MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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In this issue . . . Grievance Settlement Under Union Agreements • Minimum Wage, 1939 • Clothing Expenditures of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers • Wages in Men's Neckwear Industry

FEBRUARY 1940

VOL. 50 • NO. 2

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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Published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, under authority of Public Resolution No. 57, approved May 11, 1922 (42 Stat. 541), as amended by section 307, Public Act 212, 72d Congress, approved June 30, 1932. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Price, 30 cents a copy. Subscription price per year in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, $3.50; other countries, $4.75. This publication approved by the Director, Bureau of the Budget.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

+ HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR +

CONTENTS

FEBRUARY 1940 Vol. 50 No. 2

Cover:
Statue of Liberty, New York Harbor.

	Page
Special articles:	
Clothing expenditures of wage earners and clerical workers	267
Settlement of grievances under union agreements	286
Progress of State minimum-wage legislation in 1939	312
Wartime emergency controls:	
Argentine wartime legislation on prices and wages	324
Increases in family allowances for British soldiers	325
Wartime food and price control in Great Britain	326
Family allowances for soldiers in the Soviet Union	328
Employment and labor conditions:	
Recommendations of California Commission in Reemployment	329
Overhead man-hours in PWA construction	334
Productivity of labor and industry:	
Individual productivity differences	338 - 43
Mechanization in the bituminous-coal industry	341
Women in industry:	
Economic status of university women	345
Negro workers:	
Occupational distribution of employed colored workers in Maryland, 1938	350
Social security:	
Placement work of Public Employment Services, December and year 1939	352
Unemployment-compensation operations, December 1939	358
Family allowances in Hungary	360
Housing conditions:	
Limited-dividend housing in New York	362
Management of New York City housing projects, 1938	364
Municipal housing in Copenhagen	366
Labor laws and court decisions:	
Appropriations for State and Federal labor departments	369
Court decisions of interest to labor:	
Review of Labor Relations Board decisions by courts	372
Average weekly wage and the Fair Labor Standards Act	374
New York hours-of-service law upheld	374
Government regulation of workers' organizations in Costa Rica	375

Page

Cost and standards of living:
Consumer expenditures in the United States ... 377
Cost of living in Manila, 1938 ... 381
Rabbits as source of food in Germany ... 383

Industrial disputes:
Trend of strikes ... 385
Strikes in October 1939 ... 386
Activities of United States Conciliation Service, December 1939 ... 395

Minimum wages and maximum hours:
First year's operations under Fair Labor Standards Act ... 397
Millinery wage under Fair Labor Standards Act ... 399

Wages and hours of labor:
Annual earnings in knit-goods industries (other than hosiery), 1937 ... 401
Earnings and hours in men's neckwear industry, 1939 ... 410
Wages, hours, and working conditions of union street-railway employees, June 1, 1939 ... 432
Incomes of chiropractors and chiropodists in the United States ... 453
New York—Earnings of office workers in factories, October 1939 ... 453
Argentina—Wages and hours of labor in various industries ... 456
Denmark—Wages of industrial workers, 1939 ... 470
Netherlands—Wages in leather and rubber industries ... 471
Scandinavian countries—Wage adjustments based on cost of living ... 475

Labor turn-over:
Labor turn-over in manufacturing, November 1939 ... 478

Building operations:
Summary of building construction in principal cities, December 1939 ... 483

Retail prices:
Food prices in December 1939 ... 488
Electricity prices on December 15, 1939 ... 493
Gas prices on December 15, 1939 ... 497

Wholesale prices:
Wholesale prices, December and year 1939 ... 505

Trend of employment and pay rolls:
Summary of reports for December 1939 ... 513
Detailed reports for industrial and business employment, November 1939 ... 519

Labor conditions in Latin America ... 324, 375, 456

Recent publications of labor interest ... 530

This Issue in Brief

Price Control in Great Britain.

Food and price control were introduced in Great Britain late in 1939 as a wartime measure, and rationing of a few commodities commenced in January 1940. This action was authorized by the terms of two special acts. Food control committees have been established throughout the country, subject to the orders of the Minister of Food, to regulate distribution and consumption. Prices are subject to scrutiny of the Board of Trade and may not be raised above the prices of similar goods on August 21, 1939, plus an amount reasonably justified by increases in cost of production and selling. Traders have the right of appeal from the action of the Board. Enforcement of the law is vested in a Central Price Regulation Committee, assisted by local committees representing producers and consumers. Page 326.

Wages in Men's Neckwear.

The men's neckwear industry paid its wage earners an average of 47.0 cents an hour during the first half of 1939, or $16.32 for a week averaging 34.7 hours. The industry employs some 10,000 workers. New York and New Jersey form the largest producing area. Wages in New York City proper averaged 74.2 cents an hour; in the remainder of the country the average was 43.1 cents. The application, on October 24, 1939, of the 30-cent minimum provided for under the Fair Labor Standards Act required a direct shift of about one-sixth of all men's neckwear workers to higher wage brackets. Page 409.

Grievances under Union Agreements.

Practically all union agreements make some provision for the adjustment of grievances and disputes. Experience with collective bargaining has led to a general acceptance of three essentials for the adjustment of disputes under such agreements: (1) Union-management negotiations, beginning with the foreman and proceeding up to the highest officials of the company; (2) appeal to an impartial, outside agency or individual; and (3) restriction on strikes and lockouts until other means of settling the dispute have been exhausted. The general processes of dispute adjustment in unionized plants throughout the country, together with some examples of various types of adjustment machinery now in effect, are described on page 286.

Productivity Differences.

Variations in efficiency between workers are of importance in both private industry and in matters of public policy. The individual employer is interested from the standpoint of productivity, formulation of employee-training programs, and other matters. Public legislation must take into consideration, in the determination of minimum-wage scales, the problem of the slow worker. The effect of constantly increasing pressure for greater output is also a matter of public concern as a health problem. Comparatively little has been done in the study of individual productivity differences. The article on page 338 summarizes some of the existing data.

Wages of Union Street-Railway Employees.

Motormen, conductors, and bus drivers averaged 75.5 cents an hour on June 1, 1939, in 55 cities covered in a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This represented an advance of 0.8 percent over the preceding year. Somewhat less than half of the union agreements provided for union-shop conditions. More than half provided for annual vacations with pay. A detailed report of wages, hours, and other provisions in the union agreements is given on page 432.

Economic Status of University Women.

College women, except those with doctor's degrees, have not received salaries commensurate with the time and investment spent in their education and professional training. During the depression, however, they did not suffer seriously from unemployment. A large percentage support dependents. Data as to earnings, employment, and responsibilities of college women are presented on page 345.

Wages in Argentina.

More than half a million persons were employed in October 1935 in 16 large industrial groups in Argentina; of these, more than 77 percent worked from 44 to 48 hours per week inclusive. A general 8-hour day and a 48-hour week are established by law, though with provision for exceptions. Minimum-wage legislation is operative in a few occupations, but a minimum-wage commission may be created in any industry employing home workers. Industry is largely centralized in Buenos Aires and the surrounding area, and pay is in general higher there than in other parts of the Republic. Page 456.

Workers' Clothing Expenditures.

Clothing expenditures claimed 10.6 percent of the average city worker's family outlay in 1934–36. Among families with incomes from $500 to $3,000, the amount spent for clothing was greater at higher income levels, not only in dollars but also as a proportion of total family expenditure. When families are classified by amount of total expenditure per adult equivalent, a sharp increase in clothing expenditure per person was found at higher economic levels. Important differences were noted in total clothing expenditures of persons of different age, sex, and occupation, even when differences in income and family size were held constant. Employed women spent most, then employed men, followed by women at home and men at home. Page 267.

Progress of State Minimum Wage.

Only two State minimum-wage acts were passed in 1939, but 23 wage orders became effective in 11 States and the District of Columbia. As a result of these wage orders, approximately 130,000 additional women were brought under the protection of minimum-wage provisions. More than 4,000,000 women were in the intrastate industries covered by the legislation which is on the statute books of 29 jurisdictions. Page 312.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR FEBRUARY 1940

CLOTHING EXPENDITURES OF WAGE EARNERS AND CLERICAL WORKERS

THE clothing dollar of the average employed city worker's family must meet many demands. It must provide shoes and sturdy garments for school children, suitable clothes for the employed member or members to wear to work, and apparel adequate to meet the accepted social standards of the community in which the family lives.

That these requirements constitute a major demand upon the family purse is clear from the proportion of total family expenditures which they claim. After food and housing, clothing was the next largest category of expenditure reported by 14,469 families of wage earners and clerical workers in 42 cities with population of over 50,000 in 1934–36,[1] the yearly disbursements per family averaging 10.6 percent of the total family expenditure. The urgency with which families regard the need for warm and socially appropriate clothing is evidenced by the larger outlay for clothing per family at higher income levels. As incomes permitted, these families of wage earners and clerical workers spent for clothing not only more dollars, but a larger proportion of the total family expenditure.

The average clothing expenditure per family was $49 for those with incomes of $500 to $600, but rose to a much higher figure, $388, for those with incomes of $2,700 to $3,000, and to $471 for those with incomes of $3,000 and over. The first figure represents 7.5 percent of total expenditure of families at the lowest income level studied, while the last two figures represent more than 14 percent of total expenditures of families at the highest income levels included in the investigation.[2] At the high income levels family size is greater, which accounts in part for the very great expansion in clothing expenditures at the upper income levels, but expenditure per person was definitely higher at higher incomes.

[1] This is the third in a series of articles, prepared by the Bureau's Cost of Living Division, presenting a summary of data collected in the Study of Money Disbursements of Employed Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in 1934–36 for 42 cities combined. No families with incomes below $500, or which had received any relief during the year were included in the investigation. See Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletins Nos. 636, 637, Vols. I and II, Nos. 639, 640, 641, and articles as follows: Expenditure Habits of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, in Monthly Labor Review, December 1939, and Income, Family Size and Economic Level of the Family, in Monthly Labor Review, January 1940. The final report will be published as Bulletin No. 638.

[2] See table 1 of article previously referred to, Monthly Labor Review, December 1939.

When families are classified on a basis which takes into account not only the amount of funds available for spending, but the number of dependents on those funds, the increase in clothing expenditures from low to high levels is less striking.[3] This is accounted for by the smaller family size at the higher expenditure levels, discussed in the second article in this series.

Clothing Expenditures, by Age, Sex, and Occupation

Total family clothing expenditures are by no means prorated equally among the members of workers' families. The age, sex, and activity of the family members make a great difference in their clothing needs, and these differences are reflected in the apportionment of the family clothing dollar.

In figure A are shown the relative clothing expenditures of persons of different age, sex, and occupation, as determined from the data obtained from the present investigation. They represent the composite clothing expenditures of persons of the indicated sex-age-activity groups in 12,903 white families in 42 cities, after eliminating the effect of differences in family size and income.[4]

In the rise and fall of the curves of this chart lies a dramatic story of changes in the individual's clothing expenditures at different points in his life. Perhaps the most striking contrast which emerges is the fact that the high points on the curves for women's clothing expenditures are almost half again as high as those for men's clothing expenditures.[5]

In the United States, the clothing purchased by families of low and moderate income is patterned as closely as possible after the clothing worn by individuals in the upper income group. In a study of higher income families recently conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it was found that clothing expenditures of wives, most of whom were not employed outside the home, were from a third to a half greater than those of husbands at incomes of $2,500 or more.

At first glance at figure A it might appear that women in families of wage earners and clerical workers also spend more than men for clothing. Closer examination of the data in this chart shows, however, that these high clothing expenditures are limited to woman members of the family who were themselves earners, either in clerical or wage-earning occupations. The women at home—including the

[3] See table 7 of article previously referred to, Monthly Labor Review, January 1940.

[4] These figures do not reflect differences in income between wage earners and clerical workers, since income and family size were held constant in making the averages graphed in figure A. The average income of the white families covered in the investigation was $1,546, the average family size was 3.6 persons.

[5] The clothing expenditures of male wage earners and clerical workers from 21 through 35, which averaged $56.68, were taken as equal to 1.00 in the preparation of the chart and the table on which it is based. See Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 641, table C, p. 378.

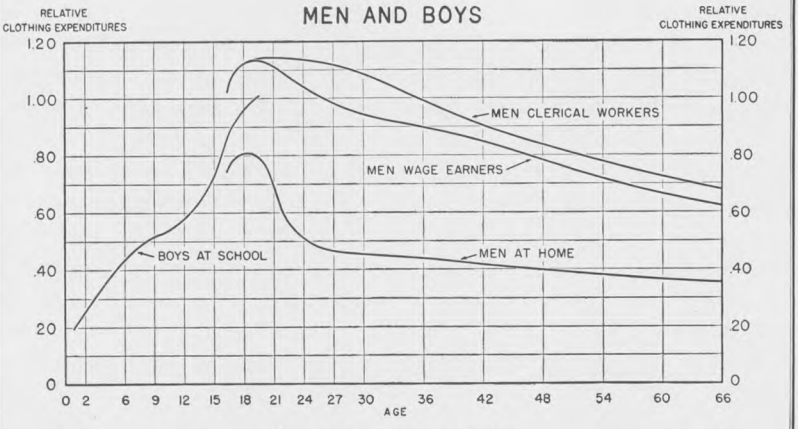
Fig. A

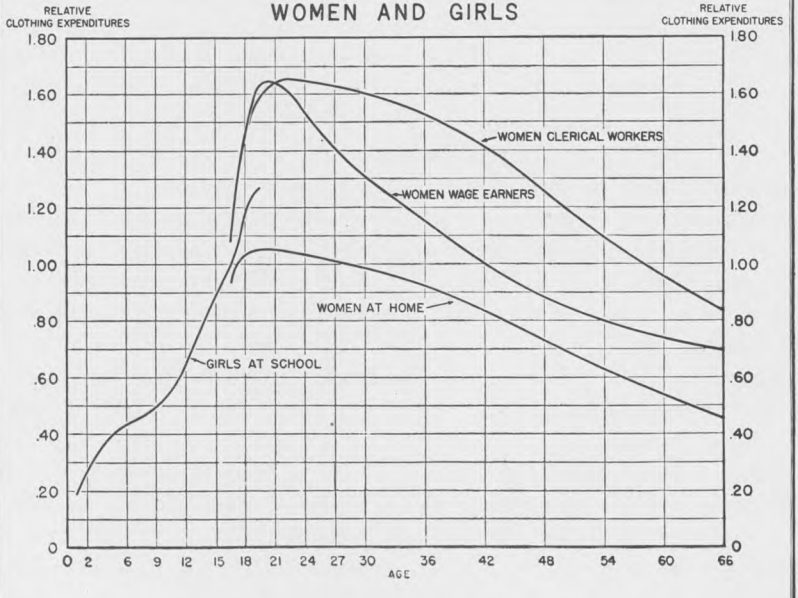
ESTIMATED ANNUAL CLOTHING EXPENDITURES*

BY PERSONS OF DIFFERENT AGE, SEX, AND OCCUPATION

42 CITIES COMBINED

1.00 = $56.68





*AFTER ELIMINATING THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY SIZE AND INCOME. BASED ON DATA FROM WHITE FAMILIES

U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

homemakers, daughters neither in school nor gainfully employed, and other women who were part of the economic family—spent much less for clothing than did the employed women. The women at home also spent distinctly less than the employed men. Clearly, in these families, economic pressure was so great that women at home were obliged to keep their own clothing expenditures below even the small amounts spent by their men for clothes to wear to work, and below the amounts spent by the woman members of the family who held jobs. The keen competition which women meet in seeking jobs, particularly in clerical work, is evidenced in the high expenditures for clothing of the employed women.

A young woman's activity in the years from 15 to 21 is seen, from figure A, to have a direct influence upon her clothing budget. If she remains in school and dependent on her family, she has less to spend for clothes, on the average, than her classmates who dropped out of school to take jobs. But she is apt to have more to spend as a student than if she marries and sets up her own home, possibly with the arrival of children before her young husband is well established in a regular occupation.

It is also noteworthy that clerical workers, whether men or women, spent more for clothing than did wage earners, with the same income, but that this situation was much more pronounced in the case of women after about 26 years of age. Women of maturer years, who remain in clerical occupations, though they spend somewhat less than the younger girls, evidently find it necessary or desirable to spend substantially more to maintain a good appearance than woman wage earners of their own age. The older women working in factories or other wage-earning situations apparently can economize by wearing uniforms or work aprons during the day, but they do spend for street and dress clothes more than if they were at home and not receiving a pay check.

The men at home, most of whom were there because of illness or involuntary unemployment, spent the least for clothing of any of the adult groups.

After differences in the heights of the curves for the various sex-occupation groups, the next most striking aspect of the curves, shown in figure A, is their shape through the age span. As would be expected, clothing expenditures for children increase as they grow older, reaching a maximum for the age group 18 to 21. (Again it is interesting to note the higher expenditures for girls than boys from age 12 on.)

For both men and women, the peaks in clothing expenditures come in the years of early maturity, when they are starting to work, marrying, and establishing themselves in life. There is a tapering off in

clothing expenditures with advancing age, gradual in most cases, but notably sharp for woman wage earners. The sharpness in the decline for men at home after age 21 suggests the transition of boys from the category of those recently out of school and hunting jobs who have parents to provide for them to that of the older unemployed, many of them having dependents of their own. The relatively sharper decline in later years for woman workers than for men from high levels between 21 and 30 years reemphasizes the greater importance of clothing to women in the years when they are most likely to marry.

Analysis of Clothing Expenditures for Men and Women

Turn now to a consideration of the individual clothing items which make up these total clothing expenditures. The detailed articles of clothing purchased by the families studied have been tabulated according to sex and age groups, separately for whites and for Negroes and also for the two color groups combined.[7]

For both men and women over 18, outerwear, consisting of coats, sweaters, suits, shirts, and dresses and blouses, took the largest expenditure of any group of clothing items. Such garments represented, on the average, $25 a year, or over half of the men's clothing expenditures which totaled $49. They took an average of $23 or 42 percent of women's total clothing expenditures of $55.

The rate at which the men in these urban workers' families purchased coats in 1934–36 would mean that a man bought a new overcoat or topcoat once in 5 years at an average price of $21. A new light- or heavy-weight wool suit was bought once in 2 years and cost an average of $24. Among the women, heavy coats were purchased by two in nine women, meaning that at that rate these women would buy new coats once in 4½ years and would pay an average price of $32. Similarly, these women averaged 1.1 silk or rayon dresses a year, at an average cost of about $6 per dress.

Footwear, including shoes, slippers, rubbers, and arctics, and hose, accounted for the second major clothing expense for both men and women (table 1). It represented a larger expenditure, both in dollars and as a percentage of the total, for women than for men. This fact is largely explained by the importance of the items—silk and rayon stockings and shoes. Stockings accounted for $7.41 per person and cost 72 cents per pair on the average. Shoes cost the average woman in these workers' families $7.85 a year.

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[7] Detailed tabulations for clothing expenditures for each sex-age-color group will appear in forthcoming Bulletin No. 638.

TABLE 1.—*Expenditures for Groups of Clothing Items by Men and Women in 14,469 White and Negro Families, at Selected Economic Levels,*[1] *in 42 Cities Combined*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934–36]

Sex and age group, and item of clothing	All families [2]	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—				All families [2]	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—			
		$200 to $300	$500 to $600	$800 to $900	$1,100 to $1,200		$200 to $300	$500 to $600	$800 to $900	$1,100 to $1,200
	Average expenditure per person					Percentage distribution				
Men and boys 18 years of age and over: Total	$49.18	$26.89	$54.47	$75.87	$106.14	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	2.36	1.25	2.72	3.60	5.50	4.8	4.6	5.0	4.7	5.2
Outerwear	25.24	13.34	27.89	40.31	55.05	51.3	49.6	51.2	53.2	51.9
Underwear	3.45	2.01	3.68	5.09	7.26	7.0	7.5	6.8	6.7	6.8
Footwear	11.59	7.67	12.63	15.54	21.20	23.6	28.6	23.2	20.5	20.0
Miscellaneous	6.54	2.62	7.55	11.33	17.13	13.3	9.7	13.8	14.9	16.1
Women and girls 18 years of age and over: Total	55.48	26.29	62.20	96.02	147.38	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	3.37	1.49	3.81	6.02	9.27	6.1	5.7	6.1	6.3	6.3
Outerwear	23.37	10.45	25.89	41.84	70.57	42.1	39.7	41.6	43.6	47.9
Underwear	6.96	3.23	8.08	11.91	17.48	12.5	12.3	13.0	12.4	11.9
Footwear	17.02	9.64	19.03	26.35	34.08	30.7	36.7	30.6	27.4	23.1
Miscellaneous	4.76	1.48	5.39	9.90	15.98	8.6	5.6	8.7	10.3	10.8

[1] Classification by economic level is the term used to denote classification of families by annual expenditure per unit for the total of all items of family expenditure. The unit used for this purpose is the equivalent adult male. Each member of the family, taking into account age, sex, and activity, is counted as the appropriate decimal equivalent of an adult male. For fuller explanation see "Income, Family Size and Economic Level of the Family," Monthly Labor Review, January 1940, or appendix G of Bulletin No. 641.

[2] The average net income of all families included in this investigation was $1,524.

For men, such items as suspenders, garters, handkerchiefs, gloves, and ties, grouped under the heading of "miscellaneous" in table 1, took the third largest expenditure. They were followed by purchases of underwear and headwear, in the order named.

For women, on the other hand, expenditures for underwear were larger on the average than those for miscellaneous accessories or for headwear.

The size and relative importance of these main groups of clothing expenditures were not the same for men and women in families classified at low economic levels as for those in families at high levels.[8] Clothing expenditures per person were about four times as great for men in families with $1,100 to $1,200 per equivalent adult male for all items as for men in families which spent only $200 to $300 per adult male for all items. For women in these families clothing expenditures were almost six times greater at the high as compared with the low level. Although outerwear took the greatest expenditures at all economic levels, it increased in relative importance at high economic levels among the women, but for men, remained at about half of total clothing expenditure at all economic levels.

Footwear for women, on the other hand, declined in relative importance at higher economic levels, while expenditures for accessories and other miscellaneous items were of proportionately greater importance.

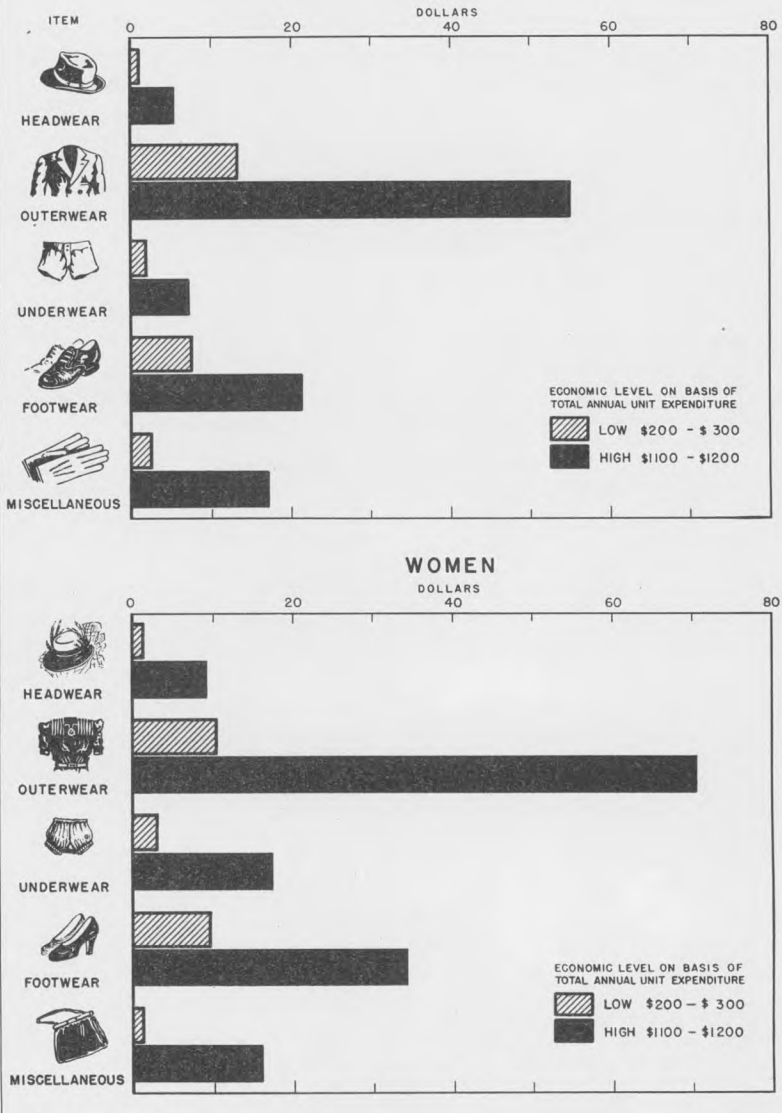
[8] For explanation of classification of families by economic level, see footnote 1, to table 1 above.

Fig. B

DISTRIBUTION OF ANNUAL CLOTHING EXPENDITURES FOR INDIVIDUALS IN FAMILIES AT LOW AND HIGH ECONOMIC LEVELS

WHITE AND NEGRO PERSONS IN 14,469 FAMILIES IN 42 CITIES COMBINED

12 MONTHS WITHIN THE PERIOD 1934-36



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Among the men, also, the same tendencies were found in the changing importance of footwear and accessory expenditures at high as compared with low economic levels. The expenditures for major categories of clothing, at a low and a high economic level, for men and for women are shown in figure B.

When individual items of clothing are listed in order by size of expenditure, as in tables 2 and 3, it is evident that some 15 to 17 apparel items constitute about two-thirds to three-fourths of the total clothing expenditure. These items are not the same, however, and appear in different rank order at low and at high economic levels. Thus, for women in families with total unit expenditures of $200 to $300, silk stockings, followed by street shoes and then by silk and rayon dresses, lead the list of clothing items. The amounts spent for them annually, on the average, were small, however—$3.62 per person for silk hose and $2.66 for silk and rayon dresses.[9] In terms of average per article purchased, the expenditures for the women at the low economic level were 61 cents per pair of silk hose and $4.59 for a silk and rayon or all-rayon dress.

TABLE 2.—*Expenditures for Selected Items of Clothing by Women in White and Negro Families, at Two Economic Levels, in 42 Cities Combined*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Families with total annual unit expenditure of $200 to $300			Families with total annual unit expenditure of $1,100 to $1,200		
Item and rank	Average expenditure		Item and rank	Average expenditure	
	Per woman	Per article		Per woman	Per article
Total clothing expenditure	$26.29		Total clothing expenditure	$147.38	
1. Silk hose	3.62	$0.61	1. Silk, rayon dresses	20.64	$8.29
2. Street shoes	3.37	2.96	2. Silk hose	14.51	.95
3. Silk, rayon dresses	2.66	4.59	3. Fur coats	10.61	151.57
4. Heavy, fur-trimmed coats	1.61	23.00	4. Street shoes	9.93	5.12
5. Heavy plain coats	1.12	14.00	5. Heavy, fur-trimmed coats	9.53	47.65
6. Cotton house dresses	1.10	.92	6. Wool suits	6.05	19.52
7. Dress shoes	.94	2.85	7. Cleaning, repairing	5.92	
8. Felt hats	.86	1.51	8. Felt hats	4.82	3.03
9. Cotton street dresses	.81	1.65	9. Light wool coats	4.26	21.30
10. Light wool coats	.75	12.50	10. Dress shoes	4.24	5.17
11. Corsets, girdles	.60	2.14	11. Corsets, girdles	3.89	2.19
12. Wool suits	.59	9.83	12. Silk slips	3.61	1.84
13. Rayon bloomers, panties	.47	.39	13. Wool dresses	3.51	10.32
14. Shoe repairs	.46		14. Cotton street dresses	2.98	3.14
15. Straw hats	.41	1.37	15. Handbags, purses	2.73	2.08
16. Cleaning, repairing	.39		16. Heavy plain coats	2.40	18.46
Expenditure for selected items:			17. Straw hats	2.37	3.12
Amount	19.76		Expenditure for selected items:		
Percent of total clothing expenditure	75.2		Amount	112.00	
			Percent of total clothing expenditure	76.0	

[9] These averages are based upon expenditures of all women in the age group 18 and over, whether they purchased or not. The women who did not buy any of the indicated items during the entire year were treated, for purposes of getting the average, as having made zero expenditures.

At the economic level at which families had total unit expenditures of $1,100 to $1,200, the first three items in size of average expenditure were silk and rayon dresses, silk hose and fur coats. Expenditures for the first two items averaged $21 and $15 per person, respectively, and $8.29 and $0.95 per article. Fur coats were purchased by 7 percent of the women at the high economic level and did not even appear in the list of items comprising 75 percent of women's clothing expenditure at the low level.

Other items which appeared in the list totaling three-fourths of clothing expenditures of women in families at the high economic level, but not at the low level, as shown in table 2, were silk slips, wool dresses, and handbags. Items which appeared in the list at the low level but not in the first 17 items at the high level were cotton house dresses, shoe repairs, and rayon bloomers. The identical 16 items which comprised 75 percent of total clothing expenditures of women in families at the low economic level, accounted for only 65 percent of expenditures of women in families at the high economic level.

It is apparent from the relative shifts in importance of these items that at low economic levels women must perforce keep their clothing expenditures to a rather restricted list of necessaries. Even at the low level, however, they do find several pairs of silk hose and one or two cheap rayon dresses indispensable. When the women live in families with much more ample funds, they spend much larger amounts for hose and dresses, and a few of them buy such luxuries as fur coats; and more at that level purchase handbags and other accessories, and the variety is greater and the quality better of wool dresses and suits, silk slips, and dress shoes purchased.

For the men, it is likewise seen from table 3 that in families at a high economic level, they spend not only more for clothing than men in families with more limited purchasing power, but suits displace shoes as the item of first importance. Such items as ties, shoe shines, topcoats, rayon hose, pajamas, and nightshirts receive relatively more expenditure, and wool trousers, cotton trousers, overalls, and cotton hose receive relatively less.

TABLE 3.—*Expenditures for Selected Items of Clothing by Men in White and Negro Families, at Two Economic Levels, in 42 Cities Combined*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934–36]

Families with total annual unit expenditure of $200 to $300			Families with total annual unit expenditure of $1,100 to $1,200		
Item and rank	Average expenditure		Item and rank	Average expenditure	
	Per man	Per article		Per man	Per article
Total clothing expenditure	$26.89	-------	Total clothing expenditure	$106.14	-------
1. Street shoes	3.33	$3.30	1. Lightweight wool suits	13.87	$26.67
2. Heavy wool suits	2.84	21.85	2. Heavy wool suits	12.75	31.10
3. Lightweight wool suits	2.61	18.64	3. Street shoes	9.49	5.97
4. Cotton and other dress shirts	1.53	1.08	4. Cleaning, repairing	8.45	-------
5. Overcoats	1.51	16.78	5. Overcoats	8.11	31.19
6. Work shoes	1.10	2.56	6. Cotton and other dress shirts	7.15	1.58
7. Wool trousers	.92	2.88	7. Ties	3.97	.69
8. Cleaning, repairing	.89	-------	8. Felt hats	3.91	4.12
9. Felt hats	.86	2.53	9. Shoe shines	2.46	-------
10. Cotton work shirts	.86	.80	10. Topcoats	2.27	22.70
11. Shoe repairs	.82	-------	11. Pajamas, nightshirts	2.10	1.76
12. Overalls, coveralls	.74	1.42	12. Cotton work shirts	1.66	1.21
13. Heavy cotton hose	.72	.17	13. Work shoes	1.62	3.95
14. Dress cotton hose	.66	.17	14. Rayon hose	1.43	.27
15. Cotton trousers	.60	1.62	15. Shoe repairs	1.36	-------
Expenditure for selected items:			Expenditure for selected items:		
Amount	19.99	-------	Amount	80.60	-------
Percent of total clothing expenditure	74.3	-------	Percent of total clothing expenditure	75.9	-------

Clothing Expenditures for Children

A summary of the main groups of clothing items, for children in all families studied and in those at three selected economic levels, is presented in table 4.[10] There were not enough children in families at the higher economic levels to justify preparation of separate averages for higher intervals than that of families with total annual unit expenditures of $700 and over. The relative importance of footwear in children's total clothing allowances is seen to be very great in all the children's groups and more especially so in the families at the low economic level. At higher economic levels, shoes and other footwear claim larger dollar expenditures, but are exceeded by expenditures for outerwear which occupy a position of greater relative importance at high than at low economic levels.

[10] Tables presenting the details of children's clothing expenditures will appear in Bulletin No. 638.

TABLE 4.—*Expenditures for Groups of Clothing Items for Children in 14,469 White and Negro Families, at Selected Economic Levels, in 42 Cities Combined*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Sex and age group and item of expenditure	All families [1]	Families with annual unit expenditure of—			All families [1]	Families with annual unit expenditure of—		
		$200 to $300	$500 to $600	$700 and over		$200 to $300	$500 to $600	$700 and over
	Average expenditure per person				Percentage distribution			
Girls 12 through 17 years: Total	$39.85	$26.93	$58.83	$107.42	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	1.69	1.08	2.73	5.10	4.2	4.0	4.6	4.7
Outerwear	15.82	10.71	23.22	47.21	39.7	39.8	39.5	44.0
Underwear	4.17	2.56	6.78	11.22	10.5	9.5	11.5	10.4
Footwear	15.31	11.24	20.88	33.12	38.4	41.7	35.5	30.9
Miscellaneous	2.86	1.34	5.22	10.77	7.2	5.0	8.9	10.0
Girls 6 through 11 years: Total	23.52	15.60	38.66	55.44	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	.64	.41	1.04	1.78	2.7	2.6	2.7	3.2
Outerwear	8.22	5.03	14.47	21.50	34.9	32.2	37.4	38.8
Underwear	2.58	1.64	4.16	6.25	11.0	10.5	10.8	11.3
Footwear	10.34	7.68	15.81	20.12	44.0	49.3	40.9	36.3
Miscellaneous	1.74	.84	3.18	5.79	7.4	5.4	8.2	10.4
Girls 2 through 5 years: Total	16.83	10.18	23.89	45.97	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	.37	.20	.58	1.04	2.2	2.0	2.4	2.3
Outerwear	5.67	3.38	8.15	17.02	33.7	33.2	34.1	37.0
Underwear	2.28	1.24	3.42	7.16	13.5	12.2	14.3	15.6
Footwear	6.75	4.50	9.11	15.35	40.1	44.2	38.2	33.4
Miscellaneous	1.76	.86	2.63	5.40	10.5	8.4	11.0	11.7
Boys 12 through 17 years: Total	35.58	25.49	55.08	76.14	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	.76	.57	1.18	1.49	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.0
Outerwear	18.24	12.74	28.80	41.13	51.3	50.0	52.3	54.0
Underwear	2.37	1.67	3.56	5.49	6.7	6.6	6.5	7.2
Footwear	11.68	9.15	16.66	20.37	32.8	35.9	30.2	26.7
Miscellaneous	2.53	1.36	4.88	7.66	7.1	5.3	8.9	10.1
Boys 6 through 11 years: Total	25.90	18.73	37.32	46.14	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	.54	.34	.85	1.02	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.2
Outerwear	10.64	7.44	15.65	19.79	41.1	39.8	41.9	42.9
Underwear	2.06	1.41	3.06	3.87	8.0	7.5	8.2	8.4
Footwear	10.86	8.60	14.59	17.36	41.9	45.9	39.1	37.6
Miscellaneous	1.80	.94	3.17	4.10	6.9	5.0	8.5	8.9
Boys 2 through 5 years: Total	17.36	10.50	23.68	38.87	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Headwear	.30	.16	.42	.72	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.9
Outerwear	5.49	2.99	7.87	12.43	31.6	28.5	33.3	32.0
Underwear	1.99	1.12	2.97	4.84	11.5	10.7	12.5	12.4
Footwear	7.17	4.80	9.07	14.24	41.3	45.7	38.3	36.6
Miscellaneous	2.41	1.43	3.35	6.64	13.9	13.6	14.1	17.1

[1] The average net income of all families included in the investigation was $1,524.

Differences in Clothing Expenditures of White and Negro Families

It is not possible, within the limits of this article, to discuss in detail the differences in clothing expenditures of individuals in white as compared with those in Negro families. The significant thing to be noted in the total clothing expenditures of white men and women as compared with those of Negroes (see table 5) is their striking similarity at the same economic levels. The figures run just about the same for white and for Negro adults except that the latter spend slightly less, especially at the higher economic levels. These slight differences are, however, no greater than the differences in average incomes of white and Negro families within the same economic levels. (See article referred to in Monthly Labor Review, January 1940.) No consistent relationship was found in the size of average expenditures for clothing for white children of various ages as compared with Negro children. In some age groups at some economic levels the expenditures for Negro children were higher on the average than those for white children. The conclusion seems to be that there is no significant difference between the total clothing expenditures of Negroes and whites when their economic resources are the same.

TABLE 5.—*Total Clothing Expenditures per Person, Aged 18 Years and Over, by Color and Sex, in Families Classified by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934–36]

Families with total annual unit expenditure of—	White		Negro	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
All families [1]	$49.40	$56.48	$33.13	$33.23
Under $200	17.04	15.58	18.66	15.05
$200 to $300	26.92	26.42	26.52	24.89
$300 to $400	37.51	38.22	33.16	34.87
$400 to $500	44.82	51.57	39.34	38.76
$500 to $600	54.61	62.41	49.43	53.32
$600 to $700	64.22	72.63	55.06	59.15
$700 to $800 [2]	73.08	83.92	[2] 69.31	[2] 83.85

[1] The average income of all white families included in the investigation was $1,546, of Negro families was $1,008.

[2] Figures for Negroes are for families with total unit expenditures of $700 and over.

Detailed Items of Clothing for Men and Women

The detailed items of clothing, purchased by men and by women at succeeding economic levels are shown in tables 6 and 7. The data presented are based upon the clothing expenditures reported for 16,508 men and 18,018 women in 14,469 white and Negro families in 42 cities combined. The distribution of the 16,508 men and boys and 18,018 women and girls 18 years of age and over in these families by economic level is as follows:

	Men	*Women*
All families	100. 0	100. 0
Families with total annual unit expenditure of—		
Under $200	3. 7	3. 6
$200–$300	13. 7	13. 4
$300–$400	20. 4	21. 0
$400–$500	20. 4	20. 8
$500–$600	15. 4	15. 3
$600–$700	10. 6	10. 6
$700–$800	6. 6	6. 5
$800–$900	4. 3	4. 0
$900–$1,000	2. 2	2. 2
$1,000–$1,100	1. 2	1. 2
$1,100–$1,200	0. 7	0. 7
$1,200 and over	0. 8	0. 7

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TABLE 6.—*Clothing Expenditures of 18,018 Women [1] in White*

Item	Average expenditure per person (in dollars)												
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Total expenditure	55.48	15.45	26.29	38.07	51.17	62.20	72.37	83.79	96.02	107.41	119.21	147.38	182.43
Hats:													
Felt	1.90	.57	.86	1.22	1.75	2.16	2.61	2.94	3.38	3.78	4.19	4.82	6.51
Straw	.95	.21	.41	.64	.87	1.10	1.32	1.51	1.69	1.85	2.12	2.37	2.86
Fabric	.47	.09	.20	.32	.41	.51	.66	.66	.87	.96	.97	1.87	1.82
Caps and berets:													
Wool	.04	.02	.02	.03	.03	.03	.04	.05	.07	.07	.05	.12	.17
Other	.01	(2)	(2)	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01	.01	.02	.09	.06
Coats:													
Heavy, plain	1.84	.63	1.12	1.50	1.93	2.03	2.34	2.55	2.59	1.94	3.72	2.40	2.99
fur trimmed	3.58	.73	1.61	2.43	3.25	4.23	4.88	6.19	5.55	6.69	8.43	9.53	5.49
Fur	1.61	0	.27	.58	.94	1.62	2.57	3.07	4.33	6.75	4.62	10.61	11.03
Light, wool	1.78	.38	.75	1.20	1.58	2.05	2.41	3.15	2.98	3.60	4.16	4.26	4.57
cotton	.17	.03	.06	.13	.20	.15	.21	.24	.28	.28	.18	.20	.59
silk, rayon	.04	0	.01	.01	.03	.04	.07	.11	.05	.09	0	.14	.08
Raincoats	.05	.03	.03	.03	.04	.04	.09	.09	.10	.09	.15	.18	.30
Sweaters and jackets:													
Wool knit	.32	.08	.19	.22	.33	.38	.40	.42	.52	.70	.58	1.11	1.01
Wool fabric	.11	.15	.08	.07	.10	.10	.11	.17	.18	.20	.16	.26	.33
Leather, leatherette	.03	.01	.01	.02	.02	.02	.05	.04	.08	.04	.04	.09	.27
Other	.05	.01	.01	.05	.06	.05	.03	.05	.06	.13	.06	.04	.17
Suits:													
Wool	1.46	.27	.59	.87	1.28	1.65	2.09	2.09	2.67	3.14	3.76	6.05	5.03
Silk, rayon	.23	.05	.08	.11	.17	.26	.37	.26	.70	.64	.57	.91	.54
Other	.17	.03	.05	.09	.14	.18	.20	.26	.50	.48	.38	.59	.23
Waists and middies:													
Silk, rayon	.29	.03	.11	.18	.24	.30	.42	.49	.52	.61	.71	1.55	1.10
Cotton	.10	.03	.05	.06	.08	.11	.11	.14	.16	.18	.20	.42	.26
Other	.02	(2)	(2)	.01	.02	.02	.03	.05	.03	.07	.05	0	.11
Skirts:													
Wool	.27	.07	1.19	.24	.27	.29	.31	.37	.42	.43	.62	.82	.45
Other	.04	.02	.01	.03	.05	.03	.04	.07	.06	.08	.04	.11	.08
Dresses:													
Cotton, house	1.60	.77	1.10	1.32	1.61	1.78	1.88	2.08	2.38	2.36	2.58	1.95	2.33
street	1.39	.55	.81	1.03	1.44	1.55	1.63	1.95	2.10	1.89	1.77	2.98	4.10
Silk, rayon	6.54	1.41	2.66	4.26	5.90	7.03	8.73	10.55	12.27	13.49	15.14	20.64	25.29
Wool	.96	.16	.39	.52	.79	1.20	1.27	1.56	1.90	1.76	1.94	3.51	5.09
Other	.41	.10	.11	.19	.36	.44	.50	.71	.94	.87	1.66	1.60	3.82
Aprons	.22	.08	.13	.18	.24	.26	.30	.28	.27	.29	.34	.35	.29
Coveralls	.04	.02	.02	.05	.03	.04	.05	.05	.05	.12	.03	.11	.12
Knickers, breeches, shorts	.06	(2)	.01	.03	.03	.05	.09	.09	.16	.11	.19	.16	.74
Underwear:													
Slips, cotton	.30	.22	.28	.29	.30	.33	.30	.28	.36	.30	.32	.07	.37
silk	1.13	.17	.33	.63	.99	1.34	1.57	1.88	2.38	2.41	3.12	3.61	4.99
rayon	.43	.16	.30	.40	.45	.48	.47	.44	.43	.66	.44	.45	.62
Corsets, girdles	1.50	.22	.60	.97	1.39	1.84	1.97	2.44	2.59	3.14	2.97	3.89	4.43
Brassieres	.40	.10	.17	.28	.36	.45	.61	.45	.71	.72	.75	1.94	1.06
Union suits and combinations:													
Cotton	.15	.12	.13	.12	.16	.16	.21	.21	.17	.19	.07	.12	.16
Wool	.11	.03	.06	.08	.11	.11	.17	.19	.15	.17	.16	.28	.22
Silk, rayon	.30	.06	.16	.20	.27	.34	.39	.47	.60	.64	.76	.69	1.18
Underwaists, shirts	.16	.08	.08	.14	.16	.17	.17	.20	.16	.31	.25	.33	.40
Bloomers and panties:													
Cotton	.07	.06	.07	.07	.06	.07	.07	.07	.09	.08	.06	.07	.14
Rayon	.71	.40	.47	.61	.72	.81	.77	.86	.93	.90	.92	1.03	1.34
Silk	.29	.04	.09	.17	.22	.32	.41	.46	.59	.70	1.26	1.32	1.84
Nightgowns and sleeping pajamas:													
Cotton, light flannel	.42	.12	.21	.31	.42	.51	.50	.59	.68	.74	.85	.77	1.00
Silk, rayon	.23	.06	.11	.19	.22	.28	.26	.26	.32	.25	.51	.31	.65
Pajamas, lounging and beach:	.34	.02	.08	.15	.25	.38	.45	.67	.72	1.03	1.26	1.57	2.26
Cotton	.05	.01	.02	.03	.05	.06	.08	.08	.10	.09	.13	.18	.24
Silk, rayon	.07	.01	.02	.03	.05	.07	.11	.11	.14	.14	.18	.23	.79
Other	.01	0	(2)	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.07	.02	.01	.09	.19
Bathrobes	.20	.01	.04	.11	.17	.26	.27	.33	.44	.48	.40	.45	1.17
Kimonos, negligees	.09	.01	.01	.03	.07	.09	.11	.14	.28	.32	.29	.08	.34

[1] Includes only persons dependent on family funds for 52 weeks.

and Negro Families, by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined

Item	Average number of articles purchased per person												
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—											
		Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Number of articles:													
Hats:													
Felt	0.93	0.44	0.57	0.72	0.92	1.02	1.15	1.25	1.34	1.43	1.52	1.59	2.24
Straw	.48	.18	.30	.39	.46	.56	.61	.64	.68	.71	.81	.76	.97
Fabric	.25	.10	.15	.21	.25	.28	.35	.33	.37	.46	.42	.57	.75
Caps and berets:													
Wool	.05	.04	.04	.05	.04	.04	.04	.05	.08	.08	.06	.13	.21
Other	.01	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	.02	.02	.02	(3)	.02	.03	.06
Coats:													
Heavy, plain	.09	.05	.08	.09	.10	.10	.11	.10	.11	.09	.11	.13	.14
fur trimmed	.11	.05	.07	.10	.11	.12	.13	.14	.13	.16	.19	.20	.16
Fur	.02	0	(3)	.01	.02	.02	.04	.04	.05	.06	.05	.07	.11
Light, wool	.12	.04	.06	.10	.11	.13	.16	.18	.18	.22	.24	.20	.24
cotton	.02	(3)	.01	.02	.02	.02	.03	.02	.03	.04	.03	.02	.06
silk, rayon	(3)	0	(3)	(3)	(3)	.01	.01	.01	(3)	.01	0	.01	.01
Raincoats	.02	.01	.01	.01	.02	.03	.04	.12	.04	.05	.08	.06	.08
Sweaters and jackets:													
Wool knit	.15	.06	.10	.11	.15	.16	.17	.17	.23	.25	.21	.41	.36
Wool fabric	.05	.03	.05	.04	.05	.05	.05	.07	.09	.07	.06	.09	.09
Leather, leatherette	.01	(3)	(3)	.01	.01	(3)	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	.02	.04
Other	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.04	.02	.01	.04
Suits:													
Wool	.10	.03	.06	.08	.10	.12	.13	.14	.17	.18	.20	.31	.26
Silk, rayon	.03	.01	.01	.02	.02	.03	.04	.03	.05	.05	.05	.09	.04
Other	.03	.01	.01	.02	.03	.03	.04	.04	.06	.05	.05	.08	.04
Waists and middies:													
Silk, rayon	.16	.03	.09	.11	.14	.16	.21	.24	.24	.25	.36	.61	.39
Cotton	.08	.04	.06	.06	.04	.09	.09	.08	.13	.11	.16	.33	.15
Other	.01	(3)	(3)	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01	.03	.01	0	.04
Skirts:													
Wool	.12	.04	.10	.10	.12	.12	.12	.14	.15	.14	.19	.31	.15
Other	.02	.02	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02	.03	.02	.04	.03	.06	.04
Dresses:													
Cotton, house	1.48	.88	1.20	1.31	1.50	1.44	1.64	1.73	1.93	1.91	1.77	1.62	1.62
street	.61	.40	.49	.55	.65	.62	.63	.70	.75	.67	.52	.95	1.11
Silk, rayon	1.09	.37	.58	.85	1.08	1.20	1.36	1.48	1.73	1.80	1.81	2.49	2.83
Wool	.16	.05	.09	.11	.15	.19	.21	.21	.25	.25	.23	.34	.55
Other	.07	.04	.03	.05	.06	.07	.09	.11	.15	.11	.20	.17	.36
Aprons	.49	.23	.34	.41	.53	.55	.62	.60	.57	.60	.65	.68	.43
Coveralls	.04	.03	.02	.04	.03	.04	.05	.05	.05	.10	.02	.07	.09
Knickers, breeches, shorts	.04	.01	.01	.03	.03	.04	.07	.06	.11	.05	.13	.10	.19
Underwear:													
Slips, cotton	.42	.45	.50	.45	.43	.44	.35	.34	.36	.33	.37	.12	.31
silk	.78	.16	.30	.53	.74	.95	1.05	1.17	1.46	1.39	1.75	1.96	2.39
rayon	.48	.25	.43	.50	.53	.52	.51	.46	.41	.59	.45	.42	.55
Corsets, girdles	.52	.12	.28	.41	.53	.60	.63	.73	.75	.90	.89	1.08	1.13
Brassieres	.53	.36	.52	.69	.77	.84	.95	.76	1.08	1.12	1.17	2.07	1.30
Union suits and combinations:													
Cotton	.21	.21	.20	.19	.21	.21	.27	.25	.20	.23	.08	.13	.14
Wool	.10	.02	.07	.09	.10	.10	.14	.14	.09	.14	.10	.15	.17
Silk, rayon	.31	.10	.23	.24	.29	.34	.25	.41	.50	.51	.47	.55	.75
Underwaists, shirts	.35	.27	.25	.32	.37	.42	.32	.41	.34	.60	.49	.48	.53
Bloomers and panties:													
Cotton	.16	.17	.19	.17	.13	.17	.16	.11	.16	.22	.17	.15	.24
Rayon	1.56	1.21	1.22	1.44	1.68	1.78	1.55	1.73	1.51	1.65	1.74	1.79	1.83
Silk	.38	.07	.16	.26	.34	.42	.52	.52	.70	.83	1.35	1.36	1.62
Nightgowns and sleeping pajamas:													
Cotton, light flannel	.48	.20	.32	.39	.49	.57	.53	.59	.66	.71	.74	.59	.88
	.22	.09	.12	.21	.22	.28	.25	.23	.30	.22	.34	.25	.36
Silk, rayon	.23	.02	.08	.13	.21	.26	.31	.41	.38	.65	.69	.80	1.06
Pajamas, lounging and beach:													
Cotton	.04	.01	.02	.02	.04	.05	.06	.05	.06	.05	.07	.12	.11
Silk, rayon	.03	.01	.01	.02	.03	.03	.05	.06	.07	.06	.05	.10	.16
Other	.01	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	.01	.01	.01	.02	(3)	.01	.02	.06
Bathrobes	.05	.01	.02	.03	.05	.08	.17	.07	.10	.11	.12	.08	.22
Kimonos, negligees	.03	.01	.01	.02	.04	.04	.04	.04	.10	.11	.09	.03	.09

[2] Less than 0.5 cent.

[3] Less than 0.005 article.

TABLE 6.—*Clothing Expenditures of 18,018 Women in White and*

Item	Average expenditure per person (in dollars)											
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—										
		Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Total expenditure—Con.													
Hose:													
Silk	7.07	1.98	3.62	5.29	6.78	8.00	8.94	9.90	11.42	12.64	14.23	14.51	21.22
Rayon	.34	.47	.34	.36	.42	.27	.27	.35	.27	.17	.18	.25	1.27
Cotton	.16	.16	.19	.18	.17	.17	.10	.10	.13	.10	.12	.08	.07
Wool	.04	.01	.02	.03	.03	.06	.06	.06	.03	.09	.01	.03	.07
Shoes:													
Street	5.50	2.56	3.37	4.23	5.29	6.26	6.79	7.50	8.25	8.59	9.96	9.93	11.86
Dress	1.72	.52	.94	1.30	1.67	1.77	2.13	2.47	2.96	3.37	3.05	4.24	4.68
Sport	.63	.18	.30	.43	.56	.72	.82	.88	.97	1.15	1.27	1.93	3.05
House slippers	.37	.13	.19	.28	.38	.44	.49	.50	.60	.67	.72	.60	.99
Shoe—													
Repairs	.80	.26	.46	.64	.83	.90	1.01	1.02	1.08	1.30	1.46	1.52	1.74
Shines	.04	(1)	.01	.01	.02	.04	.08	.04	.09	.17	.22	.32	.42
Rubbers	.12	.05	.07	.10	.13	.13	.14	.17	.17	.20	.24	.27	.23
Arctics, gaiters	.23	.06	.13	.17	.22	.27	.30	.33	.38	.41	.46	.40	.64
Gloves:													
Cotton	.33	.08	.16	.22	.31	.41	.45	.44	.64	.68	.81	.89	1.05
Leather	.52	.02	.12	.25	.44	.62	.77	.87	1.15	1.34	1.41	2.15	2.31
Other	.11	(1)	.03	.06	.09	.12	.16	.19	.20	.18	.33	.26	.51
Bathing suits, sun suits	.22	.02	.07	.13	.18	.25	.29	.38	.50	.69	.64	.67	1.17
Handkerchiefs	.31	.09	.15	.24	.30	.37	.40	.45	.53	.51	.74	.67	.93
Furs	.07	.02	(1)	.02	.02	.02	.10	.28	.36	.31	.04	.01	.89
Mufflers, scarfs	.08	.01	.02	.04	.07	.08	.11	.14	.14	.16	.26	.32	.41
Handbags, purses	.88	.12	.29	.50	.76	1.07	1.17	1.36	1.85	1.91	2.77	2.73	3.81
Umbrellas	.16	.06	.08	.11	.13	.20	.19	.23	.21	.35	.45	.51	.62
Garters, belts, hairpins, etc	.18	.05	.09	.14	.17	.19	.22	.23	.27	.29	.38	.39	.50
Cleaning, repairing	1.63	.16	.39	.81	1.36	1.87	2.33	2.65	3.70	4.24	4.55	5.92	10.48
Other	.26	.01	.08	.08	.21	.18	.31	.84	.34	.90	.77	1.46	2.29

[1] Less than 0.5 cent.

TABLE 7.—*Clothing Expenditures of 16,508 Men*[1] *in White and*

Item	Average expenditure per person (in dollars)											
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—										
		Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Total expenditure	49.18	17.42	26.89	37.32	44.65	54.47	64.06	73.07	75.87	90.88	93.86	106.14	125.73
Hats:													
Felt	1.69	.48	.86	1.22	1.52	1.96	2.30	2.58	2.56	3.39	3.69	3.91	3.55
Straw	.40	.13	.18	.27	.34	.47	.55	.59	.72	.80	.91	1.27	.96
Caps:													
Wool	.20	.12	.16	.19	.20	.21	.21	.23	.21	.21	.33	.21	.33
Other	.07	.05	.05	.06	.06	.08	.07	.09	.11	.09	.14	.11	.04
Overcoats	3.20	.60	1.51	2.45	2.76	3.27	4.19	5.81	5.17	6.45	5.18	8.11	12.16
Topcoats	1.13	.15	.30	.63	.93	1.35	1.70	1.79	2.53	2.63	3.19	2.27	4.30
Raincoats	.18	.07	.07	.14	.17	.20	.21	.36	.24	.45	.23	.16	.51
Jackets:													
Heavy fabric	.41	.24	.34	.39	.44	.41	.35	.45	.49	.56	.66	.54	.64
Leather	.34	.06	.18	.29	.29	.42	.46	.43	.49	.70	.38	1.01	1.27
Other	.09	.07	.05	.09	.06	.09	.17	.09	.11	.22	.08	.15	.02
Sweaters:													
Heavy	.40	.16	.28	.35	.42	.47	.49	.47	.42	.59	.67	.64	.76
Light	.26	.10	.16	.22	.25	.30	.32	.42	.38	.43	.38	.45	.54
Suits:													
Heavy wool	6.11	1.34	2.84	4.31	5.17	6.80	8.77	9.85	10.43	13.99	12.04	12.75	14.95
Light weight wool	5.23	1.71	2.61	3.55	4.93	5.91	6.61	8.06	8.62	8.65	12.43	13.87	15.58
Cotton, linen	.23	.09	.07	.14	.21	.26	.30	.43	.25	.72	.57	.80	.53
Palm Beach	.10	.03	.01	.05	.05	.14	.15	.34	.11	.20	.26	.46	.56
Other	.29	.23	.11	.14	.30	.25	.18	.50	1.18	.92	.24	.83	1.09

[1] Includes only persons dependent on family funds for 52 weeks.

Negro Families, by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined—Continued

Item	Average number of articles purchased per person											
		Families with total annual unit expenditure of—										
	All families	Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Number of articles—Con.													
Hose:													
Silk	9.49	2.93	5.92	7.85	10.03	10.76	12.13	13.60	13.93	16.26	19.26	15.29	26.07
Rayon	.81	1.26	.91	.88	.95	.58	.51	.96	.24	.34	.42	.44	1.82
Cotton	.62	.75	.80	.75	.67	.59	.37	.39	.49	.36	.31	.26	.21
Wool	.06	.01	.03	.06	.05	.06	.08	.07	.06	.11	.01	.01	.08
Shoe—													
Street	1.54	1.05	1.14	1.38	1.54	1.64	1.60	1.75	1.96	1.96	2.15	1.94	2.44
Dress	.46	.30	.33	.40	.46	.46	.54	.57	.65	.77	.65	.82	.92
Sport	.23	.10	.14	.18	.21	.25	.27	.28	.30	.34	.37	.47	.72
House slippers	.42	.24	.27	.35	.44	.47	.50	.50	.53	.60	.57	.49	.69
Shoes—													
Repairs													
Shines													
Rubbers	.12	.06	.08	.10	.13	.12	.13	.16	.16	.20	.20	.24	.22
Arctics, gaiters	.16	.06	.12	.13	.16	.18	.20	.19	.22	.24	.27	.24	.27
Gloves:													
Cotton	.44	.14	.26	.32	.42	.54	.59	.54	.71	.77	.98	.89	.95
Leather	.28	.03	.09	.16	.26	.35	.39	.44	.55	.63	.63	.92	1.10
Other	.11	[3]	.04	.07	.10	.12	.14	.17	.19	.18	.57	.24	.33
Bathing suits, sun suits	.08	.01	.04	.05	.07	.09	.10	.13	.17	.20	.21	.17	.29
Handkerchiefs	3.63	1.92	2.49	3.23	3.68	4.14	4.13	4.40	4.66	4.37	5.14	4.56	6.21
Furs	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	.01	.01	.01	.01	[3]	.04	.01
Mufflers, scarfs	.09	.02	.03	.06	.08	.10	.11	.14	.14	.16	.20	.26	.35
Handbags, purses	.64	.16	.32	.47	.61	.77	.83	.86	1.06	1.11	1.36	1.31	1.62
Umbrellas	.08	.04	.05	.06	.07	.09	.09	.11	.09	.14	.16	.19	.18
Garters, belts, hairpins, etc.													
Cleaning, repairing													
Other													

[3] Less tnan 0.005 article.

Negro Families by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined

Item	Average number of articles purchased per person											
		Families with total annual unit expenditure of—										
	All families	Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Number of articles:													
Hats:													
Felt	0.53	0.22	0.34	0.44	0.51	0.62	0.68	0.72	0.71	0.90	0.96	0.95	0.83
Straw	.21	.10	.12	.16	.20	.25	.26	.26	.32	.34	.34	.45	.38
Caps:													
Wool	.20	.14	.18	.20	.20	.21	.21	.21	.20	.20	.20	.19	.18
Other	.14	.09	.12	.14	.11	.13	.15	.16	.21	.14	.26	.28	.06
Overcoats	.15	.04	.09	.13	.13	.15	.18	.22	.20	.23	.18	.26	.41
Topcoats	.06	.01	.02	.05	.05	.07	.09	.09	.13	.13	.15	.10	.16
Raincoats	.04	.01	.02	.03	.04	.04	.04	.07	.05	.08	.05	.04	.05
Jackets:													
Heavy fabric	.10	.07	.09	.10	.10	.10	.09	.09	.12	.09	.12	.11	.12
Leather	.05	.01	.03	.05	.05	.06	.07	.07	.07	.08	.06	.14	.13
Other	.03	.03	.02	.03	.02	.03	.05	.08	.02	.04	.03	.03	.01
Sweaters:													
Heavy	.13	.08	.12	.13	.14	.15	.15	.13	.12	.17	.17	.17	.24
Light	.14	.07	.10	.13	.12	.14	.15	.18	.16	.17	.18	.20	.22
Suits:													
Heavy wool	.24	.06	.13	.18	.21	.26	.32	.36	.37	.48	.42	.41	.48
Light weight wool	.23	.10	.14	.18	.23	.25	.28	.32	.35	.34	.47	.52	.55
Cotton, linen	.02	.02	.01	.01	.02	.03	.03	.04	.03	.06	.06	.06	.03
Palm Beach	.01	[3]	[3]	.01	[3]	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	.02	.04	.04
Other	.02	.01	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	.02	.03	.04	.01	.06	.05

[2] Less than 0.5 cent.

[3] Less than 0.005 article.

TABLE 7.—*Clothing Expenditures of 16,508 Men in White and*

Item	Average expenditure per person (in dollars)											
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—										
		Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Total expenditure—Con.													
Trousers:													
Wool	1.13	0.58	0.92	1.10	1.06	1.24	1.34	1.29	1.36	1.43	1.30	1.34	1.62
Cotton	.74	.51	.60	.72	.75	.81	.78	.66	.94	.92	1.03	.92	.94
Other	.17	.07	.10	.14	.15	.18	.18	.24	.25	.33	.31	.42	.38
Overalls, coveralls	.95	.53	.74	.97	.92	1.03	1.02	1.15	.96	1.12	1.30	1.29	.75
Shirts:													
Cotton, work	1.13	.67	.86	1.00	1.09	1.20	1.25	1.33	1.49	1.85	1.99	1.66	1.80
Cotton and other, dress	3.05	.90	1.53	2.28	2.79	3.44	4.14	4.46	4.73	5.56	5.72	7.15	7.82
Wool	.11	.03	.06	.07	.11	.13	.11	.23	.16	.17	.18	.23	.14
Underwear:													
Suits, cotton, knit	.54	.28	.42	.50	.52	.57	.58	.73	.80	.54	.92	1.10	.72
woven	.31	.16	.21	.26	.27	.34	.35	.47	.44	.42	.77	.41	.38
cotton and wool	.43	.21	.25	.37	.42	.38	.55	.54	.50	.73	.76	.61	.93
rayon and silk	.03	.02	.01	.02	.02	.05	.06	.06	.04	.06	.09	.25	.10
Undershirts, cotton	.52	.20	.31	.40	.50	.56	.69	.70	.72	.99	.75	1.07	1.34
cotton and wool	.17	.07	.11	.13	.15	.16	.20	.32	.22	.37	.26	.13	.39
rayon and silk	.04	.01	.02	.03	.04	.03	.04	.06	.09	.10	.10	.18	.23
Shorts, cotton	.61	.22	.39	.48	.58	.67	.81	91	.82	1.00	.86	1.15	1.43
rayon and silk	.02	(2)	(2)	.02	.02	.01	.02	.04	.04	.07	.03	.13	.12
Drawers, cotton and wool	.14	.08	.09	.10	.13	.14	.17	.26	.15	.31	.25	.13	.26
Pajamas and nightshirts	.64	.07	.20	.33	.51	.77	.94	1.13	1.27	1.55	1.69	2.10	2.12
Shoes:													
Street	5.17	2.34	3.33	4.16	4.85	5.70	6.70	6.87	7.24	8.62	8.82	9.49	9.62
Work	1.31	.98	1.10	1.32	1.31	1.38	1.43	1.51	1.40	1.26	1.31	1.62	1.60
Canvas	.05	.04	.03	.03	.04	.05	.06	.06	.06	.11	.08	.04	.29
Other	.13	.02	.04	.08	.09	.16	.16	.21	.21	.33	.43	.33	.40
Boots:													
Rubber	.11	.08	.09	.09	.11	.10	.13	.10	.12	.12	.13	.13	.30
Leather	.06	.02	.01	.04	.05	.05	.07	.10	.14	.23	.13	.29	.33
Arctics	.12	.03	.08	.09	.11	.14	.14	.17	.24	.18	.20	.31	.24
Rubbers	.30	.11	.21	.27	.33	.33	.32	.43	.40	.40	.42	.22	.47
Shoe—													
Repairs	1.23	.56	.82	1.11	1.24	1.33	1.53	1.64	1.51	1.72	1.61	1.36	2.13
Shines	.39	.04	.07	.13	.23	.43	.61	.82	.76	1.34	1.49	2.46	3.25
Hose:													
Cotton, heavy	.75	.47	.72	.72	.71	.82	.81	.89	.81	.87	.62	.88	.71
dress	.90	.51	.66	.90	.89	1.01	1.01	.96	.94	.94	1.37	1.16	1.72
Rayon	.61	.19	.34	.49	.62	.63	.73	.88	.82	1.12	1.32	1.43	1.05
Silk	.29	.04	.07	.13	.21	.31	.50	.58	.56	.88	.98	1.00	1.16
Wool	.17	.03	.10	.14	.15	.19	.23	.29	.33	.34	.22	.48	.34
Gloves:													
Work, cotton	.45	.30	.39	.48	.48	.45	.44	.58	.48	.63	.50	.59	.32
other	.14	.06	.10	.12	.18	.13	.11	.19	.18	.12	.32	.07	.14
Street, leather	.38	.04	.16	.24	.33	.44	.55	.54	.76	.66	.88	1.00	1.47
other	.04	.01	.02	.03	.03	.04	.05	.04	.04	.11	.03	.01	.22
Ties	1.46	.26	.57	.93	1.26	1.69	2.13	2.43	2.53	3.09	3.30	3.97	4.90
Collars	.07	.01	.01	.03	.05	.08	.11	.11	.17	.09	.20	.14	.35
Bathing suits, sun suits	.16	.01	.06	.08	.13	.21	.24	.32	.42	.34	.54	.45	.82
Handkerchiefs	.47	.17	.26	.35	.42	.51	.61	.78	.72	.79	.91	1.03	1.19
Accessories	.13	.02	.05	.09	.10	.15	.15	.20	.23	.28	.38	.22	.45
Bathrobes	.15	.02	.02	.06	.11	.13	.26	.27	.50	.34	.65	.28	.84
Cleaning, repairing	2.76	.65	.89	1.64	2.27	3.33	4.15	4.43	4.68	6.67	7.02	8.45	10.65
Other	.32	.17	.09	.16	.22	.38	.57	.60	.62	.78	.31	.92	1.51

[2] Less than 0.5 cent.

Negro Families, by Economic Level, in 42 Cities Combined—Continued

Item	Average number of articles purchased per person											
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—										
		Under $200	$200 to $300	$300 to $400	$400 to $500	$500 to $600	$600 to $700	$700 to $800	$800 to $900	$900 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,100	$1,100 to $1,200	$1,200 and over
Number of articles—Con.													
Trousers:													
Wool	0.33	0.22	0.32	0.34	0.32	0.33	0.37	0.34	0.36	0.32	0.31	0.29	0.36
Cotton	.43	.32	.37	.41	.45	.46	.42	.37	.52	.46	.56	.50	.44
Other	.08	.04	.05	.08	.07	.07	.07	.10	.11	.10	.22	.16	.12
Overalls, coveralls	.60	.42	.52	.67	.61	.59	.61	.64	.54	.69	.69	.68	.36
Shirts:													
Cotton, work	1.22	.88	1.07	1.05	1.25	1.27	1.31	1.28	1.43	1.58	1.69	1.37	1.27
Cotton and other, dress	2.33	.96	1.42	1.94	2.20	2.62	2.93	3.15	3.20	3.60	3.70	4.52	4.36
Wool	.06	.02	.04	.05	.06	.07	.09	.09	.08	.06	.08	.06	.05
Underwear:													
Suits, cotton, knit	.49	.30	.44	.49	.49	.51	.49	.61	.64	.40	.67	.93	.57
woven cotton and wool	.28	.18	.21	.18	.26	.29	.30	.36	.37	.36	.57	.26	.29
rayon and silk	.33	.20	.23	.30	.34	.36	.38	.34	.39	.41	.37	.39	.50
Undershirts, cotton	.03	.02	.01	.02	.02	.05	.05	.07	.04	.05	.08	.12	.07
cotton and wool	1.49	.69	.97	1.28	1.49	1.63	1.83	1.83	1.82	2.12	2.02	2.59	2.98
rayon and silk	.33	.18	.24	.29	.31	.33	.30	.54	.36	.74	.50	.23	.64
Shorts, cotton	.07	.01	.03	.06	.06	.07	.06	.09	.10	.16	.15	.36	.34
rayon and silk	1.71	.78	1.19	1.02	1.69	1.87	2.07	2.33	2.05	2.36	2.06	2.83	3.20
Drawers, cotton and wool	.04	(3)	.01	.04	.03	.03	.05	.07	.06	.11	.06	.32	..18
Pajamas and nightshirts	.24	.17	.17	.20	.23	.27	.23	.33	.22	.59	.50	.22	.51
Shoes:	.46	.07	.19	.27	.41	.56	.67	.76	.86	.97	.98	1.19	1.17
Street	1.25	.76	1.01	1.14	1.22	1.34	1.45	1.48	1.50	1.76	1.74	1.59	1.66
Work	.43	.39	.43	.45	.44	.43	.44	.44	.39	.36	.36	.41	.42
Canvas	.03	.04	.03	.02	.03	.03	.04	.04	.03	.05	.03	.04	.10
Other	.05	.02	.02	.04	.04	.06	.06	.08	.07	.12	.14	.11	.12
Boots:													
Rubber	.04	.03	.04	.03	.04	.04	.04	.03	.04	.02	.03	.04	.07
Leather	.01	.01	(3)	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.03	.02	.05	.04
Arctics	.05	.02	.04	.04	.05	.06	.06	.07	.08	.08	.08	.10	.08
Rubbers	.26	.12	.20	.25	.29	.28	.27	.35	.33	.32	.32	.18	.40
Shoe—													
Repairs	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Shines	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Hose:													
Cotton, heavy	3.97	2.90	4.27	4.06	3.77	4.18	3.80	4.46	3.95	4.09	3.11	3.22	2.64
dress	4.33	2.77	3.82	4.64	4.41	4.61	4.36	4.34	3.89	3.29	5.56	4.36	6.73
Rayon	2.51	.91	1.72	2.31	2.55	2.56	2.76	3.26	3.04	4.27	4.65	5.38	2.62
Silk	.79	.21	.24	.42	.58	.85	1.36	1.42	1.37	2.20	2.29	2.79	2.65
Wool	.41	.08	.26	.36	.37	.44	.46	.63	.74	.67	.45	.77	.47
Gloves:													
Work, cotton	2.21	1.33	1.90	2.44	2.32	2.10	2.20	2.66	2.38	1.70	2.28	2.51	1.12
other	.35	.19	.28	.36	.47	.27	.20	.59	.47	.19	.59	.13	.36
Street, leather	.22	.04	.13	.15	.21	.26	.32	.27	.37	.33	.40	.48	.59
other	.03	.02	.03	.04	.02	.03	.04	.02	.03	.07	.04	.02	.07
Ties	2.55	.83	1.45	2.08	2.52	3.03	3.43	2.83	3.75	4.52	3.39	5.74	6.17
Collars	.25	.06	.06	.10	.21	.28	.39	.44	.63	.27	.64	.48	1.11
Bathing suits, sun suits	.07	.01	.03	.04	.05	.08	.09	.11	.16	.12	.16	.14	.25
Handkerchiefs	5.10	2.67	3.61	4.71	2.97	5.45	5.73	7.20	6.17	6.72	7.50	6.78	7.41
Accessories	.27	.07	.17	.28	.22	.34	.25	.35	.38	.45	.50	.31	.53
Bathrobes	.03	.01	.01	.05	.03	.03	.05	.06	.10	.07	.11	.06	.15
Cleaning, repairing	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Other	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

[3] Less than 0.005 article.

SETTLEMENT OF GRIEVANCES UNDER UNION AGREEMENTS [1]

THE signing of an agreement by an employer and union automatically removes some of the major causes of conflict during the time the agreement is in effect. The matter of union recognition has been settled and questions of basic wages, hours, and working rules have been agreed upon. The establishment of such a contractual relationship, however, does not entirely remove the possibility of disputes and grievances arising.

Just as in civil government a law must be implemented by machinery for enforcement and interpretation, so employer-union agreements usually provide some procedure for the settlement of disputes and grievances arising over the interpretation and application of their specific terms. Frequently, too, certain clauses in the agreement are purposely made very general, with the expectation that details will be worked out through the joint machinery provided. Thus the agreement may establish only minimum or average wage rates, with the provision that detailed piece rates are to be subsequently negotiated in a specified manner as changes occur in production methods or product design.

