4.0	428,480	−.2
Kentucky	4,042	−22.4	1,803	−30.3	2,199	−15.4	5,903	−9.0	124,025	−9.5
Tennessee	4,694	−18.1	1,434	−31.7	3,260	−10.1	4,189	−7.9	156,819	−.6
Alabama	3,488	−39.9	2,572	−36.4	902	−47.9	3,197	−1.6	69,670	+5.3
Mississippi	6,340	−13.2	106	−34.6	6,229	−12.7	7,851	+1.6	77,966	+2.5
West South Central	41,196	−4.8	30,397	−1.0	10,575	−14.9	28,275	−10.8	414,664	−3.0
Arkansas	2,327	−44.9	1,073	−53.7	1,127	−38.6	2,038	−22.6	49,197	−6.3
Louisiana	2,385	−8.2	1,278	−12.6	1,099	−2.9	4,382	−20.0	72,367	+1.2
Oklahoma	3,403	−28.5	1,964	−20.7	1,431	−37.0	2,754	−27.6	107,030	−1.4
Texas	33,081	+4.3	26,082	+6.7	6,918	−3.8	19,101	−3.5	186,070	+1.5
Mountain	25,816	−2.9	12,243	+4.6	12,855	−2.4	13,436	−22.0	173,792	−5.4
Montana	4,474	−17.9	1,066	+23.8	2,889	−13.4	1,741	−28.9	29,237	−6.3
Idaho	2,922	−7.7	1,184	−19.8	1,728	+2.2	1,243	−36.5	15,043	−13.9
Wyoming	2,321	−21.5	815	−12.9	1,349	−20.1	1,172	−26.4	5,089	−18.9
Colorado	6,579	+6.4	3,957	+3.9	2,605	+12.1	4,215	−17.7	50,408	−7.9
New Mexico	3,306	+63.9	1,835	+113.4	1,464	+26.9	1,418	+11.1	34,794	+2.3
Arizona	2,736	+26.4	1,468	+39.0	1,260	+14.9	1,523	−9.5	16,845	−5.0
Utah	2,333	−32.4	1,418	−38.2	915	−15.7	1,336	−40.7	18,875	+5.3
Nevada	1,145	−5.1	500	+22.2	645	−19.1	788	−11.6	3,501	−17.3
Pacific	36,314	−3.0	24,647	+2.7	11,611	−11.1	31,821	−19.1	302,885	−1.5
Washington	6,797	−4.1	3,330	+16.1	3,437	−11.2	4,959	−14.0	60,170	+2.0
Oregon	4,553	−2.0	2,688	+.3	1,846	−5.5	3,433	−20.7	40,028	−8.6
California	24,964	−2.9	18,629	+1.0	6,328	−12.5	23,429	−19.9	202,687	−.9

[1] Includes 4,192 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

[2] Data estimated.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of U. S. Employment Service, July 1937*—Continued

MEN

Division and State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total		Private		Public					
	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	July 31	Percent of change from June 30
United States	[3] 268,871	[3] −7.1	136,526	−3.5	128,593	−9.6	203,663	−9.8	3,818,351	−2.0
New England	8,294	−17.6	3,799	−10.4	4,469	−22.8	8,954	−21.7	291,550	−4.0
Maine	1,515	−30.9	231	−10.1	1,284	−33.6	922	−23.0	14,477	−20.5
New Hampshire	938	−8.7	470	−2.5	468	−14.1	696	−24.1	13,594	−.2
Vermont	1,028	−10.5	515	+25.0	513	−30.2	532	−16.4	3,206	+38.9
Massachusetts	2,126	−12.5	1,026	−8.6	1,082	−17.1	3,114	−21.6	199,072	−5.5
Rhode Island	686	−17.8	373	−24.8	305	−1.0	926	−15.2	25,846	+.4
Connecticut	2,001	−17.7	1,184	−19.6	817	−14.8	2,764	−23.6	35,355	+6.2
Middle Atlantic	32,684	−10.2	15,208	−10.6	16,489	−5.6	32,735	−7.0	990,114	−3.2
New York	17,863	+2.7	9,410	−5.0	8,289	+12.0	14,896	+8.4	257,044	−10.9
New Jersey	2,624	−18.7	1,788	−23.9	833	−3.1	4,765	−25.2	140,909	−3.6
Pennsylvania	12,197	−22.6	4,020	−15.8	7,367	−19.9	13,074	−13.2	592,161	+.7
East North Central	51,479	−9.1	31,597	−12.1	18,376	−6.9	46,511	−12.3	728,969	+.2
Ohio	14,128	−12.5	9,300	−12.4	4,664	−10.2	10,691	−8.0	218,743	+2.1
Indiana	3,867	−11.9	2,185	−19.3	1,679	+.2	6,166	−15.1	88,103	+.2
Illinois	18,245	−3.2	11,540	−13.3	5,857	+6.9	14,228	−17.7	237,887	0
Michigan	8,049	−13.1	4,955	−11.2	2,753	−15.6	7,589	+7.4	95,764	−3.2
Wisconsin	7,190	−10.2	3,617	−2.8	3,423	−17.0	7,837	−19.8	88,472	−.3
West North Central	42,240	+5.6	21,365	+34.4	20,678	−12.9	22,211	−1.9	424,229	−2.1
Minnesota	9,235	+22.4	5,943	+39.7	3,225	−.3	4,800	−6.5	91,697	−2.6
Iowa	8,679	+13.1	4,568	+44.7	3,995	−8.4	3,718	−12.9	43,235	−3.2
Missouri	5,953	−21.2	2,275	−15.8	3,674	−23.7	4,972	−4.2	142,576	−.1
North Dakota	5,461	+71.5	4,094	+278.7	1,365	−33.5	2,992	+106.2	24,244	−8.5
South Dakota	3,418	−8.7	819	−11.9	2,594	−7.2	1,239	−26.1	37,423	−.3
Nebraska	5,343	+1.7	1,490	+3.3	3,850	+1.3	2,722	−1.1	33,027	−1.4
Kansas	4,151	−17.4	2,176	−6.7	1,975	−26.6	1,768	−18.2	51,627	−4.3
South Atlantic	32,344	−12.9	11,053	−26.7	21,272	−3.3	23,685	−8.2	369,664	−.3
Delaware	1,054	−25.6	668	−28.1	386	−20.2	646	−10.3	7,228	−1.5
Maryland [2]	2,302	−19.3	900	−19.7	1,400	−19.1	2,100	+1.9	38,000	−2.0
District of Columbia	953	−22.0	775	−25.9	178	+1.1	1,385	−18.9	18,901	+11.4
Virginia	4,843	−18.4	1,202	−28.0	3,638	−14.7	2,857	−20.0	37,407	−5.0
West Virginia	2,861	+13.1	617	−36.3	2,244	+44.0	2,079	−4.2	64,059	+.2
North Carolina	6,896	−10.0	2,560	−21.5	4,335	−1.4	5,379	+9.6	53,428	−2.2
South Carolina	4,350	−4.6	831	−28.0	3,516	+3.7	2,827	+1.9	34,607	+4.5
Georgia	5,296	−14.6	1,794	−36.5	3,502	+4.5	3,835	+2.2	69,168	+.7
Florida	3,789	−20.4	1,706	−19.1	2,073	−21.4	2,577	−37.6	46,866	−2.2
East South Central	16,375	−21.4	3,770	−34.2	12,554	−16.6	16,921	+4.6	325,773	−1.9
Kentucky	3,318	−20.4	1,094	−30.5	2,185	−15.1	4,249	−2.7	98,005	−10.0
Tennessee	3,916	−16.8	663	−38.2	3,253	−10.3	3,054	−5.5	121,889	−.3
Alabama	2,831	−39.9	1,936	−34.6	887	−48.5	2,290	+4.8	50,166	+6.4
Mississippi	6,310	−13.0	77	−37.9	6,229	−12.6	7,328	+14.6	55,713	+3.3
West South Central	33,567	−2.6	22,841	+4.0	10,515	−14.9	20,412	−4.0	319,765	−.7
Arkansas	1,912	−44.8	662	−57.7	1,123	−38.6	1,615	−14.1	39,475	−6.5
Louisiana	1,815	−3.6	714	−5.4	1,093	−3.0	3,138	−20.1	58,017	+1.6
Oklahoma	2,370	−33.6	957	−27.2	1,408	−37.2	1,919	−19.4	87,069	−2.4
Texas	27,470	+7.5	20,508	+11.9	6,891	−3.6	13,740	+5.0	135,204	+1.3
Mountain	22,796	−1.7	9,294	+10.7	12,800	−2.3	10,061	−21.1	140,314	−6.1
Montana	4,261	−19.0	869	+25.2	2,874	−13.5	1,397	−31.3	23,874	−7.1
Idaho	2,667	−5.2	930	−17.6	1,727	+2.6	1,013	−36.0	12,974	−14.7
Wyoming	2,138	−20.8	638	−7.7	1,348	−19.8	961	−23.9	4,020	−19.6
Colorado	5,361	+5.8	2,758	+1.5	2,593	+12.4	2,959	−14.5	38,468	−8.6
New Mexico	3,064	+66.2	1,602	+129.2	1,456	+27.4	1,090	+16.2	29,113	+1.9
Arizona	2,370	+30.4	1,111	+54.5	1,253	+15.2	1,230	−9.4	13,747	−6.1
Utah	1,872	−27.2	967	−31.9	905	−16.3	731	−46.4	15,176	+3.0
Nevada	1,063	−4.9	419	+28.9	644	−18.8	680	−9.5	2,942	−14.5
Pacific	29,092	−5.0	17,599	+1.8	11,440	−11.8	22,173	−19.8	227,973	−2.0
Washington	6,085	−3.0	2,630	+26.0	3,427	−11.3	3,903	−6.8	49,605	+3.6
Oregon	4,061	−.1	2,210	+4.8	1,832	−5.7	2,669	−15.1	32,088	−8.4
California	18,946	−6.6	12,759	−2.5	6,181	−13.8	15,601	−23.2	146,280	−2.3

[2] Data estimated.

[3] Includes 3,752 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of U. S. Employment Service, July 1937*—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements		New applications		Active file	
	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	July 31	Percent of change from June 30
United States	[4] 72,482	[4] −14.4	91,556	−18.3	1,120,647	−0.1
New England	3,355	−6.8	5,749	−23.4	104,307	−2.1
Maine	292	+77.0	342	−.9	2,340	−13.9
New Hampshire	293	+11.0	383	−25.5	4,165	−1.8
Vermont	325	−5.3	301	+29.2	1,054	+51.2
Massachusetts	823	−20.1	1,891	−22.2	72,824	−4.3
Rhode Island	437	−1.6	669	−33.1	10,829	+.4
Connecticut	1,185	−12.5	2,163	−27.6	13,095	+9.4
Middle Atlantic	13,301	−11.9	17,751	−7.2	270,516	−2.6
New York	7,537	−9.4	7,961	+5.4	65,283	−8.3
New Jersey	2,358	−17.6	3,300	−2.9	37,500	−3.2
Pennsylvania	3,406	−13.1	6,490	−20.6	167,733	−.1
East North Central	20,901	−15.5	25,155	−15.9	192,445	+4.3
Ohio	5,926	−20.7	6,625	−7.7	61,680	+5.5
Indiana	2,208	−18.2	3,217	−21.9	20,091	+1.3
Illinois	7,595	−11.8	7,270	−25.3	61,007	+2.9
Michigan	2,575	−13.9	3,133	−2.5	21,647	+6.8
Wisconsin	2,597	−12.6	4,910	−13.2	28,020	+4.7
West North Central	7,108	−13.0	9,249	−24.8	106,101	+2.2
Minnesota	2,635	−9.4	2,329	−24.8	23,346	+3.8
Iowa	1,533	−12.1	1,754	−29.9	11,729	+.5
Missouri	1,250	−17.1	2,389	−15.4	35,547	+3.4
North Dakota	470	+4.0	540	−20.1	5,833	−.6
South Dakota	245	−23.7	540	−45.7	8,339	+4.4
Nebraska	536	−21.3	953	−25.5	7,862	+3.2
Kansas	439	−20.6	744	−18.8	13,445	−2.3
South Atlantic	7,757	−28.4	8,547	−20.9	141,282	+.1
Delaware	650	−14.5	555	+4.3	2,905	−3.1
Maryland [2]	383	−11.3	800	+.8	9,000	−1.1
District of Columbia	1,151	−27.3	1,154	−7.1	10,004	+20.4
Virginia	1,006	−41.0	901	−17.8	14,942	+.5
West Virginia	794	−15.7	740	−28.5	14,383	+1.9
North Carolina	2,025	−40.2	1,912	−19.1	25,839	−4.1
South Carolina	460	−5.3	302	−31.5	15,188	−3.4
Georgia	518	−5.8	970	−21.7	32,532	−1.5
Florida	770	−21.3	1,213	−41.3	16,489	+3.0
East South Central	2,189	−31.8	4,219	−27.6	102,707	−2.1
Kentucky	724	−30.2	1,654	−21.9	26,020	−7.8
Tennessee	778	−24.2	1,135	−13.7	34,930	−1.6
Alabama	657	−40.1	907	−14.8	19,504	+2.7
Mississippi	30	−42.3	523	−60.7	22,253	+.5
West South Central	7,629	−13.6	7,863	−24.7	94,899	+1.1
Arkansas	415	−45.3	423	−43.8	9,722	−5.9
Louisiana	570	−20.4	1,244	−19.6	14,350	−.5
Oklahoma	1,033	−13.3	835	−41.3	19,961	+3.1
Texas	5,611	−8.9	5,361	−20.2	50,866	+2.2
Mountain	3,020	−11.3	3,375	−24.6	33,478	−2.2
Montana	213	+13.9	344	−17.3	5,363	−2.8
Idaho	255	−28.0	230	−38.5	2,069	−8.4
Wyoming	183	−29.3	211	−36.1	1,069	−16.1
Colorado	1,218	+8.9	1,256	−24.4	11,940	−5.6
New Mexico	242	+39.9	328	−3.0	5,681	+4.1
Arizona	366	+5.8	293	−9.8	3,098	+.4
Utah	461	−47.6	605	−32.1	3,699	+16.0
Nevada	82	−6.8	108	−22.9	559	−29.3
Pacific	7,222	+5.8	9,648	−17.5	74,912	+.3
Washington	712	−12.7	1,056	−33.0	10,565	−4.6
Oregon	492	−15.5	764	−35.6	7,940	−9.7
California	6,018	+10.9	7,828	−12.4	56,407	+2.8

[2] Data estimated.
[4] Includes 980 public placements and 440 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

TABLE 4.—*Veterans' Activities of U. S. Employment Service, July 1937*

VETERANS

Division and State	Placements						New applications		Active file	
	Total		Private		Public					
	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	Number	Percent of change from June	July 31	Percent of change from June 30
United States	[1] 20,010	[1] −8.9	9,994	−8.7	9,696	−8.8	8,855	−6.0	265,165	−2.5
New England	641	−21.5	314	−15.4	324	−27.4	439	−6.4	24,933	−3.9
Maine	101	−38.4	21	−22.2	80	−41.6	19	−54.8	1,191	−17.8
New Hampshire	68	−1.4	29	−6.5	39	+2.6	25	−41.9	1,062	−2.7
Vermont	55	−14.1	35	+52.2	20	−51.2	10	+25.0	165	+65.0
Massachusetts	189	−13.3	80	−13.0	106	−15.9	211	−1.4	17,838	−4.3
Rhode Island	46	−39.5	30	−34.8	16	−46.7	34	−12.8	1,767	−3.0
Connecticut	182	−19.5	119	−21.7	63	−14.9	140	+13.8	2,910	+2.7
Middle Atlantic	2,229	−9.9	1,090	−6.3	1,066	−8.5	1,162	+8.0	65,425	−4.0
New York	1,177	+3.8	640	+5.1	531	+1.7	380	+19.9	17,373	−12.0
New Jersey	180	−27.4	124	−35.1	54	−3.6	180	−24.7	10,528	−1.3
Pennsylvania	872	−20.2	326	−10.2	481	−18.1	602	+15.8	37,524	−.6
East North Central	4,179	−10.6	2,502	−15.2	1,582	−4.4	2,089	−8.9	52,181	−1.5
Ohio	1,254	−18.1	810	−18.4	440	−15.9	405	−11.0	15,270	+3.2
Indiana	290	−5.5	158	−21.4	132	+24.5	272	−3.5	6,786	−3.8
Illinois	1,456	−4.3	908	−14.9	499	+10.2	631	−8.9	16,975	−2.9
Michigan	572	−10.8	354	−11.1	188	−10.0	399	+3.1	6,692	−4.2
Wisconsin	607	−9.9	272	−6.8	323	−11.3	382	−19.6	6,458	−3.0
West North Central	3,393	−2.0	1,672	+9.9	1,647	−13.8	1,002	−.2	32,157	−1.0
Minnesota	742	+5.8	437	+17.2	297	−7.8	239	−1.2	7,883	−2.9
Iowa	996	+7.3	558	+17.2	372	−15.5	173	−15.2	3,464	−.1
Missouri	438	−27.1	175	−19.7	263	−30.6	277	+9.5	10,806	+1.9
North Dakota	247	+23.5	140	+154.5	107	−24.6	95	+50.8	1,327	−8.2
South Dakota	254	−5.2	64	−11.1	190	−1.0	41	+41.4	2,406	−2.4
Nebraska	349	+3.9	91	+15.2	258	+.4	97	−14.9	2,434	+2.8
Kansas	367	−14.1	207	−16.9	160	−10.1	80	−19.2	3,837	−4.6
South Atlantic	2,190	−9.2	903	−21.2	1,286	+1.7	959	−7.9	23,848	−.2
Delaware	58	−18.3	23	−46.5	35	+25.0	9	+80.0	457	+2.5
Maryland [2]	200	−14.2	80	−23.8	120	−6.3	100	−10.7	3,000	−2.5
District of Columbia	154	−26.7	119	−31.6	35	−2.8	119	−22.2	2,188	+8.2
Virginia	317	−15.2	92	−39.5	225	+1.8	129	−17.3	1,809	−7.4
West Virginia	290	+36.8	77	−19.8	213	+83.6	80	−7.0	3,843	−2.0
North Carolina	379	−3.8	157	−4.8	222	−3.1	193	+17.7	2,775	+1.0
South Carolina	191	−12.0	50	−19.4	141	−9.0	69	+11.3	1,826	+1.1
Georgia	286	−19.0	116	−29.3	170	−10.1	113	+11.9	3,577	+5.2
Florida	315	−9.5	189	+2.2	125	−22.8	147	−27.2	4,373	−3.2
East South Central	939	−27.3	291	−27.4	643	−27.5	500	+4.0	16,961	−2.9
Kentucky	254	−33.5	85	−41.4	165	−30.1	111	−19.0	5,358	−10.8
Tennessee	321	−18.3	64	−22.9	257	−16.8	175	+1.7	6,307	−1.1
Alabama	205	−37.1	139	−16.3	65	−59.4	100	+26.6	3,056	+7.3
Mississippi	159	−16.8	3	−57.1	156	−14.3	114	+22.6	2,240	−.3
West South Central	1,801	−15.0	946	−15.5	826	−15.6	741	−13.5	18,491	−2.8
Arkansas	131	−41.3	40	−58.3	80	−35.5	90	−8.2	2,213	−11.1
Louisiana	126	−20.3	77	+20.3	49	−47.9	135	−12.3	3,821	+.3
Oklahoma	214	−32.7	101	−23.5	113	−38.6	95	−22.8	4,813	−4.7
Texas	1,330	−6.4	728	−12.0	584	+1.2	421	−12.7	7,644	−.4
Mountain	1,656	+5.7	628	+19.4	992	+2.1	502	−7.7	9,382	−5.4
Montana	355	+15.6	85	+44.1	246	+24.2	61	−11.6	1,297	−6.7
Idaho	216	−9.6	68	−37.0	145	+10.7	51	−44.0	880	−13.7
Wyoming	140	−15.7	30	−25.0	102	−8.1	49	−5.8	285	−11.5
Colorado	341	+9.6	162	+12.5	179	+9.1	154	−.6	2,795	−5.6
New Mexico	188	+77.4	97	+155.3	91	+33.8	43	+126.3	1,902	−4.9
Arizona	183	+36.6	89	+102.3	93	+3.3	75	+13.6	919	−3.5
Utah	124	−30.3	49	−21.0	75	−34.8	27	−35.7	1,111	+4.7
Nevada	109	−13.5	48	+54.8	61	−35.8	42	−16.0	193	−9.8
Pacific	2,982	−4.9	1,648	−5.5	1,330	−2.1	1,461	−11.7	21,787	−1.2
Washington	519	+6.6	222	+24.7	296	+3.5	156	+1.3	4,098	+2.4
Oregon	424	+1.2	212	+14.6	211	−9.4	173	−9.9	3,437	−10.3
California	2,039	−8.6	1,214	−12.1	823	−1.9	1,132	−13.5	14,252	+.2

[1] Includes 320 security-wage placements on work-relief projects.

[2] Data estimate.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR JULY 1937

EMPLOYMENT in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries surveyed each month by the Bureau of Labor Statistics declined in July. Due largely to customary inventory taking, repairs, vacations, and July 4th shut-downs, pay rolls also declined.

On the basis of reports received from approximately 135,000 establishments, it is estimated that approximately 72,000 fewer workers were employed in these industries in July than in June and that weekly pay rolls were $6,200,000 lower.

Comparisons with July of last year, however, showed increases of nearly 1,300,000 in number of workers and $63,300,000 in weekly wage disbursements.

Class I railroads reported more employees on their pay rolls in July than in June. According to a preliminary tabulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission, they had 1,161,925 employees in July, exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants, this being 2,627 more than the number employed in June.

Employment in the legislative and military services of the Federal Government in July was somewhat higher than in June. Small decreases occurred in the executive and judicial services. On construction projects financed wholly or partially from public funds increases were reported in employment on projects financed by regular governmental appropriations. Decreases, however, occurred in employment on projects financed by the Public Works Administration, on Federal projects under The Works Program, on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The number of workers employed in the Civilian Conservation Corps increased during the month, due to the beginning of a new enlistment period.

Industrial and Business Employment

July is normally a month of decreased business activity, seasonal recessions in employment usually occurring in retail trade, year-round hotels, dyeing and cleaning, anthracite mining, and manufacturing.

In manufacturing employment, decreases have occurred in July in 13 of the preceding 18 years for which data are available and pay-roll decreases have occurred in 16 of these years. In July 1937, however, factory employment rose 0.3 percent over the month interval, representing a gain of 30,000 wage earners. This was due primarily to a resumption of more nearly normal operations following labor disputes in blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills. Factory pay rolls fell 2.4 percent, or $5,150,000 per week, largely because of customary shut-downs for inventories, repairs, vacations, and the July 4th holiday. Wage-rate increases affecting 133,959 wage earners were reported by cooperating establishments for the period, June 16 to July 15 inclusive.

A comparison of July 1937 factory totals with those of July 1936 shows gains of 858,000 (11.2 percent) in number of workers and $41,100,000 (25.2 percent) in weekly wages.

Thirty-seven of the 89 manufacturing industries surveyed showed gains in employment over the month interval and 24 industries reported increased pay rolls. The most pronounced gain in number of wage earners was a seasonal increase of 70.9 percent in the canning and preserving industry. Employment in blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills increased 12.9 percent, and in cane sugar refining 9.7 percent. Radio and phonograph factories reported a seasonal expansion of 7.9 percent, and the bolts, nuts, washers, and rivet industry showed a gain of 7.2 percent, largely because of increased operations following labor difficulties in the preceding month. Seasonal increases were reported in beet sugar (7.3 percent), flour (5.8 percent), tin cans and other tinware (5.2 percent), beverages (4.5 percent), boots and shoes (4.3 percent), and ice cream (2.9 percent).

The most pronounced declines in employment were seasonal in character, decreases being reported in the millinery industry (24.3 percent), women's clothing (14.8 percent), stoves (12.1 percent), pottery (9.0 percent), fertilizers (7.8 percent), and woolen goods (6.2 percent). The decline in the last-named industry was somewhat accentuated by labor disputes. Annual and vacation shut-downs accounted primarily for the decreases of 14.8 percent in the rubber footwear industry and 5.6 percent in the clocks, watches, and time-recording devices industry.