Practically all union agreements now in effect make some provision for the adjustment of the grievances, misunderstandings, and disputes which are bound to arise in the day-to-day working relationship of employers and workers. Experience with collective bargaining has led to a general acceptance of three essentials for the adjustment of disputes which arise under an employer-union agreement: (1) Union-management negotiations, beginning with the foreman in charge of the shop or department where the dispute originates and proceeding up to the highest officials of the company; (2) appeal, if such negotiations fail to secure an adjustment, to an impartial, outside agency or individual; and (3) restriction on strikes and lock-outs until other means of settling the dispute have been exhausted.

The present article discusses the general processes of dispute adjustment in unionized plants throughout the country. In order to illustrate the way in which grievances are settled in particular situations, some examples of various types of adjustment machinery now in effect are also described.

Process of Adjustment

The adjustment of disputes under collective bargaining calls for a series of procedural steps carefully outlined in the employer-union

[1] Prepared under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief, Industrial Relations Division.

agreement. Beginning with negotiations at the point of origin of the dispute, higher union and employer representatives are successively brought into the negotiations. Usually there is provided a final step in the adjustment process, to be used when negotiations between the highest union and company officials have failed to reach a settlement. This final step is almost invariably arbitration by an impartial individual or agency. In some instances continuing joint committees may be established to deal with industrial problems which have proved to be a recurring source of grievance. Throughout all steps in the adjustment process it is understood that strikes and lockouts are to be used only after all other methods provided for the adjustment of the dispute have failed.

The machinery for the settlement of disputes, as outlined in the 7,000 current union agreements on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is presented below.

UNION REPRESENTATIVES

Shop Committees

The workers select representatives to negotiate on their behalf with the management when a dispute arises. The most common procedure is for the workers in a shop, or in each department of a large plant, to elect one of the plant employees as shop chairman or steward, who acts as their representative in the initial handling of a grievance. The chairman or steward may function with a shop committee, also directly elected by the employees whom the committee is to represent. In large plants this shop committee is composed of the shop chairmen elected from the various departments. Occasionally the shop officers may be appointed by the local union rather than elected by those members of the local who work in the particular shop.

The shop representatives may be required to receive instructions from the membership before taking any action. Among the printers, for example, meetings of all the union members in the shop are held frequently to discuss grievances and instruct the worker representatives. In other cases, the shop committee may proceed without consulting the membership in advance. The committee is, of course, subject to discipline if its actions are not supported when it subsequently reports the results of its negotiations to the union members.

The shop chairmen and shop committeemen remain employees of the company. In some plants they have the right to perform their duty of representing the employees on company time, with no loss of pay. In piece-rate industries, such as men's clothing manufacture, where a pay loss is unavoidable if time is spent on union business during working hours, the union may compensate the shop representatives for time lost. In some agreements members of the shop com-

mittee are protected by being placed at the top of the seniority list of the plant or department in which they work. This is likely to be done when the union has experienced, or fears, discriminatory dismissals of its shop representatives.

In order to secure more effective work from their shop chairmen and committeemen, several unions have instituted educational programs to instruct the union representatives in grievance procedure and to provide a means of exchanging ideas and experiences. If the industry is highly centralized (as is the case in women's clothing manufacture in New York City), classes, meetings, and lectures on adjustment activity may be a regular part of the union's educational activity. Particularly in the mass-production industries, where there is little background of experience in grievance adjustment to guide local committeemen, unions such as the Steel Workers Organizing Committee and the United Rubber Workers have experimented with summer training camps and week-end conferences to discuss these matters. Grievance decisions won by a local union are often published and distributed to other locals for their guidance and study. The Steel Workers Organizing Committee has issued a handbook for local committeemen which contains, besides records of decisions won and lost by the union, an outline of procedure to be followed and rules to be observed. In this way it is hoped to develop uniform procedure and help local unions to understand their rights and limitations under their agreement.

Business Agent

In building construction and a few other trades, the shop chairman or steward performs a less important function. Although he may handle some negotiations with the foreman, the major burden of enforcing the agreement provisions falls upon the business agent. In some instances the shop steward may be merely the medium through which the business agent keeps in close touch with the job and is informed of disputes as they arise.

Although the shop chairman is responsible in the shop for securing the employer's compliance with the terms of the union agreement in adjusting disputes, the business agent has this responsibility for all plants in the same industry throughout a city. He keeps in touch with the work of the shop chairman and handles grievances not settled by the shop committees. The business agent is a paid, full-time officer elected by the members of the local union or appointed by a designated union official. He is not an employee of any of the workplaces covered by the union agreement, but is usually experienced in the industry through previous employment.

In order to function, the business agent must be able to enter the plants under his jurisdiction, during working hours, and check up on working conditions at first hand. He may be able to move about

freely in the shop or on the job, discussing with the members the observance of the agreement provisions or any disputes which have arisen, but in some cases his activities are limited to discussions with the shop chairman or shop-committee members, and it may be specified that he may go through the shop only when accompanied by a company representative. In practice or by specific provision in the agreement, his visits are timed so as not to interfere with production.

Other Representatives

Depending upon the character of the industry as well as the bargaining tradition of a union, appeal of a dispute to higher company officials may be handled by the officers of the local union, or provision may be made for the active participation of regional or national officers of the union in the final stages of the joint negotiations. Union locals organized on a city-wide basis, or including many small workplaces in a given area, ordinarily settle their grievances without reference to representatives of the national office of the union, the business agent dealing with the necessary officials of the companies.

On the other hand, unions organized in plants of large industrial corporations often reserve the higher stages of grievance appeals to outside regional or national representatives of the union. This may be done to take advantage of the more skillful bargaining ability of the higher union officials or because the physical location of the corporation's head office, removed from the site of production, makes it difficult for local union leaders to handle negotiations. Also, when a grievance case reaches the highest company officials, the decision may involve an important principle of union-management relations, applicable to more union locals than the one originally involved in the dispute.

When a case goes to arbitration the union ordinarily selects the worker representative on the arbitration committee. The extent to which the selection of the union representative is made by the union membership, or is appointed by a union official or committee, varies with local practice. In either case the choice usually falls upon a worker in the locality with considerable union experience.

EMPLOYER REPRESENTATIVES

The employee's immediate supervisor, whether foreman or department superintendent or manager, is ordinarily the first negotiator on behalf of the employer in dispute negotiations with the union. In small establishments, the owner himself may handle the initial negotiations.

The role of the immediate supervisor is an important one in the adjustment process. The attitude of the foreman toward the union

and his experience in union negotiations often determine the number of grievances that go to higher company officials on appeal. For this reason some large corporations have instituted training courses for foremen and supervisors, instructing them in the terms of the union agreement and the rights of workers and management under the agreement.

In the printing trades and building trades, the foreman in most cases is required to be a member of the union, although he is also the representative of the employer in the shop or on the job. The foremen, however, are generally nonvoting members in the union and are not eligible for election to office. They are not subject to discipline by the union for their actions in representing the employer.

In large industrial concerns there are certain officials who are in turn responsible for dealing with the union in the matter of grievances. These include the foreman, the department superintendent, division superintendent, and the plant manager. Personnel officers, where these are employed, usually enter into the picture when appeal is taken beyond the foreman, although in some instances the personnel office is involved only after negotiations with departmental officials have failed to secure a settlement. A number of agreements authorize appeals to the head office of a large corporation, if a dispute is not settled with the officials of a local plant, but some do not provide for negotiations beyond the plant management.

In a number of industries, agreements are made with associations of employers. These may be city-wide, regional, or nation-wide in scope. Although these associations are at times solely for the purpose of negotiating new agreements, often they also serve as enforcement agencies and association officials may help to settle disputes arising under the agreement. In most association agreements the individual employer, if not able to settle a dispute directly with the union, gives over the responsibility for further negotiations to representatives of the association. These association representatives are elected by the member firms and, like the business agents of the union, are men experienced in the industry and familiar with its problems.

JOINT COMMITTEES

Joint employer-union committees for the adjustment of disputes are provided for in many agreements. The large majority of these committees are selected only when the need arises to discuss a particular dispute which the parties are unable to settle by direct negotiations. By the appointment of an impartial member such committees become arbitration committees, although an effort is usually made to settle the case prior to calling in any outside party.

Union agreements, particularly those with associations of employers, often establish joint committees on a continuing basis, to function

throughout the life of the agreement. When the agreement covers more than a single city, joint machinery may function over a wide area and will assume major importance in the industry. In industries which have agreements covering virtually the entire industry—such as coal mining, pottery, and glassware—the joint machinery operates for the entire industry. The agreement in the pottery industry refers disputes to a standing committee composed of representatives of the association and the union. Both branches of the coal industry make provision for permanent boards of conciliation, which have research and administrative functions in addition to that of settling disputes arising under the agreement. In the paper industry, the agreement with the Pacific Coast Association of Pulp and Paper Manufacturers establishes a joint committee for the northwest region. The National Railway Adjustment Board, established by Federal statute in 1934, replaced about 300 local joint committees in railroad transportation.

Highly developed joint machinery is found in the garment industry, in which bipartisan committees undertake administrative functions under the agreements. Because of the nature of the industry, characterized by seasonal fluctuations, style changes, complex piece-rate structures, and contracting, the day-to-day settling of these problems is necessary to insure a smoothly functioning employer-union relationship. Activities of the joint committees include market regulation, supervising the settling of piece rates, and regulation of the jobber-contractor problem, according to rules laid down in the union agreement.

NEGOTIATING PROCEDURE

An employee with a grievance generally goes directly to his union representative, who proceeds to negotiate with the foreman on the matter. In a few cases, an employee must take up an individual grievance with his foreman before bringing it to the union representative. Such a requirement is usually avoided by the union, which prefers to be a part of the negotiating procedure from the start, in order to insure enforcement of the agreement. In addition, an employee with a justifiable grievance might hesitate to approach his foreman directly, particularly if the grievance involved a discriminatory act on the part of the foreman.

Meetings between union representatives and the management for consideration of grievances are occasionally set for regular times, but usually the meetings are arranged on the request of either party. If negotiations are handled by full-time, paid officers of the union, meetings are invariably during working hours. The adjustment of grievances on company time by shop representatives is also frequently permitted. In some cases meetings between employer and shop representatives may be held only after working hours.

Time limits within which negotiations must take place are quite often prescribed by agreements, particularly when one party has suffered through dilatory bargaining practices of the other. These limits may be for one or more stages in the negotiating procedure, though limits for the later steps are more frequent. In some cases the company has insisted on the presentation of grievances in writing, but in the overwhelming majority this is avoided in order to assure the greatest possible flexibility in negotiations.

Unions frequently feel handicapped in negotiations by a lack of information concerning pay-roll and production statistics of the company. Therefore, access to books and records may be granted to union representatives or to public accountants hired by the union. This is the general practice when joint machinery functions on a continuing basis to deal with the problems of the industry. In such cases employer-association officials frequently join with union representatives in insisting that full information be made available. Agreements in the women's clothing industry in New York City, for instance, provide that union representatives and association officials shall be allowed to examine the books and records of members of the association once a month or oftener at the request of the union.

IMPARTIAL AGENCIES

The great majority of union agreements make provision for referring a dispute arising over the interpretation or application of the agreement to an impartial person or agency for arbitration, in the event the parties to the dispute are unable to settle the matter. The most common form of outside reference is through the selection of an impartial chairman by a committee on which both sides are equally represented. The chairman may be selected to function with the committee from the beginning or may be added only after the joint committee has failed to make an adjustment. A majority vote of the arbitration committee usually decides the controversy, although occasionally the impartial chairman may make the award alone. In some instances the dispute is referred to a board of several impartial arbitrators. The cost of arbitration is borne jointly by the employers and the union.

Some agreements do not leave the selection of an arbitrator until the time when the dispute gets to the stage of arbitration, but specify a certain individual who is to act as arbitrator as needed throughout the life of the agreement. The selection of the impartial arbitrators, in the event the representatives of the two parties cannot agree upon a choice, is sometimes referred to governmental agencies, such as the United States Department of Labor, the National Labor Relations Board, Federal and State judges, or a State arbitration board. The

American Arbitration Association, a private agency, is sometimes asked to appoint an impartial referee to settle a dispute.

The permanent impartial chairman, functioning as needed throughout the life of the agreement, is found in those industries where the union deals with associations of employers and in which the employers have agreed upon continuing machinery to settle complex production and wage problems in addition to ordinary grievances and disputes arising under the agreement. This type of arbitration machinery is common in the garment, millinery, fur, and hosiery industries and for longshoremen on the Pacific coast.

In the few agreements which do not provide for arbitration, there may be provision for referring the dispute to a State or Federal agency for conciliation or mediation. Although this brings the assistance and prestige of experienced negotiators into the proceedings, it does not automatically provide a decision which must be accepted.

ARBITRATION PROCEDURE

Unadjusted disputes which arise under the agreement may be referred to arbitration, as a rule, upon the request of either party. Usually any question may be referred to arbitration, but in a few cases the reference is restricted to discharge cases or other specific matters.

The arbitrators hold hearings and take testimony and occasionally make independent investigations of the facts. Some agreements provide for a decision by default if either party fails to nominate its representatives on the arbitration committee or refuses to cooperate with the arbitrators. In order to avoid unnecessary delays, time limits are generally set for each step in the process of referring the dispute to arbitration—the selection of arbitrators, the conduct of hearings, and the rendering of decisions.

The decision of the arbitration board is, in most agreements, accepted as final and binding on both parties to the dispute. Enforcement of the decision of the arbitrator may be secured through resort to the strike or lock-out, noncompliance being the only occasion when stoppages of work are not considered a violation of the agreement. Arbitrators' decisions have occasionally been taken to the courts for enforcement. Whenever the agreement is with an employers' association, the association officials are held responsible for the compliance of member companies.

DISCHARGE CASES

Many agreements provide a special procedure to hasten the adjustment of discharge cases. Time limits on procedure are more frequently specified for settling discharge cases than for other grievances. In some cases, if the union does not appeal the discharge within a certain

time, the company has the right to refuse to reconsider the action. Under other agreements, the discharge may remain in negotiation only for a specified time. If the discharge is not settled within the time limit, the case must go immediately to arbitration.

A number of provisions may be included in the agreement, to facilitate negotiations. The company may be obliged to furnish reasons for the discharge in writing to the union or the worker concerned. In order to provide time for negotiations before the worker goes off the pay roll, advance notice of the discharge—usually 1 week—is sometimes required. Occasionally, as in the case of printers, the discharge does not become effective until the union has investigated the matter and, if protested by the union, only after the case has been settled by arbitration.

When there is provision for meetings at fixed times between the union and management for settling ordinary grievances, special meetings for handling discharges may be required at the request of either party. An agreement may provide that some part of the usual grievance procedure may be omitted in discharge cases. Some or all of the steps in joint negotiations may be eliminated, with more direct resort to impartial arbitration. Discharge cases at times take precedence over others in hearings before arbitrators.

Reinstatement with back pay after an unjustified discharge is the common practice. Occasionally, there is a limitation on the amount of back pay the worker may receive.

FINES AND PENALTIES

Employers and unions generally rely, for enforcement of the agreement and arbitration awards, upon methods other than the imposition of fines and penalties. The occurrence of such unusual provisions in union agreements may be explained by conditions peculiar to the industry or by difficulties in maintaining the collective-bargaining relationship.

Some industries, such as clothing manufacture, may be characterized by instability. In such case, in order to protect its members, the union may obtain a provision in the agreement requiring the employer to deposit a specified amount which will be forfeited if the agreement is violated. Where severe competition encourages wage cutting, as in the millinery industry, the agreement may provide for payment of damages to recompense the workers who have suffered wage cuts and to offset any competitive advantage an employer may have secured through the violation. In other cases, after the employer has failed to live up to the terms of the agreement, a bond may be required in order to discourage future violations.

Penalties may also take the form of depriving the employer of certain privileges received under the agreement. Union labor may be with-

held until the employer has ceased the violation or compensated for it in some prescribed manner. When the union label or union-shop card is widely used, as in bakeries, barber shops, and the printing trades, the union is authorized to withdraw the use of the label or card when violations occur.

When the employers are organized into an association, the association has an interest in securing uniform compliance with the agreement in order to standardize labor costs. The association, therefore, may require compliance from its members on penalty of expulsion or may establish fines for violations.

Fines or penalties for violations by employees are seldom mentioned in agreements, since employers have recourse to other disciplinary measures. If it is shown that an employee is guilty, neither the union nor the arbitrator would intervene concerning his demotion, lay-off, or even discharge. A few agreements, however, do provide fixed monetary or other penalties for certain infractions. For example, the agreement or the arbitration award may require that lost time be made up when provisions such as those prohibiting stoppage of work are violated.

STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS

Almost every union agreement accompanies the machinery for the settlement of disputes with restrictions on work stoppages, whether strikes or lock-outs. Some agreements prohibit strikes and lock-outs during the entire term of the agreement, and others postpone the use of strikes and lock-outs until all the steps in the adjustment process have been taken. In some agreements, stoppages are specifically authorized if necessary to secure enforcement of an agreement provision or an arbitrator's award.

The constitutions of many national unions do not permit a local to call a strike unless prior approval has been obtained from the national headquarters. Such approval may follow a statement of the case by the local union or first-hand investigation by representatives of the national office.

Examples of Adjustment Machinery

For those American industrial plants which bargain collectively with their employees, the foregoing outlines the general practices followed at each step in the adjustment process. The adjustment machinery in use in any particular industry, however, will vary with the economic organization of the industry itself and with the length of time that collective bargaining has been practiced. In order to illustrate the modifications which have been instituted, various types of adjustment machinery now in use are described below.

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ADJUSTMENT MACHINERY FOR PRINTERS

A number of industries are characterized by the existence of many relatively small plants operating within a city. The employees of these plants are generally organized into local unions which cover all similar occupations in the city. In such trades the union operates on a city-wide basis.

The dealings of the International Typographical Union with their employers are of this type. In this union the chapel, a subordinate organization including all union members in a single shop, maintains an important place in the adjustment process. The chapel functions through its own elected officers. Grievances are handled first by the chapel and are referred to the local union only in case of failure to reach a settlement.

Most of the printing agreements give representatives of the local union access to the shop "at any reasonable time when on official business." This provision is designed to permit the officials of the local to make a first-hand check on the enforcement of the agreement, as well as to investigate complaints.

Although there is some variation in the typographical agreements as to the procedure in handling disputes which are not settled directly between the local union officials and the employers, most of them follow the same general pattern. In one representative agreement provision is made for a bipartisan standing committee composed of four members, two representing the union and two the employer. The reference of the dispute by either party must be made in writing and the committee must meet within 5 days of the notice. If within 10 days the joint committee cannot reach a decision, a fifth impartial member is chosen by the committee to act as chairman. The choice of the chairman must be made within 30 days, and a decision rendered within 30 days thereafter. All decisions of the committee are final and binding.

There is special procedure for discharge cases. A union member who believes he has been illegally or unjustly discharged may, within 24 hours after notice of discharge, appeal in writing to the chapel. Within 24 hours thereafter, the chairman must call a meeting of the chapel to consider the appeal. A discharged union member or the employer, if dissatisfied with the chapel's decision, may appeal to the local union. On request of the chapel or of the local, a discharged man must be reinstated by the employer pending a decision of the bipartisan standing committee. Approximately one-half of the typographical agreements require that discharge cases be appealed from the local to the international union instead of to a bipartisan committee.

In the Typographical Union many working rules involving hours, seniority, share-the-work, and other employment conditions are

adopted by the convention of the international union and written into the general laws of the union. Local unions also may adopt working rules as a part of the local constitution and bylaws. These rules, obligatory upon all union members, lead to many questions of application in individual cases. Such matters as the rival claim of two union members to a particular job may be determined by appeal to successive subordinate divisions of the union, up to the national executive committee or even the convention. The chapel concerned will then negotiate the decision of the union with the employer.

DISPUTES IN BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

In building construction, collective bargaining is generally carried on between unions of the various crafts and city-wide associations of employers. Since union members customarily work for a given employer for the duration of a job, it is impossible to establish continuing shop organizations such as those in the printing trades. The business agent, consequently, plays a more important role in the adjustment of disputes.

In a representative agreement of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America and a city contractors' association, for example, it is provided that the first union member starting to work on a job shall act as steward until such time as a regular steward is elected or appointed. The steward is responsible for inspecting the working cards of members and issuing overtime permits. The steward must also notify the officers of the city-wide local of the new project, so that it may be investigated by the business agent. Any union member is subject to fines by the local if he obstructs the business agent in the discharge of his duties.

Should the business agent be unable to reach a satisfactory settlement with the contractor, the dispute must be reported within 24 hours to a joint committee of 10 members, 5 from the union and 5 from the contractors' association. Meetings of the committee may be called at any time by either party on written request, which must state the objects for which the meeting is to be called. Within 48 hours the committee must proceed to consider the dispute. Three members of the committee representing either party constitute a quorum but neither side may cast more votes than the other. Decisions are by majority vote and are binding.

If the joint committee deadlocks on any question, the case is referred to an arbitration committee composed of one representative of each party and an impartial chairman selected by these two. If the chairman is not chosen within 48 hours, either party may request the probate judge of the county to make the selection. The three-man arbitration committee must render a decision within 48 hours after the dispute is submitted to it.

MULTICRAFT NEGOTIATIONS

Where the workers in a single plant or on a single job have been organized into a number of craft unions, the employer must deal with several different unions in adjusting the disputes of his employees. In a few instances craft unions have signed joint agreements with employers. In these agreements the adjustment procedure is likely to be made uniform and joint committees of the various unions represent the workers in negotiations with the management.

One example of such multicraft adjustment machinery is found in an agreement signed by a building and construction trades council with the building employers' association of the city. Should a dispute or grievance not be settled by the parties directly concerned, it is submitted in writing to the secretaries of the employers' association and the building-trades council. If the secretaries have not disposed of the dispute within 24 hours, it goes to a bipartisan arbitration committee.

This committee is composed of five members representing each party. Three members from each party constitute a quorum and the three may cast the full vote of its membership. Decisions are by majority vote. Cases referred to arbitration must be taken up within 24 hours. In addition, the committee may take up a dispute on its own initiative, even if it has not been referred by either party. Pending decision by the joint committee, there may be no stoppage of work. In general, the committee enforces the agreement and assesses penalties for its violation. It may summon members of the union or employers' association, request other witnesses to testify, and use the advice of experts when deemed necessary.

Those controversies in which the joint committee is unable to reach a settlement must be referred to a permanent impartial chairman for final decision. The chairman sits only in those cases referred to him. Failure of the committee members to meet and maintain a quorum is a violation of the agreement, however, and the dispute may then be referred immediately to the impartial chairman by either party.

This agreement recognizes separate craft interests and the craft agreements which are negotiated in addition to the general agreement. A member of the general arbitration committee may meet with craft committees on cases pending before them. Copies of all craft agreements must be filed with the general employers' association and with the building-trades council.

An example of multicraft negotiations in manufacturing is found in an agreement negotiated by 14 craft unions in one of the plants of the Shell Petroleum Corporation. Here the national officers of the unions take an unusually active part in the adjustment process, explained by the fact that the agreement was negotiated largely by national rather than plant union representatives.

A federated committee of five members is created to represent the various unions in negotiations with the refinery management. Disputes over the application of the agreement are taken up in the usual manner by the crafts with the foremen in charge, and then go to the department head. Failing a settlement, the craft committee presents the complaint to the federated committee. This committee investigates the complaint to see if it has merit and, if so, the craft committee presents the complaint in writing simultaneously to the federated committee and to the department head. If the company's position is favorable, the federated committee is so advised within 1 week. Otherwise the complaint is discussed at the next regular meeting between the management and the federated committee. If the application of special craft rules is involved, a member of the affected craft serves on the federated committee as an alternate unless the craft is already represented.

If either party is dissatisfied with the results of the meeting between the federated committee and the refinery management, the matter may be presented to the international offices of the unions involved. If necessary, a conference will then be held between the refinery management and the proper officers of the international unions. The matter may then be submitted to an arbitrator appointed by the Director of Conciliation, United States Department of Labor.

Controversies involving interpretation of the agreement, as distinguished from the application of a provision, are presented to the international union officers for discussion with the refinery management. Unsettled controversies of this nature are also submitted to arbitration. In such case the umpire is selected by one representative of the union group and one employer representative. If there is no agreement, the Federal Director of Conciliation is asked to make the appointment.

HANDLING OF GRIEVANCES IN MASS-PRODUCTION INDUSTRIES

Collective bargaining is relatively new in the mass-production industries, and some of the elements in the dispute-adjustment process which exist in other industries have not yet been generally accepted. Among these are union dealing on a company-wide basis, the right to carry a grievance through the various channels to the head office of the corporation, the right of workers to be represented by union representatives who are not plant employees, and final submission of unsettled disputes to impartial arbitration.

These limitations have produced a general situation under which almost the entire settlement of disputes depends upon the shop chairmen, none of whom has had more than a few years' experience as union representatives, and upon the foremen who have been accustomed to exercising complete control. As a result, many dis-

putes which would have been settled promptly, in industries where there was adequate machinery, remain unsettled, thereby creating serious problems in industrial relations.

In the steel industry and the manufacture of electrical equipment, however, arbitration is commonly provided. Some of these agreements merely provide that the corporation and the union will "consider" referring disputes to impartial arbitration at the time when negotiations fail to produce a settlement. Among the agreements with smaller firms in the automobile, rubber, flat-glass, and petroleum-refining industries, arbitration provisions are frequently found. None of the agreements with the large automobile or flat-glass corporations, on the other hand, has an arbitration clause. The Sinclair Refining Co. has agreed to arbitrate disputes arising in all of its plants, and The Firestone Tire & Rubber Co. has accepted arbitration for all of its Akron plants.

An example of adjustment procedure in a mass-production industry is found in one of the agreements of the United Automobile Workers of America. This agreement covers all the plants of the corporation and makes provision for appeals to the head office. The union is restricted in a number of ways. There is no recourse to an impartial agency. The number of shop representatives and frequency of meetings with the management are limited, presentation of grievances to the plant management must be in writing, and there is no intercession by the more experienced full-time union officers until the grievance reaches the top corporation officials.

The agreement establishes a system of shop stewards. In order to avoid discriminatory dismissals, the departmental chief stewards are given seniority ratings higher than all employees except foremen within their departments; members of the plant shop committee are given the highest seniority rating in the plant. Local union officers, not to exceed a specified number, are granted seniority rights in their department next to the shop committee. Departmental chief stewards demoted because of lack of work retain their seniority status as chief stewards for not to exceed 1 year from date of demotion.

Grievances are first taken up with the departmental foreman by the aggrieved employee and his steward. If further negotiations are necessary, the chief steward of the department, accompanied by the aggrieved employee's steward, carries the dispute to the foreman and superintendent of the department. If this meeting fails to result in a mutually satisfactory decision, the matter is reduced to writing and forwarded to the plant management, together with a request for a hearing. Meetings with the plant management are held not more than once a week. The union is represented at these meetings by its plant committee, which consists of not more than five employees. The chief steward of the department in which the grievance arose

may attend if his presence is required. The meetings with the departmental superintendent and the plant management are held after working hours, but the plant committeemen are paid for 1 hour at their regular hourly rate for such meetings.

Should no settlement be agreed upon, the union may in writing request a meeting with representatives of the corporation management. If practicable, the meeting is to be held 24 hours after the request. The union is represented here by a committee of local union officers and may call in a representative of the international union and its attorney, not to exceed 15 persons in all. There is no provision for arbitration or outside reference if the parties are unable to agree. Until all the grievance procedure is exhausted, the union agrees that there will be no stoppages of work of any nature.

A special procedure is established for discharges. An appealed discharge case must be taken up and disposed of within 5 days from the date of discharge. An employee found to have been unjustly discharged must be reinstated and paid for any loss of wages.

Somewhat comparable to the problem of piece rates in clothing manufacture is that of unit-production requirements in the time-work mass-production industries. In the clothing industry, machinery is provided for joint negotiation of piece rates with necessary consideration of the speed of production required to make the established hourly rates for the job. Furthermore, the agreement provides for continuing impartial or joint machinery to adjust disputes arising over individual piece rates which cannot be settled within the shop.

In the mass-production industries, on the other hand, there is no agreement at present which provides for continuing impartial machinery to adjust disputes over the recurring and complex problem of the speed of production in connection with time rates which are provided for in the agreement. In only a few cases, in fact, does the agreement go so far as to grant the union the right to take up grievances with reference to production standards, or the so-called "speed-up," through the regular adjustment machinery. In the agreement of the automobile workers cited above, it is provided that "in the event of a grievance arising out of an increase of speed of production, the chief steward and two assistant stewards of the department affected shall meet as soon as reasonably possible with the manager of the plant and other company representatives to adjust such grievances."

IMPARTIAL CHAIRMAN IN MEN'S CLOTHING INDUSTRY

In some industries, chiefly those manufacturing clothing, an impartial chairman is named who functions in a continuing capacity for the duration of the agreement as arbitrator of disputes and administrator of the agreement. The functions of the impartial chair-

man grew out of the joint employer-union efforts to stabilize industries characterized by great seasonal fluctuations and cutthroat competition. The low initial investment required made it easy to establish and operate new shops for the duration of the peak season, with lower-than-average wage-and-hour standards. In addition, the clothing industries are characterized by a multiplicity of small shops, many of which work only on contract. The failure of manufacturers to assume responsibility for conditions in contract shops and the practice by manufacturers of using an unlimited number of contractors were a continuous source of dispute between the workers and their employers. Another prolific source of grievances was the piece-rate system, with style variations subjecting to almost daily change the rates for the hundreds of operations performed in the making of a single garment. As a consequence of these chaotic conditions, work stoppages were frequent and prolonged.

This instability put the emphasis on the need for continuing adjustment machinery. Since the establishment of such machinery is impossible in markets composed of thousands of small shops unless the employers are organized into associations, the unions have expended great efforts to secure the formation of employers' associations. The market machinery established by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and men's clothing manufacturers exemplifies this type of procedure for the settlement of disputes.

The use of arbitration for the settlement of disputes was first introduced in the men's clothing industry in 1911 as a result of the Hart Schaffner & Marx strike in Chicago. The strike culminated in an agreement which provided for the settlement of disputes by a three-man board of arbitration functioning throughout the life of the agreement. The other clothing markets of the country modeled their arbitration machinery after that adopted in the Chicago market. Baltimore established a permanent arbitration board 6 years after its introduction in Chicago. New York and Rochester adopted this system in 1919, and 1 year later Boston and Cleveland followed. Philadelphia, last of the major markets to be unionized, accepted arbitration in 1930.

The introduction into other markets of the arbitration machinery developed in Chicago was at the insistence of the Amalgamated leaders who felt the need for joint machinery to carry out the agreement provisions in the day-to-day operations of the industry. The union urged that permanent arbitrators be appointed who would become experts on the technical problems of the industry and would be available continuously to make prompt decisions.

The Amalgamated's adjustment machinery places initial reliance on the shop committee, to which disputes are first referred. The committee and its chairman are elected by the union members working

in a shop. Wages lost by shop chairmen because of union activities are made up by the union.

Union Joint Board

A dispute referred to a shop chairman is discussed by him with the floor foreman or shop superintendent. Should the shop chairman and the foreman fail to adjudicate the dispute, the matter is customarily referred to a business agent of the joint board of the various local unions in the market.

In large markets there may be separate joint boards for the various branches of the industry, such as coats and suits, shirts, and neckwear. Delegates to the board are elected by the members of the locals in proportion to their number, but with restrictions guarding the representation of the small units. Officers of the local unions seldom participate in the adjustment of grievances, although local unions discuss and vote upon important matters in dispute.

Every local union elects one or more business agents who work under supervision of the union's joint board. Members who are candidates for the important position of business agent must have high qualifications and, on occasion, the union has held examinations of candidates before they were allowed to enter the election. The business agents hold a pivotal place in the adjustment machinery of the Amalgamated. They are sent out by the joint board whenever a shop committee fails to adjust a grievance. The business agent ordinarily discusses the grievance with one of the higher management officials. If no satisfactory solution is reached, a representative of the employers' association may be called. The business agents and association representatives are frequently referred to as "deputies."

When a business agent is unable to effect a settlement, the manager of the union joint board is called upon for assistance. The manager is elected by all the union members in the clothing market coming under the board's jurisdiction, and devotes his full time to the work of the joint board. He keeps in close contact with the national office of the union, thus insuring consistency of policy. Uniformity throughout the country is furthered by the custom of electing major joint-board officers to the national executive board of the union. Besides directing the organization and enforcement work of the board, the manager often represents the union in arbitration cases.

Generally, a dispute which cannot be disposed of by the joint-board manager and the employer's representative is referred directly to the impartial arbitrator. In some markets, however, joint employer-union agencies have been created to which disputes may be referred before final appeal to an impartial arbitrator. These bipartisan agencies may be permanent, as is the Chicago trade board, or may be chosen when the need arises, as is usually the case in smaller markets.

Permanent joint committees, such as the Chicago board, maintain full-time staffs of deputies to investigate and determine the facts.

The Impartial Chairman

Disputes which cannot be adjusted by either the union joint-board managers or the bipartisan boards are referred to the impartial arbitration machinery. Every Amalgamated contract makes provision for the settlement of disputes through some form of arbitration. Single permanent arbitrators, called impartial chairmen, are created in the markets of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Rochester, Cincinnati, Buffalo, and Baltimore. The Chicago and Cincinnati agreements allow additional arbitrators to be chosen, should issues arise necessitating the increase. In such cases, two additional members may be appointed by mutual agreement or by each party's naming one additional member. Agreements in the smaller markets generally provide for the selection of arbitrators only when a dispute arises.

The impartial chairman is usually a person of reputation in the community—an economist or attorney. He has broad powers to interpret the provisions of the agreement and his decisions generally become the basis for the settlement of future controversies. Although an effort is made to avoid a rigid system of precedent and to decide each case on its merits, the practical effect of a decision is to cause the parties voluntarily to apply the principles involved to subsequent disputes on similar points. One Amalgamated board recently urged union officials who are concerned with disputes to familiarize themselves with the impartial chairman's rulings in order to "make it possible to settle disputes directly by citing decisions in similar cases."

Hearings before the impartial chairman are based on a complaint from either side and are held after notice to all interested parties. The proceedings are sufficiently formal to expedite the hearings and yet informal enough to dispense with the technical rules of a court of law. In the larger markets the chairman usually maintains a staff of expert accountants and investigators to determine the facts. In order to determine whether the terms of the agreement are being carried out, the chairman in some markets is also empowered to request the employers' association auditor to examine the books and records of an employer against whom a complaint has been made.

The decision of the arbitrator is final. Generally it is put in writing and is sent to the union and employer. Compliance with the decision is expected immediately, and resort to a strike or lock-out is permissible to force compliance. In practice, only a small number of the chairman's decisions require enforcement through a work stoppage. In a number of agreements the parties have stipulated that the decisions and awards of the arbitrators may be enforced by an

appropriate judgment based on the decision which may be entered in a court of law or equity.

The union has made efforts from time to time to secure industry-wide agreements in order to avoid the rise of disputes on the same subject throughout all the markets. No regular procedure has been established as yet for such industry-wide policy making, but the question of wage increases has twice been brought before the entire industry for a uniform decision.

JOINT REGULATION IN DRESS MANUFACTURE

The joint machinery in dress manufacturing operates in an industry 85 percent of which is concentrated in the New York City metropolitan area. The entire market operates under piece rates and 65 percent of the dollar volume is made under the jobber-contractor system. The jobber in the dress industry is responsible for production as well as distribution. He purchases fabrics, employs designers, and sends the cut or uncut material to the contractor with specifications for its manufacture. The contractors employ the majority of the workers in the industry—80,000 out of 105,000. Under nonunion conditions, the responsibility of paying wages fell upon the contractor, although the jobber, through his strategic position in being able to play off one contractor against another, indirectly influenced the wages paid.

The 1932 dress agreement of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and the employers' associations in New York instituted reforms which completely changed the position of the contractor in the industry. The agreement established the principle that jobbers were to be responsible to the union for maintenance of wage rates by contractors, and provided for price-settlement committees in the contract shops. The first step toward limiting the number of contractors was taken when the NRA code was amended to require that each jobber designate the contractors actually required and distribute his orders only among them.

The system of settling piece rates in the contract shops, however, proved ineffective in eliminating extreme pressure on the wage rate as a result of underbidding for work by contractors. Contractors were still able to bid against each other and the union committees were forced to accept continually lower wage rates. The ensuing friction between workers and employers resulted in hundreds of discharges and frequent stoppages and strikes.

The 1936 agreement between the union and four employers' associations introduced a uniform system for settling piece rates. It provided that workers in all shops were to receive the same rates for the same amount of labor. Basic to the system was the assumption by the jobber of the responsibility for the labor cost of dresses manufactured for him in contract shops. The jobber also had the

responsibility for paying his contractors an amount sufficiently high to enable the latter to pay the union wage scale and to cover overhead, with a reasonable rate of profits. Through standardization of rate fixing and control of the jobber-contractor relationship, the agreement tended to eliminate underbidding among contractors and price haggling between contractor and the employees. The basic cause of strikes and stoppages in the dress industry—low wage standards brought about by wasteful contractor competition—was thereby largely removed.

Further uniformity in rate fixing was recently attained through a clause in the 1939 agreement under which the remaining week-work shops in the New York dress industry were shifted to a piece-work basis. Insistence on such a shift was made by the union which felt that week-work shops were being used, in lower-priced lines, to undermine the structure of the direct settlement of piece rates.

The Administrative Board

Power to administer the jobber-contractor regulations is now placed in an administrative board composed of one representative of the union and one representative of each of the four employers' associations. Of the employers' associations, one represents manufacturers who do not contract out any work, one represents the contractors, while the jobbers are divided into two associations on the basis of the selling prices of their dresses. Participation in decisions of the board is limited to a representative of the union and the representative of the particular association whose members are involved. Decisions of the administrative board must be unanimous. Failing unanimity, the case goes to the impartial chairman of the industry, whose decision is final.

Jobbers are required to submit to the administrative board a list of the contractors they believe necessary to meet their productive requirements. On approval by the administrative board, the contractors so designated are deemed to be a jobber's permanent contractors, provided the latter continue to maintain union shops. An addition to the list of permanent contractors is permitted only if justified by an increase in the jobber's volume of business. Written application for such addition must be made to the union, the employers' associations involved, and the administrative board. A change in a jobber's product is the only recognized ground for substitution of contractors and such substitution cannot be made until after the decision of the administrative board. The decision is made only after notice is given to the affected parties and a hearing is held.

To discharge a contractor the jobber must prove either poor workmanship or late deliveries. Simultaneous with such discharge the full particulars upon which it is based must be submitted to the

administrative board and the associations involved. Prior approval of the administrative board is necessary, before the discharge of a contractor, when a jobber has been judged guilty of two previous unjustifiable discharges. Upon failure of the administrative board to agree on the propriety of the discharge, the impartial chairman is to hold a hearing within 48 hours. Should the discharge be considered unjustified, the contractor must be reinstated by the jobber and adequate work must be supplied to him to compensate him for the losses he and his workers have sustained.

During slack times a jobber must distribute work between his inside shop, if he maintains one, and his designated contractors, on the basis of the number of machine operators employed. In periods of seasonal expansion a jobber may add a contractor temporarily, but not more than one may be added without advance consent of the administrative board. Similarly, enlarging inside or outside shops because of seasonal or permanent expansion requires administrative board approval.

Association members have assumed the liability of paying the wages of workers, up to 7 working days, should one of the designated contractors default in wage payments.

Enforcement

To aid in enforcement the union is granted the right to examine the books and production records of association members once a month. Aside from such periodic examination, the union may check the books and records of an employer whenever it has reason to suspect dealings with nonunion or undesignated contractors. Should it appear that records have been falsified to conceal prohibited transactions, a strike may be called without loss of any rights under the agreement.

Business agents are also permitted to visit shops three times a year during peak seasons to check the enforcement of the closed-shop provision of the agreement. The responsibility of seeing that jobbers deal only with designated union contract shops is also placed upon each of the employers' associations. If an association member is discovered dealing with a nonunion shop, the association is to impose a fine for the first offense. The amount of the fine is to be sufficiently high to offset the advantage gained by the member through the transaction, together with an appropriate penalty. A second offense may result in expulsion from the association.

Setting of Piece Rates

The initial step in the establishment of rates is made by the piece-rate committee. The committeemen are representatives of the workers elected for the purpose of negotiating piece rates on new

styles, just as shop chairmen are elected representatives of the workers in all other dealings with management. Rate committees are elected for the entire season and represent the various contract shops in which the dresses are to be manufactured. In those cases where a shop manufactures some dresses on the premises and sends some to a contracting shop, a workers' representative of the inside shop will also be a member of the rate committee.

Rates must be settled on garments before manufacture begins. Though stoppages and strikes are prohibited by the agreement, no rights under the agreement are lost if such a strike or stoppage occurs in cases where rates have not been settled as provided for.

The settling of piece rates may take place either on the jobbers' premises or at the price-adjustment bureau, which is operated by one of the three deputy administrators of the impartial chairman. Another deputy is in charge of the assignment and limitation of contractors, and the third is designated to hear evidence. The latter has no power to pass judgment, and makes no recommendations to the chairman, but simply submits the testimony.

The function of the deputy administrator, through his staff of impartial experts, is to adjust disputes arising over rate settlements and to assign equitable rates when an impasse has been reached by the jobber and rate committee. The impartial experts, numbering seven or eight, are selected by the impartial chairman by means of a formal examination testing their knowledge of the industry. At the price-adjustment bureau the union and the employers' associations each maintain about 35 experts to assist in setting rates on new styles. The union's experts are able, because of their experience, to bargain for adequate rates for the garment in question.

To eliminate the elements of speculation in the settlement of rates made necessary by frequent style changes, the unit system of rate determination was devised by the union. Under this system the time required to make each different part of a dress has been calculated. To these job-time units, common to all garments, are added the time involved in style variations.

When a jobber has prepared his samples, he notifies the union's joint board of his desire to fix piece rates on his prepared styles. A conference is then held between the union representatives from the contracting shops, the contractors' representatives, and the jobber, on the jobber's premises or at the neutral headquarters of the price-adjustment bureau. The various parts of the dress are examined carefully and, with the aid of the unit system, the rates are established. A union joint-board representative and the association representative of the jobbers or contractors may be present at this stage of negotiation or may be called if there is failure to agree. Should a disagreement over piece rates still exist after a union and an association

adjuster meet, then an adjuster from the impartial chairman's office is called in to arbitrate. He must settle the prices in dispute within 24 hours and his decision is final unless appealed to the impartial chairman.

No settlement is official unless the detailed description of the style and the settled rate bears a revenue stamp. The stamp is bought by the jobber from the price bureau and the proceeds from the sale go to the treasury of the impartial chairman's office. Purchase of these revenue stamps is expected to cover all the employer's share of the collective machinery budget except the contractors who contribute directly. This budget is approximately $125,000 per year. The magnitude of the rate-setting task is indicated by the more than 7,000 individual rate settlements covering over 86,000 styles made during the 1939 spring season.

Once rates have been established, the burden of securing compliance falls upon the shop chairmen and business agents of the union. Jobbers may attempt to avoid the terms of the collective agreement by adding additional work after rates have been settled or by settling for a part of their styles only. Underpayments to workers and balances due the contractors make up approximately 30 percent of the complaints which come before the impartial chairman. Less frequent are complaints by contractors over a jobber's failure to secure revenue stamps or to distribute his work equitably among the contractors.

Evasions are checked by the union's trained staff of business agents and investigators. About 55 elected business agents, who are full-time employees of the union, and 17 accountants police and investigate the greater New York market. Shop chairmen are required to bring to the joint board office a monthly record of styles produced in the shop. This record is checked against the union's official rate settlement with each firm. Violations are reported to the impartial chairman. The impartial chairman, though he has power to impose penalties, has no authority to investigate except on request of both parties.

LONGSHORE HIRING-HALL SYSTEM

Another example of joint union-employer regulation at the source of grievance is the hiring-hall procedure established in the Pacific coast agreement of the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union. The problem arises from the intermittent nature of longshore work caused by irregularity of sailings and the seasonality of most of the commodities shipped. Also, the ease with which any unskilled laborer can be absorbed into the labor force has resulted in an oversupply of labor at the docks and in intense competition for jobs.

Before the union agreement, hiring was customarily done through the "shape-up." Longshoremen would congregate at the pier several times a day in the hope of being picked for a job by the hiring foreman. The foreman had full power to choose whom he wished. Such autocratic control frequently led to discrimination, favoritism, and even bribery. In order to obtain preference, some workers organized themselves into gangs and offered themselves for employment as a unit. Sometimes employers kept a nucleus of regular men at the pier, but the work of these so-called "permanent" forces was often as irregular as that of the casual workers.

Prior to 1934 employers' associations maintained hiring halls in the ports of Seattle, Los Angeles, and Portland. Although the rotation of work which was instituted provided a somewhat greater equalization of earnings than was formerly possible, the unions charged that such halls had not remedied the abuses they were supposed to abolish and that they were used as agencies for discrimination against union longshoremen.

The hiring halls now in existence, which are jointly controlled by the union and the employers, were established as a result of the arbitration awards after the 1934 longshore strike. The hiring-hall system, though permitting discharge for incompetence, restricts the employer's right to hire individually at the docks and necessitates his procurement of help through a central office.

The hiring and dispatching is now done through a central hiring hall in each of the ports. The operation of the hall is in the hands of a joint port committee, consisting of three union and three employer representatives. The personnel of each hiring hall, except dispatchers, is determined and appointed by the joint port committee. The agreement provides that the dispatcher and his assistants are elected by the union.

The joint port committees have established lists of registered men in each port, divided into gangs and extra men. The registration list constitutes the total force for a particular port. The committee is charged with seeing that no unlisted longshoreman is dispatched while registered men remain unemployed. Among the registered men, union members are to be given preference over nonmembers. The committee also decides all questions relating to the rotation of gangs and extra men.

Longshoremen are dispatched on orders received from employers. Gangs and extra men must be ordered by the employers for a specific time and for a specific job. There are strict rules as to when orders are to be placed, so that longshoremen may have reasonable notice to report to work.

The rules of the joint committees are supplemented by rules of the local unions in each port, which either penalize members for infrac-

tions or place upon them responsibility for securing compliance. Thus the constitution of the San Francisco local imposes a fine of $5 for the first offense of soliciting jobs on the dock, $25 for the second, and 30 days' suspension for the third. Gang and dock stewards, elected by the men at the docks, must check credentials of nongang members assigned to the jobs and those without dispatching-hall assignment slips are to be denied work.

The dispatcher, who is directly responsible to the union membership, determines to a large extent the success of the equalization program. In the port of San Francisco he is required to submit a detailed report to the membership each week. His responsibility to the union members as a whole considerably reduces the possibility that nonregistered men will be dispatched.

Disputes arising over hiring-hall practices are discussed in the first instance by the joint port committees. In the event the joint committee fails to agree within 24 hours, local disputes are referred to a standing port or local arbitrator. A question of coast-wide importance is referred to the coast arbitrator whose decision on all matters is final.

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PROGRESS OF STATE MINIMUM-WAGE LEGISLATION IN 1939

By Louise Stitt and Florence P. Smith, *U. S. Women's Bureau*

EXTENSION of the benefits of State minimum-wage legislation for women during the year 1939 can be measured more accurately by the new wage orders issued by States operating under minimum-wage laws than by the number of States that passed new laws during the year. Though 44 legislatures were in session in 1939, only 2 minimum-wage laws were passed. A law applying to women and minors employed only in fish-canning occupations was enacted in Maine, and an $18 weekly minimum wage for all employed women was established by statute in Alaska. However, 23 wage orders, of which 3 were revisions of old orders, became effective in 11 States and the District of Columbia. As a result, approximately 130,000 women were added to those covered by State minimum-wage orders. By the end of 1939, minimum-wage laws had been enacted by 26 States,[1] Alaska, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, covering more than 4,000,000 women. It is significant that almost two-thirds of the wage orders that became effective in 1939 apply to service or intrastate industries that are not covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. As has been emphasized many times in the past year, the States alone are responsible for the protection of the millions of low-paid wage earners employed in intrastate industries over which the Federal Government has no control. The passage of additional State minimum-wage laws and the issuance of wage orders covering the service industries is necessary, if all workers in the country are to have equal legal protection.

Amendments to State Laws

The minimum-wage laws of Connecticut, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nevada, and New York were amended in 1939. Except in Connecticut, these amendments were of a minor nature. Connecticut, in fact, did not amend its minimum-wage law for women and minors but repealed it and passed a new law almost identical with the original act except that it applies to men as well as to women and minors. A second change was the elimination of the directory period provided for in the original law, during which the only penalty for

[1] Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin.

violation of a wage order was the publication of the names of offenders. The enactment of the new law necessitated the establishment of new wage boards, and the issuance of new mandatory orders, for the industries for which orders already had been issued under the original law. By the end of the year the beauty culture industry was the only one for which a new wage order had been issued under the revised law, although preparations were being made for wage boards for the laundry and dry-cleaning industries.

It is interesting to note that, in conformity with recent recommendations of a number of groups that social legislation be extended to domestic workers, bills were introduced into the 1939 Legislatures of Illinois, Massachusetts, and New York that would have amended the minimum-wage laws of those States to cover household employees, and a bill providing a minimum wage of $30 a month for such workers was introduced into the Legislature of Washington. Though none of these bills was passed, their introduction may indicate a new trend. Wisconsin is the only State thus far that has applied its minimum-wage law to domestic workers, though the laws of seven other States permit such application.

State Wage and Hour Bills

A new type of State minimum-wage bill was introduced into the legislatures of 29 States during the 1939 sessions. The bills followed the general pattern of the "State Wage and Hour Bill" drafted by a committee of State labor commissioners and representatives of organized labor, appointed by the Secretary of Labor. The committee's bill, drawn on the lines of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 but designed for State use, was approved in November 1938 by the Fifth National Conference on Labor Legislation. Men as well as women are covered by this bill, and wages (as provided in the Federal law) would be regulated through the combined method of statutory rates and wage-board procedure, and hours would be regulated through overtime rates. No bill of this type was passed by any State legislature, though such a bill was approved by the Assembly of New Jersey in June 1939.

Court Cases

Attacks through the courts on State minimum-wage laws and their administration, that marked the year 1938, continued to be made by certain employers in 1939. In Pennsylvania a group of laundry owners challenged the constitutionality of the minimum-wage law of that State, in a petition for court review of minimum-wage orders for the laundry industry issued by the Pennsylvania Department of Labor

and Industry. The court of Dauphin County refused to review the orders on the ground that the proceedings did not constitute an adequate legal record in that the testimony had not been sworn to. As a result of the court's action, it was necessary for the department of labor and industry to appoint a new wage board for the laundry industry. Careful regulations governing the actions of the wage board and the proceedings that will follow the submission of the wage board's report are being prepared by the attorney general of the State.

In Kentucky two petitions for injunctions have been filed against the Commissioner of Industrial Relations. These petitions attack the constitutionality of the law and challenge the right of the commissioner to issue one wage order to cover all industries under a minimum-wage law that requires that the minimum wage rates established shall be fairly and reasonably commensurate with the value of the services rendered.

In an action to enjoin enforcement of the Oklahoma minimum-wage law, the Supreme Court of Oklahoma on March 21, 1939, specifically held that minimum-wage and maximum-hour legislation is constitutional as applied to men as well as women. The court held, however, that those parts of the Oklahoma law that attempted to authorize the establishment of minimum wages for men and minors were invalid because of a defect in the title of the law, and the orders issued under these sections consequently are invalid as applied to men and minors. At the present time, the nine minimum-wage orders issued by the commission are still inoperative as applied to women, because the supreme court remanded the case to the lower court where the action originated, for a determination of the question whether proper hearings before the conference committees and the commission were accorded to interested parties before the orders were promulgated.

The administrative agencies of Utah and Minnesota during the year took the necessary steps to bring the administration of their minimum-wage laws into conformity with the procedure prescribed by the courts of the respective States in 1938. Utah made careful preparations for new hearings on the recommendations of the minimum-wage board for the retail trade, as the supreme court of the State had held that the original hearings were inadequate. In Minnesota, where the court in 1938 upheld the complaint of certain employers against the application of a blanket wage order to all industries, the industrial commission issued separate orders in 1939 for the needle trades and telegraph industry and for laundries and restaurants.

These court cases caused serious delays in securing the benefits of State minimum-wage laws for employed women. Because of this, the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor in June 1939 called together a group of State minimum-wage adminis-

trators and lawyers who have had experience in the field of minimum-wage administration, to consider means by which the States might avoid many of the legal difficulties encountered in recent years. As a result of this conference, a memorandum has been prepared and will be issued early in 1940, suggesting administrative practices which, if followed by State minimum-wage administrators, may serve to avoid some of the pitfalls of the past.

Provisions of 1939 Wage Orders

A summary of the provisions of all minimum-wage orders adopted during the year 1939 [2] is presented in the table following.

[2] For provisions of 1938 orders, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1939.

Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders Adopted in 1939 [1]

State and industry covered	Class to which order applies	Hours	Wage rates for—	
			Experienced workers	Learners
Alaska				
All occupations (Mar. 9, 1939; wage fixed in law).	Women over 18 years of age.	48 per week, 6 days [2]	$18 per week	
		Part time	45 cents per hour	
Arizona				
Laundry and dry cleaning (directory, Apr. 15, 1939; mandatory, June 15, 1939).	Women and minors	32 to 40 per week	$11.20 per week [3]	
		Over 40 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day for females).	28 cents per hour	
		Less than 32 per week	30.8 cents per hour	
		8 per day, 48 per week (maximum for females)		25.2 cents per hour for first 3 months.
Colorado				
Beauty service (mandatory, Dec. 4, 1939): Senior operators	do	44 per week or less	35 cents per hour	
		Over 44 per week (maximum 8 per day, 6 days per week).	Time and a half the regular rate.	
Junior operators (i. e., less than 12 months' experience); manicurists; and all other employees any or all of whom may be apprentices.	do	44 per week or less		25 cents per hour.
		Over 44 per week (maximum 8 per day, 6 days per week).		Time and a half the regular rate.
Connecticut				
Beauty shops (directory, June 19, 1939; mandatory Aug. 30, 1939): 3-year operators, i. e., registered hairdressers and cosmeticians.	do	Over 24 to 46 per week	$18 per week	
		3 days per week or less	$4 per day	
		Over 8 per day or over 46 per week (maximum 52, 9 per day for females).	60 cents per hour	
2-year operators, i. e., licensed assistant hairdressers and cosmeticians; clerks.	do	Over 24 to 46 per week	$15.50 per week	
		3 days a week or less	$4 per day	
		Over 8 per day or over 46 per week (maximum 52, 9 per day for females).	50 cents per hour	
1-year operators, i. e., licensed operators.	do	Over 24 to 46 per week	$14.50 per week	
		3 days a week or less	$4 per day	
		Over 8 per day or over 46 per week (maximum 52, 9 per day for females).	50 cents per hour	

Maids and cleaners	do	37½ per week or less	40 cents per hour	
		37½ to 48 per week	$15 per week	
		Over 48 per week (maximum 52, 9 per day for females).	45 cents per hour	
District of Columbia				
Office and previously unclassified. (*Exceptions:* Manufacturing and wholesaling.) (Mandatory, Mar. 13, 1939.)				
All. (*Exceptions:* Elevator operators, maids, cleaners, and similar workers.)	do	30 to 44 per week	$17 per week	
		Over 44 or less than 30 per week	50 cents per hour	
	Women 18 years of age and over.	30 to 44 per week		$14 per week for first 6 months.
		Over 44 or less than 30 per week		50 cents per hour for first 6 months.
	Minors under 18 years of age.	30 to 44 per week		$14 per week for first 12 months.
		Over 44 or less than 30 per week		35 cents per hour for first 12 months.
Elevator operators	Women and minors	40 to 48 per week	$17 per week	
		Over 48 per week	40 cents per hour	
		Less than 40 per week	do	
Maids, cleaners, and similar workers	do	40 to 48 per week	$14.50 per week	
		Over 48 or less than 40 per week	35 cents per hour	
Manfacturing and wholesaling (mandatory, June 5, 1939):				
Productive plant and similar workers	do	32 to 44 per week	$16 per week	
		Less than 32 per week	40 cents per hour	
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)	Time and a half the regular hourly rate.	
Productive plant and similar workers (except in graphic arts).	Women 18 years of age and over.	32 to 44 per week		$13 per week for first 3 months.
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)		Time and a half the regular hourly rate.
	Minors under 18 years of age.	32 to 44 per week		$13 per week for first 6 months; $15 for second 6 months.
		Less than 32 per week		35 cents per hour.
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)		Time and a half the regular hourly rate.
Productive plant and simllar workers (graphic arts).	Women and minors	32 to 44 per week		$13 per week for first 6 months; $14 for second 6 months; $15 for third 6 months.
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)		Time and a half the regular hourly rate.
Office and similar workers	do	30 to 44 per week	$17 per week	
		Less than 30 per week	50 cents per hour	
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)	do	
	Women 18 years of age and over.	30 to 44 per week		$14 per week for first 6 months.
		Less than 30 per week		50 cents per hour for first 6 months.
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)		Do.
	Minors under 18 years of age.	30 to 44 per week		$14 per week for first 12 months.
		Less than 30 per week		35 cents per hour for first 12 months.
		Over 44 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)		Do.
Elevator operators	Women and minors	40 to 48 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)	$17 per week	
		Less than 40 per week	40 cents per hour	
Maids, cleaners, and similar workers	do	40 to 48 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day)	$14.50 per week	
		Less than 40 per week	35 cents per hour	

See footnotes at end of table.

Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders Adopted in 1939 [1]—Continued

State and industry covered	Class to which order applies	Hours	Wage rates for—	
			Experienced workers	Learners
Illinois				
Confectionery (directory, June 1, 1939):				
Cook, Will, Lake, Du Page, and Kane Counties.	Women and minors	44 per week	35 cents per hour	
		Over 44 to 48 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day for females).	52½ cents per hour (38½ cents during peak period [4]).	
Elsewhere in State	do	44 per week	31½ cents per hour	
		Over 44 to 48 per week (maximum 48, 8 per day for females).	47¼ cents per hour (34.65 cents during peak period [4]).	
Kentucky				
All occupations (directory, Jan. 14, 1939, as modified Mar. 11, 1939; mandatory June 1, 1939):				
Zone 1—cities of 20,000 or more population and contiguous territory within 1 mile thereof.	do	48 per week	25 cents per hour	
		Over 48 per week [5]	37½ cents per hour	
Zone 2—cities of 4,000 and under 20,000 population and contiguous territory within 1 mile thereof.	do	50 per week	22½ cents per hour	
		Over 50 per week [5]	34 cents per hour	
Zone 3—cities and towns under 4,000 population.	do	52 per week	20 cents per hour	
		Over 52 per week [5]	30 cents per hour	
Massachuset s				
Knit goods. (*Exceptions:* Staple lines of hosiery and underwear.) (Directory, Mar. 1, 1939).	do	9 per day, 48 per week [6]	36 cents per hour	25 cents per hour for first 36 weeks.
Office and other building cleaning (directory, June 1, 1939).	do		40 cents per hour	
Jewelry (directory, Aug. 1, 1939)	do	9 per day, 48 per week [6]	Aug. 1, 1939 to July 31, 1940, 33 cents per hour.	
		do.[6]	After July 31, 1940, 35 cents per hour.	After July 31, 1940, 33 cents per hour for first 2 months.

Beauty culture (directory, Sept. 1, 1939):				
Registered hairdressers	do	48 per week [6]	$16.50 per week	$12.50 per week for first 3 months in the industry.
		Less than 48 per week	50 cents per hour	
Registered operators and manicurists	do	48 per week [6]	$14.50 per week [7]	Do.
		Less than 48 per week	40 cents per hour	
Maids and appointment clerks	do	48 per week [6]	$14.50 per week	Do.
Minnesota				
Telegraph (mandatory Jan. 10, 1939):				
Class A [8]	Women and female minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$15 per week	$12 per week for first 3 months; $13.50 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	36 cents per hour	29 cents per hour for first 3 months; 32 cents for second 3 months.
	Female minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$12 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	29 cents per hour	
Class B [8]	Women and female minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$13.50 per week	$10.80 per week for first 3 months; $12.15 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	30 cents per hour	24 cents per hour for first 3 months; 27 cents for second 3 months.
	Female minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$10.80 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	24 cents per hour	
Class C [8]	Women and female minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$12 per week	$9.60 per week for first 3 months; $10.80 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	27 cents per hour	22 cents per hour for first 3 months; 24 cents for second 3 months.
	Female minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 hours per week	$9.60 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	22 cents per hour	
Class D [8]	Women and female minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$11 per week	$8.80 per week for first 3 months; $9.90 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	24 cents per hour	19 cents per hour for first 3 months; 22 cents for second 3 months.
	Female minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$8.80 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	19 cents per hour	
Entire State	Male minors between 16 and 21 years of age.	44 per week or less	25 cents per hour	
		Over 44 per week	37½ cents per hour	

See footnotes at end of table.

Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders Adopted in 1939 [1]—Continued

State and industry covered	Class to which order applies	Hours	Wage rates for—	
			Experienced workers	Learners
Minnesota—Continued				
Needlecraft (mandatory, Mar. 1, 1939)	Women and minors	54 per week [9]	35 cents per hour	23.33 cents for first 3 months; 26.25 cents for second 3 months.[10]
Restaurant (mandatory, Mar. 1, 1939):				
Class A [8]	Women and minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$15 per week	$12 per week for first 3 months; $13.50 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	36 cents per hour	29 cents per hour for first 3 months; 32 cents for second 3 months.
	Minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$12 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or elss than 36 per week	29 cents per hour	
Class B [8]	Women and minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$13.50 per week	$10.80 per week for first 3 months; $12.15 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	30 cents per hour	24 cents per hour for first 3 months; 27 cents for second 3 months.
	Minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$10.80 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	24 cents per hour	
Class C [8]	Women and minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$12 per week	$9.60 per week for first 3 months; $10.80 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	27 cents per hour	22 cents per hour for first 3 months; 24 cents for second 3 months.
	Minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$9.60 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	22 cents per hour	
Class D [8]	Women and minors 18 years of age and over.	36 to 48 per week	$11 per week	$8.80 per week for first 3 months; $9.90 for second 3 months.
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	24 cents per hour	19 cents per hour for first 3 months; 22 cents for second 3 months.
	Minors between 16 and 18 years of age.	36 to 48 per week	$8.80 per week	
		Over 48 [9] or less than 36 per week	19 cents per hour	
Laundry (mandatory, May 1, 1939):				
Class A [8]	Women and minors	54 per week [9]	32 cents per hour	25 cents per hour for first 3 months; 28 cents for second 3 months.
Class B [8]	do	do [9]	28 cents per hour	22 cents per hour for first 3 months; 25 cents for second 3 months.
Class C [8]	do	do [9]	25 cents per hour	20 cents per hour for first 3 months; 22 cents for second 3 months.
Class D [8]	do	do [9]	23 cents per hour	18 cents per hour for first 3 months; 21 cents for second 3 months.

New Hampshire				
Retail trade (directory, Feb. 15, 1939):				
Cities of 25,000 population or over	do	44 to 48 per week	$13.20 per week	$10.56 per week for first 6 months.
		Over 48 [11] or less than 44 per week	27½ cents per hour	22 cents per hour for first 6 months.
Cities under 25,000 population	do	44 to 48 per week	$12 per week	$9.60 per week for first 6 months.
		Over 48 [11] or less than 44 per week	25 cents per hour	20 cents per hour for first 6 month
New Jersey				
Light manufacturing (directory, July 3, 1939).	do	44 per week, July 3 to Oct. 24, 1939; 42 per week, Oct. 25, 1939, to Oct. 24, 1940; 40 per week thereafter.	35 cents per hour	30 cents per hour for first 6 weeks.
		Over 44, 42, or 40 per week during periods shown above.[12]	Time and a half the regular rate.	Time and a half the regular rate.
Wearing apparel and allied occupations (directory, July 3, 1939).	do	44 per week, July 3 to Oct. 24, 1939; 42 per week, Oct. 25, 1939, to Oct. 24, 1940; 40 per week thereafter.	35 cents per hour, July 3, 1939, to Oct. 23, 1941; 38 cents per hour, Oct. 24, 1941, to Oct. 23, 1942; 40 cents per hour, Oct. 24, 1942, to Oct. 23, 1943; 42 cents per hour thereafter.	
		Over 44, 42, or 40 per week during periods shown above.[12]	Time and a half the regular rate.	
Cleaning and dyeing (directory, May 22, 1939):				
Clerks	do	54 [12] or less per week	$14 per week, or the basic hourly rate for other workers.[13]	
All other:				
Zone A (Bergen, Essex, Hudson, Middlesex, Morris, Passaic, and Union Counties).	do	40 to 54 per week	33 cents per hour	
		Over 10 per day, 54 per week	Time and a half the regular rate.	
		Less than 40 per week	36.3 cents per hour (10 percent added to basic rate), not over $13.20 per week.	
Zone B (Burlington, Camden, Gloucester, Mercer, Somerset, and from June 1 to Oct. 1, Atlantic, Monmouth, and Ocean Counties).	do	40 to 54 per week	30 cents per hour	
		Over 10 per day, 54 per week	Time and a half the regular rate.	
		Less than 40 per week	33 cents per hour (10 percent added to basic rate), not over $12 per week.	
Suburban Zone (Cape May, Cumberland, Hunterdon, Salem, Sussex, Warren, and from Oct. 1 to June 1, Atlantic, Monmouth, and Ocean Counties).	do	40 to 54 per week	26 cents per hour	
		Over 10 per day, 54 per week	Time and a half the regular rate.	

See footnotes at end of table.

Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders Adopted in 1939 [1]—Continued

State and industry covered	Class to which order applies	Hours	Wage rates for—	
			Experienced workers	Learners
New York				
Cleaning and dyeing (directory, May 8, 1939):				
Zone A (New York City; Westchester, Nassau, and Suffolk Counties).	Women and minors	40 per week	36 cents per hour	
		Over 40 per week [14] and for split shifts	Time and a quarter the basic minimum.	
Zone B (cities outside Zone A with population of 10,000 or over).	do	40 per week	34 cents per hour to June 30, 1939; 35 cents per hour, July 1 to Dec. 31, 1939; 36 cents per hour thereafter.	
		Over 40 per week [14] and for split shifts	Time and a quarter the basic minimum.	
Zone C (remainder of State)	do	40 per week	33 cents per hour	
		Over 40 per week [14] and for split shifts	Time and a quarter the basic minimum.	
Rhode Island				
Retail (directory, July 10, 1939):				
Class A (cities and towns with population of over 20,000).	do	42½ to 48 per week (maximum 48, 9 per day for women and minors 16 and under 18).	$14 per week	$13 per week for first 6 months.
		Less than 42½ per week	30 cents per hour	27½ cents per hour for first 6 months.
Class B (cities and towns with population of 20,000 or under).	do	42½ to 48 per week (maximum 48, 9 per day for women and minors 16 and under 18).	$13 per week	$12 per week for first 6 months.
		Less than 42½ per week	27½ cents per hour	25 cents per hour for first 6 months.

[1] In addition to the orders shown in this chart, the following adopted in 1938, and shown in the Monthly Labor Review for February 1939, were made mandatory in 1939: Massachusetts, canning and food preparations order, Mar. 2, 1939; New Hampshire, beautician order, Nov. 20, 1939; New York beauty-shop order, Mar. 27, 1939.

The Colorado retail and the Connecticut cleaning and dyeing orders adopted in 1938 and effective in January 1939 were shown in the Review for February 1939 and are not repeated here.

[2] The law says that no woman over 18 years shall be paid a weekly wage rate of less than $18 for a 6-day week of 48 hours and that 45 cents an hour shall be paid for part-time employment, which "is not intended to include domestic or caretaker service where no manual labor is required." Another section of the act sets a maximum week of 60 hours for female household or domestic employees.

[3] The following counties are exempt from the guaranteed weekly wage of $11.20 for 32 to 40 hours a week: Yuma, Maricopa, Pima, Gila, Greenlee, Graham, Cochise, Santa Cruz, and Pinalli, from June 1 to Aug. 31; Mohave, Coconino, Yavapai, Navajo, and Apache, from Dec. 16 to Mar. 15. During these exempted periods the minimum hourly rate of 28 cents must be paid for 32 hours or more.

[4] Peak period means 1 continuous period of not over 14 weeks annually, or 2 periods aggregating not over 14 weeks.

[5] Legal maximum hours 10 a day, 60 a week for females 16 and over in any laundry, bakery, factory, workshop, store, or mercantile, manufacturing or mechanical establishment, hotel, restaurant, or telephone exchange or telegraph office.

[6] Legal maximum hours 9 per day, 48 per week for women and minors 16 and under 18.

[7] Any operator who has held a license for 1 year shall be paid at the rate of $16.50.

[8] Class A: Cities, towns, villages, boroughs, or townships having 50,000 or more inhabitants.
Class B: Cities, towns, villages, boroughs, or townships having more than 5,000 and under 50,000 inhabitants.
Class C: Cities, towns, villages, boroughs, or townships having 3,000 to 5,000 inhabitants.
Class D: Cities, towns, villages, boroughs, or townships having under 3,000 inhabitants.

[9] Legal maximum 54-hour week applies to females in public housekeeping, manufacturing, mechanical, mercantile, or laundry occupations, telephone operators in towns of 1,500 population and over. Industrial commission may allow longer hours during emergency periods not exceeding aggregate of 4 weeks a year.

[10] Learners employed on piece-work basis must be paid piece-work earnings when such average hourly earnings during week exceed this rate.

[11] Legal maximum hours 10¼ per day, 54 per week for women and minors under 18 in manual or mechanical labor in any employment other than manufacturing .

[12] Legal maximum hours for females 16 and over, 10 per day, 54 per week.

[13] Basic hourly rates for other workers may be paid for continuous employment of less than 4 weeks, but employer must choose between weekly and hourly basis of pay and may not change from week to week.

[14] Legal maximum hours 8 per day, 48 per week, for women and minors under 18. Over 8 per day allowed only to make 1 shorter day in week.

ARGENTINE WARTIME LEGISLATION ON PRICES AND WAGES[1]

Price-Control Measures

COMPREHENSIVE emergency legislation for the prevention of profiteering and the export of articles of prime necessity was enacted in Argentina on September 8, 1939 (law No. 12591). Under this law, maximum initial retail prices of articles of prime necessity (food, clothing, housing, etc.) are to be fixed at the average prices prevailing in each region during the first 15 days of August 1939. The Executive Authority shall also determine the maximum prices which factories, middlemen, importers, and wholesale dealers shall charge to retail merchants. From the effective date of this law every person or enterprise having articles coming under the law, and which are not intended for his or its own use, is required to report such fact to the Minister of Agriculture. Severe penalties, including imprisonment in some cases, are provided for violations of the law.

Reduction of wages or salaries because of the fixing of maximum prices authorized by the law is prohibited, and the executives of the Republic and of the Provinces shall impose fines of from 100 to 500 pesos for each illegal pay reduction.

On the day of the passage of the act (September 8) regulations were also issued creating an honorary Provisions Control Commission, the duty of which is to propose to the President the products whose prices are to be fixed and the maximum prices for them. The President was also authorized to appoint local advisory committees.

Medical and dental supplies.—In accordance with the efforts of the Government to restrain speculation in prices of essential articles, the National Hygiene Office issued a resolution stating that the price of drugs and surgical and dental supplies must not exceed the average

[1] Data are from Argentina, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto, Dirección de Investigaciones, Archivo y Propaganda, Informaciones Argentinas, Buenos Aires, issues of September 15, October 1, October 15, and November 1, 1939; Union Industrial Argentina, Argentina Fabril, Buenos Aires, October 1939 U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Commerce Reports, Washington, issues of September 30, October 7, and October 14, 1939; U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, Foreign Agriculture, Washington, November 1939; and New York Times, New York, November 22, 1939, p. 1.

price of the same articles during the first 15 days of August. All such products which were shipped to Argentina after August 25 are excepted.

Reporting of supplies in stock.—On September 13, the Government issued an emergency decree providing that retail or wholesale commission merchants, dealing in food and certain other necessaries, must within 15 days from publication of the decree make a sworn statement of their stock and must register with the Ministry of Agriculture.

Prohibition of Exports

The President is authorized to restrict or prohibit the export of merchandise when the needs of the country demand it. A decree of September 2 prohibited the export of fuel. By decree No. 450 of September 21, the President prohibited the export of certain metals and their alloys and combinations.

Other Control Measures

Other measures of control included the issuance of new money exchange regulations, the adoption of a new import policy designed to prevent purchases from any European countries except Great Britain and France during the war, the abolition of Government price guaranties for certain farm products, and the restriction of radio-broadcasting hours.

INCREASES IN FAMILY ALLOWANCES FOR BRITISH SOLDIERS

IN NOVEMBER 1939 the usual allowances for the children of British soldiers were increased and the special allowances in cases of hardship were raised. From November 13 the allowance for the family of the lowest paid soldier with 4 children was increased from 35s. to 39s. per week, and beginning with that date it became possible to grant additional allowances up to £2 [1] per week (previous to November 13, 1939, only a total of £2 including the normal grant was authorized). These rates are considerably more substantial than in 1914. By the middle of November the normal allowances on the new scale had reached the rate of £37,000,000 per annum for the Army alone. Whether or not even this sum will eliminate distress in families is yet uncertain, for it depends to a great extent on how the Special Allowances Committee interprets the term "exceptional hardship" which has in some cases been mainly associated with high rents.

[1] Exchange rate of pound in November 1939=$3.92.

The Economist (London), from which the above data were taken,[2] comments that—

> Ideally, there should be a minimum income, proportioned to the size of the family, below which no soldier's allowances should be permitted to fall, and such a minimum would probably be higher than the smallest sums which will be paid under the new scheme.

WARTIME FOOD AND PRICE CONTROL IN GREAT BRITAIN [3]

FOOD and price control in Great Britain has been established under powers granted to the Government by the terms of the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act and the Prices of Goods Act, both of which are wartime measures adopted in 1939. Special orders issued under the first of these two laws provided for the formation of food control committees, subject to orders of the Minister of Food, and fixing maximum retail food prices; the object of the prices of goods law is to prevent a rise in the prices of certain articles (to be specified by Board of Trade orders) to a higher level than that justified by unavoidable increases in costs caused by the war.

Food Control

Order number 55 of the Defense Regulations, 1939, issued under the Emergency Powers (Defense) Act [4] provides that a competent authority may by order provide "for regulating or prohibiting the production, treating, keeping, storage, movement, transport, distribution, disposal, acquisition, use, or consumption of articles of any description, and in particular for controlling the prices at which they may be sold." Labor is directly affected by the retail prices and provisions for rationing food, established by the Ministry of Food, and by the operations of local food control committees, under this regulation.

Each local authority or two or more authorities together must appoint a food control committee consisting of 15 members, of whom 5 represent retail trade and the remaining 10 are representative of all classes of persons within the area and must include 2 women. In Northern Ireland such committees must have 9 members, of whom 3 are trade members and 1 is a woman. Each food control committee must appoint a chief officer at its first meeting.

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[2] The Economist, London, November 18, 1939, p. 247.

[3] Data are from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette, October 1939 (p. 362), and December 1939 (p. 410); Local Government Chronicle, London, (Chas. Knight & Co., Ltd.), September 30 (p. 1007), October 7 (p. 1036), and 14 (p. 1059), and November 18 (p. 1158), 1939; Economist (London), September 2, 1939 (p. 440); Political and Economic Planning, in Planning, October 24, 1939 (p. 3); Labor Press Service (Labor Party Press), October 25, 1939 (p. 4); and Manchester Guardian, November 21, 1939 (p. 7).

[4] For a statement of the scope of this legislation see Monthly Labor Review, January 1940.

By order of the Minister of Food every retailer of foodstuffs was required to be licensed by the food control committee of the area in which his business was situated, effective October 9, 1939. No person may sell at retail any of the foods specified by the Minister of Food unless he is licensed, and the food control committee may revoke or suspend the license granted to any retailer. Provision is made for issuance of new licenses if a business is transferred because of the death of a license holder. Food control committees must keep records, as prescribed by the Minister of Food, and also a register of licensed retailers. Retailers must furnish such particulars of their operations and stocks as the appropriate committee requires.

Catering establishments, institutions, and residential establishments needing any of the foods subject to control after November 27, 1939, were also obliged to register with the food control committee in their region, which in turn furnished them with certificates of registration. A food control committee is empowered to revoke or suspend the registration of any establishment.

Within this framework the Minister of Food has issued orders fixing retail prices of essential foodstuffs, such as butter, eggs, meat, potatoes, and sugar. Orders promulgated prior to September 8 were made by the Board of Trade. In preparation for rationing of bacon, ham, butter, and sugar which commenced on January 8, 1940, consumers as well as institutions registered with their retailers in the late weeks of 1939.

Prices of Goods Act

Goods subject to the price provisions of the Prices of Goods Act are to be specified by the Board of Trade, and it is unlawful for anyone to sell the specified products at more than the permitted price. The permitted price is that of similar goods on August 21, 1939, plus an amount reasonably justified by increases in cost of production and selling. Although the Board of Trade is empowered to fix prices, traders are allowed the right of appeal before a referee and three assessors.

Enforcement of the law is vested in a Central Price Regulation Committee, assisted by local committees representing producers and consumers. Local committees are to hear complaints and may report them to the central committee in their discretion. If it is agreed that the case warrants prosecution, the central body is empowered to request the Board of Trade to institute proceedings. Action may also be taken by the Directors of Public Prosecutions. The committees are vested with the power to compel the production of books and accounts. Penalties are specified in the legislation for failure to abide by its terms.

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FAMILY ALLOWANCES FOR SOLDIERS IN THE SOVIET UNION

AN ORDER, published by the Supreme Soviet of the Soviet Union on October 10, 1939, provides allowances for the families of soldiers in the military service.[1] The rates of allowance are as follows: 80 rubles [2] per month to a family without self-supporting members; 120 rubles to a family consisting of 2 persons; 160 rubles to a family consisting of 3 or more persons. These rates are reduced 50 percent if the family lives in a rural district.

Family members considered as being without support are children up to 16 years of age, or 18 years if attending school without a scholarship; brothers and sisters up to 16 years, or 18 years if attending school without a scholarship and their parents are unable to work; a father over 60 years of age, or a mother over 55 years; a wife and other disabled relatives unable to perform any kind of work.

In the cities a special soviet committee is appointed to decide on applications for the allowance. In rural districts this authorization is given to the village soviets.

A decision of the committee or of the village soviet may be appealed to the Soviet Executive Committee, or to the Soviet of the Peoples Commissars in those Republics which have a different administrative division.

If a change occurs in a soldier's family receiving allowance, which deprives it of its right to an allowance, the latter is discontinued from the time the change occurred.

[1] Izvestiya (Soviet official daily), Moscow, October 11, 1939, p. 1.
[2] Ruble=19 cents.

Employment and Labor Conditions

RECOMMENDATIONS OF CALIFORNIA COMMISSION ON REEMPLOYMENT

THE Governor of California, on March 4, 1939, created the California Commission on Reemployment, charging it with "the responsibility of analyzing the unemployment problem." The report of this commission,[1] recently issued, contains five major recommendations—the creation of a new State planning board, the undertaking of a works program involving the establishment of a system of producers' and consumers' cooperatives, the creation of an agency for the purchasing of agricultural surpluses, extension of the Federal-State program for rural housing, and new or improved administrative practices.

Realizing the broad implications of its recommendations, the Commission urges that the widest possible publicity be given and that hearings be held, to allow discussion both for and against its proposals, and asks that its proposals be considered in the light of the following:

1. From the viewpoint of our present economy, is competition from the proposed production and distribution units more undesirable than the toll which is placed upon private enterprise through constantly increasing taxes to maintain the unemployed on a dole?
2. Would it be worth while to analyze our entire tax structure so as to determine what governmental services, outmoded under present conditions, could be eliminated, thereby providing a basis for the sound investment of taxpayers' money in self-liquidating reemployment projects in order to broaden prosperity and increase the taxable base of the Commonwealth?

Action by the State legislature will be necessary to put the plan into complete effect. Although it does not meet in regular session until 1941, it is reported that a special session may be called.

State Planning Board

The proposed new planning board would supersede the existing board and take over its duties. In addition, it would have the following functions: (*a*) The integration of all State departments, assisting in the development of adequate and uniform statistics, and securing cooperation from all the departments in coping with the problem of unemployment; (*b*) the maintenance of close relations with all Federal

[1] California. Governor's Commission on Reemployment. Reemployment. Sacramento, 1939. The members of the commission were the following: John R. Richards (chairman), Edwin Booth, Dr. Edward L. Hardy, Herbert C. Jones, Dr. Theodore J. Kreps, Capt. Edward Macauley, Richard S. Sachse, and Dr. Paul S. Taylor.

agencies, making available services that may in any way help to improve unemployment conditions, and the full development of the cooperation of these agencies in future constructive programs; (*c*) the examination and study of all angles of the State's economy, from the costs of government to natural and human resources, and the recommendation of procedures and legislation, if required, to improve existing conditions.

Program of Self-Help Production

The Commission favors the continuance of present work-relief projects, and recommends that they be developed, centrally planned, and fitted into the reemployment program for the State as a whole. These include WPA and NYA projects, as well as those of the State Relief Administration.

In addition, the commission recommends the establishment of what is essentially a "production-for-use" system, under which unemployed persons on relief would produce as many as possible of the items called for in their budget. This system would form part of the recommended program of work projects.

The commission believes that its plan would result in a marked improvement of worker morale, enable the State to stretch its relief funds to the utmost, and make a wide range of commodities available to the relief clients. Also, "the constructive ideas that will come from a live, virile group, as opposed to a segregated and congealed stratum of society composed of unfortunates on the dole, will develop solutions for unemployment far beyond the expectation of this particular program."

The Governor, accepting the commission's report, ordered an experimental unit to be started in Los Angeles immediately.

GENERAL FEATURES OF PRODUCTION PLAN

The program is designed as an employment and rehabilitative measure for persons on relief, and contemplates the use of three types of groups: (1) Production cooperatives (similar to the existing system of self-help cooperatives) carrying on, under central supervision but with local self-government, various productive activities; (2) "direct production projects", i. e., work projects managed and controlled, without worker participation in management, by agents of the State; and (3) retail stores (called in the report, "consumers' cooperatives"[2]) through which the output of (1) and (2) would be distributed.

[2] It should be borne in mind that, throughout this discussion, the term "consumers' cooperatives" is used to mean the retail associations to be created under this relief-work program. Such organizations should not be confused with the Rochdale system of free cooperatives formed, financed, and controlled entirely by the members.

The whole program would be carried on under the works division of the State Relief Administration. Its control of the system would be through an agency termed the "wholesale control."

Membership in the producer and consumer cooperatives would be optional with the relief clients. Members would be of two classes—working members and associate members. Working members would be those employed in some capacity in the cooperative operations; such members would be dropped from relief rolls immediately their cooperative employment began, and their remuneration thereafter would come from the cooperative. Associate members would be those relief clients who authorize the State to issue part of their relief allowance in the form of credit at the consumers' cooperatives. Associate members would therefore be connected only with the consumers' cooperatives.

HOW THE PLAN WOULD OPERATE

The commission recommends that, at the beginning, the system should cover the production and distribution of all the items in the average relief budget that can be produced economically on the basis of a consumer demand of 5,000 relief cases.

In the works division an executive committee would be created on which the cooperatives would have minority representation. Through this committee a given production cooperative would be assigned to manufacture specified products, and would have a definite quota of output based upon the above consumer demand. The original working capital and raw materials necessary to operate would be advanced by the wholesale control, and charged as a loan.

Each group would be essentially self-operating and self-governing, but "must conform to the general policies and procedures established by the wholesale control."

Direct-production units would be created, as needed, to produce goods not practicable for immediate production by the cooperatives. These units would be used also as a practical training ground for future working members of the production cooperatives. Unlike the latter, the workers in them would not participate in the operation or management. Such projects, "when proved economical," would eventually be absorbed into the cooperative program.

The retail consumers' cooperatives would be stocked with the goods produced by the production cooperatives and the direct-production units, plus other goods purchased by the wholesale control from private wholesalers and supplied by it to the consumers' cooperatives, at wholesale prices. It is explained that this procedure would not only increase the range of choice at the stores but also enable the wholesale control to determine the demand for additional commodities before establishing new production projects to make them.

The associate members who voluntarily join the consumers' cooperative would authorize the State to issue at least $10 of their monthly allowance in the form of credit at the cooperative. They would receive the remainder (on the average, about $30) in cash.

The cooperative store would charge prevailing retail prices. The difference between the wholesale cost of goods, plus the cost of distribution, and the retail price would constitute a surplus from which "patronage dividends," in goods, would be granted. These dividends would be in addition to the relief allowance and would, it is thought, constitute an incentive for relief families to join the cooperative as associate members.

The workers in the production and distributing activities would be paid, in cash and in kind, at rates determined by the management of the cooperatives. The report does not specify the sources of the current money income which would be necessary to pay cash wages and other cash items of expense. Presumably, the wholesale control would use the assigned $10 of the associate members' relief allowances to purchase the production cooperatives' output. There could be no other sources of money income for the production cooperatives than the wholesale control, for under the plan their entire output must be disposed of to it.

In the years 1933 to 1936, the purpose of State assistance to self-help was to further the economic rehabilitation of the unemployed through autonomous self-help groups. In 1937 and 1938, according to a recent California report, the emphasis was changed to that of "relief savings with strict government control of units." [3] The new program seems to include a combination of the two purposes. Strict business and accounting control is planned, but an educational program is also to be launched and practical industrial training is to be given in the direct-production projects. In the production cooperatives "training in management and in operations must be provided from the start, and present and future workers must be required to undergo such education." The program, then, becomes "a method of reemployment" as well as "one of education, training, and placement."

It is estimated that for every unit, manufacturing and distributing for 5,000 persons, 450 persons would be removed from relief rolls.

INTEGRATION WITH EXISTING SELF-HELP GROUPS

If possible, existing self-help cooperatives [4] would be absorbed into the new system. Indeed, failure to join would result in forfeiture of further public assistance. However, considerable dislocation of

[3] University of California. Bureau of Public Administration. 1939 Legislative Problems Report No. 9. Self-help Cooperatives in California (p. 10).

[4] For data see Monthly Labor Review, issues of April and May 1933, December 1935, August 1937, and December 1939.

existing groups might result, as the program calls for physical concentration of productive activities, for purposes of efficient operation. The works division would be authorized to merge or consolidate existing groups in one locality or city, in order to reduce the amount of capital necessary to start the first unit under the program.

Agricultural Surpluses

The commission recommends that in the State relief administration's reorganized works division, an agency be established to purchase California farm surpluses; that, through the machinery of that division, agreements be made with existing farm-marketing control boards for the purchase of these surpluses at fair prices; and that the fresh products be distributed at once to consumers.

Recommendation is also made for the processing of such other surpluses as it is possible to use for distribution among relief clients, through the cooperative production and distribution machinery in the works division.

After the cooperative production and distribution system has developed sufficiently, the commission recommends that the surpluses be paid for in credits at the cooperative stores. "This practice would extend the distribution base, give value to the farmer for his surpluses and materially reduce the debit against the tax dollar for food for people on relief."

Rural Housing

The commission advocates Federal aid for the resettlement of migratory laborers at present in California and in other States of destination. The State of California and its political subdivisions should share to a reasonable extent in expanding the work of the United States Farm Security Administration in the State. Private housing programs should receive State and Federal encouragement, and as soon as practicable, legislation should be enacted constituting the State a legal housing authority.

The commission recommends the construction of 5,000 dwellings, in groups ranging up to 300 units, located in such parts of the State as housing and labor needs dictate. Such a program would make possible the employment of persons on relief in much necessary work such as street grading and leveling of ground for construction, besides furnishing indirect employment through the purchasing of materials.

Acquisition of sufficient acreage, in connection with each prospect, is recommended, in order to permit cooperative farming by the residents. The land would be cultivated in a common farm, not in individual garden plots. Such a community arrangement would, in the commission's opinion, enable the tenants to leave their homes temporarily to accept such outside farm employment as they could find, the

community farm being worked in the meantime by the remaining residents.

This part of the program is designed to assist persons who are now "homeless farm laborers," and to give them an opportunity to become self-sustaining members of some community. For this an appropriation of $1,500,000 is recommended. This the commission considers a modest amount in view of the more than $10,000,000 now spent annually by the State for rent allowances for people on relief, much of which is for "the rent of subnormal structures and is supporting an urban housing situation diametrically opposed to the objectives of the USHA in such areas."

Administrative Practices

Under this proposal the commission includes: (*a*) A rental service in the State relief administration to aid relief clients to procure suitable dwellings; (*b*) the development and maintenance by the State relief administration of a central file or assistance index of all individuals in California receiving any kind of public aid; (*c*) a joint study by the California employment commission and the State relief commission with a view to recommending to these respective agencies improved procedures in placements by the State employment service and in vocational counseling, and the organization of a central assistance intake service; (*d*) the appointment of a representative of the youth group on the apprenticeship council; and (*e*) immediate steps for the introduction of civil service in the State relief administration.

OVERHEAD MAN-HOURS IN PWA CONSTRUCTION [1]

By JOHN A. BALL and BERNARD H. TOPKIS, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

EVERY $1,000,000 of construction contracts awarded on the PWA non-Federal program required an average of 68,000 man-hours of overhead labor [2] in addition to employment at the construction site and employment in producing and distributing materials used on the job. This figure includes the office work and supervision of the general contractor and the services of project sponsors and professional help such as architects and engineers. The number of hours varied

[1] This is a part of a special report published separately under the same title. (Serial No. R. 1025.)

[2] The term overhead labor refers to that labor necessary for the beginning and completion of a non-Federal PWA project other than site labor and labor in producing and distributing materials used on the job. It includes the hours of the general contractor other than those reported as site labor; it also includes time spent by the sponsor and professional help in connection with the project. Although this labor may be regarded as overhead labor with respect to the PWA project, and is so referred to in the text, from the point of view of the general contractor, sponsor, and professional firm, it includes time not usually considered as overhead. The man-hour figures do not include the time of office employees of subcontractors engaged for the project by the general contractor.

according to the type of construction. The average hours resulting from street and road work (93,000) and in water and sewerage projects (94,000) were nearly twice the average number for building construction (54,000). These findings are based on two studies, one covering the overhead labor of general contractors engaged on PWA construction and the other covering the overhead labor of sponsors of completed PWA projects.

During the past 6 years the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been measuring the amount of labor created by construction projects financed by the Public Works program. The labor resulting from this construction, for the most part, consists of the man-hours worked at the site of construction projects and the labor involved in producing and distributing the materials used on the job. In addition to this labor, however, there is also, as noted above, overhead work in contractors' offices and work performed by the county, city, or State authorities in sponsoring projects, and work involved in surveys, consultations, and other professional services provided on a fee or contract basis. The present study was undertaken to measure these man-hours, thus completing the last link in the analysis of the employment generated by public works.[3]

Method and Scope of Study

The phase of the study dealing with the overhead labor of the general contractor was conducted with the cooperation of the Associated General Contractors of America, and covered 93 contractors in 12 States,[4] with a volume of PWA contracts in 1936, 1937, and 1938 of more than $115,000,000. This represented approximately 7 percent of the total contract awards on the non-Federal program during the 3 years. Firms included in the study were engaged on contracts involving building construction, water and sewerage projects, and street and road work. The volume of contracts awarded for these three types of projects on the non-Federal program amounted to more than 87 percent of the total awards.[5] Agents of the Bureau visited the offices of general contractors and obtained from records

[3] The Bureau compiles monthly data with respect to site employment on construction projects. In order to determine the labor involved in producing and distributing materials the Bureau has conducted a series of man-hour studies in several industries. Reports of these studies appeared in the following issues of the Monthly Labor Review: Steel manufacturing (May 1935), cement production (March 1936), lumber production (May 1937), rail transportation of construction materials (October 1937), production of clay products (December 1937), production and distribution of plumbing and heating supplies (June 1938), manufacture and distribution of electrical products (March 1939), and production and distribution of sand and gravel (July 1939).

[4] Firms covered by the survey were located in the following States: New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Ohio, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Tennessee, and Alabama.

[5] The percentage distribution for these types of project on the PWA non-Federal program was as follows: Building construction, 55.9 percent; water and sewerage, 20.9 percent: and streets and roads, 10.4 percent.

the volume of contracts received for PWA work, for other Federal work, and for private projects together with the total overhead man-hours worked and disbursements for salaries. Man-hours and salary disbursements attributable to PWA contracts were allocated on the basis of the proportion the PWA contracts formed of total contract awards for each contractor. The overhead man-hours allocated to PWA work were totaled for each type of project and divided by the value of PWA contracts to determine man-hours per $1,000,000 of contract awards. These figures were weighted by the proportion of each type of project to the total of these types for the entire PWA non-Federal program to arrive at a combined figure of man-hours per $1,000,000 of PWA work by private contractors.

To obtain the overhead man-hour data of the sponsor and professional help, the Bureau analyzed the records of a representative group of 328 completed PWA projects, totaling more than $127,000,000 of awards of construction contracts. These projects were located in nearly every State in the Union and were similar in construction classification to those covered in the survey of general contractors. Agents of the Bureau secured data from sponsors representing special districts, counties, municipalities, cities, and States, and analyzed records of completed projects compiled by the Public Works Administration. For projects for which the sponsor had hired professional or technical help, the man-hours represented by the fees were obtained by interviews and mail from architectural, engineering, and testing firms.[6] Man-hours per $1,000,000 of contracts were computed by totaling for each of the three types of projects the hours spent by the sponsor and professional help, and dividing by the value of PWA construction contracts awarded. The weighted general figure of overhead man-hours was computed in a manner similar to that used in determining the combined man-hour data of the general contractor.

Man-Hours Provided by the General Contractor and Sponsor

The two combined man-hour figures were added, giving 68,184 hours as the number of hours of employment contributed by the general contractor [7] and the sponsor [8] and professional assistance per $1,000,000 of contract awards. (See table 1.) The hours varied widely, showing 94,004 for water and sewerage projects and 53,958 for building construction. In the combined man-hour figure, the overhead of the general contractor accounted for about one-third of

[6] It was not found practicable to obtain the man-hours resulting from the payment of fees for legal work.

[7] According to the Census of the Construction Industry, 1935, Department of Commerce, a general contractor is an establishment, the major business of which consists of contracting with the owner (or his agent) for the entire work on a given construction project, being responsible for the execution of the whole, and usually doing some portion of the actual work with its own forces.

[8] The sponsor of a non-Federal project is the governmental unit or public agency to which the grant of funds is made by the Public Works Administration and which is responsible for financing the remaindes of the cost of the project.

the total labor and the sponsor and professional help for two-thirds. The work of the general contractor in building projects and street and road work represented approximately one-fourth of the total labor requirements, but in water and sewerage construction, it accounted for about one-half.

TABLE 1.—*Man-Hour, per $1,000,000 of PWA Contracts Awarded, Provided by Services of General Contractor and of Sponsor and Professional Help*

Type of project	Man-hours per $1,000,000 of contracts		
	Total	Services of general contractor	Services of sponsor and professional help
All types [1]	68,184	23,069	45,115
Building construction	53,958	14,949	39,009
Water and sewerage	94,004	45,572	48,432
Streets and roads	92,734	21,421	71,313

[1] Average weighted by the value of contracts awarded for each of the 3 types of projects on the PWA non-Federal program.

Application to PWA Construction Contract Awards

Since the beginning of the Public Works program in 1933 non-Federal contracts totaling more than $3,362,000,000 have been awarded. Assuming the present study to be representative of the sponsors and general contractors participating in the program and estimating the overhead labor of the subcontractors on the same basis as that of the general contractors, the overhead labor resulting from these contract awards amounted to more than 360,000,000 man-hours.

Productivity of Labor and Industry

INDIVIDUAL PRODUCTIVITY DIFFERENCES[1]

By W. D. Evans, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

STUDIES of labor productivity in the past have, for the most part, concerned themselves with averages for occupations, departments, entire plants, or, in some cases, whole sections of industry. This has tended to draw attention from the fact that in any one establishment substantial productivity differences may exist between individuals engaged in similar tasks, and that these differences have an important bearing on many social as well as industrial problems.

Information regarding the way in which individuals may be distributed when ranked by their efficiencies is often of major importance in settling questions of personnel policy. For example, at the beginning of the industrial process, many firms use aptitude tests of various kinds to distinguish individuals who are likely to prove efficient employees. Once employed, workers go through a training period, often at a lower wage rate than that received by permanent employees. Any attempt to set the length of this training period so that the average worker will be fully accommmodated while, at the same time, the more adaptable will not be unduly penalized, involves a study of individual differences. To the fully trained worker, efficiency ratings, used by many companies, are of paramount interest, influencing as they do his chances of promotion or separation The preparation of such ratings involves some knowledge of the way in which individuals are distributed around a group average.

Beyond the field of private industry, individual productivity differences are related to many questions of public policy. For example, the problem of the slow worker must be considered in every attempt to set minimum-wage scales in industry by legislation, since minimum wages may result in the displacement of the less efficient or the slower workers from some industries. To prevent this type of displacement, it is frequently proposed that the affected employees be classed as "substandard," "handicapped," or "slow" workers, and so be permitted to retain their jobs. The merits of such a proposition can be determined only in the individual instance, but the importance of some mode of attack on the question of definition of the terms used is

[1] This article is the first part of a report published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in pamphlet form (Serial No. R. 1040). Copies of the full report are available upon request.

apparent. Although the slow worker is distinguished from the more efficient on the basis of his output, a line of demarcation between the classes hardly exists. Nevertheless, it is probable that slow workers considered as a group lack some of the qualities that make their fellows more efficient. The lack of a particular quality may be discernible only to the carefully trained physician or psychiatrist; it may be merely the result of premature aging. By gradations, the deficiency emerges as an obvious, definitely describable disability that permits of a classification of "handicapped worker." The line, if any exists, between the classification of slow workers and handicapped workers is extremely tenuous.

The employment of slow or handicapped workers is a point touched on in many agreements between employers and unions of employees.[2]

Recognizing that slower workers, as a class, are most likely to be affected by any changes, legal or industrial, it becomes of importance to know something of their characteristics. How many workers, of what sex and what age, are likely to be involved under any given set of conditions?

The present widespread interest in general health as a matter of public concern affords another point of contact with the problem of individual productivity differences. Many workers, oppressed by fear of losing their jobs, are under constant pressure to increase their productivity to higher levels. The sustained effort to keep output at a point above that which can be maintained comfortably inevitably has a deleterious effect on both the physical and mental health of the workers, a fact which has been recognized by the medical profession.[3] Straight-line production methods, requiring workers to maintain a fixed rate of labor, may not unduly burden the more efficient. Their effect on the less gifted, on the other hand, is open to less pleasant conjecture.[4]

Research workers have shown that a single job or occupation may call into play scores or even hundreds of different aptitudes or basic abilities. Differences in productivity appear to spring fundamentally from differences in these basic abilities. However, the training of the worker and his application to the job at hand also condition productivity.

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[2] A number of union agreements establishing piece rates specify that not all, but a fixed proportion of, the total number of workers shall earn on the average not less than a specified amount per hour of labor. Agreements phrased in this way are designed not only to insure the maintenance of a certain level of earnings for competent employees, but also to permit the employer some latitude in hiring slower workers. Some agreements contain specific clauses governing the wages and conditions of employment of handicapped workers. In addition, one objective of the seniority rules found in many union contracts is to prevent undue discrimination against the worker slightly less efficient than his fellows, especially the worker who, through age, has become so while on the job.

[3] For example, see Medical Research Council (Great Britian), Industrial Health Research Board, Report No. 75: Sickness Absence and Labor Wastage (1936): and Report No. 82: The Machine and the Worker (1938).

[4] See U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 662: Productivity of Labor in the Cotton Garment Industry, by N. I. Stone (p. 55).

The study of individual productivity differences requires information covering a large number of workers employed on the same job. Such data are scarce. Examination of all available distributions of workers by their productivity shows a typical form, with many workers clustered near the average productivity for the group as a whole, and with extreme variations above or below the average less frequent as the distance away from the average increases.

In many occupations selection of personnel is not stressed; that is, no particular attempt is made to obtain the most efficient workers for employment. When the distribution of workers by their productivities in such an occupation is examined it is seen to be nearly symmetrical. In other words, about as many workers will be found at any distance below the average productivity for the group as will be found the same distance above it. Selection of personnel by the management tends to reduce the number found below the average and the distribution loses its symmetry.

The tendency for workers to be scattered away from the average productivity rather than grouped closely around it is, of course, greatest in a handicraft occupation where production per unit of time depends solely on speed of the worker and not on the speed of machines or equipment.

A number of productivity distributions of trained workers in handicraft occupations were examined. All those referring to jobs in which selection of personnel was not an important factor were found to be strikingly similar, the spread or dispersion of the workers around the average for the group being almost the same in every case. This was true despite the fact that the occupations studied demanded widely differing degrees of skill. In each case two-thirds of all workers were found within limits of roughly 23 percent above and below the average productivity of the group as a whole. About one-sixth of the workers, on the other hand, were in general 23 percent or more below the average in efficiency, and an equal proportion was more than 23 percent above the average. The range between the least and the most efficient was such that in a large body of workers those individuals with the greatest productivity would be found working at a rate 3 and 4 times as great as those at the lower end of the distribution.

The remarkable similarity noted between productivity distributions of workers in vastly different handicraft occupations suggests that an objective approach to a definition for "slow" or "handicapped" workers may be revealed by further study of the subject. The development of such a criterion must, of course, wait upon the availability of the type of information needed to test the hypothesis.

In connection with the study of productivity distributions, some information on the productivity at different age levels of workers in manual occupations has been examined. The data available show

that, in some occupations, productivity does not in general reach its maximum until the worker is at least 30 to 40 years of age. Moreover, the decline after the most productive age has been reached is not abrupt. The dispersion of individuals at each age level around the average productivity of all at that age tends to be about the same for all age groups, so that even at advanced ages many individuals may be found whose productivity is well above the average for the younger age groups. This would tend to indicate that the "slow worker" problem is not necessarily even in major part an "older worker" problem. Because of the relative infrequency of older employees in industry, it is possible that slow workers, as a group, may be predominantly younger persons.

The present discussion is frankly exploratory in nature. The data available at the present time are not sufficient to answer many of the questions raised. It is hoped that this discussion, indicating some of the potentialities of a more extensive study, will serve to stimulate the collection and publication of the type of information required by an adequate inquiry.

MECHANIZATION IN THE BITUMINOUS-COAL INDUSTRY

AS MUCH as half of the annual underground production of bituminous coal in the United States may be loaded mechanically within the next 10 years, as compared with an estimated one-fourth of the output so loaded in 1938, according to a study by the Work Projects Administration.[1] Since shoveling coal into mine cars requires from 50 to 60 percent of the total force in a bituminous mine, the change from hand to machine loading has great significance in raising the output of mine labor and also in reducing the employment opportunities involved in producing a given quantity of product.

Although analysis of data for individual mining areas shows significant differences in natural conditions and technology, the authors of the study are of the opinion that employers, employees, and the Government are being forced to regard the industry in its national as well as local aspects. For the country as a whole, there have been outstanding advances in mechanized loading and strip mining since 1935; and these forms of mechanization are expected to continue to be important factors in the industry in the coming years, even though unpredictable forces will influence developments.

[1] Work Projects Administration, National Research Project, and U. S. Bureau of Mines. Mechanization, Employment, and Output per Man in Bituminous-Coal Mining, by Willard E. Hotchkiss and others. Philadelphia, 1939. (2 vols.)

The following discussion deals with mechanized loading. If the conditions are favorable, strip mining is more advantageous in man-hour output than deep mining, even in low-wage areas, and it would doubtless have grown in importance even if wages had not been raised. Nevertheless, the general competitive advantage of strip mining over deep mining has been intensified because of the increase in wages in areas supplying the largest part of the bituminous-coal output.

The percentage distribution of bituminous coal mechanically loaded, by regions, for 1930 and 1935 to 1937,is shown in the accompanying table. Although the proportion of the total tonnage mechanically loaded in the Middle West, chiefly in Illinois and Indiana, decreased from 57.5 percent of the total in 1930 to 43.7 percent in 1937, this is still the chief center of mechanization. In the southern Appalachian area, mainly West Virginia, the increase was greatest in the same period, rising from 7.6 to 21.6 percent of the total. Little change occurred in the other geographic subdivisions.

Percentage Distribution of Bitumionous Coal Mechanically Loaded, by Region, 1930 and 1935–37

Region	Percent of bituminous coal mechanically loaded in—			
	1930	1935	1936	1937
United States	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Middle West and Southwest	58.2	57.4	51.0	44.4
Middle West (Illinois, Indiana, west Kentucky, Missouri, and Iowa)	57.5	56.7	50.2	43.7
Southwest (Arkansas and Oklahoma)	.7	.7	.8	.7
Appalachian	25.9	23.6	31.9	40.0
Northern (Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Maryland)	18.3	17.2	16.8	18.4
Southern (West Virginia, Virginia, east Kentucky, and Tennessee)	7.6	6.4	15.1	21.6
Alabama	4.4	2.8	2.6	2.5
Rocky Mountain (Wyoming, Montana, Washington, North Dakota, Colorado, Utah, and New Mexico)	11.5	16.2	14.5	13.1

In spite of significant advances in new areas (as for example, West Virginia where mechanically loaded coal in 1937 was seven and a half times that for 1935), the States in which machine loading was concentrated before 1935 also continued to increase their ratio of machine-loaded to hand-loaded tonnage in 1936 and 1937. For Illinois the increase was from 55.3 percent of the underground product in 1935 to 70.7 in 1937, in Indiana from 62.5 to 80.6, and in Wyoming from 89.8 to 92.1 percent. In Montana there was a slight decline.

The raising of wages in low-wage areas has a greater effect on mechanization of deep mines than of strip mines. Recent increases in the amount of mechanical loading in West Virginia and other areas where wages were raised directly reflect the wage changes. The competition from eastern areas where large tonnages are mechanically

loaded tends to stimulate further mechanization elsewhere. Labor standards, flexibility of management, types of equipment, and the physical conditions under which these forces operate affect productivity and are likely to continue to do so. However, the rapid increase in mechanized loading both extensively and intensively in recent years has affected productivity markedly.

Intensive advance is exemplified by the transition from pit-car to mobile loaders in Illinois and Indiana. Introduction of newer and smaller designs of mobile loaders to replace hand-loaded conveyors is another. Any change whereby machinery is substituted for manpower represents intensive mechanization. Of the different kinds of installations, mobile loaders are showing the greatest gains and pit cars the greatest loss.

Despite the decrease in jobs since 1929, the employment loss in bituminous mining has been less than in many other branches of industry. The report here reviewed states, however, that—

> Man-hours of employment for miners cannot be greatly enhanced in the years ahead except through some concerted program for stimulating a steady and fairly rapid increase in the market for coal-generated energy. About the only feasible way to prevent mechanization from diminishing employment opportunity is to make it an instrument, through volume of sales, by which employment opportunity may be increased.

Research is necessary to find ways of increasing coal's share of the energy market and developing new uses for coal. The bituminous industry has a productive capacity far in excess of prospective demand. Economic forces are likely to increase business for the stronger mines and give no relief to the weaker ones. The history of industry shows that a reduction of costs through mechanization is an irresistible urge. Mechanized loading is only one step in improving technology in the bituminous mines. As it is extended and productivity of workers increases, it is inevitable that either production must expand or the volume of employment as measured in total man-hours must decline. The number of jobs available would have declined much more sharply than it did if employment policies had not been adopted which involved both temporary and permanent reductions in working hours per day and week.

Human adjustments must accompany technological changes, and those operators who have installed mechanical loaders in cooperation with workers have found this policy advantageous, according to the report. The least disturbance occurred in mines where mechanization progressed at a pace which obviated the need for displacing individual workers. It is concluded that use of cooperative policies reduces the amount of dislocation arising from the introduction of mechanized processes in individual mines, and therefore this is not a major problem. The greatest loss of jobs comes to employees in high-

cost mines which are either forced out of business or lose orders because of their competitive disadvantage.

Operators represent only one of the groups interested in the employment problem in the bituminous industry. Organized labor has participated in the councils of a part of the industry for many years and in recent years throughout nearly the entire industry. Although labor's influence on policies other than wages and hours has been largely indirect, workers have participated in the advance of mechanical loading in Illinois and Indiana, where it was introduced to compensate for adverse wage differentials. The report adds that the official attitude of the United Mine Workers has contrasted with that of many other unions and that opposition to mechanization "has come largely from local groups and has not been a reflection of general policy."

Organized labor has shown increasing interest in the general problems of the industry, has been conspicuously successful in maintaining labor standards in the organized areas, and has extended the coverage of collective bargaining over the whole industry. The authors of the report believe that labor will not willingly retreat from the position it has won in respect to wage levels. Employment opportunity is greatest in the best equipped and managed mines. In Illinois and Indiana, for example, loss of jobs between 1923 and 1935 was far greater in hand-loading than in mechanized mines.

As the public also has a stake in the bituminous-coal industry, the State and Federal Governments have studied its problems and established stabilization machinery. The National Bituminous Coal Commission "apparently is not attempting to influence directly the mechanization movement, but mechanization is among the most obtrusive facts which its stabilization efforts must ultimately confront."

Women in Industry

ECONOMIC STATUS OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN

THE earnings of women who have spent 4 years in acquiring a college education and additional time in professional training have not been commensurate with the time and investment involved, with the exception of those with the highest type of preparation, represented by a doctor's degree. It appears from a recent study [1] that during the depression college women did not suffer seriously from unemployment, but many groups were affected adversely in the matter of salaries. In order to ascertain the "changing economic status and occupational opportunities and the responsibility for dependents of women in professions and business as revealed during the course of the depression," a survey was undertaken in 1935 by the American Association of University Women in cooperation with the United States Women's Bureau.[1] The study covered reports from 8,796 members of the association. These represented 50 percent of the employed members and about 25 percent of the total membership of the association in 1934. The data reported covered the 10-year period, 1925–35.

More than three-fourths (79 percent) of the women reporting had training for professional work or business in addition to their college education. The majority ranged in age from 25 to 50 years, only 7 percent being under 25 and 17 percent over 50. Only 13 percent of the women were married; 5 percent were widowed, separated, or divorced.

Unemployment, 1925–35

Almost all the women (94 percent) were employed on December 31, 1934, and 89 percent were working full time. Three percent of the women were in independent business and the others were working for an employer. A large proportion (69 percent) of the women were engaged in educational work; 28 percent were in other than educational pursuits, being employed as librarians, social, health, and religious workers, secretaries, home economists, research workers, clerical workers, personnel workers, etc.

During the depression unemployment was not a very serious problem for these women. In the 10-year period 1925–35, which included

[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bulletin No. 170: Economic Status of University Women in the United States of America, by Susan M. Kingsbury. Washington, 1939.

the depression years, only 8 percent were unemployed more than once and 21 percent were unemployed only once.

On December 31, 1934, only 6 percent were unemployed and 4 percent were doing part-time work. Of the 523 unemployed, 135 had been out of work less than a year, 211 had been idle from 1 to 5 years, and 75 had had no work for 5 years or more. Of the 415 unemployed who gave the reasons for their unemployment, over one-half (238) were idle for personal reasons and only 177 were involuntarily unemployed. One-third of the latter ascribed their unemployment to age or to their being married.

The type of occupation seems to have had little to do with unemployment, but married women had more unemployment and part-time work than single women, 25 percent of the former being unemployed on December 31, 1934, as compared with 3 percent of the latter.

The younger or less-experienced women were more generally among the unemployed. Thus, 40 percent of the unemployed had had less than 5 years' experience and 72 percent less than 10 years' experience, as compared with 17 and 36 percent, respectively, of the total number.

Earnings and the Depression

HIGHEST SALARY, 1925–35, AND TRAINING

With the exception of the women with a doctor's degree, the earnings of the college women were low, when the time and investment spent in their education are considered. Of those with doctor's degrees, 55 percent had received a maximum annual salary of $3,000 or more during the 10-year period 1925–35, and over one-fifth (22 percent) had earned $4,000 or more.

The difference in salaries between those with a doctor's degree, a master's degree with additional training, a master's degree alone, a bachelor's degree with additional training, and a bachelor's degree alone, is significant as showing the value of additional training. Only 20 percent of those with a master's degree and additional training received $3,000 or more a year, and only 6 percent of those with no advanced work reached that maximum.

Over a third (36 percent) of the women with a master's degree with or without additional training earned $2,500 or more, and the largest or modal group reached $2,000 to $2,500. The mode for the women with a bachelor's degree with advanced study was, however, $1,500 to $2,000, and for those without additional training only $1,000 to $1,500.

AGE AND EXPERIENCE IN RELATION TO EARNINGS

When age and experience were considered, salaries were again found to be low. As age and experience have been found to be closely connected, age as related to salary was alone considered. Compara-

tively lower salaries for women under 25 years of age were to be expected, but most of them and one-half of those between 25 and 30 years earned only $1,000 to $1,500 in 1934. The modal salaries of those 35 to 40 years were only $1,500 to $2,000, and for those 40 to 60 years and over were not above $2,500.

HIGHEST SALARY AND OCCUPATION

Nearly three-quarters (73 percent) of the women reporting as to their highest salaries during the 10-year period 1925–35 were in educational work and 27 percent were in other occupations. College executives received the highest salaries in the educational field; 41 percent received $3,000 or more, and 66 percent, $2,500 or more. The senior-high-school executives also received proportionately high salaries. The median salary group reached by elementary-school executives was $2,000 to $2,500, although 25 percent of them earned as high as $3,000 or more.

TABLE 1.—*Highest Salary, 1925–35, Reported by College Women in Occupations in Education*

Type of school	College women receiving—					
	Total	Under $1,500	$1,500 and under $2,000	$2,000 and under $2,500	$2,500 and under $3,000	$3,000 or more
	Number					
Total executives	1,063	74	173	251	213	352
Elementary	112	11	24	29	20	28
High school, junior and senior	278	26	58	65	53	76
College and administration	421	11	42	91	103	174
Normal and other	42	8	9	14	2	9
Not reporting type	210	18	40	52	35	65
Total teachers	4,227	1,054	1,206	1,076	548	343
Elementary	452	222	105	73	43	9
High school, junior and senior	1,919	495	616	481	222	105
College	905	56	183	304	190	172
Normal and other	72	19	22	17	6	8
Not reporting type	879	262	280	201	87	49
	Percent					
Total executives	100.0	7.0	16.3	23.6	20.0	33.1
Elementary	100.0	9.8	21.4	25.9	17.9	25.0
High school, junior and senior	100.0	9.4	20.9	23.4	19.1	27.3
College and administration	100.0	2.6	10.0	21.6	24.5	41.3
Normal and other						
Not reporting type	100.0	8.6	19.0	24.8	16.7	31.0
Total teachers	100.0	24.9	28.5	25.5	13.0	8.1
Elementary	100.0	49.1	23.2	16.2	9.5	2.0
High school, junior and senior	100.0	25.8	32.1	25.1	11.6	5.5
College	100.0	6.2	20.2	33.6	21.0	19.0
Normal and other						
Not reporting type	100.0	29.8	31.9	22.9	9.9	5.6

Nineteen percent of the college teachers received $3,000 or more, while 58 percent of the high-school teachers earned less than $2,000, and 49 percent of the teachers in elementary schools received less than $1,500.

In other occupational groups there was considerable variation in earnings, according to the type of work. Lawyers, independent-business women, personnel workers, and physicians and psychiatrists received the highest remuneration, from one-half to two-thirds earning $3,000 or more. From 20 to 30 percent of the home economists, nurses, editorial workers, research workers, sales and advertising executives, and managers also were in that salary group. Table 2 gives data on salaries of college women engaged in occupations other than education in the 10-year period:

TABLE 2.—*Highest Salary in 1925–35 Reported by College Women in Occupations Other Than Education*

Occupation	Total women	Number receiving—					
		Under $1,000	$1,000 and under $1,500	$1,500 and under $2,000	$2,000 and under $2,500	$2,500 and under $3,000	$3,000 and more
Women working for an employer	1,891	171	316	508	371	206	319
Artists	8		2	3	2	1	
Clerical workers	169	56	49	48	9	5	2
Editorial workers	53	3	8	15	6	7	14
Home economists	184	4	19	36	52	34	39
Lawyers	6					2	4
Librarians	373	17	59	137	92	35	33
Managers	64	1	4	20	18	3	18
Nurses	44	1	4	13	10	6	10
Personnel workers	118	1	9	14	21	15	58
Physicians, psychiatrists	44	2	5	5	4	7	21
Research workers	165	6	18	34	36	29	42
Sales, advertising and publishing executives	45	12	8	6	7	2	10
Secretaries	261	38	72	75	36	22	18
Social, health, religious workers	313	25	56	92	72	30	38
Others	44	5	3	10	6	8	12
Women in independent business	72	7	8	5	6	5	41
Teachers	11	2	3	2		1	3
Other professional	31	3	4	2	2	4	16
Others	30	2	1	1	4		22

The effect of the depression on the salaries of college women varied, as some groups studied did not seem to suffer much and others were affected seriously. Comparing the salaries in 1934 with the highest earnings in 1925–35, the proportion of executives in education who received $3,000 or more decreased 14 points. The teachers had about the same experience. In occupations other than education in which the women were working for an employer, there was a decrease during the 10 years of 40 percent in the women whose highest salary was $2,000 or more. The number of women receiving less than $1,500 as their highest salary, however, was almost twice as great in 1934 as in the period 1925–35. Those in independent business were most affected by the depression.

Responsibility for Dependents

Two-fifths (41 percent) of the college women studied were caring for one or more dependents. Of the 3,153 women who reported the number of dependents supported by them, 36 percent were entirely responsible for the support of 1 or more persons, and 76 women had the full care of three or more. About twice as many women were partially supporting dependents as had the entire support of dependents.

Most of the dependents were adults, only one-fifth of those with dependents caring for children. The greater proportion of the women with dependents (a little over three-fourths) were single women.

The number of women supporting dependents and the number of dependents, including those who were wholly dependent, are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Number of Dependents of College Women, and of Those Wholly Dependent*

Item	Number of women	Number of dependents	
		Total	Wholly dependent
Women with—			
1 dependent	1,364	1,364	450
2 dependents	1,005	2,010	552
3 dependents	393	1,179	283
4 dependents	180	720	198
5 dependents	211	1,055	111

The incomes of these college women who cared for dependents were not large. About one-quarter of them were earning less than $1,500, almost one-half less than $2,000, and slightly over two-thirds less than $2,500.

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED COLORED WORKERS IN MARYLAND, 1938

OF 27,726 colored males over 21 years of age found employed in 1938 by industrial inspectors in Maryland, 38.7 percent were occupied in workrooms and 20.0 percent as laborers. The corresponding percentages of the 186,147 white males so occupied were respectively 45.2 and 2.9, as indicated in the following table.[1] Of the total white males over 21, 11.6 percent were office workers, while two-tenths of 1 percent of the colored males over that age were in office work.

The proportion of the 71,087 white women over 21 years of age in workrooms was 45.8 percent, 2.1 percent were laborers, and 20.1 percent, office workers. Of the 10,914 colored women in the same age group, 30.4 percent were occupied in workrooms and 34.5 percent as laborers, and office workers constituted only about seven-tenths of 1 percent.

Persons Over 21 Employed in Inspected Establishments in Maryland, 1938, by Occupation, Industry, and Color

Occupations	All industries	Manufacturing	Mechanical	Mercantile	Offices	Professional	Public utilities	Service trades	Other
	Males								
White									
All occupations	186,147	90,762	8,338	41,485	3,886	312	30,714	9,758	892
Office	21,624	7,355	617	3,698	1,607	117	7,812	314	104
Executive	5,482	1,903	328	1,871	243	28	775	285	49
Sales	33,301	3,867	464	24,170	1,065	16	384	3,316	19
Workroom[1]	84,116	67,943	3,925	5,160	352	62	3,992	2,413	269
Domestic	478	33	-------	111	17	-------	4	312	1
Shipping	5,088	2,261	27	1,748	8	-------	898	118	28
Waiters	298	7	-------	17	-------	-------	-------	274	-------
Personal service	2,118	1	12	62	-------	28	17	1,962	36
Laborers[2]	5,375	3,010	733	579	8	2	924	81	38
Others	28,267	4,382	2,232	4,069	586	59	15,908	683	348
Colored									
All occupations	27,726	14,727	1,042	4,324	735	32	2,879	3,801	186
Office	63	8	2	4	24	10	3	8	4
Executive	21	6	-------	2	10	-------	1	2	-------
Sales	1,152	30	-------	462	479	-------	1	179	1
Workroom[1]	10,722	8,643	264	509	-------	-------	258	1,008	40
Domestic	832	90	1	192	12	2	60	473	2
Shipping	538	216	2	219	3	-------	82	14	2
Waiters	143	3	-------	8	-------	-------	-------	132	-------
Personal service	1,474	31	15	38	1	6	22	1,337	24
Laborers[2]	5,555	3,667	494	547	-------	-------	811	19	17
Others	7,226	2,033	264	2,343	206	14	1,641	629	96

See footnotes at end of table.

[1] Data are from the Forty-seventh Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor and Statistics of Maryland, 1938, Baltimore, 1939.

Persons Over 21 Employed in Inspected Establishments in Maryland, 1938, by Occupation, Industry, and Color—Continued

Occupations	All industries	Manufacturing	Mechanical	Mercantile	Offices	Professional	Public utilities	Service trades	Other
	Females								
White									
All occupations	71,087	37,084	595	19,967	1,603	63	4,506	7,150	119
Office	14,292	4,272	408	5,374	1,509	56	2,080	501	92
Executive	422	88	12	255	8	1	18	38	2
Sales	14,562	689	51	12,385	4	1	30	1,399	3
Workroom[1]	32,542	29,218	120	906		3	2	2,283	10
Domestic	431	41		56	8	2	60	264	
Shipping	103	59		42				2	
Waiters	1,589	34		282				1,273	
Personal service	1,332	4		62			1	1,265	
Laborers[2]	1,486	1,414						72	
Others	4,328	1,265	4	605	74		2,315	53	12
Colored									
All occupations	10,914	7,691	34	663	69	14	17	2,426	
Office	79	21		6	37	4		11	
Executive	5	2		2				1	
Sales	330	8		221	3		1	97	
Workroom[1]	3,315	1,928	29	202		1		1,155	
Domestic	436	14	1	102	1		3	315	
Shipping	2							2	
Waiters	104			6				98	
Personal service	690			18	5	2		665	
Laborers[2]	3,760	3,751		1			4	4	
Others	2,193	1,967	4	105	23	7	9	78	

[1] Engaged on actual production.
[2] Inside and outside.

PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, DECEMBER AND YEAR 1939 [1]

OFFICES of public employment services in the United States again made new high records of placements in private employment during December. The public placement offices made over a quarter of a million placements of all types during the month, most of which were in private jobs, and filled 3,476,890 jobs during 1939, a gain of 29 percent above 1938. Of this total, 2,676,374 jobs were in private employment, or 42 percent more than during 1938. At the year end fewer than 5¾ million persons were actively registered with the employment offices—a drop of 20 percent from the end of 1938.

Private placements made by the offices during December were at the highest level for any December in the history of the employment service. The 235,324 jobs of this character filled through the offices were 46 percent greater than 1 year earlier and 82 percent above the level of December 1937. The gain was greatest for women, with nearly 130,000 placements, or more than twice the number in December 1937 and 52 percent above the level of the same month in 1938. Placements of men, totaling over 105,000, represented somewhat smaller gains. The employment service also filled 30,000 jobs with public employers, nearly all representing placements of men.

In addition to these complete placements, more than 48,000 supplemental placements were reported. These represent cases in which the employment offices were instrumental in bringing workers and employer together, but did not transact all formal steps of placement.

During December over a million and one-quarter applications for work were received at the employment offices, nearly two-thirds of which were reported as renewals. At the end of the month 5,729,484 active registrations were reported, 4,274,382 representing men and

[1] Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

1,455,102 representing women. One year earlier the active file included 7,215,973 registrations, 5,688,832 representing men and 1,527,141 representing women. At the close of 1939 the Nation-wide system of public-employment facilities included 1,579 offices and 2,767 itinerant points.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Placement Operations, United States, December and Year 1939*

Activity	December 1939				Year 1939		
	Number	Percent of change from—			Number	Percent of change from—	
		November 1939	December 1938	December 1937		1938	1937
Total applications	1,290,605	−8.8	+22.8	+43.9	15,095,149	+3.4	+88.2
New applications	485,082	−10.0	+1.7	+7.3	6,379,344	−20.7	+75.7
Renewals	805,523	−8.0	−40.3	+81.0	8,715,805	+32.9	+98.6
Total placements	265,322	−8.3	+15.3	+48.5	3,476,890	+28.7	−4.5
Private	235,324	−5.5	+46.3	+81.7	2,676,374	+42.0	+13.8
Regular	95,845	−23.0	+48.8	+119.7	1,296,583	+54.0	+24.4
Temporary	139,479	+12.1	+44.6	+62.4	1,379,791	+32.2	+5.3
Public	29,998	−26.0	−56.7	−39.0	800,516	−1.9	−37.9
Active file (end of period)	5,729,484	+1.8	−20.6	+17.5	5,729,484	−20.6	+17.5

During 1939, 142,750 placements of veterans were made by the employment office system, of which nearly 90,000 were in private jobs, 20 percent more than during 1938. In December 8,853 placements of veterans were reported, 6,363 of which were in private employment. At the end of the month 244,275 veterans were registered for work. At the end of December 1938 the veteran active file numbered 361,356.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, December and year 1939*

Activity	December 1939				Year 1939		
	Number	Percent of change from—			Number	Percent of change from—	
		November 1939	December 1938	December 1937		1938	1937
Total applications	50,727	−8.7	+21.2	+11.6	582,227	−13.1	+38.6
New applications	12,055	−6.8	−12.2	−30.3	156,715	−44.0	+22.0
Renewals	38,672	−9.2	+37.5	+37.2	425,512	+9.1	+45.9
Total placements	8,853	−12.8	−21.9	−9.8	142,750	+2.7	−33.7
Private	6,363	−19.1	+23.0	+32.4	89,208	+19.7	−19.9
Regular	2,196	−22.6	+28.6	+68.7	31,744	+32.9	(1)
Temporary	4,167	−17.1	+20.2	+19.0	57,464	+13.5	(1)
Public	2,490	+9.0	−59.6	−50.3	53,542	−17.0	−48.5
Active file (end of period)	244,275	+3.5	−32.4	−8.9	244,275	−32.4	−8.9

[1] Data not available for 1937.

TABLE 3.—*Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, December 1939*

TOTAL

Division and State	Placements [1]						Applications			Active file, Dec. 31, 1939	Personal visits
	Total	Private			Public	Supplemental placements	Field visits	Total	New		
		Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)							
United States	265,322	235,324	−5	95,845	29,998	48,171	171,226	1,290,605	485,082	5,729,484	9,410,518
New England	12,051	10,442	−11	5,796	1,609	415	6,781	82,142	27,650	370,162	685,725
Maine	1,287	1,133	−2	673	154	22	736	8,030	2,110	33,987	60,773
N. H	1,793	1,608	+4	1,127	185	169	1,106	6,865	1,726	21,706	49,392
Vermont	766	688	−1	300	78	5	182	4,337	1,166	15,540	16,935
Mass	3,440	3,011	−9	1,875	429	44	3,128	36,227	14,760	180,168	344,721
R. I	742	601	−30	331	141	41	431	7,545	3,049	37,531	84,233
Connecticut	4,023	3,401	−19	1,490	622	134	1,198	19,138	4,839	81,230	129,671
Mid. Atlantic	43,562	39,323	−6	17,437	4,239	2,767	37,062	308,103	110,562	1,238,781	2,188,651
New York	22,713	20,607	−1	7,803	2,106	626	17,525	164,978	63,584	549,096	[2]1,108,033
New Jersey	9,154	8,500	−16	4,460	654	450	10,814	50,175	23,684	276,246	319,814
Pa	11,695	10,216	−6	5,174	1,479	1,691	8,723	92,950	23,294	413,439	760,804
E. N. Central	47,998	45,720	−7	20,593	2,278	2,355	36,573	236,816	87,151	1,006,326	1,852,943
Ohio	12,848	12,433	−8	5,500	415	380	10,897	62,078	20,981	250,954	550,476
Indiana	7,762	7,676	[3]	3,442	86	1,203	2,690	39,219	15,226	195,998	218,296
Illinois	13,058	12,847	−4	5,245	211	237	7,376	48,292	25,930	181,658	559,718
Michigan	8,970	8,296	−12	4,384	674	207	12,563	58,833	17,761	209,003	367,281
Wisconsin	5,360	4,468	−13	2,022	892	328	3,047	28,394	7,253	168,713	157,172
W. N. Central	23,273	19,685	−15	7,265	3,588	634	23,202	129,413	39,033	515,020	730,139
Minnesota	3,945	3,559	−30	1,638	386	274	6,683	23,499	6,418	124,816	213,954
Iowa	5,686	4,273	−16	1,259	1,413	72	3,418	19,698	5,541	91,991	156,242
Missouri	6,194	5,891	−8	2,306	303	34	4,857	51,405	15,746	158,546	182,056
N. Dak	1,809	1,691	−15	478	118	53	764	4,621	1,489	23,576	25,135
S. Dak	1,053	881	+14	328	172	28	821	5,126	1,489	30,998	19,037
Nebraska	1,797	1,128	−16	461	669	37	1,767	10,923	3,084	47,894	57,741
Kansas	2,789	2,262	−12	795	527	136	4,892	14,141	5,266	37,199	75,974
South Atlantic	35,278	28,966	−5	14,425	6,312	1,182	14,513	143,202	58,156	693,841	904,995
Delaware	1,225	1,149	−30	550	76	6	180	2,812	797	11,535	17,288
Maryland	3,273	2,969	−7	1,300	304	57	1,320	15,903	5,126	59,441	61,442
Dist. of Col	3,292	2,927	[4]	1,058	365	58	36	8,417	2,796	34,170	62,341
Virginia	4,084	3,170	−9	1,495	914	198	2,079	21,581	7,308	52,720	120,923
W. Va	3,162	2,778	−15	1,359	384	415	1,210	19,149	3,526	74,733	84,905
N. C	6,449	4,721	−7	2,039	1,728	321	1,828	26,925	10,445	87,973	182,909
S. C	1,863	1,228	−22	615	635	13	1,603	6,728	3,350	104,579	98,735
Georgia	6,045	5,028	−3	1,748	1,017	78	5,185	22,671	10,521	187,783	132,134
Florida	5,885	4,996	+22	4,261	889	36	1,072	19,016	14,287	80,907	144,318
E. S. Central	13,281	10,560	−3	5,691	2,721	2,236	7,664	66,054	29,543	445,713	452,735
Kentucky	2,696	2,286	+6	1,018	410	281	1,379	13,688	6,440	76,853	66,630
Tennessee	3,627	3,239	−6	1,773	388	1,007	2,690	11,601	6,795	134,731	149,434
Alabama	3,664	3,249	−1	2,007	415	665	2,139	21,529	7,455	149,339	135,500
Mississippi	3,294	1,786	−11	893	1,508	283	1,456	19,236	8,853	84,790	101,171
W. S. Central	49,345	45,724	+9	9,606	3,621	29,038	23,413	103,131	50,110	551,748	909,532
Arkansas	3,160	2,899	+45	824	261	912	1,385	7,483	4,169	57,167	101,662
Louisiana	4,297	3,750	−20	2,181	547	237	4,646	19,776	7,383	106,424	124,537
Oklahoma	4,688	4,196	+7	657	492	426	2,030	22,381	8,742	87,153	143,604
Texas	37,200	34,879	+11	5,944	2,321	27,463	15,352	53,491	29,816	301,004	539,729
Mountain	13,901	11,604	−17	5,981	2,297	6,812	8,555	56,427	19,125	205,039	352,773
Montana	1,032	589	−20	305	443	180	1,034	4,459	1,489	28,620	46,858
Idaho	1,505	1,298	−26	484	207	173	793	6,768	2,243	15,722	49,606
Wyoming	651	342	−25	110	309	2	343	3,226	724	9,013	20,285
Colorado	2,918	2,431	−13	850	487	25	2,731	16,769	5,336	64,511	100,889
N. Mex	1,425	1,199	−39	706	226	1,753	1,272	4,818	1,466	35,397	28,966
Arizona	4,108	3,810	−9	2,930	298	4,592	1,087	8,577	5,086	21,748	51,856
Utah	1,357	1,191	−12	242	166	61	845	9,183	1,867	23,437	35,698
Nevada	905	744	−8	354	161	26	450	2,627	914	6,591	18,615
Pacific	25,948	22,872	−9	8,904	3,076	2,687	13,238	162,377	62,589	690,497	1,301,092
Wash	5,356	4,747	+43	1,597	609	236	2,994	22,451	7,820	114,051	163,001
Oregon	3,582	3,066	−30	920	516	418	1,709	18,296	4,932	42,071	139,209
California	17,010	15,059	−14	6,387	1,951	2,033	8,535	121,630	49,837	534,375	998,882
Alaska	284	101	−20	21	183	14	121	752	332	2,706	6,989
Hawaii	401	327	+15	126	74	31	104	2,188	831	9,651	24,944

[1] Preliminary. [2] Estimated. [3] Decrease of less than half of 1 percent. [4] Increase of less than half of 1 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, December 1939*—Continued

MEN

Division and State	Placements [1]					Applications			Active file, Dec. 31, 1939
		Private					New		
	Total	Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)	Public	Total	Number	Percent of change from November	
United States	134,119	105,783	−21	42,961	28,336	936,118	320,954	−5	4,274,382
New England	6,364	4,803	−25	3,035	1,561	54,358	16,402	−9	238,257
Maine	697	547	−14	337	150	5,935	1,301	−1	24,791
New Hampshire	1,352	1,185	+1	901	167	5,152	1,187	−24	14,314
Vermont	354	277	−34	124	77	3,220	738	+37	11,293
Massachusetts	1,497	1,080	−32	770	417	22,995	8,721	−14	110,822
Rhode Island	330	194	−46	116	136	4,374	1,645	−4	22,430
Connecticut	2,134	1,520	−33	787	614	12,682	2,810	+2	54,607
Middle Atlantic	16,898	12,917	−26	6,891	3,981	208,455	66,259	−5	878,094
New York	8,751	6,688	−25	2,897	2,063	111,550	40,820	−5	374,141
New Jersey	3,162	2,681	−26	1,638	481	28,412	11,406	+10	191,622
Pennsylvania	4,985	3,548	−27	2,356	1,437	68,493	14,033	−12	312,331
East North Central	21,167	19,172	−24	9,073	1,995	171,834	57,609	−10	773,153
Ohio	5,312	4,932	−25	2,436	380	45,916	13,828	+4	187,895
Indiana	2,902	2,835	−24	1,338	67	28,013	10,284	−18	148,988
Illinois	5,581	5,398	−20	2,168	183	32,774	17,084	−17	134,192
Michigan	4,956	4,299	−23	2,362	657	45,017	11,629	−9	165,063
Wisconsin	2,416	1,708	−33	769	708	20,114	4,784	−2	137,015
West North Central	12,004	8,721	−31	2,991	3,283	100,759	26,696	+5	392,022
Minnesota	1,755	1,380	−46	672	375	17,891	4,243	+14	95,550
Iowa	3,150	1,978	−30	570	1,172	15,127	3,807	+19	70,684
Missouri	3,190	2,901	−22	950	289	40,423	10,711	−9	114,420
North Dakota	731	621	−40	205	110	3,220	910	+1	18,729
South Dakota	554	393	−4	155	161	3,859	1,001	+20	24,606
Nebraska	1,106	455	−35	148	651	9,044	2,224	+43	37,929
Kansas	1,518	993	−26	291	525	11,195	3,800	+14	30,104
South Atlantic	19,447	13,246	−22	6,212	6,201	103,375	37,516	−12	510,934
Delaware	429	353	−49	226	76	1,990	442	[2]	7,841
Maryland	1,807	1,505	−25	630	302	11,322	3,288	−15	44,786
District of Columbia	1,346	993	−12	313	353	5,484	1,658	−22	21,929
Virginia	2,172	1,283	−23	638	889	15,570	4,864	[3]	37,657
West Virginia	1,469	1,093	−42	729	376	16,094	2,465	+6	62,676
North Carolina	3,909	2,206	−16	782	1,703	19,091	7,031	[2]	58,584
South Carolina	1,301	676	−32	275	625	5,044	2,253	−37	80,287
Georgia	3,954	2,956	−16	852	998	17,065	7,392	−25	140,377
Florida	3,060	2,181	−11	1,767	879	11,715	8,123	−3	56,797
East South Central	7,410	4,710	−18	2,606	2,700	50,184	21,165	−21	350,625
Kentucky	1,441	1,041	−11	526	400	10,325	4,509	−9	59,655
Tennessee	1,661	1,277	−18	661	384	7,198	4,083	−12	101,159
Alabama	2,074	1,662	−22	1,027	412	17,041	5,648	−40	120,925
Mississippi	2,234	730	−15	392	1,504	15,620	6,925	−11	68,886
West South Central	28,295	24,739	−1	3,788	3,556	77,234	36,035	[3]	434,419
Arkansas	1,918	1,665	+59	205	253	5,374	2,877	−11	45,968
Louisiana	2,185	1,654	−37	927	531	15,901	5,675	+1	86,016
Oklahoma	2,709	2,231	+11	170	478	17,865	6,701	+4	72,862
Texas	21,483	19,189	−1	2,486	2,294	38,094	20,782	+1	229,573
Mountain	8,522	6,456	−28	3,881	2,066	46,061	14,219	+14	170,072
Montana	743	326	−36	176	417	3,823	1,107	+11	23,649
Idaho	773	569	−47	168	204	5,777	1,816	−2	13,971
Wyoming	469	163	−44	47	306	2,762	527	+8	7,511
Colorado	1,421	1,103	−28	326	318	13,077	3,682	+21	53,012
New Mexico	988	768	−44	495	220	3,989	1,048	−7	29,815
Arizona	3,092	2,809	−2	2,361	283	7,165	4,215	+39	17,723
Utah	522	360	−56	112	162	7,350	1,133	+1	19,074
Nevada	514	358	−30	196	156	2,118	691	−20	5,317
Pacific	13,504	10,762	−26	4,398	2,742	121,441	44,164	+1	516,826
Washington	2,528	2,047	+2	914	481	17,413	5,438	+7	93,105
Oregon	2,223	1,748	−39	522	475	15,590	3,889	−10	34,190
California	8,753	6,967	−28	2,962	1,786	88,438	34,837	+2	389,531
Alaska	235	56	−31	14	179	690	301	−6	2,447
Hawaii	273	201	+3	72	72	1,727	588	−31	7,533

[1] Preliminary. [2] Decrease of less than half of 1 percent. [3] Increase of less than half of 1 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, December 1939*—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements [1]				Applications			Active file, Dec. 31, 1939
	Total	Private			Total	New		
		Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)		Number	Percent of change from November	
United States	131,203	129,541	+12	52,884	354,487	164,128	−18	1,455,102
New England	5,687	5,639	+6	2,761	27,784	11,248	−22	131,905
Maine	590	586	+12	336	2,095	809	−29	9,196
New Hampshire	441	423	+13	226	1,713	539	−42	7,392
Vermont	412	411	+46	176	1,117	428	+3	4,247
Massachusetts	1,943	1,931	+11	1,105	13,232	6,039	−28	69,346
Rhode Island	412	407	−18	215	3,171	1,404	+9	15,101
Connecticut	1,889	1,881	−2	703	6,456	2,029	−11	26,623
Middle Atlantic	26,664	26,406	+8	10,546	99,648	44,303	−6	360,687
New York	13,962	13,919	+17	4,906	53,428	22,764	−15	174,955
New Jersey	5,992	5,819	−11	2,822	21,763	12,278	+33	84,624
Pennsylvania	6,710	6,668	+12	2,818	24,457	9,261	−17	101,108
East North Central	26,831	26,548	+11	11,520	64,982	29,542	−24	233,173
Ohio	7,536	7,501	+8	3,064	16,162	7,153	−27	63,059
Indiana	4,860	4,841	+23	2,104	11,206	4,942	−28	47,010
Illinois	7,477	7,449	+12	3,077	15,518	8,846	−24	47,466
Michigan	4,014	3,997	+2	2,022	13,816	6,132	−16	43,940
Wisconsin	2,944	2,760	+8	1,253	8,280	2,469	−27	31,698
West North Central	11,269	10,964	+2	4,274	28,654	12,337	−20	122,998
Minnesota	2,190	2,179	−13	966	5,608	2,175	−23	29,266
Iowa	2,536	2,295	[2]	689	4,571	1,734	−15	21,307
Missouri	3,004	2,990	+11	1,356	10,982	5,035	−25	44,126
North Dakota	1,078	1,070	+11	273	1,401	579	−12	4,847
South Dakota	499	488	+34	173	1,267	488	−4	6,392
Nebraska	691	673	+5	313	1,879	860	−16	9,965
Kansas	1,271	1,269	+2	504	2,946	1,466	−11	7,095
South Atlantic	15,831	15,720	+17	8,213	39,827	20,640	−17	182,907
Delaware	796	796	−16	324	822	355	−17	3,694
Maryland	1,466	1,464	+23	670	4,581	1,838	−28	14,655
District of Columbia	1,946	1,934	+8	745	2,933	1,138	−46	12,241
Virginia	1,912	1,887	+4	857	6,011	2,444	−19	15,063
West Virginia	1,693	1,685	+22	630	3,055	1,061	−28	12,057
North Carolina	2,540	2,515	+2	1,257	7,834	3,414	−23	29,389
South Carolina	562	552	−3	340	1,684	1,097	−36	24,292
Georgia	2,091	2,072	+26	896	5,606	3,129	−22	47,406
Florida	2,825	2,815	+74	2,494	7,301	6,164	+18	24,110
East South Central	5,871	5,850	+14	3,085	15,870	8,378	−31	95,088
Kentucky	1,255	1,245	+27	492	3,363	1,931	−29	17,198
Tennessee	1,966	1,962	+45	1,112	4,403	2,712	−26	33,572
Alabama	1,590	1,587	+41	980	4,488	1,807	−40	28,414
Mississippi	1,060	1,056	−8	501	3,616	1,928	−30	15,904
West South Central	21,050	20,985	+24	5,818	25,897	14,075	−18	117,329
Arkansas	1,242	1,234	+29	619	2,109	1,292	−12	11,199
Louisiana	2,112	2,096	+3	1,254	3,875	1,708	−25	20,408
Oklahoma	1,979	1,965	+2	487	4,516	2,041	−16	14,291
Texas	15,717	15,690	+30	3,458	15,397	9,034	−17	71,431
Mountain	5,379	5,148	+1	2,100	10,366	4,906	−11	34,967
Montana	289	263	+20	129	636	382	−18	4,971
Idaho	732	729	+8	316	991	427	−31	1,751
Wyoming	182	179	+11	63	464	197	−16	1,502
Colorado	1,497	1,328	+5	524	3,692	1,654	+3	11,499
New Mexico	437	431	−27	211	829	418	−11	5,582
Arizona	1,016	1,001	−24	569	1,412	871	−29	4,025
Utah	835	831	+53	130	1,833	734	+16	4,363
Nevada	391	386	+30	158	509	223	−23	1,274
Pacific	12,444	12,110	+14	4,506	40,936	18,425	−21	173,671
Washington	2,828	2,700	+106	683	5,038	2,382	−10	20,946
Oregon	1,359	1,318	−13	398	2,706	1,043	−36	7,881
California	8,257	8,092	+4	3,425	33,192	15,000	−21	144,844
Alaska	49	45	0	7	62	31	−11	259
Hawaii	128	126	+42	54	461	243	−16	2,118

[1] Preliminary.