Ten of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed reported gains in employment between June and July, and 8 reported increased pay rolls. The employment gain of 3.0 percent in metalliferous mining continued the virtually unbroken succession of monthly increases which have been reported since July 1935, the gain of 1.3 percent in the electric light and power and manufactured gas industry continued the unbroken expansion which began in March, and the increase of 0.6

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percent in crude-petroleum producing marked the seventh consecutive gain for this industry.

The net decline of approximately 102,000 workers in the 16 nonmanufacturing industries combined was due largely to the seasonal recession of 3.2 percent (approximately 113,000 employees) in retail trade. Seasonal curtailments of 12.0 percent in the anthracite mining, 6.7 percent in dyeing and cleaning, and 1.0 percent in year-round hotels contributed in smaller measure to the net decline. Strikes in a number of bituminous-coal mines were responsible for the 2.6 percent employment decline in that industry.

Class I railroads again reported a gain in employment over the month interval, according to a preliminary summary supplied by the Interstate Commerce Commission. In July they had 1,161,925 employees exclusive of executives, officials, and staff assistants, as against 1,159,298 in June, an increase of 0.2 percent or 2,627 workers. Pay-roll figures were not available for July at the time this report was prepared. In June, the wage disbursements to this group of workers were $162,022,190 and in May, $160,285,126, the gain over the month interval being 1.1 percent.

Hours and earnings.—Average hours worked per week by factory wage earners were 37.9 in July, a decrease of 3.4 percent from June. Average hourly earnings of these workers were 65.7 cents, or 0.8 percent higher than in the preceding month. Corresponding average weekly earnings fell 2.8 percent over the month interval to $25.31. These averages are based on data supplied by cooperating establishments and cover full- and part-time workers combined.

Only 3 of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available showed increases in average hours worked per week, but 8 reported higher average hourly earnings. Average weekly earnings were higher for 7 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed.

Table 1 presents a summary of employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in July 1937 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which certain items cannot be computed. The indexes of employment and pay rolls for the manufacturing industries are based on the 3-year average, 1923–25, as 100, and for the nonmanufacturing industries on the 12-month average of 1929 as 100. The information for the manufacturing industries, mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction covers wage earners only. For crude-petroleum producing it covers wage earners and clerical field force. The figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance cover all employees, including executives.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, July 1937 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, July 1937	Percentage change from—		Index, July 1937	Percentage change from—		Average in July 1937	Percentage change from—	
		June 1937	July 1936		June 1937	July 1936		June 1937	July 1936
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	(*1923–25 =100*) 101.4	+0.3	+11.2	(*1923–25 =100*) 100.4	−2.4	+25.2	$25.31	−2.8	+12.5
Class I steam railroads [2]	65.7	+.2	+8.1	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Coal mining:	(*1929= 100*)			(*1929= 100*)					
Anthracite	45.0	−12.0	−6.9	35.2	−30.8	−5.2	22.78	−21.4	+1.8
Bituminous	75.8	−2.6	+.5	66.4	−6.7	+6.1	22.18	−4.2	+5.5
Metalliferous mining	81.4	+3.0	+32.9	77.3	+(4)	+67.7	30.07	−2.9	+26.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	55.5	+.1	+2.0	50.8	−3.5	+15.9	22.84	−3.6	+13.6
Crude-petroleum producing	79.6	+.6	+5.7	70.9	+.6	+17.3	33.74	−.1	+11.0
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	79.7	+1.5	+9.1	92.1	+4.0	+15.3	31.02	+2.5	+5.8
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	97.3	+1.3	+6.0	101.9	+1.8	+13.5	33.84	+.5	+7.1
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance	73.4	+.1	+1.4	70.8	−.4	+6.6	31.65	−.5	+5.2
Trade:									
Wholesale	90.6	+.3	+6.1	76.9	+.8	+11.6	30.41	+.5	+5.2
Retail	87.6	−3.2	+5.3	72.8	−2.1	+11.8	22.41	+1.1	+6.1
General merchandising	95.9	−6.8	+5.7	87.3	−5.6	+12.9	19.07	+1.3	+6.8
Other than general merchandising	85.4	−2.1	+5.1	69.8	−1.0	+11.6	24.99	+1.1	+6.2
Hotels (year-round) [5]	86.1	−1.0	+3.4	73.3	−.9	+11.1	14.83	+.1	+7.4
Laundries	95.2	+1.7	+5.2	86.9	+1.7	+10.0	17.15	−.1	+4.6
Dyeing and cleaning	86.0	−6.7	+.6	68.0	−14.2	+4.8	19.58	−8.0	+4.2
Brokerage	(3)	−1.3	+2.5	(3)	−1.6	+6.9	39.22	−.2	+4.3
Insurance	(3)	+.3	+1.5	(3)	+.9	+7.0	40.38	+.6	+5.4
Building construction	(3)	+3.3	+13.0	(3)	+5.2	+33.4	31.31	+1.9	+18.0

[1] Revised indexes; adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[5] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

Employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds decreased 6,000 in July compared with June. The total number of workers employed during July on these projects exceeded 198,000. Decreases occurred in the number of workers employed on Federal and non-Federal projects financed from funds provided by the National Industrial Recovery Act, and on projects financed from funds provided by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935 and 1936. Pay-roll disbursements for July on all projects financed by the Public Works Administration totaled $16,251,000.

On construction projects financed from regular governmental appropriations, 194,000 wage earners were employed in July—an increase of more than 16,000 over the number working in June. Increases in employment occurred on building construction, electrification, reclamation, public roads, streets and roads, and miscellaneous

projects. Employment on all other types of projects decreased during the month. Pay-roll disbursements for all types of projects totaled $19,599,000.

Employment on projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation showed a further decline in July. During the month, more than 4,000 workers were engaged on this program—a decrease of 16.3 percent compared with June. There was a decrease in the employment level on building construction and water and sewerage projects. Employment on miscellaneous projects showed virtually no change. Total pay rolls on all types of projects amounted to $575,000.

The number of wage earners employed on projects financed by The Works Program during July was 2,220,000—a decrease of 256,000 or 10.3 percent compared with the preceding month. Of this total, 262,000 were working on Federal projects, 1,808,000 on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and 150,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration. Since employment and pay-roll data for July are not available on student-aid projects, this type of project has not been included in the June–July comparisons. Pay-roll disbursements amounted to $108,785,000.

In the regular agencies of the Federal Government, increases were reported for the legislative and military services. Decreases, on the other hand, occurred in the executive and judicial services. The level of employment for the executive service was 1.8 percent less in July compared with June. Of the 855,000 employees in the executive service in July, 111,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 744,000 outside the District. Approximately 90.4 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service were paid from regular appropriations; the remaining 9.6 percent from emergency appropriations. The most pronounced increases in the number of workers in the executive departments of the Federal Government occurred in the Post Office Department and in the Social Security Board. Among the agencies reporting decreases were the Department of Agriculture and the War Department. Prior to June 1937 the various departments and independent establishments reported the number of persons having Federal appointments on the last day of the month, regardless of whether or not they received any pay for the month in which they were reported. Beginning in June 1937, however, the departments and agencies reported all employees who received pay during the last pay-roll period of the month; all employees who are on leave without pay, on furlough, on a dollar-per-year basis, or who serve without pay, are eliminated from the reports.

In the Civilian Conservation Corps employment increased sharply in July. Employment for all groups of workers totaled 349,000, an increase of 25,000 over June. Gains in employment were registered

in the enrolled personnel and reserve officers. Losses, on the other hand, occurred in the number of educational advisers and supervisory and technical workers. Pay rolls for the month for all groups of workers totaled $16,852,000, an increase of $766,000.

The number of workers employed on the construction and maintenance of State roads in July was 175,000, an increase of more than 7,000 compared with the preceding month. Of the total number employed, 14.4 percent were working on new road construction and 85.6 percent on maintenance work. Pay-roll disbursements also showed a marked gain, increasing from $11,070,000 in June to over $11,998,000 in July.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for June and July is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, July 1937* [1] *(Preliminary Figures)*

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay roll		Percentage change
	July 1937	June 1937		July 1937	June 1937	
Federal services:						
Executive [2]	854,917	870,160	−1.8	$127,177,428	$128,334,128	−0.9
Judicial	1,981	2,040	−2.9	484,340	500,801	−3.3
Legislative	5,196	5,133	+1.2	1,210,225	1,203,582	+.6
Military	331,247	319,223	+3.8	27,390,456	23,135,605	+18.4
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A [3]	198,483	204,098	−2.8	16,250,846	16,430,649	−1.1
Financed by R. F. C [4]	4,099	4,898	−16.3	574,541	690,822	−16.8
Financed by regular governmental appropriations	193,695	177,265	+9.3	19,599,384	16,980,060	+15.4
Federal projects under The Works Program	262,487	284,893	−7.9	12,799,774	14,794,640	−13.5
Projects operated by W. P. A	1,807,589	2,020,273	−10.5	93,504,356	107,046,653	−12.7
National Youth Administration:						
Works projects	149,628	170,472	−12.2	2,480,982	2,862,654	−13.3
Student-aid	(5)	240,460	(5)	(5)	1,852,006	(5)
Relief work: Civilian Conservation Corps [6]	348,779	323,626	+7.8	16,851,511	16,085,832	+4.8

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.

[2] Prior to June 1937 the various executive departments and independent establishments reported the number of persons having Federal appointments on the last day of the month, regardless of whether or not they received any pay for the month in which they were reported. Beginning with June 1937, however, the departments and agencies report all employees who receive pay during the last pay-roll period of the month; all employees who are on leave without pay, on furlough, on a dollar per year basis, or who serve without pay, are eliminated from the reports.

[3] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Figures include 139,701 wage earners and $10,811,528 pay roll for July; 141,708 wage earners and $10,960,950 pay roll for June, covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 funds.

[4] Includes 86 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $6,050 for July and 59 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $3,325 for June on projects financed by RFC Mortgage Co.

[5] Data not available.

[6] Includes 45,567 employees and pay roll of $5,751,551 for July and 45,929 employees, and pay roll of $5,869,035 for June in the executive service.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, JUNE 1937

THIS ARTICLE presents the detailed figures on volume of employment, as compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the month of June 1937. The tabular data are the same as those published in the Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet for June, except for certain minor revisions and corrections.

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls in industrial and business industries are now available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in June 1937

The indexes of employment and pay rolls, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries in June 1937 are shown in table 1. Percentage changes from May 1937 and June 1936 are also given

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, June 1937*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average 1923–25=100 and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures]

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Index June 1937	Percentage change from—		Index June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—	
		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936
													Cents		
All manufacturing industries	**101.1**	**−1.2**	**+12.2**	**102.9**	**−2.2**	**+26.9**	**$26.00**	**−1.0**	**+13.1**	**39.2**	**−1.4**	**−[2]**	**65.3**	**+0.5**	**+13.4**
Durable goods	98.8	−1.1	+16.6	104.6	−2.7	+32.4	29.36	−1.6	+13.5	40.7	−1.4	−1.4	71.4	+.2	+15.3
Nondurable goods	103.5	−1.2	+7.9	100.8	−1.5	+20.1	22.14	−.2	+11.3	37.6	−1.3	+1.3	58.6	+1.0	+10.2
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**101.4**	**−7.9**	**+10.9**	**110.4**	**−11.5**	**+30.5**	**31.06**	**−3.9**	**+17.6**	**40.2**	**−2.4**	**−4.1**	**76.0**	**−1.6**	**+21.7**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills [3]	106.2	−12.9	+6.5	123.4	−15.3	+30.5	34.48	−2.7	+22.5	40.2	−1.9	−5.3	85.4	−1.2	+28.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	81.9	−12.7	+10.0	93.3	−17.7	+24.9	25.96	−5.7	+13.6	39.9	−4.2	−1.1	65.1	−1.6	+13.9
Cast-iron pipe	70.6	−1.3	+10.1	59.7	−4.3	+30.3	22.73	−3.1	+18.3	39.6	−3.9	+1.4	57.0	+1.0	+15.1
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	86.2	−3.1	+13.1	86.2	−.7	+28.6	25.22	+2.4	+13.7	42.9	+.6	+3.2	60.1	+1.6	+9.7
Forgings, iron and steel	72.6	−2.0	+23.8	71.5	−3.5	+48.2	30.25	−1.6	+19.8	42.0	−2.3	+5.8	72.3	+.8	+13.5
Hardware	96.7	−1.9	+25.2	96.5	−17.8	+24.1	22.53	−16.2	−.9	36.1	−13.3	−11.5	62.4	−3.4	+11.4
Plumbers' supplies	93.2	−2.8	+9.3	76.3	−1.0	+20.7	25.71	+1.8	+10.6	40.7	+.8	−1.4	63.2	+1.0	+12.3
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	79.8	−2.3	+22.3	76.4	−7.4	+38.3	27.67	−5.2	+13.0	40.5	−5.9	−3.9	68.3	+.7	+17.7
Stoves	119.0	+1.8	+14.2	106.2	−.5	+22.1	26.24	−2.2	+6.8	40.5	−2.7	−1.4	65.1	+.8	+8.3
Structural and ornamental metalwork	78.7	+2.4	+15.0	82.4	+4.9	+36.3	29.36	+2.4	+18.6	42.3	+1.4	+.2	69.5	+1.0	+18.4
Tin cans and other tinware	109.2	+4.1	+8.3	116.6	+4.4	+18.8	23.77	+.3	+9.7	40.1	−.7	−1.1	59.8	−.1	+11.3
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	101.6	−1.7	+27.2	114.9	+.9	+43.8	26.36	+2.6	+13.0	43.5	+1.7	+.8	60.5	+.9	+12.2
Wirework	181.2	−.9	+22.7	188.5	−.4	+40.5	26.33	+.6	+15.7	39.6	−1.2	−4.1	66.5	+1.8	+20.5
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**129.2**	**+2.5**	**+24.7**	**137.2**	**+1.7**	**+43.2**	**29.41**	**−.7**	**+14.8**	**41.8**	**−1.5**	**+.5**	**70.4**	**+1.0**	**+15.1**
Agricultural implements	140.6	+.6	+13.8	182.7	−.6	+39.0	29.10	−1.3	+22.1	40.5	−.7	+1.9	72.7	−[2]	+20.9
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	135.9	+1.8	+21.8	146.7	−1.5	+36.6	33.24	−3.3	+12.0	41.6	−2.9	−2.3	81.0	−.6	+13.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	119.9	+1.7	+33.5	126.1	+2.1	+51.4	28.95	+.5	+13.5	39.9	−.7	−2.4	72.5	+1.1	+16.6
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	149.9	+.7	+18.1	156.4	−.1	+39.6	32.53	−.8	+19.3	40.1	−1.6	+.7	81.3	+.8	+18.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, June 1937*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Index June 1937	Percentage change from—		Index June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—	
		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936
Durable goods—Continued															
Machinery—Continued.													*Cents*		
Foundry and machine-shop products	112.7	+0.8	+25.1	119.5	+0.1	+42.7	$29.58	−0.8	+14.1	43.2	−1.7	+0.8	68.5	+1.1	+13.8
Machine tools	152.7	+2.0	+31.5	164.6	+1.9	+50.2	33.21	−.2	+14.2	46.3	−2.4	+3.0	71.8	+2.2	+10.7
Radios and phonographs	182.3	+30.4	−9.0	156.2	+44.0	+.8	22.47	+10.4	+10.7	38.4	+1.9	−.3	58.9	+8.5	+11.8
Textile machinery and parts	87.3	−.2	+24.1	93.6	−1.8	+50.0	28.83	−1.5	+21.0	43.8	−2.2	+9.4	66.0	+.7	+10.8
Typewriters and parts	153.8	+.1	+82.4	151.1	−2.6	+108.4	26.22	−2.7	+14.2	41.6	−2.5	+5.8	63.0	−.3	+11.3
Transportation equipment	126.4	−1.5	+20.0	127.8	−4.7	+29.5	32.00	−3.3	+7.9	37.0	−3.9	−6.8	86.8	+.6	+16.2
Aircraft	834.0	+1.3	+40.7	751.3	+1.6	+47.7	28.48	+.3	+.9	44.4	+1.0	−.1	64.2	−.7	+.5
Automobiles	137.8	−1.5	+19.0	135.2	−6.0	+26.2	32.46	−4.5	+6.1	36.1	−5.1	−9.9	90.0	+.6	+18.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	76.5	−1.6	+33.8	91.4	+1.6	+69.2	29.10	+3.2	+27.4	40.0	+.1	+8.5	72.7	+3.1	+16.3
Locomotives	59.5	+1.2	+69.1	51.4	+8.6	+129.1	33.49	+7.4	+35.5	46.5	+6.4	+23.2	72.0	+1.0	+9.9
Shipbuilding	103.3	−3.2	+5.4	114.5	−3.6	+16.6	30.75	−.4	+10.6	37.6	0	+1.3	80.3	−1.0	+6.6
Railroad repair shops	64.0	+.6	+9.4	68.7	+2.4	+14.3	30.80	+1.7	+4.5	44.8	+1.2	+4.0	69.0	+.2	+.3
Electric railroad	62.7	−1.1	+1.2	67.1	+1.0	+8.4	30.19	+2.1	+7.2	44.5	+1.4	+1.5	66.4	+.8	+5.7
Steam railroad	64.1	+.9	+10.2	69.0	+2.3	+14.8	30.89	+1.4	+4.1	44.8	+1.2	+4.2	69.2	+.1	−(2)
Nonferrous metals and their products	113.9	−1.4	+19.3	111.5	−1.4	+39.5	26.38	0	+17.0	40.2	−1.6	−.3	65.1	+1.7	+17.3
Aluminum manufactures	129.5	+3.0	+20.9	135.6	+.6	+43.8	26.36	−2.3	+18.8	40.4	−1.9	+1.2	65.4	−.4	+17.9
Brass, bronze, and copper products	122.3	−2.7	+22.4	125.3	−.9	+49.5	28.91	+1.8	+22.0	40.6	−1.7	−.8	71.4	+3.7	+23.2
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	121.6	−1.5	+17.2	118.5	−3.1	+29.3	22.42	−1.6	+10.3	40.3	−2.3	+2.0	55.5	+.7	+9.1
Jewelry	89.1	+.6	+21.4	70.3	+1.7	+35.7	24.17	+1.1	+11.8	38.9	+.9	+4.1	60.9	+.8	+5.7
Lighting equipment	96.1	−3.7	+26.8	95.3	−6.2	+38.5	24.91	−2.7	+9.2	38.5	−3.0	−5.6	64.8	+.3	+15.9
Silverware and plated ware	74.4	+(2)	+19.3	69.1	−.8	+49.9	25.83	−.8	+25.5	40.0	−3.0	+19.1	64.6	+1.5	+3.7
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	88.8	+1.5	+14.5	85.2	+.5	+35.0	28.61	−1.0	+17.9	41.9	−.9	−1.5	68.3	−.1	+19.6
Stamped and enameled ware	159.2	−2.2	+14.9	162.4	−2.2	+30.3	23.84	(2)	+13.4	39.6	−1.7	−3.6	60.4	+1.8	+18.8
Lumber and allied products	72.9	+1.8	+12.5	72.3	+6.0	+29.6	22.10	+4.1	+15.2	42.8	+1.3	+1.7	52.5	+3.1	+12.8
Furniture	89.1	+1.9	+21.0	78.7	+2.7	+34.3	20.80	+.7	+11.0	41.0	−.5	−1.2	51.0	+.9	+12.7
Lumber:															
Millwork	57.5	+.4	+15.6	57.5	+4.7	+30.6	23.12	+4.3	+12.9	44.1	+.7	−.1	52.6	+3.8	+13.1
Sawmills	55.7	+2.0	+7.3	57.4	+8.5	+26.6	22.78	+6.3	+18.0	43.5	+2.4	+3.5	53.3	+4.2	+13.5

Stone, clay, and glass products	74.0	−.5	+11.4	71.4	−.8	+28.0	24.53	−.3	+14.9	39.9	−.1	+1.6	62.0	+.1	+12.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	54.5	−.9	+10.2	49.1	−.1	+25.0	21.89	+.8	+13.5	41.9	−.3	−2.3	52.4	+1.3	+16.5
Cement	69.7	+1.7	+12.6	75.0	+5.0	+33.3	26.90	+3.3	+18.3	40.6	+2.9	+2.6	66.2	+.4	+15.4
Glass	112.4	+.1	+13.3	119.4	+.4	+31.9	25.61	+.3	+16.3	38.2	+1.1	+3.9	67.5	−.6	+12.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	44.1	−2.0	+3.4	37.6	−9.0	+3.0	24.88	−7.2	−.3	38.5	−5.6	+.2	64.5	−1.8	−1.6
Pottery	80.0	−2.1	+12.0	70.3	−6.3	+35.5	23.28	−4.2	+21.0	40.5	−1.5	+5.3	60.2	+1.1	+11.0
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	103.4	−3.6	+7.5	91.3	−5.1	+18.9	17.73	−1.6	+10.7	35.1	−2.5	−(2)	50.2	+1.3	+9.9
Fabrics	99.7	−2.4	+10.4	93.8	−4.3	+24.7	17.74	−1.9	+13.0	36.4	−2.4	+.6	48.6	+.7	+11.9
Carpets and rugs	101.6	−.6	+22.0	100.2	−.5	+52.3	23.14	+.1	+24.7	36.7	−.6	+7.7	63.1	+.7	+14.3
Cotton goods	103.0	−2.4	+15.7	101.2	−5.0	+33.5	15.55	−2.6	+15.4	36.9	−2.5	−.1	42.1	+(2)	+15.8
Cotton small wares	97.4	−.8	+7.3	91.6	−4.2	+11.9	17.49	−3.5	+4.4	36.8	−4.0	−1.2	48.2	+.6	+7.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles	109.7	−7.6	−1.5	95.8	−9.7	+9.2	21.07	−2.3	+10.8	36.3	−4.0	−.3	57.4	+1.8	+11.3
Hats, fur-felt	83.9	+1.2	−3.3	73.8	+6.5	−1.7	24.26	+5.2	+1.8	34.2	+5.0	−7.7	72.0	+2.3	+9.1
Knit goods	118.1	−3.0	+5.1	119.0	−4.8	+14.4	17.51	−1.9	+8.9	35.7	−3.2	+1.4	50.1	+1.7	+7.9
Silk and rayon goods	79.1	+.5	+9.7	68.4	+(2)	+22.0	16.70	−.5	+11.1	36.6	−.8	+4.1	45.4	+.3	+6.7
Woolen and worsted goods	86.0	−2.2	+9.0	78.5	−3.6	+27.7	21.08	−1.4	+17.1	36.1	−2.3	+.4	58.6	+.9	+16.2
Wearing apparel	109.3	−6.2	+1.6	82.5	−7.2	+7.7	17.70	−1.0	+6.0	32.2	−2.9	−2.3	53.5	+2.6	+7.5
Clothing, men's	106.6	−4.4	+2.1	86.7	−3.6	+9.2	19.19	+.8	+7.0	32.5	−4.5	+1.8	58.1	+5.1	+6.7
Clothing, women's	137.3	−10.0	−1.9	91.6	−13.5	+6.5	18.32	−3.9	+8.5	30.9	−2.3	−5.6	55.8	+.4	+12.7
Corsets and allied garments	89.6	−2.0	+3.8	85.2	−7.2	+4.0	15.50	−5.3	+.1	32.9	−6.1	−5.6	46.6	+(2)	+5.3
Men's furnishings	136.5	−3.8	+8.2	103.7	−2.2	+7.4	13.43	+1.7	−.7	33.2	−6.4	−17.4	35.5	+4.2	+6.7
Millinery	51.2	−8.5	+1.1	37.4	−3.3	+6.6	21.17	+5.6	+5.3	31.5	−2.3	+18.1	68.7	+9.1	−8.2
Shirts and collars	118.0	−1.8	+6.5	101.7	+(2)	+7.5	12.90	+1.9	+.8	33.9	+1.6	−3.6	39.3	+.9	+6.4
Leather and its manufactures	93.8	−1.4	+8.1	80.6	−1.2	+24.8	20.01	+.1	+15.5	38.1	+2.0	+9.6	53.5	−1.8	+4.8
Boots and shoes	94.0	−1.4	+8.9	73.3	−1.1	+26.7	18.80	+.4	+16.4	37.7	+2.9	+11.8	51.0	−2.7	+3.0
Leather	98.0	−1.1	+5.5	108.4	−1.4	+20.8	24.54	−.4	+14.5	39.3	−1.1	+3.8	62.6	+.7	+10.9
Food and kindred products	112.6	+4.4	+4.4	115.8	+3.8	+17.1	24.86	−.6	+12.1	41.4	−1.0	+1.8	60.0	+.2	+12.4
Baking	136.6	+1.5	+6.3	133.8	+2.7	+16.3	25.48	+1.2	+9.4	43.3	−.2	+6.1	59.3	+1.5	+5.8
Beverages	224.4	+8.2	+12.7	260.5	+10.0	+18.0	34.32	+1.7	+4.8	41.7	+1.0	−1.4	83.3	+.8	+5.8
Butter	95.6	+7.3	+4.9	76.6	+7.5	+8.0	22.29	+.2	+2.9	48.9	+.6	−1.6	45.7	−.5	+6.2
Canning and preserving	122.7	+23.2	−2.8	123.5	+13.9	+20.3	16.17	−7.6	+23.7	35.9	−6.6	+5.8	46.6	−.6	+17.5
Confectionery	68.9	−3.3	+.5	68.0	−1.7	+13.9	17.74	+1.7	+13.4	37.7	−1.2	+5.8	47.1	+2.1	+7.7
Flour	73.6	−.3	+1.8	74.2	+1.2	+10.8	25.68	+1.5	+9.0	44.1	−.2	+.1	57.5	+1.6	+7.7
Ice cream	90.6	+10.4	+7.4	81.5	+7.5	+12.4	27.34	−2.6	+4.7	49.2	+1.2	+2.4	56.0	−3.4	+2.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	88.9	−.5	+3.6	99.2	+.2	+22.1	27.97	+.8	+17.8	40.8	+.8	−3.2	68.7	+.1	+22.3
Sugar, beet	49.3	+5.7	+1.5	55.2	+8.0	+10.2	25.65	+2.2	+8.6	40.6	+5.0	−.2	64.8	−3.5	+9.3
Sugar refining, cane	74.9	−4.3	−6.3	68.4	−4.5	+2.7	25.40	−.2	+9.7	39.4	−2.6	+.4	64.3	+3.1	+7.7
Tobacco manufactures	60.1	+.3	−.2	55.7	+3.9	+11.2	17.15	+3.6	+11.4	38.0	+2.2	+2.9	45.1	+1.4	+9.7
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	56.4	+.9	+2.5	69.4	+4.5	+24.0	18.39	+3.5	+21.0	37.1	+2.2	+8.4	50.1	+1.5	+12.2
Cigars and cigarettes	60.5	+.3	−.5	54.0	+3.9	+9.3	16.89	+3.6	+10.1	38.1	+2.2	+2.0	44.5	+1.4	+9.3
Paper and printing	106.9	−.7	+8.2	104.9	−.9	+17.6	28.61	−.2	+8.6	39.7	−1.5	+2.7	74.5	+.9	+5.2
Boxes, paper	103.0	−.6	+12.8	104.4	−1.7	+21.5	20.70	−1.1	+7.7	40.3	−2.0	+.9	51.9	+.8	+6.8
Paper and pulp	120.5	+.3	+10.7	124.3	+2.1	+30.7	25.90	+1.8	+18.0	42.2	−1.4	+3.5	61.4	+3.3	+13.9
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	95.4	−1.9	+8.7	91.3	−3.4	+16.9	30.26	−1.6	+7.5	39.5	−1.8	+4.4	77.8	−(2)	+3.2
Newspapers and periodicals	105.4	−.7	+2.7	103.6	−1.1	+7.4	37.18	−.3	+4.5	36.8	−1.1	+.5	97.1	+.3	+3.4

See footnotes at end of table;

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, June 1937*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Index June 1937	Percentage change from—		Index June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—		June 1937	Percentage change from—	
		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936		May 1937	June 1936
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	**123.9**	**−0.5**	**+12.3**	**137.4**	**+0.5**	**+30.4**	**$28.89**	**+1.0**	**+16.0**	**39.6**	**−0.7**	**+1.0**	*Cents* **73.7**	**+1.5**	**+15.5**
Other than petroleum refining	123.4	−1.0	+13.7	135.7	−.4	+31.4	26.52	+.6	+15.5	40.6	−1.3	+1.0	66.1	+1.9	+14.4
Chemicals	138.5	+.7	+16.8	153.5	+.7	+35.5	30.81	−.1	+16.0	40.5	−.5	−.4	76.2	+.5	+16.5
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	43.9	−8.0	+15.9	38.6	−8.7	+35.8	12.15	−.7	+17.1	48.7	−1.2	+12.6	25.1	−.3	+4.2
Druggists' preparations	108.8	+.4	+8.4	121.3	+2.8	+22.1	24.40	+2.4	+12.6	40.0	+1.7	+3.8	58.1	+1.7	+3.9
Explosives	94.8	+4.5	+14.6	103.0	−.2	+23.3	30.99	−4.5	+7.6	39.0	−4.2	−1.8	79.4	−.3	+9.8
Fertilizers	75.7	−27.7	+28.1	79.2	−31.9	+44.3	17.06	−5.8	+12.7	40.2	−9.4	+5.2	42.5	+3.9	+7.4
Paints and varnishes	138.9	−.9	+7.8	142.7	−1.6	+18.1	28.54	−.7	+9.6	42.5	−2.3	−1.5	67.4	+1.6	+11.2
Rayon and allied products	391.4	+1.9	+16.4	391.8	+2.6	+41.5	24.69	+.7	+21.4	39.8	+.5	+2.4	62.0	+.1	+18.6
Soap	102.5	−.8	+6.4	115.1	+1.1	+21.3	27.26	+1.9	+14.1	39.3	+.1	−1.1	69.7	+1.8	+15.3
Petroleum refining	126.0	+1.6	+6.9	143.0	+3.4	+27.3	34.36	+1.8	+19.0	36.5	+1.8	+.2	95.2	+(2)	+19.6
Rubber products	**101.2**	**−2.3**	**+12.7**	**103.8**	**−4.9**	**+16.6**	**27.51**	**−2.7**	**+3.5**	**35.7**	**−3.1**	**−4.0**	**78.8**	**+.5**	**+9.9**
Rubber boots and shoes	72.5	−5.0	+5.2	69.7	−4.1	+23.2	24.18	+1.0	+17.1	39.6	+1.1	+.1	61.0	−.2	+16.5
Rubber goods, other than boots, shoes, tires, and inner tubes	142.1	−3.0	+16.9	144.9	−5.6	+31.2	23.54	−2.6	+12.2	39.4	−4.1	+2.5	59.8	+1.0	+10.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	92.7	−1.1	+12.0	97.9	−4.7	+9.4	30.77	−3.6	−2.4	32.1	−3.4	−10.2	96.3	−(2)	+8.8

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average 1929=100]

Coal mining:														
Anthracite	51.1	+0.2	−0.2	50.9	+14.7	+21.4	$28.99	+14.5	+21.6	31.2	+12.3	+6.5	91.7	+0.5	+10.3
Bituminous	77.9	+.2	+2.9	71.2	+5.0	+15.7	23.19	+4.9	+12.5	25.9	+4.6	−.2	88.6	−1.5	+10.7
Metalliferous mining	79.0	+1.0	+27.6	77.3	−3.0	+60.2	31.16	−4.0	+25.6	43.5	−2.7	+5.7	71.7	−1.3	+19.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	55.4	+.9	+3.6	52.6	+2.5	+19.6	23.84	+1.6	+15.4	44.4	+.8	+1.6	53.8	+1.3	+13.0
Crude-petroleum producing [4]	79.1	+3.2	+7.4	70.5	+3.8	+19.7	33.57	+.6	+11.4	40.0	+1.6	+3.2	82.8	−1.0	+8.0
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph [5]	78.5	+1.0	+9.0	88.6	−1.0	+14.5	29.95	−2.0	+5.1	37.9	−3.6	−.9	81.7	+1.8	+6.4
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	96.0	+1.8	+6.2	100.1	+2.6	+13.6	33.57	+.8	+6.9	40.6	+1.4	+.9	82.6	0	+7.6
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	73.3	+.1	+2.2	71.1	+1.5	+6.5	31.85	+1.4	+4.2	46.6	+.8	−.1	67.5	+.9	+4.2
Trade:															
Wholesale	90.3	−.6	+6.7	76.3	+.2	+11.6	30.56	+.8	+4.5	43.3	+.3	+.2	70.7	+.5	+4.4
Retail [6]	90.5	+.6	+5.8	74.4	+1.1	+12.0	22.06	+.5	+5.8	43.4	−[2]	−1.3	55.5	+.7	+6.6
General merchandising [7]	102.9	+.7	+6.7	92.5	+1.1	+13.7	18.74	+.4	+6.6	39.7	−[2]	−3.0	50.6	+.5	+9.8
Other than general merchandising	87.2	+.6	+5.5	70.6	+1.1	+11.4	24.73	+.5	+5.6	44.5	0	−.8	57.0	+.7	+5.8
Hotels (year-round) [8]	86.9	−.8	+3.6	74.0	+.5	+11.0	14.83	+1.4	+7.2	47.7	+.1	+.9	30.7	+1.2	+6.5
Laundries	93.5	+3.6	+7.2	85.5	+5.0	+12.7	17.18	+1.4	+5.1	43.6	+.4	+.6	39.1	+.8	+4.2
Dyeing and cleaning	92.1	+3.9	+5.3	79.2	+7.2	+14.4	21.32	+3.1	+8.6	45.4	+.9	+2.1	47.1	+1.5	+4.3
Brokerage	[9]	−3.0	+3.9	[9]	−3.2	+8.1	39.28	−.2	+4.1	[9]	[9]	[9]	[9]	[9]	[9]
Insurance	[9]	+.4	+1.5	[9]	+1.1	+5.9	39.78	+.7	+4.4	[9]	[9]	[9]	[9]	[9]	[9]
Building construction	[9]	+3.1	+10.5	[9]	+3.5	+26.6	31.25	+.3	+14.6	33.8	−1.4	+1.8	92.5	+1.9	+12.8

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments, as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. Percentage changes over year are computed from indexes. Percentage changes over month in average weekly earnings for the manufacturing groups, for all manufacturing industries combined, and for retail trade are also computed from indexes.

[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] May data for crude-petroleum producing revised as follows:

Pay roll.—May index, 67.9, percentage change from April, +0.7, from May 1936, +17.1.

Average weekly earnings.—Percentage change from April to May, −0.5, from May 1936, +11.1.

Average weekly hours.—May average, 39.1, percentage change from April, −2.3.

Average hourly earnings.—May average, 83.8, percentage change from April, +1.8, from May 1936, +8.9.

[5] Data for telephone and telegraph industries revised as follows:

Employment.—Percentage change from December 1936 to January 1937, +1.0; from January 1937 to February 1937, +0.5; from February to March, +0.7; from January 1936 to January 1937, +6.2.

Pay roll.—January index, 83.6, percentage change from December 1936, +1.5, from January 1936, +11.5; February index, 82.2, percentage change from January, −1.6, from February 1936, +7.9; March index, 87.2, percentage change from February, +6.0, from March 1936, +12.9; April index, 86.3, percentage change from April 1936, +13.6.

Average weekly earnings.—January average $30.18, percentage change from December 1936, +0.4, from January 1936, +5.0; February average $29.57, percentage change from January, −2.2, from February 1936, +0.9; March average $31.10, percentage change from February, +5.2, from March 1936, +5.2; April average $30.18, percentage change from April 1936, +5.1.

Average weekly hours.—January average 39.6, percentage change from December 1936, +2.3, from January 1936, +2.9; percentage change from January to February, −4.5; from February 1936 to February 1937, −4.2; March average 39.3, percentage change from February, +3.7, from March 1936, +1.5; percentage change from April 1936 to April 1937, +1.7.

Average hourly earnings.—January average 79.4 cents, percentage change from December 1936, −1.8, from January 1936, +2.3; February average, 80.6 cents, percentage change from January, +2.1; March average, 82.0 cents, percentage change from February, +1.4, from March 1936, +3.7; April average 79.6 cents, percentage change from April 1936, +3.6.

[6] Average weekly earnings in April 1937 in retail trade revised to $21.73.

[7] Data for general merchandising revised as follows: April pay-roll index, 89.1; percentage change from March, +1.7; percentage change from April 1936, +10.0. April average weekly earnings, $18.63; percentage change from March 1937, +2.4; percentage change from April 1936, +7.6.

[8] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[9] Not available.

Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls, January 1936 to June 1937

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in tables 2 and 3 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months from January 1936 to June 1937, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to June 1937.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover wage earners only. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average, 1923–25, as 100. In June 1937 reports were received from 25,402 manufacturing establishments employing 4,940,790 workers, whose weekly earnings were $128,446,166. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Durable- and Nondurable-Goods Groups, January 1936 to June 1937*[1]

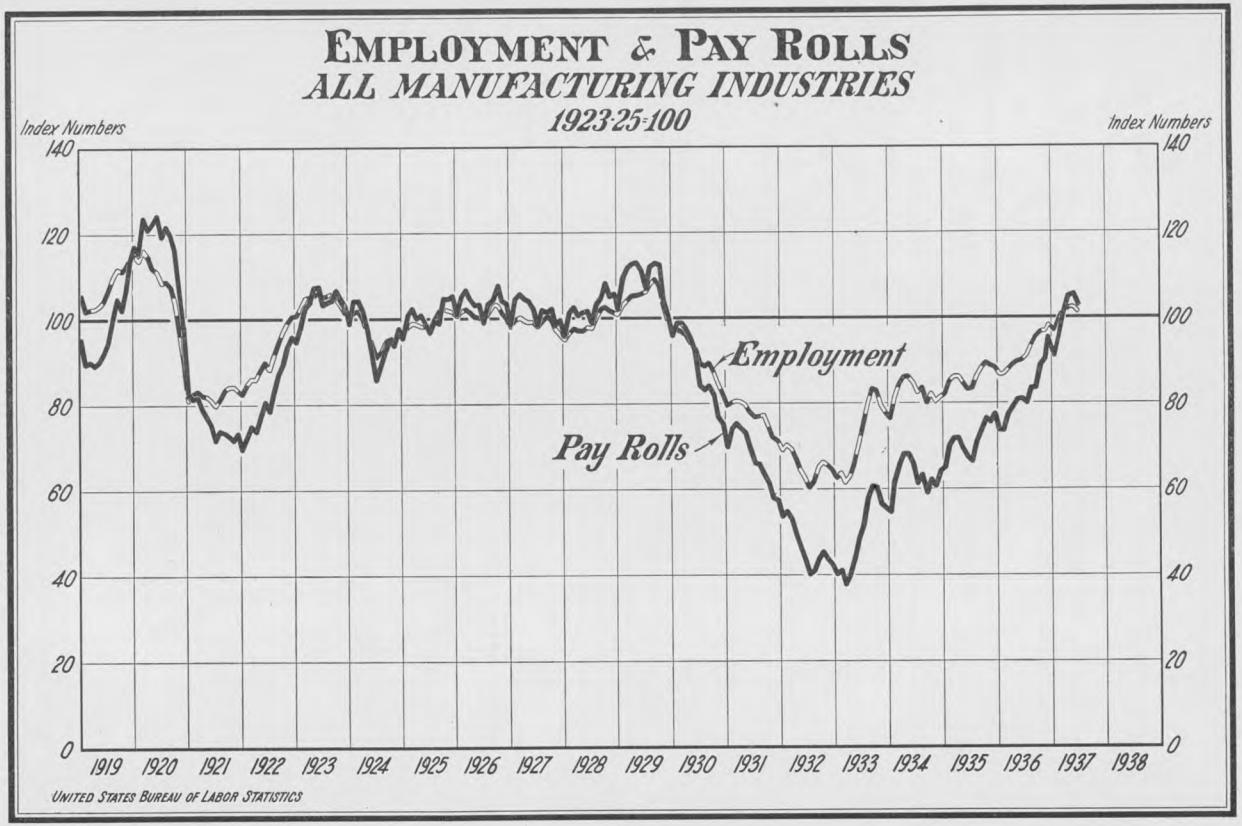
[Adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures—3-year average 1923–25=100]

Month	Manufacturing											
	Total				Durable goods[2]				Nondurable goods[3]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1936	1936	1937
January	86.8	96.5	73.8	90.7	78.7	90.4	66.9	86.6	95.4	103.0	82.5	96.0
February	86.9	99.0	73.7	95.8	78.6	93.2	66.6	92.5	95.8	105.2	82.7	99.9
March	87.9	101.1	77.6	101.1	80.2	96.4	71.8	100.0	96.1	106.1	84.9	102.6
April	89.1	102.1	79.3	104.9	82.3	98.6	76.0	106.4	96.3	105.9	83.5	102.9
May	89.8	102.3	80.8	105.2	84.0	99.9	78.5	107.5	96.0	104.8	83.8	102.3
June	90.1	101.1	81.1	102.9	84.7	98.8	79.0	104.6	95.9	103.5	83.9	100.8
July	91.2	------	80.2	------	84.6	------	75.9	------	98.2	------	85.6	------
August	93.5	------	83.5	------	84.7	------	77.0	------	102.8	------	91.8	------
September	95.5	------	83.6	------	85.7	------	77.2	------	105.9	------	91.6	------
October	96.7	------	89.0	------	89.2	------	85.3	------	104.7	------	93.7	------
November	96.9	------	90.7	------	91.0	------	88.9	------	103.3	------	92.9	------
December	98.1	------	95.2	------	92.7	------	93.4	------	104.0	------	97.5	------
Average	91.9	------	82.4	------	84.7	------	78.0	------	99.5	------	87.9	------

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years will be found in the April 1937 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.

[3] Includes the following groups of manufacturing industries: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.



The indexes of nonmanufacturing industries are also computed from data supplied by reporting establishments, but the base is the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, including executives. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to June 1937* [1]

[12-month average 1929=100]

Month	Anthracite mining				Bituminous-coal mining				Metalliferous mining				Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	59.1	54.1	54.4	42.7	79.8	84.6	70.6	79.9	54.2	66.8	41.7	58.4	39.4	45.7	25.5	34.6
February	61.2	52.7	76.7	41.0	80.2	84.8	78.4	82.4	55.5	69.6	42.8	63.4	36.9	46.7	23.9	37.8
March	52.5	48.9	42.6	37.8	80.4	85.9	70.2	88.4	55.9	73.1	45.1	70.6	42.2	49.1	30.9	41.3
April	49.8	54.0	28.6	63.9	77.5	72.6	62.6	54.4	57.5	76.2	45.5	76.9	48.4	53.1	36.1	48.1
May	54.9	51.0	56.3	44.4	76.2	77.8	62.2	67.8	60.8	78.2	47.7	79.6	52.0	54.9	42.1	51.4
June	51.2	51.1	42.0	50.9	75.7	77.9	61.5	71.2	61.9	79.0	48.2	77.3	53.5	55.4	44.0	52.6
July	48.4	-----	37.2	-----	75.5	-----	62.6	-----	61.3	-----	46.1	-----	54.4	-----	43.9	-----
August	41.1	-----	31.4	-----	76.9	-----	65.4	-----	61.6	-----	48.2	-----	55.3	-----	46.2	-----
September	47.6	-----	34.9	-----	78.2	-----	71.0	-----	63.1	-----	50.0	-----	54.9	-----	44.8	-----
October	49.9	-----	48.5	-----	81.1	-----	79.2	-----	64.2	-----	53.7	-----	54.6	-----	46.2	-----
November	51.5	-----	40.3	-----	82.3	-----	80.7	-----	62.9	-----	54.6	-----	52.6	-----	43.5	-----
December	54.8	-----	55.4	-----	83.9	-----	85.0	-----	64.4	-----	57.7	-----	49.4	-----	39.4	-----
Average	51.8	-----	45.7	-----	79.0	-----	70.8	-----	60.3	-----	48.4	-----	49.5	-----	38.9	-----

Month	Crude-petroleum producing				Telephone and telegraph				Electric light and power, and manufactured gas				Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [2]			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	71.1	72.7	55.7	61.0	70.1	74.4	75.0	[3]83.6	86.1	92.1	84.8	92.3	70.7	72.5	65.0	68.0
February	70.8	73.5	55.7	63.8	69.9	74.8	76.2	[3]82.2	86.1	92.0	84.7	93.3	71.7	72.5	68.3	68.7
March	70.9	74.2	56.0	63.7	70.2	75.4	77.2	[3]87.2	86.8	92.2	85.9	94.5	71.2	72.6	67.8	69.2
April	71.3	75.8	57.1	67.4	70.8	76.6	76.0	[3]86.3	88.0	92.9	86.2	95.2	71.3	72.9	65.9	69.4
May	72.7	76.7	58.0	[3]67.9	71.6	77.7	78.5	89.5	89.0	94.4	87.0	97.6	71.5	73.3	66.1	70.1
June	73.7	79.1	58.9	70.5	72.1	78.5	77.4	88.6	90.4	96.0	88.1	100.1	71.7	73.3	66.8	71.1
July	75.4	-----	60.4	-----	73.1	-----	79.9	-----	91.7	-----	89.8	-----	72.4	-----	66.5	-----
August	75.0	-----	59.7	-----	73.5	-----	81.2	-----	93.1	-----	89.8	-----	72.4	-----	66.5	-----
September	74.5	-----	60.4	-----	73.7	-----	78.8	-----	93.5	-----	91.4	-----	72.8	-----	66.4	-----
October	73.6	-----	59.6	-----	73.8	-----	83.1	-----	94.0	-----	92.7	-----	73.1	-----	67.7	-----
November	73.2	-----	60.1	-----	73.7	-----	81.6	-----	93.5	-----	91.8	-----	73.0	-----	69.7	-----
December	72.4	-----	61.3	-----	73.6	-----	82.4	-----	93.2	-----	93.8	-----	72.5	-----	69.3	-----
Average	72.9	-----	58.6	-----	72.2	-----	78.9	-----	90.5	-----	88.8	-----	72.0	-----	67.2	-----

[1] Comparable indexes for earlier years for all of these industries, except year-round hotels, will be found in the February 1935 and subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable indexes for year-round hotels will be found in the September 1935 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing; see transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

[3] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, January 1936 to June 1937*—Continued

Month	Wholesale trade				Total retail trade				Retail trade—general merchandising				Retail trade—other than general merchandising			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	85.6	90.7	66.6	72.6	80.4	85.4	62.1	68.0	88.2	95.1	76.4	83.8	78.4	82.9	59.1	64.7
February	85.0	92.0	66.6	74.1	79.7	85.2	61.6	67.9	85.1	93.9	73.9	82.9	78.3	82.9	59.1	64.8
March	85.6	92.1	69.0	75.0	81.9	88.5	63.5	70.5	90.9	100.3	77.3	87.6	79.5	85.4	60.7	67.0
April	85.7	91.9	67.9	75.4	85.2	88.8	65.3	71.9	97.4	99.6	81.0	89.1	82.0	86.0	62.1	68.3
May	84.6	90.8	68.2	76.1	85.0	89.9	65.8	73.5	95.5	102.1	80.8	91.5	82.3	86.7	62.7	69.8
June	84.6	90.3	68.4	76.3	85.5	90.5	66.4	74.4	96.4	102.9	81.3	92.5	82.6	87.2	63.3	70.6
July	85.4	-----	69.0	-----	83.2	-----	65.1	-----	90.7	-----	77.3	-----	81.2	-----	62.6	-----
August	86.3	-----	69.7	-----	82.4	-----	64.4	-----	89.4	-----	76.4	-----	80.5	-----	61.9	-----
September	88.0	-----	70.5	-----	86.6	-----	66.6	-----	98.5	-----	82.8	-----	83.5	-----	63.3	-----
October	89.0	-----	71.5	-----	88.7	-----	68.3	-----	103.9	-----	87.2	-----	84.7	-----	64.4	-----
November	89.7	-----	73.1	-----	90.1	-----	70.1	-----	109.3	-----	91.4	-----	85.1	-----	65.7	-----
December	91.0	-----	72.8	-----	99.6	-----	75.9	-----	143.4	-----	116.2	-----	88.1	-----	67.6	-----
Average	86.7	-----	69.4	-----	85.7	-----	66.3	-----	99.1	-----	83.5	-----	82.2	-----	62.7	-----