[2] Increase of less than half of 1 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Activities of Public Employment Services in the United States, December 1939*
VETERANS

Division and State	Placements [1]					Applications			Active file Dec., 31, 1939
		Private			Public		New		
	Total	Number	Percent of change from November	Regular (over 1 month)		Total	Number	Percent of change from November	
United States	8,853	6,363	−19	2,196	2,490	50,727	12,055	−7	244,275
New England	445	297	−19	200	148	2,921	730	−5	14,796
Maine	53	40	+11	28	13	359	67	+6	1,460
New Hampshire	73	64	+10	49	9	304	61	−12	914
Vermont	15	14	−36	1	1	145	24	+41	775
Massachusetts	88	68	−18	51	20	1,059	365	−14	6,899
Rhode Island	37	8	−33	3	29	192	63	−11	880
Connecticut	179	103	−34	68	76	862	150	+21	3,868
Middle Atlantic	934	572	−26	297	362	7,457	1,591	−7	38,624
New York	451	254	−31	95	197	2,696	837	−2	14,300
New Jersey	139	133	−21	72	6	905	209	−19	8,112
Pennsylvania	344	185	−23	130	159	3,856	545	−9	16,212
East North Central	1,322	1,136	−25	502	186	10,524	2,431	−12	46,894
Ohio	390	360	−21	143	30	2,583	653	−6	10,631
Indiana	135	117	−38	61	18	1,884	511	−8	10,631
Illinois	343	282	−18	98	61	1,471	538	−22	5,213
Michigan	330	283	−24	148	47	3,030	486	−20	10,927
Wisconsin	124	94	−40	52	30	1,556	243	+12	9,492
West North Central	1,197	812	−23	204	385	7,035	1,269	+4	28,553
Minnesota	169	126	−35	39	43	1,074	191	+20	8,764
Iowa	429	226	−24	44	203	1,117	146	−3	5,314
Missouri	316	301	−15	73	15	3,149	657	+3	7,263
North Dakota	25	19	−50	6	6	108	23	−4	1,147
South Dakota	50	35	−29	16	15	234	32	−11	1,814
Nebraska	96	27	−31	5	69	605	84	+40	2,128
Kansas	112	78	−4	21	34	748	136	−14	2,123
South Atlantic	916	608	−23	217	308	4,723	1,150	−18	25,678
Delaware	17	16	−56	11	1	99	18	−18	487
Maryland	100	85	−31	35	15	551	74	−34	2,896
District of Columbia	126	80	−13	19	46	516	147	−11	1,959
Virginia	118	59	−23	21	59	624	106	+13	1,592
West Virginia	50	33	−53	23	17	779	73	+12	3,679
North Carolina	157	75	−18	23	82	596	122	−24	2,228
South Carolina	75	48	+7	12	27	192	69	−38	3,638
Georgia	161	132	−20	26	29	839	227	+12	5,642
Florida	112	80	−11	47	32	527	314	−33	3,557
East South Central	479	248	−23	114	231	2,329	721	−21	16,349
Kentucky	91	47	−42	19	44	593	148	−12	3,096
Tennessee	212	82	−23	35	130	337	185	−13	5,970
Alabama	101	100	−9	52	1	919	155	−45	5,304
Mississippi	75	19	−30	8	56	480	233	−4	1,979
West South Central	1,638	1,389	+3	147	249	3,492	1,156	−4	21,730
Arkansas	161	131	+93	15	30	237	129	−3	2,779
Louisiana	81	59	−49	31	22	573	126	−19	3,348
Oklahoma	336	264	+83	18	72	1,364	440	+13	6,211
Texas	1,060	935	−9	83	125	1,318	461	−12	9,392
Mountain	716	493	−17	255	223	3,075	721	+20	11,299
Montana	78	33	−31	19	45	259	48	+50	1,626
Idaho	145	115	−12	16	30	368	82	−1	652
Wyoming	48	19	+6	4	29	245	33	+74	544
Colorado	100	61	−33	17	39	849	181	+6	3,690
New Mexico	43	27	−27	21	16	170	29	−29	1,772
Arizona	195	174	−1	151	21	472	271	+63	1,151
Utah	42	13	−55	5	29	545	35	−15	1,463
Nevada	65	51	−19	22	14	167	42	−14	401
Pacific	1,168	798	−26	256	370	9,011	2,249	−4	39,774
Washington	129	95	−41	38	34	985	202	+30	6,670
Oregon	173	112	−32	40	61	1,105	135	−20	2,281
California	866	591	−22	178	275	6,921	1,912	−5	30,823
Alaska	30	2	−60	0	28	60	21	+5	176
Hawaii	8	8	−27	4	0	100	16	−6	402

[1] Preliminary.

UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, DECEMBER 1939[1]

THE trend of claim receipts and benefit payments continued upward during December, as employment in seasonal industries was further restricted. The increase in both claims and payments was widespread; the most outstanding expansion in initial claims receipts was reported for Oregon. The largest relative increase in payments occurred in Idaho, where disbursements in December were nearly 70 percent more than in November.

Receipts of initial and reopened claims received in central offices of State employment-security agencies increased for the third consecutive month. The 18 percent increase over November raised the level of initial claims to 636,650, the highest monthly figure since July 1939. Of the 51 jurisdictions reporting, 38 showed increased receipts; and 10 of this group reported increases in excess of 40 percent.

Special reports from the State agencies with respect to the increased receipts of initial claims indicated that for the most part the claims were filed by workers who had been employed, prior to lay-off, in industries which normally curtail their operations in the last quarter of the year, such as construction, lumber, food manufacturing, and others. Another important factor contributing to the increase in some of the States, particularly Oregon, was the filing of new claims in anticipation of benefit years beginning in January 1940.

Continued claims, most of which were compensable, increased nearly 6 percent over November. Increases were general, with only 8 States showing smaller volumes than last month; in practically all cases, the decreases were relatively small. In 18 of the 43 States reporting increases, expansions were less than 10 percent.

Payments to unemployed workers amounted to nearly $30,500,000, an increase of approximately 7½ percent over November. In 5 States the increases were in excess of 50 percent. Twenty-four States, however, reported increases of 20 percent or less. All of the larger industrial States, with the exception of Michigan, showed increases, and in most cases, these were greater than the average increase for the country. Seven States (California, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania) accounted for 64.3 percent of the total amount paid in December; in November, these States accounted for 66.4 percent of the total.

About $430,000,000 was paid in benefits in 1939, when 49 States paid throughout the year, and two States—Illinois and Montana—paid during the last 6 months only, in contrast to the $394,000,000 paid in 1938, when only 28 States paid benefits for 6 months or more.

[1] Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

Unemployment-Compensation Claims and Benefits, by States, December 1939

[Preliminary data reported by State agencies, corrected to January 10, 1940]

State	Initial and reopened claims received		Continued claims received		Benefits paid			Date benefits first payable	Amount of payments since benefits first payable
						Amount			
	Number	Percent of change from November	Number	Percent of change from November	Number	All payments	Percent of change from November		
All States	636,650	+18.2	3,153,253	+5.8	2,969,729	$30,470,346	+7.4		$825,392,033
Alabama	5,335	−18.4	42,397	+4.4	41,224	284,529	+8.2	Jan. 1938	12,413,528
Alaska	568	−10.7	3,448	+24.3	2,326	33,547	+57.0	Jan. 1939	349,922
Arizona	1,859	−.3	10,609	+5.5	10,294	113,403	+9.1	Jan. 1938	3,422,127
Arkansas	5,564	+11.0	21,915	+15.6	21,053	128,063	+13.3	Jan. 1939	1,815,808
California	53,349	+9.3	353,045	+.5	341,672	3,612,113	−4.0	Jan. 1938	62,265,018
Colorado	5,181	+34.9	23,894	+34.1	23,080	234,959	+38.1	Jan. 1939	3,465,652
Connecticut	15,373	+25.5	31,745	+9.0	30,365	284,486	+8.4	Jan. 1938	17,380,425
Delaware	1,540	+7.0	6,174	+14.7	5,997	47,280	+8.5	Jan. 1939	711,087
District of Col.	2,132	+4.7	17,989	+6.2	12,621	102,532	+12.1	Jan. 1938	3,097,888
Florida	7,091	+44.2	35,882	−13.3	34,298	303,221	−10.4	Jan. 1939	3,516,106
Georgia	8,943	−11.8	37,655	+2.3	39,320	255,097	+7.7	do	3,237,613
Hawaii	767	−12.3	5,136	+1.3	5,137	41,028	−1.8	do	286,422
Idaho	3,072	+63.3	7,964	+62.7	8,887	94,535	+69.6	Sept. 1938	2,559,451
Illinois	38,378	−8.9	266,844	−.5	272,404	3,122,492	+3.2	July 1939	16,785,158
Indiana	9,409	+2.1	56,577	−7.4	56,060	568,054	−7.7	April 1938	26,528,429
Iowa	12,044	+52.8	31,114	+45.9	28,018	243,913	+36.7	July 1938	7,809,703
Kansas	4,859	+8.3	16,107	+19.5	16,262	146,335	+20.0	Jan. 1939	2,287,978
Kentucky	4,808	+37.3	25,591	−12.3	24,016	189,868	−9.6	do	4,862,902
Louisiana	11,198	+7.1	46,492	+5.1	42,040	338,226	−.9	Jan. 1938	9,941,358
Maine	4,986	+5.6	39,413	+18.1	36,290	246,526	+24.1	do	7,562,877
Maryland	5,809	+15.2	58,377	+7.6	38,669	355,927	+9.4	do	15,892,048
Massachusetts	51,960	+18.4	167,020	+8.0	174,226	1,719,708	+16.7	do	46,751,187
Michigan	18,868	−14.7	126,746	−23.1	125,773	1,575,979	−16.6	July 1938	77,023,049
Minnesota	9,694	+44.1	50,994	+36.4	[1] 54,967	548,219	+61.9	Jan. 1938	15,759,660
Mississippi	6,432	−3.4	24,100	+31.4	20,885	116,639	+31.5	Apr. 1938	2,858,492
Missouri	16,536	−2.8	62,645	−.7	59,753	497,192	+.1	Jan. 1939	5,461,594
Montana	4,285	+30.1	20,948	+30.1	18,353	201,439	+30.4	July 1939	765,007
Nebraska	3,220	+17.4	13,285	+45.3	11,740	105,715	+39.6	Jan. 1939	1,303,738
Nevada	1,159	−1.4	7,702	+18.8	6,656	85,642	+24.3	do	815,589
New Hampshire	3,233	−7.7	21,499	+16.8	21,429	160,775	+16.2	Jan. 1938	4,281,178
New Jersey	28,355	+71.0	96,501	+4.7	99,335	926,147	+7.7	Jan. 1939	14,906,310
New Mexico	1,140	−2.5	9,767	+8.0	9,212	87,986	+6.0	Dec. 1938	1,235,142
New York	69,879	+6.6	[2] 478,565	+4.5	469,618	5,591,869	+8.8	Jan. 1938	167,432,825
North Carolina	13,299	+6.3	61,872	+4.6	36,423	198,407	+12.5	do	12,610,576
North Dakota	818	+16.0	4,127	+8.1	3,550	34,296	−6.8	Jan. 1939	545,224
Ohio	18,861	+9.4	164,871	+7.1	[3] 144,775	[3] 1,341,879	+10.8	do	[4] 23,663,597
Oklahoma	8,746	+15.3	31,104	+6.2	29,382	276,525	+5.3	Dec. 1938	4,313,299
Oregon	19,685	+343.4	31,696	−1.5	22,101	255,494	+23.7	Jan. 1938	9,969,644
Pennsylvania	65,121	+70.9	253,793	+10.3	236,606	2,626,854	+12.7	do	126,152,926
Rhode Island	13,592	+47.8	43,167	+31.5	43,167	405,265	+30.4	do	15,042,235
South Carolina	5,549	+17.3	27,362	+10.4	24,422	148,947	+1.7	July 1938	2,739,019
South Dakota	912	+25.3	3,349	+50.9	3,119	24,822	+60.0	Jan. 1939	393,986
Tennessee	9,961	+4.0	75,702	+18.8	49,065	353,519	+1.3	Jan. 1938	10,722,744
Texas	21,954	−5.5	73,985	+21.9	57,046	877,608	+20.1	do	20,060,812
Utah	3,784	+34.6	10,802	+18.8	10,414	109,090	+22.7	do	4,155,745
Vermont	2,803	+73.2	5,287	+5.0	4,952	40,492	+16.3	do	1,395,930
Virginia	10,253	+32.8	36,406	+16.9	34,429	260,716	+13.9	do	10,124,001
Washington	7,987	+13.4	53,754	+38.5	50,503	598,537	+35.2	Jan. 1939	6,146,582
West Virginia	4,134	+17.9	16,864	−7.4	18,808	151,846	−7.3	Jan. 1938	16,278,442
Wisconsin	[5] 9,663	+20.1	31,357	+31.0	31,613	310,651	+38.6	July 1936	15,138,230
Wyoming	2,502	+41.7	9,615	+44.7	7,374	91,954	+51.1	Jan. 1939	1,153,770

[1] Represents number of weeks for which 45,704 checks were written.
[2] Compensable continued claims only.
[3] Excludes 43,082 payments, amounting to $1,176,983, resulting from recalculation of weekly benefit amounts.
[4] Includes $1,176,983 resulting from recalculation of weekly benefit amounts.
[5] Excludes claims for partial unemployment.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN HUNGARY

A NEW system of family allowances was instituted in Hungary under an act promulgated on December 28, 1938, which became operative January 1, 1939.[1]

The act is applicable to all mining, industrial, and commercial enterprises which employ on an average over 20 workers. Only manual workers are covered, but at the time the report was prepared, the Government was making a study of the possibility of extending the act to small enterprises and to workers in general, when economic conditions should warrant such action.

Beneficiaries and benefits.—Legitimate, adopted, or recognized illegitimate children, under 14 years of age, dependent on a manual worker, are eligible for family allowances. These benefits are also granted to grandparents for grandchildren maintained by them. A worker, however, is not entitled to these grants unless he has been employed for at least 15 days in the month or for at least 3 days per week for a 4-week period.

The rate of the allowance is set at 5 pengös [2] per month, and the grants are paid through equalization funds. Upon the death of a worker, the benefit is continued for 6 months, and in case of involuntary unemployment, sickness, accident, or military service, for 3 months.

At the close of the first quarter of 1939, the number of adults in receipt of allowances totaled 125,009, the number of child beneficiaries represented by such grants being 225,826. It is thought probable that the total expenditure for these benefits per annum will amount to approximately 14 million pengös.

Contributions.—Except for the expenses of administration of the central fund, which the State meets, employers are responsible for all expenditures connected with the payment of family allowances, including the organization and administration of the various equalization funds.

The contribution of the employer for each worker is to be fixed each year by the competent minister, in order that the contribution not only may offset the sum paid out in allowances but may be sufficient to maintain a reserve. For the first year the contribution was 48 pengös per male worker and 32 pengös per female worker. Organization and administration costs are fixed at 5 percent of the income resulting from the assessments levied upon employers.

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[1] International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, October 30, 1939, pp. 125–126.

[2] Exchange rate of pengö in December 1939=17.6 cents.

Equalization funds.—Eight equalization funds have been established for the various branches of mining, industry, and commerce, each fund having country-wide jurisdiction. Operations are equalized at first in the respective individual funds, and subsequently among the different funds, through the central equalization fund. If any individual equalization fund shows a profit after family allowances are paid, this profit must be transferred to the central fund, which uses the money to make up any deficit that may be shown by other equalization funds.

Administration.—The central fund is under the general direction of the Ministry of Industry and its operations are supervised by a committee on which both workers and employers have representation.

Housing Conditions

LIMITED-DIVIDEND HOUSING IN NEW YORK

THE City & Suburban Home Co., a limited-dividend housing corporation, in 1939 completed 42 years of operation in New York. In this period 15 projects had been administered, providing decent housing for lower-income families. Dividends to stockholders, which are limited to 5 percent, averaged 4.2 percent throughout the years of the company's activity. A recent study by the Federal Housing Administration traces the financial development of the company and its operating policies and practices.[1] Compared with the dwellings recently provided under the Federal low-cost housing program many of the corporation's units are much less desirable, but the history of the organization is summarized as an example of the effectiveness of the limited-dividend principle.

During its existence the company has built 7 large-scale apartments having 3,650 dwelling units, a suburban project of 250 single-family row houses, 3 public garages, and a hotel to house 350 business women. Projects bought include 4 apartment developments of 650 dwelling units and a suburban project of 67 single-family houses. At the end of April 1938 the sixth section of the latest development was under construction; 4 purchased apartments and 6 constructed projects, the hotel, and 2 garages were being operated. Projects disposed of included 1 apartment, the 2 suburban housing developments, and 1 garage.

Tenant Relations

It has been the policy of the company to promote good relations with tenants. Its rent collectors have had wide latitude in introducing measures that they believed would be helpful to occupants. Clubs have been organized for mothers and children and tenants have been helped over periods of difficulty. This has been accomplished by selecting an agency personnel trained in social service. Much of the success of this program is attributed, in the report here reviewed, to the employment of women to carry out this work. It is also stated that this policy has influenced tenants to remain in the company's dwellings. Statistics compiled for 1935 showed that 212 of the tenant

[1] Federal Housing Administration. Division of Economics and Statistics. Four Decades of Housing with a Limited Dividend Corporation. Washington, 1939.

population had lived in the company's buildings for upward of 20 years, and 17 of these for 30 years or over.

Rentals

The rentals for projects were initially determined according to a fixed formula, taking into account original costs, operating and maintenance costs, taxes, etc., and the desired gross return on investment, plus a sum sufficient to permit of a 10-percent vacancy rate without throwing the financial returns out of balance. Rents for individual apartment units were then established according to number of rooms and desirability of location within the various buildings.

The average monthly room rentals for 8 Manhattan apartment projects are shown below, by 5-year intervals, from 1902 to 1937:

Year ending April 30—	*Average rental per room*
1902	$4.35
1907	5.12
1912	5.51
1917	6.01
1922	8.68
1927	9.90
1932	10.49
1937	9.65

Since the early years, rents have been adjusted periodically to conform with rentals charged for comparable accommodations in the same neighborhood. Thus, changes in economic conditions are reflected in the rise and fall of rents charged.

In most of the housing projects, rents are collected weekly in advance. This insures that properties are kept in good condition, that the tenants' demands are heeded, and that rent is paid promptly. Losses in unpaid rents up to April 30, 1938, amounted to a half of 1 percent of the total due from tenants in the Manhattan buildings. Losses were highest in 1934, when they amounted to 2.5 percent of the rentals due.

Rent concessions have been granted to tenants in few instances. Losses from vacancies in the Manhattan properties have been less than 4 percent of the total potential income throughout the period of management by the company. In 1934 the ratio of vacancy was highest, amounting to 16 percent, but by 1938 it had decreased to 7 percent of the potential income from rentals.

Financial Condition

As of April 30, 1938, the developed income-producing real estate owned by the company was valued in excess of 10 million dollars. This represents the actual cost of the projects, as no appreciation is carried on the books. The capital stock reached $4,250,000 in 1924

and has remained constant since that time. The depreciation reserve totaled nearly $3,200,000 on April 30, 1938, and the surplus on that date was about $1,250,000.

MANAGEMENT OF NEW YORK CITY HOUSING PROJECTS, 1938

THE operation and maintenance of the 2,318 dwelling units in the three completed public housing projects administered by the New York City Housing Authority at the end of 1938[1] were in the hands of a combined staff of 78 persons and 3 project managers. During the year tests were made of the effectiveness of certain procedures and necessary modifications made which will be useful in the administration not only of these projects but also of those that will be completed in the future.

In addition to the regular employees, temporary labor was hired for landscaping, painting, and redecorating. By purchasing paints and hiring painters directly, the Authority was able to have jobs completed at lower cost than was possible under contracts let the previous year. It was also necessary to undertake special maintenance jobs and to make improvements to facilitate operation of the projects and to reduce certain costs. Most of this work was done for the Authority either by day labor or under contract, but on individual contracts, involving $2,000 or more, bids were taken and work approved by the United States Housing Authority.

The three projects—First Houses, Williamsburg Houses, and Harlem River Houses—were almost entirely occupied in 1938. The dwelling units yielded a combined revenue of $673,110.25. Operations showed an excess of income over expenditures amounting to $199,977.23. The average cash expenditure per room, for operation, excluding depreciation and replacement reserves, was approximately $40. The report here reviewed attributes the low average, in part, to the fact that Williamsburg and Harlem River Houses were occupied for the first time during 1938 and therefore there was a minimum expenditure for items such as redecorating. The small size and efficiency of the operating staff also contributed.

In selecting tenants the procedure successfully followed has been to receive and examine applications at the respective project offices. In July 1938, a central applications office was opened for centralizing this work.

The eligibility of families with respect to income and whether or not they live in substandard dwellings is determined. Then facts

[1] New York City Housing Authority. Fifth Annual Report, 1938. New York, 1939.

previously listed as well as others are checked, and the Authority determines the order of tenant selection under a system of preferential rating. Weights are given to the various conditions under which prospective tenants are living and the other circumstances which affect their eligibility. The family living under the least favorable conditions is admitted to the projects first. The specific adverse factors considered are "illegal fire escape, stair halls, cellar ceilings and bulkheads not fire retarded, lack of hot water, central heat, private toilet or bath, interior rooms, bad neighborhood conditions, overcrowding, families with children under 15 years of age, previous residence on the site of the project, employment within walking distance of the project."

A family having dependent adults may be accepted for occupancy in one of the Authority projects, but households with lodgers or transient paying guests, two or more married couples with earned income, or a household of unrelated working adults are barred.

A special effort is made to house the original residents of a given site in the public projects, if they meet the requirements established. In this way the education of children is not disrupted, and social ties may be maintained, as well as church affiliation.

Door-to-door weekly rent collection is believed to have assisted families in becoming adjusted to their new surroundings in the Authority housing projects. The management assistants assigned to this work discuss with tenants matters that vary from relief and unemployment to care of apartments and budgeting incomes. Moreover, full rent collections were maintained at all three projects in 1938.

Some of the more important statistics of tenancy are shown for each project in the accompanying table. Turn-over of families was about one-half of 1 percent. Of the removals from projects, the one from First Houses was due to excess income; of the 10 families removed from Harlem River Houses 5 misrepresented family size, 3 misrepresented income, 1 moved South, and 1 was forced to move because death had left only 1 person in the family; and at Williamsburg Houses 9 families were asked to move because of misrepresentation of income.

Statistics of Tenancy on New York City Housing Authority Projects

Item	First Houses	Harlem River Houses	Williamsburg Houses
Population as of Dec. 31, 1938	389	2,130	6,036
Tenants moving out	1	10	31
New tenants	1	[1] 12	31
Apartment changes [2]	1	22	20
Marriages	2	1	5
Births	13	39	129
Deaths	0	16	10

[1] Space originally designed for social rooms was converted into two new apartments during the year.
[2] Figures include transfers within the project.

The Authority has established a checking system to insure continuous occupancy of its dwelling units by families for whom they were intended. Since the law does not specify the minimum incomes tenants shall have, the Authority has followed the same practice. If a family has a lower income than required under the Authority's decency standard, previous rent-paying ability is considered as evidence of sufficient income to meet the new rental.

Tenants, when accepted, sign an agreement to keep the Authority informed of changes in income. Investigation is made when there is reason to believe that the income has increased and has not been reported. Sworn statements on income are required each January for the preceding year.

Both the United States and New York City housing bodies believe that a reasonable period should be allowed to elapse before families whose incomes pass the legal maximum for admission to these projects are requested to move. In this way the permanency of the increase may be determined as well as the ability of those affected to obtain at least a minimum standard apartment in the commercial market.

Tenants in the New York City projects have initiated community activities to a large extent. These include lectures and social activities for adults, clubs and playgrounds for children, and nursery schools for young children.

The manner in which utility rates below the usual domestic schedule were obtained for the projects exemplifies another and a distinctive phase of the Authority's work during the year. As maintenance of low rents made it desirable to keep charges for electricity, gas, and water at a minimum, a successful effort was made to secure the same rates for the housing projects as those accorded the city for its buildings. As a result, contracts prescribing the lower rates were entered into by the companies and the Authority. On the Williamsburg and Harlem projects the estimated saving will be $27,000 annually.[2]

MUNICIPAL HOUSING IN COPENHAGEN

OF THE 105,000 apartment dwelling units built in Copenhagen from 1916 to 1938, the municipal housing corporation built 12,000 and assisted in the construction of an additional 35,000 by loans, loan guaranties, tax exemption, and grants-in-aid to cooperative and private building enterprises.[3] In all, the corporation sponsored the building of nearly half the dwellings erected during the period and has an interest in about one-fifth of the city's units. Except during a

[2] For data on similar savings on USHA building projects, see article on p. 1418 of December 1939 Monthly Labor Review.

[3] Danish Foreign Office Journal (Copenhagen), October 1939 (pp. 168–179): Copenhagen Municipal Housing Measures since 1916, by M. K. Bjerregaard.

short period when building costs were high, community support to housing has consisted of loans or loan guaranties instead of grants.

It has been customary for the Danish Government and the municipality to lend money or guarantee a loan to make up the difference between the total cost of building and the 5 to 20 percent of the cost which the owner has to invest plus the usual first and second mortgage loans. The city of Copenhagen's investment in buildings is 117 million kroner,[4] after deduction is made for Government grants of 10½ million kroner. Municipal grants-in-aid from 1916 to 1938 amounted to about 17.2 million kroner; loans totaled 33.7 million kroner; and loan guaranties 71.7 million kroner.

Originally, the municipality aided house building after approving the design and execution of a scheme and also, in most cases, the rentals to be charged. In recent years the corporation has confined its support almost entirely to cooperative housing societies. Residents in the projects do not benefit as individuals when mortgages are paid off in 40 to 60 years, as money which then becomes available is to be used for financing new housing or improving housing standards. The cooperative member enjoys low rentals and security of tenure and is guarded against increases in rent. His children and grandchildren will benefit when the dwellings are paid for and a profit accrues.

Skilled and other workers having employment are usually housed in dwellings provided through community support. The corporation's own units are for the poorest members of the population and large families. Multiple dwellings have been erected for the lowest-income families, as this kind of building is the most economical and lends itself to rapid production. In the corporation's buildings, families with children are given preference. The average per apartment is 4 in municipal properties, as compared with an average of 2.9 persons for the entire city.

Residential building has improved greatly since 1916. From 1916 to 1926 the proportion of the site covered by buildings was reduced, giving better light and air to the dwellings. The corporation stimulated this improvement by special land-coverage requirements before financial aid would be granted. In order to keep land costs low enough to permit such development the city sold some of its sites on a sliding price scale based on the degree of coverage by buildings, and required a similar concession on land prices for projects receiving municipal aid.

Since 1926, newly built low-cost dwellings have been equipped with modern conveniences that previously were installed only in large and expensive residences. New features of low-cost dwellings include central heat, hot-water supply, rubbish chutes from each floor,

[4] Exchange rate of krone in October 1939=19.3 cents.

stainless-steel sinks, and tiled bathrooms and kitchens. Of the dwellings built in 1916–25, less than 10 percent had central heating, as compared with nearly 31 percent of those constructed in 1926–30; the percentage increased to about 75 in 1931, 88 in 1932, and 92 in 1935. Of the 42,000 apartments built from 1933 to 1938, all of which had modern conveniences, only 792 were for rent in May 1939.

The typical Copenhagen apartment consists of 2 or 3 rooms and kitchen. The majority of the corporation's buildings lack central heating and hot-water supply and consequently bring lower rents than those of the cooperative housing societies which have more modern conveniences.

In the report here reviewed the need for garden-city developments in and around Copenhagen is stressed. The author states that the process should not be allowed to develop haphazardly, and that provision should be made to insure that travel time to and from work will not become burdensome. Among the other problems listed are adequate provision of dwellings for large families and old-age pensioners, and clearance of and reconditioning in substandard areas.

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

APPROPRIATIONS FOR STATE AND FEDERAL LABOR DEPARTMENTS

IN VIEW of the increasing number of labor laws being placed upon the statute books of the States and the Federal Government, it is of interest to note the appropriations made by the legislatures for the operation of the agencies charged with the administration of such laws.

In a majority of the States the trend has been to increase appropriations to the labor departments. A noteworthy increase was that provided by the Legislature of Alabama. During the 1939 session of that legislature a new department (department of industrial relations) was established and was given many new duties in addition to those performed by the department of labor created in 1935.

The Georgia Legislature made no appropriation in 1939 for the department of labor, but the Appropriation Act of 1937 states that "this act shall apply for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1938, and June 30, 1939, and to each and every year thereafter until amended or repealed by laws as appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939." No appropriation, except for the State employment service, is provided by the Legislature of Florida for the operation of the industrial commission, but the principal duty of that agency is to administer the workmen's compensation law, and its funds are secured by assessment against self-insurers and insurance companies writing workmen's compensation insurance.

The State of Arkansas enacted a workmen's compensation law in 1939, and appropriated $63,700 for its administration during the fiscal year 1939–40. However, prior to the effective date of the act, a referendum petition, containing more than a sufficient number of signatures, was filed with the secretary of state. As a result of this petition the enforcement of the law will be held in abeyance until the people of the State have an opportunity to vote upon the matter, or a special session of the legislature is called by the Governor.

During 1939, the Legislature of Idaho placed compensation for occupational diseases under the industrial accident board (Acts of 1939, ch. 161) and appropriated $10,000 for a 2-year period.

The trend also as regards Federal agencies administering labor laws has been to increase appropriations. For example, the appro-

priation for the United States Department of Labor for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, was $24,332,950, of which $814,000 was appropriated for the Bureau of Labor Statistics, while the figure for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940, was $30,536,170, of which $1,012,500 was for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The appropriation for the National Labor Relations Board for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, was $2,955,000 as compared with $3,039,600 for the year ending June 30, 1940. Moreover, the appropriation for the National Mediation Board was increased from $374,200 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, to $379,930 for the year ending June 30, 1940, and the Railroad Retirement Board received an increase from $120,465,000 for the year July 1, 1938, to June 30, 1939, to $123,404,000 for the year July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940. In a number of other agencies administering Federal labor laws, such as workmen's compensation, vocational rehabilitation and education, maritime labor, etc., there was an increase in the amount appropriated for 1939–40.

The following table gives a comparison of the amounts appropriated for certain State departments of labor by the last and by the current respective legislative bodies. The term "current" refers to appropriations made by the legislatures meeting in 1939, while "last" refers to amounts appropriated in 1937–38. For the most part, these data have been compiled from the official session law books of the States,[1] and checked by the States through correspondence. The sums are compared on an annual basis, and, where appropriations have been made for a 2-year period, it has been necessary to take approximate figures. During 1939, regular legislative sessions were held in all States except four (Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Virginia); hence, this report covers 44 States. The territories of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines are not included in the report, nor are the Federal labor agencies.

Last and Current Appropriations for Specified Labor Agencies, by States

State	Name of agency	Last appropriation	Current appropriation
Alabama	Department of industrial relations [1]	$20,000	[2] $128,000
Arizona	Industrial commission	32,300	30,160
	Employment service	12,500	12,500
Arkansas	Department of labor	15,000	18,500
	Boiler inspection	15,200	15,200
	Industrial board	15,000	16,400
	Mine inspection	4,650	6,600
California	Department of industrial relations	698,593	900,500
	Department of industrial relations from the boat fund.	4,409	4,350
	Division of fire safety	61,079	74,292
	Employment service	300,000	148,907
Colorado	Industrial commission	[3] 85,850	68,380
	Labor statistics	1,500	1,500
	Factory inspection	5,050	5,097
	Boiler inspection	7,400	7,550
	State compensation insurance fund	103,360	147,502
	Minimum wage division		9,620

See footnotes at end of table.

[1] For five States (Delaware, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Texas) 1939 session law books had not yet been received and the data were obtained by correspondence.

Last and Current Appropriations for Specified Labor Agencies, by States—Continued

State	Name of agency	Last appropriation	Current appropriation
Connecticut	Department of labor and factory inspection	[4] $189,212	[5] $171,615
	Workmen's compensation commission	71,449	68,503
Delaware	Labor commission	7,850	7,850
Florida	Industrial commission—employment service	70,000	70,000
Georgia	Department of labor	[6] 50,000	[7] 50,000
Idaho	Industrial accident board	24,515	23,105
	Occupational disease [8]		5,000
	Employment service	20,000	15,000
	Mine inspector	8,785	8,723
Illinois	Department of labor—general office	30,320	43,050
	Division of chief inspector of private employment agencies.	26,884	27,750
	Factory inspection	163,220	217,686
	Industrial commission	324,930	330,220
	Division of statistics and research	34,100	44,575
	Division of minimum wage for women and minors.	63,110	92,201
	Employment service	275,240	184,835
	Department of mines and minerals	114,360	120,290
Indiana	Department of commerce—division of labor and industrial board.	111,800	131,000
	Department of mines and mining	18,200	16,700
	Employment service	207,000	90,000
Iowa	Bureau of labor	18,250	15,000
	Employment service	77,500	59,853
	Mine inspectors	20,000	18,600
	Industrial commission	30,090	38,300
Kansas	Department of labor	54,640	46,920
	Workmen's compensation commission	5,000	5,000
	Employment service	60,000	60,000
Maine	Department of labor and industry	18,000	19,000
Maryland	Commissioner of labor and statistics	58,993	60,663
	Bureau of mines	19,558	24,270
	Industrial accident commission	147,044	137,882
	Employment commissioner	32,380	33,930
Massachusetts	Department of labor and industries	412,434	426,189
	Massachusetts development and industrial commission.	117,532	98,454
	Labor relations commission	64,400	65,248
	Division of unemployment compensation	102,938	103,000
	Department of industrial accidents	239,400	236,800
Michigan	Department of labor and industry	[9] 215,345	[10] 190,480
Minnesota	Department of labor and industry	267,000	[11] 223,518
Missouri	Department of labor and industrial inspection	50,275	50,675
	Workmen's compensation commission	123,500	146,000
Montana	Department of agriculture—division labor and publicity.	10,013	6,000
	Industrial accident board	40,000	40,000
	Unemployment compensation commission	13,021	13,021
Nebraska	Department of labor—safety division	12,088	12,100
	Department of labor—employment service	35,000	33,378
	Workmen's compensation court	24,000	22,560
Nevada	Department of labor	5,585	5,320
	Employment service	10,000	10,000
	Inspector of mines	14,950	15,135
New Hampshire	Bureau of labor	[12] 54,336	[12] 57,325
New Jersey	Department of labor	376,530	379,160 [13] 25,000
New Mexico	Labor and industrial commission	7,362	[14] 9,600
	Employment service	20,000	20,000
	Inspector of mines	5,400	5,400
New York	Department of labor	3,484,244	3,449,800
North Carolina	Department of labor	65,123	69,617
	Employment service	75,000	75,000
	Industrial commission	[15] 57,552	[16] 42,259
North Dakota	Department of agriculture and labor	12,172	12,565
	Minimum wage department	3,610	5,280
	Workmen's compensation bureau	76,310	79,960
	Department of coal mine inspection	4,485	4,755
	Employment service	16,500	16,500
Ohio	Department of industrial relations	403,124	380,344
Oklahoma	Department of labor	[17] 132,380	[18] 109,385
	Industrial commission	72,330	64,060
Oregon	Bureau of labor	6,000	11,000
	State welfare commission	6,923	10,000
	Employment service	34,000	25,500
Pennsylvania	Department of labor and industry	[19] 2,151,750	[20] 1,677,925
Rhode Island	Department of labor	87,190	80,180
South Carolina	Department of labor	32,942	30,323
	Employment service	42,118	42,118
	Industrial commission	56,212	52,936

See footnotes at end of table.

Last and Current Appropriations for Specified Labor Agencies, by States—Continued

State	Name of agency	Last appropriation	Current appropriation
South Dakota	Industrial commission	$8,400	[21] $5,900
Tennessee	Department of labor	[22] 49,500	48,772
	Employment service	50,000	60,000
Texas	Bureau of labor statistics	72,660	49,070
Utah	Industrial commission	60,000	67,500
	Minimum wages for women	10,000	10,000
	Labor relations board	5,000	5,000
	Employment service	12,301	12,301
	Disabled miners	17,500	17,500
Vermont	Department of industrial relations [23]	12,000	18,000
	Employment service	10,000	10,000
Washington	Department of labor and industries	427,500	464,040
West Virginia	Department of labor	44,615	48,455
	Compensation commission	317,590	315,340
	Compensation commission—silicosis fund	41,820	35,000
	Department of mines	245,700	254,200
	Reemployment division of unemployment compensation commission.	45,000	45,000
Wisconsin	Industrial commission	[24] 375,000	[25] 348,413
	Labor relations board	50,000	50,000
Wyoming	Department of labor and statistics	9,400	9,400
	State inspector of mines	16,350	16,350

[1] This department was established in 1939. Until that time the department charged with the administration of the State labor laws was known as the department of labor.
[2] $65,000 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[3] Includes $9,560 for minimum wage division and $12,500 for payment of workmen's compensation premiums.
[4] $45,858 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[5] $42,154 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[6] $37,500 of total is appropriated to the State employment office.
[7] There was no appropriation provided in 1939. However, sec. 30 of the appropriation act approved Mar. 30, 1937, states that "this act shall apply for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1938, and June 30, 1939, and to each and every year thereafter until amended or repealed by laws as appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939." See also footnote 6.
[8] Acts of 1939, ch. 161, places compensation for occupational diseases under the Industrial Accident Board.
[9] $8,345 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service. The total also includes $50,000 for occupational-disease compensation insurance.
[10] $8,280 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service. There was no appropriation for occupational-disease compensation insurance.
[11] Includes $15,000 for State employment service and $4,500 for the administration of the new apprenticeship law.
[12] $15,000 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[13] Supplemental appropriation for the extension of the minimum wage bureau.
[14] The salary of an assistant labor commissioner ($1,800 per annum) is added.
[15] This total was increased to $87,677 by receipts from costs, etc.
[16] Receipts for the current year have been estimated at $44,994 making the grand total $87,253.
[17] $75,000 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[18] $59,000 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[19] $240,700 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[20] 233,300 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[21] The appropriation for workmen's compensation was reduced ½, from $5,000 to $2,500.
[22] Letter received from State commissioner of labor states that $5,800 of appropriation for fiscal year ending June 30, 1939, was impounded by the director of the budget making total appropriation $43,700.
[23] This department was created by act No. 11 of the acts of 1939. The administration of labor laws was previously handled by a commissioner of industries.
[24] $55,000 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.
[25] $42,750 of this amount was appropriated to the State employment service.

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Review of Labor Relations Board Decisions by Courts

THREE decisions of the United States Supreme Court, rendered on January 2, 1940, defined the limits beyond which the courts cannot go in reviewing actions of the National Labor Relations Board. The Court held that the National Labor Relations Act does not provide for judicial review of the procedures and orders of the Board in cases pertaining to employee elections and certification of unions.

In substance, the Court said that the Labor Board has the final decision with regard to defining the appropriate unit, the names of unions which are to be placed on the ballot, and the election procedure to be followed. The right of judicial review, the Supreme Court held, is limited to cases involving unfair labor practices and to instances where the employer refuses to take some action predicated upon the results of an election.

One case [1] involved the Board's designation of the Congress of Industrial Organizations as the representative of about 13,000 longshoremen. The American Federation of Labor complained that its units operating in this field were denied certain rights guaranteed by the act. The Court agreed with the petitioner that the action of the Board had the effect of depriving employees of some companies "of opportunity to secure bargaining representatives of their own choice." However, by examining the act and its legislative history, the Court concluded that Congress did not intend to permit court interference with employee elections conducted by the Board.

Mr. Justice Stone, who delivered the opinion of the Court in this case, pointed out that the entire structure of the act emphasized, for the purposes of review, the distinction between an "order" of the Board restraining an unfair labor practice and a certification in representation proceedings. The conclusion was said to be inevitable that Congress, as a result of a deliberate choice of conflicting policies, has excluded representation cases from review by the courts except those involving unfair labor practices.

The second case [2] involved a direction for a run-off election in a representation proceeding. The Court, in an opinion delivered also by Mr. Justice Stone, upheld the order of the Board in this case on the same ground as set forth in the longshoremen's case, stating that the direction of an election is no more subject to review than a certification which is the final step in the proceeding, and which Congress had excluded from review.

The third case [3] grew out of a proceeding to enforce an order of the Board which required an employer to cease dominating an independent union and to disestablish it. This was consolidated with a proceeding wherein the Board directed an election, but included on the ballot only a C. I. O. union and an A. F. of L. union, but not the independent union. The Circuit Court of Appeals modified the Board's order of election by requiring that the independent union also be placed on the ballot.

The Supreme Court, speaking through Mr. Justice Black, held that the Circuit Court was in error, as the court had no authority under the

[1] *American Federation of Labor* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, 60 Sup. Ct. 300.
[2] *National Labor Relations Board* v. *International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers*, 60 Sup. Ct. 306.
[3] *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Falk Corporation*, 60 Sup. Ct. 307.

act to modify the direction of election. It had been argued that the Circuit Court had this authority under a provision of the National Labor Relations Act which permits a review in those cases in which the Board makes an order as a result of a prior certification of a selected bargaining agent. In answer to this contention, Mr. Justice Black declared that there can be no court review under this provision "until the Board issues an order and requires the employer to do something predicated upon the result of an election," and the Court observed in this case that no such order had been issued.

The Court also held that the Board justifiably drew the inference that the company-created union could not emancipate itself from habitual subservience to its creator and that in order to insure employees complete freedom of choice it must not be placed on the ballot. Further, the Court said that Congress had intrusted the power to draw such inferences to the Board, and not to the courts, and therefore the Board acted within its power in making the determination.

Average Weekly Wage and the Fair Labor Standards Act

The Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 does not affect the rule for the computation of average weekly wages in workmen's compensation cases, according to a recent decision of the Kentucky Court of Appeals.[4] The employer contended that since the so-called Federal wages and hours law provided for a 44-hour workweek during the first year of its operation for employees of employers engaged in interstate commerce, the average weekly wage earned by the employee should have been computed on the basis of a 5½-day week rather than a 6-day week.

The court ruled, however, that the purpose of the Federal act was not to limit the number of hours which an employer engaged in interstate commerce might require his employees to work during each week, but to require that they be paid additional compensation in the event they were compelled to work for a longer number of hours than the maximum prescribed. A long-established rule existed in the State by which, for the purpose of compensation, the average weekly wage of an injured employee is computed on the basis of a 6-day week. As no reason was shown why this rule should be changed, the court held that computation on the basis of a 6-day week was proper.

New York Hours-of-Service Law Upheld

The New York law which prohibits the operation of a motor bus or truck by a driver on duty continuously for 10 hours was recently held

[4] *Black Mountain Corporation* v. *Adkins*, 133 SW. (2d) 900.

constitutional by the Court of Appeals of that State.[5] The act does not apply to the operation of a vehicle exclusively within a city, or between cities when the vehicle was not on a fixed schedule, nor to the operation of a motor truck of a farmer or of wrecking and towing cars. It was contended that such exemptions were an unreasonable classification in violation of the equal-protection clause of the Constitution.

In upholding the validity of the statute, the court declared that the law does not violate the equal-protection clause of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution. The exemption from the law of operation of vehicles within a city, as well as the exemption of trucks of farmers and of vehicles not operating on a fixed schedule, was held to be a reasonable classification, in view of the purpose of the statute, which was to safeguard travelers upon the highways. In this connection, the court pointed out that "the dangers that result from fatigue induced by protracted driving may not prevail to a momentous degree in the localized or sporadic situations which the legislature here chose to remove from the operation of the statute." Finally, the court ruled that it was for the truck driver, accused of violating the statute, "to demonstrate that some permitted exception was a preference so arbitrary as to offend the rule of equal protection," and this, in the opinion of the court, he had not done.

GOVERNMENT REGULATION OF WORKERS' ORGANIZATIONS IN COSTA RICA [6]

BECAUSE a need was felt for a measure of Government control of workers' organizations in Costa Rica in order to insure their more orderly functioning, a register of such organizations and of unions legally constituted was established, by a decree of July 15, 1937. The government of each Province is to keep a register, and on the last of each month is to send a copy of any changes in it to the Secretariat of Labor. Only duly registered organizations or unions may exercise the rights conferred by law.

In order for an organization to be registered, it must submit a written request to the government of its Province. The request must be made by the member of the organization authorized by the

[5] *People* v. *Creeden*, 24 NE. (2d) 105.

[6] La Gaceta, San José, July 18, 1937, p. 1601.

statutes to represent it, and must include: (1) The name of the organization; (2) its location; (3) the date when its statutes were approved by the Executive Authority and the date of the official newspaper in which they were published; and (4) the number of members of the organization, noting separately Costa Ricans and those of other nationality. This classification of members by nationality must be furnished to the Government on June 30 and December 31 of each year, or upon request of the Governor. When any person in his private capacity presents an appeal of any kind before the authorities which is in any way related to labor, he must prove that he belongs to some workers' organization legally constituted, giving the name of the organization.

Cost and Standards of Living

CONSUMER EXPENDITURES IN THE UNITED STATES

THE amount and distribution of consumer expenditures at different income levels in the United States are presented in a recent bulletin of the National Resources Committee.[1] The report is based almost entirely on the Study of Consumer Purchases in which the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Home Economics cooperated with the National Resources Committee and the Central Statistical Board in a study financed by the Works Progress Administration. It presents general averages for all consumer units (families and single individuals combined) and averages for 15 different income levels, beginning at the "under $500" income level and proceeding to consumer units with incomes of $20,000 and over. These figures cover 39 million "consumer units"—29,400,300 families, and 10,058,000 men and women living as lodgers or servants in private homes, rooming houses, or hotels, or maintaining homes of their own as 1-person families. They represent 98 percent of the total population and receive nearly 99 percent of the total consumer income. Estimates of aggregate consumption expenditures for the remaining 2 million consumers (those living in institutional groups) are presented in a separate estimate by type of institution.

The report also gives estimates of consumption expenditures and of savings and deficits for families and for single individuals separately which are brought together in the tables which follow.

Average Spending Patterns of Families

When the expenditures of all families in 1935–36 are analyzed, it becomes apparent that the average income received by more than half of the Nation's families actually was insufficient, for the group as a whole, to meet current needs for food, housing, clothing, and other necessaries and comforts of daily living; that is, for families with incomes of less than $1,250 in 1935–36, average expenditure exceeded average income in that year. This does not mean, of course, that all of these 16 million families spent more than they received in 1935–36.

[1] National Resources Committee. Consumer Expenditures in the United States, Estimates for 1935–36. Washington, 1939.

Some of them managed to live within their incomes and even to save something, but these families were not sufficiently numerous, nor their savings sufficiently large, to bring the average expenditures of the group as a whole within the limits of their average income.

For families with incomes of less than $500, average outlay, including gifts made and personal taxes paid, exceeded average income by $162, or by almost 52 percent. As the average income increases, this deficit decreases in amount until it disappears and in its place appears a surplus of average income over average outlay. This surplus represents savings—that portion of a family's income not spent for current consumption.

The proportion of the total income saved grows rather rapidly as income advances, increasing from a bare 1 percent for incomes between $1,250 and $1,500, to 30 percent for those between $5,000 and $10,000, and to more than 50 percent, on the average, for incomes of $20,000 and over.

The fact that the proportion of income spent for current consumption decreases as income increases does not mean a decline in the actual dollars spent for current consumption. On the contrary, outlays for commodities and services rise very rapidly with income.

Families in the lowest income group spent an average of $203 on food (the largest single item in the family budget at all income levels up to $20,000), $90 a year on housing, $57 on household operation, and $35 on clothing. Those in the group with incomes of $20,000 and over spent on the same items an average of $2,261, $2,721, $2,177, and $2,177, respectively. The average expenditure on medical care for families was $22 in the lowest group, as contrasted with $837 for those in the highest. Average recreation expenditures ranged from $6 to $921, and average expenditures for automobiles ranged from $15 to $1,759.

In addition to meeting their own living expenses, most families pay some direct personal taxes and feel obliged to assist relatives and friends and to contribute to churches and philanthropic organizations. These outlays, on an average, ranged from 2 percent of the total family income for families with incomes below $1,250 to 14 percent for those with incomes of $20,000 and over. It must be emphasized that these figures refer only to the specific taxes mentioned and are no indication of the total tax burden borne by the different income groups. Inheritance, estate, and gift taxes do not appear in these estimates. Property taxes on owned homes, automobile and gasoline taxes, sales taxes, and taxes on tobacco, liquor, and amusements have been included in the estimates of expenditures for these goods and services. Direct taxes on business operations and on income-producing property were deducted as business expenses in calculating net consumer income.

TABLE 1.—*Average Outlay of American Families by Income Level, 1935–36*

[Estimates of National Resources Committee based on the Study of Consumer Purchases]

Item	All families	Families with incomes of—						
		Under $500	$500 to $750	$750 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,250	$1,250 to $1,500	$1,500 to $1,750	$1,750 to $2,000
Percent of families	100.0	14.2	12.9	14.6	13.2	9.8	8.0	6.4
Average income	$1,622	$312	$627	$874	$1,120	$1,364	$1,612	$1,829
Percent of income for—								
Savings	10.1	[1] −51.9	[1] −14.6	[1] −6.6	[1] −2.8	1.0	3.5	5.0
Food, total	28.8	65.0	49.5	43.5	38.7	35.7	32.7	30.5
Purchased	24.4	50.0	36.5	34.3	31.9	29.5	27.9	26.8
Home produced [2]	4.4	15.0	13.0	9.2	6.8	6.2	4.8	3.7
Housing, total	15.3	28.9	19.9	18.5	18.1	16.9	16.6	16.5
Money expense	10.4	19.9	13.5	13.2	12.7	11.6	11.5	11.8
Imputed value [3]	4.9	9.0	6.4	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.1	4.7
Household operation	10.0	18.2	13.5	12.1	11.6	10.9	10.3	10.2
Furnishings	2.9	2.9	2.5	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.7
Clothing	8.7	11.2	8.9	8.9	8.9	9.0	9.1	9.0
Automobile	7.0	4.8	4.5	5.0	6.3	6.8	7.6	8.4
Transportation other than automobile	1.0	1.0	.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Personal care	1.7	2.9	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9
Medical care	4.0	7.1	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.3
Recreation	2.5	1.9	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.7
Tobacco	1.6	2.9	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8
Reading	.8	1.3	.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	.9	.9
Formal education	.9	.6	.5	.5	.6	.7	.7	.8
Gifts	2.8	2.0	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.7
Personal taxes [4]	1.5	.6	.3	.2	.3	.2	.2	.2
Other items	.4	.6	.8	.5	.5	.5	.6	.4

Item	Families with incomes of—							
	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 to $5,000	$5,000 to $10,000	$10,000 to $15,000	$15,000 to $20,000	$20,000 and over
Percent of families	8.4	4.5	4.0	1.4	1.7	0.4	0.2	0.3
Average income	$2,221	$2,715	$3,394	$4,391	$6,874	$11,353	$17,331	$41,871
Percent of income for—								
Savings	8.2	11.6	15.6	20.6	29.5	38.9	39.9	50.7
Food, total	27.8	25.4	22.7	19.4	15.1	10.7	10.3	5.4
Purchased	24.9	22.8	20.5	17.9	14.1	10.3	10.0	5.3
Home produced [2]	2.9	2.6	2.2	1.5	1.0	.4	.3	.1
Housing, total	15.7	14.9	14.3	13.0	11.4	10.6	8.6	6.5
Money expense	10.9	10.1	9.6	8.6	7.5	7.0	5.2	3.5
Imputed value [3]	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.4	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.0
Household operation	9.6	9.6	9.4	9.1	8.5	6.7	6.8	5.2
Furnishings	3.4	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.1
Clothing	9.3	9.4	9.3	9.3	8.1	7.3	7.3	5.2
Automobile	9.0	8.9	8.5	8.7	7.6	6.0	5.3	4.2
Transportation other than automobile	1.0	.9	.9	.8	.7	1.0	2.3	1.0
Personal care	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.0	.9	.6
Medical care	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.6	2.0	2.4	2.0
Recreation	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.2
Tobacco	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.2	.9	.7	.6	.3
Reading	.9	.8	.8	.7	.6	.5	.4	.3
Formal education	.9	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.2	2.0	3.1	1.2
Gifts	2.9	3.3	3.6	4.2	4.3	4.5	3.8	2.1
Personal taxes [4]	.3	.3	.4	.6	1.4	2.9	3.6	11.8
Other items	.5	.4	.4	.4	.5	.2	.3	.2

[1] Deficit as a percent of income.

[2] For method of inputing money value to home-produced foods, see Consumer Expenditures in the United States, pp. 94–95. These figures cover rural families only.

[3] For method of inputing money value to owned homes, see above, or Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 642, vol. II, pp. 230–231.

[4] Taxes shown here include only personal income taxes, poll taxes, and certain personal property taxes.

Average Spending Patterns of Single Individuals

For the 10 million single men and women living alone, average expenditures in excess of average income were relatively less in amount in 1935–36 and savings were somewhat larger than in the case of families. Moreover, the income level at which average expenditures cease to exceed average income is lower—$1,000 as contrasted with $1,250. Approximately the same proportion of total expenditures is spent for food by single individuals as by families in all income groups. In dollar value, however, the average food bill of single individuals at a given income level naturally tends to be somewhat lower than that of families. A slightly larger percentage of income is spent for housing by individuals than by families, but this is offset by lower expenditures for household operation and furnishings, so that the average family expenditures for shelter—when these three items are added together—are somewhat greater than those of single men and women. On the other hand, the clothing expenditures of individuals tend to be somewhat higher up to the $2,500 income level, and outlays for gifts and personal taxes averaged decidedly more for single individuals than for families at every income level above $500.

TABLE 2.—*Average Outlay of American Single Individuals,*[1] *by Income Level, 1935–36*

[Estimates of National Resources Committee [2]]

Item	All single individuals	Single individuals with incomes of—						
		Under $500	$500 to $750	$750 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,250	$1,250 to $1,500	$1,500 to $1,750	$1,750 to $2,000
Percent of persons	100.0	25.2	19.6	15.9	11.0	8.7	5.4	4.0
Average income	$1,151	$300	$623	$873	$1,119	$1,368	$1,617	$1,868
Percent of income for—								
Savings	10.1	[3] −16.3	[3] −2.7	[3] −.5	2.0	4.7	7.2	9.6
Food	27.2	53.3	37.9	33.8	31.5	29.2	27.0	25.3
Housing	19.2	33.6	24.9	22.1	20.1	18.9	18.0	17.3
Household operation	4.5	4.0	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.0
Furnishings	.3	[4]	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3
Clothing	9.7	8.7	11.7	11.7	11.0	10.5	10.3	10.1
Automobile	3.7	[4]	1.0	2.2	3.4	4.1	4.5	4.8
Transportation other than by automobile	3.7	6.4	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.3
Personal care	1.7	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6
Medical care	2.9	1.7	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1
Recreation	3.7	1.0	2.6	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.5
Tobacco	1.8	1.0	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.3
Reading	1.4	2.3	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4
Formal education	.4	[4]	.5	.7	.7	.7	.6	.5
Gifts and personal taxes [5]	8.9	1.3	5.1	7.1	8.3	9.1	9.7	10.0
Other items	.8	[4]	.3	.6	.6	.7	.8	.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Outlay of American Single Individuals by Income Level, 1935–36*—Continued

Item	Single individuals with incomes of—							
	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 to $5,000	$5,000 to $10,000	$10,000 to $15,000	$15,000 to $20,000	$20,000 and over
Percent of persons	4.9	1.6	1.7	0.6	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.2
Average income	$2,225	$2,703	$3,411	$4,491	$6,827	$11,999	$17,052	$43,884
Percent of income for—								
Savings	12.5	15.6	19.9	25.1	31.4	38.8	42.1	51.4
Food	23.1	21.4	18.6	15.5	12.4	8.9	7.5	5.0
Housing	16.6	15.6	15.1	14.8	13.8	13.4	12.5	9.8
Household operation	4.8	4.6	4.2	3.6	3.1	2.5	2.1	1.5
Furnishings	.4	.3	.3	.4	.4	.3	.3	.2
Clothing	9.8	9.1	8.9	8.8	7.6	6.4	5.5	4.0
Automobile	5.1	5.7	5.8	5.3	5.6	5.3	5.9	4.5
Transportation other than by automobile	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.3
Personal care	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.1	.9	.6	.5	.3
Medical care	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.7	2.8
Recreation	4.6	4.7	4.6	4.1	4.0	3.4	3.5	2.6
Tobacco	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.0	.6	.5	.3
Reading	1.3	1.1	1.0	.8	.6	.4	.3	.2
Formal education	.5	.4	.3	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1
Gifts and personal taxes [5]	10.4	10.8	11.1	11.6	12.0	12.6	12.6	15.1
Other items	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	.9

[1] Persons who maintained an independent economic status and thus constituted individual consuming units.
[2] Based on the Study of Consumer Purchases in Chicago, Ill., and Portland, Oreg.; the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics' Study of Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in Philadelphia made in cooperation with the Pennsylvania Emergency Relief Board; the Study of the Cost of Living of Federal Employees in Washington made by the U. S. Bureaus of Labor Statistics and Home Economics; and the Young Women's Christian Association Business Girls' Budget Project.
[3] Deficit as a percent of income.
[4] Less than 0.05 percent.
[5] Taxes shown here include only personal income taxes, poll taxes, and certain personal property taxes.

COST OF LIVING IN MANILA, 1938

ONLY in the two highest income groups of skilled laborers' families in Manila in 1938 was a monthly surplus over expenditures shown. This fact was brought out in a survey by the Bureau of Labor of the Philippines, the results of which are summarized in a recent report.[1] The Philippine study included the average monthly living costs for nine industrial labor groups in the capital city of the Islands.

Four income groups were composed of the families of skilled laborers, and the other five groups, of families of unskilled laborers. The families had an average of five members, with one dependent usually contributing irregularly to the general income, as indicated in table 1.[1]

[1] U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Special Report No. 39/34: The Labor Situation in the Philippines during 1938, by E. Edward Schefer. Manila, 1939. (Mimeographed.)

TABLE 1.—*Average Monthly Income of 759 Families in Manila, 1938*

[Peso=about 50 cents in United States currency]

Skill and income group	Number of persons covered in survey	Total income	Income of family head		Contributions of—	
			Regular	Other sources	Members of family	Relatives
		Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
All income groups	759	34.55	31.46	0.62	1.81	0.66
Unskilled workers:						
Under 10 pesos	2	8.58	6.78	1.80		
10 and under 15 pesos	12	13.26	10.51	.69	2.06	
15 and under 20 pesos	39	17.54	16.23	.29	.55	.47
20 and under 25 pesos	56	21.84	19.88	.80	1.16	
25 and under 30 pesos	114	26.89	25.06	.32	1.12	.39
Skilled workers:						
30 and under 35 pesos	176	31.87	29.40	.52	1.45	.50
35 and under 40 pesos	136	38.22	36.08	.75	.97	.42
40 and under 45 pesos	132	43.19	39.03	.66	2.04	1.46
45 and under 50 pesos	92	49.69	42.44	.96	5.23	1.06

By comparing the total average monthly family incomes in table 1 and the average expenditures in table 2, a monthly surplus of 1.69 pesos is found for the families of skilled laborers with an average income of 40 and under 45 pesos per month, and a surplus of 4.27 pesos in the highest income group reported on—45 and under 50 pesos. In all the other income groups covered a deficit is shown.

TABLE 2.—*Average Monthly Cost of Living of Laborers in Manila, 1938*

[Peso=about 50 cents in United States currency]

Skill and income group	Total number of families covered in survey	Amount of expenditure					
		Total	Food	Shelter	Clothing	Fuel, light, and water	Miscellaneous[1]
		Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Average	759	34.83	20.14	3.72	1.78	3.16	6.03
Unskilled workers:							
Under 10 pesos	2	13.24	6.60	1.00	1.10	1.95	2.59
10 and under 15 pesos	12	18.22	10.13	1.39	1.01	2.22	3.47
15 and under 20 pesos	39	22.63	12.42	2.42	1.43	2.41	3.95
20 and under 25 pesos	56	25.44	14.04	3.04	1.32	2.65	4.39
25 and under 30 pesos	114	27.18	16.60	3.05	1.33	2.92	3.28
Skilled workers:							
30 and under 35 pesos	176	32.98	20.80	3.10	1.48	3.01	4.59
35 and under 40 pesos	136	39.17	21.75	4.55	1.85	3.29	7.73
40 and under 45 pesos	132	41.50	23.06	4.39	2.39	3.80	7.86
45 and under 50 pesos	92	45.42	25.26	4.85	2.48	3.43	9.40
		Percentage distribution					
Average	759	100	57.82	10.68	5.11	9.07	17.32
Unskilled workers:							
Under 10 pesos	2	100	49.84	7.55	8.40	14.70	19.51
10 and under 15 pesos	12	100	55.60	7.60	5.50	12.20	19.10
15 and under 20 pesos	39	100	54.80	10.70	6.32	10.70	17.48
20 and under 25 pesos	56	100	55.20	11.94	5.19	10.40	17.27
25 and under 30 pesos	114	100	61.07	11.22	4.89	10.75	12.07
Skilled workers:							
30 and under 35 pesos	176	100	63.07	9.40	4.49	9.12	13.92
35 and under 40 pesos	136	100	55.53	11.62	4.73	8.40	19.72
40 and under 45 pesos	132	100	55.57	10.58	5.76	9.16	18.93
45 and under 50 pesos	92	100	55.62	10.68	5.46	7.55	20.69

[1] Includes expenditures for health, education, recreation, and transportation.

Living costs for unskilled agricultural workers vary but little from year to year and are approximately the same throughout the Philippines. The following figures, giving estimates of living costs per month for such labor for 1936, are still considered representative, according to the report under review.

	Share tenant (pesos)	*Farm laborer (pesos)*
Total	22. 91	19. 14
Food	15. 29	11. 20
Clothing	2. 22	1. 97
Fuel and light	1. 08	. 95
Shelter	(1)	1. 27
Miscellaneous expenses:		
Medicine	. 89	. 57
Education for children	1. 06	1. 31
Others	2. 37	1. 57
Dues to farm laborers' society	----	. 30

[1] Families of share tenants have houses of their own or do not have to pay rent.

The approximate minimum and maximum monthly wages in the various Provinces for sugar laborers are 9.12 pesos and 28.80 pesos, respectively, for a month consisting of 4 weeks of 6 days each. The monthly minimum and maximum for rice workers approximate, respectively, 4.80 and 24.00 pesos. Both sugar and rice workers generally receive free meals, and the season lasts 5 months.

RABBITS AS SOURCE OF FOOD IN GERMANY

THE Labor Ministry of Germany issued an order on October 6, 1939, for the promotion of the breeding and raising of rabbits in the small land settlements, small gardens, and individual homes.[1] In agreement with the Ministry of Feeding and Agriculture, the order requires that the breeding and raising of rabbits by small farmers, settlers, and home owners be increased by utilizing the kitchen waste and garbage as food for the rabbits. The killing of female rabbits is to be avoided, according to the order.

Special breeds are recommended and prospective raisers are directed to certain Government publications dealing with methods of breeding, feeding, and housing of rabbits.

The order points out that in planning a rabbit-production enterprise, the following needs should be kept in mind: Available supply of fodder; enough land to raise it, or an opportunity to increase the land holding; and enough kitchen waste available. The order cancels the former prohibitions against keeping small animals under certain conditions.

[1] Reichsarbeitsblatt for October 25, 1939, pt. I, pp. 489–490.

An order of October 12, 1939, increased the State loans to small gardeners.[2]

Some years ago there was similar official propaganda for raising rabbits as a source of meat in the Soviet Union. Special orders for rabbit raising were issued and the official dailies published detailed instructions. Not only were the independent peasants urged to engage in rabbit raising, but the factory workers and the peasants in the kolkhozys were given land for their individual use in raising vegetables and small animals for meat.

[2] Reichsarbeitsblatt for October 25, 1939, pt. I, Idem, p. 491.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

THERE was a substantial reduction in strike activity in December 1939, as compared with preceding months of the year. Preliminary estimates indicate only 105 new strikes, involving 13,000 workers and 375,000 man-days of idleness because of strikes during December. As compared with November, these figures show reductions of 36 percent in number of strikes, 70 percent in number of workers involved, and 77 percent in man-days of idleness.

Trend of Strikes, 1933 to December 1939 [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	
1933		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934		1,856				1,466,695		19,591,949
1935		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
1938		2,772				688,376		9,148,273
1938								
January	120	168	288	159	129	35,329	55,850	473,289
February	129	198	327	180	147	53,175	77,486	514,111
March	147	274	421	246	175	56,759	105,962	767,856
April	175	281	456	261	195	78,666	110,950	838,158
May	195	300	495	290	205	83,029	124,682	1,174,052
June	205	219	424	245	179	52,801	95,854	871,002
July	179	208	387	215	172	50,193	85,672	776,237
August	172	262	434	272	162	48,378	81,052	830,987
September	162	222	384	234	150	96,399	133,357	989,916
October	150	256	406	241	165	52,703	113,074	842,202
November	165	207	372	239	133	43,128	75,445	557,903
December	133	177	310	190	120	37,816	62,160	512,560
1939								
January	120	190	310	177	133	50,710	71,978	516,034
February	133	186	319	188	131	67,196	87,041	546,756
March	131	198	329	189	140	41,926	63,047	612,072
April	140	237	377	222	155	391,186	419,967	4,881,959
May	155	230	385	241	144	93,455	454,099	3,528,778
June	144	215	359	237	122	59,645	124,829	953,978
July	122	205	327	189	138	171,690	207,318	1,150,705
August	138	226	364	218	146	75,046	111,877	1,068,808
September	146	158	304	177	127	34,939	99,261	874,086
October	127	170	297	185	112	104,259	135,700	1,476,902
November [1]	112	163	275	165	110	43,000	126,000	1,625,000
December [1]	110	105	215	125	90	13,000	39,000	375,000

[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.

Strike activity in December was considerably lower than a year ago. A comparison of the preliminary estimates for the month with the figures for December 1938 indicate reductions of 41 percent in number of strikes, 66 percent in number of workers involved, and 27 percent in man-days of idleness.

The figures for November and December 1939, given in the preceding table, are preliminary estimates based on newspaper reports and other information available as this goes to press. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

STRIKES IN OCTOBER 1939[1]

DETAILED information has been received concerning 170 strikes which began in October and involved over 104,000 workers. These strikes, plus 127 which continued into October from preceding months, made a total of 297 strikes in progress during the month, involving nearly 136,000 workers and resulting in 1,477,000 man-days of idleness in October.

The largest number of strikes beginning in October in any industry group was 22 in retail and wholesale trade. There were 17 in the food industries, 17 in transportation and communication, 16 in building and construction, 14 in the lumber and allied products industries, and 13 in textiles. The largest number of workers involved and man-days idle were in automobile manufacturing and agriculture, as a result of the Chrysler and cotton-pickers' disputes referred to below. In the automobile-manufacturing industry there were more than 59,000 workers involved in new strikes in October and nearly 890,000 man-days of idleness. In agriculture more than 15,000 workers were involved and they were idle for about 104,000 man-days.

The Chrysler dispute.—The United Automobile Workers of America obtained its first widespread union agreement with the Chrysler Corporation early in April 1937 at the close of a 1-month strike. In this agreement, the union was recognized as the collective-bargaining agency for its members. It was renewed, upon expiration, for 1 year—until March 31, 1939. There were monthly extensions thereafter until September 30, 1939. In the meantime, the National Labor Relations Board had announced plans to conduct elections in the Chrysler plants, since the question of majority representation was in dispute at some plants between the U. A. W. (C. I. O.) and the U. A. W. (A. F. of L.). The elections were held September 27, and the U. A. W. (C. I. O.) won by a large majority in 11 of the 13 plants.

[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.

The U. A. W. (A. F. of L.) obtained a majority at the Evansville, Ind., plant, and in Kokomo, Ind., a majority voted for neither union.

On October 6, the company accused the union of conducting a slow-down strike in one of the Dodge plants and discharged a number of workers as a disciplinary measure. Within a day or two, some 20,000 men were idle at the Dodge plants, the company contending that the stoppage was due to a union-ordered slow-down, and the union claiming it was a lock-out after an attempted speed-up on the new 1940 models. Within a few days other Chrysler plants were closed, affecting a total of approximately 50,000 workers.

As negotiations to settle the dispute and draft a new contract got under way, the union demanded: Joint study and control of production standards, wage increase of 10 cents per hour, union shop, arbitration of grievances, seniority rights, and no strikes or lock-outs until the entire grievance machinery had been exhausted.

At conferences, with participation by Federal and State conciliators, which were continued during the next few weeks, the most controversial issues were the joint control of production standards and the union shop. The union reduced its wage demand from an increase of 10 cents per hour to 5 cents, with a few other adjustments. Before the wage issue was settled, the company received a request for recognition of the United Foremen's and Supervisors' Union, affiliated with the C. I. O. This threatened to disrupt the wage negotiations, the company demanding that this request be withdrawn before wage negotiations could proceed. A few days after the foremen's union withdrew its request for recognition (November 29), an agreement settling the entire dispute was signed. Meanwhile, on November 16, the National Labor Relations Board had certified the U. A. W. (C. I. O.) as the collective bargaining agent for the 11 plants as one unit.

The new agreement did not provide for a union shop, but recognized the union as exclusive bargaining agent for production employees in the 11 plants of the company, excluding only 1 department (die-sinkers) in the Newcastle, Ind., plant. Definite grievance machinery is to be created with an appeal board composed of two executives of the corporation and two official representatives of the union, which shall render a decision on any dispute within 30 days after submitted. Any complaint or grievance concerning production standards is to be settled through the regular grievance machinery. A wage increase of 3 cents per hour was granted, and the differential between wage rates in Detroit plants and plants outside Detroit is to be narrowed by 1 cent. Seniority rights are provided for. There are to be no strikes or lock-outs before the entire grievance procedure has been exhausted and in no case before a negotiating period of

5 days. The contract can be terminated immediately if a strike is called.

The agreement runs until November 30, 1940, and from year to year thereafter unless either party notifies the other, between November 1 and 15 in any year, of its desire to terminate the agreement.

The California cotton pickers' strike.—The cotton pickers' strike, which began early in October, involved approximately 15,000 workers and extended into Kern, Tulare, Kings, Fresno, Madera, and Merced Counties. It was conducted by the United Cannery, Agricultural, Packing, and Allied Workers of America in an attempt to raise the wage rate for cotton picking from 80 cents per hundred pounds to $1.25. The strike was not terminated until late in November, although many of the pickers had returned to work earlier. Late in October the union offered to compromise for $1 per hundred pounds and sent workers back into the fields wherever this rate was paid. When the strike was ended the union claimed that the $1 rate was fairly widely established and that signed contracts were obtained in a few cases.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in October 1939, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	170	104,259	297	135,700	1,476,902
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	7	1,704	11	2,683	26,455
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	1	22	2	292	5,984
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	1	280	1	280	3,360
Forgings, iron and steel			1	255	1,530
Hardware			1	374	8,228
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings			1	80	80
Structural and ornamental metal work	1	350	1	350	700
Tin cans and other tinware	1	472	1	472	2,360
Wire and wire products	2	384	2	384	2,253
Other	1	196	1	196	1,960
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	8	973	20	2,633	22,408
Agricultural implements	1	45	1	45	450
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	2	249	5	429	2,308
Foundry and machine-shop products	5	679	8	1,169	14,695
Radios and phonographs			1	33	165
Other			5	957	4,790
Transportation equipment	9	59,438	15	63,798	889,772
Automobiles, bodies and parts	9	59,438	15	63,798	889,772
Nonferrous metals and their products	6	1,415	6	1,415	21,116
Jewelry	3	64	3	64	921
Lighting equipment	1	57	1	57	57
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	2	1,294	2	1,294	20,138
Lumber and allied products	14	2,911	32	8,974	64,339
Furniture	7	1,119	15	1,614	10,229
Millwork and planing	1	225	4	590	7,400
Sawmills and logging camps	2	988	7	5,932	40,972
Other	4	579	6	838	5,738
Stone, clay, and glass products	4	287	6	369	3,404
Cement			1	32	320
Pottery	1	62	1	62	186
Other	3	225	4	275	2,898
Textiles and their products	13	7,703	29	14,176	110,088
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods	1	28	3	2,628	32,084
Dyeing and finishing textiles			1	319	7,018
Silk and rayon goods			2	596	4,453
Woolen and worsted goods	1	300	1	300	2,100
Other	2	318	4	818	3,938

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in October 1939, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Textiles and their products—Continued.					
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	1	1,600	1	1,600	4,800
Clothing, women's	4	3,519	9	4,793	33,804
Hats, caps, and millinery			1	14	14
Hosiery			2	570	11,016
Knit goods	4	1,938	4	1,938	4,261
Other			1	600	6,600
Leather and its manufactures	4	563	10	2,181	28,257
Boots and shoes			3	957	19,847
Leather			1	164	984
Other leather goods	4	563	6	1,060	7,426
Food and kindred products	17	2,090	25	3,787	28,079
Baking	4	133	5	153	1,182
Beverages			1	8	56
Canning and preserving	3	187	5	894	10,373
Confectionery	1	180	1	180	540
Flour and grain mills	2	139	2	139	2,887
Ice cream	1	11	1	11	11
Slaughtering and meat packing	4	1,139	7	2,046	12,575
Other	2	301	3	356	455
Tobacco manufactures			1	650	14,300
Cigars			1	650	14,300
Paper and printing	4	264	9	493	4,734
Boxes, paper			1	33	726
Paper and pulp	2	201	2	201	3,186
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job			1	9	36
Newspapers and periodicals			2	26	410
Other	2	63	3	224	376
Chemicals and allied products	5	175	7	645	6,984
Chemicals	1	14	2	254	2,456
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	1	25	1	25	650
Paints and varnishes	1	49	1	49	49
Petroleum refining			1	230	3,220
Other	2	87	2	87	609
Rubber products			1	60	1,320
Other rubber goods			1	60	1,320
Miscellaneous manufacturing	5	754	11	1,588	10,254
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas			2	790	3,670
Other	5	754	9	798	6,584
Extraction of minerals	5	2,638	6	2,673	18,948
Coal mining, anthracite	1	140	1	140	140
Coal mining, bituminous	2	1,557	3	1,592	9,124
Metalliferous mining	2	941	2	941	9,684
Transportation and communication	17	1,207	23	1,784	18,423
Water transportation	8	485	10	573	5,139
Motortruck transportation	7	423	8	457	3,144
Motorbus transportation	1	260	1	260	2,080
Taxicabs and miscellaneous			1	173	2,941
Telephone and telegraph			1	273	4,573
Radio broadcasting and transmitting	1	39	2	48	546
Trade	22	705	38	1,991	17,739
Wholesale	7	298	13	724	9,586
Retail	15	407	25	1,267	8,153
Domestic and personal service	7	508	15	1,916	24,674
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	1	23	3	66	697
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors			1	23	184
Laundries	4	176	7	1,352	17,584
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing			1	152	3,952
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	2	309	2	309	1,935
Other			1	14	322
Professional service	1	27	1	27	243
Recreation and amusement	1	27	1	27	243
Building and construction	16	4,181	22	4,914	22,888
Buildings, exclusive of PWA	9	3,553	14	4,225	15,872
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings)	7	628	8	689	7,016
Agriculture and fishing	2	15,230	4	17,450	129,280
Agriculture	2	15,230	2	15,230	104,140
Fishing			2	2,220	25,140
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects	1	1,377	1	1,377	12,393
Other nonmanufacturing industries	3	109	4	116	804

Of the 170 strikes beginning in October, there were 57 in New York, 19 in Pennsylvania, 15 in California, and 12 in New Jersey. The largest number of workers involved was in Michigan (50,535). There were 18,415 in California, 8,870 in New York, and 4,198 in Pennsylvania. Of the approximately 1½ million man-days idle in October, 848,000 were in Michigan, 145,000 were in California, 66,000 were in Pennsylvania, and 65,000 were in New York.