Month	Year-round hotels				Laundries				Dyeing and cleaning			
	Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls		Employment		Pay rolls	
	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937
January	81.9	85.5	64.9	70.4	81.5	88.5	68.3	76.4	71.5	76.8	51.6	55.6
February	82.8	86.4	66.5	72.5	81.2	88.6	67.8	76.3	70.3	76.2	49.0	54.6
March	82.8	86.9	66.0	72.7	82.1	88.7	69.9	77.5	74.7	81.1	56.4	61.7
April	83.2	88.4	66.3	74.5	83.2	88.5	70.9	78.5	81.8	84.9	64.1	68.8
May	84.1	87.7	67.0	73.6	85.5	90.3	75.6	81.4	87.3	88.6	72.2	73.9
June	83.9	86.9	66.6	74.0	87.2	93.5	75.8	85.5	87.5	92.1	69.2	79.2
July	83.3	-----	66.0	-----	90.5	-----	79.0	-----	85.5	-----	64.8	-----
August	83.2	-----	66.1	-----	89.6	-----	76.7	-----	83.5	-----	63.2	-----
September	84.2	-----	67.5	-----	89.6	-----	76.6	-----	86.7	-----	66.1	-----
October	85.4	-----	69.6	-----	87.6	-----	75.3	-----	86.5	-----	66.7	-----
November	84.6	-----	69.6	-----	87.0	-----	74.5	-----	81.3	-----	60.2	-----
December	84.0	-----	69.8	-----	87.6	-----	76.1	-----	77.7	-----	57.3	-----
Average	83.6	-----	67.2	-----	86.1	-----	73.9	-----	81.2	-----	61.7	-----

Trend of Industrial and Business Employment, by States

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in May and June 1937, is shown in table 4 for all groups combined, and for all manufacturing industries combined, based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 89 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries and each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 except building construction.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in May and June 1937, by Geographic Divisions and by States*

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll June 1937	Percentage change from May 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) June 1937	Percentage change from May 1937	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll June 1937	Percentage change from May 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week) June 1937	Percentage change from May 1937
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
New England	14,074	944,164	−1.2	22,777,905	−1.3	3,509	662,439	−2.0	15,640,029	−2.2
Maine	821	60,599	+1.1	1,307,456	(1)	296	49,472	+.8	1,038,721	−.4
New Hampshire	619	40,458	−.9	866,775	−2.5	210	33,159	−2.0	694,810	−3.4
Vermont	491	20,061	−.5	457,918	−2.6	146	12,674	−3.1	288,763	−5.7
Massachusetts	[2] *8,381*	*506,745*	*−1.9*	*12,287,453*	*−1.7*	*1,690*	*303,705*	*−3.3*	*7,174,185*	*−3.1*
Rhode Island	1,251	98,767	−.7	2,291,690	−.9	423	79,417	−.8	1,774,755	−1.4
Connecticut	2,511	217,534	−.7	5,566,613	−.7	744	184,012	−1.0	4,668,795	−1.0
Middle Atlantic	35,428	2,339,035	(1)	64,601,719	+.4	5,309	1,323,396	+.4	36,140,206	−.1
New York	23,410	1,053,910	−.7	29,874,503	−.6	[3] *2,144*	*470,290*	*−.2*	*13,170,054*	*+.1*
New Jersey	4,283	356,533	+.3	9,504,045	−.2	[4] *846*	*269,047*	*+.2*	*7,045,052*	*−1.0*
Pennsylvania	7,735	928,592	+.7	25,223,171	+1.7	*2,319*	*584,059*	[5] *−.1*	*15,925,100*	[5] *−.6*
East North Central	21,815	2,381,771	−2.4	67,587,369	−4.3	7,580	1,843,099	−3.1	53,354,132	−6.1
Ohio	8,195	640,130	−6.5	17,646,439	−9.2	2,571	472,001	−8.8	13,410,462	−12.3
Indiana	*2,465*	*269,849*	*−2.7*	*7,292,225*	*−4.5*	*887*	*221,718*	*−3.7*	*6,171,907*	*−5.8*
Illinois	[6] *6,304*	*654,251*	*+.2*	*18,031,109*	*+.8*	*2,442*	*462,441*	*−.2*	*12,907,127*	*+.1*
Michigan	3,833	617,652	−1.3	19,263,855	−5.3	*955*	*525,864*	*−.7*	*16,432,473*	*−6.9*
Wisconsin	[7] *1,018*	*199,889*	*+.7*	*5,353,741*	*+1.0*	[8] *725*	*161,075*	[5] *−.6*	*4,432,163*	[5] *−1.5*
West North Central	11,933	442,696	+1.4	10,873,877	+2.0	2,460	227,088	+2.0	5,565,501	+3.1
Minnesota	2,190	91,794	+.8	2,435,262	+2.3	428	44,750	+.9	1,179,572	+4.4
Iowa	1,847	66,803	+1.8	1,643,917	+2.0	430	40,049	+.5	1,026,498	+1.5
Missouri	3,080	177,874	+1.7	4,268,575	+2.5	895	103,209	+3.5	2,360,491	+4.0
North Dakota	536	5,302	+.9	130,164	+1.6	58	781	−1.1	22,798	+2.9
South Dakota	477	7,889	+1.4	203,837	+.6	40	1,944	+1.8	51,233	+2.7
Nebraska	1,573	34,234	+1.7	822,827	+.6	161	12,092	+3.5	310,642	+1.6
Kansas	[9] *2,230*	*58,800*	[5] *+2.2*	*1,369,295*	[5] *+.6*	*448*	*24,263*	*+.1*	*614,267*	*+.5*
South Atlantic	11,206	881,571	−1.0	18,061,296	−1.0	2,774	593,121	−1.2	11,358,520	−2.2
Delaware	217	18,463	+3.0	466,512	+.2	88	14,220	+3.1	353,046	−.3
Maryland	*1,568*	*138,454*	*−.1*	*3,424,451*	*−.9*	*568*	*95,084*	[5] *−1.4*	*2,360,947*	[5] *−2.7*
District of Columbia	1,121	42,322	+1.4	1,089,208	+1.6	35	3,546	+2.0	122,976	+1.3
Virginia	2,159	118,796	−1.2	2,395,321	+.7	465	83,662	−1.0	1,668,990	+.6
West Virginia	1,288	163,262	+1.3	4,159,151	+1.1	260	65,129	+.9	1,762,514	−1.3
North Carolina	1,454	161,975	−1.2	2,544,114	−3.3	573	149,417	−1.2	2,301,342	−3.6
South Carolina	772	77,803	−1.9	1,198,962	−2.7	205	69,184	−2.3	1,037,119	−3.4
Georgia	1,543	120,188	−1.8	2,014,734	−2.9	379	92,964	−2.1	1,416,564	−3.8
Florida	1,084	40,308	−10.1	768,843	−6.7	201	19,915	−6.2	335,022	−3.5
East South Central	4,138	302,910	(1)	5,751,380	+.5	1,000	189,763	−.5	3,474,450	−.2
Kentucky	1,303	89,305	−1.0	1,891,052	−1.0	292	36,477	−.3	764,528	+2.1
Tennessee	1,324	108,539	−1.2	2,007,863	−1.2	387	80,875	−1.8	1,462,223	−2.1
Alabama	956	88,124	+2.1	1,567,123	+4.5	232	62,821	+.9	1,098,540	+.6
Mississippi	555	16,942	+1.6	285,342	+1.0	89	9,590	+1.7	149,159	+2.3
West South Central	4,638	210,479	+1.0	4,815,863	+1.0	1,125	105,503	+.4	2,303,291	+1.1
Arkansas	[10] *426*	*22,456*	*+.7*	*404,445*	*+.9*	*177*	*16,933*	*+.3*	*292,216*	*+2.9*
Louisiana	1,032	49,855	(1)	977,788	+.6	229	26,857	−.5	471,338	+.1
Oklahoma	1,394	45,857	+.4	1,156,698	+1.1	143	12,867	−.5	310,717	+1.1
Texas	[11] *1,786*	*92,311*	*+1.9*	*2,276,932*	*+1.1*	*576*	*48,846*	*+1.1*	*1,229,020*	*+1.0*
Mountain	4,371	138,315	+1.2	3,747,019	+.1	582	40,868	+1.8	1,130,566	−.3
Montana	699	21,892	+2.8	638,642	−4.2	87	5,430	+2.8	164,891	+2.6
Idaho	489	10,655	−3.0	283,549	−2.0	55	3,303	+1.5	90,178	+9.6
Wyoming	335	9,006	+.4	261,310	+14.6	39	1,727	+.9	56,800	+6.2
Colorado	1,243	45,534	+1.7	1,191,269	−.5	192	17,751	+1.5	493,729	−5.3
New Mexico	314	7,318	+.2	163,048	+1.8	32	923	−.8	18,035	.0
Arizona	477	18,959	+.2	549,812	−1.8	38	3,393	+3.2	88,617	+3.1
Utah	597	21,491	+2.2	552,517	+2.4	111	7,272	+2.3	184,996	+2.2
Nevada	217	3,460	+2.8	106,872	+4.0	28	1,069	+.5	33,320	+6.5
Pacific	9,427	461,510	+1.1	13,082,575	+2.8	2,531	271,155	+1.5	7,834,184	+4.1
Washington	3,101	105,809	+2.8	3,000,258	+6.3	572	60,688	+3.4	1,744,793	+9.2
Oregon	1,356	57,089	+3.8	1,549,710	+9.7	308	34,300	+6.0	930,042	+16.5
California	[12] *4,970*	*298,612*	*+.1*	*8,532,607*	*+.4*	*1,651*	*176,167*	*+.1*	*5,159,349*	*+.6*

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[2] Includes banks and trust companies, construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment, amusement and recreation, professional services, and trucking and handling.
[3] Includes laundering and cleaning, water, light, and power.
[4] Includes laundries.
[5] Weighted percentage change.
[6] Includes automobile and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.
[7] Includes construction, but not public works.
[8] Does not include logging.
[9] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[10] Includes automobile dealers and garages, and sand, gravel, and building stone.
[11] Includes business and personal service.
[12] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

Industrial and Business Employment and Pay Rolls in Principal Cities

A comparison of June 1937 employment and pay rolls with the May totals in 13 cities of the United States having a population of 500,000 or over is made in table 5. The changes are computed from reports received from identical establishments in both months.

In addition to reports included inthe several industrial groups regularly covered in the survey by the Bureau, reports have also been secured from establishments in other industries for inclusion in these city totals. As information concerning employment in building construction is not available for all cities at this time, figures for this industry have not been included in these city totals.

TABLE 5.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in May and June 1937, by Principal Cities*

City	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll, June 1937	Percentage change from May 1937	Amount of pay roll (1 week), June 1937	Percentage change from May 1937
New York, N. Y	17,435	724,286	−1.6	$20,054,416	−2.0
Chicago, Ill	4,473	482,160	−3.7	14,052,826	−3.2
Philadelphia, Pa	2,380	222,240	+2.0	6,025,956	+2.5
Detroit, Mich	1,658	409,517	−1.7	13,301,308	−6.1
Los Angeles, Calif	2,969	160,681	+.3	4,518,709	+1.4
Cleveland, Ohio	1,769	145,103	−5.1	4,040,405	−7.0
St. Louis, Mo	1,578	143,124	+2.5	3,623,344	+3.7
Baltimore, Md	1,232	107,178	−1.0	2,746,296	−1.7
Boston, Mass	3,888	190,563	−1.2	4,814,449	−.7
Pittsburgh, Pa	1,250	231,134	+.4	6,987,413	+1.8
San Francisco, Calif	1,647	90,483	−.5	2,717,048	+1.3
Buffalo, N. Y	899	74,667	+1.2	2,215,739	+1.0
Milwaukee, Wis	725	87,540	+.2	2,494,586	+1.8

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Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, JULY 1937 [1]

IN JULY building-construction activity, as measured by the value of permits issued, decreased 12.4 percent compared with the preceding month and the value of additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures decreased 6.6 percent. On the other hand, there was a small increase (2.4 percent) in the value of permits issued for new nonresidential construction.

Compared with July 1936, the permit value of total building construction decreased 15.2 percent. While the estimated cost of new residential construction dropped 38.4 percent, there were increases of 19.6 percent in the value of permits issued for new nonresidential construction and of 7.9 percent in additions, alterations, and repairs.

Comparison of July 1937 with June 1937 and July 1936

A summary of building construction in 1,483 identical cities in July and June 1937 and July 1936 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in 1,483 Identical Cities, July 1937*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Estimated cost		
	July 1937	Percentage change from—		July 1937	Percentage change from—	
		June 1937	July 1936		June 1937	July 1936
All construction	55,810	−10.3	−3.4	$131,941,130	−12.4	−15.2
New residential	10,427	−13.2	−8.4	53,764,056	−24.4	−38.4
New nonresidential	9,704	−10.0	−3.7	44,683,932	+2.4	+19.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	35,679	−9.5	−1.7	33,493,142	−6.6	+7.9

A summary of the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and of the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 1,483 identical cities, having a population of 2,500 and over, is shown in table 2 for the months of July and June 1937 and July 1936.

[1] More detailed information by geographic division and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, July 1937", copies of which will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Cost of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,483 Identical Cities, July 1937*

Type of dwelling	Estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	July 1937	Percentage change from—		July 1937	Percentage change from—	
		June 1937	July 1936		June 1937	July 1936
All types	$53,126,506	−24.4	−38.2	12,694	−23.7	−39.3
1-family	42,237,396	−13.5	−4.8	9,722	−11.7	−4.4
2-family [1]	2,194,042	−19.7	−17.3	790	−19.5	−11.3
Multifamily [2]	8,695,068	−53.5	−77.7	2,182	−52.9	−77.8

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. | [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, June and July 1937

The estimated cost of building construction for which permits were issued in the 1,483 identical cities reporting for the months of June and July 1937, together with the number of family dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction and Families Provided for in New Dwellings in 1,483 Identical Cities, by Size of City, July 1937*

Size of city	Total building construction			Number of families provided for in—							
	July 1937	June 1937	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
				July 1937	June 1937	July 1937	June 1937	July 1937	June 1937	July 1937	June 1937
Total, all cities	$131,941,130	$150,624,951	−12.4	12,694	16,629	9,722	11,013	790	981	2,182	4,635
500,000 and over	43,867,438	52,559,574	−16.5	3,425	5,150	2,065	2,436	187	209	1,173	2,505
100,000 and under 500,000	31,339,560	35,917,983	−12.7	2,794	3,798	2,218	2,502	196	299	380	997
50,000 and under 100,000	12,398,160	15,137,632	−18.1	1,127	1,616	939	1,062	101	137	87	417
25,000 and under 50,000	13,287,100	13,514,831	−1.7	1,329	1,463	1,115	1,250	84	91	130	122
10,000 and under 25,000	17,282,404	20,159,239	−14.3	2,191	2,555	1,910	2,051	103	124	178	380
5,000 and under 10,000	9,471,826	8,580,815	+10.4	1,189	1,271	915	1,034	65	78	209	159
2,500 and under 5,000	4,294,642	4,754,877	−9.7	639	776	560	678	54	43	25	55

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. | [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 7 Months, 1936 and 1937

Cumulative totals for the first 7 months of 1937 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 4. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Cost of Building Construction in Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 7 Months, 1936 and 1937, by Class of Construction*

Class of construction	Estimated cost of building construction, first 7 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936	
All construction	$1,002,591,993	$845,562,694	+18.6
New residential	470,066,512	382,225,012	+23.0
New nonresidential	311,115,713	287,439,341	+8.2
Additions, alterations, and repairs	221,409,768	175,898,341	+25.9

Table 5 presents the estimated cost of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 2,500 and over, for the first 7 months of 1936 and 1937.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Cost and Families Provided for in Cities of 2,500 Population and Over, First 7 Months, 1936 and 1937, by Type of Dwelling*

Type of dwelling	Housekeeping dwellings					
	Estimated cost			Number of families provided for		
	First 7 months of—		Percentage change	First 7 months of—		Percentage change
	1937	1936		1937	1936	
All types	$463,887,919	$375,981,540	+23.4	113,914	93,081	+22.4
1-family	334,887,583	252,016,613	+32.9	74,514	56,895	+31.0
2-family [1]	19,528,312	13,572,715	+43.9	6,889	4,869	+41.5
Multifamily [2]	109,472,024	110,392,212	−0.8	32,511	31,317	+3.8

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued during July and June 1937 and July 1936 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,483 identical cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics direct from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The cost figures shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered. Information concerning public building is collected by the Bureau from various

Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. These data are then added to the data concerning private construction received from local building officials. In July 1937 the value of Federal and State buildings for which contracts were awarded in these 1,483 cities amounted to $6,642,000; in June 1937, to $14,010,000; and in July 1936, to $26,881,000.

Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during July and June 1937 and July 1936 on construction projects financed from various Federal funds is shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, June and July 1937, and July 1936* [1]

Federal agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	July 1937	June 1937 [2]	July 1936 [2]
Total	$84,787,888	[3] $129,703,141	[4] $140,151,530
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	836,297	3,359,184	1,914,641
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	6,265,469	[5] 31,591,264	11,318,391
E. R. A. A. 1935 and 1936 [6]	20,117,714	[7] 27,329,919	[4] 52,126,482
Federal projects under The Works Program	9,867,587	14,906,618	26,448,299
Regular governmental appropriations	47,700,821	52,516,156	48,343,717

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.
[3] Includes $12,747,876 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[4] Includes $24,585,521 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[5] Includes $5,102,216 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).
[6] Includes First Deficiency Act Funds, 1936 and 1937.
[7] Includes $7,645,660 low-cost housing projects (Housing Division, P. W. A.).

The value of public-building and highway-construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for July and June 1937, and July 1936 is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds*

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	July 1937	June 1937	July 1936
Public buildings	$2,590,915	$1,502,467	$1,492,753
Highway construction	10,277,933	8,621,883	9,107,900

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN JULY 1937

THE RETAIL cost of food declined 0.4 percent between June 15 and July 13. This slight decrease was due primarily to a decline of about 15 percent in the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables.

The index for all foods for July 13 was 85.9 percent of the 1923–25 average. This is 2.3 percent higher than for the corresponding period of a year ago. Meats, which cost 13.5 percent more than in July 1936, made the largest advance. Increases were reported for all other commodity groups except fruits and vegetables, which decreased 14.5 percent. The current index for all foods has increased 25.9 percent above the low of 68.3 for July 1932. It is, however, still 19.3 percent below the predepression level of July 1929, when the index was 106.5.

Details by Commodity Groups

Although the combined cost of all food decreased slightly from June 15 to July 13, the cost of five of the eight major commodity groups showed advances ranging from 0.1 to 8.7 percent. Fats and oils remained unchanged and sugar and sweets decreased less than 1 percent.

The cost of cereals and bakery products advanced 0.1 percent. Relatively small price increases were reported for all items in the group, except white bread and whole-wheat bread, which remained unchanged.

The cost of meats increased 5.4 percent during the month ended July 13. A general advance throughout the country contributed to higher average prices for all items in the group except leg of lamb, which did not change. The cost of beef advanced 6.5 percent, with round steak showing the greatest increase, 8.6 percent. Pork rose 6.0 percent. Fresh pork chops and loin roast advanced 10.5 percent. Increases for cured pork items were less marked. The cost of lamb increased 2.5 percent, and roasting chickens were 1.9 percent higher. Although the combined cost of meats has advanced 36.0 percent since July 1932, it is still 14.4 percent lower than for the corresponding month of 1929.

Dairy products increased 1.6 percent, due in large part to an increase of 2.0 percent in the price of fresh milk. Milk prices rose in seven cities with increases of as much as 1 cent a quart reported from

Boston and New York. Decreases were reported in three cities. Butter showed a seasonal increase of 0.8 percent. The price of cheese was unchanged and evaporated milk declined slightly.

Egg prices rose 8.7 percent, continuing the seasonal advance which began in June. The price increased in each of the 51 cities included in the index, and is at the level of a year ago.

The cost of fruits and vegetables declined 12.8 percent, a continuation of the downward movement which was reported for June. This decline was due to marked price decreases for certain of the fresh items. Changes for the canned and dried items were relatively unimportant. The price of apples, which has moved steadily upward for almost a year, declined 17.3 percent. Both lemons and oranges advanced in price during the month. Lemons are, however, 11.4 percent lower than a year ago, while the price of oranges has increased 20.7 percent. Prices of the staple vegetables continued to decline. Since June 15 potatoes have decreased 18.2 percent; cabbage, 23.7 percent; onions, 5.6 percent; and green beans, 24.9 percent. The price of carrots, which has risen steadily since March, dropped 33.7 percent.

Indexes of retail food costs for July and June 1937, together with corresponding indexes for July 1936, 1932, and 1929 are shown in table 1. The chart on page 756 shows trends in the costs of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 to July 1937, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups*

July 13 and June 15, 1937, and July 1936, 1932, and 1929

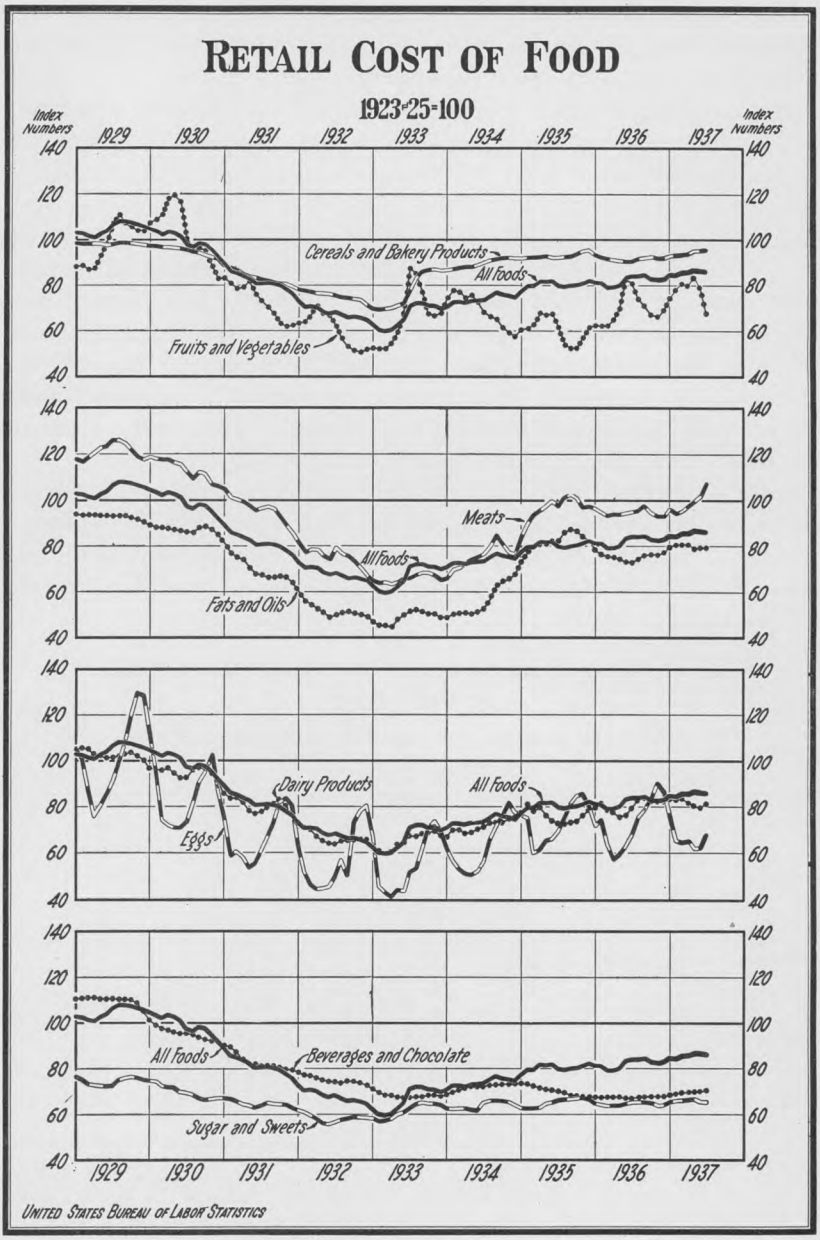
[1923–25=100]

Commodity group	1937		1936	1932	1929
	July 13	June 15	July 14	July 15	July 15
All foods	85.9	86.3	84.0	68.3	106.5
Cereals and bakery products	95.7	95.6	90.7	75.6	97.9
Meats	107.8	102.3	94.9	79.3	125.9
Dairy products	80.9	79.7	79.6	63.8	101.6
Eggs	68.0	62.5	67.8	49.3	91.3
Fruits and vegetables	69.0	79.2	80.7	[2] 62.4	107.2
Fresh	67.0	78.5	81.9	62.4	108.3
Canned	83.5	83.4	78.8	[2] 70.5	98.5
Dried	76.3	76.6	59.3	55.1	103.5
Beverages and chocolate	70.4	70.0	67.0	74.2	110.6
Fats and oils	79.5	79.5	73.0	49.9	93.3
Sugar and sweets	65.1	65.7	64.9	56.5	72.6

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

[2] Revised.