Five of the strikes beginning in October extended into two or more States. The largest of these was a strike of more than 3,000 lingerie and negligee workers in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, from October 10 to 13. The strike was terminated by an agreement between Local No. 62 of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and the United Underwear Contractors' Association.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in October 1939, by States*

State	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	170	104,259	297	135,700	1,476,902
Alabama	1	673	3	1,196	19,306
Arizona	1	25	1	25	650
Arkansas			1	50	1,300
California	15	18,415	26	22,309	144,704
Colorado			2	196	1,107
Connecticut	2	319	3	499	2,584
District of Columbia	1	175	3	581	505
Florida	2	307	4	1,003	11,819
Illinois	7	1,620	11	2,372	23,333
Indiana	6	737	12	1,591	20,520
Kansas	1	53	3	73	516
Maine	1	35	1	35	350
Massachusetts	3	68	7	914	17,064
Michigan	6	50,535	16	57,293	848,496
Minnesota	1	45	2	98	1,616
Missouri	4	702	8	1,111	11,570
Montana			1	33	99
Nebraska	1	11	1	11	121
New Hampshire			1	110	2,420
New Jersey	12	2,748	20	3,338	30,179
New York	57	8,870	81	10,097	65,234
North Carolina	1	1,700	2	2,019	8,718
North Dakota			1	217	5,642
Ohio	5	1,155	12	2,887	14,397
Oregon	1	188	3	687	10,665
Pennsylvania	19	4,198	34	7,375	66,119
Rhode Island			1	80	80
South Carolina			1	2,100	21,000
Tennessee			4	550	11,739
Texas	3	74	4	474	12,599
Utah	1	268	1	268	1,608
Virginia	2	100	2	100	1,900
Washington	7	1,164	9	2,534	18,042
West Virginia	3	69	4	339	6,663
Wisconsin	2	3,336	4	3,418	49,910
Interstate	5	6,669	8	9,717	44,327

The average number of workers involved in the 170 strikes beginning in October was 613. About 62 percent of the strikes involved fewer than 100 workers each, 31 percent involved from 100 up to 1,000 each, 6 percent involved from 1,000 up to 5,000, and two disputes—Chrysler and cotton pickers—each involved more than 10,000 workers. (See table 3.)

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in October 1939, 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	10,000 and over
All industries	170	35	71	46	6	10	2
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	7		2	5			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	8		3	5			
Transportation equipment	9		2	2	1	3	1
Nonferrous metals and their products	6	2	3			1	
Lumber and allied products	14	3	4	5	2		
Stone, clay, and glass products	4		3	1			
Textiles and their products	13	2	4	4		3	
Leather and its manufactures	4		1	3			
Food and kindred products	17	3	7	6	1		
Paper and printing	4	1	2	1			
Chemicals and allied products	5	1	4				
Miscellaneous manufacturing	5	1	2	1	1		
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	5			3	1	1	
Transportation and communication	17	2	12	3			
Trade	22	13	8	1			
Domestic and personal service	7	1	5	1			
Professional service	1		1				
Building and construction	16	6	5	4		1	
Agriculture and fishing	2			1			1
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects	1					1	
Other nonmanufacturing industries	3		3				

In slightly more than half of the strikes beginning in October, including 63 percent of the total workers involved, the major issues were recognition, closed shop, discrimination, or other union-organization matters. The Chrysler dispute accounts for the large proportion of workers in this group. In about 31 percent of the strikes, including 28 percent of the total workers, the major issues were wages and hours, and, in 18 percent of the strikes, including 9 percent of the total workers, the major issues were miscellaneous matters, including sympathy strikes, jurisdictional, rival union or factional disputes, and various specific grievances.

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TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in October 1939*

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	**170**	**100.0**	**104,259**	**100.0**
Wages and hours	53	31.2	29,047	27.9
Wage increase	41	24.2	25,294	24.3
Wage decrease	6	3.5	3,373	3.2
Wage increase, hour decrease	6	3.5	380	.4
Union organization	87	51.2	66,049	63.3
Recognition	9	5.3	562	.5
Recognition and wages	20	11.8	53,412	51.2
Recognition and hours	2	1.2	53	.1
Recognition, wages, and hours	20	11.8	4,816	4.6
Closed or union shop	21	12.2	4,274	4.1
Discrimination	12	7.1	927	.9
Other	3	1.8	2,005	1.9
Miscellaneous	30	17.6	9,163	8.8
Sympathy	5	2.9	3,355	3.2
Rival unions or factions	4	2.4	1,107	1.1
Jurisdiction [1]	3	1.8	343	.3
Other	17	9.9	4,333	4.2
Not reported	1	.6	25	(2)

[1] It is probable that the figures here given to not include all jurisdictional strikes. Because of the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Of the 297 strikes in progress during October, 185 were terminated during the month. The average duration of these 185 strikes was about 27 calendar days; 32 percent of them lasted less than a week; 38 percent lasted from a week up to 1 month; 27 percent from 1 up to 3 months; and 3 percent (6 strikes) had been in progress for 3 months or more. (See table 5.)

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in October 1939*

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	185	59	44	26	39	11	6
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	5	2	3				
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	15	3	2	1	8		1
Transportation equipment	11	3	2	2	4		
Nonferrous metals and their products	1	1					
Lumber and allied products	21	6	5		7	2	1
Stone, clay, and glass products	3	1	1	1			
Textiles and their products	15	6	1	1	4	1	2
Leather and its manufactures	7	2	1	2	1	1	
Food and kindred products	15	7	3	1	1	2	1
Paper and printing	5		2	1	2		
Chemicals and allied products	3	1			1		1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	8	1	1	4	1	1	
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	2	1	1				
Transportation and communication	14	6	4	2	2		
Trade	27	7	8	6	5	1	
Domestic and personal service	11	3	3	1	2	2	
Professional service	1		1				
Building and construction	15	8	4	3			
Agriculture and fishing	1				1		
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects	1			1			
Other nonmanufacturing industries	4	1	2			1	

About 55 percent of the strikes ending in October were settled with the assistance of government officials or boards. Over 41 percent of the total (49,536) workers involved were in these strikes. About 31 percent of the strikes, including 48 percent of the workers involved, were settled by direct negotiations between employers and representatives of organized workers. Eleven percent of the strikes, including 10 percent of the workers involved, were terminated without formal settlements—the workers in most of these cases returning to work without a settlement of the disputed issues or losing their jobs entirely when employers replaced them with new workers, moved, or went out of business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in October 1939*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	185	100.0	49,536	100.0
Employers and workers directly	2	1.1	54	.1
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	57	30.8	23,893	48.2
Government officials or boards	102	55.1	20,489	41.4
Private conciliators or arbitrators	3	1.6	202	.4
Terminated without formal settlement	21	11.4	4,898	9.9

As indicated in table 7, about 45 percent of the 185 strikes ending in October were settled on a compromise basis, 38 percent resulted in the workers gaining substantially what was demanded, and 13½ percent brought little or no gains to the workers. Of the 49,536 workers involved, 28 percent gained substantially what was demanded, 57 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 13 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in October 1939*

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	185	100.0	49,536	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	71	38.4	13,774	27.8
Partial gains or compromises	83	44.9	28,272	57.1
Little or no gains to workers	25	13.5	6,559	13.2
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	5	2.7	906	1.8
Not reported	1	.5	25	.1

The data in table 8 indicate that a larger proportion of the wage-and-hour strikes were successful than the union-organization disputes. In the wage-and-hour group, 48 percent of the strikes were substantially won by the workers, 47 percent were compromised, and 5 percent brought little or no gains as compared with 36 percent won,

46 percent compromised, and 18 percent which brought little or no gains in the union-organization strikes.

As for the workers involved, 70 percent of those in the wage-and-hour strikes obtained compromise settlements as compared with 49 percent of the workers involved in union-organization strikes. About 22 percent of the workers in wage-and-hour disputes substantially won their demands as compared with 33 percent in the union-organization group; and 8 percent of the workers in wage-and-hour strikes gained little or nothing as compared with 18 percent in the other group.

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in October 1939, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—				
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Not reported
	Number of strikes					
All issues	185	71	83	25	5	1
Wages and hours	60	29	28	3		
Wage increase	43	21	21	1		
Wage decrease	9	4	4	1		
Wage increase, hour decrease	7	4	3			
Hour decrease	1			1		
Union organization	103	37	47	19		
Recognition	13	5	5	3		
Recognition and wages	20	4	11	5		
Recognition and hours	2			2		
Recognition, wages, and hours	22	8	11	3		
Closed or union shop	31	11	16	4		
Discrimination	13	8	4	1		
Other	2	1		1		
Miscellaneous	22	5	8	3	5	1
Sympathy	3		2	1		
Rival unions or factions	2				2	
Jurisdiction	3				3	
Other	13	5	6	2		
Not reported	1					1
	Number of workers involved					
All issues	49,536	13,774	28,272	6,559	906	25
Wages and hours	19,043	4,255	13,369	1,419		
Wage increase	14,655	2,478	12,149	28		
Wage decrease	3,662	1,677	608	1,377		
Wage increase, hour decrease	712	100	612			
Hour decrease	14			14		
Union organization	26,829	8,993	13,029	4,807		
Recognition	1,692	598	371	723		
Recognition and wages	5,517	265	3,056	2,196		
Recognition and hours	21			21		
Recognition, wages, and hours	6,631	3,994	2,472	165		
Closed or union shop	9,943	3,383	6,492	68		
Discrimination	1,048	403	638	7		
Other	1,977	350		1,627		
Miscellaneous	3,664	526	1,874	333	906	25
Sympathy	255		201	54		
Rival unions or factions	830				830	
Jurisdiction	76				76	
Other	2,478	526	1,673	279		
Not reported	25					25

ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, DECEMBER 1939

THE United States Conciliation Service in December disposed of 280 situations, involving 101,820 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 145 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 94,994 workers. The remaining situations, involving 6,826 workers, were services rendered, such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, holding conferences regarding labor conditions, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 26 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 37 States and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, December 1939, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	145	94,994	135	6,826	280	101,820
Agriculture	3	4,200	2	1,501	5	5,701
Automobile	4	60,041	2	2	6	60,043
Building trades	8	1,050	4	9	12	1,059
Chemicals	4	604			4	604
Communications	2	301	1	50	3	351
Domestic and personal	17	2,446	3	14	20	2,460
Food	10	671	4	123	14	794
Iron and steel	8	1,019	5	42	13	1,061
Leather	3	1,175			3	1,175
Lumber	17	2,310	3	3	20	2,313
Machinery	13	6,999	8	8	21	7,007
Maritime	5	7,430	6	705	11	8,135
Mining			2	3	2	3
Motion pictures	2	5	1	1	3	6
Nonferrous metals	3	520			3	520
Paper	4	288	1	1	5	289
Petroleum	1	6	6	28	7	34
Printing	2	377	3	25	5	402
Professional			2	2	2	2
Rubber	2	125			2	125
Stone, clay, and glass	5	544	1	1	6	545
Textile	8	1,670	20	2,563	28	4,233
Trade	12	1,306	7	193	19	1,499
Transportation	7	141	4	4	11	145
Transportation equipment	1	750			1	750
Utilities	2	898			2	898
Unclassified	2	118	50	1,548	52	1,666

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, December 1939, by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	145	94,994	135	6,826	280	101,820
Alabama	2	84	2	1,301	4	1,385
Arkansas			3	4	3	4
Arizona	2	94	1	1	3	95
California	16	12,120	11	2,227	27	14,347
Connecticut	3	1,238			3	1,238
Delaware	1	4			1	4
District of Columbia	10	846	28	103	38	949
Florida	1	300			1	300
Georgia	2	880	1	1	3	881
Illinois	10	1,291	7	90	17	1,381
Indiana	8	469	10	255	18	724
Iowa	4	42	4	53	8	95
Kansas	1	86			1	86
Kentucky	1	196			1	196
Maryland			4	702	4	702
Massachusetts	8	2,785	2	101	10	2,886
Michigan	3	60,024	2	2	5	60,026
Minnesota	3	338			3	338
Mississippi			1	1	1	1
Montana	1	9			1	9
Missouri	5	1,274	1	1	6	1,275
New Jersey	6	529	4	53	10	582
New Mexico	4	4			4	4
New Hampshire	1	350			1	350
New York	4	543	7	61	11	604
North Carolina	4	545	14	31	18	576
Ohio	13	2,250	5	210	18	2,460
Oklahoma	1	3			1	3
Oregon	1	645			1	645
Pennsylvania	12	986	12	901	24	1,887
Rhode Island			1	2	1	2
South Carolina			10	20	10	20
Texas	1	320			1	320
Tennessee	2	74	1	700	3	774
Virginia	2	450			2	450
Washington	2	4,794	3	5	5	4,799
West Virginia	4	160			4	160
Wisconsin	7	1,261	1	1	8	1,262

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

FIRST YEAR'S OPERATIONS UNDER FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

THE Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 proved to be enforceable, brought about wage increases for thousands of workers, and was held constitutional in all court tests in the first year of operation. In the annual report of the Wage and Hour Division to Congress under date of January 8, 1940 [1] the Division's activities from January 1 to December 3, 1939, are outlined and the following are stated to be the outstanding facts:

1. The act has recently been held constitutional in separate actions by four Federal judges. It has suffered no setbacks on this score.

2. The Wage and Hour Division will have 700 inspectors in the field by the end of June. Such a staff should make it possible to do an effective enforcement job.

3. On an annual basis this would require an appropriation of about $7,700,000.

4. In 139 legal actions begun by the Division and by the Department of Justice, enforcement of the wage and hour law has encountered only two setbacks in court. A third court defeat occurred in an action in which the Division was the defendant.

5. In every one of the Department of Justice's 37 criminal actions which have been completed, the prosecution has been successful. In each instance the defendants have pleaded guilty. Fines totaled $247,850. Payment of $132,350 of this was suspended conditional on full restitution by the employers to employees of wages illegally withheld. Twenty-six cases are pending.

6. More than $1,000,000 in back payments has been agreed upon for more than 18,000 employees. Of this more than $250,000 already has been paid.

7. Now that the Division's activities have been decentralized into 15 regions, interest of wage earners in obtaining relief through the law is at a peak. More than 1,000 complaints a week are currently being received by wage-hour offices. This volume is greater than the previous high when the act first went into effect.

8. Slightly more than half the complaints are regarding overtime rather than minimum wages.

9. More than 650,000 workers in the continental United States presumably have been given wage-rate increases to comply with the 30-cent minimum which went into effect October 24 last, without any noticeable dislocation of employment. Nearly 2,400,000 wage earners had their workweek shortened to 42 hours unless given time and a half for overtime.

10. Additional wage-rate increases will come to an estimated 526,500 employees if minimum-wage recommendations by industry committees pending are given administrative approval.

[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press Release No. R-556, January 8, 1940.

Although the Administrator is empowered to make recommendations for further legislation that he may find advisable, none were presented in this report. However, an appendix contains the 42 bills to amend the law, which were pending when the report was submitted.

American industry had adapted itself with apparent ease to the increase in minimum wages and the decrease in normal working time effective October 24, 1939, it is stated in the report. Of the defendants in wage and hour cases some have been large corporations, however.

Significant effects are expected in 36 States from the raising of the wage floor to 30 cents an hour on October 24, 1939. Wages above this level were already required to be paid workers subject to the act in two industries (hosiery and textile), for which higher minimum rates of pay were established by wage orders under the industry-committee method of reaching the 40-cent-an-hour goal of the law. A third wage order covering the millinery industry was to become effective January 15. Six other industry committees had made recommendations for industries comprising all the major operations in the textile-apparel group. Should wage orders be made covering these industries, it is estimated that wage increases would result for 526,500 employees. Railroading was the first industry outside the textile group for which an industry committee was appointed for the purpose of establishing minimum wages.

As the United States Chamber of Commerce stated that there was a shortage of skilled labor in December, the Wage and Hour Division surveyed the field under its responsibility "to prevent curtailment of opportunities for employment." The Administrator is empowered to certify employment of learners at minimum rates of pay below that prescribed by the law, but no shortages of skilled workers were found where industries had been located long enough to train employees. Although applications for the employment of learners at less than the general minimum have been made by fewer than 1,500 employers, approximately 40,000 establishments in the textile and apparel industries alone may apply for such exemption. According to the report, this is interpreted as showing that the skilled-labor reserve in the ranks of the unemployed is not exhausted.

Consideration has been given to the problem of learners which has been found less serious than was anticipated. Attention was also directed toward assisting the handicapped, and by December 15 action had been taken on 4,800 applications. The problem of sheltered workshops, where goods are produced by charitable organizations for the primary purpose of rehabilitating the employees, remained unsolved; but a special committee was studying it in order to make recommendations to the Administrator for future action.

MILLINERY WAGE UNDER FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT [1]

A MINIMUM wage of 40 cents an hour for all millinery workers engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce became effective on January 15, 1940. This was the third order issued by the Administrator of the wage and hour law under the provision that a universal minimum wage of 40 cents an hour shall be reached as rapidly as possible, without substantially curtailing employment or earning power, in the industries subject to the terms of the legislation.[2]

For the purposes of the millinery wage order the industry is defined as "the manufacture of all headwear, except knitted headwear, for ladies, misses, girls, and infants, from any material, but not including the manufacture of felt hat bodies of fur or wool." About 23,500 wage earners are employed in the industry in an average month, and it is estimated that 3,500 of this total are paid less than 40 cents an hour.

The only objection raised as to the definition of the headwear industry dealt with the inclusion of "harvest hats." The Administrator investigated and found that such hats are manufactured in competition with other types of millinery subject to the wage order. Therefore, it was determined that workers on harvest hats for ladies, misses, girls, and infants should be subject to the 40-cent minimum.

Special studies indicated that this minimum would increase the total wage bill in the industry approximately 1.51 percent. Labor represents an average of 31 percent of the manufacturing cost of millinery and on this basis the 40-cent wage would result in an increase in industry operating cost of 0.47 percent. The 16.3 percent of the employees receiving less than 40 cents an hour before this wage was adopted were normally engaged in unskilled occupations in firms with average wages well above this minimum. For these firms, it was stated in the report of the Administrator, the increase in operating costs would be almost negligible. Expert testimony on the effect of the 40-cent minimum wage was that it would not affect wage rates above the minimum. In drawing this conclusion the expert "not only considered the fact that most of the industry was covered by union agreements, but also weighed certain other factors."

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[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press releases Nos. 535, 536, and 541.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, issues of October and December 1939 for earlier orders.

Study also showed that average hourly wages of less than 40 cents were paid only in Texas and that the profit (8.46 percent) in that State was high enough to afford an adequate means of absorbing the increased operating cost.

Although the millinery industry committee recommended the wage later ordered by the Administrator, certain representatives of manufacturers opposed it. Proposals were made for a lower minimum rate of 30 cents an hour for "nonproductive" workers and also in the course of hearings for a regional differential. Both were denied as unwarranted, and the Administrator concluded that—

> Considering transportation, living, and production costs together with the evidence on collective labor agreements and voluntary wage standards, * * * these costs do not differ between any reasonably definable groups or regions within the millinery industry so as to affect competitive conditions within the industry or make necessary a classification within the meaning of section 8 (c) of the act.

Wages and Hours of Labor

ANNUAL EARNINGS IN KNIT-GOODS INDUSTRIES (OTHER THAN HOSIERY), 1937 [1]

Summary

A PREVIOUS issue of the Monthly Labor Review contained an article covering average hourly earnings, weekly hours, and weekly earnings in the various types of knitting establishments (other than hosiery).[2] The annual data for the various knit-goods plants discussed here were obtained in connection with the general survey of earnings and hours in these industries, and include only the wage payments made during the calendar year 1937 to workers in the mills scheduled who were still employed by the same establishment at the time of the survey in the fall of 1938.

Wide variations were found in average annual earnings of the employees in the 4 groups of establishments covered by this report. The annual earnings of all workers who were employed throughout the year in the knitted-underwear industry averaged $888 in 1937. This may be compared with $760 for all who had employment during 39 weeks and over, $731 for those who worked 26 weeks or more, and $701 for all employees on the pay roll during any part of the year. Annual earnings of workers in the knitted-outerwear industry were substantially higher, the respective averages being $1,122, $897, $824, and $754. Still higher annual earnings were found in the knitted-cloth establishments, where the full-time employees averaged $1,343, as compared with $1,135 for those working 39 weeks or more, $1,079 for all workers employed during 26 weeks and over, and $967 for those employed during any part of the year. The respective averages in the knitted glove and mittens industry were $906, $710, $680, and $665.

Scope and Method [3]

The survey of hourly earnings in the knitted-underwear industry covered 12,545 wage earners employed in 61 establishments. Annual data were obtained from 50 of these mills. The reports on hourly earnings for this group of plants included 9,490 workers, of whom

[1] Prepared by H. E. Riley, assisted by E. B. Morris and Dorothy S. Smith, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

[2] See Hourly Earnings in Knit-Goods Industries (Other than Hosiery), September 1938, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1939.

[3] For a more complete description of the methods used by the Bureau in compiling annual data, see Annual Earnings in the Manufacture of Electrical Products, 1936, in Monthly Labor Review, October 1939.

8,572 were covered by the annual figures. For the knitted-outerwear industry the survey included 105 plants employing 7,230 wage earners. The annual data secured in this industry covered 4,279 workers in 72 establishments, while these mills supplied hourly data for 5,046 employees. The sample in the knitted-cloth industry included 22 establishments with 1,715 wage earners. Annual data were obtained in 18 of these mills. The reports on hourly earnings for this group of establishments covered 1,386 wage earners, but annual figures were reported for only 1,192 of these employees. Both hourly and annual earnings were obtained from 6 establishments making knitted gloves and mittens. Hourly earnings were reported for 805 wage earners, while 751 employees were covered by the annual data.

In each of these industries, it will be observed, annual data were obtained for a majority of the plants included in the sample of the survey. Furthermore, figures on annual earnings cover a large majority of the employees for whom hourly earnings were secured.

It should be pointed out that the annual figures cover only the total earnings received and number of pay-roll periods worked in 1937 by each wage earner in the plant in which he was employed during September 1938, when the survey was made. The annual data, therefore, do not include any earnings received by an individual from other establishments in which he may have worked during 1937. Moreover, the report includes data covering only those wage earners who were employed during 1937 by the establishments surveyed and were still on the pay rolls of the same plant in 1938. In the knitted-underwear mills from which annual data were obtained, this coverage included 90.3 percent of all workers scheduled. The corresponding proportions were 84.8 percent in the knitted-outerwear plants, 93.3 percent in the mills making knitted gloves and mittens, and 86.0 percent in the knitted-cloth industry. If all employees working in 1937 had been included, however, the results probably would not differ materially from those shown in this report.

The workers have been classified here according to number of weeks worked, including all wage earners who were employed during (1) 52 weeks, (2) 39 weeks or more, (3) 26 weeks or more, and (4) any part of the year. It should be noted that this classification is cumulative, each group containing all of the workers included in the preceding group.

Knitted Underwear

Table 1, which presents the data for the knitted-underwear industry, classified according to region, skill, and sex, reveals that the average annual earnings of males were substantially higher than those of females. The difference in favor of the males was greatest for the skilled and least for the unskilled employees. For example, among the full-time workers in the country as a whole, the average annual

earnings of males exceeded those of females by $621 in the skilled, $434 in the semiskilled, and $257 in the unskilled group. For each skill group, moreover, the difference was greater in the North than in the South.

TABLE 1.—*Average Annual Earnings of Knitted-Underwear Workers, by Wage Area, Skill, and Sex, 1937*

Skill and region	Employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			39 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
	Average annual earnings											
United States	$888	$1,234	$681	$760	$1,082	$659	$731	$1,049	$635	$701	$1,015	$607
Skilled	1,348	1,464	843	1,109	1,267	752	1,077	1,234	731	1,046	1,208	699
Semiskilled	768	1,105	671	702	999	655	675	966	630	646	933	603
Unskilled	869	944	687	757	837	615	731	808	595	685	770	545
Northern wage area	966	1,320	722	787	1,150	679	756	1,111	653	721	1,069	621
Skilled	1,423	1,551	891	1,144	1,333	774	1,111	1,292	756	1,072	1,260	717
Semiskilled	833	1,202	709	725	1,065	674	696	1,027	648	664	985	617
Unskilled	935	1,003	717	795	895	625	763	862	600	701	809	536
Southern wage area	731	1,005	611	680	908	599	658	887	579	640	871	561
Skilled	1,143	1,233	683	993	1,085	632	965	1,070	601	957	1,058	601
Semiskilled	651	858	607	633	832	598	611	810	578	593	793	559
Unskilled	708	755	645	671	712	590	657	692	584	645	679	574
	Percent of workers											
United States	24.9	40.5	20.3	86.6	89.8	85.6	94.4	95.7	93.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled	36.7	43.9	21.4	90.1	91.8	86.6	96.1	97.1	93.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled	22.5	38.8	20.1	86.2	89.1	85.7	94.3	95.4	94.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled	32.5	36.8	25.3	84.2	86.5	80.3	91.4	93.2	88.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Northern wage area	22.1	40.5	16.8	85.7	88.4	84.9	93.8	95.1	93.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled	34.8	43.0	19.5	89.2	90.5	86.8	95.3	96.7	92.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled	19.3	38.4	16.6	85.4	87.7	85.0	93.8	94.7	93.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled	32.0	40.3	19.3	81.2	85.0	75.6	89.1	91.7	85.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Southern wage area	33.6	40.5	31.3	89.4	93.3	88.1	96.1	97.6	95.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled	43.5	46.7	32.1	93.3	95.4	85.7	98.8	98.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled	32.1	39.8	30.9	88.7	92.8	88.0	95.7	97.2	95.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled	33.8	28.9	44.2	91.7	90.0	95.3	97.0	96.7	97.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Number of workers											
United States	2,138	798	1,340	7,422	1,769	5,653	8,088	1,887	6,201	8,572	1,971	6,601
Skilled	413	336	77	1,013	702	311	1,080	743	337	1,124	765	359
Semiskilled	1,571	353	1,218	6,010	811	5,199	6,575	868	5,707	6,974	910	6,064
Unskilled	154	109	45	399	256	143	433	276	157	474	296	178
Northern wage area	1,425	581	844	5,525	1,269	4,256	6,048	1,364	4,684	6,450	1,435	5,015
Skilled	303	244	59	777	514	263	830	549	281	871	568	303
Semiskilled	1,013	254	759	4,471	580	3,891	4,914	626	4,288	5,238	661	4,577
Unskilled	109	83	26	277	175	102	304	189	115	341	206	135
Southern wage area	713	217	496	1,897	500	1,397	2,040	523	1,517	2,122	536	1,586
Skilled	110	92	18	236	188	48	250	194	56	253	197	56
Semiskilled	558	99	459	1,539	231	1,308	1,661	242	1,419	1,736	249	1,487
Unskilled	45	26	19	122	81	41	129	87	42	133	90	43

The highest average annual earnings were received by skilled males. The average for skilled males in the country as a whole, who were employed throughout the year, amounted to $1,464. This was $359 greater than the average ($1,105) for the semiskilled men in this cate-

gory. The average for male unskilled employees was $944, or $161 less than that for the semiskilled group. A similar situation was found in each wage region. The same holds true when the averages are extended to include the earnings of males who were employed during shorter periods of time.

Likewise, among the female employees, the highest average annual earnings were received by the skilled workers. Thus, the skilled female full-time employees in the country as a whole averaged $843. In comparison, the averages were $671 for the semiskilled and $687 for the unskilled females. These figures reveal that the semiskilled females had the lowest average annual earnings of all skill-sex groups among the full-time employees covered by the survey. Thus, the difference in favor of the unskilled as compared with the semiskilled females amounted to $16 in the country as a whole. It was $8 in the northern and $38 in the southern establishments. If the averages are extended to cover the earnings of workers who were employed for shorter periods, the difference in favor of unskilled as compared with semiskilled females disappears in the northern region, but it persists in the South.

Average annual earnings were generally higher in the North than in the South. Among the full-time employees, for example, the males averaged $1,320 in the northern and $1,005 in the southern mills. The respective averages for females were $722 and $611. The difference in favor of northern plants is found in nearly every skill-sex group.

Table 2 shows the distribution of workers in knitted-underwear mills according to annual earnings by region and sex.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Knitted-Underwear Workers According to Annual Earnings, by Wage Area and Sex, 1937*

Annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			39 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
	United States											
Under $200	------	------	------	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.6	3.7	1.7	4.4
$200 and under $400	3.4	------	5.4	5.3	.7	6.8	8.9	2.0	11.0	10.5	4.0	12.5
$400 and under $600	19.0	2.9	28.7	26.3	7.0	32.3	27.0	9.0	32.6	25.7	9.1	30.7
$600 and under $800	31.1	12.0	42.3	34.6	17.6	39.8	32.3	18.1	36.7	30.5	17.4	34.4
$800 and under $1,000	19.8	21.5	18.8	18.7	25.5	16.6	17.3	24.5	15.1	16.4	23.7	14.2
$1,000 and under $1,200	9.5	19.5	3.6	7.3	19.0	3.6	6.7	18.1	3.3	6.4	17.3	3.1
$1,200 and under $1,400	5.7	13.5	1.0	3.1	10.9	.7	2.9	10.3	.6	2.7	9.8	.6
$1,400 and under $1,600	4.5	11.8	.1	2.1	8.3	.1	1.9	7.7	.1	1.8	7.4	.1
$1,600 and under $1,800	2.9	7.8	.1	1.1	4.7	(1)	1.1	4.4	(1)	1.0	4.2	(1)
$1,800 and under $2,000	1.3	3.5	------	.6	2.5	------	.6	2.3	(1)	.5	2.2	(1)
$2,000 and under $2,400	1.7	4.6	------	.5	2.3	------	.5	2.1	------	.5	2.0	------
$2,400 and over	1.1	2.9	------	.3	1.4	------	.3	1.3	------	.3	1.2	------
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	2,138	798	1,340	7,422	1,769	5,653	8,088	1,887	6,201	8,572	1,971	6,601

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Knitted-Underwear Workers According to Annual Earnings, by Wage Area and Sex, 1937*—Continued

Annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			39 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
	Northern wage area											
Under $200	------	------	------	0.1	------	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.4	4.0	1.8	4.6
$200 and under $400	2.9	------	5.0	4.7	0.7	5.9	8.4	1.9	10.2	10.2	4.2	11.9
$400 and under $600	12.1	1.7	19.2	23.3	4.3	28.9	24.5	6.7	29.8	23.2	7.0	27.9
$600 and under $800	28.7	6.2	44.2	34.3	13.5	40.7	32.2	14.4	37.5	30.2	13.7	35.0
$800 and under $1,000	21.5	17.4	24.3	20.0	23.6	18.8	18.4	22.7	17.1	17.3	21.8	16.0
$1,000 and under $1,200	12.3	22.4	5.3	8.4	21.3	4.5	7.7	20.0	4.1	7.2	19.0	3.8
$1,200 and under $1,400	7.2	15.3	1.7	3.7	13.2	.9	3.4	12.4	.8	3.2	11.8	.7
$1,400 and under $1,600	6.2	14.8	.2	2.5	10.5	.2	2.3	9.8	.1	2.2	9.3	.1
$1,600 and under $1,800	3.7	9.0	.1	1.3	5.4	(1)	1.2	5.1	(1)	1.1	4.8	(1)
$1,800 and under $2,000	1.8	4.3	------	.7	3.1	------	.7	2.9	(1)	.6	2.7	(1)
$2,000 and under $2,400	2.2	5.5	------	.6	2.7	------	.6	2.5	------	.5	2.4	------
$2,400 and over	1.4	3.4	------	.4	1.7	------	.3	1.5	------	.3	1.5	------
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	1,425	581	844	5,525	1,269	4,256	6,048	1,364	4,684	6,450	1,435	5,015
	Southern wage area											
Under $200	------	------	------	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.9	0.4	1.1	3.1	1.3	3.7
$200 and under $400	4.2	------	6.0	7.2	.6	9.5	10.4	2.3	13.2	11.6	3.5	14.4
$400 and under $600	33.0	6.0	44.8	34.9	13.6	42.4	34.7	14.9	41.5	33.5	14.7	39.6
$600 and under $800	35.6	27.6	39.1	34.9	28.4	37.4	32.8	27.7	34.5	31.5	27.1	33.0
$800 and under $1,000	16.4	32.2	9.5	15.1	30.4	9.7	14.1	29.0	8.9	13.5	28.4	8.5
$1,000 and under $1,200	4.1	12.0	.6	4.2	13.6	.8	3.9	13.0	.7	3.7	12.7	.7
$1,200 and under $1,400	2.7	8.8	------	1.4	5.0	.1	1.3	4.8	.1	1.2	4.7	.1
$1,400 and under $1,600	1.1	3.7	------	.7	2.6	------	.6	2.5	------	.6	2.4	------
$1,600 and under $1,800	1.4	4.6	------	.7	2.8	------	.7	2.7	------	.7	2.6	------
$1,800 and under $2,000	.4	1.4	------	.3	1.0	------	.2	1.0	------	.2	.9	------
$2,000 and under $2,400	.7	2.3	------	.3	1.2	------	.3	1.1	------	.3	1.1	------
$2,400 and over	.4	1.4	------	.2	.6	------	.1	.6	------	.1	.6	------
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	713	217	496	1,897	500	1,397	2,040	523	1,517	2,122	536	1,586

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Knitted Outerwear

Average annual earnings of workers in the knitted-outerwear industry, by sex and skill, are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Average Annual Earnings of Knitted-Outerwear Workers by Skill and Sex, 1937*

Skill	Employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			39 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
	Average annual earnings											
All workers	$1,122	$1,526	$858	$897	$1,345	$737	$824	$1,259	$681	$754	$1,169	$622
Skilled	1,217	1,717	888	962	1,501	762	885	1,419	705	810	1,332	644
Semiskilled and unskilled	961	1,199	805	779	1,039	691	714	957	637	653	873	583
	Percent of workers											
All workers	25.1	41.3	19.9	72.6	79.8	70.3	88.6	90.9	87.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled	24.6	40.4	19.6	73.1	81.9	70.3	88.7	92.2	87.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled and unskilled	25.9	42.9	20.6	71.7	76.0	70.3	88.4	88.5	88.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Number of workers											
All workers	1,073	425	648	3,107	822	2,285	3,791	936	2,855	4,279	1,030	3,249
Skilled	676	268	408	2,010	544	1,466	2,437	612	1,825	2,748	664	2,084
Semiskilled and unskilled	397	157	240	1,097	278	819	1,354	324	1,030	1,531	366	1,165

In knitted-outerwear plants, as in the knitted-underwear industry, the average annual earnings of males were substantially greater than those of females. Among the employees whose work extended over 52 weeks, the annual earnings of males averaged $1,526, as compared with $858 for females. For the skilled workers in this group, the average for males amounted to $1,717, or nearly twice as much as the average ($888) for females. Among the semiskilled and unskilled full-time employees, the average annual earnings of males exceeded those for females by $394. A similar picture is shown for the averages when extended to cover the earnings of all workers employed during shorter periods of time.

The annual earnings of skilled workers were larger than those of the semiskilled and unskilled group. Among all employees whose work extended over 52 weeks, the skilled workers averaged $1,217, as compared with $961 for the semiskilled and unskilled wage earners.

The difference between the annual earnings of the two skill groups, however, was much greater for males than for females. Comparing the workers who were employed full-time, it is found that the average for skilled males exceeded that of the semiskilled and unskilled males by $518. For the females, on the other hand, the difference was only $83. A similar pattern is shown when the averages are extended to cover the earnings of employees whose work extended over shorter periods of time.

Table 4 shows the percentage distribution of workers in the knitted-outerwear industry according to annual earnings.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Distribution of Knitted-Outerwear Workers According to Annual Earnings, by Sex, 1937*

Annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—											
	52 weeks			39 weeks and over			26 weeks and over			Any part of the year		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Under $200	------	------	------	(1)	------	(1)	0.3	------	0.4	6.3	3.8	7.1
$200 and under $400	0.7	0.2	1.1	4.0	0.5	5.3	8.8	2.5	10.9	12.1	5.6	14.1
$400 and under $600	7.4	.7	11.7	17.6	4.0	22.5	23.0	8.3	27.8	21.3	9.0	25.1
$600 and under $800	20.0	3.8	30.7	30.6	8.8	38.5	27.6	9.9	33.4	24.6	9.1	29.4
$800 and under $1,000	24.9	12.3	33.0	20.6	16.3	22.1	17.6	16.3	18.1	15.7	15.1	15.9
$1,000 and under $1,200	15.7	16.2	15.3	10.1	17.5	7.4	8.5	16.0	6.0	7.5	14.6	5.3
$1,200 and under $1,400	9.4	16.2	4.9	5.8	15.0	2.5	4.9	13.5	2.0	4.3	12.2	1.8
$1,400 and under $1,600	6.3	12.0	2.6	3.6	10.0	1.4	3.0	8.8	1.1	2.6	8.0	1.0
$1,600 and under $1,800	4.4	10.8	.2	2.5	9.1	.1	2.1	8.1	.1	1.8	7.4	.1
$1,800 and under $2,000	4.8	11.8	.3	2.2	7.9	.1	1.8	6.9	.1	1.6	6.3	.1
$2,000 and under $2,400	3.4	8.5	.2	1.6	5.8	.1	1.3	5.2	.1	1.2	4.8	.1
$2,400 and over	3.0	7.5	------	1.4	5.1	------	1.1	4.5	------	1.0	4.1	------
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	1,073	425	648	3,107	822	2,285	3,791	936	2,855	4,279	1,030	3,249

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Knitted Cloth

The number of employees in knitted-cloth mills for whom annual earnings were obtained is too small to permit a detailed analysis. Of the 18 establishments in which annual data were secured, 12 plants had a sufficiently large proportion of workers covered by the annual figures to justify the computation of plant averages.

TABLE 5.—*Average Annual Earnings of Workers in 12 Knitted-Cloth Plants, by Sex, 1937*

Plant and sex of workers	Relative number of employees whose work extended over—				Average annual earnings of employees whose work extended over—			
	52 weeks	39 weeks and over	26 weeks and over	Any part of year	52 weeks	39 weeks and over	26 weeks and over	Any part of year
Plant No. 1	21.3	78.7	85.2	100.0	$1,488	$961	$918	$827
Males	58.1	80.6	83.9	100.0	1,570	1,446	1,409	1,250
Females	6.5	77.9	85.7	100.0	(1)	759	724	656
Plant No. 2	26.9	76.9	87.5	100.0	1,479	1,283	1,206	1,079
Males	32.9	75.9	84.8	100.0	1,513	1,401	1,327	1,154
Females	8.0	80.0	96.0	100.0	(1)	927	868	843
Plant No. 3	60.4	91.2	96.0	100.0	1,135	1,018	990	958
Males	69.4	94.4	95.8	100.0	1,254	1,143	1,133	1,096
Females	44.6	85.5	96.4	100.0	810	777	742	719
Plant No. 4	4.4	68.9	82.2	100.0	(1)	977	904	779
Males	8.3	75.0	83.3	100.0	(1)	1,307	1,261	1,089
Females	-------	61.9	81.0	100.0	-------	518	483	425
Plant No. 5	18.8	52.9	63.5	100.0	2,028	1,699	1,521	1,076
Males	15.7	60.8	64.7	100.0	(1)	2,027	1,977	1,413
Females	23.5	41.2	61.8	100.0	(1)	973	805	572
Plant No. 6 [2]	16.2	67.6	90.5	100.0	2,621	1,136	996	917
Plant No. 7	40.6	96.9	98.4	100.0	1,353	1,102	1,092	1,081
Males	54.2	95.8	97.9	100.0	1,353	1,199	1,184	1,166
Females	-------	100.0	100.0	100.0	-------	823	823	823
Plant No. 8	32.7	92.9	94.9	100.0	1,507	1,412	1,402	1,351
Males	32.6	94.2	96.5	100.0	1,578	1,472	1,458	1,421
Females	33.3	83.3	83.3	100.0	(1)	934	934	854
Plant No. 9 [3]	21.1	68.4	78.9	100.0	(1)	1,372	1,319	1,097
Plant No. 10	4.6	73.6	82.8	100.0	(1)	1,089	1,039	920
Males	6.0	70.1	80.6	100.0	(1)	1,164	1,091	955
Females	-------	85.0	90.0	100.0	-------	884	881	804
Plant No. 11 [2]	63.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	1,104	1,051	1,051	1,051
Plant No. 12 [2]	42.3	73.1	81.9	100.0	1,076	945	898	768

[1] Too few employees to justify computation of an average.
[2] No annual data obtained for females.
[3] Too few females to justify an analysis by sex.

Annual earnings for all workers who were continuously employed during the year ranged from $2,621 in one plant to $1,076 in another establishment. In both of these plants, it should be noted, the annual data covered only male employees. Plant average annual earnings of employees who were on the pay roll during 39 weeks and over ranged from $1,699 to $945.

Wide differences in the annual earnings of males and females are found in every plant for which such a comparison can be made. Only one establishment gave full-time employment during the year to a substantial number of women. The annual earnings of these females averaged $810, as against $1,254 for the male full-time employees in the same mill. Among the workers who were employed during 39 weeks and over, the averages for males ranged from $945 to $2,027.

For the females in this group, the average annual earnings varied from $518 to $973. Similar comparisons are shown for the averages covering workers who were employed during 26 weeks and over and those who worked during any part of the year.

Knitted Gloves and Mittens

Table 6 shows average annual earnings in the six knitted glove and mitten plants covered by the survey.

TABLE 6.—*Average Annual Earnings of Workers in 6 Knitted Glove and Mitten Plants, by Sex, 1937*

Plant and sex of workers	Relative number of employees whose work extended over—				Average annual earnings of employees whose work extended over—			
	52 weeks	39 weeks and over	26 weeks and over	Any part of year	52 weeks	39 weeks and over	26 weeks and over	Any part of year
Plant No. 1 [1]	28.0	76.0	80.0	100.0	(2)	$788	$758	$639
Plant No. 2	3.4	97.5	99.2	100.0	(2)	738	732	726
Males	22.2	94.4	94.4	100.0	(2)	1,392	1,392	1,316
Females	-------	98.0	100.0	100.0	-------	626	621	621
Plant No. 3	32.6	91.5	98.3	100.0	$838	687	665	657
Males	38.3	94.4	99.1	100.0	1,343	1,188	1,161	1,154
Females	30.1	90.2	98.0	100.0	558	459	447	440
Plant No. 4 [1]	1.4	95.7	100.0	100.0	(2)	575	568	568
Plant No. 5	7.5	91.3	100.0	100.0	(2)	807	776	776
Males	23.1	96.2	100.0	100.0	(2)	1,136	1,118	1,118
Females	-------	88.9	100.0	100.0	-------	635	611	611
Plant No. 6 [1]	32.7	58.7	87.5	100.0	925	783	657	608

[1] Too few males to justify an analysis by sex.
[2] Too few employees to justify computation of an average.

EARNINGS AND HOURS IN MEN'S NECKWEAR INDUSTRY, 1939 [1]

ON THE basis of the distribution of hourly earnings during the first half of 1939, the application on October 24, 1939, of the 30-cent hourly minimum provided for under the Fair Labor Standards Act affected directly about one-sixth of the workers in plants making men's and boys' neckwear. A survey was recently made in this industry by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the purpose of supplying information for Industry Committee No. 2 appointed by the Wage and Hour Division to recommend minimum wage rates for neckwear as one of the apparel industries.

The Bureau's survey disclosed that the hourly earnings of all neckwear workers averaged 47.0 cents. The average earnings per week were $16.32, and the average weekly hours were 34.7. The highest-wage area was found to be New York City proper, the wage level falling sharply in the surrounding territory.

Between 40 and 50 percent of the wage earners in the industry were covered in the study. The factories selected were representative with respect to geographical location, size of community, size of establishment, and unionization. Wage earners in all occupations were covered, including working supervisors and plant clerks but excluding the higher supervisors and office clerks. The information on wages [2] and hours was obtained by field representatives of the Bureau, who visited the selected establishments and copied pay rolls and other records and interviewed plant officials.

Characteristics of Industry

The men's neckwear industry includes the manufacture of men's and boys' four-in-hand, bow, and other neckties, scarfs, and mufflers not made in knitting mills. It is a relatively small industry, having provided employment for an average 10,152 wage earners in 289 establishments in 1937, the last year for which Census of Manufactures data are available.

The industry is characterized by small factories, generally located in or near large cities. New York City is the largest producing area, although for a number of years it has been losing factories to the outlying commuting area. Neckwear plants, in common with the needle trades in general, are extremely mobile, since their machinery and housing needs can be supplied easily and the type of labor required can be trained in a short time.

[1] Prepared by Frances M. Jones and George E. Votava, under the direction of Jacob Perlman, chief of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

[2] Unless otherwise specified, the tabulations of wages in this article are based on regular rates, thus excluding the earnings from extra rates paid for overtime.

In 1918, about 85 percent of the industry's product was manufactured in New York City. By 1927, this proportion had decreased to 55 percent.[3] The 1929 Census of Manufactures reported that 49.7 percent of all neckwear workers were in New York State, with 42.3 percent in New York City and 7.4 percent in the remainder of the State. By 1931, New York State workers were only 38.8 percent and New York City 33.6 percent of the total in the industry. In 1937, New York State accounted for only 36.4 percent of the industry's labor force.

The migration of plants from New York City has been largely to Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Between 1929 and 1931, Pennsylvania employment increased from 4.4 to 10.2 percent of the total, at which level it also stood in 1937. Census data for the years between 1929 and 1937 indicate that New Jersey has received the largest proportion of the factories moving out of New York City in more recent years. Evidence of further migration from New York City to New Jersey since 1937 was found in the Bureau's current survey. In the meantime, factories have increased in number in various cities and have appeared even in some rural communities outside of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Many of these establishments are considerably larger than the average shop in New York City and its commuting area.

Other States producing considerable quantities of neckwear are California, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, and Ohio. Not one of these, however, has as many as 10 percent of the wage earners in the industry. There are also a few factories scattered among several other States.

Most manufacturers of men's neckwear make only the one product, although there are a few, generally large plants, which also produce shirts, robes, or other furnishings, such as garters, suspenders, belts, etc. The principal overlapping of product is found in the manufacture of men's scarfs, which are extensively produced in women's neckwear factories as well as in establishments where the major product is men's or boys' neckties.

Neckwear workers are extensively organized. According to testimony presented before the Public Contracts Board in 1937, in connection with the determination of a prevailing minimum wage for the industry on Government work, more than half of the men's neckwear workers in New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Illinois, two-thirds in Missouri, and a "substantial proportion" in

[3] Lawson, W.: Wages Above the Minimum in Men's Neckwear Industry, NRA Work Materials No. 45–C–4, 1936, p. 4.

Ohio and California, were organized by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. Moreover, a majority of the workers in New York City proper, and a great many in other areas, are under collective-bargaining agreements.

Female workers predominate in the industry, comprising about 86 percent of the total labor force, if one may judge from the sample covered in this survey. Outside of the New York City metropolitan area, they perform practically all of the production work, except in the cutting department. However, in New York City and its environs, about a fourth of the sewing-machine operators and almost half of the pressers were male workers. Males are especially numerous in these occupations in New York City proper, where male workers constitute 36.4 percent of the wage earners in neckwear factories.

There were, formerly, a great many home workers in the industry. Some of these were employed directly by the manufacturers, usually to perform only the hand finishing operations, and were paid the standard piece rates for the work. Others were employed by contractors who were not manufacturers. The practice of home-work was prohibited by the NRA code for the neckwear industry, but it again became common within a short time after the invalidation of the NRA. A report of the New York State Industrial Commission in 1937 stated that before the adoption of the code about 70 percent of all slip stitchers or hand finishers in New York State were home workers. Home work was presumably not widespread during the NRA, but within a few months after the nullification of the code the proportion of home workers increased to more than 30 percent of all slip stitchers.[4]

At the time of the Bureau's survey, however, home work had been either prohibited or placed under regulation in all States of any importance in the industry. The survey indicated that only about 5 percent of the employees of all plants covered were home workers.[5]

Scope of Survey

The Bureau's survey included 120 establishments in 20 States, and covered 4,940 workers, which number is estimated to represent between 40 and 50 percent of all wage earners employed in the industry at the time of the survey (table 1).

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[4] See Prohibition of Home Work in Men's Neckwear Industry in New York, Monthly Labor Review, April 1937.

[5] Wages and hours data for home workers are not included in the tabulations presented in this article, since it is not possible to obtain accurate information concerning hours of work for this class of employees.

TABLE 1.—*Coverage of Survey in Men's Neckwear Industry, by Region, 1939*

Region	Number of plants	Workers	
		Number	Percentage
All regions	120	4,940	100.0
New York City proper	27	709	14.4
New York City commuting area [1]	17	866	17.5
Other Eastern States [2]	32	1,760	35.6
Middle Western States [3]	32	1,209	24.5
Pacific States [4]	8	272	5.5
Southern States [5]	4	124	2.5

[1] Includes plants in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut.
[2] Includes Maryland, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania, as well as the remainder of Connecticut and New York.
[3] Includes Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, and Wisconsin.
[4] Includes California and Washington.
[5] Includes Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas.

About a third of the workers in the Bureau's sample were in New York City and its commuting area in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut. Approximately another third were in Maryland, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and New York and Connecticut outside of the New York City metropolitan area. The Middle West was represented by about a fourth of the sample, and the South and Far West by about 3 and 6 percent, respectively. All but about 5 percent of the employees covered were within metropolitan areas with a population of 250,000 or more.

Union agreements were found in 51 of the plants covered, which employed 38 percent of the workers.

All types of manufacturers were included in the survey. Employees of "regular" factories (those manufacturing from owned materials) comprised 90 percent of the sample, and 10 percent were in contract shops. A few cutters, who sent out work to contractors, also were covered.

The wages and hours data for most plants were taken from representative pay rolls for the first 3 months of 1939, a majority of them falling between January 15 and March 15. However, a few of the smaller establishments did not have adequate time records for individual employees. Such plants were requested to keep a record of time worked by each wage earner for one pay-roll period, and in these cases data for April or early May were obtained. It is possible that employment for the later months was lower than during earlier periods, but the Bureau endeavored to cover only establishments in which the earnings of employees were representative of the spring season.

Average Hourly Earnings

METHODS OF WAGE PAYMENT

Straight piece work is the prevailing method of wage payment in neckwear factories. Nearly four-fifths (78.4 percent) of all employees surveyed were on straight piece work, with no guaranteed wage other

than the 25-cent legal minimum under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

The piece-work method of pay prevailed in all stitching and pressing operations. Nearly all turners also worked by the piece, as did almost half of the trimmers and cleaners and examiners. About two-thirds of the learners were piece workers.

All but a few cutters and all spreaders, on the other hand, were time workers. Other occupations paid on a time basis were miscellaneous floor workers, plant clerks, working supervisors, and maintenance and service employees. About three-fourths of the packers, boxers, and folders were time workers.

Male workers were employed mostly in the occupations for which time rates prevailed. Only 34.1 percent of the males were piece workers, as compared with 85.7 percent of the females.

PLANT AVERAGE EARNINGS

As stated before, neckwear employees earned an average of 47.0 cents an hour in the first half of 1939. This average, however, represents widely divergent earnings among individual establishments. Plants doing only cutting, of course, had relatively high earnings, while those doing only stitching averaged less than the industry. However, even among plants carrying on all processes, there was a range of average earnings from 29.5 to 97.6 cents an hour. Almost half of all plants, accounting for 58.3 percent of the total employment in the sample, had average hourly earnings between 40 and 60 cents. About a third of the plants averaged below 40 cents, and more than a sixth higher than 67.5 cents. These latter groups employed respectively 30.6 and 11.1 percent of all wage earners.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Men's Neckwear Plants by Average Hourly Earnings, 1939*

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Number of plants	Percentage of employees	Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Number of plants	Percentage of employees
27.5 and under 32.5	[1] 9	6.3	57.5 and under 60.0	4	4.8
32.5 and under 35.0	[2] 9	8.6	60.0 and under 62.5		
35.0 and under 37.5	[3] 9	6.8	62.5 and under 65.0		
37.5 and under 40.0	12	8.9	65.0 and under 67.5		
40.0 and under 42.5	[4] 15	12.4	67.5 and under 70.0	2	1.6
42.5 and under 45.0	8	12.9	70.0 and under 80.0	[5] 12	5.3
45.0 and under 47.5	6	4.5	80.0 and under 90.0	3	3.4
47.5 and under 50.0	6	5.7	90.0 and under 100.0	[6] 4	.9
50.0 and under 52.5	6	8.6			
52.5 and under 55.0	7	5.7	Total	[7] 118	100.0
55.0 and under 57.5	6	3.6			

[1] Includes 1 stitching plant.
[2] Includes 3 stitching plants.
[3] Includes 2 stitching plants.
[4] Includes 3 stitching plants.
[5] Includes 1 cutting plant.
[6] Includes 2 cutting plants.
[7] Exclusive of 2 plants in which neckwear was not the major product.

A distribution of establishments according to their average earnings is presented in table 2. This distribution shows a concentration of plants with averages between 37.5 and 42.5 cents. The 21 establish-

ments above 67.5 cents are all located in New York City proper and constitute the greater part of the New York City establishments in the sample.

HOURLY EARNINGS OF ALL WORKERS

The range of individual employees' earnings in the neckwear industry is unusually wide, considering the comparative simplicity of the occupational structure of the industry. It will be seen later that this wide dispersion is due largely to extreme regional differences.

A distribution of employees according to individual hourly earnings shows almost 65 percent paid less than the average (table 3). However, there are no very pronounced concentrations of workers in any single earnings class. The largest group of wage earners in any 2½-cent interval shown was the 9.5 percent who earned between 25.0 and 27.5 cents. About 6 percent received exactly 25 cents. There were from 10 to 15 percent of the workers in each 5-cent class between 27.5 and 47.5 cents. Above the average, the workers were much more widely dispersed. Over a fourth (26.8 percent) earned at least 52.5 cents, 16.5 percent were paid 62.5 cents or more, 9.4 percent received at least 77.5 cents, and 4.6 percent averaged $1 or more an hour. Examination of the distribution as a whole shows 97.7 percent of all workers receiving between 25 cents and $1.40.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Men's Neckwear Workers, by Average Hourly Earnings and by Sex, 1939*

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All workers	Males	Females	Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All workers	Males	Females
Under 17.5	0.1	----	0.1	72.5 and under 77.5	1.6	3.7	1.3
17.5 and under 22.5	.6	0.1	.7	77.5 and under 82.5	1.5	3.6	1.2
22.5 and under 25.0	.7	.1	.8	82.5 and under 87.5	1.0	3.2	.7
25.0 and under 27.5	9.5	5.7	10.0	87.5 and under 92.5	1.3	6.2	.5
27.5 and under 30.0	5.6	1.7	6.2	92.5 and under 100.0	1.0	4.3	.5
30.0 and under 32.5	6.5	2.7	7.1	100.0 and under 110.0	1.5	8.0	.4
32.5 and under 35.0	7.1	2.4	7.9	110.0 and under 120.0	.9	4.9	.2
35.0 and under 37.5	8.2	3.6	8.9	120.0 and under 130.0	.4	2.2	.1
37.5 and under 40.0	7.7	3.6	8.3	130.0 and under 140.0	.9	5.3	.1
40.0 and under 42.5	7.7	5.0	8.1	140.0 and over	.9	4.4	.3
42.5 and under 47.5	10.7	6.4	11.7				
47.5 and under 52.5	8.8	4.9	9.5	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
52.5 and under 57.5	6.5	6.0	6.5				
57.5 and under 62.5	3.8	3.0	4.0	Number of workers	4,940	697	4,243
62.5 and under 67.5	3.5	5.0	3.2	Average hourly earnings	$0.470	$0.710	$0.427
67.5 and under 72.5	2.0	4.0	1.7				

VARIATIONS BY SEX

There was a very wide difference between the average hourly earnings of male and female workers. However, as male employees constitute only a seventh of all wage earners, it is the women's earnings that influence most the average of the industry. Males earned an average of 71.0 cents, whereas females averaged 42.7 cents, or 4.3 cents below the industry average for all employees.

The high general average for male workers was largely due to the concentration of this group in New York City proper, where wages are higher than in any other region. Male employees in New York City constituted 36.4 percent of the sample, whereas in the remainder of the country they comprised only 10.4 percent. The average hourly earnings for New York City males was 92.4 cents, as compared with 61.2 cents for the remainder of the country.

The dispersion of hourly earnings was especially wide for male workers. The highest concentration in any 10-cent class for this group was between 37.5 and 47.5 cents, and this range contained only 15.0 percent of all males. Each of the 10-cent intervals immediately preceding and following this class accounted for a little more than 10 percent. Furthermore, there were substantial proportions of workers in each of the other 10-cent intervals. In fact, as many as 4.4 percent earned $1.40 and over.

Although women were found in the higher-wage brackets, they showed a considerably greater concentration in the lower-wage groups than appeared in the distribution of male workers. More than 90 percent of the women earned between 25.0 and 67.5 cents an hour. The heaviest concentration occurred between 32.5 and 42.5 cents, in which interval were a third of all woman workers. The 10-cent interval immediately below this class contained about a fourth, and the 10-cent interval immediately above accounted for a little more than a fifth of all women. A tenth of the females earned between 25.0 and 27.5 cents, as compared with 5.7 percent of the male workers.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

As stated heretofore, New York City proper, excluding the commuting area, has by far the highest wages in the industry, the average hourly earnings of all workers being 74.2 cents. The lowest-wage plant found in New York City showed an average of 47.9 cents an hour. More than three-fourths of the establishments there, however, averaged above 67.5 cents, which exceeded the highest plant average in other regions surveyed. In fact, one-fourth of the establishments in New York City averaged between 85 cents and $1.

Average earnings in the remainder of the country were 43.1 cents an hour for all workers, or 31.1 cents lower than the average for New York City proper. Males earned 31.2 cents less, and females 22.3 cents less than the corresponding groups of workers in New York City. In fact, the average of woman workers in New York City (62.9 cents) was somewhat higher than that for male employees in the remainder of the country. Distributions of workers according to average hourly earnings in New York City proper as compared with the remainder of the country are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Distribution of Men's Neckwear Workers by Average Hourly Earnings and by Sex, New York City and Remainder of Country, 1939*

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	New York City			Remainder of country		
	All workers	Males	Females	All workers	Males	Females
Under 17.5	----------	----------	----------	0.1	----------	0.2
17.5 and under 22.5	----------	----------	----------	.7	0.2	.8
22.5 and under 25.0	----------	----------	----------	.8	.2	.8
25.0 and under 27.5	0.7	0.8	0.7	11.0	8.7	11.3
27.5 and under 30.0	1.1	----------	1.8	6.3	2.7	6.8
30.0 and under 32.5	2.0	2.7	1.6	7.2	2.7	7.8
32.5 and under 35.0	.8	1.2	.7	8.2	3.2	8.8
35.0 and under 37.5	1.6	1.9	1.3	9.3	4.6	9.8
37.5 and under 40.0	2.0	.8	2.7	8.6	5.2	9.0
40.0 and under 42.5	6.9	2.7	9.3	7.8	6.4	7.9
42.5 and under 47.5	10.1	7.0	11.7	11.2	5.9	11.6
47.5 and under 52.5	7.2	3.1	9.5	9.1	5.9	9.4
52.5 and under 57.5	8.2	5.0	9.9	6.2	6.6	6.1
57.5 and under 62.5	6.2	1.2	9.1	3.4	4.1	3.3
62.5 and under 67.5	5.9	1.9	8.2	3.0	6.8	2.6
67.5 and under 72.5	4.9	5.4	4.7	1.6	3.2	1.4
72.5 and under 77.5	5.1	5.4	4.9	1.0	2.7	.8
77.5 and under 82.5	4.9	4.3	5.3	.9	3.2	.7
82.5 and under 87.5	3.9	4.3	3.8	.5	2.5	.3
87.5 and under 92.5	3.7	4.3	3.3	.9	7.3	.2
92.5 and under 100.0	3.2	5.0	2.2	.6	3.9	.2
100.0 and under 110.0	3.8	6.2	2.4	1.1	9.0	.2
110.0 and under 120.0	4.7	10.1	1.6	.2	1.8	(1)
120.0 and under 130.0	2.1	3.9	1.1	.1	1.1	(1)
130.0 and under 140.0	5.8	13.5	1.3	(1)	.5	----------
140.0 cents and over	5.2	9.3	2.9	.2	1.6	----------
Total	100.0	100.0	100.00	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	709	258	451	4,231	439	3,792
Average hourly earnings	$0.742	$0.924	$0.629	$0.431	$0.612	$0.406

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The most striking difference in wage levels was that between New York City proper and the commuting area in nearby New Jersey, Connecticut, and New York State. It will be recalled in this connection that employment in New York City has been declining, whereas in the area outside of New York City the industry has grown. The average hourly earnings of all establishments in the metropolitan area outside of New York City proper were 41.7 cents, which is only 56.2 percent of the figure for New York City proper and 88.7 percent of the average for the country as a whole.[6]

Differences in wage levels were also found among the various regions outside of the New York area, although they were relatively not so pronounced. The average hourly earnings of all workers in the Pacific States were somewhat higher than in the other regions outside of the New York area, while the few southern plants showed the lowest wages. Neither the Pacific nor the Southern States were numerically important in the sample, but each constituted a fairly homogeneous wage area. The averages in the four southern plants were very similar, although the establishments were widely scattered geographically. Likewise, with one exception, the plant averages

[6] A survey of the neckwear industry by the Economic Division of the NRA in 1934 showed that piecework rates in the commuting area were as much as 40 percent less than those in New York City proper.

were quite similar in the Pacific States, where the survey covered primarily San Francisco and Los Angeles.

The average for the Middle Western States was practically the same as that for the Eastern States outside of the New York City metropolitan area. Each of these regions was represented in the sample by a substantial number of plants. (See table 5.)

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Men's Neckwear Workers, by Region, 1939*

Region	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
United States	$0.470	34.7	$16.32
New York City proper	.742	30.2	22.45
New York City commuting area	.417	37.2	15.55
Other Eastern States	.437	36.0	15.74
Middle Western States	.438	33.0	14.46
Pacific States	.472	34.8	16.43
Southern States	.311	41.2	12.81

HOURLY EARNINGS IN UNION AND NONUNION PLANTS

For the purpose of this comparison, the "union" classification covered all plants having agreements with labor unions,[7] the provisions of which covered a considerable proportion of the workers in the establishment. Plants not having such agreements were included in the "nonunion" classification, regardless of the extent of union membership among their employees.

Hourly earnings were generally higher in union than in nonunion establishments, although there were numerous nonunion factories paying wages as high as if not higher than the prevailing rates in their respective labor markets. The average difference in favor of union plants in the country as a whole was 10.2 cents an hour, or 23.5 percent greater than the nonunion figure (table 6).

The difference in average hourly earnings between union and nonunion plants was least pronounced in New York City proper, where the industry is more strongly organized than in any other region. The difference in favor of union plants in New York City was 10.8 percent, which may be compared with 18.0 and 29.6 percent, respectively, in Chicago and Philadelphia. The nonunion average in the commuting area adjacent to New York City proper was considerably higher than the union figure, because of the influence of a single large nonunion plant paying, on the average, 14 cents an hour more than the next highest-wage establishment surveyed in that region. In fact, of the 9 nonunion plants in this area, all were below the nonunion average except the one plant in question. With the exception of this

[7] A workers' organization confined to a single plant and not affiliated with a larger group was not classified in this category. However, there were few establishments in the industry with workers' organizations confined to a single plant.

plant, there were no significant differences between the two groups. The exclusion of this plant from the tabulation would bring the nonunion average for the commuting area to 36.3 cents, or 1.9 cents below the union average of 38.2 cents.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Men's Neckwear Workers in Selected Market Areas, by Unionization Status, 1939*

Market area	Union plants			Nonunion plants		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
All market areas	51	1,875	$0.536	69	3,065	$0.434
New York City proper	20	568	.757	7	141	.683
New York City commuting area	8	393	.382	9	473	.445
Philadelphia	6	176	.491	5	129	.379
Chicago	7	321	.530	4	72	.449
Other	10	417	.448	44	2,250	.421

HOURLY EARNINGS IN SELECTED MARKETS OUTSIDE NEW YORK METROPOLITAN AREA

Neckwear plants are found in considerable numbers in several large centers outside the New York City metropolitan area, notably in Philadelphia, Chicago, Baltimore, Boston, St. Louis, Kansas City (Mo.), and Los Angeles. It is of interest, therefore, to examine the wage levels in each of these markets, as shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Men's Neckwear Workers in Selected Market Areas, 1939*

Market area	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
Chicago, Ill	11	393	$0.514	28.3	$14.56
Los Angeles and San Francisco, Calif	[1] 7	233	.481	35.1	16.91
Boston, Mass	6	221	.475	39.0	18.52
Philadelphia, Pa	11	305	.445	36.6	16.26
St. Louis, Mo	4	231	.434	34.4	14.94
Kansas City, Mo	3	196	.347	38.0	13.20
Baltimore, Md	5	227	.392	34.6	13.55

[1] Los Angeles, 5 plants; San Francisco, 2 plants.

Chicago, with an average wage of 51.4 cents an hour, was the highest-paid market of any importance in the industry outside of the New York City metropolitan area. In 8 of the 11 plants covered in Chicago the average wages were between 50 and 60 cents an hour. These 8 plants employed over 60 percent of the Chicago workers. The Chicago market is largely unionized. The averages in the larger nonunion plants were between 40 and 45 cents.

The average hourly earnings in Los Angeles and San Francisco, 48.1 cents, were about 3 cents lower than the Chicago figure, but only about two-thirds of the average wage in New York City proper.

Average wages in individual plants in California ranged from 42.5 to 52.5 cents an hour. Los Angeles establishments were largely nonunion, whereas the San Francisco plants included in the sample were operating under union agreements.

Boston wages averaged 47.5 cents an hour. This was slightly lower than the California figure, but the range of wages in Boston, as judged from the plant averages, was considerably wider than in California. Of the 6 Boston establishments surveyed, 2 had average hourly earnings between 35 and 40 cents, 2 between 45 and 50 cents, and 2 between 52.5 and 57.5 cents. None of the Boston plants surveyed was operating under a union agreement. The Massachusetts neckwear plants outside of Boston averaged between 40 and 42.5 cents.

Philadelphia plant averages showed practically the same range as the Boston establishments. However, a larger proportion of the Philadelphia plants were in the lower wage brackets, thus reducing the total average for the city (44.5 cents) to 3 cents below that of Boston. A distribution of the Philadelphia establishments shows a clear-cut division between the union and nonunion plants, all of the latter having averages lower than the lowest-paid union establishment surveyed. The range in nonunion plants was from 30.5 cents to 40.4 cents, while the spread in union-plant averages was from 41.4 to 55.9 cents. Outside of the Philadelphia metropolitan area, the other Pennsylvania plants (all nonunion) averaged somewhat less than most of the nonunion Philadelphia establishments.

In St. Louis and Kansas City (Mo.), union plants also predominated. The average wage in St. Louis, however, was considerably higher than that in Kansas City, the respective figures being 43.4 and 34.7 cents an hour. Each of these cities comprises a fairly homogeneous wage area, the range in plant averages in St. Louis being a little more than 5 cents and in Kansas City less than 4 cents.

Baltimore, with average hourly earnings of 39.2 cents, had the lowest wages of any of the more important cities covered, except Kansas City. Furthermore, the general average for Baltimore was very close to each of the plant averages there, since there was a spread of less than 5 cents between the average hourly earnings in the highest- and lowest-wage establishments. The Baltimore average wage was little more than half of the New York City figure. None of the Baltimore plants was operating under union agreement.

These distributions of average wages show quite clearly that the low average for plants in Southern States [8] does not reflect a clear-cut regional difference. It is true that the averages of the southern plants are low. It is not true that relatively low-wage plants are usually found in the South. Thus, as has been indicated, plants in

[8] See table 5.

Kansas City averaged little more than those in Southern States. Furthermore, although the 4 plants in Southern States in the sample each averaged less than 35 cents, there were 14 other such plants in other parts of the country (see table 2).

EARNINGS IN RELATION TO FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

A minimum wage of 25 cents an hour was effective under the Fair Labor Standards Act at the time of the Bureau's survey (first half of 1939). Later, the minimum was advanced to 30 cents. It may be further raised not to exceed 40 cents, if recommended by an Industry Committee and approved by the Administrator of the act.

The number of workers who earned less than 25 cents an hour in the neckwear industry during the pay-roll period covered comprised 1.4 percent of the total employment. About 6 percent received exactly 25 cents, which was the largest concentration in any 1-cent class. (See table 8.)

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of Men's Neckwear Workers Earning Up to 40 Cents an Hour, 1939*

Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Cumulative percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Cumulative percent of workers
Under 17.5 cents	6	0.1	29.0 and under 30.0 cents	89	16.5
17.5 and under 20.0 cents	12	.4	30.0 and under 31.0 cents	123	19.0
20.0 and under 21.0 cents	7	.5	31.0 and under 32.0 cents	141	21.8
21.0 and under 22.0 cents	6	.6	32.0 and under 33.0 cents	141	24.7
22.0 and under 23.0 cents	8	.8	33.0 and under 34.0 cents	132	27.4
23.0 and under 24.0 cents	11	1.0	34.0 and under 35.0 cents	136	30.1
24.0 and under 25.0 cents	19	1.4	35.0 and under 36.0 cents	185	33.9
25.0 and under 26.0 cents	301	7.5	36.0 and under 37.0 cents	159	37.1
26.0 and under 27.0 cents	101	9.5	37.0 and under 38.0 cents	168	40.5
27.0 and under 28.0 cents	139	12.3	38.0 and under 39.0 cents	130	43.1
28.0 and under 29.0 cents	116	14.7	39.0 and under 40.0 cents	139	45.9

The application of the 30-cent minimum wage required a direct shift of one-sixth (16.5 percent) of all men's neckwear workers—17.8 percent of the female and 7.6 percent of the male employees. These figures do not take into account the number whose wages would be increased if occupational wage differentials were maintained.

The adjustment necessary to meet the 30-cent minimum, of course, was more important in the lower-wage plants. Almost half of the establishments had an average hourly wage lower than 42.5 cents. This group of plants employed between 40 and 50 percent of all workers surveyed, and the hourly earnings of about a third of the employees in these establishments had to be raised to 30 cents. The proportion mounted to more than half of all employees in plants that had an average lower than 32.5 cents an hour.

It will be seen that 30.1 percent of all employees earned under 35 cents an hour, and 45.9 percent were paid less than 40 cents. In

the establishments with the lowest wages, the respective percentages were 54.1 and 72.7.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES

The principal operations in the manufacture of men's neckwear are cutting; machine stitching, such as hemming, piecing, pocket making, etc.; closing by the so-called "slip-stitch" machines, by hand basting or by hand slip stitching; turning; pressing; trimming; examining; folding; packing; and boxing. Maintenance and service employees form a minor proportion of the total labor force in neckwear factories.

The number of operations performed by a single operator depends upon the organization of work in the factory. For example, in some plants, particularly the New York City union shops, the same cutters cut both silks and linings and also do the spreading, whereas in other factories there may be silk cutters, lining cutters, and spreaders. Likewise, sewing-machine operators may perform all or several machine-stitching operations, or they may do only one operation, such as hemming, pocket sewing, piecing, etc. Stitching and piece pressing are done by the same operator in some plants. The slip-stitch tie-closing operation is sometimes divided between pinners and stitchers. Trimming and examining are often a combination job. In some establishments, particularly those making slip-stitched ties, the tie makers do practically all operations except cutting.

When comparing occupational wages on a broad regional basis, without regard to size of factory or type of tie manufactured, therefore, it is necessary to combine in occupational groups similar operations or operations that are commonly assigned to one operator. Table 9 presents wage and hour data for the principal occupational groups.

Cutters as a class are by far the highest-paid production workers in the shop. Their average hourly earnings for the country as a whole were 84.6 cents during the first half of 1939.[9] Males are employed almost exclusively in this occupation.

Sewing-machine operators and hand slip stitchers are the occupations of most importance numerically. The average hourly earnings of all sewing-machine operators were 49.5 cents an hour. The average for female operators alone is a more significant figure for the country as a whole, however, since male sewing-machine operators are rare in neckwear factories, except in New York City. Female sewing-machine operators averaged 45.7 cents. Hand slip stitchers, with an average of 44.8 cents, earned scarcely a cent less an hour than female sewing-machine operators. Slip-stitch machine operators,

[9] No significance attaches to a comparison of the earnings of male cutters and sewing-machine operators for the country as a whole. The fact that the latter average more than cutters is due to the fact that cutters are employed throughout the industry. Virtually all male sewing-machine operators, however, are employed in New York City. In that market they made 27 cents an hour less than cutters.

who are to some extent displacing hand slip stitchers, had average hourly earnings of 43.2 cents. Hand basters averaged 42.4 cents. All of these occupations are filled almost exclusively by women.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Men's Neckwear Workers, by Sex, Occupation, and Region, 1939*

ALL REGIONS [1]

Sex and occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
All workers	4,940	$0.470	34.7	$16.32
Males	697	.710	37.6	26.70
Cutters and markers	213	.846	38.4	32.48
Sewing-machine operators	121	.935	28.4	26.54
Pressers	106	.728	35.6	25.93
Packers, boxers, and folders	44	.399	41.7	16.65
Plant clerks	113	.504	42.6	21.47
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production and maintenance departments	43	1.013	41.0	41.56
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	57	.328	42.2	13.84
Females	4,243	.427	34.3	14.62
Sewing-machine operators	1,158	.457	34.1	15.61
Slip stitchers, hand	1,148	.448	33.8	15.15
Slip-stitch machine operators	179	.432	34.4	14.86
Basters, hand	216	.424	31.7	13.47
Miscellaneous hand sewers	113	.419	34.6	14.50
Pressers	534	.414	34.4	14.21
Turners	253	.392	30.7	12.01
Trimmers and cleaners	181	.351	34.2	12.01
Examiners	48	.409	37.4	15.32
Packers, boxers, and folders	188	.332	38.5	12.78
Plant clerks	62	.381	40.9	15.57
Learners	40	.265	35.1	9.30
Miscellenaous skilled workers, production department	52	.544	41.0	22.27
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	71	.341	37.4	12.75

NEW YORK CITY PROPER

All workers	709	$0.742	30.2	$22.45
Males	258	.924	31.9	29.48
Cutters and markers	47	1.271	34.1	43.28
Sewing-machine operators	103	1.002	27.2	27.20
Pressers	51	.959	30.5	29.24
Packers, boxers, and folders	15	.417	37.6	15.66
Plant clerks	32	.593	41.2	24.43
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production and maintenance departments	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Females	451	.629	29.3	18.43
Sewing-machine operators	84	.858	27.5	23.58
Slip stitchers, hand	240	.606	29.9	18.15
Slip-stitch machine operators	9	.744	18.8	14.00
Miscellaneous hand sewers	29	.565	27.9	15.76
Pressers	12	.619	35.1	21.69
Turners	26	.517	21.7	11.21
Trimmers and cleaners	40	.440	34.2	15.03
Packers, boxers, and folders	6	(2)	(2)	(2)
Plant clerks	1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production department	3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	1	(2)	(2)	(2)

[1] Figures for all regions include the southern plants, but no separate figures are shown for the latter, due to small coverage.

[2] Not a sufficient number of workers to justify the computation of an average.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Men's Neckwear Workers, by Sex, Occupation, and Region, 1939*—Continued

NEW YORK CITY COMMUTING AREA

Sex and occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
All workers	866	$0.417	37.2	$15.55
Males	87	.548	42.2	23.11
Cutters and markers	17	.698	43.5	30.35
Sewing-machine operators	5	[1]	[1]	[1]
Pressers	35	.505	40.7	20.56
Packers, boxers, and folders	9	[1]	[1]	[1]
Plant clerks	9	[1]	[1]	[1]
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production and maintenance departments	8	[1]	[1]	[1]
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	4	[1]	[1]	[1]
Females	779	.401	36.7	14.70
Sewing-machine operators	223	.431	37.9	16.35
Slip stitchers, hand	142	.379	35.0	13.25
Slip-stitch machine operators	60	.467	37.5	17.50
Basters, hand	1	[1]	[1]	[1]
Miscellaneous hand sewers	32	.389	41.9	16.26
Pressers	100	.445	35.9	15.94
Turners	90	.392	32.8	12.84
Trimmers and cleaners	39	.291	32.4	9.43
Examiners	5	[1]	[1]	[1]
Packers, boxers, and folders	59	.292	40.6	11.86
Plant clerks	8	[1]	[1]	[1]
Learners	7	[1]	[1]	[1]
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production department	6	[1]	[1]	[1]
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	7	[1]	[1]	[1]

OTHER EASTERN STATES

All workers	1,760	$0.437	30.0	$15.74
Males	193	.624	41.4	25.86
Cutters and markers	80	.732	40.0	29.30
Sewing-machine operators	10	.682	35.4	24.15
Pressers	19	.684	40.5	27.69
Packers, boxers, and folders	13	.370	44.8	16.55
Plant clerks	34	.429	42.9	18.43
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production and maintenance departments	19	.941	41.9	39.47
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	18	.345	46.3	15.98
Females	1,567	.410	35.3	14.50
Sewing-machine operators	428	.430	34.3	14.74
Slip stitchers, hand	487	.428	35.3	15.11
Slip-stitch machine operators	73	.386	36.6	14.10
Basters, hand	58	.427	35.3	15.09
Miscellaneous hand sewers	15	.408	39.5	16.14
Pressers	184	.413	34.0	14.02
Turners	65	.369	34.1	12.57
Trimmers and cleaners	61	.309	36.0	11.15
Examiners	19	.480	38.3	18.41
Packers, boxers, and folders	78	.338	38.2	12.89
Plant clerks	20	.368	40.9	15.05
Learners	18	.284	36.0	10.22
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production department	22	.524	42.3	22.18
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	34	.344	36.2	12.46

[1] Not a sufficient number of workers to justify the computation of an average.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Men's Neckwear Workers, by Sex, Occupation, and Region, 1939*—Continued

MIDDLE WESTERN STATES

Sex and occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
All workers	1,209	$0.438	33.0	$14.46
Males	116	.647	39.2	25.33
Cutters and markers	53	.797	37.2	29.59
Sewing-machine operators	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Packers, boxers, and folders	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Plant clerks	25	.453	42.8	19.37
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production and maintenance departments	11	1.174	40.9	47.98
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	21	.312	39.4	12.32
Females	1,093	.411	32.4	13.31
Sewing-machine operators	319	.448	32.0	14.30
Slip stitchers, hand	223	.407	33.4	13.59
Slip-stitch machine operators	29	.435	26.9	11.69
Basters, hand	90	.400	29.2	11.69
Miscellaneous hand sewers	27	.363	30.0	10.88
Pressers	184	.392	33.4	13.11
Turners	57	.408	25.2	10.27
Trimmers and cleaners	34	.389	32.6	12.69
Examiners	18	.347	33.1	11.48
Packers, boxers, and folders	32	.376	34.8	13.09
Plant clerks	29	.383	40.0	15.35
Learners	10	.208	38.6	8.02
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production department	19	.555	40.8	22.67
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	22	.321	36.7	11.77

PACIFIC STATES

All workers	272	$0.472	34.8	$16.43
Males	32	.692	39.8	27.54
Cutters and markers	10	.848	39.7	33.67
Sewing-machine operators	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Pressers	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Packers, boxers, and folders	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Plant clerks	11	.639	41.1	26.27
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production and maintenance departments	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Females	240	.438	34.1	14.95
Sewing-machine operators	62	.469	34.4	16.15
Slip stitchers, hand	39	.410	35.6	14.59
Slip-stitch machine operators	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Basters, hand	62	.461	32.8	15.14
Miscellaneous hand sewers	10	.351	35.6	12.49
Pressers	32	.441	32.5	14.32
Turners	4	(1)	(1)	(1)
Trimmers and cleaners	5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Examiners	5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Packers, boxers, and folders	5	(1)	(1)	(1)
Plant clerks	3	(1)	(1)	(1)
Learners	2	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous skilled workers, production department	1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous semiskilled and unskilled workers, production, maintenance, and service departments	7	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Not a sufficient number of workers to justify the computation of an average.

Pressers are another large group of production employees, a majority of them being women, but among whom a substantial number of male workers are also found. Female pressers averaged 41.4 cents an hour, a little less than females in the sewing occupations. Male

pressers had an average of 72.8 cents, about half of them being in New York City proper.

The average hourly earnings of female turners were 39.2 cents. Turners also are predominantly women. Turning is a semiskilled job requiring considerable experience, dexterity, and physical exertion for efficient production. All ties except those closed by slip stitching are turned after closing.

Female trimmers and cleaners, one of the least skilled groups in the production of neckwear, had average hourly earnings of 35.1 cents. Female packers, boxers, and folders averaged 33.2 cents.

Average hourly earnings of $1.013 are shown for a group of skilled male workers composed principally of working foremen and skilled maintenance employees. The miscellaneous group of skilled women, including principally working foreladies and a few woman cutters, averaged 54.4 cents an hour.

Employees who were designated by the plants as learners (all of whom were women), formed only a very minor proportion of the total wage earners in the sample. A majority were occupied as sewing-machine operators, although several presser learners were found, as well as a few slip stitchers, turners, and trimmers. All learners combined earned an average of 26.5 cents an hour. About a third were paid less than 25 cents, one-third between 25.0 and 27.5 cents, and the other third between 27.5 and 42.5 cents.

The average hourly earnings of individual occupations were considerably higher in New York City proper than in other regions. For example, cutters averaged $1.271 an hour, which was 50 percent higher than in the Pacific States and about two-thirds more than in the remainder of the country, including the commuting area adjacent to New York City. The difference was even greater in the case of sewing-machine operators. The 85.8-cent average for female operators in New York City proper was 82.9 percent above that in the Pacific States and practically double the figure for the other regions. The average hourly earnings of other occupational groups were also commonly highest in New York City proper, but the respective differences between the New York City wages and those in other regions were generally less than in the case of cutters and operators. For example, slip stitchers' hourly earnings averaged 60.6 cents in New York City proper, as compared with 37.9 cents in the adjacent commuting area, and not a great deal more than the latter figure in any of the other regions.

The proportionate distribution of neckwear workers among the various occupational groups within a plant depends largely upon the type of tie made. For example, an establishment producing only machine-made ties will have no hand slip stitchers. Likewise, plants producing only completely hand-made ties may have only

cutters, slip stitchers, and pressers. There is a certain amount of specialization in some cities, which results in an uneven weighting of occupational groups among the various markets. Therefore, a truer picture of occupational wage differences may be obtained from an analysis of the wage structure on a market basis rather than for the country as a whole. The average hourly earnings of the major production occupations for the leading markets are shown in table 10. This table also presents the occupational differences within each market in terms of index numbers, using the average of the lowest-wage group of production workers, the trimmers and cleaners, as 100.

TABLE 10.—*Occupational Differences in Average Hourly Earnings in Selected Market Areas of Men's Neckwear Industry, 1939*

Occupation and sex	All regions	New York City proper	New York City commuting area	Baltimore	Chicago
	Average hourly earnings				
Cutters and markers, male	$0.846	$1.271	$0.698	$0.635	$0.913
Sewing-machine operators, male	.935	1.002	(1)	(1)	(1)
Sewing-machine operators, female	.457	.858	.431	.386	.570
Slip stitchers, hand, female	.448	.606	.379	(1)	.447
Slip-stitch machine operators, female	.432	.744	.467	(1)	(1)
Basters, hand, female	.424		(1)	.378	.433
Pressers, male	.728	.959	.505	(1)	(1)
Pressers, female	.414	.619	.445	.411	.464
Turners, female	.392	.517	.392	.348	.442
Trimmers and cleaners, female	.351	.440	.291	.278	.371
	Index numbers				
Cutters and markers, male	241.0	288.9	239.9	228.4	246.1
Sewing-machine operators, male	266.4	227.7			
Sewing-machine operators, female	130.2	195.0	148.1	138.8	153.6
Slip stitchers, hand, female	127.6	137.7	130.2		120.5
Slip-stitch machine operators, female	123.1	169.1	160.5		
Basters, hand, female	120.8			136.0	116.7
Pressers, male	207.4	218.0	173.5		
Pressers, female	117.9	140.7	152.9	147.8	125.1
Turners, female	111.7	117.5	134.7	125.2	119.1
Trimmers and cleaners, female	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Number of workers not sufficient to justify computation of an average.

The widest spread in average hourly earnings among the various occupations was in New York City proper. The average of cutters here was 188.9 percent higher than that of trimmers and cleaners. This may be compared with 139.9 percent in the commuting area adjacent to New York City, 146.1 percent in Chicago, and 128.4 percent in Baltimore. It will be noted that sewing-machine operators in New York City proper also earned considerably more in comparison with other occupational groups than in any other area. Male operators' average hourly earnings in New York City proper were 127.7 percent, and females' earnings 95.0 percent higher than the figure for trimmers and cleaners. By contrast, in the adjacent commuting

area, the female operators' average was only 48.1 percent higher than that of trimmers and cleaners. The difference for female operators in Chicago was 53.6 percent, and in Baltimore, 38.8 percent.

It is interesting to compare the average hourly earnings of male and female workers in the same occupation in a given homogeneous wage area. For example, both male and female sewing-machine operators are employed in New York City shops, and their respective average wages were $1.002 and 85.8 cents an hour. Male pressers in New York City proper averaged 95.9 cents, but for females the average was 61.9 cents an hour; the respective wages in the adjacent commuting area were 50.5 and 44.5 cents.

INCREASE IN HOURLY EARNINGS FROM EXTRA OVERTIME RATES

Thus far, the discussion has covered only basic hourly earnings, that is, wages earned at regular rates of pay. As the Fair Labor Standards Act makes obligatory the payment of time and one-half for overtime (after 44 hours, at the time of the survey) it is of interest to determine the extent to which basic average hourly earnings were increased by extra overtime rates.

Time and one-half, the legal minimum, was the overtime rate in all plants. However, overtime to which the extra rate applied was not uniformly defined. In New York City, establishments working under union agreements paid the extra rate for time outside of the regular working day, which began and ended at a specified time. These plants had a normal workweek of 36 hours.[10] A similar practice of paying the extra rate for any time beyond the regular working hours, when less than 44 per week, was also followed in several plants outside of New York City. In many establishments, however, the extra rate applied only after 44 hours a week, the legal maximum hours, regardless of the length of the regular workweek.

Only 2.5 percent of all employees surveyed worked overtime at extra rates, and their total earnings were increased by slightly less than 2 cents an hour over their earnings at regular rates. The average of this group of employees who had some overtime pay was 39.8 cents an hour at regular rates, and 41.7 cents when overtime pay is averaged over the week's work. The inclusion of these extra earnings in the aggregate wages of all employees made a difference of only one-tenth of a cent in the average hourly earnings of all workers. As the longer hours were principally worked by males, the average for all males was increased by two-tenths of a cent, and that for females by less than one-tenth of a cent.

[10] The agreement between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and the Men's Neckwear Manufacturers' Association of New York prohibits overtime for neckwear makers. It also prohibits overtime for regularly employed cutters, except when Saturday work is required of them due to holiday time lost during a week. Such Saturday work is considered overtime. If extra cutter time other than this is required, it must be worked by extra cutters after regular working hours and be paid for at overtime rates, unless the extra cutters are employed for a full week's work.

The amount of overtime found in the production departments was negligible. Some cutting departments worked overtime, as did also packers, maintenance and service workers, plant clerks, and working foremen.

Weekly Hours and Earnings

FULL-TIME WEEKLY HOURS

The 5-day week predominated in the men's neckwear industry, and the full-time, or normal, hours of work per week ranged from 30 to 44 in the first half of 1939. The scheduled workweek for approximately half of both establishments and employees was exactly 40 hours. Shorter full-time hours, usually 36, were the rule in about three-tenths of the plants, which employed 22.0 percent of all workers. Most of the remaining establishments, comprising about a fifth of the total, but employing 29.0 percent of the wage earners, worked the maximum legal hours, which were 44 at the time of the survey.

The 36-hour week was the rule in union shops in both New York City proper and Chicago. Many of the nonunion plants in New York City proper had the same workweek as union shops. Outside of these markets, including the commuting area adjacent to New York City, the scheduled workweek was usually 40 or 44 hours. Practically none of the union shops had a normal workweek longer than 40 hours.

It should be noted that the full-time hours discussed above are those applying to the majority of the workers engaged directly in production. Not only were the hours of cutters sometimes longer than those in the "making" department, particularly in nonunion plants, but it was common practice for shipping, maintenance, and service employees in both union and nonunion establishments to have scheduled hours longer than those prevailing in the production department.

ACTUAL WEEKLY HOURS

A substantial proportion of the employees, however, were not working full time in the first half of 1939. The shortest full-time workweek of any significant number of plants was 36 hours, but about 40 percent of the wage earners worked less than 36 hours during the 1-week pay-roll period covered. (See table 11.) The actual hours worked by another 20 percent were 36 and under 40 per week, and about 15 percent worked exactly 40 hours. Another 15 percent worked exactly 44 hours, then the legal maximum at regular rates of pay, and 2.7 percent worked longer than 44 hours. Average actual hours per week for all wage earners were 34.7. The average for male workers was 3.3 hours longer than the average for woman workers.

TABLE 11.—*Percentage Distribution of Men's Neckwear Workers by Weekly Hours and by Sex, 1939*

Weekly hours	All workers	Males	Females
Under 16 hours	5.3	3.7	5.6
16 and under 24 hours	8.3	5.0	8.8
24 and under 32 hours	14.8	9.2	15.8
32 and under 36 hours	12.2	8.2	12.8
36 and under 40 hours	19.7	16.2	20.3
Exactly 40 hours	14.7	19.9	13.9
40.01 and under 44 hours	7.7	5.3	8.0
Exactly 44 hours	14.6	25.6	12.8
44.01 and under 48 hours	.7	2.3	.5
48 and under 52 hours	1.6	2.7	1.4
52 hours and over	.4	1.9	.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	4,940	697	4,243
Average weekly hours	34.7	37.6	34.3

Although a 36-hour week was the general rule in New York City proper, employees there actually worked an average of only 30.2 hours. Chicago workers had even shorter actual hours, averaging only 28.3 per week. Wage earners in the commuting area adjacent to New York City proper, where the 40- and 44-hour full-time weeks were general, averaged only 37.2 hours.

WEEKLY EARNINGS

Weekly earnings for the hours actually worked of all employees in the men's neckwear industry averaged $16.32 in the first half of 1939. About three-fifths of the wage earners earned less than the average, however, and more than three-fourths (78.0 percent) received below $20. Almost a fifth (18.9 percent) were paid under $10. The latter represent in most cases earnings for part-time work. (See table 12.)

TABLE 12.—*Percentage Distribution of Men's Neckwear Workers by Average Weekly Earnings and by Sex, 1939*

Weekly earnings	All workers	Males	Females	Weekly earnings	All workers	Males	Females
Under $6	4.9	0.6	5.6	$30 and under $32	1.4	4.7	0.9
$6 and under $10	14.0	2.7	15.8	$32 and under $36	1.7	7.9	.7
$10 and under $12	13.4	8.7	14.2	$36 and under $40	1.5	7.5	.5
$12 and under $14	12.9	4.3	14.3	$40 and under $44	.9	5.3	.2
$14 and under $16	14.6	7.9	15.6	$44 and under $48	.5	3.3	.1
$16 and under $18	10.1	6.3	10.7	$48 and under $52	.8	5.2	(1)
$18 and under $20	8.1	8.3	8.1	$52 and over	.6	3.6	.1
$20 and under $22	5.2	5.5	5.2				
$22 and under $24	3.9	5.2	3.7	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
$24 and under $26	2.4	6.3	1.8				
$26 and under $28	1.7	3.7	1.4	Number of workers	4,940	697	4,243
$28 and under $30	1.4	3.0	1.1	Average weekly earnings	$16.32	$26.70	$14.62

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

The average weekly earnings of female workers were $14.62; of males, $26.70. The longer hours of male employees brought their weekly wage to 82.6 percent above that of the women, as compared

with the difference of 66.3 percent in average hourly earnings. Whereas more than three-fourths (76.2 percent) of all female employees received less than $18 a week, and only 2.5 percent earned as much as $30.00, the individual weekly earnings of male workers were more widely dispersed, 37.5 percent receiving $30 and over and 8.0 percent $50 and over.[11]

Notwithstanding the short hours worked in New York City proper, the weekly earnings here were the highest in the industry. The average of $22.45 in New York City proper may be compared with $15.55 in the commuting area, which represents an average 7 hours' more work per week. Average weekly earnings in Chicago were quite low ($14.56), because the somewhat higher-than-average hourly earnings were not sufficient to overcome the extremely short hours. The few southern plants covered had average weekly earnings of only $12.81, although their average weekly hours of 41.2 were higher than any reported in other regions.

[11] The New York City union wage for cutters was $50 for a 36-hour week.

WAGES, HOURS, AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF UNION STREET-RAILWAY EMPLOYEES, JUNE 1, 1939 [1]

THE average hourly wage rate of union motormen, conductors, and bus operators in 55 cities was 75.5 cents on June 1, 1939. This average covers motormen, conductors, and bus operators employed on city lines as well as on city-suburban lines operated by companies which also furnish city service. Employees of strictly intercity lines are not included.

The hourly wage-rate index advanced 0.8 percent between June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, moving from 108.3 in 1938 to 109.2 in 1939 (1929=100.0). This was the fifth consecutive yearly increase in the index. In 1934, after 3 years of declining wage rates, the index had dropped to 96.1. The present index represents an advance of 13.6 percent from the 1934 low point. The greatest proportionate advance was between 1936 and 1937 when the index rose 4.6 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates of Street-Railway Motormen, Conductors, and Bus Drivers, 1929 to 1939*

[1929=100]

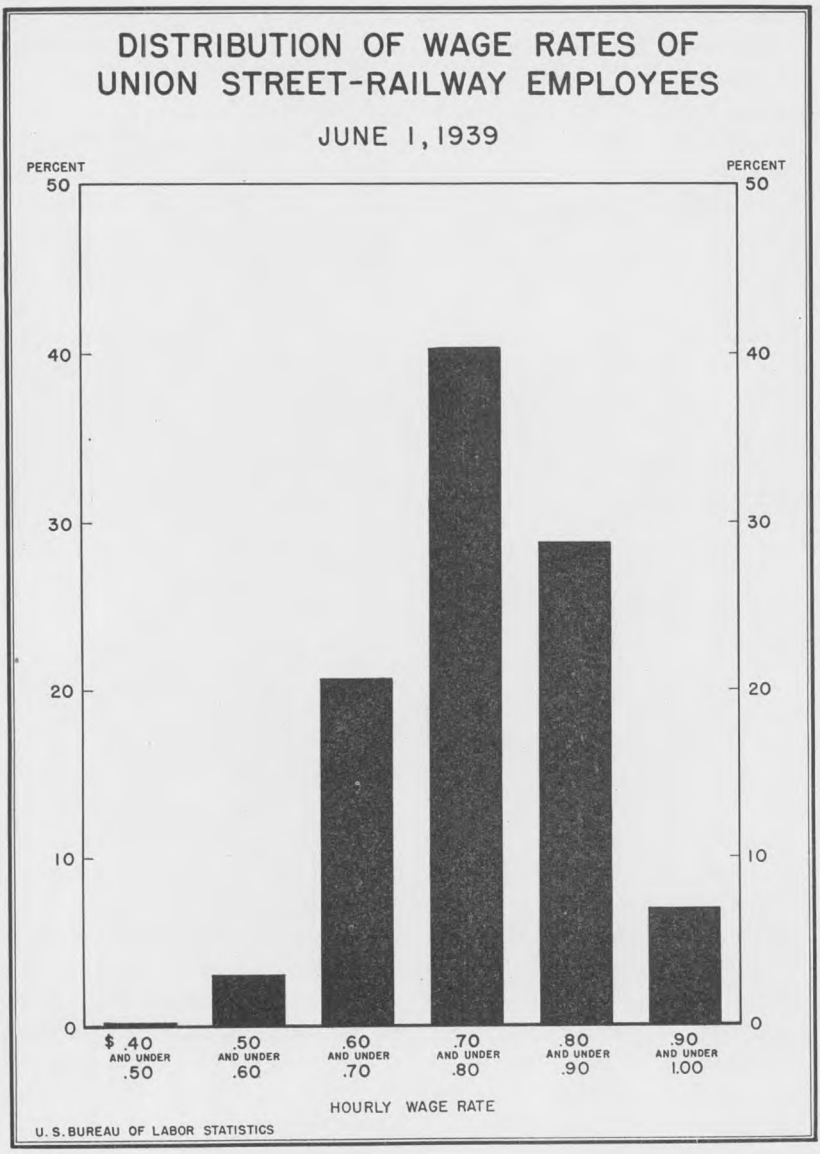
Year	Index	Year	Index
1929	100.0	1935	99.8
1930	101.0	1936	100.6
1931	101.0	1937	105.3
1932	99.0	1938	108.3
1933	(1)	1939	109.2
1934	96.1		

[1] Not available.

Hourly wage rates in street-railway and bus operations are almost invariably graduated on the basis of an employee's length of service with the company. The majority of the agreements provide for an entrance rate, an intermediate rate, and a maximum rate. A considerable number, however, specify several intermediate periods, each with successively higher rates. The specified time for the rate steps varies widely from city to city. The entrance-rate period is in no case less than 3 months, and is frequently a full year. The maximum rate most frequently applies after 1 year of service, but many agreements provide for periods ranging up to 5 years, and one agreement specifies that the top rate shall apply after 9 years' service.

The differences between the entrance rate and the maximum rate range as high as 20 cents per hour, the most frequent difference being 5 cents.

[1] Prepared by Frank S. McElroy, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.



Nearly all of the agreements, for cities in which both one- and two-man cars are operated, provide a higher rate for one-man-car operators than for motormen and conductors on two-man cars. Generally the rate for bus drivers is the same as for one-man-car operators. The differentials in favor of one-man operators ranged from 5 to 10 cents, the most frequent being 7 cents per hour. Not all of the cities, of course, had both one- and two-man operations.

The entrance rates for two-man-car operators ranged from 48 cents per hour in Salt Lake City to 75 cents per hour in Chicago. For one-man-car and bus operators the range of entrance rates was from 40 cents in New Orleans to 81 cents per hour in Pittsburgh.

Maximum rates for two-man operators ranged from 56 cents in Salt Lake City to 81 cents per hour in Detroit; and for one-man operators from 45 cents in New Orleans to 95.5 cents per hour in Pittsburgh.

As streetcar and bus operators as a rule remain permanently in the employ of one company, a very great majority of the union members reported were receiving the maximum rates established in their respective agreements. Only 3.2 percent of the total membership were receiving less than 60 cents per hour. Nearly 21 percent had rates between 60 and 70 cents per hour; 40.4 percent had rates between 70 and 80 cents; 28.8 percent were receiving between 80 and 90 cents; and 6.9 percent were being paid between 90 cents and $1 per hour.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Union Street-Railway Employees, by Hourly Rate Groups, June 1, 1939*

Classified hourly rates	1939
Average rate per hour	$0.755
Percent of members whose rates were—	
40 and under 50 cents	0.2
50 and under 60 cents	3.0
60 and under 70 cents	20.7
70 and under 80 cents	40.4
80 and under 90 cents	28.8
90 cents and under $1	6.9

Rate increases between June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, were reported in 106 of the 382 quotations which gave data for both years. These increases took place in 22 cities and applied to 18.4 percent of the total membership included in the 2-year reports. The two reductions reported did not apply to employees in regular service but only to new temporary men required during the World's Fair in New York. The majority of the quotations (274), covering 81.4 percent of the membership, showed no rate changes.

	Number of quotations	*Percent of members affected*
Increase	106	18.4
Decrease	2	.2
No change	274	81.4

In most cases the increases reported represented advances of less than 10 percent over the rates in effect on June 1, 1938. Over half were rises of less than 4 percent and about one-fifth were increases of 4 to 6 percent. These increases of under 6 percent applied to 70

percent of all the members who received rate increases during the year.

Amount of rate increase	*Number of quotations*	*Percent of members affected*
Less than 2 percent	16	2. 2
2 and less than 4 percent	45	9. 3
4 and less than 6 percent	23	2. 5
6 and less than 8 percent	8	1. 6
8 and less than 10 percent	6	1. 4
10 and less than 12 percent	------	------
12 and less than 14 percent	1	. 3
14 and less than 16 percent	3	1. 1
16 percent and over	4	(1)

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Hours per Day and Week

Because of the impracticability of adjusting transportation work to a fixed scale of daily hours, few of the street-railway or bus operators' agreements attempt to specify the exact hours of work. A definite maximum is sometimes provided, but generally the workday specified is merely considered the ideal to be approximated in the creation of "runs." A great majority of the agreements establish 8 hours as the basic day, although 8½- and 9½-hour days are frequently provided. In a few cases the desirable number of hours is set as low as 6 per day.

The agreements recognize that there are wide variations in the demand for transportation at different hours of the day. The agreements, therefore, permit the creation of some "runs" composed of two or more short daily assignments. This privilege is generally limited by the requirement that a majority of the "runs" shall be "straight" and that the day's "split runs" must be completed within a specified number of hours. The maximum spread permitted ranges as high as 15 hours in some cases, although 13½ hours is most commonly specified.

Several agreements also provide that any employee who works later than 10 or 11 p. m. may not be called for a morning assignment the following day, or that he may not be called within 8 hours.

Generally the intervening time between parts of a split assignment is not paid for, although many agreements require that pay be given for intervals which do not exceed 30 minutes or, in a few instances, 1 hour.

The usual workweek is 6 days, although a small number of agreements provide for a 5-day week. In a few instances it is provided that each operator shall have only 1 day off in every 8.

OVERTIME PAY AND EXTRA WORK

The penalty rate provided for overtime is almost universally time and one-half. Overtime is generally defined as work in addition to the regularly assigned runs. Extra time required to complete a regular run is commonly paid for as straight time. A few agreements require payment at the overtime rate for all work after a specified number of hours regardless of the cause.

Under ordinary circumstances all work not included in regular assignments is reserved for men on the "extra board." Some agreements allow men holding regular runs to register for additional work on their own volition. Usually, however, these men may be given extra assignments only after all of the extra men have been put to work. Such assignments are paid for at the regular rate, the penalty rate applying only when an operator is ordered to perform additional work for which he has expressed no desire.

Scope and Method

This study is one of a series of annual surveys started in 1921. In 1939 effective union scales for street-railway or bus operators were reported in 55 of the 72 cities visited by the Bureau's agents.

All of the rates upon which the averages and distributions are based were obtained through personal calls upon responsible officials of the various local unions or divisions. In nearly all cases the quotations were further checked by comparison with the written agreements, copies of which were generally secured for the Bureau's files.

The rates reported were those in effect on June 1, 1939. Wherever possible the comparable rates in effect on June 1, 1938, were also obtained. Quotations were secured covering 69,248 union members, 66,618 of whom were included in the reports which furnished data for both 1938 and 1939.

The average rate given in this report is based upon all 1939 quotations, and is weighted according to the number of union members receiving each rate. Thus it reflects not only the specific rates provided in the agreements but also the number of persons benefiting from those rates.

In the series of index numbers the percentage change from year to year is based upon aggregates computed from reports which give rates for identical classifications in both years. The membership weights in both of the aggregates used in each year-to-year comparison are those reported for the second year.

The index numbers should be used as indicating the general movement of wage rates from year to year. For a comparison of the general wage level of street-railway and bus operators, at the time the survey was made, with those of other occupations, the average rate may be used.

Provisions in Union Agreements [2]

The following analysis of provisions contained in union agreements covering street-railway and bus operators is not restricted to agreements in the cities included in the previous section relating to wage and hour scales, but includes 49 additional cities. Altogether 103 agreements were analyzed.

PARTIES TO THE AGREEMENTS

The agreements studied were universally negotiated between local unions and individual transportation companies. In the few cities having more than one transportation company separate agreements exist with each company. These agreements are, as a rule, not uniform, but vary in details to meet the different conditions in the separate companies. Generally the membership of each local union includes employees of only one company. In a few instances, where the companies operate large transportation systems with widely separated barns, or with an extremely large number of employees, the employees are divided among several locals. In such cases only one agreement between the company and the joined local unions is customary.

All of the agreements were signed by local divisions of the Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway, and Motor Coach Operators of America (A. F. of L.), except several in New York City signed by the Transport Workers Union of Amercia (C. I. O.), and one in Philadelphia, signed by the P. R. T. Employees' Union (nonaffiliated).

DURATION OF THE AGREEMENTS

About three-fourths of the agreements are written for a term of 1 year, with provision for continuance from year to year, provided neither party notifies the other of a desired change to be effective at the annual renewal date. Most of the other agreements are written for 2-year terms. A small number run for 3 years, and one agreement covers 5 years.

It is generally specified that notice of any desired change, which will result in reopening the agreement, must be given 30 days in advance of the renewal date. A 15-day minimum is provided in some contracts.

UNION STATUS AND HIRING

Union recognition.—Nearly all of the street-railway and bus operators' agreements contain the general statement that the company recognizes the union and agrees to meet with its representatives

[2] Other than wage and hour provisions discussed previously.

for the adjustment of any differences that may arise. Less than half (44), however, specifically define the extent of this recognition. Of these, 19 provide that the union shall represent all employees in the classifications included in the agreement and 25 provide that it shall represent its members only.

Closed shop.—Somewhat less than half (41 out of 103) of the agreements make union membership a requisite for continued employment. Most of these amplify the requirement by specifically providing that the company will suspend or discharge any employee who fails to maintain his membership or is expelled by the union.

About one-fourth of the contracts definitely specify that membership in the union shall be entirely optional with the individual employees, and that there shall be no discrimination nor coercion to compel any employee to join or not to join the union.

Three agreements state that the company prefers to deal with the union as representing all employees and would prefer to have all employees become members.

Leave for union business.—Three-fourths of the agreements provide that union members serving as officers or members of committees in the local shall be granted time off when necessary to attend to union business. Some agreements provide that requests for leave on union business shall be given preference over requests based on personal reasons. A few agreements specify that the number asking for leave at one time shall not interfere with the car or bus service.

Most of these agreements also provide that any employee appointed to any union office which requires his full time shall be granted an extended leave of absence and shall be reinstated with all seniority rights upon his retirement from union office.

Bulletin boards.—The agreements frequently provide that bulletin boards shall be maintained at each barn, upon which the union may post notices of interest to its members. Generally no restrictions are placed upon the kind of notices that may be posted, although a few require that the notices be approved by the company and that they be confined strictly to general union business.

Employees covered by agreements.—A majority of the agreements cover workers in the company shops, garages, barns, and maintenance departments in addition to the operating employees. A few agreements also include linemen. A considerable number include provisions relating only to motormen, conductors, and bus drivers. These, however, are mainly from the smaller cities.

Foremen, superintendents, managers, and other company officials who have the duty of administering discipline are excluded from membership in the Amalgamated Association by a constitutional provision. Working foremen, starters, dispatchers, timekeepers,

inspectors, and street men are permitted to be members, but not to participate in the meetings or activities of the union while holding such positions. The agreements, therefore, do not specify wage rates nor working conditions for these positions.

Clerical employees are not often included in the agreements. A small number specifically exclude workers in the general offices of the company.

Nearly half of the agreements provide for a probationary period, during which new employees are specifically excluded from the agreement benefits other than the wage-rate provisions. Until this probation has been completed the employee has no right to appeal to the union with respect to any grievance, discipline, or his discharge. The period of probation is most frequently either 30 or 60 days, although a number of agreements specify 90 days and one provides for a 120-day probation.

Hiring.—None of the agreements require new employees to be engaged through the union office, nor do they require new men to be union members before starting to work. Under the closed-shop agreements, however, new employees must acquire union membership in order to retain their positions. Usually these agreements specify a time limit within which application for union membership must be made. Generally this coincides with the probationary period. In a few cases the application is required within 1 day of employment.

Check-off.—Only 16 of the agreements provide that the company shall deduct the amount of union dues and assessments from the pay of union members. All of these require individual authorizations from the employees before the deductions may be made.

Access to plant and records.—A small number of the agreements provide that representatives of the union may interview shop or garage men on union business during working hours. This privilege is not, however, extended to include interviewing operators while they are on duty.

A few agreements specify that union representatives may be present at the barn on pay days for the purpose of making dues collections. Several agreements specify that service records of members shall be open to inspection by the union, and a number require that a union representative be present at each selection of runs or uniform inspection.

WAGE REGULATIONS

Differentials for disabled and older workers.—Very few of the agreements contain any provisions regarding disabled or older workers. A small number specify that employees of long service who are incapable of continuing their regular duties shall be given preference for any employment the company may have which they can perform.

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No differentials or concessions are provided for the older or disabled worker in the regularly classified occupations.

Transfer rates.—Street-railway and bus operators are almost universally required to be paid the classified rate for the particular work performed. A few agreements, however, require that regular operators temporarily transferred to runs not their own shall be guaranteed the schedule time of their own runs, and, if given work not on the cars or busses, shall be paid whichever rate is higher, their own or that of the temporary work.

The provisions relating to shop or garage workers sometimes provide that the employee shall receive his own rate while temporarily working in another classification, provided the assignment does not extend beyond a specified period, which may be as long as 15 days. More frequently, however, such workers are required to be paid the higher rate applying to the two classifications.

Minimum call pay.—Regular operators called for extra work before or after their regular runs are frequently guaranteed not less than 1 or 2 hours' pay. It is often provided that if they are given extra work within 1 hour after completing their regular runs they shall also be paid for the intervening time. The time guaranty for calls on an employee's regular day off is generally greater, frequently being 6 hours. Several agreements specify that any employee reporting for his regular run shall be paid for its schedule time regardless of whether he is used. Many agreements specify the minimum time, which is most frequently 8 hours, that a regular run may pay.

Men on the extra list are usually required to report for assignment twice each day, and most agreements specify the minimum pay for making these reports. These guaranties vary widely. In some agreements extra men are guaranteed 1 or 2 hours' pay for each report, or a specified number of hours each week; in others the guaranty is a minimum amount of pay for each month. The time guaranties range up to 36 hours per week, daily guaranties are as high as $4.08; and monthly guaranties range from $60 to $112.50. In all cases these guaranties are contingent upon the extra men making all required reports.

Operators who are given no assignment but are required to remain at the barn for possible extra or emergency work are paid for the time that they remain on report.

Allowances.—Nearly all of the agreements specify some allowances for various incidental duties of the streetcar and bus operators. A period of from 5 to 15 minutes is frequently allowed at the beginning and end of runs for the purpose of getting the car ready for service and for returning it to the barn and making out the required daily reports. An allowance is usually specified for making out accident reports, and it is generally provided that employees required to look

up evidence in connection with accidents shall be paid at their regular rates. Time spent going to court in connection with accident cases is generally required to be paid for as straight time.

It is frequently specified that traveling time between the barn and relief points shall be paid for when crews are changed away from the barn. Time spent instructing student operators is usually rated from 5 to 10 cents an hour higher than the regular rate. Similar additions to the regular rate are frequently specified for work on snow plows and sweepers, or for runs on which the operators must handle newspapers or packages.

It is generally provided that uniforms are to be furnished by the employees, subject to the specifications of the company. Many of the agreements state that these may be purchased in the open market or through the union. Several agreements provide that a union representative must be present when uniform inspection is held. Only two agreements provide that uniforms shall be furnished by the company.

Nearly all of the agreements specifically provide that employees shall be entitled to ride free on any line of the company. One agreement extends this privilege to include the full-time officers of the union, one includes wives of employees, and one includes all dependents of employees.

LEAVE PROVISIONS

Leave of absence without pay for personal reasons is provided in about half of the agreements. The amount of leave is generally limited to 30 or 60 consecutive days, although one renewal is often permitted. Absence because of illness is often specifically excepted from the time limitations. Applications for extended leave are sometimes required to be in writing. Generally the applications for leave are subject to approval by the company, although some agreements either specifically or impliedly make granting of the leave mandatory, provided the number applying for leave at any one time is limited.

A number of agreements require the company or association to provide a book in which the employees may register their desire for particular days off. Many of these agreements specify that, in applying the limitation as to the number to be granted leave on any 1 day, priority in registering shall govern. Generally a request for leave must be made before the list of assignments for the day on which leave is desired is made up.

HOLIDAYS AND VACATIONS

Vacations with pay.—More than half (59) of the agreements provide for annual vacations with pay. In over two-thirds of these the time specified is 1 week. Five agreements grant 2 weeks to all em-

ployees and three grant either 1 or 2 weeks, depending upon length of service. A few provide for less than a week and a small number provide for either 8 or 10 days' vacation. Under one agreement, in addition to a week with pay each employee may take a week without pay, and one other agreement provides only for a week without pay.

The agreements generally specify that vacations may not be accumulated but must be taken as earned, and that cash payments in lieu of actual time off shall not be permitted. Seniority is usually made the governing factor in the selection of vacation periods.

Holidays.—None of the agreements require that employees be paid when not working on holidays. Only a very few agreements provide for payment of a higher than normal rate for holiday work.

Generally holidays are not mentioned in the agreements, since streetcar and bus service is maintained on such days even though on a restricted basis. In a few cases time restrictions are placed upon applications for time off on such days, the restriction being that requests may not be made long in advance. Some agreements specifically state that operators whose regular day off coincides with the holiday shall be assured their time off before any other requests are granted. A small number further provide that an operator having preference, through priority of application, for Thanksgiving leave may not also have preference for Christmas leave.

Rest days.—In order to maintain continuous service, the weekly rest days (required for each employee under most agreements) must be distributed throughout the week. Assignments of regular runs are generally prepared on a 6-day basis and the scheduled day off for any individual depends upon his selection of a run at the periodic "pick." Work on an employee's rest day is allowed only in an emergency, and penalty rates for such work are sometimes provided.

Some agreements insure that Sunday shall be the rest day for most of the extra men by requiring that all Sunday runs shall be included in the regular assignments. A few specify that Sunday work must be completed within a shorter spread of hours than weekday work.

SENIORITY

Seniority provisions are one of the most important sections in most streetcar and bus operators' agreements. In the larger cities where the companies have various barns, divisions, and departments, seniority is generally applied on the basis of several lists, each designed for particular situations. Separate lists are frequently required to be maintained on a company-wide basis for each department. These lists are then divided by occupation, division, barn, or shop. Agreements with the smaller companies generally provide for separate shop and operating lists, and frequently divide the operating list with respect to motormen, conductors, and bus drivers.

Acquisition and loss of seniority.—Seniority almost invariably runs from the date of last employment. Resignation or discharge automatically cancels seniority rights. Many agreements, however, state that seniority shall be retained through a lay-off occasioned by lack of work, provided the lay-off does not exceed a specified time, usually 1 year. Seniority is always retained during an approved leave of absence and generally throughout an absence on account of illness.

Permanent promotion to a supervisory position generally involves loss of seniority rights in all lower classifications. Some agreements, however, provide for retention of these rights through a trial period, during which time the employee may return to his old classification in full standing.

Employees transferring from one classification to another, as from streetcar operation to bus driving go to the foot of the list for their new classification, but frequently retain their rights in their former classification, temporarily with respect to a voluntary return, or permanently in respect to reductions in service.

Lay-off.—Nearly all of the agreements provide that during slack time there shall be lay-offs in accordance with seniority and not rotation or work sharing. Lay-offs are generally based on the seniority lists of each major operating department, each employee being entitled to preference over all others junior to him in service with the company on any list in which he holds rights.

Promotions and transfers.—About half the agreements provide for the application of seniority in respect to promotion and transfers. The promotion provisions usually require that the senior man be considered or given a trial when a vacancy occurs, but do not require that he be given the job unless fully qualified. This application of seniority is frequently on a departmental basis, although in some cases it is confined to a shop or barn.

A number of agreements provide for an annual "system pick" at which time each employee may choose, according to his departmental seniority, the barn or shop and classification in which he wishes to work. When this method is used, voluntary transfers between barns or shops are generally prohibited at other times.

Shift and run assignments.—A large majority of the agreements provide that the employees shall be permitted to select their regular assignments according to seniority at the barn or shop. A few agreements provide that should an employee select an assignment which the company does not consider him competent to fill, a conference with the union representatives must be held before his selection is denied. In some cases it is provided that an employee shall be given a week's trial on the run of his choice before the company may confer with the union representatives regarding a more satisfactory assignment.

Provision is frequently made for the superintendent, or the superintendent and a union representative together, to choose for any member who may be unavailable when his turn to select a run arrives. A number of agreements specifically provide that an employee who is entitled to select a regular run may at the "bidding in" elect to go on the extra list rather than to take one of the regular runs that are open.

Nearly all of the agreements specify how often the assignments must be opened to selection. The frequency varies from 1 to 12 times a year, 3 and 4 times being usually specified. Frequently it is required that an additional selection of runs be held whenever changes in schedules are contemplated, or whenever permanent vacancies occur on any runs.

WORKING RULES

Job restrictions.—Detailed work regulations are not often made a part of the streetcar and bus operators' agreements. A number by reference indicate that the regulations shall be as issued by the company, but that the union shall have the right to discuss any proposed changes with the company officials before they are made effective.

Some agreements provide that shop or office men may not operate cars or busses in regular service, and some specify that all positions as starters, loaders, platform men, or flagmen shall belong to the "blue uniform men."

Extra employees.—The agreements generally provide that all runs not regularly scheduled and all short runs which cannot be combined into regular assignments shall be reserved for men on the extra list. All substitutions for regular operators are also reserved for the extra men.

The extra list is prepared first according to seniority. Thereafter each assignment is given to the man at the head of the list. Generally the list rotates upon any assignment, however short. A few agreements, however, provide that an operator shall retain his position at the head of the list until he has been assigned a specified number of hours' work. Since rush-hour assignments, or tripper runs, are least desirable because they are usually very short, some agreements provide that they shall be assigned from the foot of the list upward, thus reserving the better runs for those at the top of the list. A number of agreements provide that the man in order may not refuse any assignment offered.

Discipline.—Operators, both regular and extra, are generally penalized for reporting late by being required to serve specified periods at the foot of the extra list. While serving a penalty at the foot of the list an operator receives pay only for extra assignments that may be given to him. The time required to be served at the

foot of the list is usually 1 day for the first late report or "miss" within 30 days. Subsequent misses within 30 days carry increasingly greater penalties, amounting in some cases to as much as 15 days at the foot of the list for a third miss. A fourth miss within 30 days is usually specified as cause for discharge or other severe discipline.

A number of agreements specify that discipline shall be imposed by the superintendent only after the employee has been called to his office and given an opportunity to present his defense. The employee is frequently granted the right to ask for an adjournment at such a hearing so that he may secure witnesses or call upon the union to defend him. It is often required that the person making the complaint against an employee also appear at the hearing, unless the complaint is made by a secret-service employee or by a passenger. Complaints by other than employees of the company are usually required to be thoroughly investigated before the employee is called for a hearing.

Frequently the agreements specify that no employee shall be reprimanded, while on duty, in such a manner as to attract the attention of passengers or bystanders.

Causes for discharge.—Specific causes for discharge are not frequently mentioned in the agreements. Those most often specified are repeated misses within 30 days, unreported absence from duty, intoxication, and irregularities in handling fares. A number of agreements provide that unreported absence shall be cause for dismissal, but that the employee's record shall be marked "resigned." It is frequently required that notice of discharge or discipline be given the employee within a specified time after the infraction first comes to the company's attention.

HEALTH, SAFETY, AND WELFARE

Physical examinations.—About 1 in 10 of the agreements require the employees to submit to physical examinations either yearly or upon request of the company. Generally it is provided that the examiner must be selected by the company and the association or that the employee may appeal the findings of the company examiner to his own physician. The minimum physical requirements are not stated in the agreements.

Condition of equipment.—About 20 percent of the agreements require that each car or bus be checked and placed in good condition by the shop men before being delivered to the operator. Items most frequently mentioned to be checked are brakes, window wipers, and doors.

Welfare.—The operators' use of seats or stools while on the car is usually governed by company regulations and not made part of the agreements. About 10 percent of the agreements, however, specifically require that seats be provided for motormen and conductors.

A small number include a statement of the rules regarding their use, commonly specifying that they may not be used when the car is in heavy traffic areas, or that conductors may not be seated when passengers are standing. A few agreements also require that the operators' cabs must be equipped with heaters.

A frequent provision is that operators may remove their coats during hot weather, provided they wear approved shirts and no suspenders. Comfort stations are often required at turning points, and a few agreements require the company to provide wash rooms and lockers at each barn.

The Chicago and Cincinnati agreements require the company to provide a $1,000 life-insurance policy for each regular employee. In addition, the Chicago companies are required to provide health insurance paying $20 per week during illness.

ADJUSTMENT OF DISPUTES

Union-management negotiations.—Provisions for shop stewards are not included in these agreements, implying that the union representatives are generally the business agents or other officials designated by the union. In a very few cases it is required that the union representatives shall be employees of the company.

Nearly all of the agreements contain a provision that the company will meet with representatives of the union for the settlement of any differences that may arise between them. About a fourth of the agreements specifically require employees to present individual grievances to the heads of their departments before the matters may become subjects for union-management discussion.

A number of agreements name the company officials with whom successive conferences are to be held. Most frequently these provide that the union may carry its case to the highest company official if a satisfactory settlement is not obtained in any previous conference. In a few instances an unsettled controversy goes directly from the general manager to arbitration. Many agreements require each company official to render his decision within a specified time after the matter in dispute has been brought to his attention.

Discharge.—Only a minority of the agreements provide other than the regular grievance procedure for the handling of discharge cases. Notice of discharge or suspension is sometimes required to be in writing and to contain the reasons for the action. A number of agreements require that appeals from discharge must be made within a specified time. One agreement provides that appeal from discharge shall be made to a joint board composed of union and company representatives. Most agreements provide that if, upon investigation, an employee is found to have been unjustly discharged or suspended he shall be reinstated with pay for all time lost.

Arbitration.—Nearly all of the agreements provide for arbitration of all matters relating to the interpretation or application of the terms of the agreement. Over 20 percent of the agreements specifically provide that disputes over the terms of succeeding agreements shall also be arbitrated. Two agreements specifically exclude questions of discipline and one excludes the union shop and the check-off from arbitration. One closed-shop agreement provides that expulsion of a member by the union shall be a matter for arbitration just as discharge by the company.

All of the agreements providing for arbitration provide for the appointment of temporary arbitrators as the occasions may arise. Quite frequently the agreements specifically state that arbitration is to be a last resort and that both parties shall make every effort possible to reach an understanding through direct negotiations.

Requests for arbitration may come from either party and are frequently required to be in writing. Following such request each side must name its representatives on the arbitration board within a specified time. About one-fourth of the agreements provide that the union and company appointees shall attempt to reach an agreement upon the dispute before selecting an impartial arbitrator.

The arbitrators named by the union and the company are required to select an impartial member to act as chairman of the board. In case the original appointees cannot agree upon an impartial chairman within a specified time it is frequently required that the union and company confer in regard to naming new appointees or concerning a method of selecting an impartial member. A small number of agreements designate a particular judge or other public official to name such impartial chairman.

Time limits upon the rendering of a decision by the arbitrators are frequently provided. Several agreements require that none of the arbitrators be either presently or formerly connected with either party as members, employees, or stockholders.

Strikes and lock-outs.—About half (52) of the 103 agreements contain specific restrictions upon strikes and lock-outs. Two-thirds of these flatly prohibit any strike or lock-out for the duration of the agreement. The others express the restriction as pending negotiations or arbitration. Fifteen of the agreements specifically amplify the restriction to include sympathetic strikes.

In addition to the restrictions upon strikes incorporated in the agreements, each local union is bound by the restrictions contained in the constitution of its association. The constitution of the Amalgamated Association provides that a strike vote may be taken only after negotiations for the settlement of the dispute have been tried and have failed. Strike votes must be by secret ballot and every member must be given a ballot. Two-thirds of the votes cast are

required for an affirmative decision. Following an affirmative vote, the international president must be notified to send a representative, who shall investigate and attempt to secure a settlement through negotiation or arbitration. In case of failure in these negotiations the international representative is then required to secure approval from a majority of the general executive board before authorizing a strike. A local division entering upon an unauthorized strike forfeits all rights to assistance and renders itself subject to expulsion from the Association.

Rates Paid in Each City

The union rates per hour in force on June 1, 1939, and June 1, 1938, in each city visited by the Bureau's agents, are shown in the following table. Hours are not given, since the hours of work are irregular, depending upon the "run."

TABLE 3.—*Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, by Cities*

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1939	June 1, 1938
Atlanta, Ga.		
2-man cars or feeder bus lines:		
First 9 months	$0.550	$0.535
10–18 months	.600	.585
After 18 months	.630	.615
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 9 months	.620	.605
10–18 months	.670	.655
After 18 months	.700	.685
Birmingham, Ala.		
2-man cars:		
First year	.590	.565
Second year	.610	.585
Third year	.640	.615
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.665	.615
Second year	.685	.635
Third year	.715	.665
Boston, Mass.		
Surface lines:		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.580	.580
4–12 months	.640	.640
After 1 year	.780	.780
1-man cars and bus drivers	.880	.880
Rapid transit lines:		
Guards:		
First 3 months	.580	.580
4–12 months	.640	.640
After 1 year	.780	.780
Motormen: After 1 year	.830	.830
Butte, Mont.		
Bus drivers	.800	.800
Charleston, S. C.		
Bus drivers:		
First 3 months	[1].530	.525
4–12 months	[1].550	.545
After 1 year	[1].570	.565
Chicago, Ill.		
Surface lines:		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	$0.750	$0.750
4–12 months	.780	.780
After 1 year	.800	.800
Night cars	.820	.820
1-man cars	.880	.880
Night cars	.900	.900
Elevated lines:		
Conductors (regular)	.766	.766
Motormen:		
First 3 months (extra)	.757	.757
4–12 months (extra)	.766	.766
After 1 year (regular or extra)	.811	.811
Guards (regular)	.748	.748
Guards (extra):		
First 3 months	.720	.720
4–12 months	.730	.730
After 1 year	.739	.739
Bus drivers:		
Gas or trolley	.880	.880
Night gas or trolley	.900	.900
Cincinnati, Ohio		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.620	.620
4–12 months	.650	.650
After 1 year	.670	.670
1-man cars:		
First 3 months	.690	.690
4–12 months	.720	.720
After 1 year	.740	.740
Bus drivers: After 1 year	.740	.740
Cleveland, Ohio		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.670	.670
4–12 months	.700	.700
After 1 year	.720	.720
Bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.740	.740
4–12 months	.770	.770
After 1 year	.790	.790

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, by Cities*—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1939	June 1, 1938
Columbus, Ohio		
1-man cars and Class A bus drivers:		
First 3 months	$0.600	$0.570
4–12 months	.630	.600
After 1 year	.650	.620
Class B bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.560	.540
4–12 months	.590	.570
After 1 year	.610	.590
Class C bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.500	.490
4–12 months	.530	.520
After 1 year	.550	.540
Davenport, Iowa		
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district)		
Dayton, Ohio		
Motormen:		
First 3 months	.610	.580
4–12 months	.630	.600
After 1 year	.650	.620
Dayton City Line:		
Electric car operators	.480	.480
Denver, Colo.		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.575	.575
4–12 months	.585	.585
13–18 months	.595	.595
19–24 months	.605	.605
After 2 years	.615	.615
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.625	.625
4–12 months	.635	.635
13–18 months	.645	.645
19–24 months	.655	.655
After 2 years	.665	.665
Des Moines, Iowa		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.625	.625
4–12 months	.655	.655
After 1 year	.700	.700
Detroit, Mich.		
2-man cars:		
First 6 months	.730	.730
7–12 months	.770	.770
After 1 year	.810	.810
1-man cars:		
First 6 months	.780	.780
7–12 months	.820	.820
After 1 year	.860	.860
Owl cars	.910	.910
Bus drivers	.860	.860
Duluth, Minn.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.560	.560
Second year	.590	.590
After 2 years	.610	.610
Erie, Pa.		
Bus drivers:		
First 3 months	[2].580	.580
4–12 months	[2].630	.630
After 1 year	[2].660	.660
Grand Rapids, Mich.		
Bus drivers	$0.550	$0.550
Indianapolis, Ind.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.630	.580
Second year	.650	.600
Third year	.670	.620
After 3 years	.700	.650
Jackson, Miss.		
Bus drivers:[3]		
First 6 months	.450	----
7–12 months	.490	----
Second year	.530	----
3–5 years	.550	----
After 5 years	.565	----
Jacksonville, Fla.		
Bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.460	----
7–12 months	.470	----
Second year	.480	----
Third year	.490	----
Fourth year	.500	----
Fifth year	.510	----
Little Rock, Ark.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.460	.440
7–12 months	.480	.460
Second year	.510	.490
Third year	.540	.520
After 3 years	.600	.580
North Little Rock division:		
First 6 months	.420	.420
7–12 months	.450	.450
Second year	.480	.480
After 2 years	.500	.500
Los Angeles, Calif.		
Pacific Electric Railways Co.:		
Local 2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.635	.635
4–12 months	.645	.645
Second year	.660	.660
After 2 years	.680	.680
Interurban:		
First 3 months	.655	.655
4–12 months	.665	.665
Second year	.680	.680
After 2 years	.700	.700
Single track:		
First 3 months	.705	.705
4–12 months	.715	.715
Second year	.730	.730
After 2 years	.750	.750
Pacific Electric Railways Co. and Motor Transit Lines Co.:		
Motor coaches:		
First 3 months	.705	.705
4–12 months	.715	.715
Second year	.730	.730
After 2 years	.750	.750
Los Angeles Railway:		
2-man cars:		
First year	.530	----
Second year	.590	----
Third year	.620	----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, by Cities*—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1939	June 1, 1938
Madison, Wis.		
Bus drivers:		
First 6 months	[4] $0.520	$0.510
7–12 months	[4] .550	.540
13–18 months	[4] .570	.560
After 18 months	[4] .590	.580
Manchester, N. H.		
1-man cars:		
First 3 months	.550	.550
4–12 months	.610	.610
After 1 year	.670	.670
Bus drivers	.670	.670
Memphis, Tenn.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.575	.575
Second year	.625	.625
After 2 years	.675	.675
Milwaukee, Wis.		
2-man cars:		
First year	.670	.670
Second year	.690	.690
Third year	.710	.710
After 3 years	.730	.730
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.720	.720
Second year	.740	.740
Third year	.760	.760
After 3 years	.780	.780
Minneapolis, Minn.		
2-man cars:		
First vear	[5] .590	.590
Second year	[5] .620	.620
Third year	[5] .650	.650
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	[5] .660	.640
Second year	[5] .690	.670
Third year	[5] .730	.710
Moline, Ill.		
(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)		
Newark, N. J.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.630	.630
4–12 months	.650	.650
After 1 year	.670	.670
New Haven, Conn.		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.550	.530
4–12 months	.580	.560
After 1 year	.620	.600
1-man cars:		
First 3 months	.620	.600
4–12 months	.650	.630
After 1 year	.690	.670
Bus drivers	.690	.670
New Orleans, La.		
Bus drivers:		
First 5 months	.400	.400
6–12 months	.410	.410
13–18 months	.420	.420
19–24 months	.430	.430
25–30 months	.440	.440
After 30 months	.450	.450
New York, N. Y.		
Surface cars:		
3rd Ave. Railway System:		
First 3 months	$0.500	$0.480
4–12 months	.560	.540
Second year	.660	.640
Third year	.720	.700
Fourth year	.730	.710
Fifth to ninth years	.750	.730
After 9 years	.780	.760
Brooklyn lines:		
First 6 months	.463	.463
7–12 months	.484	.484
13–18 months	.506	.506
19–21 months	.528	.528
22–24 months	.550	.550
Third year	.572	.572
Fourth year	.594	.594
Fifth year	.616	.616
After 5 years	.770	.770
Subway and elevated lines:		
I. R. T.:		
Motormen:		
First year	.783	.783
Second year	.858	.858
After 2 years	.953	.953
Yard motormen:		
First-year	.659	.659
After 1 year	.690	.690
Conductors:		
First 2 years	.648	.648
Third year	.668	.668
Conductors, M. U. D. C.: [6]		
First 2 years	.668	.668
After 2 years	.689	.689
Trainmen:		
First year	.574	.574
Second year	.583	.583
Third year	.619	.619
Trainmen, M. U. D. C.: [6]		
First year	.594	.594
Second year	.605	.605
Third year	.641	.641
N. Y. R. T. lines:		
Conductors, new men	.638	.638
Conductors	.660	.660
Trainmen:		
First 2 years	.521	.521
Third year	.550	.550
Fourth year	.572	.572
Fifth year	.594	.594
After 5 years	.616	.616
B. M. T. lines:		
Operators:		
First year	.792	.792
Second year	.869	.869
After 2 years	.957	.957
Bus drivers:		
Ave. B and East Broadway Transit Co.:		
First 6 months	.500	.500
7–12 months	.520	.520
Second year	.550	.550
Third year	.570	.570
Fourth year	.620	.620
After 4 years	.650	.650
Brooklyn Bus Corporation:		
First year	.521	.521
13–15 months	.550	.550
16–18 months	.572	.572
19–24 months	.594	.594
Third year	.616	.616
Fourth year	.638	.638
Fifth year	.660	.660
After 5 years	.770	.770

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, by Cities*—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1939	June 1, 1938
New York, N. Y.—Continued		
Bus drivers—Continued.		
Fifth Ave. Coach Co.:		
Drivers:		
First year	$0.730	$0.730
Second year	.760	.740
Third year	.770	.770
Fourth year	.780	.780
After 4 years	.810	.790
Conductors:		
First year	[8].660	.660
Second year	.670	.670
Third year	.700	.700
Fourth year	.710	.710
After 4 years	.740	.720
Green Lines:		
First year	.550	.550
Second year	.570	.570
Third year	.600	.600
Fourth year	.630	.630
After 4 years	.700	.700
Manhattan and Queens Lines:		
First 6 months	.575	-------
7–12 months	.593	-------
13–18 months	.636	-------
19–24 months	.650	-------
25–30 months	.683	-------
After 30 months	.730	-------
N. Y. Omnibus Co.:		
First 6 months	.610	.610
7–12 months	.700	.650
Second year	.760	.710
Third year	.820	.770
Fourth year	.840	.780
Fifth year	.900	.790
After 5 years	.900	.820
North Shore and Z. and M. Lines:		
First year	[9].550	.550
Second year	[9].570	.570
Third year	[9].600	.600
Fourth year	[9].630	.630
After 4 years	[9].700	.700
Schenck Transportation Co.:		
First year	.650	.550
Second year	.680	.570
Third year	.725	.600
Fourth year	.725	.630
After 4 years	.725	.700
Staten Island Bus Co.:		
First 3 months	.550	.550
4–6 months	.575	.575
7–12 months	.600	.600
13–18 months	.625	.625
19–30 months	.650	.650
31–42 months	.675	.675
After 42 months	.700	.700
Third Ave. Railway System:		
First 3 months	.500	.480
4–12 months	.560	.540
Second year	.660	.640
Third year	.720	.700
Fourth year	.730	.710
5–9 years	.750	.730
After 9 years	.780	.760
Triangle Bus Corporation:		
First year	.480	.480
Second year	.500	.500
Third year	.530	.530
Fourth year	.540	.540
After 4 years	.580	.580
Tri-Boro Coach Corporation:		
First year	.550	.550
Second year	.570	.570
Third year	.600	.600
Fourth year	.630	.630
After 4 years	.700	.700
Oklahoma City, Okla.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 6 months	$0.620	$0.620
7–12 months	.660	.660
Second year	.680	.680
After 2 years	.700	.700
Interurban	.750	.750
Peoria, Ill.		
2-man cars:		
Less than 1 year	.610	.610
1–2 years	.630	.630
After 2 years	.650	.650
1-man cars; trackless trolley men; and bus drivers:		
Less than 1 year	.660	.660
1–2 years	.680	.680
After 2 years	.700	.700
Philadelphia, Pa.		
Surface lines:		
2-man cars:		
First 6 months	.650	.650
7–12 months	.675	.675
13–18 months	.700	.700
19–24 months	.725	.725
After 2 years	.750	.750
1-man cars:		
First 6 months	.700	.700
7–12 months	.725	.725
13–18 months	.750	.750
19–24 months	.775	.775
After 2 years	.800	.800
Subway and elevated lines:		
Motormen:		
First 6 months	.680	.680
7–12 months	.705	.705
13–18 months	.730	.730
19–24 months	.755	.755
After 2 years	.780	.780
Conductors:		
First 6 months	.650	.650
7–12 months	.675	.675
13–18 months	.700	.700
19–24 months	.725	.725
After 2 years	.750	.750
Bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.730	.730
7–12 months	.755	.755
13–18 months	.780	.780
19–24 months	.805	.805
After 2 years	.830	.830
Phoenix, Ariz.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.750	.688
Second year	.750	.700
After 2 years	.750	.715
Pittsburgh, Pa.		
1-man cars:		
First 3 months	.810	.810
4–12 months	.900	.900
After 1 year	.955	.955
Bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.630	.630
4–12 months	.740	.740
Second year	.770	.770
After 2 years	.780	.780
Portland, Maine		
1-man cars and bus drivers	.650	.650

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Union Rates of Wages of Street-Railway Employees, June 1, 1938, and June 1, 1939, by Cities*—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	June 1, 1939	June 1, 1938
Portland, Oreg.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	$0.780	$0.670
4–12 months	.810	.700
After 1 year	.830	.720
1-man interurban	.720	.690
Providence, R. I.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.700	.690
4–12 months	.730[1]	.720
After 1 year	.750	.740
Rochester, N. Y.		
2-man subway cars	.670	.650
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.660	.640
4–12 months	.680	.660
After 1 year	.700	.680
Rock Island (Ill.) district		
Bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.610	.610
7–12 months	.630	.630
After 1 year	.650	.650
St. Louis, Mo.		
2-man cars:		
First 6 months	.540	.540
7–12 months	.600	.600
13–18 months	.660	.660
After 18 months	.710	.710
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.610	.610
7–12 months	.670	.670
13–18 months	.730	.730
After 18 months	.780	.780
St. Paul, Minn.[10]		
Salt Lake City, Utah		
2-man cars:		
First year	.480	----
After 1 year	.560	----
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First year	.530	.520
After 1 year	.610	.600
San Antonio, Tex.		
Bus drivers	.745	.720
San Francisco, Calif.		
2-man cars:		
First 6 months	.600	.600
7–12 months	.625	.625
13–18 months	.650	.650
19–30 months	.675	.675
After 30 months	.700	.700
Municipal Lines—motormen and conductors	.750	.750
San Francisco, Calif.—Con.		
California Cable Railroad:		
Gripmen	$0.725	$0.700
Conductors	.725	.700
Bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.675	.675
7–12 months	.700	.700
13–18 months	.725	.725
19–30 months	.750	.750
After 30 months	.775	.775
Municipal lines	.800	.800
Scranton, Pa.		
1-man cars and bus drivers	.710	.710
South Bend, Ind.		
1-man cars and bus drivers	.550	.550
Springfield, Mass.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.630	.620
4–12 months	.680	.670
After 1 year	.720	.710
Toledo, Ohio		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 6 months	.650	.620
7–12 months	.670	.640
After 1 year	.700	.670
Washington, D. C.		
2-man cars:		
First 3 months	.610	.610
4–12 months	.650	.650
After 1 year	.670	.670
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.680	.680
4–12 months	.720	.720
After 1 year	.740	.740
Worcester, Mass.		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.660	.640
4–12 months	.710	.690
After 1 year	.760	.740
York, Pa.		
Bus drivers:		
First year	.560	.560
Second year	.570	.570
Third year	.580	.580
Fourth year	.590	.590
Fifth year	.600	.600
Youngstown, Ohio		
1-man cars and bus drivers:		
First 3 months	.650	.650
4–12 months	.700	.700
After 1 year	.750	.750

[1] Plus 2 cents per hour if charged with no accidents for 30 days.
[2] 2 cents per hour increase, November 1, 1939.
[3] 53 cents per hour for first 6 months and 58 cents after 6 months, effective July 1, 1939.
[4] 1 cent per hour increase, September 1, 1939.
[5] 2 cents per hour increase, August 1, 1939.
[6] Multiple Unit Door Control.
[7] Extra first year men required during World's Fair received 69 cents per hour.
[8] Extra first year men required during World's Fair received 62 cents per hour.
[9] 10 percent contingent bonus effective July 12, 1939.
[10] Rates are the same as for Minneapolis.

INCOMES OF CHIROPRACTORS AND CHIROPODISTS IN THE UNITED STATES

IN 1937 the average net income of practicing chiropractors in the United States was $1,976, which was 47.3 percent above that of 1933 and 19.8 percent below that of 1929, as indicated in the table below.[1]

Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Chiropractors and Chiropodists by Total Net Income from Professional Service, 1929 to 1937

Net incomes of—	Chiropractors					Chiropodists				
	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937	1929	1933	1935	1936	1937
$0	0	4	3	2	3	3	5	3	2	2
Less than $500	4	19	15	13	13	8	22	16	13	15
Less than $1,000	14	43	35	29	29	15	44	40	30	32
Less than $1,500	29	63	53	48	43	21	56	55	50	47
Less than $2,000	43	76	68	61	58	34	66	69	62	63
Less than $2,500	63	87	81	75	73	43	81	81	75	72
Less than $3,000	73	92	89	83	82	53	86	86	83	83
Less than $4,000	87	97	96	92	91	68	95	97	94	94
Less than $5,000	92	99	99	96	95	78	98	99	97	98
Less than $6,000	96	[1] 100	99	98	97	90	99	[1] 100	99	99
Less than $7,000	98	[1] 100	[1] 100	99	98	96	100	100	[1] 100	[1] 100
Less than $8,000	99	100	[1]100	[1] 100	99	99	-------	-------	100	100
Less than $9,000	[1] 100	-------	100	[1] 100	99	99	-------	-------	-------	-------
Less than $10,000	[1] 100	-------	-------	[1] 100	100	100	-------	-------	-------	-------
Less than $15,000	100	-------	-------	100	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Average net income	$2,464	$1,342	$1,614	$1,867	$1,976	$3,134	$1,527	$1,550	$1,796	$1,788
Median net income	$2,148	$1,101	$1,400	$1,547	$1,736	$2,714	$1,236	$1,275	$1,504	$1,583
Number in sample	284	359	422	456	504	99	199	280	310	359

[1] More than 99.5 but less than 100.0 percent.

Although returns on chiropodists included only 99 persons in 1929, 199 in 1933, and 359 in 1937, the regularity of the distribution of the patterns within the sample, according to the report under review, supplies some basis for the belief that the tendencies disclosed in the available data indicate in general the income status of this group. As recorded in table 1, the average net income in 1937 of persons practicing this profession in the United States was $1,788—a rise of $261 or 17.1 percent above the 1933 level, but a drop of $1,346 or 42.9 percent below the 1929 income.

EARNINGS OF OFFICE WORKERS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES, OCTOBER 1939

WEEKLY earnings of office workers in New York State factories averaged $35.47 in October 1939, an increase of 1.7 percent over October 1938. Employment of office workers during this period increased 1.9 percent and total pay rolls, 3.7 percent. The figures for all factory workers, office and shop combined, showed gains of

[1] U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. National Income Section. Incomes of chiropractors and chiropodists, by Herman Lasken. Washington, 1939.

12.2 percent in employment, 16.6 percent in pay rolls, and 3.9 percent in average weekly earnings. These figures, and those in the tables accompanying this article, are from the annual survey of office workers' earnings made by the New York Department of Labor, published in its Industrial Bulletin for November 1939.

Average weekly earnings of office workers in representative factories in New York State in October of each year from 1931 to 1939, inclusive, are shown in table 1. The averages are based on information furnished by the same fixed list of representative manufacturing plants which report regularly to the New York Department of Labor for its factory employment and pay-roll analysis published monthly in the Industrial Bulletin. The New York department points out that the uneven distributions of the higher-salaried supervisory and technical staff and the lower-paid clerical force, reported by different plants, limit the comparisons that can be made from the data. It also calls attention to the fact that the data for October 1938 and October 1939, given in the table, are not entirely comparable with those for previous years. One of the large firms represented in the survey changed its method of reporting in 1939, and the 1938 figures were revised to make them comparable with the figures for 1939. The unrevised figures for 1938, however, are given in a footnote to the table, to permit comparison with earnings for previous years.

The workers covered in this annual survey include clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, stock clerks, office managers, and superintendents.