Prices of 56 of the 84 items included in the index advanced between June and July; 21 were lower in price; and 7 showed no change. Prices of 60 of these items were higher than in July 1936. Table 2 shows



average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined for July and June 1937 and July 1936. Prices for July 13, 1937, have been computed with the use of revised outlet weights. Both the unrevised and revised figures for June 1937 are shown in the table. A full description of the methods used in these revisions is given in "Retail Prices, July 1937", published in pamphlet form by the Bureau.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined* [1]

July and June 1937 and July 1936

[*Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1937			1936
		July 13	June 15 [2]	June 15 [3]	July 14
Cereals and bakery products:					
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Flour, wheat	pound	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.6
*Macaroni	do	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.1
*Wheat cereal	28-oz. package	24.6	24.6	24.5	24.3
*Corn flakes	8-oz. package	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.1
*Corn meal	pound	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.0
Hominy grits	24-oz. package	9.8	9.7	9.7	8.9
*Rice	pound	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.7
*Rolled oats	do	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.4
Bakery products:					
*Bread, white	do	8.9	8.9	8.7	8.1
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.8	9.8	9.7	9.3
Bread, rye	do	10.0	10.0	9.4	9.0
Cake	do	24.9	24.8	25.3	25.3
Soda crackers	do	18.0	18.0	18.4	18.1
Meats:					
Beef:					
*Sirloin steak	do	47.6	44.0	44.0	37.6
*Round steak	do	43.4	40.0	39.7	34.0
*Rib roast	do	35.4	33.3	33.4	28.9
*Chuck roast	do	27.8	25.9	26.0	21.6
*Plate	do	17.8	16.8	17.2	14.6
Liver	do	25.2	25.0	25.6	26.0
Veal:					
Cutlets	do	43.2	42.4	41.7	40.6
Pork:					
*Chops	do	41.8	37.8	37.6	34.7
Loin roast	do	34.7	31.4	31.1	29.2
*Bacon, sliced	pound	41.6	40.7	40.6	40.8
Bacon, strip	do	34.8	34.0	34.9	35.4
*Ham, sliced	do	51.5	50.0	49.9	49.8
Ham, whole	do	31.8	30.9	30.9	32.6
Salt pork	do	25.5	25.3	25.5	23.7
Lamb:					
Breast	do	15.1	14.5	14.0	13.8
Chuck	do	25.3	24.5	24.2	24.4
*Leg	do	31.8	31.8	31.6	30.6
Rib chops	do	41.8	40.0	39.4	38.5
Poultry:					
*Roasting chickens	do	33.7	33.1	32.7	33.7
Fish:					
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	13.1	13.0	13.2	13.1
*Salmon, red	do	25.5	25.1	25.2	25.6
Dairy products:					
*Butter	pound	38.3	38.0	38.3	40.0
*Cheese	do	28.4	28.4	28.8	27.5
Cream	½ pint	14.6	14.5	14.7	14.7
Milk, fresh (delivered and store)	quart	[4] 12.1	[4] 11.8	11.8	11.6
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	12.3	12.1	12.1	11.8
*Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.5
*Eggs	dozen	35.1	32.3	32.5	35.3
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh:					
Apples	pound	6.8	8.2	8.3	6.4
*Bananas	do	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.4
Lemons	dozen	35.0	33.6	33.6	39.5
*Oranges	do	42.8	40.8	40.3	35.5
Beans, green	pound	8.0	10.7	10.7	8.6
*Cabbage	do	3.1	4.0	4.2	5.9

[1] Prices for individual cities are combined with the use of population weights.

[2] Revised

[3] Unrevised.

[4] Average prices of milk delivered by dairies and sold in grocery stores, weighted according to the relative proportion distributed by each method.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined*—Con.

July and June 1937 and July 1936—Continued

Article		1937			1936
		July 13	June 15 [2]	June 15 [3]	July 14
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.					
Fresh—Continued.		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Carrots	bunch	6.2	9.4	9.3	5.0
Celery	stalk	9.9	11.5	11.3	8.8
Lettuce	head	7.8	7.7	7.9	9.2
*Onions	pound	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.1
*Potatoes	do	2.3	2.9	3.0	4.1
Spinach	do	7.0	6.2	6.2	7.1
Sweetpotatoes	do	6.4	6.1	6.1	6.4
Canned:					
Peaches	no. 2½ can	19.5	19.3	19.5	17.7
Pears	do	21.9	21.9	22.3	21.9
Pineapple	do	22.9	22.7	22.9	22.3
Asparagus	no. 2 can	29.0	28.7	28.3	26.3
Beans, green	do	12.4	12.4	12.5	11.5
*Beans with pork	16-oz. can	8.0	8.0	8.1	6.9
*Corn	no. 2 can	13.1	13.0	13.3	11.7
*Peas	do	16.3	16.3	16.5	15.8
*Tomatoes	do	9.4	9.5	9.5	9.3
Tomato soup	10½-oz. can	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.3
Dried:					
Peaches	pound	17.0	17.3	17.5	17.0
*Prunes	do	10.6	10.5	10.7	9.7
*Raisins	15-oz. package	10.2	10.1	10.2	9.7
Black-eyed peas	pound	9.9	9.9	9.9	8.9
Lima beans	do	12.0	12.1	12.1	10.9
*Navy beans	do	10.8	10.9	10.8	6.0
Beverages and chocolate:					
*Coffee	do	25.8	25.7	25.6	23.9
*Tea	do	72.4	71.9	72.4	69.3
Cocoa	8-oz. can	10.5	10.5	10.5	10.7
Chocolate	8-oz. package	16.5	16.4	17.1	16.4
Fats and oils:					
*Lard	pound	17.1	17.1	17.2	15.6
Lard compound	do	15.8	15.9	15.9	14.4
*Vegetable shortening	do	22.1	22.0	22.0	21.2
Salad oil	pint	25.4	25.6	25.9	24.8
Mayonnaise	½ pint	17.5	17.5	17.6	16.8
*Oleomargarine	pound	18.8	18.9	19.3	17.5
Peanut butter	do	19.9	19.9	20.1	18.6
Sugar and sweets:					
*Sugar	do	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.7
Corn sirup	24-oz. can	14.6	14.7	14.6	13.5
Molasses	18-oz. can	14.5	14.5	14.6	14.3
Strawberry preserves	pound	22.0	21.8	22.2	20.1

[2] Revised. [3] Unrevised.

Details by Regions and Cities

The decrease of 0.4 percent between June 15 and July 13 in the composite index for 51 cities resulted from lowered costs in 32 cities, increased costs in 17 cities, and no change for 2 cities. Food costs were lower in the six central and western areas and higher in the three areas along the Atlantic seaboard. The greatest decrease, 4.4 percent, was reported from Indianapolis and Louisville, with Peoria following with a decrease of 4.1 percent. Compared with the changes in costs for all cities combined, the cost of fruits and vegetables declined more in these cities while the cost of meats and dairy products advanced less. The increases were greatest in Jacksonville, 2.3 percent; Mobile, 2.0 percent; and Charleston, 1.8 percent, where the cost of fruits and vegetables advanced, contrary to the prevailing movement for the group.

Indexes of retail costs of foods, by regions and cities, are shown in table 3 for July and June 1937 and July of earlier years.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities* [1]

July and June 1937, and July 1936, 1935, 1933, 1932, and 1929

[1923–25=100]

Region and city	1937		1936	1935	1933	1932	1929
	July 13	June 15	July 14	July 16	July 15	July 15	July 15
United States	85.9	86.3	84.0	80.2	71.0	68.3	106.5
New England	84.5	84.0	82.9	79.2	71.6	68.9	106.4
Boston	82.2	81.3	81.4	77.8	70.6	67.9	106.1
Bridgeport	90.1	90.2	86.7	84.0	73.6	72.3	106.6
Fall River	87.1	87.1	83.7	79.5	71.7	66.9	106.2
Manchester	86.8	87.3	85.9	81.8	75.3	68.3	107.4
New Haven	89.6	89.3	86.8	82.0	73.7	72.2	107.2
Portland, Maine	86.8	86.9	84.3	80.5	74.0	70.3	110.6
Providence	84.0	84.1	82.1	78.4	71.7	67.8	106.3
Middle Atlantic	86.2	85.9	84.2	80.8	71.0	70.1	106.2
Buffalo	84.7	87.3	86.0	81.5	72.7	69.7	108.2
Newark	86.8	86.7	84.5	83.5	70.7	73.8	104.9
New York	85.0	83.6	83.9	80.9	71.5	72.0	105.2
Philadelphia	89.4	89.1	85.9	82.0	70.6	69.6	106.4
Pittsburgh	85.6	85.4	82.1	78.0	68.5	65.2	107.7
Rochester	87.3	90.1	86.4	80.8	73.5	69.0	108.2
Scranton	83.2	84.5	80.6	77.6	71.4	66.9	107.1
East North Central	87.4	88.7	85.4	81.0	72.2	68.7	109.2
Chicago	87.8	89.0	84.7	80.5	72.5	71.0	109.5
Cincinnati	87.2	90.5	90.1	83.5	73.4	69.0	111.5
Cleveland	85.2	86.8	84.8	80.2	71.8	67.0	107.0
Columbus, Ohio	85.3	86.9	89.1	83.1	73.8	68.4	106.8
Detroit	89.1	89.0	85.2	80.9	69.7	65.3	109.5
Indianapolis	86.2	90.2	86.1	78.9	74.4	69.8	110.7
Milwaukee	91.0	92.9	87.1	82.2	75.3	71.7	112.2
Peoria	86.5	90.1	86.6	82.9	73.9	67.1	104.8
Springfield, Ill	86.9	87.0	84.4	79.9	72.8	64.6	108.5
West North Central	89.7	91.4	88.2	83.7	73.2	66.3	108.3
Kansas City	88.4	91.3	87.5	80.2	72.1	65.4	106.2
Minneapolis	93.7	94.2	91.9	86.3	76.3	68.0	109.0
Omaha	85.1	87.2	84.6	81.5	69.1	63.0	103.3
St. Louis	91.0	92.3	89.0	85.8	74.1	67.2	112.2
St. Paul	89.1	91.1	87.3	83.6	74.8	67.9	106.5
South Atlantic	85.6	85.3	83.4	80.3	68.5	67.0	104.9
Atlanta	84.2	83.5	81.2	77.0	67.2	65.1	106.7
Baltimore	89.7	89.0	87.0	85.1	70.4	69.8	105.5
Charleston, S. C	86.2	84.7	83.4	78.3	66.2	67.6	100.0
Jacksonville	84.2	82.3	82.3	76.9	65.9	61.8	100.4
Norfolk	83.4	86.0	82.5	77.9	67.6	68.6	109.6
Richmond	80.1	81.7	79.2	75.2	65.5	63.5	98.8
Savannah	85.7	84.3	84.4	78.9	69.8	64.9	106.1
Washington, D. C	88.2	87.1	85.6	83.8	71.2	70.1	108.2
East South Central	82.9	83.8	81.0	76.4	67.9	62.3	104.7
Birmingham	80.1	80.2	76.8	72.1	63.6	60.1	101.9
Louisville	88.9	92.9	90.5	85.5	76.6	66.0	109.4
Memphis	84.4	83.5	81.7	76.5	68.9	63.5	107.2
Mobile	83.2	81.6	80.9	75.1	65.2	62.5	103.4
West South Central	82.0	82.3	80.9	78.2	67.3	62.5	103.4
Dallas	79.5	80.4	78.3	77.5	66.7	61.8	104.4
Houston	81.9	81.5	80.7	74.6	66.1	59.8	101.5
Little Rock	82.5	82.7	80.6	78.3	60.3	60.2	102.1
New Orleans	85.5	85.8	84.8	84.0	71.1	68.0	105.0
Mountain	90.0	91.3	88.7	83.7	73.8	67.3	108.2
Butte	85.1	85.9	84.9	79.1	69.2	65.5	109.9
Denver	92.0	93.2	90.7	85.6	75.5	69.8	107.2
Salt Lake City	87.6	89.4	86.1	81.8	72.1	63.7	109.6
Pacific	82.3	83.6	79.6	76.3	69.0	66.0	102.5
Los Angeles	77.9	79.4	74.5	72.8	65.1	61.0	99.6
Portland, Oreg	88.1	90.0	84.4	77.2	69.1	67.7	105.0
San Francisco	84.3	85.9	83.3	79.6	72.6	70.2	104.6
Seattle	87.4	86.5	83.0	78.1	71.3	69.6	104.5

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

The Bureau collects prices in 11 cities that cannot be included in the food-cost indexes, since no prices are available for the base period 1923–25. These cities were selected from areas formerly not adequately represented in the food price-reporting service.

Average prices for each of these cities for which the data were available have been released since June 1935. Consumption weights have been provided for these cities, making it possible to measure changes in food costs from one period to another. Percentage changes in food costs between June and July 1937 are shown in table 4 for 10 of these cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Changes in Retail Food Costs for Specified Cities July 13, 1937, Compared with June 15, 1937*

Region and city	Percentage change July 13, 1937, compared with June 15, 1937								
	All foods	Cereals and bakery products	Meats	Dairy products	Eggs	Fruits and vegetables	Beverages and chocolate	Fats and oils	Sugar and sweets
West North Central:									
Cedar Rapids	−4.4	−0.1	+3.1	+0.2	+17.0	−20.7	0	+0.5	−0.9
Sioux Falls	−1.9	+4.5	+1.6	+1.7	+10.3	−15.1	+.9	−1.7	−1.9
Wichita	−3.2	+1.0	+4.1	−.1	+9.4	−17.9	+.2	+1.6	+1.4
South Atlantic:									
Columbia, S. C	+1.8	−.1	+1.4	−.7	+16.4	+3.3	0	+1.3	−2.0
Winston-Salem	−3.8	−.4	+.6	−.1	+9.0	−13.3	0	+.2	−1.0
East South Central:									
Jackson, Miss	+1.8	+1.2	+1.0	+2.5	+4.4	+2.7	+.5	−.2	+1.0
Knoxville	−3.2	−1.2	+7.7	−.1	+5.3	−15.9	−.6	+3.0	+.2
West South Central:									
El Paso	+.6	0	+.6	−2.2	−.6	+4.1	−.5	−.2	+.4
Oklahoma City	−2.6	−.3	+1.0	+1.9	+6.9	−13.4	−.2	+.2	−2.1
Pacific:									
Spokane	−1.0	0	−1.3	+.8	+4.3	−4.0	−.3	−.8	−.6

COAL PRICES IN JUNE 1937

RETAIL coal prices declined between March 15 and June 15, 1937, following their usual trend at this season of the year. The reduction was much greater for anthracite than it was for bituminous.

The 2.1 percent decline in the average price of bituminous coal for 38 cities combined lowered the index from 88.6 percent of the October 1922–September 1925 average on March 15 to 86.8 percent on June 15. The current level of these prices is 3.2 percent above the average for July 15, 1936, the pricing period which most nearly corresponds to 1 year ago.

During the period from March to June 1937 the weighted average price of Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities combined dropped 10.8 percent for stove size, 9.9 percent for chestnut, and 10.3 percent for pea. These prices are lower than they were 11 months ago, with

reductions of 7.7 percent for stove size, 4.9 percent for chestnut, and 3.2 percent for buckwheat.

Retail prices of coal are collected quarterly from representative dealers in the 51 cities included in the retail food-price index. Quotations in each city are for the kinds of coal sold in considerable quantity for household use. The bituminous-coal price series covers 38 cities, 14 of which report on low-volatile or smokeless coal as well as high volatile. The Pennsylvania anthracite price series includes 25 cities.

Average retail prices of Pennsylvania anthracite and bituminous coal in 51 of the larger cities of the United States are presented in table 5 for June and March 1937, and July 1936.

TABLE 5.—*Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined June and March 1937, and July 1936*

Article	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price October 1922–September 1925=100			Percentage change June 15, 1937, compared with—	
	1937		1936	1937		1936	1937	1936
	June 15	Mar. 15	July 15	June 15	Mar. 15	July 15	Mar. 15	July 15
Bituminous coal (38 cities)	$8.39	$8.57	$8.13	86.8	88.6	84.1	−2.1	+3.2
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: [1]								
Stove	10.49	11.75	11.36	74.5	83.5	80.7	−10.8	−7.7
Chestnut	10.66	11.82	11.20	76.0	84.3	79.8	−9.9	−4.9
Pea	8.83	9.85	9.12	----	----	----	−10.3	−3.2
Buckwheat	7.60	7.55	(2)	----	----	----	+0.7	----

[1] Weighted average of city prices. (See Retail Prices, October 1936, p. 19.) [2] Insufficient data.

Prices, 1929 to June 1937

Retail coal prices were collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the 51 cities covered by the retail food price series on the 15th of each month from June 1920 to July 1935. Quarterly collection was initiated in July 1935 and January, April, July, and October were selected as the months for pricing. In September 1936 the representative month for each quarter was shifted to March, June, September, and December to conform with the change in the pricing cycle for the Bureau's cost-of-living series.

The average price of bituminous coal in 38 cities combined dropped 13.6 percent from 1929 to 1933. After a sharp advance in 1934 the price rose gradually to a level in 1936 only 4.9 percent below the 1929 average. The June 1937 price was 1.3 percent below June 1929; it was, however, higher than for any corresponding month since 1930.

The trend of the weighted average prices of both stove and chestnut size Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities combined was downward from 1929 to 1936. These prices advanced slightly during 1936 but

made more than the usual seasonal decline in the second quarter of 1937. The June 1937 prices were 24.2 percent below June 1929 for the stove size and 20.5 percent below for chestnut.

Combined average prices and indexes for bituminous coal and Pennsylvania white-ash anthracite, stove and chestnut sizes, on the basis of annual averages from 1929 to 1936[1] and for the 15th of the indicated months from January 1936 to June 1937, are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Coal Prices and Indexes for Large Cities Combined 1929 to June 1937, Inclusive*

Date	Average price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index (October 1922–September 1925=100)		
	Bituminous (unweighted average, 38 cities)	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 25 cities)		Bituminous (unweighted average, 38 cities)	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 25 cities)	
		Stove	Chestnut		Stove	Chestnut
1929	$8.85	$14.14	$13.70	91.5	100.5	97.7
1930	8.83	14.03	13.66	91.3	99.7	97.3
1931	8.33	13.68	13.65	86.2	97.1	97.3
1932	7.71	12.55	12.45	79.7	89.2	88.7
1933	7.65	12.12	11.93	79.1	86.2	85.0
1934	8.26	12.18	11.92	85.4	86.6	85.0
1935	[1] 8.29	[1] 11.38	[1] 11.14	[1] 85.7	[1] 80.9	[1] 79.4
1936	[2] 8.42	[2] 11.74	[2] 11.60	[2] 87.1	[2] 83.5	[2] 82.7
January	8.58	12.07	11.76	88.7	85.8	83.8
April	8.57	11.80	11.61	88.6	83.9	82.8
July	8.13	11.36	11.20	84.1	80.7	79.8
September	8.31	11.68	11.62	85.9	83.0	82.8
December	8.53	11.80	11.81	88.2	83.9	84.2
1937:						
March	8.57	11.75	11.82	88.6	83.5	84.3
June	8.39	10.49	10.66	86.8	74.5	76.0

[1] Average of prices for January, April, July, and October.

[2] Average of prices for January, April, July, September, and December.

Details by Regions and Cities

Bituminous coal.—During the 3-months' interval ended June 15, 1937, the retail price of high volatile bituminous coal declined in 20 of the 38 cities included in the index. Higher prices were reported for 13 cities, principally in the northern and western sections of the country. The price of low volatile, or smokeless, coal was lower in all of the 14 cities which sell substantial quantities of this grade of coal. Average retail prices in each of the 38 cities for June and March 1937 and July 1936, are shown in table 7.

[1] A study recently made by the Bureau to determine the effect of using seasonal weighting factors for combining retail-price data for coal into annual averages showed that the effects were too small to justify the work involved. For a description of the results of this study, see "Retail Prices, July 1937", published in pamphlet form by the Bureau.

TABLE 7.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal Per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities June and March 1937, and July 1936*

Region, city, and grade and size of coal	1937		1936
	June 15	Mar. 15	July 15
Middle Atlantic:			
Pittsburgh:			
Prepared sizes	$4.61	$4.70	$4.21
East North Central:			
Chicago:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.97	8.67	7.94
Low volatile	10.23	11.23	10.39
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	8.27	8.42	7.91
Cincinnati:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.07	6.78	5.73
Low volatile	7.91	8.71	7.73
Cleveland:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.23	6.85	6.93
Low volatile	8.84	9.85	9.21
Columbus:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.02	6.23	6.10
Low volatile	7.60	7.98	7.71
Detroit:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.98	7.17	7.12
Low volatile	8.36	8.36	8.13
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.47	7.60	7.34
Indianapolis:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	6.23	5.98	5.82
Low volatile	7.88	8.37	8.00
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.18	7.28	7.21
Milwaukee:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	8.42	8.67	8.30
Low volatile	10.59	11.42	10.72
Peoria:			
Prepared sizes	7.16	7.17	6.98
Springfield, Ill.:			
Prepared sizes	4.19	4.31	3.70
West North Central:			
Kansas City:			
Prepared sizes	6.12	5.96	5.53
Minneapolis:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	10.86	10.65	10.34
Low volatile	13.18	13.89	13.23
Omaha:			
Prepared sizes	9.00	8.97	8.62
St. Louis:			
Prepared sizes	5.26	5.47	5.19
St. Paul:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	10.69	10.51	10.26
Low volatile	13.06	13.93	13.29
South Atlantic:			
Atlanta:			
Prepared sizes	6.39	7.39	6.41
Baltimore:			
Prepared sizes:			
Low volatile	8.56	9.19	8.56
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.11	7.29	7.11
Charleston, S. C.:			
Prepared sizes	$9.33	$9.33	$9.29
Jacksonville:			
Prepared sizes	10.25	11.25	9.81
Norfolk:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.50	7.50	7.50
Low volatile	8.75	9.50	8.93
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.50	7.50	7.50
Richmond:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	7.58	7.92	7.50
Low volatile	8.51	9.48	8.83
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	7.25	7.50	7.15
Savannah:			
Prepared sizes	[1] 9.45	[1] 9.21	[1] 9.24
Washington, D. C.:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	[2] 8.25	[2] 8.50	[2] 8.50
Low volatile	[2] 10.22	[2] 10.87	[2] 10.37
Run of mine:			
Low volatile	[2] 8.13	[2] 8.00	[2] 8.00
East South Central:			
Birmingham:			
Prepared sizes	6.02	6.59	6.03
Louisville:			
Prepared sizes:			
High volatile	5.64	5.61	5.41
Low volatile	7.88	8.00	7.50
Memphis:			
Prepared sizes	7.51	7.49	6.87
Mobile:			
Prepared sizes	8.45	9.27	8.21
West South Central:			
Dallas:			
Prepared sizes	10.29	10.29	10.29
Houston:			
Prepared sizes	10.93	11.71	11.29
Little Rock:			
Prepared sizes	[3]	8.35	7.94
New Orleans:			
Prepared sizes	10.05	10.96	9.60
Mountain:			
Butte:			
Prepared sizes	10.62	10.05	10.05
Denver:			
Prepared sizes	7.71	7.36	7.28
Salt Lake City:			
Prepared sizes	7.22	6.73	6.68
Pacific:			
Los Angeles:			
Prepared sizes	16.61	16.74	16.48
Portland, Oreg.:			
Prepared sizes	12.43	12.49	12.05
San Francisco:			
Prepared sizes	16.06	16.14	15.28
Seattle:			
Prepared sizes	10.46	10.08	9.62

[1] All coal sold in Savannah is weighted by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.

[2] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

[3] No data.

Anthracite.—Between March 15 and June 15 Pennsylvania anthracite prices for both stove and chestnut sizes declined in each of the 25 cities included in this series. The reductions were most pronounced in cities along the Atlantic seaboard. Lower prices were reported for 21 of the 23 cities in which pea size anthracite is sold. On the other hand the price of buckwheat size anthracite advanced in 11 of the 22

reporting cities as compared with reductions in 9 cities and no change in the remaining 2.

Retail prices of anthracite other than Pennsylvania are usually published for six western cities. Quotations for this kind of anthracite, however, were not sufficient to justify the publication of prices for June 15. Average retail prices of Pennsylvania anthracite in each of the reporting cities for June and March 1937 and July 1936 are shown in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite Per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities June and March 1937, and July 1936*

PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE

Region, city, and size of coal	1937		1936
	June 15	Mar. 15	July 15
New England:			
Boston:			
Stove	$12.00	$13.25	$12.55
Chestnut	12.00	13.25	12.55
Pea	10.75	11.45	11.00
Buckwheat	9.53	9.65	----
Bridgeport:			
Stove	11.50	12.50	12.25
Chestnut	11.50	12.50	12.25
Pea	10.50	11.00	11.13
Buckwheat	9.00	9.00	----
Fall River:			
Stove	13.00	14.00	13.00
Chestnut	12.75	13.75	12.75
Pea	10.75	11.00	10.75
Buckwheat	10.00	10.25	----
Manchester:			
Stove	13.50	14.33	14.50
Chestnut	13.50	14.33	14.50
Pea	12.50	12.50	12.83
Buckwheat	10.69	10.50	----
New Haven:			
Stove	12.00	13.50	12.75
Chestnut	12.00	13.50	12.75
Pea	10.25	11.50	10.60
Buckwheat	9.25	9.08	----
Portland, Maine:			
Stove	12.56	14.00	13.75
Chestnut	12.56	14.00	13.75
Pea	11.44	12.50	12.25
Buckwheat	10.50	10.75	----
Providence:			
Stove	12.90	14.44	13.75
Chestnut	12.90	14.44	13.75
Pea	11.50	12.19	11.50
Buckwheat	10.00	9.75	----
Middle Atlantic:			
Buffalo:			
Stove	11.25	12.00	12.15
Chestnut	11.25	12.00	12.00
Pea	9.50	10.08	9.81
Buckwheat	8.40	8.25	----
Newark:			
Stove	10.50	11.75	11.30
Chestnut	10.50	11.75	11.05
Pea	9.21	10.25	9.30
Buckwheat	8.43	8.20	----
New York:			
Stove	10.37	11.88	11.48
Chestnut	10.37	11.83	11.31
Pea	8.90	10.05	9.31
Buckwheat	7.51	7.42	----
Philadelphia:			
Stove	9.89	10.92	10.21
Chestnut	9.89	10.92	9.96
Pea	8.45	9.33	8.46
Buckwheat	7.69	7.83	----
Pittsburgh:			
Stove	12.50	12.88	12.88
Chestnut	12.56	12.88	12.88
Rochester:			
Stove	11.08	11.68	11.69
Chestnut	11.08	11.68	11.51
Pea	9.53	9.99	9.55
Buckwheat	8.20	8.19	----
Scranton:			
Stove	7.13	7.56	7.85
Chestnut	7.13	7.56	7.80
Pea	5.84	6.28	6.43
Buckwheat	4.90	4.75	----
East North Central:			
Chicago:			
Stove	14.03	[1] 15.29	[1] 14.33
Chestnut	14.03	[1] 15.25	[1] 14.17
Pea	12.73	[1] 13.96	12.79
Buckwheat	11.54	11.50	----
Cleveland:			
Stove	13.13	13.65	13.33
Chestnut	13.13	13.65	13.07
Detroit:			
Stove	11.89	12.40	12.33
Chestnut	11.89	12.40	12.23
Pea	10.65	10.88	10.82
Buckwheat	9.79	9.79	----
Milwaukee:			
Stove	12.95	14.00	13.46
Chestnut	12.95	14.00	13.28
Pea	11.71	13.00	12.09
Buckwheat	10.85	11.05	----
West North Central:			
Minneapolis:			
Stove	15.05	15.90	15.46
Chestnut	15.05	15.90	15.26
Pea	13.80	14.90	14.06
Buckwheat	12.94	12.90	----
St. Louis:			
Stove	14.26	[1] 14.65	[1] 13.83
Chestnut	14.26	[1] 14.39	[1] 13.58
Pea	12.58	[1] 12.37	11.70
St. Paul:			
Stove	15.05	15.90	15.46
Chestnut	15.05	15.90	15.26
Pea	13.80	14.90	14.06
Buckwheat	12.94	12.90	----
South Atlantic:			
Baltimore:			
Stove	9.45	11.09	10.80
Chestnut	9.45	10.89	10.55
Pea	7.95	8.98	8.80
Buckwheat	7.35	7.89	----
Norfolk:			
Stove	11.75	13.50	12.44
Chestnut	11.75	13.50	12.44
Pea	10.25	12.00	10.42
Buckwheat	9.75	10.00	----
Richmond:			
Stove	11.75	13.50	13.00
Chestnut	11.75	13.50	13.00
Pea	10.50	11.50	11.00
Buckwheat	9.25	10.25	----
Washington, D. C.:			
Stove	[2] 11.30	[2] 13.00	[2] 12.45
Chestnut	[2] 11.30	[2] 13.00	[2] 12.25
Pea	[2] 9.80	[2] 11.20	[2] 10.25
Buckwheat	[2] 8.80	[2] 8.90	----

[1] Revised.

[2] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY 1937

LARGELY due to advancing prices of farm products and foods, the all-commodity index rose 0.8 percent during July. The advance practically offset the decrease of the past 2 months and brought the all-commodity index to 87.9 percent of the 1926 average. It is 9.2 percent above the level for July a year ago.

Besides farm products and foods, the hides and leather products, textile products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, chemicals and drugs, and housefurnishing goods groups also advanced. The building materials and miscellaneous commodity groups declined fractionally.

Wholesale prices of finished products advanced sharply during July. Smaller increases were recorded in the raw materials and semimanufactured commodities groups.

The large group of "All commodities other than farm products" advanced 0.8 percent during the month, and "All commodities other than farm products and foods" rose 0.2 percent.

A comparison of the July level of wholesale commodity prices with June 1937 and July 1936 is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for July 1937 with June 1937 and July 1936*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	July 1937	June 1937	Change from a month ago	July 1936	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
All commodities	87.9	87.2	+0.8	80.5	+9.2
Farm products	89.3	88.5	+.9	81.3	+9.8
Foods	86.2	84.7	+1.8	81.4	+5.9
Hides and leather products	106.7	106.4	+.3	93.4	+14.2
Textile products	78.3	78.2	+.1	70.5	+11.1
Fuel and lighting materials	78.1	77.5	+.8	76.2	+2.5
Metals and metal products	96.1	95.9	+.2	86.9	+10.6
Building materials	96.7	96.9	−.2	86.7	+11.5
Chemicals and drugs	83.9	83.6	+.4	79.4	+5.7
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	89.5	+.2	81.2	+10.5
Miscellaneous	79.0	79.4	−.5	71.0	+11.3
Raw materials	86.5	86.1	+.5	79.8	+8.4
Semimanufactured articles	87.0	86.8	+.2	75.2	+15.7
Finished products	88.8	87.7	+1.3	81.6	+8.8
All commodities other than farm products	87.5	86.8	+.8	80.3	+9.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	86.3	86.1	+.2	79.5	+8.6

Wholesale Price Level in July

Following the decline of the past two months, wholesale commodity prices advanced 0.8 percent during July to within a fraction of a point of the year's high, reached in April. The advance brought the all-commodity index of 784 price series to 87.9 percent of the 1926 average.

The increase in commodity prices was quite general. The indexes for 8 of the 10 major groups advanced during the month interval. These were farm products, foods, hides and leather products, textile products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, chemicals and drugs, and housefurnishing goods. Building materials and miscellaneous commodities declined slightly. The index for each group was higher than in July of last year. The increases ranged from 2.5 percent for fuel and lighting materials to 14.2 percent for hides and leather products.

Fluctuations within the major commodity groups which influenced the movement of the all-commodity index during July are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Items Changing in Price from June to July 1937*

Commodity group	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	173	149	462
Farm products	23	36	8
Foods	56	31	35
Hides and leather products	6	8	27
Textile products	15	34	63
Fuel and lighting materials	11	4	9
Metals and metal products	11	4	115
Building materials	12	15	59
Chemicals and drugs	21	3	65
Housefurnishing goods	7	3	51
Miscellaneous	11	11	30

Nonagricultural commodity prices, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products", advanced 0.8 percent from the June level. The July index, 87.5, was 9 percent above the level of a year ago. The index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods", which measures the movement in prices of industrial commodities, advanced 0.2 percent to 86.3, and was 8.6 percent above July of last year.

Following a steady decline since March, wholesale prices of raw materials rose 0.5 percent during July to a point 8.4 percent above a year ago. Although prices of semimanufactured articles increased only 0.2 percent during the month, they were 15.7 percent above the corresponding level of a year ago. The finished products group continued to advance. The increase of 1.3 percent brought the group index, 88.8, to the highest point reached since May 1930.

The largest group increase, 1.8 percent, was recorded in foods. Meats advanced 8.2 percent, dairy products 6.1 percent, and cereal

products 2.1 percent. Fruits and vegetables, on the other hand, declined 15.7 percent. Individual food items for which higher prices were reported were butter, cheese, wheat flour, cured and fresh beef, mutton, bacon, cured and fresh pork, veal, and canned red salmon. Quotations were lower for rye flour, oatmeal, rice, prunes, bananas, string beans, tomatoes, copra, jelly, peanut butter, salt, and vegetable oils. The July food index, 86.2, was 5.9 percent above a year ago.

Wholesale market prices of farm products rose 0.9 percent during July, due to a 6.8-percent increase in livestock and poultry prices. Higher prices were reported for wheat, calves, steers, hogs, live poultry, eggs, fresh milk, flaxseed, and onions. Grains declined 0.5 percent, reflecting lower prices for oats and rye. Quotations on lambs, wethers, apples, lemons, oranges, hay, hops, dried beans, and potatoes also were lower. The July farm products index, 89.3, was 9.8 percent above that for July 1936.

Seasonal advances in prices of anthracite, together with rising prices for bituminous coal, gas and petroleum products, caused the fuel and lighting materials group index to rise 0.8 percent. Average prices for coke were slightly lower.

The chemicals and drugs group increased 0.4 percent as a result of sharp increases in wholesale prices of fertilizer materials and mixed fertilizers together with a minor advance in drugs and pharmaceutical prices. Chemicals declined fractionlay because of weakening prices for fats and oils.

A 1.4-percent increase in average prices of hides and skins caused the hides and leather products group index to rise 0.3 percent. Wholesale prices of shoes and leather declined slightly, and other leather products such as gloves, belting, luggage, and harness remained firm.

The index for the metals and metal products group advanced 0.2 percent during the month, due to higher prices for agricultural implements, iron and steel, and nonferrous metals. Higher prices were reported for scrap steel, zinc sheets, pig tin, pumps, and planes. Solder and wood screws declined. Motor vehicles and plumbing and heating fixtures remained steady.

Advancing prices for china tableware caused the housefurnishing goods index to advance 0.2 percent. The index for the group, 89.7, was the highest since November 1930.

The textile products group rose 0.1 percent because of higher prices for clothing, knit goods, silk and rayon, woolen and worsted goods, and cotton thread. Cotton goods prices continued to decline.

Wholesale prices of crude rubber declined 3.4 percent. Paper and pulp fell 0.6 percent, and cattle feed decreased 0.3 percent. Average wholesale prices for automobile tires and tubes were steady.

In the building materials group advances of 0.4 percent in both brick and tile and paint materials were more than offset by a decline

of 1.2 percent in lumber, causing the group index to decrease 0.2 percent. Prices for shellac and millwork items also were lower. No changes were reported in prices for cement and structural steel.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for July and June 1937 and for July of each year, 1930 to 1936, are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	July 1937	June 1937	July 1936	July 1935	July 1934	July 1933	July 1932	July 1931	July 1930
All commodities	87.9	87.2	80.5	79.4	74.8	68.9	64.5	72.0	84.4
Farm products	89.3	88.5	81.3	77.1	64.5	60.1	47.9	64.9	83.1
Grains	105.2	105.7	88.9	78.3	74.8	73.4	36.7	49.0	74.1
Livestock and poultry	105.0	98.3	82.0	82.8	48.8	47.4	54.1	63.0	81.8
Other farm products	75.1	77.4	78.2	72.9	70.5	63.7	48.4	71.3	86.9
Foods	86.2	84.7	81.4	82.1	70.6	65.5	60.9	74.0	86.8
Dairy products	76.4	72.0	83.8	74.0	74.8	66.1	58.2	80.6	91.8
Cereal products	92.3	90.4	84.4	92.7	88.9	83.3	65.7	71.5	80.6
Fruits and vegetables	71.2	84.5	79.7	65.1	68.2	75.6	59.7	74.2	95.2
Meats	106.0	98.0	84.9	93.3	63.4	50.8	62.0	73.4	91.8
Other foods	74.6	74.3	73.4	76.7	64.5	63.7	58.5	70.6	77.4
Hides and leather products	106.7	106.4	93.4	89.3	86.3	86.3	68.6	89.4	100.8
Shoes	107.4	107.5	99.3	97.8	98.0	88.3	84.4	93.5	102.9
Hides and skins	116.2	114.6	87.8	79.8	66.6	88.7	33.5	72.7	94.0
Leather	98.7	98.8	83.0	80.2	75.1	78.0	60.0	89.8	100.1
Other leather products	102.7	102.3	95.4	84.4	86.8	80.0	83.7	101.4	105.6
Textile products	78.3	78.2	70.5	70.2	71.5	68.0	51.5	66.5	79.7
Clothing	90.1	89.1	80.7	80.7	81.9	70.6	60.9	76.1	86.6
Cotton goods	86.8	89.7	78.7	82.0	85.1	80.2	50.0	66.8	83.9
Knit goods	64.8	64.6	59.3	59.9	59.5	55.2	47.8	60.0	81.3
Silk and rayon	33.9	32.5	30.7	27.9	24.5	37.9	26.2	43.8	54.3
Woolen and worsted goods	94.4	93.2	82.0	76.4	80.7	72.3	53.6	67.4	79.2
Other textile products	69.3	67.5	66.8	69.1	69.6	76.7	66.5	75.2	84.2
Fuel and lighting materials	78.1	77.5	76.2	74.7	73.9	65.3	72.3	62.9	78.0
Anthracite	76.6	74.5	78.5	77.0	78.6	77.9	84.5	90.8	86.5
Bituminous coal	98.6	98.5	96.0	96.5	95.7	81.0	81.6	83.5	88.8
Coke	104.9	105.0	93.7	88.6	85.6	76.0	76.3	81.5	84.0
Electricity	(1)	79.5	83.4	87.8	92.4	89.4	105.8	97.9	98.3
Gas	(1)	84.2	87.9	94.0	99.2	100.2	108.3	103.5	99.7
Petroleum products	61.8	61.5	58.1	52.9	51.3	41.3	49.7	30.3	61.0
Metals and metal products	96.1	95.9	86.9	86.4	86.8	80.6	79.2	84.3	90.8
Agricultural implements	94.2	94.1	94.2	93.6	92.0	83.0	84.9	94.2	94.5
Iron and steel	99.8	99.7	87.6	87.0	86.7	77.7	77.2	82.7	88.4
Motor vehicles	93.7	93.7	92.9	94.7	94.6	90.4	95.3	94.7	100.7
Nonferrous metals	92.7	91.9	70.4	66.1	68.8	67.6	47.0	61.4	75.4
Plumbing and heating	78.7	78.7	76.5	68.8	75.0	69.4	67.1	86.8	83.6
Building materials	96.7	96.9	86.7	85.2	87.0	79.5	69.7	78.1	88.5
Brick and tile	95.4	95.0	89.2	89.1	91.3	78.2	75.9	83.4	88.6
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5	94.9	93.9	88.2	77.3	75.8	91.7
Lumber	101.3	102.2	83.7	81.7	85.3	75.9	56.9	67.2	83.6
Paint and paint materials	83.9	83.6	80.4	79.1	79.8	77.9	66.8	79.6	91.5
Plumbing and heating	78.7	78.7	76.5	68.8	75.0	69.4	67.1	86.8	83.6
Structural steel	114.9	114.9	97.1	92.0	92.5	81.7	81.7	84.3	84.3
Other building materials	101.0	101.1	90.2	89.7	90.9	83.3	77.9	83.7	91.9
Chemicals and drugs	83.9	83.6	79.4	78.7	75.4	73.2	73.0	78.9	88.3
Chemicals	89.9	90.1	85.9	84.6	78.5	80.3	78.9	82.4	92.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	78.2	78.0	73.0	74.0	73.0	56.8	57.6	62.1	68.0
Fertilizer materials	71.3	70.5	65.2	65.7	67.6	68.6	66.8	78.7	84.3
Mixed fertilizers	74.2	72.3	68.7	68.6	72.8	63.3	68.8	80.2	93.1
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	89.5	81.2	80.4	81.6	74.8	74.0	85.7	93.1
Furnishings	92.6	92.5	85.1	84.0	84.8	75.1	75.1	82.8	92.4
Furniture	86.8	86.6	77.2	76.8	78.5	74.6	73.0	89.1	93.9

[1] Data not yet available.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*—Continued

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	July 1937	June 1937	July 1936	July 1935	July 1934	July 1933	July 1932	July 1931	July 1930
Miscellaneous	79.0	79.4	71.0	67.7	69.9	64.0	64.3	69.7	76.6
Automobile tires and tubes	56 4	56.4	47.5	45.0	44.6	41.4	40.1	46.0	50.1
Cattle feed	116.5	116.9	107.9	78.6	88.8	82.4	42.2	55.8	94.8
Paper and pulp	94.2	95.0	80.6	79.7	82.4	78.1	76.2	80.6	85.4
Rubber, crude	39.6	41.0	34.3	25.0	29.9	16.3	6.1	13.2	23.6
Other miscellaneous	85.7	85.8	80.8	80.1	82.3	76.3	84.5	88.6	94.5
Raw materials	86.5	86.1	79.8	75.8	68.3	61.8	54.7	64.3	81.1
Semimanufactured articles	87.0	86.8	75.2	72.8	72.7	69.1	55.5	69.3	79.8
Finished products	88.8	87.7	81.6	82.0	78.2	72.2	70.5	76.1	86.6
All commodities other than farm products	87.5	86.8	80.3	79.8	76.9	70.7	68.0	73.5	84.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	86.3	86.1	79.5	78.0	78.4	72.2	69.7	73.9	84.5

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups, by years from 1926 to 1936, inclusive, and by months from January 1936 to July 1937, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	99.4	96.7	107.7	95.6	88.3	96.3	94.7	96.8	97.5	91.0	95.4
1928	105.9	101.0	121.4	95.5	84.3	97.0	94.1	95.6	95.1	85.4	96.7
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1930	88.3	90.5	100.0	80.3	78.5	92.1	89.9	89.1	92.7	77.7	86.4
1931	64.8	74.6	86.1	66.3	67.5	84.5	79.2	79.3	84.9	69.8	73.0
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1934	65.3	70.5	86.6	72.9	73.3	86.9	86.2	75.9	81.5	69.7	74.9
1935	78.8	83.7	89.6	70.9	73.5	86.4	85.3	80.5	80.6	68.3	80.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
By months:											
1936:											
January	78.2	83.5	97.1	71.7	75.1	86.7	85.7	80.5	81.4	67.8	80.6
February	79.5	83.2	96.1	71.0	76.1	86.7	85.5	80.1	81.5	68.1	80.6
March	76.5	80.1	94.9	70.8	76.2	86.6	85.3	79.3	81.4	68.3	79.6
April	76.9	80 2	94.6	70.2	76.4	86.6	85.7	78.5	81.5	68.6	79.7
May	75.2	78.0	94.0	69.8	76.0	86.3	85.8	77.7	81.5	69.2	78.6
June	78.1	79.9	93.8	69.7	76.1	86.2	85.8	78.0	81.4	69.7	79.2
July	81.3	81.4	93.4	70.5	76.2	86.9	86.7	79.4	81.2	71.0	80.5
August	83.8	83.1	93.6	70.9	76.3	87.1	86.9	79.8	81.4	71.5	81.6
September	84.0	83.3	94.6	70.9	76.1	86.8	87.1	81.7	81.7	71.3	81.6
October	84.0	82.6	95.6	71.6	76.8	86 9	87.3	82.2	82.0	71.5	81.5
November	85.1	83.9	97 0	73 5	76.8	87.9	87.7	82.5	82.3	73.4	82.4
December	88.5	85.5	99.7	76.3	76.5	89.6	89.5	85.3	83.2	74.5	84.2
1937:											
January	91.3	87.1	101.7	77.5	76.6	90.9	91.3	87.7	86.5	76.2	85.9
February	91.4	87.0	102 7	77.5	76.8	91.7	93.3	87.8	87.9	77.3	86.3
March	94.1	87.5	104.2	78.3	76.2	96.0	95.9	87.5	88.4	79.5	87.8
April	92.2	85.5	106.3	79.5	76.8	96.5	96.7	86.9	89.0	81.1	88.0
May	89.8	84.2	106.7	78.7	77.2	95.8	97.2	84.5	89.3	80.5	87.4
June	88.5	84.7	106.4	78.2	77.5	95.9	96.9	83.6	89.5	79.4	87.2
July	89.3	86.2	106.7	78.3	78.1	96.1	96.7	83.9	89.7	79.0	87.9

The price trend since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than those designated as farm products and foods. All commodities, with the exception of those included in the groups of farm products and foods, have been included in the group of "All commodities other than farm products and foods." The list of commodities included under the designations "Raw materials", "Semimanufactured articles", and "Finished products" was given in the October 1934 issue of the Wholesale Prices pamphlet.

TABLE 5.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1936—Continued.					
1927	96.5	94.3	95.0	94.6	94.0	June	77.6	73.9	80.7	79.4	78.8
1928	99.1	94.5	95.9	94.8	92.9						
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	July	79.8	75.2	81.6	80.3	79.5
1930	84.3	81.8	88.0	85.9	85.2	August	81.5	75.6	82.4	80.9	79.7
1931	65.6	69.0	77.0	74.6	75.0	September	81.8	75.9	82.3	80.9	79.6
						October	82.1	76.2	82.0	80.9	80.1
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	November	83.1	78.6	82.6	81.7	81.0
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	December	85.6	82.3	83.8	83.1	82.2
1934	68.6	72.8	78.2	76.9	78.4	1937:					
1935	77.1	73.6	82.2	80.2	77.9	January	88.1	85.4	84.9	84.6	83.4
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	February	88.2	85.5	85.4	85.0	84.1
1936:						March	90.1	89.6	86.4	86.3	85.5
January	78.1	74.8	82.4	80.9	78.8	April	88.7	89.5	87.4	86.9	86.5
February	79.1	74.6	82.2	80.7	79.0	May	87.1	87.5	87.5	86.7	86.3
March	77.4	74.4	81.3	80.2	78.9	June	86.1	86.8	87.7	86.8	86.1
April	77.0	74.5	81.6	80.1	78.9						
May	75.8	74.1	80.5	79.2	78.8	July	86.5	87.0	88.8	87.5	86.3

Weekly Fluctuations

Wholesale commodity prices rose steadily during the first half of July due principally to sharp increases in market prices of farm products and foods together with smaller increases in hides and leather products, fuel and lighting materials, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities. As a result of weakening prices for agricultural commodities during the latter part of July, the all-commodity index declined fractionally.

During the period June 26 to July 31, wholesale food prices advanced 2.5 percent; housefurnishing goods, 1.9 percent; and hides and leather products, 1.5 percent. The textile products, fuel and lighting materials, metals and metal products, and chemicals and drugs groups recorded smaller increases. Farm products declined 0.8 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.5 percent; and building materials, 0.2 percent from June 26 to July 31.

Variations in prices in the major group classifications during July are shown by the weekly index numbers in table 6. The percentage changes from week to week in the groups are given in table 7.

TABLE 6.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Commodity Groups, June and July 1937*

(1926=100)

Commodity group	July 31, 1937	July 24, 1937	July 17, 1937	July 10, 1937	July 3, 1937	June 26, 1937	June 19, 1937	June 12, 1937	June 5, 1937
All commodities	87.5	87.5	87.8	87.7	87.2	86.7	86.5	86.7	87.1
Farm products	87.7	88.4	91.1	90.5	89.7	88.4	87.4	88.0	89.3
Foods	86.5	86.0	86.1	86.8	85.3	84.4	84.0	84.5	84.8
Hides and leather products	108.4	107.6	107.6	106.4	106.6	106.8	107.2	107.6	107.6
Textile products	77.6	77.9	77.7	77.9	77.4	77.4	77.3	77.4	77.6
Fuel and lighting materials	78.8	78.6	78.4	78.3	78.1	78.2	78.1	78.1	78.2
Metals and metal products	95.4	95.4	95.3	95.3	95.1	95.1	95.1	95.1	95.1
Building materials	96.7	96.8	96.8	96.9	96.9	96.9	97.0	97.0	97.0
Chemicals and drugs	83.6	83.8	83.4	83.0	83.1	83.0	83.5	83.4	83.3
Housefurnishing goods	92.7	91.6	91.6	91.3	91.0	91.0	91.0	91.0	91.0
Miscellaneous	78.2	79.2	79.2	78.9	78.8	78.6	79.2	79.4	80.0
Raw materials	85.3	85.7	87.3	86.9	86.5	85.8	85.3	85.6	86.5
Semimanufactured articles	86.7	86.9	87.0	86.8	86.5	86.5	86.6	86.8	86.9
Finished products	89.1	88.9	88.6	88.6	88.0	87.5	87.5	87.6	87.8
All commodities other than farm products	87.5	87.4	87.2	87.1	86.6	86.3	86.4	86.4	86.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	86.2	86.3	86.2	86.1	85.9	85.9	85.9	86.0	86.2

TABLE 7.—*Weekly Changes (Percent) During July 1937 by Groups of Commodities*

Commodity group	Percentage change from—					
	June 26 to July 31	July 24 to July 31	July 17 to July 24	July 10 to July 17	July 3 to July 10	June 26 to July 3
All commodities	+0.9	0	−0.3	+0.1	+0.6	+0.6
Farm products	−.8	−.8	−3.0	+.7	+.9	+1.5
Foods	+2.5	+.6	−.1	−.8	+1.8	+1.1
Hides and leather products	+1.5	+.7	0	+1.1	−.2	−.2
Textile products	+.3	−.4	+.3	−.3	+.6	0
Fuel and lighting materials	+.8	+.3	+.3	+.1	+.3	−.1
Metals and metal products	+.3	0	+.1	0	+.2	0
Building materials	−.2	−.1	0	−.1	0	0
Chemicals and drugs	+.7	−.2	+.5	+.5	−.1	+.1
Housefurnishing goods	+1.9	+1.2	0	+.3	+.3	0
Miscellaneous	−.5	−1.3	0	+.4	+.1	+.3
Raw materials	−.6	−.5	−1.8	+.5	+.5	+.8
Semimanufactured articles	+.2	−.2	−.1	+.2	+.3	0
Finished products	+1.8	+.2	+.3	0	+.7	+.6
All commodities other than farm products	+1.4	+.1	+.2	+.1	+.6	+.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	+.3	−.1	+.1	+.1	+.2	0

Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities

The table showing monthly average wholesale prices and index numbers of individual commodities formerly appearing in the Wholesale Price pamphlet is now published semiannually instead of monthly. The June 1937 issue showed the average for the year 1936 and information for the first 6 months of 1937. The monthly figures will be furnished upon request.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

IN TABLE 8 index numbers of wholesale prices of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, and those in certain foreign countries, have been brought together in order that the trend of prices in the several countries may be compared. The base periods here shown are those appearing in the original sources from which the information has been drawn. In certain countries the base is the year 1913 or some other pre-war period. Only general comparisons can be made from these figures, since, in addition to differences in the base periods and the kind and number of articles included, there are important differences in the composition of the index numbers themselves. Indexes are shown for the years 1926–36, inclusive, and by months from January 1935 through July 1937.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States and in Foreign Countries*

Country	United States	Argentina	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China
Computing agency	Bureau of Labor Statistics	National Bank, Bureau of Economic Research	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Federal Statistical Bureau	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare	General Statistical Bureau	Dominion Bureau of Statistics	General Statistical Bureau	National Tariff Commission, Shanghai
Base period	1926 (100)	1926 (100)	1911 (1,000)	January-June 1914 (100)	April 1914 (100)	1926 (100)	1926 (100)	1913 (100)	1926 (100)
Commodities	784	105	92	47	(Paper) 125	(Gold) 55	567 [1]	(Paper)	(Silver) 155 [2]
1926	100.0	100.0	1,832	123	744	100.0	100.0	----------	100.0
1927	95.4	98.1	1,817	133	847	102.4	97 7	----------	104.4
1928	96.7	98.5	1,792	130	843	109.8	96.4	195.5	101.7
1929	95.3	96.4	1,803	130	851	117.0	95.6	192.4	104.5
1930	86.4	92.2	1,596	117	744	94.6	86.6	166.9	114.8
1931	73.0	89.0	1,428	108	626	79.1	72.1	152.2	126.7
1932	64.8	89.5	1,411	112	532	70.3	66.7	230.4	112.4
1933	65.9	86.6	1,409	108	501	61.8	67.1	346.0	103.8
1934	74.9	98.2	1,471	110	473	63.6	71.6	343.6	97.1
1935	80.0	97.0	1,469	110	537	65.1	72.1	343.3	96.4
1936	80.8	----------	1,543	109	588	67.5	74.6	----------	108.5
1935									
January	78.8	97.7	1,459	110	472	64.5	71.4	346.7	99.4
February	79.5	96.8	1,451	109	466	64.3	71.9	340.3	99.9
March	79.4	97.1	1,443	109	464	64.2	72.0	336.7	96.4
April	80.1	96.6	1,444	109	531	66.0	72.5	334.9	95.9
May	80.2	96.5	1,458	110	552	64.7	72.3	339.3	95.0
June	79.8	96.1	1,466	111	555	64.3	71.4	339.6	92.1
July	79.4	95.6	1,479	112	553	64.2	71.5	342.4	90.5
August	80.5	95.7	1,498	111	552	64.0	71.6	343.3	91.9
September	80.7	96.6	1,495	110	560	64.4	72.3	346.2	91.1
October	80.5	98.5	1,499	109	574	66.6	73.1	348.7	94.1
November	80.6	98.5	1,479	109	582	66.9	72.7	351.5	103.3
December	80.9	98.7	1,460	109	579	66.7	72.6	350.1	103.3
1936									
January	80.6	98.9	1,475	108	581	65.8	72.9	353.7	104.3
February	80.6	97.9	1,466	107	582	65.2	72.5	355.2	105.4
March	79.6	98.2	1,485	107	578	64.7	72.4	359.5	106.4
April	79.7	98.0	1,515	108	574	66.4	72.2	359.8	107.3
May	78.6	97.8	1,521	108	569	66.3	71.8	367.8	105.8
June	79.2	97.6	1,523	109	570	66.0	72.3	374.4	106.1
July	80.5	98.8	1,552	110	576	66.6	74.4	382.2	107.2
August	81.6	100.5	1,585	109	582	67.7	76.2	389.8	107.4
September	81.6	100.3	1,573	110	594	68.8	76.4	402.0	107.0
October	81.5	99.9	1,591	111	602	70.4	77.1	405.4	109.7
November	82.4	----------	1,620	111	615	71.2	77.2	399.2	113.0
December	84.2	----------	1,611	111	637	71.5	79.7	405.6	118.8
1937									
January	85.9	----------	1,644	112	658	72.0	81.3	421.2	121.6
February	86.3	----------	1,618	112	675	72.0	82.9	435.6	122.9
March	87.8	----------	1,652	112	693	72.2	85.5	437.5	123.0
April	88.0	----------	----------	113	696	73.1	86.1	463.5	123.9
May	87.4	----------	----------	115	693	73.3	85.1	----------	125.1
June	87.2	----------	----------	115	697	----------	84.6	----------	----------
July	87.9	----------	----------	115	----------	----------	87.5	----------	----------

[1] Revised for commodities since January 1934.
[2] Quotations, 154 since January 1932.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States and in Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	Czechoslovakia	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany	India	Italy	Japan	Netherlands
Computing agency	Central Bureau of Statistics	Statistical Department	Central Bureau of Statistics	General Statistical Bureau	Federal Statistical Bureau	Department, etc.,[3] Calcutta	Central Institute of Statistics	Bank of Japan, Tokio	Central Bureau of Statistics
Base period	July 1914(100)	1931 (100)	1926 (100)	1913 (100)	1913 (100)	July 1914(100)	1928 (100)	October 1900(100)	1926–30 (100)
Commodities	69	161	120	(Paper) 126	400	72	293	56	269 (plus)
1926	943	143	100	695	134.4	148	----------	236.7	105.8
1927	968	134	101	642	137.6	148	----------	224.6	102.8
1928	968	134	102	645	140.4	145	----------	226.1	102.2
1929	914	132	98	627	137.2	141	95.4	219.8	99.7
1930	811	114	90	554	124.6	116	85.4	181.0	89.6
1931	738	100	84	502	110.9	96	74.5	153.0	76.3
1932	682	103	90	427	96.5	91	69.6	161.1	64.6
1933	659	110	89	398	93.3	87	63.4	179.5	62.9
1934	674	119	90	376	98.4	89	62.0	177.6	63.0
1935	704	122	90	339	101.8	91	68.2	185.5	61.5
1936	704	129	92	----------	104.1	91	76.4	197.5	63.8
1935									
January	694	122	90	350	101.1	94	----------	181.5	61.7
February	698	122	90	343	100.9	90	----------	184.1	61.6
March	700	119	90	335	100.7	87	----------	183.5	60.6
April	697	120	90	336	100.8	88	----------	182.3	60.9
May	703	120	90	340	100.8	91	----------	182.4	60.9
June	707	120	90	330	101.2	91	----------	180.2	60.9
July	722	120	90	322	101.8	91	----------	180.2	60.6
August	705	123	90	330	102.4	89	----------	182.9	60.8
September	705	124	91	332	102.3	89	----------	188.9	61.8
October	703	126	92	342	102.8	93	----------	194.0	63.3
November	708	126	91	348	103.1	92	----------	193.6	62.7
December	707	126	91	354	103.4	93	----------	191.9	62.5
1936									
January	711	126	90	359	103.6	92	74.3	191.8	62.4
February	704	126	91	372	103.6	91	74.5	191.0	62.0
March	706	126	91	376	103.6	91	75.4	190.7	61.5
April	703	126	90	371	103.7	92	75.9	192.4	61.1
May	703	126	90	374	103.8	90	75.6	192.4	61.0
June	698	125	90	378	104.0	90	75.8	193.6	61.6
July	699	127	91	391	104.2	91	74.7	197.4	62.3
August	691	129	91	403	104.6	90	75.9	200.7	62.7
September	693	130	92	420	104.4	91	76.9	201.0	62.6
October	704	133	93	471	104.3	93	77.1	200.4	68.2
November	714	134	94	492	104.4	93	77.8	203.5	69.5
December	722	136	95	519	105.0	94	79.0	214.9	71.0
1937									
January	737	137	98	538	105.3	98	81.6	233.3	73.0
February	745	140	101	533	105.5	99	83.3	230.4	74.0
March	754	143	103	550	106.1	100	85.1	239.8	76.0
April	764	146	103	----------	105.8	103	86.1	248.0	77.1
May	755	147	104	----------	105.9	103	87.8	241.0	76.7
June	752	146	103	----------	106.1	102	89.6	238.3	----------
July	763	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------

[3] Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics.

TABLE 8.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States and in Foreign Countries*—Continued

Country	New Zealand (revised)	Norway	Peru	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	Yugoslavia
Computing agency	Census and Statistics Office	Central Bureau of Statistics	Central Bank of Reserve	Central Office of Statistics	Office of Census and Statistics	Board of Trade	Federal Labor Department	Board of Trade	National Bank
Base period	1909–13 (1,000)	1913 (100)	1913 (100)	1928 (100)	1910 (1,000)	1913 (100)	July 1914 (100)	1930 (100)	1926 (100)
Commodities	180	95	(Paper) 58	238	188	160	77	[4] 200	55
1926	1,553	----	203.2	----	1,387	149	144.5	----	100.0
1927	1,478	----	202.6	----	1,395	146	142.2	----	103.4
1928	1,492	157	191.9	100.0	1,354	148	144.6	----	106.2
1928	1,488	149	185.7	96.3	1,305	140	141.2	----	100.6
1930	1,449	137	178.0	85.5	1,155	122	126.5	100.0	86.6
1931	1,346	122	175.1	74.6	1,119	111	109.7	87.8	72.9
1932	1,297	122	170.3	65.5	1,032	109	96.0	85.6	65.2
1933	1,308	122	180.2	59.1	1,047	107	91.0	85.7	64.4
1934	1,330	124	188.1	55.8	1,143	114	89.8	88.1	63.2
1935	1,385	127	188.8	53.1	1,066	116	89.8	88.9	65.9
1936	1,399	134	191.9	54.0	1,109	120	95.6	94.4	68.4
1935									
January	1,345	125	186.3	52.7	1,074	115	88.3	88.3	64.5
February	1,361	125	188.2	52.2	----	115	87.6	88.0	63.9
March	1,365	126	191.2	52.1	----	115	86.4	86.9	63.0
April	1,367	125	190.6	52.2	1,044	115	87.1	87.5	62.9
May	1,365	125	190.4	52.7	----	115	87.6	88.3	64.0
June	1,374	126	191.5	52.6	----	116	88.6	88.5	63.9
July	1,386	127	190.7	52.9	1,069	116	89.9	88.1	63.3
August	1,393	128	188.6	53.5	----	115	91.4	88.5	64.8
September	1,419	128	186.7	52.2	----	115	92.2	89.6	67.8
October	1,434	130	188.0	54.5	1,080	117	93.3	91.2	70.0
November	1,419	130	188.1	54.5	----	118	92.8	91.3	71.2
December	1,414	131	189.3	52.7	----	118	92.1	91.5	71.6
1936									
January	1,405	131	191.1	52.1	1,120	118	91.0	91.8	71.1
February	1,384	132	191.9	52.2	----	118	91.0	91.7	70.0
March	1,386	132	191.2	52.1	----	118	90.9	91.7	70.0
April	1,393	132	192.5	53.0	1,122	118	91.9	91.9	69.1
May	1,391	132	192.1	53.7	----	118	92.0	91.9	67.0
June	1,399	132	191.3	53.9	----	118	91.9	92.6	65.4
July	1,395	132	192.5	53.6	1,085	119	93.1	93.6	65.6
August	1,409	134	192.7	53.9	----	120	93.4	95.2	66.0
September	1,421	136	192.2	54.6	----	122	96.8	96.1	67.0
October	1,426	136	192.0	55.5	1,111	123	103.1	97.6	68.9
November	1,427	137	191.7	56.1	----	124	105.2	98.3	69.8
December	1,450	140	191.6	56.9	----	126	106.8	100.8	71.2
1937									
January	1,449	144	194.0	58.4	1,131	129	108.4	102.9	70.4
February	1,467	147	198.8	59.9	----	132	111.4	103.9	70.9
March	1,472	150	204.0	60.6	----	136	113.3	107.3	72.1
April	1,481	154	208.1	60.1	1,109	138	113.0	108.9	----
May	1,502	157	209.1	59.9	----	139	112.6	110.7	----
June	----	157	----	60.3	----	139	----	110.6	----
July	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

[4] Revised for commodities since January 1930.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

AUGUST 1937

Agriculture

Agricultural statistics, 1937. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1937. 486 pp.

The statistics presented in this volume cover a wide range of topics, including rates and index numbers of wages, employment on highway construction, farm income, farm tenancy, population movements, cooperative societies, prices, and summary data from studies of farm family living. In some cases the figures cover a long period of years.

The effect of the depression on tenancy in the Central States. By Dwight Sanderson. (In Rural Sociology, Baton Rouge, La., March 1937, pp. 3–9.)

Farm tenancy in the United States. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1937. 42 pp., map.

A description of the extent of farm tenancy and conditions affecting it; forms of tenancy; and the objections to and significance and problems of this form of operation. The Chamber urges careful selection of those who are to pass from tenancy to farm ownership, and a government-guaranteed loan system to aid those making the transition.

Farmers without land. By Rupert B. Vance. New York, Public Affairs Committee, 8 West 40th Street, 1937. 31 pp., charts. (Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 12.)

A statement on the growth of tenancy and some of its effects.

Eesti põllumajandus, 1936. Tallinn, Statistika Keskbüroo, 1937. 172 pp., maps.

Statistical yearbook of agriculture in Estonia, including data on wages, production, prices of products, and cooperative dairies, in 1936 and earlier years. In Estonian, with French translations of table of contents, titles, and table heads.

Child Labor

Handbook on the Federal Child Labor Amendment. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, 1937. 63 pp. (Publication No. 368.)

Civil Service

Civil service testing for social work positions. By Lewis Meriam. Chicago, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 850 East 58th Street, 1937. 6 pp. (Pamphlet No. 9.)

A discussion of the new problems in civil-service recruiting presented by the public administration of social service, under which positions that involve case work and other types of personal relationship are filled through civil-service examination. The pamphlet is a condensation of a paper given before the National Conference of Social Work in 1936.

Government careers for college graduates: An experiment in the selection of Federal employees from liberal arts colleges. By Leonard D. White. Chicago, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 850 East 58th Street, 1937. 20 pp. (Pamphlet No. 8.)

A report upon the results of a Federal civil-service examination of college and university graduates who had no specialized occupational training, from which a "general utility" employment list was compiled.

Personnel administration in the Federal Service. By Floyd W. Reeves and Paul T. David. Washington, President's Committee on Administrative Management, 1937. 75 pp. (Studies on Administrative Management in the Government of the United States, No. 1.)

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperative adventures—case studies. By Harlan J. Randall and Clay J. Daggett. Whitewater, Wis., Whitewater Press, 1936. 646 pp., charts, illus.

History, development, method of operation, administration and management, and statistics of selected cooperative stores, oil associations, burial associations, a hospital, credit unions, insurance associations, etc. Intended for classroom use.

Consumers' cooperative statutes and decisions, to January 1, 1937. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Consumers' Project, 1937. 219 pp.

A compilation of the statutory provisions made by the State legislatures for the incorporation of consumers' cooperative associations, with summaries of judicial decisions interpreting these laws.

What is consumers' cooperation? Credit unions—a story of cooperative credit; Clarks Grove—the story of a cooperative community; The cooperative movement in Sweden, Italy, and Russia; Cooperation, a world movement. St. Paul, Minn., State Department of Education, Educational Materials Project, 1936. Cooperation, Units I–V (5 pamphlets); various paging, charts, illus. (Social Science Series, No. 2.)

A series intended for use in adult-education programs.

Credit unions. By Frank O'Hara. New York, Paulist Press, 1937. 24 pp. (National Catholic Welfare Conference, Social Action Series No. 7.)

Cost and Standards of Living

The human needs of labor. By B. Seebohm Rowntree. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1937. 162 pp.

A detailed statement on family needs of food, clothing, fuel, housing, and sundries, and estimates of the income required to insure a minimum standard of living.

Husholdningsregnskaber, 1931. Copenhagen, Statistiske Departement, 1936. 275 pp. (Statistiske Meddelelser, 4.række, 100.bind, 1.hæfte.)

Report of a study of family budgets in Denmark in 1931, showing incomes and itemized expenditures. In Danish, with French translations of table of contents and headings; French terms of various items of expense are also appended.

Economic and Social Problems

Employee savings programs—an analysis of recent trends. By Helen Baker. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1937. 44 pp.; bibliography.

Reviewed in this issue.

Location theory and the shoe and leather industries. By Edgar M. Hoover, Jr. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1937. 323 pp., charts. (Harvard Economic Studies, Vol. LV.)

Extensive historical information is used for analyzing the factors affecting changes in the location of industry. The study considers labor-cost differentials, historical aspects of labor, and labor organizations, in the leather and shoe industries; and social welfare as the basis of public intervention and public policy in connection with shifts in location.

Political and economic democracy. Edited by Max Ascoli and Fritz Lehmann. New York, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1937. 336 pp.

Papers by former members of European university faculties who are members of the Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science of the New School for Social Research (New York), in which they seek "to translate American experience into European terms and European experience into American terms to the

end that the essential conditions of our common modern civilization may be better understood." Papers dealing explicitly with labor in relation to the problems of democracy are: The trade-union approach to economic democracy; Democratic freedom and the organization of labor; The regulation of labor conflicts.

Prosperity and depression: A theoretical analysis of cyclical movements. By Gottfried von Haberler. Geneva, League of Nations, Economic Intelligence Service, 1937. 363 pp.

The much disputed question of the effects of wage policies is discussed at some length. The author concludes that in "our present individualistic money-price economy" (with which alone his analysis is concerned) a continued fall in money wages during a period of depression and unemployment will tend to stop contraction and restore employment. He holds that if a depression or economic contraction is subject to international conditions, both wages and prices must be allowed to fall before contraction can be checked.

Caste and class in a southern town. By John Dollard. New Haven, Yale University Press (for Institute of Human Relations), 1937. 502 pp.

A scientific appraisal of the social and emotional life of the people of a very small southern community, and especially of the attitudes of the white and colored races toward each other.

Family migratoriness and child behavior. Based upon a study of a group of California schools. By Allen W. and Walter G. Beach. (In Sociology and Social Research, Los Angeles, July–August 1937, pp. 503–523; charts.)

Survey of the blind in the State of Washington. [Olympia?], State Department of Social Security, Division for the Blind, and Junior Federation of Women's Clubs, 1937. 26 pp.; mimeographed.

Contains data on number, geographic distribution, degree of blindness, length of residence, means of support, and present occupations of the blind, obtained in a State-wide census.

Mui tsai in Hong Kong and Malaya. London, Colonial Office, 1937. 314 pp. (Colonial No. 125.)

Report, with conclusions and recommendations, of the British commission appointed "to investigate the whole question of mui tsai in Hong Kong and Malaya and of any surviving practices in those territories of transferring women and children for valuable consideration." The mui tsai system is generally understood to mean the transfer of a girl from her own to another family, for money or other valuable consideration, to a status of domestic servitude without regular wages, the girl, however, being regarded as a member of the family to which she is transferred.

Education and Guidance

Annual convention, American Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, New Orleans [February 1937]. (In Occupations, the Vocational Guidance Magazine, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York, May 1937, pp. 689–780.)

Guidance and placement for America's youth. By Homer P. Rainey. (In Occupations, the Vocational Guidance Magazine, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York, June 1937, pp. 838–844.)

Describes several important types of guidance and placement programs now in operation, recommends a 4-point program, and emphasizes the need for further study.

Employment and Unemployment

International index numbers of employment. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, Switzerland, May 1937, pp. 724–733; charts.)

In this article the International Labor Office publishes for the first time its international employment index numbers. With a few exceptions, the indexes are based on official statistics. They are of three distinct kinds, each providing a different measure of employment—number in employment, degree of employment, aggregate hours worked— and are presented in both tabular and graphic form, preceded by brief descriptions of the indexes and methods of construction. A more detailed discussion of the indexes is contained in another article in this issue of the International Labor Review, on "Some problems of international employment statistics."

Some problems of international employment statistics. By John Lindberg. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, Switzerland, May 1937, pp. 608–642; chart.)

Planning of public works in relation to employment. Geneva, International Labor Office, 1937. 273 pp. (Third item on agenda of International Labor Conference, Twenty-third Session, Geneva, 1937.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Employment Service

A field visiting program for the public employment service. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1937. 65 pp. (Employment Office Manual Series, Section IV.)

Family Allowances

XVI^e Congrès national des allocations familiales, Strasbourg, 20 Mai 1936. Paris, Comité Central des Allocations Familiales, 31 rue Guyot, [1936?]. 155 pp.

Proceedings of the sixteenth annual national congress on family allowances in France, held at Strasbourg on May 20, 1936. A résumé of this conference was published in the September 1936 issue of the Monthly Labor Review; statistics and other information presented to the 1937 Congress are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Control of chromic acid mists from plating tanks. By Edward C. Riley and F. H. Goldman. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 3 pp. (Reprint No. 1801 from Public Health Reports, Feb. 5, 1937.)

The study showed that for the standard type of plating tank a cross-draft local-exhaust system will keep the concentration of chromic-acid vapor in the air within safe limits. The air velocities essential for adequate control are indicated in the report.

The pneumonokonioses (silicosis): Book III—literature and laws. By George G. Davis, Ella M. Salmonsen, and Joseph L. Earlywine. Chicago, Chicago Medical Press, 1937. 1033 pp.; bibliography and medical index.

The first section of the volume consists of abstracts, extracts, and reviews of international literature relating to silicosis, and the second part, of a synopsis of laws in the United States and foreign countries.

Report of the Assembly Interim Committee on Investigation of Health and Health Insurance in the State of California. Sacramento, 1937. 10 pp.

The Committee, as a result of replies to a questionnaire on health insurance, and following public hearings on the question, recommended that a committee representing the medical profession, labor, industry, fraternal groups, and others, be appointed by the legislature to study the health problem and health services in California.

Evaluation of the industrial hygiene problems of a State [Maryland]. By J. J. Bloomfield and Mary F. Peyton. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 126 pp., charts. (Public Health Bulletin No. 236.)

The study covered the occupational hazards in the different industries of Maryland. The report shows the extent of the health facilities and care provided, and the number of employees exposed to the different hazards. Appendixes contain specific instructions for carrying out plant surveys; a summary of the cost of basic equipment, and a list of items, for an industrial laboratory; and a list of periodicals and books essential for a reference library.

Public medical services: A survey of tax-supported medical care in the United States. By Michael M. Davis. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937. 170 pp., bibliography.

A review of public medical care in this country, which includes services provided for dependent and nondependent persons in their homes, in hospitals, and in

clinics, and by public health, educational, and other agencies. The policies, trends, and relationships of public medical services are summarized, and the estimated total expenditures from tax funds for these services are compared with the amounts expended from private sources.

An investigation into the sickness experience of London transport workers, with special reference to digestive disturbances. By A. Bradford Hill. London, Industrial Health Research Board, 1937. 25 pp. (Report No. 79.)

The sickness experience of omnibus drivers, among whom there was a belief that gastric disorders were unduly common in their group, was compared with the sickness experience of tramway workers. It was found that in 1933–35 there was some excess of gastric illnesses among the omnibus workers, but their total sickness experience was somewhat more favorable than that of the tramway workers.

Improvement in sanitary and labor conditions in machine shops [in Ukrainia]. By S. V. Miller. Kharkov, People's Commissariat of Public Health, 1936. 148 pp. (In Ukrainian.)

Improvement of health conditions in electrical welding of metals [in Ukrainia]. By S. V. Miller. Kiev, Central Institute of Industrial Hygiene and Diseases, 1936. 27 pp. (In Ukrainian.)

Has special reference to eye strain and the measures taken for protection.

Improvement of health conditions, and rationalization of labor, in metal-working shops [in Ukrainia]. By M. A. Abramovich. Kiev, Central Institute of Industrial Hygiene and Diseases, 1936. 48 pp. (In Ukrainian.)

Housing

Eight reasons for public housing. New York, New York City Housing Authority, 1937. 20 pp., illus.

Quotations from the statements of eight prominent persons, of whom the majority are Government officials, stressing the need for public housing.

Housing officials' yearbook, 1937. Edited by Coleman Woodbury. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, 850 E. 58th Street, 1937. 213 pp.

Contains articles on the work of a number of governmental agencies dealing with housing and on other subjects of interest in this field. The volume also presents a glossary of housing terms, a directory of official and unofficial housing agencies, and a selected bibliography on housing.

Report on rural housing in Scotland. Edinburgh, Scottish Housing Advisory Committee, 1937. 106 pp. (Cmd. 5462.)

Considers the efforts made to improve rural housing under State-aided plans.

Income

How the national income is divided. By Albert G. Hart. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937. 28 pp. (Public Policy Pamphlet No. 23.)

A summary analysis based on the studies of income by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the U. S. Department of Commerce, the National Bureau of Economic Research, the Brookings Institution, the National Industrial Conference Board, and other sources. The author estimates that wages and salaries in basic industries failed to keep pace with other forms of income during the decade preceding the depression, and that the percentage of persons receiving income of over $5,000 materially increased during the same period.

Industrial Relations

Collective bargaining by Amalgamated Clothing Workers. By Helen S. Hoeber. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 593, reprint from July 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Collective bargaining under the Wagner Labor Act. By E. C. Robbins. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XV, No. 4, "Summer 1937", pp. 393–405.)

International Labor Relations

Record of proceedings of International Labor Conference, twenty-first session and twenty-second session, Geneva, 1936. Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place, NW., Washington, D. C.), 1937. 416 pp.

These two sessions of the Conference, both held in Geneva in October 1936, dealt with questions relating to maritime workers.

Towards better things—the story of the I. L. O. By Nora Hewett. London and New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1936. 128 pp.

The author reviews briefly the growth of the idea of international action to improve labor conditions; gives an account of the establishment of the International Labor Organization and of the work accomplished by the respective International Labor Conferences; and cites improvements in working conditions which have resulted from the work of the Organization, particularly in some of the less progressive countries.

Labor Organization

Government regulation of unions. (In Conference Board Bulletin, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Avenue, New York, May 4, 1937. 12 pp.)

This discussion of "the possible need for the exercise in the public interest of some form of control of unions and their activities commensurate with the existing control of other business enterprise" analyzes various legislative methods that have been adopted, in this country and in foreign countries, to delay, prevent, regulate, or prohibit strikes.

Industrial versus craft unionism. Compiled by Julia E. Johnsen. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1937. 320 pp. (The Reference Shelf, Vol. 11, No. 3.)

Arranged in the manner of a brief for a debate on the subject, "Resolved: That the organization of labor along the line of industrial unions is preferable to craft unions", this compilation presents definitions, outlines affirmative and negative arguments, and gives general articles and those presenting the case for each side. An extensive bibliography is also divided into general discussion and affirmative and negative veiwpoints.

Mining Industry

Mechanization trends in metal and nonmetal mining as indicated by sales of underground loading equipment. By L. N. Plein, F. E. Berquist, and F. G. Tryon. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, 1937. 19 pp., maps, charts. (National Research Project on Reemployment Opportunities and Recent Changes in Industrial Techniques, Mineral Technology and Output Per Man Studies, Report No. E–3.)

A list of references on the Guffey-Snyder Bituminous-Coal Conservation Act of 1935. Compiled by Florence S. Hellman. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1936. 11 pp.; typed.

Annuaire du Comité Central des Houillères de France et de la Chambre Syndicale Française des Mines Métalliques. Paris, 1937. Various paging.

This annual report of the Central Committee of Coal Operators in France contains statistics of production, wages, and number of workers in coal and lignite mines in 1935, and of the mineral production in France and its colonies from 1932 to 1936.

Report of the Coal-Mining Committee, India, 1937, Vol. I. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1937. 243 pp., maps.

Detailed survey of the coal-mining industry of India, laying stress on the natural conditions of the seams as they affect production. Chapters are devoted to the problems of conservation and waste, including waste of human lives through avoidable accidents.

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Occupations

Men wanted—the new opportunities and what they demand. By Frances Maule. New York and London, Funk and Wagnalls Co., 1937. 290 pp.

Written with a view to helping young people in career building, the book brings together the findings of many recent interviews of the author with industrial executives. A brief reading list is given at the end of each chapter.

Occupations in retail stores. A study sponsored by the National Vocational Guidance Association and the United States Employment Service. By Dorothea de Schweinitz. Scranton, Pa., International Textbook Co., 1937. 417 pp., charts.

Describes 45 occupations in the retail merchandising field, and discusses employment trends, hiring and training policies, and the chain and independent types of stores. Reading lists provide suggestions for further study of the subject. It is pointed out that while the 1930 Census showed 12½ percent of the working population to be engaged in trade, this field appears to be overlooked by students in choosing occupations.

The Telford classification manual: How to make and use an occupational classification of the positions in a public or commerial organization. By Fred Telford. Washington, 4728 Fourteenth Street, NW., 1937. 185 pp.; mimeographed.

Old-Age Pensions

Federal old-age benefits under Title II of the Social Security Act. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, 1937. 33 pp. (Social Security Board Regulations No. 2.)

More security for old age—a report and a program. Factual report by Margaret Grant Schneider, and a program for action by the Committee on Old-Age Security, Twentieth Century Fund, Inc. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., 330 W. 42d Street, 1937. 191 pp.

Notes what are considered by the author to be fundamental defects in the present system of social security in the United States. The program for improvement was formulated by a committee of which the chairman was John B. Andrews, director of American Association for Labor Legislation.

Older Worker in Industry

Discrimination in the employment of older workers in Massachusetts. By Lucile Eaves. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 28 pp. (Serial No. R. 575, reprint from June 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Planning

New towns for old: Achievements in civic improvement in some American small towns and neighborhoods. By John Nolen. Boston, Marshall Jones Co., 1937. 198 pp., illus. (2d ed.)

By comparing cities that have been planned with those that have developed haphazard, the author makes a case for the planned community. The appendix contains a list of planned towns and suburbs as compiled by the Harvard School of City Planning.

Prices

Statistique des prix des marchandises dans le commerce de gros et de détail. Sofia, Bulgaria, Direction Générale de la Statistique, 1937. 117 pp.

Prison Labor

Report of the Maryland Commission on Prison Labor. [Annapolis?], 1937. 39 pp.

This report was made in response to Joint Resolution 11, Acts of 1935, of the Maryland General Assembly, creating the commission. It offers recommendations for remedying prison idleness and submits a bill to carry out such a program.

The prison labor problem in West Virginia. Washington, U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, 1937. 69 pp.; mimeographed.

Existing conditions are described and recommendations are made for changes to secure more general employment and better arrangements for prisoners.

Productivity of Labor and Technological Changes

The productivity of labor in Great Britain. By Witt Bowden. (In Journal of Political Economy, Chicago, June 1937, pp. 347–369; also reprinted.)

Estimates of changes in average output per worker in the industries included in the Board of Trade's production indexes, 1928–34, in selected industries of the censuses of production, 1924–30, and in agriculture, 1921–31. There is also a discussion of factors affecting productivity.

Technological trends and national policy, including the social implications of new inventions. Washington, U. S. National Resources Committee, 1937. 388 pp., charts, illus.

The nature and scope of the report and the recommendations of the Committee are summarized in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Recreation

Economic aspects of recreation. By Julius Weinberger. (In Harvard Business Review, Summer Number, 1937, pp. 448–463, charts.)

The study shows that recreational services and vacation travel have been increasing both in absolute value and in the proportion of the national income devoted to these purposes. The steady up-trend in recreational services was not seriously affected by the 1930–34 depression, although certain recreational products were seriously affected.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Public welfare organization in the United States—a synopsis of opinion, March 1937. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Research, Statistics, and Records, 1937. 275 pp.; mimeographed.

A compilation of comments and opinions from reports, books, speeches, etc., relative to legislation on the subject of the organization of public welfare.

Relief and rehabilitation in the drought area. By Irene Link. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, 1937. 57 pp., maps, charts. (Research Bulletin, Series V, No. 3.)

In February 1935, more than 20 percent of the families of the Great Plains Area were in receipt of Federal emergency relief, with the exception of the Western Corn Belt, where 13 percent were receiving such relief. In June 1935, approximately 60 percent of all rural cases on relief for the first time in the 8 States covered by this study were the outcome of conditions directly associated with drought. Tenants constituted 48 percent of the total number of farmers in these States, and 70 percent of the farm-operator household heads on relief.

Annual report, for the year 1936, of New York City Department of Public Welfare. New York, 1937. 152 pp.

Statistical and general information on old-age assistance, care of dependent children, etc., in the City of New York.

Annual report of South Dakota Department of Public Welfare, for period July 1, 1935, to July 1, 1936. Pierre, [1937?]. 31 pp.

Contains data on aid to the aged and to crippled children, and on expenditures for relief.

Report of Dominion Commissioner of Unemployment Relief, March 31, 1937. Ottawa, Department of Labor of Canada, 1937. 34 pp.

Presents statistics of operation under the Unemployment Relief and Assistance Act of 1936, with summaries, by month and by kind of project, of the number of persons given relief from 1932 to 1937, and of expenditures under the relief legislation of the years 1930 to 1935 inclusive.

Unemployment and unemployment relief in Nova Scotia. By L. Richter. Halifax, 1937. 13 pp. (Dalhousie University Bulletin on Public Affairs, II.)

Self-Help

Annual report on the self-help cooperative program, State of Idaho, 1936. Boise, Idaho, Self-Help Cooperatives, 1937. 27 pp.; mimeographed.

Reviewed in this issue.

Social Security

Social security. By Abraham Epstein. (In New Frontiers, League for Industrial Democracy, New York, March 1937, pp. 3–38.)

An analysis of social-security legislation, with presentation of some of the changes which the author deems essential as the most practical next steps to be taken in the improvement of the system.

Report of the Interim Committee on Social Legislation and Relief to the Legislature of the State of Minnesota, 1937. St. Paul, 1937. 29 pp.

A program of social security for the State of Washington. Compiled by Erma M. Cull. Olympia, Department of Social Security, 1937. 19 pp.; mimeographed. (Monograph No. 24.)

Statistika invalidního a starobního pojištění dělníků za léta 1933 a 1934. Prague, Ústřední Sociální Pojišťovna, 1936. 67 pp.

Statistical report on operation of the workers' invalidity and old-age insurance system in Czechoslovakia in 1933 and 1934, including information on number of insured workers, by industry, location, age, sex, wage class, and average daily wage rate. An introduction in French, and French translations of the heads and terms used in the main statistical tables, are provided.

Årsberetning nr. 40 fra Rikstrygdeverket (1936). Oslo, 1937. 21 pp.

Report on accident insurance in Norway in 1934 and sickness insurance in 1936.

Textile Industry

Activities of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers for 1936; statistics of the industry and other matters relating to the wool textile industry. New York City, National Association of Wool Manufacturers, 386 Fourth Avenue, 1937. 602 pp., charts, illus. (Bulletin, Vol. LXVI.)

The report of the special study, conducted by the Association, of hourly earnings in selected occupations in the wool-textile industry is contained in the volume, the data applying to pay periods ending nearest December 11, 1936, with comparative data for September 1933. Indexes of employment and pay rolls, as published by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, are presented for each year 1923 to 1936 and for each month of the years 1929 to 1936. Data are also given on wage rates and earnings in the different branches of the textile industry in Austria, China, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Poland, and Sweden, in September of 1936 and several earlier years, the information being from the preliminary report by the International Labor Office to the World Textile Conference in Washington in April 1937.

Unemployment Insurance

The Colorado labor market and its relation to unemployment compensation. By Edward Robert Livernash. (In University of Colorado Studies, Vol. 24, Nos. 2 and 3, Boulder, June 1937, pp. 127–187; also reprinted.)

Problems of the Oklahoma labor market, with special reference to unemployment compensation. By Frederick L. Ryan. Oklahoma City, Semco Color Press, Inc., 1937. 113 pp., maps, charts.

This monograph and the one noted in the preceding entry give the results of two of a series of studies, undertaken in various States, on regional labor-market problems in relation to the development of social-security policies, at the suggestion and with the aid of the Committee on Social Security of the Social Science Research Council.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Wage rates and hours of labor in the building trades. By Edward P. Sanford. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 590, from August 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Income and earnings in engineering profession, 1929 to 1934. By Andrew Fraser, Jr. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1937. 34 pp. (Serial No. R. 588, from August 1937 Monthly Labor Review.)

Wages and hours of work in the lock and wood screw industries [in Connecticut]. Hartford, State Department of Labor, May 1937. 15 pp.; mimeographed.

Reviewed in this issue.

Salaries of school employees, 1936–37. Washington, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW., March 1937. 27 pp. (Research Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 2.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Salaries and professional qualifications of social workers in Chicago, 1935. By Merrill F. Krughoff. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937. 89 pp. (Social Service Monograph.)

The standards of professional education of the workers included in this survey were found to be considerably below a reasonable minimum, particularly among those in the public relief agencies. Only 40 per cent of the total workers covered and 24 percent of those employed by public family-welfare agencies had a record of 5 or more years' experience. On the whole, salaries were low, the median for all social workers studied being $135 per month. A high turnover in personnel is reported.

World chemical developments in 1936. By C. C. Concannon and A. H. Swift. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1937. 239 pp. (Trade Promotion Series, No. 169.)

Includes labor data for Germany, Great Britain, and Japan. Information on wages and working hours in the Japanese chemical industry is published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The pocket year book of Tasmania, 1937. Hobart, [Bureau of Census and Statistics], 1937. 132 pp.

Basic and current weekly rates of wages are shown.

Basic wage inquiry, 1937, in the matter of applications by organizations of employees for an increase in the basic wage [Australia]. Canberra, Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, 1937. 19 pp.

Reviewed in this issue.

Summary of wages and conditions fixed by wage boards or by Court of Industrial Appeals, Victoria, Australia, up to July 1, 1936. Melbourne, [Court of Industrial Appeals, 1937?]. 306 pp.

A record of individual industrial wage scales.

Women in Industry

Women's hours and wages in the District of Columbia in 1937. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 50 pp.; mimeographed.

Summarized in this issue.

Injuries to women in personal service occupations in Ohio. By Margaret T. Mettert. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 23 pp. (Bulletin No. 151.)

Statistical records of the Ohio Department of Industrial Relations for 1932 and 1933 were analyzed to show the cause and extent of injuries, both compensable and those involving less than 7 days' lost time or no lost time, to women employed in five personal-service occupations in Ohio—laundries, hotels, restaurants, barber and beauty shops, and households. Accidents to women constituted 36.7 percent of all those reported to the State agency in 1932, and 38.2 percent of those in 1933. Injuries were most numerous in hotel and restaurant employment, and most severe among household and laundry workers.

Employment of women in Tennessee industries. By Ethel Erickson. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 63 pp. (Bulletin No. 149.)

Women's employment in West Virginia. By Harriet A. Byrne. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1937. 27 pp. (Bulletin No. 150.)

Workmen's Compensation

Some aspects of blanket coverage of occupational diseases in United States. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1937. 6 pp. (Reprint No. 1809 from Public Health Reports, Mar. 19, 1937.)

Reviews briefly the problem of blanket coverage in workmen's compensation for industrial diseases, and gives excerpts from the text of the Wisconsin law, with a statement of the results of blanket coverage in that State.

Twenty-third annual report of West Virginia State Compensation Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation Fund, year ending June 30, 1936. Charleston. [1936?]. 120 pp.

During 1935–36, compensation benefits totaling $4,512,913.22 were paid by the State Workmen's Compensation Fund, an increase of $859,929.60 over 1934–35. The payments were distributed as follows: $1,555,056.14 for fatal cases; $493,975.18 for permanent total disability; $1,023,696.62 for permanent partial disability; $826,509.60 for temporary total disability; and $613,675.68 for medical and funeral expenses. The increases in benefits were due partly to new legislation which raised the temporary-disability and medical payments. During 1935–36 awards were made for 291 fatalities, and in 72 permanent-total disability, 1,446 permanent-partial disability, and 25,106 temporary disability cases. These awards included cases carried over from previous years.

The report also contains data covering 15,351 employees insured under self-insurers.

General Reports

Census of business, 1935: Personnel and pay roll in industry and business, and farm personnel, by counties. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1937. xxii, 161 pp., maps.

Information regarding certain forms of enterprise was not available, as is pointed out in the introduction; but the volume furnishes the most comprehensive available analysis of local employment, pay rolls, and property interests.

Yearbook of the State of Indiana for the year 1936. [Indianapolis?], Division of Accounting and Statistics, 1937. 1005 pp.

Brings together the annual reports of various State offices and activities, among them the State Teachers' Retirement Fund, the Unemployment Compensation Division, the Division of Mines and Mining, and the Industrial Board, whose reports are for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1936. Detailed statistics of accidents are given in the report of the Industrial Board; the report of the Division of Mines and Mining contains data on accidents from 1898 to 1936, by year, and on average number of employees, number of days worked, and production, by mine and county, in the fiscal year 1936.

Twenty-fifth biennial report of the Minnesota Department of Labor and Industry, and eighth biennial report of the Industrial Commission, 1935–36. St. Paul, 1937. 261 pp.

Reports of the divisions of accident prevention, workmen's compensation, boiler inspection, mine inspection, employment, the deaf, and women and children.

Official year book of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1936. Canberra, Bureau of Census and Statistics, [1937?]. xxxii, 1015 pp.

The information of particular interest to labor covers wages, employment and unemployment, unemployment relief, accidents in mines, industrial disputes, old-age and invalidity pensions, prices and cost of living, worker and employer organizations, and cooperative societies. The data are for 1935 or earlier years, except in the case of retail prices, which are brought down to June 1936.

Eesti arvudes, 1920–35. Tallinn, Estonia, Statistika Keskbüroo, 1937. 348 pp. (In Estonian and French.)

This general statistical résumé for Estonia contains data on production, prices, wages and working hours, industrial disputes, factory inspection, housing, social insurance, relief, and cooperative societies.

Economic development of Germany under national socialism. By Vaso Trivanovitch. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Avenue, 1937. xvii, 141 pp., charts. (Study No. 236.)

Presents the results of a survey made in Germany by a member of the Conference Board's research staff, to obtain information on the organization of labor and industry and the extent and character of government control; the economic position of labor and industry; international transactions and their relationship to the standard of living; and the financial position of the government with special reference to the cost of the public-works and rearmament program. In the chapter on the economic position of German labor, data are given on wages; total labor income; occupational distribution and growth of the working population; and legislation concerning skilled labor.

Résumé statistique de l'Empire du Japon. Tokyo, Bureau de la Statistique Générale, 1937. 160 pp., charts.

A summary in Japanese and French of the principal data in the fifty-fifth statistical annual of the Empire of Japan, published in Japanese, in December 1936. Information is given on operation of employment offices; unemployment; employment by sex for 1927, 1930, 1933, and 1936; strikes; average daily wages, including wages in mines, 1931–35; and family budgets by income groups, 1935–36. Figures on the last-mentioned subject are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Indisch verslag, 1936: II, Statistisch jaaroverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indië over het jaar 1935. Batavia, Java, Departement van Economische Zaken, Centraal Kantoor voor de Statistiek, 1937. 479 pp. (In Dutch and English.)

The subjects covered in this statistical abstract for Netherland India include prices and cost of living, wages of estate laborers and of workers in the sugar industry, trade-union membership, strikes, accidents in factories and workshops, and native cooperative societies. The data are for 1935, with comparative figures for earlier years in most cases.

Statistical year book of the Province of Quebec, 1936. Quebec, Department of Municipal Affairs, Trade, and Commerce, 1937. xxxiii, 450 pp. (In French and English.)

Gives figures on colonization, agricultural wages, employment and accidents in mining, employment in manufacturing, price fluctuations, strikes, lockouts, labor inspection, employment bureaus, workmen's compensation, and cooperative banks. The immigration statistics are brought down to 1936, but in the other cases 1935 is the latest date.

Statistics of the State of Tasmania for the year 1935–36. Hobart, Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics, [1937?]. Various paging.

Wages and salaries in manufacturing, employment in manufacturing and agriculture, and prices of agricultural products, are among the subjects covered.

Collected statistics of the Ukraine. Kiev, State Publications Office, 1937. 238 pp. (In Ukrainian.)

The subjects covered in this compilation of statistics include wages, working hours, number of workers by industries, trade unions, social insurance, the Stakhánov efficiency movement, and consumers' cooperation.

Memoria de las actividades de la Oficina Nacional del Trabajo, presentada al ciudadano Ministro de Relaciones Interiores [Venezuela], año de 1936. Caracas, [Oficina Nacional del Trabajo?], 1937. 739 pp., charts.

Account of the activities of the National Labor Office of Venezuela from its establishment by presidential decree of February 29, 1936, to the end of 1936, with statistics on labor inspection, strikes, labor accidents, and registration of labor unions.

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