TABLE 1.—*Average Weekly Earnings of Office Employees in Representative New York State Factories in October of Each Year, 1931 to 1939*

Industry	Average weekly earnings in October—								
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Average, all industries	$35.49	$31.86	$31.85	$32.45	$32.71	$33.05	$33.93	[1] $34.86	$35.47
Stone, clay, and glass	34.35	31.48	28.83	27.74	26.47	26.65	28.07	29.30	30.70
Metals and machinery	35.06	31.27	32.39	34.29	35.30	35.56	36.83	[1] 36.44	37.83
Wood manufactures	38.07	32.04	30.31	30.59	30.05	30.02	32.67	33.02	33.52
Furs, leather, and rubber goods	28.75	24.73	24.72	23.72	24.51	24.73	23.80	24.98	25.48
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	32.87	29.93	30.64	31.00	30.41	31.49	32.59	[1] 39.20	39.71
Pulp and paper	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Printing and paper goods	41.85	37.25	36.44	36.71	36.13	36.23	37.28	38.89	38.79
Textiles	33.46	29.35	31.76	29.97	[1] 26.32	26.92	26.45	27.59	27.55
Clothing and millinery	31.27	27.63	26.24	25.38	26.28	26.67	27.44	27.41	27.89
Food and tobacco	35.10	33.10	31.90	31.86	32.84	33.55	33.49	34.41	34.40
Water, light, and power	30.64	31.59	30.24	34.10	34.68	35.47	36.30	36.07	38.76

[1] Not comparable with preceding years. The figures for October 1938 that are comparable with preceding years were published in the November 1938 Industrial Bulletin and are $36.21 for the metals and machinery industry, $32.81 for the chemical industry, and $34.19 for the total.

[2] Separate earnings not computed because of small number of employees.

Table 2 gives average weekly earnings of men and women in factory offices in New York State in October 1939. The figures in this table were not based on a fixed list of firms as was the case with those in table 1.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly Earnings of Men and Women in Factory Offices in New York State, October 1939*

Industry	Men			Women		
	Total State	New York City	Upstate	Total State	New York City	Upstate
Average, all industries	$45.90	$44.93	$46.45	$22.98	$24.15	$22.02
Stone, clay, and glass	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Metals and machinery	45.51	41.42	46.30	22.71	24.82	22.05
Wood manufactures	44.54	36.58	47.69	20.45	21.51	20.18
Furs, leather, and rubber goods	38.19	41.06	35.35	19.98	20.99	18.62
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	54.51	38.95	60.78	24.37	24.51	24.30
Pulp and paper	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Printing and paper goods	48.64	51.46	43.08	24.05	25.07	21.76
Textiles	38.22	40.37	37.44	20.68	21.49	20.37
Clothing and millinery	40.07	39.96	40.52	23.09	23.81	20.80
Food and tobacco	43.84	45.50	40.60	23.67	24.79	22.43
Water, light, and power	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Separate earnings not computed because of small number of employees.

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WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN ARGENTINA

THE normal working time of industrial workers in Argentina is set by law at 8 per day and 48 per week. Exceptions may be allowed in certain cases, and shorter hours are provided for minors and for night work.

Under separate plans, minimum wages are set for (1) home workers, (2) masons and bricklayers, and (3) laborers in the Government service. In any industry employing home workers, however, an equipartisan minimum-wage commission may be established on request of 50 or more workers in the industry. Wage rates set by collective agreement are infrequent.

There are 4 general and 1 provincial system of social insurance in Argentina. Benefits are provided for old age, invalidity, and disability arising from the employment, as well as survivors' benefits, for salaried employees and wage earners of railroads and of public utilities and salaried employees of banks. Maternity insurance is provided for woman workers in industry and commerce. The provincial system is that for journalists in Córdoba. For these benefits, deductions are made from the pay, as follows: Salaried and wage-earning employees of railways pay 6 percent of their remuneration up to 1,000 pesos [1] per month; salaried and wage-earning employees in public-utility enterprises, 5 percent of pay up to 1,000 pesos per month; and salaried employees of banks, from 5 percent on monthly salaries up to 500 pesos, to 7 percent on salaries from 1,000 to 1,500 pesos, plus 3 percent to cover service prior to passage of the law in 1929; and in all instances, the first month's pay and the first month's increase in pay. For maternity insurance, salaried and wage-earning women employed in industry and commerce are assessed 1.20 to 3.20 pesos per quarter, according to 6 wage classes. Journalists in the Province of Córdoba pay from 5 percent on monthly salaries up to 150 pesos to 8 percent on salaries over 450 pesos, 1 month's salary, and the first month's increase in pay.

Payments supplementary to wages are not usual in Argentina. For some kinds of agricultural labor, meals are furnished, and also some form of shelter.

Salaried employees and wage earners in commercial enterprises in Argentina are entitled to an uninterrupted vacation each year, at a time chosen by the employer, with pay at their regular rate, according to a law (No. 11729) of September 21, 1934. The minimum length of vacation varies with the years of service, as follows: For service not to exceed 5 years, 10 days; from 5 to 10 years, 15 days; from 10 to 20 years, 20 days; and over 20 years, 30 days.

[1] Average exchange rate of peso, 1934–38, the period covered in this study = about 33 cents.

Industrial Distribution of Workers

The latest industrial census of Argentina (as of October 1935) covered 40,613 industrial establishments reporting 50,964 proprietors or managing directors, 54,343 salaried employees, and 472,152 wage earners, in addition to 35,364 home workers (mainly employed in textiles and their manufactures). The census did not include the following industrial or other groups: Transportation and communication (telegraph and telephone companies, railways, streetcars, bus companies, etc.), except their manufacturing and repair shops; agriculture, grazing, and horticulture; forestry, except processing and manufacture of forestry products; photographers' establishments, moving-picture theaters, barber shops, beauty parlors, and similar establishments. Craftsmen, such as tailors, dressmakers, shoemakers, carpenters, blacksmiths, plumbers, mechanics, etc., were not included unless they used motor power or employed labor, but industrial branches of commercial and similar establishments were included. Table 1 shows the total number of industrial establishments and of salaried employees and wage earners in each of 16 large industrial groups in Argentina in October 1935, not including home workers.

TABLE 1.—*Persons Employed in Argentine Industries October 31, 1935, by Industry Groups* [1]

Industry group	Number of establishments	Number of workers		
		Total	Salaried employees	Wage earners
All industries	40,613	526,495	54,343	472,152
Foodstuffs, beverages, and tobacco	11,592	121,598	13,220	108,378
Textiles and manufactures	4,727	82,834	5,151	77,683
Forestry products and manufactures	3,976	32,395	1,485	30,910
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures	214	7,255	412	6,843
Printing and publishing	2,194	26,896	6,715	20,181
Chemical and pharmaceutical preparations, oils, and paints	931	15,441	2,797	12,644
Petroleum, coal, and their derivatives	56	4,732	700	4,032
Rubber and manufactures	46	3,184	429	2,755
Hides and manufactures	1,087	19,519	1,565	17,954
Stone, earths, glass, and ceramics	2,259	17,915	810	17,105
Metals and manufactures, exclusive of machinery	3,742	42,108	3,088	39,020
Machinery and vehicles	5,049	50,758	4,024	46,734
Electric-power plants	899	16,231	6,409	9,822
Construction	1,550	33,324	1,754	31,570
Mines and quarries	199	13,516	1,364	12,152
Miscellaneous	2,092	38,789	4,420	34,369

[1] Data are from Censo Industrial de 1935, Buenos Aires (p. 57).

Of the 526,495 persons employed in the 16 industry groups 472,152 (89.7 percent) were wage earners and 54,343 (10.3 percent) were salaried employees. The largest number (23.1 percent) of persons employed in any industry was found in foodstuffs, beverages, and tobacco. That industry, together with textiles and manufactures

and machinery and vehicles, comprised nearly half (48.5 percent) of all persons employed in Argentine industry.

For purpose of comparison and to show relative concentration of industry in Buenos Aires, the following statement presents the total number of industrial employees in Buenos Aires in 1938, and for certain industrial groups the number of employed persons and percentages of salaried and wage-earning employees:

	Number of persons employed	*Percentage of employees—*	
		Salaried	*Wage-earning*
All industries	244, 231	11. 2	88. 5
Food	38, 572	11. 8	88. 1
Textiles	38, 539	(1)	(1)
Metallurgical	43, 392	8. 6	91. 4
Woodworking	12, 688	5. 7	94. 3
Printing and binding	23, 625	20. 5	79. 5
Chemicals	13, 608	17. 7	82. 3
Grain elevators, petroleum refineries, etc	961	12. 4	87. 6

[1] Percentage figures not available.

Hours of Work

Hours of work in Argentina are fixed mainly by law. The normal workday and week in industry are 8 and 48 hours, respectively, reduced to 6 and 36 hours for minors under 18 years and for persons working in unhealthful places. For night work 7 hours is the normal shift. With certain exceptions no work is allowed after 1 p. m. on Saturday, but no reduction is to be made in pay because of this half-holiday. For intermittent and shift work, 8 additional hours in a week are allowed, provided the weekly average of 48 hours for a 3-week period is not exceeded. Permanent or temporary exceptions, not to exceed 1 hour per day, may be granted. In commercial establishments and offices, under special regulations by the authorities, 30 hours per month, or 200 hours per year, of overtime may be granted for certain office and other duties. For ordinary overtime, time and a half, and for that on holidays, double time must be paid.

According to the industrial census of 1935, 37.1 percent of all wage earners in industry were working 48 hours, and 36.7 percent 44 hours, per week. Similar percentages of workers according to the specified number of weekly hours worked are shown by industrial groups in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Workers Employed in Argentine Industries, Oct. 31, 1935, by Classified Weekly Hours and Industry Group* [1]

Industry group	Number of—		Percent working in establishments with workweek of specified number of hours							Percent in establishments not reporting workweek
	Establishments	Wage earners	Under 40	40	Over 40 and under 44	44	Over 44 and under 48	48	Over 48	
Average, all industries	40,613	472,152	4.8	6.4	1.8	36.7	4.0	37.1	0.5	8.7
Foodstuffs, beverages, and tobacco	11,592	108,378	7.7	6.0	2.2	35.0	2.0	45.2	1.0	.8
Textiles and manufactures	4,727	77,683	1.2	2.5	.8	35.3	7.9	46.1	.0	6.1
Forestry products and manufactures	3,976	30,910	8.8	11.8	.3	46.6	1.9	26.6	1.3	2.7
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures	214	6,843	2.2	6.3	3.5	40.4	.3	45.2	-----	2.1
Printing and publishing	2,194	20,181	15.9	3.2	2.0	57.8	5.6	14.7	.1	.9
Chemical and pharmaceutical preparations, oils, and paints	931	12,644	2.2	7.2	3.9	32.7	7.2	44.0	1.8	1.1
Petroleum, coal, and their derivatives	56	4,032	-----	.1	-----	4.5	2.7	92.0	-----	.7
Rubber and manufactures	46	2,755	7.7	15.3	-----	26.5	11.6	38.1	-----	.9
Hides and manufactures	1,087	17,954	4.6	13.9	.2	67.4	3.0	10.4	-----	.5
Stone, earths, glass, and ceramics	2,259	17,105	4.6	6.1	1.6	36.5	1.2	47.8	1.3	.9
Metals and manufactures, exclusive of machinery	3,742	39,020	2.9	3.8	1.5	52.2	9.0	29.8	.1	.6
Machinery and vehicles	5,049	46,734	1.8	12.5	6.3	33.7	3.8	40.3	.1	1.4
Electric-power plants	899	9,822	1.0	.1	1.5	3.5	.5	91.3	.7	1.4
Construction	1,550	31,570	.1	.3	-----	1.8	.2	1.1	-----	96.4
Mines and quarries	199	12,152	.6	5.7	.2	18.4	.5	73.8	.1	.7
Miscellaneous	2,092	34,369	8.8	11.7	1.3	47.4	4.1	20.1	.3	6.3

[1] Data are from Censo Industrial de 1935, Buenos Aires (p. 26).

Hours worked per month in certain industrial groups in Buenos Aires in 1938 are shown in the following statement:

	Hours per month
Garment workers	154
Building trades	154
Electricity	184
Printing and paper:	
Skilled workers (8-hour day)	168
Linotypists, printers, etc. (6-hour day)	146
Lumber	161
Metals	168
Textiles (cotton and woolen)	162
Shops and industrial establishments of the Government, the municipality, etc	180
Foodstuffs	169
Chemicals	170
Grain elevators, petroleum refineries, etc	177

For the industrial groups shown, the highest number of hours (184) was found in the electrical industry, and the lowest (154) among garment workers and in the building trades, except that linotypists and printers, who are on a 6-hour day, averaged only 146 hours per month.

The normal hours of work per week of adult male workers in certain occupations in Buenos Aires, October 1938, were as follows: Typographers and linotype operators, 36 hours; furniture makers and plumbers, 40 hours; mechanical engineering, building (except plumb-

ers), machine minders, bookbinders, and unskilled laborers in the printing and bookbinding industry, truck drivers, and unskilled laborers in municipal services, 44 hours; and food and electric-power distribution industries and streetcar and bus drivers and conductors, 48 hours.

Methods of Fixing Wages

MINIMUM WAGE

Schemes for the establishment and maintenance of minimum wages operative in Argentina are (1) municipal wage commissions for home workers, (2) a registry of minimum wages in the National Labor Bureau (*Departamento Nacional del Trabajo*) for masons and bricklayers, and (3) direct legislative action for laborers in the Government service.

In Buenos Aires (the Federal Capital) and the National Territories, autonomous wage commissions for home workers were authorized by a law of October 8, 1918, and regulated by a decree of November 10, 1936. (Originally regulations for Buenos Aires were by decree of December 30, 1918.) The National Labor Bureau is authorized to establish wage commissions in municipalities to fix minimum hourly and piece-work wages for workers (except domestic servants) in every industry employing home workers. Commissions may be established upon the written request of 50 workers in any organization or industry or of a workers' organization having 50 or more members in the occupation concerned. Each commission must have equal numbers of workers' and employers' representatives (the number to be determined by the National Labor Bureau), of legal age and of either sex, chosen by representative workers' and employers' associations. The presiding officer of a commission is not to be a member of the commission, but a person named by the President upon the recommendation of the National Labor Bureau. Members of a commission hold office for 2 years dating from their meeting for organization; they may be reelected indefinitely. The wage rates established by a commission become effective 15 days after publication in the Boletín Oficial, and remain in force indefinitely or until repealed or modified. The commissions must establish rates in any branch of their industry upon request of a member of the commission, the labor inspectorate, or 10 interested workers. For piece work the minimum wage is based upon the number of pieces that an adult worker of medium ability can produce in an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week.

Minimum-wage rates established under the regulations of December 30, 1918, were for made-to-measure tailoring (promulgated April 15, 1935, replacing those of 1925) and for the men's clothing industry (promulgated June 5, 1936, replacing those of 1928). Those under

the regulations of November 10, 1936, were for home workers in the shoe industry (promulgated by resolutions of March 17, April 20, and June 9, 1937) for five types of operations, and for garment workers (promulgated by resolution of November 18, 1937, superseding some of the rates fixed in the resolution of June 5, 1936). Minimum-wage rates have also been established in the furniture industry and for unskilled laborers in municipal employ.

A strike of masons and bricklayers was officially terminated on January 27, 1936, through the mediation of the National Labor Bureau, by the establishment of minimum-wage rates, promulgated in a resolution of January 24, 1936. The rates for an 8-hour day were 6.40 pesos for foremen; 5.20 pesos for assistant foremen; and 4.50 pesos for laborers. An increase of 5 centavos per hour was also provided for the first two classes, to be made automatically 9 months after official termination of the strike. Because the parties to the dispute could not agree on a collective labor contract, the National Labor Bureau provided, by a resolution of January 30, 1936, a Registry of Minimum Wages in Construction (*Registro de Salarios Mínimos de la Construcción*) as a substitute. The registry was to receive, classify, and file offers of minimum wages made by individual employers in the construction industry accepting their responsibility for the pledges made by the associations to which they belonged, as well as those made by enterprises not affiliated with these associations. Offers could not be withdrawn unless 30 days' notice was given. The registry was to be open to the public during usual office hours on working days, and at first, during certain other hours. The registry was to maintain a list of all building enterprises in the city of Buenos Aires, with certain information concerning them, including an indication of whether or not offers of minimum wages had been made to the National Labor Bureau. Resolutions of January 24 and February 1, 1936, created a Joint Consultative Commission (*Comisión Paritaria Consultiva*), composed of nine members each of employers' and workers' associations, to cooperate with the National Labor Bureau regarding compliance with minimum-wage offers and conditions of work in the construction industry. A decree of November 18, 1937, established daily wage rates for bricklayers and masons employed upon building construction for the Government in Buenos Aires, effective May 1, 1938, as follows: Foremen, 7.50 pesos; assistant foremen, 6.30 pesos; and laborers, 5 pesos, all national currency.

In establishing minimum wages for certain salaried and wage-earning employees of the State, a decree of September 28, 1934, divided the Argentine Republic into 5 zones, in each of which minimum monthly and daily rates were fixed. Monthly rates varied from 90 pesos in Zone E to 160 pesos in Zone A, and daily rates from 3.60 to

6.40 pesos, respectively. Minimum-wage rates for wage-earning employees and day laborers working for the Government were fixed by article 9 of the budget law of January 9, 1937. According to this law, all such persons of both sexes over 18 years of age, who are not receiving any additional remuneration, food, or voluntary housing benefits, are entitled to minimum wages which cannot be discounted by more than 30 percent for full board and hygienic housing. Furthermore, the law authorized the Government to fix the minimum monthly and daily wages between the limits of 120 and 160 pesos and 4.80 and 6.40 pesos, respectively. The rates within these limits are to be established with regard to length of service, the nature of the work, and the cost of living in the various sections of the country.

In the postal and telegraph services employees have secured the establishment of a minimum monthly wage of 160 pesos.

In 1938 an agreement was reached by which laborers working for the Province of Santa Fé were to receive the minimum wage accorded to laborers working for the National Government. On December 30, 1938, the Province of Jujuy approved a law prescribing for all laborers paid from its treasury, whether working on contract jobs or directly for the Government, a minimum daily wage of 3 pesos, national currency, for an 8-hour day. Employers who furnish all meals cannot deduct from cash wages on that account more than 80 centavos per day.

In the wartime emergency legislation (Law No. 12591 of September 8, 1939) fixing maximum prices to the consumer of articles of food, clothing, housing, building materials, light, heat, and sanitation, provision was made that the remuneration of salaried and wage-earning employees shall not be reduced by using as a pretext the fixing of maximum prices authorized by this law, and that a fine shall be imposed for each individual violation of this provision.

WAGES UNDER COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

The principal national legislation in Argentina respecting the contract of employment is contained in law No. 11729 of September 21, 1934, which related to both salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial enterprises. In the matter of wages it deals mainly with the computation of dismissal compensation. The collective labor agreement is recognized in industry, but is not in general use, for in October 1937, only masons of the occupational groups shown in table 5 had such a contract for wage rates, and only the mechanical-engineering, building, and furniture industries had contracts for hours.

A collective agreement for construction workers in the Province of Jujuy, published in 1939, established wage rates for work within

4 kilometers from the city, stipulating that wages for work outside that range should be agreed upon in each case but should not be less than those specified. It also provided that wages already being paid which were higher than those fixed in the contract were not to be lowered. Temporary wage rates for the 8-hour day, 44-hour workweek, dating from October 1, 1939, were fixed, and also final rates, effective April 1, 1940, as shown in the following statement:

	Daily wages (in pesos) from—	
	October 1, 1939	*April 1, 1940*
Pointers (*frentistas*):		
Foremen	7. 20	8. 00
Assistant foremen	5. 20	6. 00
Laborers	3. 30	3. 50
Masons:		
Foremen	6. 00	6. 50
Assistant foremen	4. 80	5. 30
First assistants	3. 50	4. 00
Reinforced concrete: Laborers	3. 20	3. 50
Laborers, general	3. 00	3. 30
Workers under 18 years of age (work suited to strength)	2. 00	2. 50

A similar agreement, binding upon the entire building industry of the Province of Santa Fé, was signed on March 24, 1939, effective for 6 months and renewable for similar periods. The contract stipulates the 8-hour day, 44-hour week, with time and a half for overtime on ordinary days and double time for night work and work on statutory rest days, including Sundays and 4 official holidays each year.

Wages in Various Industries

Monthly and daily wages, as reported for January–July 1938 in various industries and occupations in Argentina, are shown in table 3, except in the petroleum industry in Campana, for which hourly wages in 1937 are given. Additional hourly wage rates in land transportation are shown in table 5.

Employees of the Buenos Aires passenger-transport services in December 1937 protested against conditions, and the following changes resulted: Working hours are to average 8 per day (9 hours in exceptional circumstances), to total 144 in a 21-day period. Annual vacations will be 7 days after 1 year of service, 10 days after 10 to 20 years' service, and 12 days thereafter. In case of illness full wages will be paid for 60 days, and in case of accident while at work, 75 percent of wages for 1 year, counting in both instances from the sixth day.

TABLE 3.—*Wages in Various Industries and Occupations in Argentina, January–July 1938* [1]

[Average exchange rate of peso, 1937=33.0 cents; in 1938=32.6 cents]

Industry and occupation	Wages (in pesos)
Clothing, etc.:	*Per day*
Tailors, cutters	4.00–8.00
Tailors	3.00–6.00
Mattress makers	3.50–4.50
Commercial employees:	*Per month*
Apprentices	20.00–40.00
Clerks	35.00–50.00
Watchmen	70.00–90.00
Construction:	*Per day*
Masons, bricklayers, and cement workers	5.00 –8.00
Masons' assistants	3.00 –5.00
Radiator installers	8.00–10.00
Plumbers	7.00 –8.00
Marble and plaster workers	8.00 –9.00
Window-glass installers	4.50 –6.50
Domestic service:	*Per month*
Housekeepers, general	40.00– 65.00
Assistants	20.00– 30.00
Cooks, female	40.00–100.00
Housemaids	35.00– 80.00
Houseboys	40.00–100.00
Nursemaids	30.00– 85.00
Doorkeepers	70.00–100.00
Kitchen helpers	30.00– 60.00
	Per day
Laundresses	2.00– 4.00
Electricity:	
Electricians	6.00– 9.00
Electricians' assistants	3.00– 5.00
Electro-technicians	8.00–10.00
Furniture and lumber:	
Carpenters and cabinetmakers	5.00– 7.20
Furniture polishers	5.00– 8.00
Upholsterers	6.00– 9.00
Meat (packing houses):	
Butchers	5.00–20.00
Boners	5.00–16.00
Sausage makers and wool pullers	5.00– 8.00
Laborers, unskilled	4.00– 5.00
Metal workers:	
Iron workers and mechanics	4.00– 8.00
Machinists	5.00– 8.00
Machinery cleaners	4.00– 7.00
Foundry workers	6.00– 7.00
Forgers	8.00–10.00
Metal workers—Continued.	*Per day*
Steel workers	7.00– 8.00
Boilermakers	8.00–12.00
Coppersmiths	8.00–10.00
Tool sharpeners	9.00–10.00
Petroleum industry: [2]	*Per hour*
Installation—	
Workers in charge	.90
Assistants	.75
Stillmen	1.10
Assistant stillmen and firemen	.80
Housemen	.70
Machinists, electricians, and mechanics, shop	.80
Firemen, shop	.70
Fire extinguishers, shop	.65
Assistant mechanics, shop	.60
Yard hands, shop	.55
Printing and binding:	*Per day*
Typesetters	7.00–10.00
Linotype operators	8.00–14.00
Pressmen and lithographers	8.00–10.00
Binders	6.00– 8.00
Textiles:	
Carders, spinners, and warpers	4.00– 5.50
Weavers	5.00– 6.00
Winders	3.50– 4.50
Dyers	4.00– 5.00
Transportation, land:	
Streetcar motormen and bus conductors	5.00– 7.00
Streetcar conductors	5.00– 6.00
	Per hour
Streetcar mechanics	[3].75
Laborers	[3].60
	Per day
Bus and truck drivers	6.00– 8.00
Truck loaders	2.50– 3.00
Railway guards	3.50– 9.00
Brakemen	6.50– 7.50
Transportation, water:	
Watchmen	7.00– 8.00
Boatswains	5.00–12.00
Seamen	5.00– 8.00
Dredgers and stevedores	6.00– 8.00

[1] Data are from report of Robert E. Wilson, American vice consul, Buenos Aires, and C. G. T. (organ o Confederación General del Trabajo), Buenos Aires, Aug. 6, 1937 (p. 1).
[2] Data relate to Campana only; hourly rates in 1937.
[3] 1937.

WAGES IN AGRICULTURE

The agricultural census of 1937 showed 439,874 agricultural owners and tenants.

The most recent official agricultural wage report available is that for the agricultural year 1933–34, but a few figures are appended to show trends since that time. Wage rates for various agricultural occupations and tasks and for the cost of food of agricultural workers in 1933–34 in the Provinces of Buenos Aires, Córdoba, Entre Rios, and Santa Fé, and the territory of La Pampa, are given in table 4. Figures shown are district averages within the Provinces and territory rather than averages for individual farms.

TABLE 4.—*Average Wages, and Daily Cost of Food of Agricultural Workers in Specified Provinces of Argentina, Crop Year 1933–34* [1]

[Average exchange rate of peso, 1933=72.8 cents in 1934=33.6 cents]

Occupation or process	Average wage in pesos (national currency)				
	Buenos Aires	Córdoba	Entre Rios	Santa Fé	La Pampa (territory)
Preparing land and sowing grain:					
Per day	1.85	1.40	1.15	1.65	1.10
Per month	45.00	34.00	23.00	36.00	31.00
Harvesting of grain, per day:					
Tractor drivers	5.30	5.05	4.10	5.20	4.30
Drivers, reapers, and headers	4.95	4.90	3.75	4.80	3.35
Loaders	3.65	4.15	2.65	4.00	2.55
Wagoners	3.65	4.10	2.55	4.45	2.55
Drivers, harvesters	6.45	5.35	4.30	6.15	4.35
Harvest hands	3.50	3.95	2.55	4.00	3.05
Foremen of the stack	5.20	5.05	4.55	5.70	3.55
Stacker helpers	3.95	3.30	2.85	3.85	2.55
Ox drivers	1.80	1.30	1.30	1.25	.70
Threshing of grain, per day:					
Mechanics	8.65	8.95	7.65	10.40	6.85
Firemen	4.80	5.30	4.15	5.30	3.70
Firemen, assistant	3.25	2.70	2.30	2.85	2.25
Water boys	3.70	2.75	2.90	3.20	2.40
Oilers	3.80	3.40	2.60	3.95	2.75
Ox drivers	2.10	1.45	1.50	1.70	.85
Cooks	3.45	3.15	2.25	3.75	2.10
Laborers	3.40	3.95	2.55	4.70	2.75
Harvesting corn:					
Per bag—					
With board	.40	.35	.30	.35	.35
Without board	.50	.45	.45	.50	.45
Per day—					
With board	2.60	2.30	1.65	2.85	2.75
Without board	3.40	3.15	2.15	3.25	4.05
Farm foremen, per month	86.00	59.00	48.00	83.00	47.00
Farm laborers, per month	45.00	32.00	26.00	40.00	32.00
Cost of food per laborer, per day:					
Seedtime	.85	.85	.75	.85	.60
Harvest	1.05	1.10	.95	1.10	.65
Stewards, agricultural and grazing establishments, annual salary	3,168.00	2,265.00	1,690.00	2,566.00	858.00

[1] Data taken from Anuario de Estadística Agropecuaria, 1935, Buenos Aires (pp. 494–499).

A few agricultural wage rates are available for 1937, as follows: for certain districts in the area about Buenos Aires, stevedores, 9 to 9.50 pesos, and "persons carrying burdens on their shoulders" (*hombreadores*), 8 to 8.50 pesos per day; general laborers, 5 pesos; movement of grains, 1.50 peso per ton; freighters, per bag for the first league, 0.15 peso, for the second league, 0.18 peso, and for the fourth league, 0.24 peso. One district reported 0.08 peso for the first league and 0.12 peso for the second league.

For certain types of agricultural work the following monthly wages were reported for January to July 1938 for the country as a whole: Gardeners, 40 to 80 pesos; gardeners' assistants, 30 to 60 pesos; and field hands, 30 to 40 pesos.

Regulations issued by the Bureau of Labor of the Province of Santa Fé, concerning conditions of work and wages for the 1939 maize harvest, to be effective upon approval by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, specified wage rates with and without food. Employers were required to furnish lodging and the quantities of wood and of good drinking water required by the workers. A single payment of wages

for a group of workers informally organized was prohibited, but such payment might be made to the trade-unions to distribute equally among the workers concerned. The trade-unions registered at the Bureau of Labor were to supply the workers needed for the maize harvest from a list made of all local and immigrant labor available; if the supply of labor exceeded the demand, the unions were required to arrange for a rotation of work so that all workers might share equally in the employment. Minors under 16 years and women might not be employed at harvest work.

Average Hourly Wage in Specified Cities

The average hourly wages of adult males engaged in typical Argentine industries and occupations in Córdoba, Salta, Santa Fé, and Tucumán for October 1937 and for Buenos Aires in October 1938 are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Wages of Adult Males, Specified Cities in Argentina, October 1937 or 1938, by Industry and Occupation* [1]

[Average exchange rate of peso, 1937=33.0 cents; in 1938=32.6 cents]

Industry and occupation	Buenos Aires 1938	1937			
		Córdoba	Salta	Santa Fé	Tucumán
Mechanical engineering:	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Fitters, foremen	0.92	1.18	0.50	0.88	0.85
Turners, foremen	.92	.90	.63	.88	.94
Molders, foremen	.90	.63	.50	.65	.85
Pattern makers, foremen	.95	.45	.63	----------	----------
Model builders, foremen	1.10	.75	.69	.62	1.20
Laborers	0.43–.53	0.24–.50	0.25–.29	0.44–.52	0.44–.53
Building:					
Masons and bricklayers, foremen	.94	.73	.63	.81	.75
Structural-iron workers, foremen	.85	.78	.75	----------	----------
Concrete workers, foremen	.85	.78	.63	.90	.88
Carpenters and joiners, foremen	.85	.73	.75	.87	.85
Painters, foremen	.88	.63	----------	.70	.81
Plumbers, foremen	1.00	.73	.75	1.00	.75
Electrical fitters	.81	.54	.63	.70	.75
Blacksmiths, foremen	.85	.67	.73	.80	.81
Laborers	.63	.38	----------	.52	.48
Furniture making:					
Cabinetmakers, foremen	.90	.57	.75	.70	1.00
Upholsterers, foremen	.90	.53	.38	----------	1.00
Polishers, foremen	.88	.55	.73	.72	.75
Printing and bookbinding:					
Typographers	1.36	.51	.58	.94	.80
Linotype operators	1.85	.97	.83	1.60	1.50
Machine tenders, foremen	1.27	.62	.38	.70	.70
Bookbinders, foremen	.96	.58	.50	.63	.80
Laborers	.63	.30	.31	.50	.54
Food industry:					
Bakers, table hands	1.02	.36	.56	.81	1.00
Head bakers	1.06	.44	.63	.72	.75
Transportation:					
Streetcar motormen	.68	.64	----------	.63	.54
Streetcar conductors	.68	.64	----------	.63	.54
Bus drivers	.96	.55	.29	.50	.75
Bus conductors	.68	.50	.25	.38	.53
Truck drivers	.98	.55	.39	.50	.53
Electric-power distribution:					
Electrical fitters, foremen	.89	.67	.63	.59	.69
Laborers, unskilled	.64	.53	.44	.50	.53
Municipal services:					
Laborers	.88	.38	.44	.50	.45
Clothing—made-to-measure, factories:					
Tailor, "pompier," foremen	[2] .83	.85	[3] .56	.63	.75

[1] Data taken from Informaciones Argentinas, Buenos Aires, April 15–June 15, 1939 (pp. 156-157) and Revista de Economía Argentina, Buenos Aires, May 1939 (p. 150).

[2] 1937 figures for Buenos Aires. [3] Daily average divided by 6, the number of hours worked.

A comparison of wage rates in Buenos Aires, 1935 to 1938, shows that wages in transportation, for electrical fitters in the building industry, and for laborers in mechanical engineering and municipal services were the same in 1938 as in 1935; in electric-power distribution and for pattern makers in mechanical engineering wages were lower; and in all other occupational groups increases were shown, though in some instances very slight.

In order to use the 1937 wage rates for intercity comparisons, it is necessary to note certain changes from table 5 for Buenos Aires. In five occupations the wages shown for October 1938 are higher than those for the same month in 1937, as follows: Masons and bricklayers, 0.088 peso; painters, 0.065 peso; laborers in the building industry, 0.063 peso; and for bakers, table hands 0.16 peso and for head bakers 0.144 peso, respectively; and in three occupations, 1938 wages were lower than those for 1937, as follows: In electrical distribution, fitters 0.02 peso and unskilled laborers 0.006 peso; and in municipal services, unskilled laborers, 0.018 peso. All other rates were unchanged.

Taking the 1937 figures for the five cities, the highest hourly wage shown for any occupation was that for linotypists in, Buenos Aires, Salta, Santa Fé, and Tucumán (0.83 peso in Salta to 1.85 pesos in Buenos Aires), but for fitters in mechanical engineering in Córdoba (1.18 pesos); the lowest, for certain laborers in mechanical engineering in Buenos Aires, Córdoba, and Tucumán (0.24 peso in Córdoba to 0.44 peso in Tucumán), for bus conductors in Santa Fé (0.38 peso), and for certain laborers in mechanical engineering and bus conductors in Salta (0.25 peso).

EARNINGS IN BUENOS AIRES

The average monthly remuneration of employees, both salaried and wage earning, in industry in Buenos Aires in 1938 by industrial groups and by class of employees, is shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Average Monthly Earnings of Industrial Workers in Buenos Aires, 1938, by Industry Group and Class of Employees*

[Average exchange rate of peso, 1938=32.6 cents]

Industry group	Average, wage earners and salaried employees	Wage earners					
		Average	Foremen	Workmen	Laborers	Porters and janitors	Apprentices
	Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Average, all industries	124	109	229	110	107	129	48
Foodstuffs	129	113	218	112	111	122	61
Garment workers	102	93	224	95	98	111	41
Building trades	122	111	214	123	91	133	58
Electricity	212	155	274	166	130	151	53
Printing and paper	148	127	263	138	114	121	48
Lumber	118	113	208	116	93	110	48
Metals	128	118	249	122	102	136	53
Chemicals	134	108	214	105	114	119	48
Textiles	92	84	219	83	92	119	42
Grain elevators, petroleum refineries, etc.	164	148	209	155	124	143	60
Miscellaneous	112	101	213	101	97	123	42
Shops and industrial establishments of the Government, the municipality, etc.	175	156	217	175	149	152	56

TABLE 6.—*Average Monthly Earnings of Industrial Workers in Buenos Aires, 1938, by Industry Group and Class of Employees*—Continued

Industry group	Salaried employees					
	Average	Executives	Technicians, department heads, and specialists	Employees, assistants, and office boys	Salesmen and commission men	Part-time employees
	Pesos	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Average, all industries	240	812	393	186	290	76
Foodstuffs	244	805	423	183	278	76
Garment workers	184	778	316	153	265	79
Building trades	249	832	411	187	148	82
Electricity	276	1,096	423	228	----	----
Printing and paper	227	883	379	173	103	70
Lumber	193	630	304	171	221	70
Metals	243	723	389	199	448	78
Chemicals	252	799	448	188	355	69
Textiles	261	787	409	170	371	56
Grain elevators, petroleum refineries, etc.	275	726	525	193	----	----
Miscellaneous	221	774	383	125	----	75
Shops and industrial establishments of the Government, the municipality, etc.	278	821	317	234	----	----

For all workers the highest and lowest average monthly wages in any industry shown in table 6 were in electricity and textiles, 212 and 92 pesos, respectively. For both salaried employees and wage earners the highest monthly averages were in shops and industrial establishments of the Government, etc., 278 and 156 pesos, respectively; the lowest for salaried employees, 184 pesos for garment workers, and for wage earners, 84 pesos in textiles. Textiles, which showed the lowest average monthly earnings for all workers, reported the third highest average pay for salaried employees, 261 pesos, coming after shops and industrial establishments of the Government, etc., and electricity, with 278 and 276 pesos, respectively. In only two industries—garment workers and lumber—with 184 and 193 pesos, respectively, did monthly earnings of salaried employees fall below 200 pesos; and in only two instances (textiles, 84 pesos, and garment workers, 93 pesos) did the average pay for wage earners fall below 100 pesos per month. However, the highest average pay for wage earners (156 pesos in shops and industrial establishments of the Government, etc.) was still 28 pesos per month below the lowest average monthly salary of salaried employees (184 pesos in garment workers), though among wage earners foremen in all industries averaged more than 200 pesos per month.

Monthly and hourly rates of wages in 1938 for the food, woodworking, chemical, and metallurgical industries, are shown by occupation in table 7. Hourly rates, as of October 1937, for several occupations in the textile industry are also given. Wage earners in the food industry worked on an average 21.8 days, or a total of 169 hours, per

month; in the woodworking industry, 20.4 days, or 161 hours; in chemicals, 21.7 days, or 170 hours; in metallurgy, 21.4 days, or 168 hours.

TABLE 7.—*Average Monthly and Hourly Wages in Specified Industries in Buenos Aires, 1938, by Occupation* [1]

[Average exchange rate of peso, 1938=32.6 cents]

Occupation and sex	Average pay per—	
	Month	Hour
Food industry	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Bread mixers	173	1.02
Bakery assistants:		
Men	115	.68
Women	56	.33
Bakers	136	.80
Head bakers	178	1.05
Master bakers	172	1.02
Pastry bakers	191	1.13
Pastry makers	178	1.05
Bonbon makers	135	.80
Candy makers:		
Men	167	.99
Women	51	.30
Confectioners	116	.68
Butchers	134	.79
Sausage makers	115	.68
Casing workers	109	.64
Packers:		
Men	83	.49
Women	61	.36
Chocolate grinders	128	.76
Cigar makers:		
Men	149	.88
Women	82	.48
Tobacco band cutters and sorters	114	.67
Tobacco strippers:		
Men	54	.32
Women	59	.35
Tobacco-machine operators, women	85	.50
Bottle packers	125	.74
Chauffeurs	165	.97
Checkers	148	.87
Coffee roasters	161	.95
Labelers	63	.37
Mechanics	115	.68
Millers	192	1.13
Sorters, women	64	.38
Stevedores	129	.76
Textile industry [2]		
Spinners:		
Wool, foreman	------	.81
Cotton	------	.69
Weavers:		
Wool	------	.88
Cotton	------	.56
Warpers:		
Wool	------	.56
Cotton	------	.50
Laborers:		
Wool	------	.56
Cotton	------	.44
Woodworking industry		
Basket makers	102	.63
Box makers	114	.71
Broom makers	102	.63
Cabinetmakers	137	.85
Carpenters	134	.83
Casket makers (jewelry, silver, etc):		
Men	62	.39
Women	61	.38

Occupation and sex	Average pay per—	
	Month	Hour
Woodworking industry—Con.	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Chair makers	129	0.80
Chauffeurs	142	.88
Coopers	105	.65
Cork sorters:		
Men	151	.94
Women	82	.51
Cork workers:		
Men	123	.76
Women	46	.29
Facers	103	.64
Fillers	144	.89
Furniture makers	147	.91
Machinists:		
Men	144	.89
Women	64	.40
Markers	160	.99
Paint-brush makers	127	.79
Painters	120	.75
Planers	118	.73
Polishers:		
Men	137	.85
Women	69	.43
Sawyers	131	.81
Seamstresses	92	.57
Shipbuilders	133	.83
Small-luggage makers	130	.81
Tongue-and-groovers	158	.98
Turners	129	.90
Upholsterers:		
Men	148	.92
Women	102	.63
Veneerers	141	.88
Wicker workers	127	.79
Woodcarvers	149	.93
Chemical industry		
Chauffeurs	174	1.02
Distillers	129	.76
Dyers	167	.98
Explosive fillers, women	66	.39
Firemen	139	.82
Fleshers (tannery)	160	.94
Glass cutters	171	1.00
Glass polishers	115	.68
Glaziers	158	.93
Glue workers	154	.90
Glue-press operators	83	.49
Laboratory assistants	120	.70
Leather dressers	144	.85
Machinists	163	.96
Mechanics	175	1.03
Mirror bevelers	156	.92
Packers, women	65	.38
Patent-leather makers	147	.86
Perfumers:		
Men	139	.82
Women	90	.53
Preparers	136	.80
Silverers	154	.90
Soap makers	170	1.00
Soap makers' assistants	83	.49
Solderers	106	.62

[1] Data are from Informaciones Argentinas, issues of April 15–June 15, 1939 (p. 157), August 1939 (p. 43), October 1, 1939 (p. 35) and November 15, 1939 (pp. 58–59), and from C. G. T., June 9, 1939 (p. 4).

[2] Data are for October 1937.

TABLE 7.—*Average Monthly and Hourly Wages in Specified Industries in Buenos Aires, 1938, by Occupation*—Continued

Occupation and sex	Average pay per—	
	Month	Hour
Chemical industry—Continued		
Tallow chandlers:	*Pesos*	*Pesos*
Men	91	0.53
Women	49	.29
Trimmers	86	.50
Vulcanizers	177	1.04
Winchmen	127	.75
Metallurgy		
Drillers	96	.57
Fitters	155	.92
Shipbuilders:		
Men	138	.82
Women	54	.32
Assistants, women	45	.27
Bobbin makers	52	.31
Brass workers	129	.77
Boilermakers	141	.84
Radiator makers	197	1.17
Upholsterers	120	.71
Locksmiths	134	.80
Chauffeurs	171	1.01
Electricians	158	.94
Packers, women	53	.31
Metallurgy—Continued		
Jewelers, chain makers	325	1.93
Forgers	149	.88
Milling-machine operators	171	1.01
Founders	147	.87
Blacksmiths	138	.82
Tinsmiths:		
Men	137	.80
Women	46	.21
Jewelers	185	1.17
Rolling pressers, women	50	.30
Mechanics	162	.96
Installers, electricity, pipe, etc	142	.84
Painters	139	.82
Plumbers	165	.98
Polishers	142	.84
Clockmakers and watchmakers	162	.96
Riveters:		
Men	122	.72
Women	57	.34
Solderers:		
Men	129	.77
Women	48	.28
Turners	164	.97
Carriers	198	1.18
Threaders	123	.73

SOURCES.—This article is based on data from the following sources: Ministerio de Hacienda, Comisión Nacional de Censo Industrial, Censo Industrial de 1935, Buenos Aires, 1938; Ministerio de Agricultura, Dirección de Economía Rural y Estadística, Anuario Agropecuario, año 1935, Buenos Aires, 1935; (pp. 494–499) Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto, Dirección de Investigaciones, Archivo, y Propaganda, Informaciones Argentinas, Buenos Aires, April 15–June 15 (pp. 156-157), August (p. 43), October 1 (p. 35) and November 15, 1939 (pp. 58–59); Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, Boletin Informativo, Buenos Aires, September–October 1937 (pp. 5138–5142), and November–December 1937 (pp. 5183, 5204–5205); Boletin de la Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional, Buenos Aires, January–February 1939 (pp. 92–93); Boletin del Trabajo, Buenos Aires, June 1939 (pp. 27–29, 41–42); Revista de Economía Argentina, Buenos Aires, May 1939 (pp. 149–151) and August 1939 (pp. 247–249); C. G. T., Buenos Aires, August 6, 1937 (p. 1), September 2, 1938 (p. 4), June 9, 1939 (p. 4), June 16, 1939 (p. 2), and September 1, 1939 (p. 6); Argentina Fabril, Buenos Aires, October 1939 (pp. 11–12); Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Facultad de Ciencias Económicas, Comerciales, y Políticas, Trabajos de Seminario, Rosario, vol. IX, 1935 (pp. 232–234); Report of Robert E. Wilson, American vice consul at Buenos Aires, September 9, 1938; U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review Washington, November 1938 (pp. 1116–1117) and September 1939 (pp. 556–557); Bulletin of the Pan American Union, Washington, June 1938 (pp. 323–325); International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series, 1934, Argentina 3; International Labor Review, March 1939 (pp. 386, 397, 403); Industrial and Labor Information, June 5, 1939 (pp. 759–760), and July 31, 1939 (p. 163); International Transport Workers' Federation Press Report, Amsterdam, March 14, 1938 (pp. 41–42); Statesman's Yearbook, 1939, London (pp. 705-70).

WAGES OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS IN DENMARK 1939 [1]

INCREASES of 7 öre in average hourly wages of industrial workers in Denmark in the early part of 1939 are shown in the following table, which also gives similar data for different groups of workers in Copenhagen and in the Provinces. Increases of both skilled and unskilled male workers were almost double those of female workers.

[1] Statistiske Efterretninger, Copenhagen, State Statistical Department, November 13, 1939, p. 323.

Average Hourly Wages of Industrial Workers in Denmark, First Quarter of 1938 and 1939

[Average exchange rate of krone (100 öre), first quarter of 1938=22 cents; of 1939=21 cents]

Group of workers	Average hourly wages (in öre), first quarter of—					
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939
	Entire country		Copenhagen		Provinces	
All workers	137	144	145	152	129	136
Male workers	150	159	163	172	138	146
Skilled	164	172	178	187	148	155
Unskilled	137	146	146	155	129	138
Female workers	93	96	94	98	90	94

WAGES IN NETHERLANDS LEATHER AND RUBBER INDUSTRIES

Leather and Footwear Industries [1]

THE first collective agreement in the Netherlands tanning industry was arrived at, late in 1939, between the Roman Catholic Union of Factory Workers and about 40 companies which are members of the Roman Catholic Union of Leather Manufacturers. The labor union hopes to sign similar agreements with other leather producers, and as soon as 75 percent of the total number of manufacturers and 75 percent of the total number of workers are covered, the Government will be requested to make the agreement binding upon the whole Netherlands leather industry.

Wages in the footwear industry are governed by a collective agreement between the Federation of Netherlands Shoe Manufacturers and the three national unions of factory workers, and are identical with those shown below for the leather industry.

The agreement in the leather industry became effective on November 6, 1939, and expires on June 30, 1940. During this period, the parties agree not to declare any lock-outs or strikes, and the labor union promises not to start any action for higher wages. The agreement applies to all personnel except office employees, superintendents, and persons earning over 2,400 florins per annum. The employers bind themselves not to engage any female workers in their tanneries, and also to see that at least 50 percent of the workers shall be over 22 years of age. The labor conditions stipulated in the agreement also apply to unorganized workers.

[1] Data are from report of Harold D. Clum, American Consul General at Rotterdam.

WAGE RATES AND HOURS OF LABOR

The agreement provides for the following minimum hourly wage:

	Florins [1]
Workers 15–21 years of age	[2] 0. 10–0. 34
Workers 22–60 years of age:	
Class I	.45
Class II	.41
Class III	.43

[1] Average exchange rate of florin in November 1939=53.1cents
[2] According to age, rate increases 0.04 florin each year, up to 0.34 florin.

For piece work at least 10 percent above the regular minimum wage per hour must be paid.

The normal hours of labor are 48 per week and 2,500 hours per annum. The 2,500 hours may be distributed by the employer over the weeks of the year, but with the provision that overtime may be required only during 13 weeks per annum, and hours may not exceed 53 per week. After a period of overtime, a 40-hour week shall be worked for a period equal to the number of weeks of overtime, and earnings during such weeks shall amount to at least 40 times the minimum wage per hour.

Except when work is performed in two shifts, overtime must be paid for at the rate of time and a quarter for work performed between 6 and 7 a. m., and between 7 and 10 p. m.; and time and a half for work between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. For work on Sundays and official holidays double time is to be paid.

EXTRA ALLOWANCES

Employees having more than three children shall receive an allowance of 0.75 florin per week for each child under 14 years, beginning with the fourth child under 14 years. This provision applies to all workers, including superintendents, but not to office employees and those earning over 2,400 florin per annum.

In view of the increased cost of living caused by the war, the members of the Federation of Netherlands Shoe Manufacturers have agreed to give their personnel an extra allowance varying from 0.30 florin to 1.50 florins a week.

VACATIONS

At least 2 days' vacation with pay shall be granted to all employees who on June 1 had at least 1 year of service. Workers who on June 1 had at least 6 months of service shall be entitled to at least 1 day off with pay.

Rubber Industry

In the spring of 1939 the Dutch Union of General Factory Workers, Amsterdam, renewed its collective agreement with the most important Dutch rubber-manufacturing firm in the Netherlands. The agreement concluded deals with conditions of employment of the wage earners (about 1,000 in number) but not of the salaried employees.[2]

WAGE RATES

On the basis of a normal working week of 48 hours, the following minimum weekly wages for workers of 22 years and over are guaranteed:

	Florins [1]
Male workers:	
Wage class I	26. 23
Wage class II	23. 07
Wage class III	21. 00
Woman workers	11. 54

[1] Average exchange rate of florin in October 1939=53.1 cents.

In addition to the three wage classes for male workers, there are three "efficiency" classes—A, B, and C—in which the various categories of workers are classified in accordance with the length of their training, their skill, etc. Wage class I covers only the skilled class A metal workers. Wage class II covers the class B metal workers, stokers, switchboard attendants, and class B carpenters and painters. Wage class III includes class C metal workers, electricians, assistant stokers, weavers, twiners, class C carpenters and painters, yard laborers, and all workers employed in the following departments: Storehouse, leather and linen shoes, mixing mills, rubber regenerating, wire manufacturing, tires and inner tubes, soles and heels, and technical rubber goods.

During the first 4 weeks of their employment newly engaged workers are entitled to only 80 percent of the minimum wage of their wage class. The wages of skilled artisans, of reengaged workers, and of workers removed to another department are not subject to this 20 percent reduction.

Juvenile workers are to receive specified percentages of the regular minimum weekly wages referred to; these range from 21¼ percent for boys and 37¾ percent for girls, at age 14, to 81½ and 95 percent, respectively, at age 21.

The wages of apprentices during the first 2 years of their apprenticeship are left to the discretion of the employer. From the third year of their employment until their 22d year of age, they are entitled to 80 percent of the weekly wage set for wage class III.

[2] Bulletin of International Federation of General Factory Workers (Amsterdam), September 1939.

Overtime is to be paid for at the rate of time and a quarter, but any overtime hours worked are to be made up by short time in such a way that the average weekly working hours do not exceed 48 in any 3-week period. In transport and repair work no extra rate is to be paid for the first hour of overtime. Double time is to be paid for work between midnight on Saturday and 6 a. m. Monday, and for work on the general religious and public holidays.

HOLIDAYS AND VACATIONS

As a rule the workers are free on public holidays, namely, January first, Easter Monday, Ascension day, Whit Monday, and Christmas (two days if both Christmas Day and Boxing Day are on weekdays). For these days they receive pay equivalent to their average daily earnings during the last 4 weeks. If January first, Christmas Day, or Boxing Day fall on Saturday, wages are paid for only the usual number of hours worked on that day; if these days fall on Sunday, no wages are paid.

On the occasion of important events in his family, the worker is also entitled to a whole or half day off, provided he has applied for it in a regular manner. A whole day off is granted on the occasion of his marriage, the confinement of his wife, and the death of his father or mother or of a child. At the death and the funeral of his wife he is entitled to one day off on each occasion. A half day off is granted for the funeral of the worker's father, mother, father-in-law or mother-in-law, a child, or a brother or sister. If the deceased brother or sister lived in the same house as the worker himself, he is also entitled to a half day off at their death.

Each worker is entitled to a paid summer vacation, to be calculated on the basis of 3¼ hours per month of employment, the maximum being 4½ days per year.

DISCHARGES AND LAY-OFFS

If the employer wishes to discharge a worker, or if a worker wishes to quit voluntarily, a week's notice is to be given, on Saturday.

In case discharges or temporary lay-offs are necessary, seniority and the special training or skill of the workers affected are to be taken into account wherever possible. Hiring or rehiring of workers shall be governed by the same consideration.

DISPUTES

In case of any dispute on the interpretation of this agreement, the parties are to endeavor to reach an amicable settlement. If they fail to reach such a settlement, either of the parties may demand, by registered letter, and within 4 weeks after the difference of opinion has

arisen, the appointment of a court of arbitration. If either party fails to designate its representative to the court within the next fortnight, that party shall be considered as having lost the case. The court of arbitration is to consist of one representative each from each party; these representatives are to elect a third member, who will act as chairman. Its award must be made within 4 weeks, and is to have retroactive effect from the day on which the difference of opinion arose.

The agreement provides for the creation of an industrial relations committee, the members of the executive board of which are to be appointed by the trade-unions. One day each month the committee is to have the use of a room in the plant where it can hear the wishes and complaints of the workers. Representatives of the employers are to meet with the industrial relations committee at least every 3 months, to discuss workers' grievances, and if possible, to adjust them.

WAGE ADJUSTMENTS BASED ON COST OF LIVING, IN SCANDINAVIA[1]

AS LIVING costs have mounted as the result of war conditions, labor organizations in the Scandinavian countries have increasingly favored sliding-scale arrangements based upon indexes of cost of living.

Denmark

The Danish labor unions and the employers' association reached an agreement on November 13, 1939, which provided for revisions in wages on the basis of fluctuations in the cost of living. The agreement affected about 310,000 workers, out of a total of 486,000 Danish trade-unionists.

Nearly all of the 1938 agreements contained the provision that if the fluctuation in the cost-of-living index exceeded 6 percent, either party to the agreement could give notice of cancelation, to take effect at the end of 1 year. By August 1939, the cost-of-living index had begun to fluctuate violently, but with a strong upward tendency, exceeding the 6-percent limit.

Workers and employers therefore recognized the desirability of an understanding, as to adjustment of wages, which would prevent cancelation of agreements and protracted disputes in 1940. Tentative provisions, which were drawn up by delegates appointed by the two parties, were accepted on November 13 by a large majority vote of

[1] Data are from report of Erland Gjessing, American vice consul at Copenhagen; Florence Harriman, American Minister at Oslo; and F. A. Sterling, American Minister at Stockholm.

both employers and workers. By this vote the existing agreements were renewed until March 1, 1941, on the following conditions:

On the basis of the cost-of-living index for October, as published by the Danish Statistical Department, an adjustment is to be made in time-work wages by the hour, day, week, and month and in piece-work rates in such a manner that, for every point that the price index rises or falls from the October level, the rate per hour will be adjusted upward or downward at the rate of 0.85 öre [2] for male workers, 0.55 öre for female workers, and 0.35 öre for workers over 18 and under 20 years of age. Similar adjustments will be made on the basis of the cost-of-living index for January, April, July, and October 1940, and for January 1941, but only if the index is more than 3 points above or below the index on the basis of which the preceding wage adjustment was made. The first wage adjustment was to be effective from the beginning of the working week during which this agreement went into force.

To carry out the provisions of the agreement a committee of seven was established, composed of the president of the board of arbitration (chairman), three members representing the employers' association, and three representing the labor unions. The parties to the agreement were authorized to refer to this committee, within 2 weeks, all questions (except wage rates) regarding changes in the general provisions of the agreement, which either party wished to have changed as a consequence of altered conditions. All matters in dispute were to be settled before December 20, 1939.

Norway

In an Extraordinary Council of State on November 13, 1939, it was decided to prohibit a strike (scheduled for that day), in the transportation industry, and to resort to compulsory arbitration for the settlement of the dispute. The workers had asked for compensation for the rise in the cost of living since the outbreak of the war. They were supported in this action by the Norwegian Federation of Labor which on November 6 demanded of the Norwegian Employers' Association the opening of immediate negotiations. The Federation of Labor was of the opinion that the actual rise in prices for essential commodities was greater than that indicated in the official index for the cost of living as of October 15; this showed a rise of 1.73 percent since September 15 in the cost of living, and of 2.3 percent in the food index. Mediation by the national mediator being unsuccessful, the Government intervened because the stoppage of work by the 8,000 men engaged in the transportation industry might seriously cripple Norwegian economic life.

[2] Exchange rate of krone (100 öre) in October 1939=19.3 cents.

Sweden

The Swedish Federation of Labor Unions held a special meeting on November 29, 1939, at which the employment situation was discussed and a course of action for impending negotiations for new wage agreements was decided upon. Because of the uncertain price situation most of the labor organizations agreed on a provisional prolongation of the existing wage agreements. However, agreements involving some 300,000 workers had been or were about to be canceled for revision, and it was decided that these workers should insist upon a sliding wage scale based upon the cost-of-living index.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, NOVEMBER 1939

DESPITE a moderate rise in separations and a marked decline in accessions, the hiring rate in manufacturing industries remained above the separation rate in November. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' monthly survey of labor turn-over, the accession rate fell from 5.89 per 100 employees in October to 4.10 in November. At the same time, the separation rate rose from 2.91 to 2.95 per 100 employees. The industries primarily responsible for the decline in the accession rate were automobiles and bodies, which decreased from 9.93 to 2.56; brick, tile, and terra cotta, from 8.10 to 3.95; and iron and steel, from 8.20 to 4.00.

The quit rate decreased from 0.93 to 0.83 and the discharge rate from 0.17 to 0.15. Although the lay-off rate rose from 1.81 to 1.97, only a few industries showed any pronounced increase in the lay-offs reported. The industries showing the largest increases in the number of lay-offs were radios and phonographs, from 0.80 to 3.54; woolen and worsted goods, from 2.13 to 5.12; furniture, from 0.98 to 2.40; and silk and rayon goods, from 1.85 to 3.51.

The net increase of accessions over separations in all manufacturing in November was 1.15, as compared with 1.10 in the corresponding month in 1938. Marked changes were indicated in foundries and machine shops, with a net gain of 3.69 in November as against 0.53 a year ago; and machine tools, with 4.98 as compared with 0.80 in November 1938.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers approximately 5,500 representative manufacturing establishments, which in November employed more than 2,550,000 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 30 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 total separation rate classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1938 and the first 11 months in 1939 for manufacturing as a whole. The average of the monthly rates for 1938 are also presented.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 144 Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1939	0.85	0.64	0.82	0.76	0.68	0.73	0.70	0.82	1.07	0.93	0.83	------	------
1938	.52	.49	.61	.59	.62	.61	.59	.65	.82	.78	.60	0.58	0.62
Discharges:													
1939	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	------	------
1938	.11	.11	.11	.10	.13	.11	.09	.10	.12	.12	.10	.09	.11
Lay-offs: [2]													
1939	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	------	------
1938	5.45	3.79	3.74	3.85	3.82	3.69	3.13	2.33	2.62	2.40	2.44	3.21	3.37
Total:													
1939	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	------	------
1938	6.08	4.39	4.46	4.54	4.57	4.41	3.81	3.08	3.56	3.30	3.14	3.88	4.10
Accessions:													
1939	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	------	------
1938	3.78	3.13	3.13	2.58	2.84	3.44	4.81	5.29	4.51	5.19	4.24	3.22	3.85

[1] The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.
[2] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Analysis by Industries

In addition to the information for manufacturing as a whole, detailed labor turn-over data are available for 30 separate manufacturing industries. The rates are compiled from reports received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry, based on the Census of Manufactures, 1937.

A smaller percentage of voluntary separations were reported in November than in the preceding month in 23 industries. Outstanding decreases in the quit rates occurred in the brick, tile, and terra cotta industry, from 1.13 in October to 0.89 in November; cigars and cigarettes, from 1.71 to 0.99; and knit goods, from 1.25 to 0.80. Plants manufacturing hardware reported an increase from 0.89 to 1.46 per 100 employees.

The discharge rates for November ranged from a low of 0.04 per 100 employees in automobiles and bodies to a high of 0.53 in newspaper printing establishments.

Higher lay-off rates prevailed in 22 of the 30 industries. Marked increases occurred in the furniture industry from 0.98 in October to 2.40 in November; radios and phonographs, from 0.80 to 3.54; sawmills, from 1.93 to 3.57; silk and rayon goods, from 1.85 to 3.51; and woolen and worsted goods, from 2.13 to 5.12 per 100 employees. A marked decrease in the lay-off rate was shown in the men's clothing industry, from 6.47 in October to 4.79 in November.

The total separation rates followed in the same general direction as the lay-off rates. Sharp increases in the percentage of workers separated from the pay roll occurred in the furniture industry, from 2.15 in October to 3.43 in November; hardware, from 1.85 to 3.11; paints and varnishes, from 1.78 to 2.79; radios and phonographs, from 3.36 to 5.58; and woolen and worsted goods, from 3.42 to 6.54. The total separation rate in the men's clothing industry declined from 7.37 to 5.47.

Pronounced increases in the accession rates were reported in the boot and shoe industry, from 1.60 in October to 2.27 per 100 employees in November; men's clothing, from 2.64 to 4.89; book and job printing, from 3.89 to 5.56; and newspapers, from 1.76 to 2.26. Outstanding decreases in the hiring rate occurred in the automobiles and bodies industry, from 9.93 to 2.56; the brick industry, from 8.10 to 3.95; cigars and cigarettes, from 4.66 to 1.88; hardware, from 8.47 to 4.74; iron and steel, from 8.20 to 4.00; paints and varnishes, from 4.58 to 1.75; radios and phonographs, from 7.74 to 4.20; rubber tires, from 4.58 to 1.81; and sawmills, from 6.39 to 3.46 per 100 employees.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 30 Manufacturing Industries*

Class of rates	November 1939	October 1939	November 1938	November 1939	October 1939	November 1938	November 1939	October 1939	November 1938
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	[1] 0.56	0.67	0.49	0.86	0.99	0.57	0.61	0.70	0.59
Discharge	[1] .04	.15	.08	.25	.23	.11	.08	.08	.10
Lay-off	[1] .71	1.38	1.89	7.46	6.75	2.35	3.22	2.79	4.79
Total separation	[1] 1.31	2.20	2.46	8.57	7.97	3.03	3.91	3.57	5.48
Accession	[1] 2.56	9.93	8.29	7.36	9.56	9.97	2.27	1.60	2.23
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cement			Cigars and cigarettes		
Quit	0.89	1.13	0.53	0.34	0.56	0.64	0.99	1.71	0.89
Discharge	.10	.18	.10	.12	.06	.04	.10	.20	.10
Lay-off	3.84	2.65	4.65	2.41	1.59	6.46	1.39	.78	4.08
Total separation	4.83	3.96	5.28	2.87	2.21	7.14	2.48	2.69	5.07
Accession	3.95	8.10	4.92	1.45	1.52	.66	1.88	4.66	2.29
	Cotton manufacturing			Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops		
Quit	1.65	1.56	1.01	0.77	0.74	0.47	0.69	0.71	1.87
Discharge	.23	.22	.21	.08	.13	.07	.15	.15	.05
Lay-off	1.57	1.08	1.38	.52	.98	.98	.85	1.09	1.67
Total separation	3.45	2.86	2.60	1.37	1.85	1.52	1.69	1.95	3.59
Accession	3.76	5.66	4.08	4.36	7.29	3.45	5.38	7.85	4.12
	Furniture			Glass			Hardware		
Quit	0.84	0.94	0.65	0.41	0.46	0.32	1.46	0.89	0.48
Discharge	.19	.23	.19	.06	.08	.12	.20	.40	.09
Lay-off	2.40	.98	3.56	1.52	.66	.94	1.45	.56	.65
Total separation	3.43	2.15	4.40	1.99	1.20	1.38	3.11	1.85	1.22
Accession	3.22	5.65	4.87	3.40	5.88	3.49	4.74	8.47	3.51

[1] Preliminary.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 30 Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Class of rates	November 1939	October 1939	November 1938	November 1939	October 1939	November 1938	November 1939	October 1939	November 1938
	Iron and steel			Knit goods			Machine tools		
Quit	0.49	0.57	0.43	0.80	1.25	0.67	1.26	1.38	0.38
Discharge	.09	.09	.03	.13	.19	.10	.28	.14	.02
Lay-off	.42	.23	.79	.93	.69	1.38	.38	.32	.68
Total separation	1.00	.89	1.25	1.86	2.13	2.15	1.92	1.84	1.08
Accession	4.00	8.20	4.42	2.18	3.60	2.27	6.90	7.92	1.88
	Men's clothing			Paints and varnishes			Paper and pulp		
Quit	0.61	0.80	0.64	0.91	0.98	0.31	0.72	0.75	0.41
Discharge	.07	.10	.05	.24	.17	.08	.14	.13	.09
Lay-off	4.79	6.47	6.47	1.64	.63	1.74	1.18	.65	.71
Total separation	5.47	7.37	7.16	2.79	1.78	2.13	2.04	1.53	1.21
Accession	4.89	2.64	3.92	1.75	4.58	1.30	2.21	4.87	2.03
	Petroleum refining			Printing and publishing					
				Book and job			Newspapers		
Quit	0.28	0.35	0.23	0.54	0.64	0.35	0.31	0.20	0.24
Discharge	.05	.04	.01	.14	.13	.08	.53	.20	.01
Lay-off	2.00	1.79	1.97	2.64	2.66	2.61	1.57	1.81	.94
Total separation	2.33	2.18	2.21	3.32	3.43	3.04	2.41	2.21	1.19
Accession	2.41	2.24	1.01	5.56	3.89	4.45	2.26	1.76	2.08
	Radios and phonographs			Rayon and allied products			Rubber boots and shoes		
Quit	1.77	2.27	1.29	0.60	0.72	0.56	0.86	0.84	0.87
Discharge	.27	.29	.20	.10	.15	.11	.10	.07	.06
Lay-off	3.54	.80	1.72	.92	.54	1.21	1.32	1.35	.53
Total separation	5.58	3.36	3.21	1.62	1.41	1.88	2.28	2.26	1.46
Accession	4.20	7.74	11.23	1.95	3.65	1.25	3.80	5.67	2.05
	Rubber tires			Sawmills			Silk and rayon goods		
Quit	0.45	0.53	0.45	1.06	1.37	0.91	1.00	1.24	1.19
Discharge	.07	.06	.06	.18	.26	.18	.07	.11	.07
Lay-off	.80	.54	.56	3.57	1.93	5.34	3.51	1.85	2.59
Total separation	1.32	1.13	1.07	4.81	3.56	6.43	4.58	3.20	3.85
Accession	1.81	4.58	3.23	3.46	6.39	3.95	3.45	4.87	4.61
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Steam and hot-water heating apparatus			Woolen and worsted goods		
Quit	0.66	0.64	0.61	0.84	0.98	0.42	1.32	1.17	0.84
Discharge	.12	.15	.17	.17	.18	.09	.10	.12	.06
Lay-off	5.50	6.46	5.93	1.52	.49	1.62	5.12	2.13	3.71
Total separation	6.28	7.25	6.71	2.53	1.65	2.13	6.54	3.42	4.61
Accession	10.19	9.44	11.11	3.22	6.03	.98	5.35	7.92	8.63

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, DECEMBER 1939 [1]

THE volume of all types of building construction for which permits were issued in December fell off seasonally by 13.5 percent from November. Decreases were reported in all city-size groups except the one containing cities with a population of 25,000 and under 50,000. New residential construction was 11.1 percent less than in November and nonresidential construction decreased 17.4 percent. Additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures declined 17.2 percent.

Over the year period all types of building construction increased 2.1 percent. New residential construction, with sizable gains in all city-size groups, was 50.0 percent higher in December than in the same month a year ago. On the other hand, new nonresidential construction dropped 41.3 percent from December 1938, and additions, alterations, and repairs decreased 14.0 percent.

Comparison of December 1939 with November 1939 and December 1938

A summary of building construction in 2,005 identical cities in December 1939, November 1939, and December 1938 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,005 Identical Cities, December 1939*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	December 1939	Percentage change from—		December 1939	Percentage change from—	
		November 1939	December 1938		November 1939	December 1938
All construction	42,584	−27.4	+13.1	$148,992,530	−13.5	+2.1
New residential	14,275	−14.6	+30.1	94,174,088	−11.1	+50.0
New nonresidential	7,742	−33.2	+12.5	35,924,769	−17.4	−41.3
Additions, alteration, and repairs	20,567	−32.1	+3.8	18,893,673	−17.2	−14.0

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, December 1939," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 2,005 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for December 1939 compared with November 1939 and December 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,005 Identical Cities, December 1939*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	December 1939	Percentage change from—		December 1939	Percentage change from—	
		November 1939	December 1938		November 1939	December 1938
All types	$93,344,079	−11.2	+49.6	26,995	−9.0	+61.0
1-family	50,307,886	−17.1	+23.0	12,473	−18.0	+22.1
2-family [1]	2,245,202	−20.9	+13.2	890	−24.4	+12.1
Multifamily [2]	40,790,991	−1.8	+108.9	13,632	+2.7	+136.7

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During Calendar Years 1938 and 1939

Cumulative totals for the calendar year 1939 compared with 1938 are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction in Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, 1938 and 1939*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction in—		Percentage change
	1939	1938	
All construction	$2,071,627,892	$1,728,790,814	+19.8
New residential	1,150,617,537	856,244,864	+34.4
New nonresidential	586,727,933	557,622,137	+5.2
Additions, alterations, and repairs	334,282,422	314,923,813	+6.1

Table 4 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided, in cities with a population of 1,000 and over, for the calendar years 1938 and 1939.

TABLE 4.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, 1938 and 1939, by Type of Dwelling*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation		Percentage change	Number of families provided for		Percentage change
	1939	1938		1939	1938	
All types	$1,135,658,590	$848,431,768	+33.9	313,149	232,725	+34.6
1-family	718,616,448	566,645,747	+26.8	181,343	142,781	+27.0
2-family [1]	34,582,469	32,516,359	+6.4	13,310	12,438	+7.0
Multifamily [2]	382,459,673	249,269,662	+53.4	118,496	77,506	+52.9

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, December 1939

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in December 1939 compared with November 1939 and December 1938, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction in 2,005 Identical Cities, by Size of City, December 1939*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, December 1939	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, December 1939	Percentage change from—	
			November 1939	December 1938		November 1939	December 1938
All reporting cities	2,005	$148,992,530	−13.5	+2.1	$94,174,088	−11.1	+50.0
500,000 and over	14	46,630,069	−20.8	+.2	33,699,137	−8.3	+11.0
100,000 and under 500,000	79	35,731,198	−19.6	+33.7	21,474,179	−22.1	+124.2
50,000 and under 100,000	93	14,719,737	−.5	+8.9	9,643,450	+17.5	+138.1
25,000 and under 50,000	158	20,956,785	+39.1	+1.3	9,669,403	+19.5	+121.0
10,000 and under 25,000	422	16,773,211	−25.0	−18.4	10,158,115	−23.5	+25.8
5,000 and under 10,000	363	7,033,276	−23.2	−31.7	4.659,324	−29.1	+44.2
2,500 and under 5,000	440	5,030,662	−.2	−8.2	3,408,862	−12.1	+56.7
1,000 and under 2,500	436	2,117,592	−16.1	−.7	1,461,618	−7.4	+56.6

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, December 1939	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, December 1939	Percentage change from—		
		November 1939	December 1938		November 1939	December 1938	
All reporting cities	$35,924,769	−17.4	−41.3	$18,893,673	−17.2	−14.0	59,494,718
500,000 and over	6,025,623	−58.0	−35.3	6,905,309	−11.3	+1.0	21,449,853
100,000 and under 500,000	9,080,514	−21.1	−23.7	5,176,505	−3.3	−1.2	15,017,880
50,000 and under 100,000	3,436,661	−19.0	−53.2	1,639,626	−29.9	−22.5	6,198,392
25,000 and under 50,000	9,247,540	+112.8	−31.4	2,039,842	−22.4	−27.6	5,549,558
10,000 and under 25,000	4,949,488	−19.6	−48.2	1,665,608	−43.1	−43.1	6,469,249
5,000 and under 10,000	1,538,043	−5.0	−73.6	835,909	−13.0	−32.9	2,547,272
2,500 and under 5,000	1,129.608	+87.6	−60.8	492,192	−12.2	+16.6	1,572,361
1,000 and under 2,500	517,292	−24.9	−38.3	138,682	−45.9	−61.6	690,153

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,005 identical cities reporting for November and December 1939, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,005 Identical Cities, by Size of City, November and December 1939*

Size of city	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
				All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
	December 1939	November 1939	Percentage change	December 1939	November 1939	December 1939	November 1939	December 1939	November 1939	December 1939	November 1939
Total, all reporting cities	$93,344,079	$105,066,155	−11.2	26,995	29,654	12,473	15,202	890	1,178	13,632	13,274
500,000 and over	33,653,137	36,410,494	−7.6	9,785	10,177	3,050	3,289	262	236	6,473	6,652
100,000 and under 500,000	20,846,749	27,414,084	−24.0	6,184	8,066	2,703	3,281	247	318	3,234	4,467
50,000 and under 100,000	9,643,450	8,002,337	+20.5	2,783	2,228	1,180	1,489	117	156	1,486	583
25,000 and under 50,000	9,553,524	8,092,514	+18.1	2,954	2,313	1,316	1,751	101	166	1,537	396
10,000 and under 25,000	10,136,415	13,244,947	−23.5	2,775	3,682	2,084	2,621	85	184	606	877
5,000 and under 10,000	4,641,324	6,500,268	−28.6	1,222	1,752	1,081	1,437	47	78	94	237
2,500 and under 5,000	3,407,862	3,822,656	−10.9	936	995	719	910	25	26	192	59
1,000 and under 2,500	1,461,618	1,578,855	−7.4	356	441	340	424	6	14	10	3

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,005 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations 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. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For December 1939 the value of these buildings amounted to $35,-

069,000, for November 1939 to $33,325,000, and for December 1938 to $6,741,000.

Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during December 1939, November 1939, and December 1938 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, December 1939* [1]

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started in—		
	December 1939	November 1939 [2]	December 1938 [2]
Total	$85,480,763	$109,841,521	$512,434,561
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	91,988	189,635	24,225,382
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	0	838,446	1,869,612
E. R. A. A.	1,416,160	766,969	3,967,193
P. W. A. A., 1938	8,983,189	23,601,742	203,865,955
Federal Agency projects from W. P. A. funds	21,187	493,467	8,339,572
Regular Federal appropriations	38,360,315	70,320,820	260,663,185
U. S. Housing Authority	36,607,924	13,630,442	9,503,662

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for December 1939, November 1939, and December 1938 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	*Highway construction*
December 1939	$542,875	$4,933,278
November 1939	1,425,561	8,508,890
December 1938	205,283	4,051,786

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Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN DECEMBER 1939

THE retail cost of food was 1.3 percent lower in December than in November, due in large part to continued reductions in the cost of meats, lard, and sugar, and a substantial decline in prices of eggs.

The December index for all foods was 76.9 percent of the 1923–25 average as compared with 77.9 for November. Lower prices were reported for 24 food items, higher prices for 20, and 17 showed no change. Food costs were 2.2 percent lower than in December 1938 when the index was 78.6.

Details by Commodity Groups

The index for cereals and bakery products showed little change between November and December although minor increases were reported for a few widely scattered cities. The price of flour continued to advance, showing an increase of 1.2 percent over the previous month and 9.4 percent over a year ago, while the cost of white bread remained unchanged for the month and was 2.7 percent lower than a year ago. Corn meal rose 2.2 percent and soda crackers 0.6 percent. Rice declined 1.2 percent and all other items in the group remained unchanged.

Meat costs declined 2.6 percent. Decreases averaged 1.5 percent for the beef and veal items, 7.2 percent for pork, 2.0 percent for lamb, and 1.7 percent for roasting chickens. The average price for pork chops was 4.5 cents lower than in December 1938; sliced bacon, 6.5 cents lower; and salt pork, 3.9 cents lower. Pink salmon rose 0.7 percent during the month continuing the new high level noted a month ago.

Dairy products increased by 1.0 percent. Average prices of fresh milk increased ½ cent to 1 cent per quart in nine cities. Seasonal advances for cheese and butter amounted to 1.2 percent and 0.8 percent, respectively.

Egg costs were 12.6 percent lower than in November and 19.4 percent lower than in December 1938, showing considerably more than the usual seasonal decline.

The cost of fruits and vegetables advanced 1.0 percent as a result of increases for most of the fresh items. The average price of potatoes rose 3.2 percent and was 10.8 percent above the year-ago level. Apples advanced 5.0 percent but were still 18.6 percent lower than last December. An increase of 16.7 percent for cabbage and a decline of 8.7 percent for oranges were largely seasonal. Lettuce decreased 23.2 percent.

Beverages showed no change for the third consecutive month.

The index for fats and oils declined 2.3 percent. The average price of lard was 10.4 cents per pound, a reduction of 4.6 percent from November and 11.5 percent from December a year ago. The average price of oleomargarine declined 3.0 percent and shortening other than lard, in cartons, decreased slightly.

Sugar prices showed a further decline of 4.3 percent with lower prices reported from all but 1 of the 51 cities. The average price of sugar for December was 5.6 cents per pound, compared with 5.2 cents in August.

Indexes of retail food costs for December and November 1939 and December 1938, 1932, and 1929 are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows the trend in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 through December 1939.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups, December and November 1939 and December 1938, 1932, and 1929*

[1923-25=100]

Commodity group	1939		Dec. 13, 1938	Dec. 15, 1932	Dec. 15, 1929
	Dec. 12 [1]	Nov. 14			
All foods	76.9	77.9	78.6	64.7	105.7
Cereals and bakery products	85.9	85.8	86.5	71.1	97.8
Meats	89.6	92.0	92.7	66.8	117.6
Dairy products	81.2	80.4	79.1	65.7	100.5
Eggs	68.1	77.9	84.5	80.6	128.7
Fruits and vegetables	58.3	57.7	59.6	51.8	103.7
Fresh	56.4	55.7	58.2	50.7	104.1
Canned	75.5	75.4	74.5	66.8	94.6
Dried	63.3	63.2	57.3	49.5	106.9
Beverages	65.5	65.5	66.3	72.8	105.3
Fats and oils	62.5	64.0	65.8	49.0	90.7
Sugar	67.5	70.5	62.6	58.5	75.1

[1] Preliminary.

Average prices of each of 61 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for December and November 1939 and December 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 61 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *December and November 1939 and December 1938*

Articles		1939		Dec. 13, 1938
		Dec. 12 [2]	Nov. 14	
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	42.9	42.4	36.7
Macaroni	pound	14.4	14.4	14.6
Wheat cereal [3]	28 oz. pkg.	23.8	23.8	24.4
Corn flakes	8 oz. pkg.	7.0	7.0	7.3
Corn meal	pound	4.6	4.5	4.6
Rice [3]	do	8.0	8.1	7.6
Rolled oats [3]	do	7.1	7.1	7.1
Bakery products:				
Bread, white	do	7.9	7.9	8.2
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.1	9.1	9.3
Bread, rye	do	9.2	9.2	9.5
Soda crackers	do	15.5	15.4	15.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 61 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *December and November 1939 and December 1938*—Continued

Articles		1939		Dec. 13, 1938
		Dec. 12	Nov. 14	
Meats:				
Beef:				
Round steak	do	34.6	35.1	35.1
Rib roast	do	28.8	29.1	29.9
Chuck roast	do	22.9	23.2	23.4
Veal:				
Cutlets	do	41.1	42.2	42.7
Pork:				
Chops	do	24.9	28.3	29.4
Bacon, sliced	do	28.8	30.4	35.3
Ham, sliced	do	43.8	45.6	47.0
Ham, whole	do	25.3	26.2	28.2
Salt pork	do	16.2	16.8	20.1
Lamb:				
Leg	do	25.7	26.5	27.4
Rib chops	do	33.4	33.5	35.0
Poultry:				
Roasting chickens	do	27.3	27.7	29.8
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16 oz. can	14.8	14.7	12.5
Salmon, red [3]	do	25.1	25.1	23.5
Dairy products:				
Butter	pound	35.9	35.6	35.6
Cheese	do	25.9	25.6	25.1
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	13.0	12.8	12.6
Milk, fresh (store)	do	11.9	11.8	11.5
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [3]	do	12.6	12.5	12.3
Milk, evaporated	14½ oz. can	7.0	7.0	6.9
Eggs	dozen	34.7	39.6	43.2
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	4.2	4.0	5.2
Bananas	do	6.4	6.3	6.2
Oranges	dozen	26.3	28.8	26.0
Beans, green	pound	12.7	11.7	10.4
Cabbage	do	3.5	3.0	3.0
Carrots	bunch	5.6	5.5	6.2
Lettuce	head	7.6	9.9	9.2
Onions	pound	3.2	3.1	3.9
Potatoes	15 pounds	36.0	34.9	32.4
Spinach	pound	6.3	5.9	6.7
Sweetpotatoes	do	3.4	3.2	3.7
Canned:				
Peaches	No. 2½ can	16.9	16.9	17.0
Pineapple	do	21.2	21.2	21.4
Beans, green [3]	No. 2 can	10.0	10.0	10.6
Corn [4]	do	10.5	10.5	11.0
Peas	do	14.0	13.9	14.2
Tomatoes	do	8.6	8.6	8.6
Dried:				
Prunes	pound	9.5	9.3	9.2
Navy beans	do	6.8	6.9	6.0
Beverages:				
Coffee	do	22.1	22.2	22.8
Tea	¼ pound	17.5	17.5	17.8
Cocoa [3]	8 oz. can	9.0	8.9	8.5
Fats and oils:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Lard	pound	10.4	10.9	11.9
Shortening, other than lard:				
In cartons	do	12.1	12.3	13.2
In other containers	do	20.0	19.9	20.5
Mayonnaise	½ pint	16.5	16.6	17.3
Oleomargarine	pound	16.0	16.5	16.8
Peanut butter	do	17.9	17.9	18.3
Sugar and sweets:				
Sugar	10 pounds	55.7	58.2	51.7
Corn sirup [3]	24 oz. can	13.4	13.5	13.8
Molasses [3]	18 oz. can	13.4	13.4	13.6

[1] Since September 1939 supermarket prices have been substituted for those of certain service stores.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Not included in indexes.
[4] Since April 1939 prices of canned corn have been based upon quotations of cream style only and are not strictly comparable with prices for earlier months, which included both cream style and whole-kernel corn

Details by Regions and Cities

The average decline of 1.3 percent in the cost of food between November and December resulted from lower costs in 47 cities, higher costs in 2 cities, and no change in 2 cities. Cities showing decreases of 2 percent or more were found in each regional area. The greatest decline, 3.0 percent, was shown for Boston, where decreases for meat, eggs, fats and oils, and sugar were offset to a less extent by smaller increases for dairy products and fruits and vegetables than in other cities. Minor increases in food costs in Philadelphia and Rochester were caused by greater than average advances for fresh fruits and vegetables.

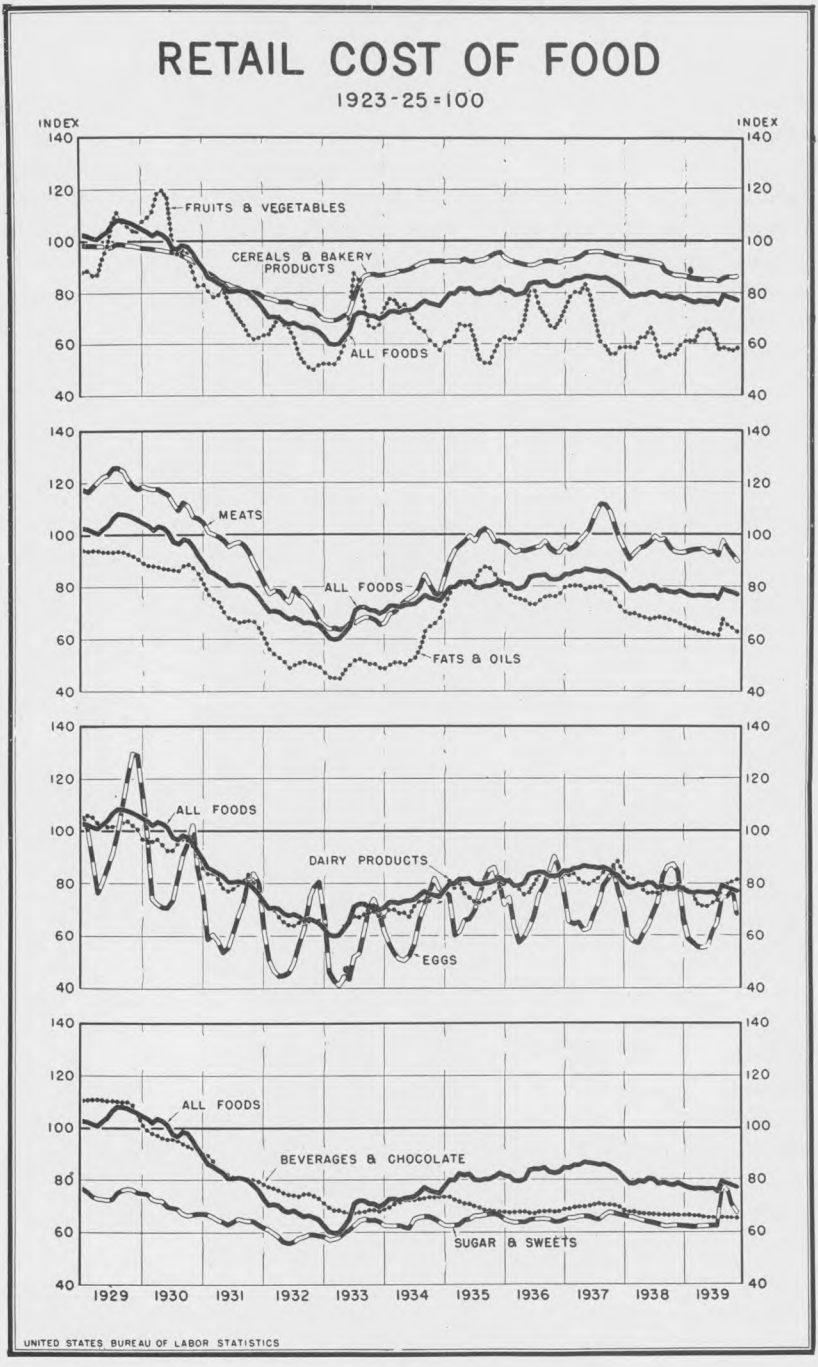
Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for December and November 1939 and December 1938.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities, December and November 1939 and December 1938*

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1939		Dec. 13, 1938	Region and city	1939		Dec. 13, 1938
	Dec. 12 [1]	Nov. 14			Dec. 12 [1]	Nov. 14	
United States	76.9	77.9	78.6	South Atlantic:			
New England:				Atlanta	70.2	71.9	73.1
Boston	72.0	74.2	74.5	Baltimore	80.8	81.8	83.1
Bridgeport	78.9	80.4	81.1	Charleston, S. C	78.6	79.0	79.9
Fall River	77.7	78.4	79.8	Jacksonville	76.7	77.4	76.5
Manchester	77.7	79.1	80.0	Norfolk	75.3	75.5	75.5
New Haven	77.8	79.3	80.7	Richmond	69.1	70.0	71.4
Portland, Maine	75.3	76.7	76.8	Savannah	77.4	78.6	77.8
Providence	73.3	75.2	75.4	Washington, D. C	78.0	79.0	80.2
Middle Atlantic:				East South Central:			
Buffalo	74.9	76.7	78.7	Birmingham	65.7	66.3	67.5
Newark	80.8	81.6	82.0	Louisville	80.6	81.7	81.8
New York	80.9	82.2	81.9	Memphis	72.9	74.5	74.3
Philadelphia	78.2	78.1	78.4	Mobile	72.9	74.7	74.0
Pittsburgh	73.7	74.3	78.0	West South Central:			
Rochester	76.4	76.3	78.2	Dallas	72.2	73.6	74.2
Scranton	74.3	75.3	75.0	Houston	78.0	78.0	77.9
East North Central:				Little Rock	72.1	72.9	73.0
Chicago	78.3	79.4	78.8	New Orleans	83.3	84.4	82.8
Cincinnati	76.1	77.5	78.4	Mountain:			
Cleveland	78.2	78.4	80.8	Butte	74.0	75.6	75.6
Columbus, Ohio	74.4	76.2	76.5	Denver	80.6	80.6	82.6
Detroit	73.9	74.7	76.7	Salt Lake City	76.1	76.8	77.7
Indianapolis	76.1	77.3	77.9	Pacific:			
Milwaukee	78.0	79.4	80.9	Los Angeles	70.1	71.6	73.7
Peoria	78.2	79.2	79.1	Portland, Oreg	78.5	79.1	79.8
Springfield, Ill	75.8	76.7	77.6	San Francisco	80.8	81.9	81.9
West North Central:				Seattle	77.6	79.7	78.5
Kansas City	77.2	78.7	79.8				
Minneapolis	84.0	84.5	83.4				
Omaha	75.5	77.1	75.4				
St. Louis	81.8	83.2	82.7				
St. Paul	79.2	80.3	79.5				

[1] Preliminary.



Weekly Changes of 15 Staple Foods

Since the outbreak of the war in Europe, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has reported weekly changes in the retail prices of 15 staple foods from 13 representative cities. Prices relative to August 15, 1939, the month immediately preceding the war, have been computed. These relative prices for the 13 cities combined are shown in table 4 for each week in December. The weekly average prices of each of the 15 foods, by cities, are given in the Retail Price pamphlet for December 1939.

TABLE 4.—*Relative Retail Prices of 15 Foods for 13 Cities Combined, for Weekly Periods in December 1939*

[Aug. 15, 1939=100]

Foods	Dec. 5	Dec. 12	Dec. 19	Dec. 27
15-food average	104.7	103.8	103.3	103.0
Flour	119.6	120.5	121.0	122.1
Bread	100.6	100.7	100.8	100.8
Round steak	94.6	94.9	94.2	93.2
Chuck roast	103.3	101.3	102.0	101.0
Pork chops	81.4	81.5	80.1	78.9
Sliced bacon	96.4	94.2	93.3	93.9
Pink salmon	113.5	113.7	113.2	113.1
Butter	116.4	116.3	117.4	117.7
Milk (store)	106.1	105.8	105.8	105.8
Eggs	117.2	110.5	106.3	104.6
Canned tomatoes	99.2	98.9	98.7	98.7
Navy beans	119.0	116.8	115.2	116.1
Coffee	98.3	97.9	98.0	98.2
Lard	105.3	104.2	104.4	102.3
Sugar	108.0	107.3	106.7	106.5

ELECTRICITY PRICES ON DECEMBER 15, 1939

RESIDENTIAL rates for electricity are secured quarterly in March, June, September, and December, from 51 cities. These rates are used for computing average prices and typical bills in each city for quantities of electricity which most nearly approximate the consumption requirements for the usual domestic services for a five-room house, including living room, dining room, kitchen, and two bedrooms. The blocks of consumption which have been selected as representative of average conditions throughout the country are 25 kilowatt-hours for the use of electricity for lighting and small energy-consuming appliances; 100 kilowatt-hours for a greater use of lighting and small appliances, and a refrigerator; and 250 kilowatt-hours for a still greater use of lighting, a larger number of electric appliances, and both an electric refrigerator and an electric range.

The technical specifications which are used as the basis for the application of these rates are:

Floor area: 1,000 square feet.

Connected load:	*Watts*
Lighting and appliances	700
Refrigeration	300
Cooking	6,000
Measured demand:	
Lighting and appliances	600
Refrigeration	100
Cooking	2,300

Outlets: Fourteen 50-watt.

Active room count: In accordance with schedule of rates.

Prices of electricity for domestic consumption moved downward in 1939. The average decrease was 1.5 percent for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small appliances and 1.4 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours which, in addition to lighting, includes a refrigerator in the appliances used.

Indexes for these two services based on the 3-year average, 1923–25 as 100, are shown in table 5 for December 1923 through 1935 and for quarterly periods of 1936 through 1939.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Electricity, December of Specified Years 1923–35, and March, June, September, and December 1936 to 1939, inclusive*

[1923–25=100]

Date	Lighting and small appliances 25 kwh	Lighting, appliances, and refrigerator 100 kwh	Date	Lighting and small appliances 25 kwh	Lighting, appliances, and refrigerator 100 kwh
1923: December	101.1	101.2	1937—March	76.5	68.1
1925: December	97.3	97.1	June	76.4	67.9
1927: December	94.0	91.5	September	76.4	67.8
1929: December	89.7	84.4	December	76.0	67.4
1931: December	88.3	77.0	1938—March	75.5	67.3
1933: December	84.9	75.1	June	75.4	67.1
1935: December	80.7	70.2	September	75.1	66.8
			December	74.8	66.6
1936—March	80.1	69.6	1939—March	74.6	66.3
June	79.8	69.4	June	74.4	66.1
September	79.5	69.2	September	74.1	65.9
December	78.3	68.9	December [1]	73.7	65.7

[1] Indexes are preliminary.

Details by Cities

Indexes of price changes for each of 51 cities for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours and 100 kilowatt-hours, for March, June, September, and December 1939 and December 1938, are given in the Retail Price pamphlet for December 1939.

Typical monthly bills and average prices per kilowatt-hour for amounts of electricity representative of the requirements of 3 residential services on December 15, 1939, are shown in table 6 for each of the 51 cities.

TABLE 6.—*Total and Unit Net Monthly Price for Typical Consumption of Electricity Based on Rates as of Dec. 15, 1939,[1] by Cities*

[25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small energy-consuming appliances]
[100 kilowatt-hours for lighting, small appliances, and refrigerator]
[250 kilowatt-hours for lighting, small appliances, refrigerator, and range]

Region and city	Type of ownership[2]	Net monthly bill			Net monthly price per kilowatt-hour		
		25 kwh	100 kwh	250 kwh	25 kwh	100 kwh	250 kwh
New England:					*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Boston	P	$1.55	$5.10	$9.60	6.2	5.1	3.8
Bridgeport	P	1.31	4.03	7.28	5.3	4.0	2.9
Fall River	P	1.58	4.98	9.13	6.3	5.0	3.7
Manchester	P	2.00	5.00	8.00	8.0	5.0	3.2
New Haven	P	1.31	4.03	7.28	5.3	4.0	2.9
Portland, Maine	P	1.85	4.70	7.70	7.4	4.7	3.1
Providence	P	1.64	5.00	9.25	6.6	5.0	3.7
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	P	1.13	3.06	5.31	4.5	3.1	2.1
Newark	P	1.81	4.39	8.64	7.2	4.4	3.5
New York[3]—							
Bronx	P	1.71	4.86	8.24	6.8	4.9	3.3
Brooklyn	P	1.71	4.86	8.24	6.8	4.9	3.3
Manhattan	P	1.71	4.86	8.24	6.8	4.9	3.3
Queens	P	1.71	4.86	8.24	6.8	4.9	3.3
	P	1.61	4.81	8.93	6.4	4.8	3.6
Richmond	P	1.75	5.05	8.14	7.0	5.0	3.3
Philadelphia	P	1.40	3.63	6.18	5.6	3.6	2.5
Pittsburgh	P	1.25	4.00	7.50	5.0	4.0	3.0
Rochester	P	1.59	4.41	7.83	6.3	4.4	3.1
Scranton	P	1.25	3.85	7.10	5.0	3.9	2.8
East North Central:							
Chicago	P	1.34	3.65	6.65	5.4	3.7	2.7
Cincinnati	P	1.00	2.50	4.75	4.0	2.5	1.9
Cleveland	P	1.00	3.75	7.25	4.0	3.8	2.9
	M	.80	2.65	5.40	3.2	2.7	2.2
Columbus	P	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
	M	1.00	3.80	8.30	4.0	3.8	3.3
Detroit[3]	P	1.39	3.48	6.95	5.6	3.5	2.8
Indianapolis	P	1.25	3.85	6.95	5.0	3.9	2.8
Milwaukee	P	1.41	3.35	6.23	5.7	3.4	2.5
Peoria	P	1.25	3.34	6.09	5.0	3.3	2.4
Springfield, Ill	P	1.25	3.02	5.22	5.0	3.0	2.1
	M	1.25	3.02	4.80	5.0	3.0	1.9
West North Central:							
Kansas City[5]	P	1.28	3.83	7.65	5.1	3.8	3.1
Minneapolis	P	1.19	3.56	6.65	4.7	3.6	2.7
Omaha	P	1.02	3.64	7.42	4.1	3.6	3.0
St. Louis[5]	P	1.21	3.20	6.35	4.8	3.2	2.5
	P	1.09	2.91	5.81	4.4	2.9	2.3
St. Paul	P	1.25	3.75	7.00	5.0	3.8	2.8
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta—							
Immediate	P	1.45	3.95	6.57	5.8	3.9	2.6
Inducement[6]	P	1.22	3.50	6.12	4.9	3.5	2.4
Baltimore	P	1.06	3.78	7.68	4.3	3.8	3.1
Charleston, S. C	P	1.45	3.93	6.67	5.8	3.9	2.7
Jacksonville	M	1.50	4.60	7.60	6.0	4.6	3.0
Norfolk	P	1.25	4.25	7.50	5.0	4.3	3.0
Richmond	P	1.25	4.25	7.50	5.0	4.3	3.0
Savannah	P	1.45	4.20	6.95	5.8	4.2	2.8
Washington, D. C	P	.98	2.71	5.01	3.9	2.7	2.0
East South Central:							
Birmingham	P	.81	2.75	6.13	3.3	2.8	2.5
Louisville[3]	P	1.03	3.61	6.70	4.1	3.6	2.7
Memphis	M	.86	2.88	5.75	3.5	2.9	2.3
Mobile	P	1.20	3.50	6.13	4.8	3.5	2.5
West South Central:							
Dallas	P	1.06	3.91	7.51	4.2	3.9	3.0
Houston	P	1.01	3.58	6.83	4.0	3.6	2.7
Little Rock[5]	P	1.51	4.18	8.26	6.0	4.2	3.3
New Orleans	P	1.50	4.40	8.10	6.0	4.4	3.2
Mountain:							
Butte	P	1.50	4.25	7.75	6.0	4.3	3.1
Denver[5]	P	1.28	4.49	8.47	5.1	4.5	3.4
Salt Lake City[5]	P	1.38	3.83	7.14	5.5	3.8	2.9
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	M	1.10	2.97	5.10	4.4	3.0	2.0
Portland, Oreg	P	1.25	3.37	6.07	5.0	3.4	2.4
	P	1.25	3.37	6.07	5.0	3.4	2.4
San Francisco	P	1.23	2.99	5.79	4.9	3.0	2.3
Seattle	P	1.13	3.00	5.63	4.5	3.0	2.3
	M	1.13	3.00	5.63	4.5	3.0	2.3

[1] Preliminary. [2] Type of ownership is indicated as follows: P, private utility; M, municipal plant.
[3] Prices include 3-percent sales tax. [4] Data not available. [5] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[6] The Inducement Rate was designed to encourage greater use of electricity.

Price Changes Between December 1938 and December 1939

Changes in residential rates of electricity in 1939, all of which were reductions, occurred in 24 of the 51 reporting cities. Five of these cities have reported rate decreases for 2 consecutive years and five for 3 consecutive years. During the 2 years from December 1937 to December 1939, prices of electricity were lowered in 38 cities including all of the 19 situated in the South Atlantic, South Central, and Mountain areas.

All areas were represented in the rate reductions reported for 24 cities in 1939, although the decreases were more general in the Southeast, South, and West, where lower prices were shown for 12 of the 16 southern cities and for 5 of the 7 Mountain and Pacific cities. In the following list of the 24 cities arranged by regional areas, the cities for which rate reductions were reported for both 1938 and 1939 are indicated by an asterisk (*) and for 1937, 1938, and 1939 by a dagger (†).

New England:
Providence
Middle Atlantic:
†New York [1] (Queens)
Philadelphia
East North Central:
Cleveland [2]
Columbus
†Indianapolis
West North Central:
Omaha
South Atlantic:
Atlanta
Baltimore
*Charleston
*Norfolk
*Richmond
Savannah
†Washington, D. C.
East South Central:
†Birmingham
Mobile
West South Central:
Houston
*Little Rock
*New Orleans
Mountain:
Butte
Denver
†Salt Lake City
Pacific:
San Francisco
Seattle

[1] Rate reductions covering all boroughs have been reported since August 1937.
[2] Municipal plant only, serving about 20 percent of residential customers.

The smallest decreases resulting from lowered rates in 1939 for each of the three services were 3.2 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours in Butte, 3.1 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours in Baltimore, and 1.7 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours in Baltimore, and 1.7 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours in San Francisco. The greatest decreases, 18.3 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours, 21.7 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours, and 17.1 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours, were reported for a company serving the Borough of Queens in New York City.

In most cities, customers using 100 kilowatt-hours or less received the greatest benefits. In Salt Lake City the reduction applied only to the use of 60 kilowatt-hours or less. Five cities (Atlanta, Norfolk, Richmond, Washington, and Philadelphia) reported no change in

rates for 25 kilowatt-hours, although customers in Philadelphia benefited by the discontinuance of a 2-percent sales tax which had been in effect since March 1938. All 5 of these cities reported reductions which ranged between 4 and 10 percent for the use of 100 kilowatt-hours.

Typical net monthly bills, average prices per kilowatt-hour, and percentage decrease between December 15, 1938, and December 15, 1939, for 24 cities, are given in the Retail Price pamphlet for December 1939.

GAS PRICES ON DECEMBER 15, 1939

RESIDENTIAL rates for gas are secured quarterly in March, June, September, and December from 50 cities. Since December 1934 these rates have been used for computing average prices and typical bills for each city for quantities of gas which approximate the average residential consumption requirements per month for each of four combinations of services. In order to put the prices upon a comparable basis it was necessary to convert the normal consumption requirements used for computing monthly bills into an equivalent heating value expressed in therms (1 therm=100,000 B. t. u.). This procedure was required because of the wide range in the heating value of a cubic foot of gas between different cities. The equipment and blocks of consumption which have been selected as representative of average conditions throughout the country are based upon the requirements of a five-room house, including living room, dining room, kitchen, and two bedrooms, as shown in the following specifications.

Service	Terms
Range	10. 6
Range and manual type water heater	19. 6
Range and automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater	30. 6
Range, automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater, and refrigerator	40. 6

Typical net monthly bills and average prices for 2 services, 10.6 therms, and 30.6 therms, have been computed for quarterly periods for 1923 forward. The bills have been used for computing series of indexes (1923–25=100) by cities; and composite indexes for all gas for 50 cities combined, and separate indexes for manufactured, natural, and mixed manufactured and natural gas.

Prices by Kinds of Gas on December 15, 1939

The composite indexes (1923–25=100) for all kinds of gas for 50 cities combined showed little change between December 1938 and December 1939. An increase of 0.9 percent was recorded for the

use of 10.6 therms and a decrease of 0.2 percent for 30.6 therms. The indexes were 99.7 for the use of 10.6 therms and 85.8 for 30.6 therms.

Changes in composite indexes in 1939 resulted from the changes in rates, heating value of the gas, or taxes as recorded in table 13 for 13 cities. More marked changes were reported for natural gas than for manufactured or mixed manufactured and natural gas. Percentage changes from December 1938 to December 1939 for different kinds of gas for each of the 2 services are as follows:

	10.6 therms	*30.6 therms*
Manufactured gas	+0.7	−0.3
Natural gas	+2.8	+1.9
Mixed manufactured gas	−0.2	−1.9

Table 7 presents composite indexes for each of the 2 services for all gas, 50 cities combined, and separate indexes for manufactured, natural, and mixed gas for December of specified years from 1923 to 1935 and for quarterly periods from 1936 through 1939.

TABLE 7.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Gas, December of Specified Years, 1923–35, and March, June, September, and December 1936, 1937, 1938, and 1939*

[1923–25=100]

Date	10.6 therms, range				30.6 therms, range and automatic water heater			
	All gas 50 cities	Manufactured 1923, 40 cities; 1939, 24 cities	Natural 1923, 7 cities; 1939, 19 cities	Mixed 1923, 3 cities; 1939, 7 cities	All gas 50 cities	Manufactured 1923, 40 cities; 1939, 24 cities	Natural 1923, 7 cities; 1939, 19 cities	Mixed 1923, 3 cities; 1939, 7 cities
1923: December	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.4	99.5	99.6	98.5	99.4
1925: December	100.2	99.7	107.1	98.9	100.2	99.6	108.1	98.9
1927: December	100.1	99.6	109.3	101.0	99.3	99.0	108.0	101.0
1929: December	99.7	100.1	119.2	98.2	95.4	97.0	108.3	98.1
1931: December	98.3	100.0	119.2	99.3	91.1	94.2	108.2	98.8
1933: December	97.2	99.2	118.8	97.7	88.4	92.1	107.9	92.2
1935: December	97.2	100.0	114.1	98.3	86.8	90.4	104.0	92.4
1936—March	97.1	100.0	114.0	98.0	86.6	90.3	103.2	92.0
June	96.9	99.9	112.9	98.1	86.4	90.2	101.4	92.1
September	96.9	99.9	[1] 112.9	98.1	[1] 86.3	90.2	[1] 101.4	92.0
December	[1] 96.7	99.8	[1] 112.9	98.3	[1] 85.5	90.0	101.4	92.2
1937—March	[1] 96.6	99.8	112.8	98.2	[1] 85.5	89.9	101.2	92.2
June	[1] 96.6	99.8	112.7	98.3	[1] 82.6	85.3	[1] 101.2	92.3
September	[1] 96.8	100.0	112.7	98.4	[1] 82.6	85.2	[1] 101.2	92.5
December	[1] 96.8	100.0	112.7	98.4	[1] 85.1	89.4	[1] 101.2	92.4
1938—March	[1] 98.6	100.2	112.7	107.8	[1] 85.8	89.5	[1] 100.9	96.0
June	[1] 98.8	100.7	112.3	107.8	[1] 83.4	85.8	[1] 100.5	96.0
September	[1] 98.8	100.7	112.3	107.8	[1] 83.4	85.8	[1] 100.5	96.0
December	[1] 98.8	100.7	112.3	107.6	[1] 86.0	90.0	[1] 100.5	95.8
1939—March	99.3	100.5	116.5	107.5	86.3	89.8	103.9	95.7
June	99.4	100.5	116.4	107.7	83.8	85.6	103.8	95.9
September	99.2	100.5	115.4	107.7	83.3	85.6	102.4	94.4
December [2]	99.7	101.4	115.4	107.4	85.8	89.7	102.4	94.0

[1] Revised. [2] Preliminary.

Details by Cities

Indexes of price changes for each of the 50 cities for the use of 10.6 therms and 30.6 therms, for March, June, September, and December 1939 and December 1938, are given in the Retail Price pamphlet for December 1939.

Typical net monthly bills and average prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm for each of 4 services, based on rates effective December 15, 1939, are presented in table 8 for 50 cities.

TABLE 8.—*Total and Unit Net Monthly Prices of Gas for Specified Consumptions, Based on Rates as of Dec. 15, 1939, by Cities* [1]

[10.6 therms for range]
[19.6 therms for range and manual type water heater]
[30.6 therms for range and automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater]
[40.6 therms for range, automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater, and refrigerator]

MANUFACTURED GAS

Region and city	Heating value per cubic foot in British thermal units	Cubic feet equivalent to specified number of therms [2]				Net price based on monthly use of specified consumptions											
						Total price (net monthly bill)				Unit price							
										Per thousand cubic feet				Per therm			
		10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms	10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms	10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms	10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms
New England:						*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Boston	535	1,980	3,660	5,720	7,590	2.78	4.13	5.78	7.27	1.40	1.13	1.01	0.96	26.2	21.1	18.9	17.9
	535	1,980	3,660	5,720	7,590	2.28	4.21	5.63	7.12	1.15	1.15	.98	.94	21.5	21.5	18.4	17.5
Fall River	528	2,010	5,710	5,800	7,690	2.53	4.06	5.94	7.64	1.26	1.09	1.02	.99	23.9	20.7	19.4	18.8
Manchester	525	2,020	3,730	5,830	7,730	2.85	4.82	5.67	6.92	1.41	1.29	.97	.89	26.8	24.6	18.5	17.0
New Haven	528	2,010	3,710	5,800	7,690	2.41	4.11	6.20	8.09	1.20	1.11	1.07	1.05	22.7	21.0	20.3	19.9
Portland, Maine	525	2,020	3,730	5,830	7,730	3.03	5.16	6.51	8.03	1.50	1.38	1.12	1.04	28.5	26.3	21.3	19.8
Providence	510	2,080	3,840	6,000	7,960	2.57	4.16	6.10	7.86	1.24	1.08	1.02	.99	24.3	21.2	19.9	19.4
Middle Atlantic:																	
Newark	525	2,020	3,730	5,830	7,730	2.69	4.31	6.06	7.29	1.33	1.16	1.04	.94	25.4	22.0	19.8	18.0
New York: [3]																	
Bronx	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	2.32	4.30	6.72	8.91	1.18	1.18	1.18	1.18	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9
Brooklyn	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	2.36	3.83	5.30	6.48	1.20	1.06	.94	.86	22.3	19.6	17.3	16.0
	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	2.46	4.09	6.09	7.90	1.25	1.13	1.07	1.05	23.2	20.9	19.9	19.5
	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	2.61	4.28	5.96	7.19	1.33	1.18	1.05	.96	24.6	21.8	19.5	17.7
Manhattan	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	2.32	4.30	6.72	8.91	1.18	1.18	1.18	1.18	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9
Queens	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	2.32	4.30	6.72	8.91	1.18	1.18	1.18	1.18	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9
Richmond	540	1,960	3,630	5,670	7,520	3.14	5.15	7.15	8.95	1.60	1.42	1.26	1.19	29.6	26.3	23.3	22.1
Philadelphia	530	2,000	3,700	5,770	7,660	1.80	3.25	5.00	6.61	.90	.88	.87	.86	17.0	16.6	16.4	16.3
Rochester	537	1,970	3,650	5,700	7,560	1.97	3.65	5.56	7.05	1.00	1.00	.98	.93	18.6	18.6	18.2	17.4
Scranton	520	2,040	3,770	5,880	7,810	2.89	4.57	5.77	7.60	1.41	1.21	.98	.97	27.2	23.3	18.8	18.7
East North Central:																	
Indianapolis	570	1,860	3,440	5,370	7,120	1.58	2.92	4.57	6.05	.85	.85	.85	.85	14.9	14.9	14.9	14.9
Milwaukee	520	2,040	3,770	5,880	7,810	1.76	2.89	4.26	5.51	.86	.77	.72	.71	16.6	14.7	13.9	13.6
West North Central:																	
Omaha	555	1,910	3,530	5,510	7,320	1.46	2.27	3.26	4.16	.76	.64	.59	.57	13.7	11.6	10.6	10.2
St. Paul	550	1,930	3,560	5,560	7,380	1.98	3.16	4.59	5.87	1.03	.89	.83	.79	18.7	16.1	15.0	14.5

South Atlantic:																
Baltimore	500	2,120	3,920	6,120	8,120	1.80	3.33	4.78	6.08	.85	.85	.78	.75	17.0	17.0	15.6	15.0
Charleston, S. C.:																	
Immediate	550	1,930	3,560	5,560	7,380	2.70	4.98	7.19	9.01	1.40	1.40	1.29	1.22	25.5	25.5	23.5	22.2
Objective [4]	550	1,930	3,560	5,560	7,380	[5]	4.42	5.92	7.28	[5]	1.24	1.06	.99	[4]	22.6	19.3	17.9
Jacksonville	535	1,980	3,660	5,720	7,590	3.97	5.73	7.59	9.27	2.01	1.57	1.33	1.22	37.5	29.3	24.8	22.8
Norfolk	530	2,000	3,700	5,770	7,660	2.40	4.36	6.62	8.51	1.20	1.18	1.15	1.11	22.6	22.2	21.6	21.0
Richmond	525	2,020	3,730	5,830	7,730	2.63	4.78	6.05	7.76	1.30	1.28	1.04	1.00	24.8	24.4	19.8	19.1
Savannah	535	1,980	3,660	5,720	7,590	2.48	4.58	7.15	9.49	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3
East South Central:																	
Birmingham	520	2,040	3,770	5,880	7,810	1.63	3.02	4.70	6.25	.80	.80	.80	.80	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.4
Pacific:																	
Portland, Oreg	570	1,860	3,440	5,370	7,120	2.34	3.98	5.33	6.61	1.26	1.16	.99	.93	22.0	20.3	17.4	16.3
Seattle	500	2,120	3,920	6,120	8,120	3.10	5.36	5.32	6.45	1.46	1.37	.87	.79	29.2	27.3	17.4	15.9

NATURAL GAS

						Dollars	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Middle Atlantic:																	
Pittsburgh	1,115	950	1,760	2,740	3,640	[6] 1.00	1.06	1.64	2.18	1.05	0.60	0.60	0.60	9.4	5.4	5.4	5.4
	1,100	960	1,780	2,780	3,960	[6] 1.00	1.07	1.67	2.21	1.04	.60	.60	.60	9.4	5.4	5.4	5.4
	1,100	960	1,780	2,780	3,960	[6] 1.00	1.07	1.67	2.21	1.04	.60	.60	.60	9.4	5.4	5.4	5.4
East North Central:																	
Cleveland	1,100	960	1,780	2,780	3,960	1.11	1.56	2.11	2.61	1.15	.88	.76	.71	10.5	8.0	6.9	6.4
Columbus	1,050	1,010	1,870	2,910	3,870	[6] .75	1.03	1.60	2.13	.74	.55	.55	.55	7.1	5.2	5.2	5.2
	1,050	1,010	1,870	2,910	3,870	[6] .75	.90	1.40	1.86	.74	.48	.48	.48	7.1	4.6	4.6	4.6
Detroit: [3]																	
Immediate	1,014	1,050	1,930	3,020	4,000	1.71	3.16	4.93	6.55	1.63	1.64	1.63	1.64	16.1	16.1	16.1	16.1
Promotional [4]	1,014	1,050	1,930	3,020	4,000	1.55	2.51	3.68	4.75	1.47	1.30	1.22	1.19	14.6	12.8	12.0	11.7
Peoria	1,000	1,060	1,960	3,060	4,060	2.12	3.64	4.67	5.57	2.00	1.86	1.53	1.37	20.0	18.6	15.3	13.7
Springfield, Ill	1,000	1,060	1,960	3,060	4,060	1.91	3.36	4.47	5.37	1.80	1.71	1.46	1.32	18.0	17.1	14.6	13.2
West North Central:																	
Kansas City [7]	1,040	1,020	1,880	2,940	3,900	1.33	2.12	3.05	3.88	1.31	1.13	1.04	1.00	12.6	10.8	10.0	9.6
South Atlantic:																	
Atlanta	980	1,080	2,000	3,120	4,140	1.78	2.70	3.77	4.38	1.65	1.35	1.21	1.06	16.8	13.8	12.3	10.8
East South Central:																	
Memphis	980	1,080	2,000	3,120	4,140	1.51	2.48	3.60	4.21	1.40	1.24	1.15	1.02	14.3	12.7	11.8	10.4
Mobile—																	
Present	970	1,090	2,020	3,150	4,190	2.24	3.40	4.72	5.40	2.05	1.68	1.50	1.29	21.1	17.3	15.4	13.3
Objective [4]	970	1,090	2,020	3,150	4,190	2.04	2.97	4.04	4.66	1.87	1.47	1.28	1.11	19.2	15.2	13.2	11.5
West South Central:																	
Dallas	1,050	1,010	1,870	2,910	3,870	1.26	1.84	2.54	3.19	1.25	.98	.87	.82	11.9	9.4	8.3	7.9
Houston	1,066	990	1,840	2,870	3,810	1.14	1.70	2.37	2.98	1.16	.92	.82	.78	10.8	8.7	7.7	7.3
Little Rock [7]	1,000	1,060	1,960	3,060	4,060	1.11	1.61	2.23	2.79	1.04	.82	.73	.69	10.4	8.2	7.3	6.9
New Orleans	950	1,120	2,060	3,220	4,270	1.26	2.10	3.15	4.09	1.12	1.02	.98	.96	11.9	10.7	10.3	10.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 8.—*Total and Unit Net Monthly Prices of Gas for Specified Consumptions, Based on Rates as of Dec. 15, 1939, by Cities*—Continued

NATURAL GAS—Continued

Region and city	Heating value per cubic foot in British thermal units	Cubic feet equivalent to specified number of therms				Net price based on monthly use of specified consumptions											
						Total price (net monthly bill)				Unit price							
										Per thousand cubic feet				Per therm			
		10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms	10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms	10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms	10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms
Mountain:						*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Butte	850	1,250	2,310	3,600	4,780	1.11	1.59	2.17	2.70	0.89	0.69	0.60	0.57	10.5	8.1	7.1	6.7
Denver [7]	825	1,280	2,380	3,710	4,920	2.18	3.35	4.20	4.84	1.70	1.41	1.13	.98	20.6	17.1	13.7	11.9
Salt Lake City [7]	865	1,230	2,270	3,540	4,690	2.12	3.27	4.16	4.86	1.72	1.44	1.17	1.04	20.0	16.7	13.6	12.0
Pacific:																	
Los Angeles	1,100	960	1,780	2,780	3,690	1.20	1.69	2.25	2.76	1.25	.95	.81	.75	11.3	8.6	7.4	6.8
San Francisco	1,150	920	1,700	2,660	3,530	1.18	1.65	2.22	2.68	1.28	.97	.83	.76	11.2	8.4	7.2	6.6
MIXED MANUFACTURED AND NATURAL GAS																	
Middle Atlantic:						*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Dollars*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Buffalo	900	1,180	2,180	3,400	4,510	0.77	1.42	2.21	2.93	0.65	0.65	0.65	0.65	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2
East North Central:																	
Chicago	800	1,330	2,450	3,830	5,080	2.26	3.65	5.01	5.71	1.70	1.49	1.31	1.12	21.3	18.6	16.4	14.1
Cincinnati	930	1,140	2,110	3,290	4,370	.85	1.52	2.29	2.97	.74	.72	.70	.68	8.0	7.8	7.5	7.3
West North Central:																	
Minneapolis	800	1,330	2,450	3,830	5,080	1.92	3.01	4.34	5.50	1.44	1.23	1.13	1.08	18.1	15.4	14.2	13.5
St. Louis [7]	800	1,330	2,450	3,830	5,080	2.04	3.20	4.38	5.45	1.54	1.31	1.14	1.07	19.3	16.3	14.3	13.4
South Atlantic:																	
Washington, D. C.	604	1,750	3,250	5,070	6,720	1.51	2.69	3.96	5.06	.86	.83	.78	.75	14.2	13.7	12.9	12.5
East South Central:																	
Louisville [3]	900	1,180	2,180	3,400	4,510	.98	1.58	2.20	2.78	.83	.72	.65	.62	9.2	8.0	7.2	6.8

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Typical monthly consumption for each service for a 5-room house. (1 therm equals 100,000 B. t. u.).
[3] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[4] The Objective Rates in Charleston, S. C., and Mobile and the Promotional Rate in Detroit were designed to encourage a greater use of gas. An intermediate rate called the Inducement Rate, also available in Mobile, provided a price lower than that of the Present Rate for a part of the monthly consumption for customers whose increase in the use of gas was not sufficient to entitle them to the advantages of the Objective Rate.
[5] The Objective Rate was not applicable for customers using 10.6 therms since the bill would have been higher than that computed under the Immediate Rate.
[6] Minimum charge.
[7] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.

Price Changes between December 1938 and December 1939

Changes in prices of gas to residential customers in 1939 occurred in 13 of the 50 reporting cities. All except 3 cities (Boston, Cleveland, and Pittsburgh) reported decreases. Rate changes were shown for 8 cities, changes in the heating value of the gas in 4 cities, and in 1 city, Philadelphia, customers were benefited by the discontinuance of a sales tax. Most of the price changes occurred in cities using natural gas either entirely or in part, as shown in the following list of the 13 cities according to type of gas served.

Manufactured gas	*Natural gas*	*Mixed manufactured and natural gas*
Boston.	Pittsburgh.	Cincinnati.
New York.	Cleveland.	Minneapolis.
Philadelphia.	Mobile.	St. Louis.
	Houston.	Washington, D. C.
	Los Angeles.	
	San Francisco.	

Seasonal price changes were effective in 2 of the 13 cities. In November 1938 the city of Cincinnati entered into an agreement with the utility company which resulted in an increase in the heating value of the gas served in that city from an average of 865 British thermal units to 930 British thermal units for the 8 months from October to May, inclusive, and of 875 British thermal units for the remaining months. This increase in heating value produced an average annual decrease of 6.6 percent in the cost of gas to the citizens of Cincinnati. The decrease averaged about 5 percent for the services for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics computes prices. The cost of gas for house heating is not included in the Bureau's reports. The Bureau computes its quarterly prices of gas as of March, June, September, and December, using the British thermal units effective in those months. The prices in June and September on a heat-value basis with the present seasonal changes in British thermal units of gas furnished will, therefore, be somewhat higher than the prices in March and December, although in all 4 months the prices are lower than those effective before the agreement of November 1938. Seasonal changes for 1939 are shown in table 13.

A rate schedule introduced by a company serving the Boroughs of the Bronx, Manhattan, and Queens in New York City in March 1937 included special summer rates under which lower prices were made available to all customers using more than 3,000 cubic feet (about 16 therms) of gas per month. The decreases for the services covered by this report ranged from 6.0 percent for 19.6 therms to 20.9 percent for 40.6 therms. In 1937 these lower prices were effective for 4 months, June through September, and in 1938 and 1939 for 6 months, May through October.

204104—40——16

Prices declined during 1939 in 10 cities. The greatest decrease was in Brooklyn Borough, New York, where lower rates were effective for customers using more than 3,100 cubic feet of gas per month. This decrease, which became greater as the consumption increased, amounted to 16.6 percent for 40.6 therms (about 7,500 cubic feet). Lower rates in St. Louis and Washington also provided the greatest benefits to the larger consumers. Price reductions were more nearly the same for all residential customers in each of the remaining 7 cities, 3 of which reported lower rates, 3 increases in the heating value of the gas, and 1 a discontinuance of sales tax.

Higher prices were recorded for three cities. The greatest advance was in Cleveland where an increase in the initial charge raised the price sharply to small consumers. The increases were about 48 percent for 10.6 therms and 75 percent for 19.6 therms with gradually diminishing increases for greater consumptions. Boston also reported the greatest increase to small consumers. The advance for 10.6 therms (a little less than 2,000 cubic feet) was 12.1 percent, with minor changes for a greater use of gas. The increase in prices shown for Pittsburgh reflects the average decrease since June 1938 in the heating value of the gas served in that city. Slight variations in British thermal units reported from time to time have been smoothed out to show average prices for September 1938 through December 1939.

Typical net monthly bills, prices per thousand cubic feet, and per therm, and percentages of change from December 15, 1938, through December 15, 1939, for 13 cities, are given in the Retail Price pamphlet for December 1939.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES, DECEMBER AND YEAR 1939[1]

THE level of wholesale commodity prices dropped nearly 2 percent from 1938 to 1939, or to 77.1 percent of the 1926 average. Weakening prices for farm products and foods, particularly livestock and meats, largely accounted for the decline. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index declined almost steadily through August, when it had fallen to 75.0 percent of the 1926 average, the lowest point reached in 5 years. Following the outbreak of the war in Europe, commodity prices turned sharply upward and advanced 5.5 percent between August and September. The rise continued through October and the index again moved upward to 79.4. A slight reaction took place in November and the all-commodity index dropped to 79.2, where it remained unchanged for December.

Farm products registered the greatest group decrease, nearly 5 percent. Foods and fuel and lighting materials followed closely as each declined more than 4 percent. The metals and metal products and chemicals and drugs groups dropped 1.4 percent and housefurnishing goods fell 0.6 percent. The textile products group advanced 4.5 percent; hides and leather products, 3 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 2 percent; and building materials, 0.2 percent.

From 1938 to 1939 raw material prices declined 2.5 percent and finished products averaged 2.2 percent lower. Semifinished articles, on the contrary, advanced 2.1 percent. In 1939 wholesale prices of nonagricultural commodities declined nearly 1½ percent, according to the index for "all commodities other than farm products." Industrial commodity prices, as measured by the index for "all commodities other than farm products and foods," decreased 0.5 percent.

Among the outstanding changes in subgroup indexes during the year were advances of nearly 40 percent for silk and rayon, 22 percent for crude rubber, 15 percent for hides and skins, 8 percent for cattle feed, 7 percent for nonferrous metals, and 6½ percent for fruits and vegetables. The livestock and poultry subgroup declined more than 8 percent; meats, over 7 percent; and petroleum products, nearly 7 percent.

Table 1 shows index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities for 1938 and 1939 and the percentage changes from 1938 to 1939.

[1] More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, 1938 and 1939, and Percentage Changes, 1938 to 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1939	1938	Percentage change
All commodities	**77.1**	**78.6**	**−1.9**
Farm products	**65.3**	**68.5**	**−4.7**
Grains	58.6	60.6	−3.3
Livestock and poultry	72.2	79.0	−8.6
Other farm products	62.6	63.9	−2.0
Foods	**70.4**	**73.6**	**−4.3**
Dairy products	69.5	72.8	−4.5
Cereal products	74.8	78.4	−4.6
Fruits and vegetables	62.0	58.2	+6.5
Meats	77.2	83.3	−7.3
Other foods	64.1	67.5	−5.0
Hides and leather products	**95.6**	**92.8**	**+3.0**
Shoes	102.6	102.2	+.4
Hides and skins	84.6	73.6	+14.9
Leather	87.5	83.7	+4.5
Other leather products	97.1	98.5	−1.4
Textile products	**69.7**	**66.7**	**+4.5**
Clothing	82.0	82.9	−1.1
Cotton goods	67.2	65.4	+2.8
Hosiery and underwear	61.4	60.3	+1.8
Silk and rayon	40.9	29.3	+39.6
Woolen and worsted goods	79.8	77.4	+3.1
Other textile products	69.2	65.5	+5.6
Fuel and lighting materials	**73.1**	**76.5**	**−4.4**
Anthracite	75.8	78.0	−2.8
Bituminous coal	97.5	99.0	−1.5
Coke	105.6	104.8	+.8
Electricity	[1]	84.9	
Gas	[1]	86.1	
Petroleum products	52.2	55.9	−6.6
Metals and metal products	**94.4**	**95.7**	**−1.4**
Agricultural implements	93.4	95.5	−2.2
Farm machinery	94.6	96.9	−2.4
Iron and steel	95.8	98.6	−2.8
Metals and metal products—Continued.			
Motor vehicles	93.4	95.4	−2.1
Nonferrous metals	78.0	72.8	+7.1
Plumbing and heating	79.2	78.5	+.9
Building materials	**90.5**	**90.3**	**+.2**
Brick and tile	91.4	91.0	+.4
Cement	91.3	90.3	+1.1
Lumber	93.4	90.4	+3.3
Paint and paint materials	82.8	81.3	+1.8
Plumbing and heating	79.2	78.5	+.9
Structural steel	107.3	111.0	−3.3
Other building materials	90.3	92.7	−2.6
Chemicals and drugs	**76.5**	**77.6**	**−1.4**
Chemicals	79.9	81.6	−2.1
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	72.9	73.9	−1.4
Fertilizer materials	70.0	69.2	+1.2
Mixed fertilizers	72.9	72.2	+1.0
Housefurnishing goods	**86.3**	**86.8**	**−.6**
Furnishings	91.1	90.8	+.3
Furniture	81.3	82.8	−1.8
Miscellaneous	**74.8**	**73.3**	**+2.0**
Automobile tires and tubes	59.5	57.7	+3.1
Cattle feed	83.3	76.9	+8.3
Paper and pulp	82.4	85.0	−3.1
Rubber, crude	37.2	30.5	+22.0
Other miscellaneous	82.6	81.5	+1.3
Raw materials	**70.2**	**72.0**	**−2.5**
Semimanufactured articles	**77.0**	**75.4**	**+2.1**
Finished products	**80.4**	**82.2**	**−2.2**
All commodities other than farm products	**79.5**	**80.6**	**−1.4**
All commodities other than farm products and foods	**81.3**	**81.7**	**−.5**

[1] Data not yet available.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for each year 1929 to 1939, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1939	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	1930	1929
All commodities	**77.1**	**78.6**	**86.3**	**80.8**	**80.0**	**74.9**	**65.9**	**64.8**	**73.0**	**86.4**	**95.3**
Farm products	**65.3**	**68.5**	**86.4**	**80.9**	**78.8**	**65.3**	**51.4**	**48.2**	**64.8**	**88.3**	**104.9**
Grains	58.6	60.6	98.3	88.3	82.5	74.5	53.1	39.4	53.0	78.3	97.4
Livestock and poultry	72.2	79.0	95.5	84.7	85.1	51.5	43.4	48.2	63.9	89.2	106.1
Other farm products	62.6	63.9	77.2	76.0	73.4	70.5	55.8	51.4	69.2	91.1	106.6
Foods	**70.4**	**73.6**	**85.5**	**82.1**	**83.7**	**70.5**	**60.5**	**61.0**	**74.6**	**90.5**	**99.9**
Dairy products	69.5	72.8	83.1	83.9	79.8	72.7	60.7	61.3	81.8	95.5	105.6
Cereal products	74.8	78.4	87.6	86.2	94.1	88.7	75.0	66.4	73.1	81.5	88.0
Fruits and vegetables	62.0	58.2	74.2	71.9	63.6	67.5	61.7	58.0	72.4	96.6	97.8
Meats	77.2	83.3	99.1	87.8	94.5	62.9	50.0	58.2	75.4	98.4	109.1
Other foods	64.1	67.5	75.6	75.9	77.7	66.6	61.1	60.7	69.8	80.9	93.9
Hides and leather products	**95.6**	**92.8**	**104.6**	**95.4**	**89.6**	**86.6**	**80.9**	**72.9**	**86.1**	**100.0**	**109.1**
Shoes	102.6	102.2	105.0	99.8	98.0	98.1	90.2	86.1	93.7	102.0	106.3
Hides and skins	84.6	73.6	113.5	94.6	80.8	68.6	67.1	42.1	60.2	91.0	112.7
Leather	87.5	83.7	96.8	85.6	80.1	75.0	71.4	65.1	86.2	101.3	113.2
Other leather products	97.1	98.5	102.6	95.5	85.0	86.6	81.1	90.1	101.4	105.5	106.4

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*—Continued

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1939	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	1930	1929
Textile products	**69.7**	**66.7**	**76.3**	**71.5**	**70.9**	**72.9**	**64.8**	**54.9**	**66.3**	**80.3**	**90.4**
Clothing	82.0	82.9	87.9	81.1	79.8	82.5	72.2	63.0	75.9	86.2	90.0
Cotton goods	67.2	65.4	84.3	80.3	83.4	86.5	71.2	54.0	66.1	84.7	98.8
Hosiery and underwear	61.4	60.3	65.1	61.2	61.8	63.2	58.9	51.6	60.9	80.0	88.5
Silk and rayon	40.9	29.3	32.5	31.2	30.2	26.7	30.6	31.0	43.5	60.2	80.4
Woolen and worsted goods	79.8	77.4	91.1	82.9	76.1	79.7	69.3	57.7	68.2	79.0	88.3
Other textile products	69.2	65.5	68.4	67.0	68.5	73.1	72.5	67.9	75.1	84.2	93.1
Fuel and lighting materials	**73.1**	**76.5**	**77.6**	**76.2**	**73.5**	**73.3**	**66.3**	**70.3**	**67.5**	**78.5**	**83.0**
Anthracite	75.8	78.0	77.8	80.5	79.7	80.1	82.2	88.4	91.1	89.1	90.1
Bituminous coal	97.5	99.0	98.6	97.4	96.7	94.5	82.8	82.0	84.6	89.4	91.3
Coke	105.6	104.8	103.1	94.7	88.6	84.8	77.9	77.7	82.4	84.0	84.6
Electricity	(1)	84.9	80.4	83.4	87.8	91.8	94.3	104.7	98.8	97.7	94.5
Gas	(1)	86.1	82.4	85.2	89.3	93.4	97.5	101.3	98.7	97.3	93.1
Petroleum products	52.2	55.9	60.5	57.3	51.3	50.5	41.0	45.4	39.5	61.5	71.3
Metals and metal products	**94.4**	**95.7**	**95.7**	**87.0**	**86.4**	**86.9**	**79.8**	**80.2**	**84.5**	**92.1**	**100.5**
Agricultural implements	93.4	95.5	94.0	94.2	93.7	89.6	83.5	84.9	92.1	95.0	98.7
Farm machinery	94.6	96.9	95.6	92.3	91.6	89.5	87.7	89.8	93.5	96.4	98.0
Iron and steel	95.8	98.6	98.2	87.6	86.7	86.7	78.6	79.4	83.3	89.1	94.9
Motor vehicles	93.4	95.4	89.3	83.3	84.1	87.6	83.2	87.1	89.5	94.0	100.0
Nonferrous metals	78.0	72.8	89.6	71.6	68.6	67.7	59.6	49.8	61.9	82.4	106.1
Plumbing and heating	79.2	78.5	78.8	75.0	68.9	72.6	67.1	66.8	84.7	88.6	95.0
Building materials	**90.5**	**90.3**	**95.2**	**86.7**	**85.3**	**86.2**	**77.0**	**71.4**	**79.2**	**89.9**	**95.4**
Brick and tile	91.4	91.0	93.5	88.7	89.4	90.2	79.2	77.3	83.6	89.8	94.3
Cement	91.3	90.3	89.0	92.2	92.7	93.1	88.1	74.3	74.8	89.8	89.0
Lumber	93.4	90.4	99.0	84.5	81.1	84.5	70.7	58.5	69.5	85.8	93.8
Paint and paint materials	82.8	81.3	83.4	80.1	79.8	79.5	73.3	71.1	79.4	90.5	94.9
Plumbing and heating	79.2	78.5	78.8	75.0	68.9	72.6	67.1	66.8	84.7	88.6	95.0
Structural steel	107.3	111.0	113.2	95.0	92.0	90.8	83.1	80.9	83.1	87.3	98.1
Other building materials	90.3	92.7	99.1	90.2	90.1	90.3	82.7	79.5	84.8	93.3	97.7
Chemicals and drugs	**76.5**	**77.6**	**83.9**	**80.4**	**80.5**	**75.9**	**72.6**	**73.5**	**79.3**	**89.1**	**94.2**
Chemicals	79.9	81.6	89.9	87.2	86.9	79.6	79.6	79.5	83.0	93.7	99.1
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	72.9	73.9	79.1	74.4	73.9	72.1	56.3	57.7	62.8	68.0	71.5
Fertilizer materials	70.0	69.2	71.2	65.9	66.3	67.1	65.9	66.9	76.8	85.6	92.1
Mixed fertilizers	72.9	72.2	73.2	68.4	70.6	72.5	64.5	69.3	82.0	93.6	97.2
Housefurnishing goods	**86.3**	**86.8**	**89.7**	**81.7**	**80.6**	**81.5**	**75.8**	**75.1**	**84.9**	**92.7**	**94.3**
Furnishings	91.1	90.8	93.4	85.3	84.2	84.1	76.6	75.4	82.2	91.4	93.6
Furniture	81.3	82.8	85.9	78.0	77.0	79.0	75.1	75.0	88.0	94.0	95.0
Miscellaneous	**74.8**	**73.3**	**77.8**	**70.5**	**68.3**	**69.7**	**62.5**	**64.4**	**69.8**	**77.7**	**82.6**
Automobile tires and tubes	59.5	57.7	55.8	47.2	45.7	44.9	42.1	41.1	46.0	51.3	54.5
Cattle feed	83.3	76.9	110.5	94.4	88.3	89.4	57.9	46.0	62.7	99.7	121.6
Paper and pulp	82.4	85.0	91.7	80.7	80.0	82.7	76.6	75.5	81.4	86.1	88.9
Rubber, crude	37.2	30.5	40.5	34.2	25.4	26.5	12.2	7.3	12.8	24.5	42.3
Other miscellaneous	82.6	81.5	84.7	81.1	80.0	82.1	76.2	83.7	88.0	95.5	98.4
Raw materials	**70.2**	**72.0**	**84.8**	**79.9**	**77.1**	**68.6**	**56.5**	**55.1**	**65.6**	**84.3**	**97.5**
Semimanufactured articles	**77.0**	**75.4**	**85.3**	**75.9**	**73.6**	**72.8**	**65.4**	**59.3**	**69.0**	**81.8**	**93.9**
Finished products	**80.4**	**82.2**	**87.2**	**82.0**	**82.2**	**78.2**	**70.5**	**70.3**	**77.0**	**88.0**	**94.5**
All commodities other than farm products	**79.5**	**80.6**	**86.2**	**80.7**	**80.2**	**76.9**	**69.0**	**68.3**	**74.6**	**85.9**	**93.3**
All commodities other than farm products and foods	**81.3**	**81.7**	**85.3**	**79.6**	**77.9**	**78.4**	**71.2**	**70.2**	**75.0**	**85.2**	**91.6**

[1] Data not available.

The December index of wholesale commodity prices remained at the November level, 79.2 percent of the 1926 average. The all-commodity index of 813 price series was 5.6 percent above the year's low point reached in August and, compared with December a year ago, the current index increased nearly 3 percent.

Five of the 10 groups advanced during the month. Except for textile products, which rose over 2 percent, the advances in each case were not more than ½ of 1 percent. Three groups declined. Fuel and lighting materials fell 1.8 percent; foods, 0.6 percent; and

hides and leather products, 0.3 percent. Prices of metals and metal products and building materials were quite steady and these group indexes were unchanged from November. All of the groups, except farm products, foods, and fuel and lighting materials, were above their year ago levels. The increases ranged from 1½ percent for metals and metal products to 18½ percent for textile products. The wholesale food group was 1.6 percent below a year ago and fuel and lighting materials dropped 0.5 percent. The farm products group index was the same as for December a year ago.

A comparison of the December 1939 level of wholesale prices with the year's high point (September), the low point (August), the preceding month (November), and the corresponding month of a year ago (December 1938) is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices and Percentage Changes by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities for Specified Periods*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	December 1939	November 1939	Percent change	September 1939	Percent of change to December	August 1939	Percent of change to December	December 1938	Percent of change to December 1939
All commodities	**79.2**	**79.2**	**0.0**	**79.1**	**+0.1**	**75.0**	**+5.6**	**77.0**	**+2.9**
Farm products	**67.6**	**67.3**	**+.4**	**68.7**	**−1.6**	**61.0**	**+10.8**	**67.6**	**0**
Grains	71.6	64.1	+11.7	65.1	+10.0	51.5	+39.0	54.4	+31.6
Livestock and poultry	63.8	66.1	−3.5	76.3	−16.4	66.0	−3.3	74.4	−14.2
Other farm products	68.4	68.3	+.1	64.6	+5.9	60.1	+13.8	66.5	+2.9
Foods	**71.9**	**72.3**	**−.6**	**75.1**	**−4.3**	**67.2**	**+7.0**	**73.1**	**−1.6**
Dairy products	81.3	80.1	+1.5	74.5	+9.1	67.9	+19.7	73.9	+10.0
Cereal products	80.5	78.0	+3.2	78.8	+2.2	71.9	+12.0	74.8	+7.6
Fruits and vegetables	63.0	61.2	+2.9	62.8	+.3	58.5	+7.7	60.4	+4.3
Meats	69.1	71.2	−2.9	81.0	−14.7	73.7	−6.2	79.9	−13.5
Other foods	66.5	69.2	−3.9	71.7	−7.3	60.3	+10.3	69.2	−3.9
Hides and leather products	**103.7**	**104.0**	**−.3**	**98.5**	**+5.3**	**92.7**	**+11.9**	**93.1**	**+11.4**
Shoes	107.5	107.2	+.3	101.8	+5.6	100.8	+6.6	100.6	+6.9
Hides and skins	105.2	104.3	+.9	97.4	+8.0	77.2	+36.3	78.8	+13.4
Leather	95.2	97.8	−2.7	92.0	+3.5	84.0	+13.3	85.9	+10.8
Other leather products	100.0	99.9	+.1	97.1	+3.0	97.1	+3.0	95.8	+10.4
Textile products	**78.0**	**76.4**	**+2.1**	**71.7**	**+8.8**	**67.8**	**+15.0**	**65.8**	**+18.5**
Clothing	84.2	83.8	+.5	81.7	+3.1	81.5	+3.3	81.6	+3.2
Cotton goods	75.2	74.8	+.5	70.4	+6.8	65.5	+14.8	64.6	+16.4
Hosiery and underwear	66.0	64.8	+1.9	62.8	+5.1	61.5	+7.3	59.3	+11.3
Silk and rayon	55.0	47.7	+15.3	43.4	+26.7	39.5	+39.2	30.8	+78.6
Woolen and worsted goods	90.3	90.5	−.2	84.0	+7.5	75.5	+19.6	74.8	+20.7
Other textile products	84.2	83.4	+1.0	69.8	+20.6	63.7	+32.2	64.4	+30.7
Fuel and lighting materials	**72.8**	**74.1**	**−1.8**	**72.8**	**0**	**72.6**	**+.3**	**73.2**	**−.5**
Anthracite	76.1	76.1	0	72.5	+5.0	72.1	+5.5	80.1	−5.0
Bituminous coal	97.8	98.1	−.3	96.7	+1.1	96.0	+1.9	98.5	−.7
Coke	109.9	111.2	−1.2	104.2	+5.5	104.2	+5.5	104.2	+5.5
Electricity	(1)	76.5	.....	77.5	.....	75.8	.....	82.7	.....
Gas	(1)	82.2	.....	87.2	.....	86.7	.....	81.6	.....
Petroleum products	52.5	53.9	−2.6	53.3	−1.5	51.7	+1.5	50.9	+3.1
Metals and metal products	**96.0**	**96.0**	**0**	**94.8**	**+1.3**	**93.2**	**+3.0**	**94.6**	**+1.5**
Agricultural implements	93.3	93.3	0	93.5	−.2	93.5	−.2	93.5	−.2
Farm machinery	94.6	94.6	0	94.7	−.1	94.7	−.1	94.8	−.2
Iron and steel	96.1	96.0	+.1	95.5	+.6	95.1	+1.1	96.8	−.7
Motor vehicles	94.7	94.7	0	92.1	+2.8	92.5	+2.4	93.4	+1.4
Nonferrous metals	84.6	85.1	−.6	84.7	−.1	74.6	+13.4	76.8	+10.2
Plumbing and heating	79.3	79.3	0	79.3	0	79.3	0	78.7	+.8

[1] Data not yet available.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices and Percentage Changes by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities for Specified Periods*—Continued

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	December 1939	November 1939	Percent change	September 1939	Percent of change to December	August 1939	Percent of change to December	December 1938	Percent of change to December 1939
Building materials	93.0	93.0	0	90.9	+2.3	89.6	+3.8	89.4	+4.0
Brick and tile	91.6	91.6	0	91.0	+.7	90.5	+1.2	91.5	+.1
Cement	91.3	91.3	0	91.3	0	91.3	0	90.6	+.8
Lumber	97.8	98.3	−.5	93.7	+4.4	91.8	+6.5	90.9	+7.6
Paint and paint materials	85.5	84.9	+.7	84.7	+.9	82.1	+4.1	81.0	+5.6
Plumbing and heating	79.3	79.3	0	79.3	0	79.3	0	78.7	+.8
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	92.7	92.9	−.2	90.3	+2.7	89.5	+3.6	89.7	+3.3
Chemicals and drugs	78.1	78.0	+.1	77.3	+1.0	74.6	+4.7	76.7	+1.8
Chemicals	81.1	81.4	−.4	81.2	−.1	77.5	+4.6	80.0	+1.4
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	75.6	75.0	+.8	72.8	+3.8	71.7	+5.4	73.5	+2.9
Fertilizer materials	74.5	73.0	+2.1	69.2	+7.7	67.2	+10.9	68.6	+8.6
Mixed fertilizers	73.7	72.6	+1.5	72.6	+1.5	72.9	+1.1	73.8	−.1
Housefurnishing goods	88.5	88.4	+.1	86.6	+2.2	85.6	+3.4	86.0	+2.9
Furnishings	94.4	94.2	+.2	91.7	+2.9	90.0	+4.9	90.3	+4.5
Furniture	82.4	82.3	+.1	81.3	+1.4	81.1	+1.6	81.6	+1.0
Miscellaneous	77.4	77.0	+.5	76.6	+1.0	73.3	+5.6	73.1	+5.9
Automobile tires and tubes	55.6	55.6	0	60.5	−8.1	60.5	−8.1	58.8	−5.4
Cattle feed	91.7	91.5	+.2	93.4	−1.8	68.4	+34.1	76.6	+19.7
Paper and pulp	89.0	88.0	+1.1	81.8	+8.8	80.0	+11.3	80.9	+10.0
Rubber, crude	42.4	42.5	−.2	47.7	−11.1	34.9	+21.5	33.9	+25.1
Other miscellaneous	86.6	86.0	+.7	82.8	+4.6	81.3	+6.5	81.1	+6.8
Raw materials	73.3	72.4	+1.2	72.6	+1.0	66.5	+10.2	70.9	+3.4
Semimanufactured articles	82.0	82.1	−.1	81.8	+.2	74.5	+10.1	75.2	+9.0
Finished products	81.7	82.0	−.4	81.9	−.2	79.1	+3.3	80.2	+1.9
All commodities other than farm products	81.6	81.6	0	81.3	+.4	77.9	+4.7	79.0	+3.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.9	84.0	−.1	82.1	+2.2	80.1	+4.7	80.3	+4.5

Average wholesale prices of raw materials advanced 1.2 percent during the month—3.4 percent above a year ago. Higher prices for grains, cotton, and import commodities, particularly bananas, flaxseed, silk, and jute, contributed largely to the advance. The semimanufactured articles group index declined 0.1 percent but was 9 percent above the December 1938 level. A decrease of 0.4 percent was recorded in the index for finished products during the month. Compared with a year ago, however, the finished products group index had risen nearly 2 percent.

According to the index for "all commodities other than farm products," average wholesale prices of nonagricultural commodities were firm during December. Industrial commodity prices as measured by the index for "all commodities other than farm products and foods," decreased 0.1 percent. These group indexes are 3.3 percent and 4.5 percent, respectively, above the corresponding month of last year.

The advance of 0.4 percent in the farm products group was the result of an 11.7 percent increase in grains together with higher prices for steers, cotton, milk, seeds, onions, and potatoes. The livestock

and poultry subgroup declined 3.5 percent, because of lower prices for calves, cows, hogs, sheep, and poultry (New York). Lower prices were reported also for eggs, lemons, oranges, hay, hops, peanuts, tobacco, sweetpotatoes, and wool. From December 1938 to December 1939, grain prices rose nearly 32 percent while livestock and poultry dropped over 14 percent.

Average prices of foods at wholesale decreased 0.6 percent during December, because of declines of 3.9 percent for "other foods" and 2.9 percent for meats. Quotations were lower for canned and dried fruits and vegetables, lamb, cured and fresh pork, veal, dressed poultry, coffee, copra, oleomargarine, oleo oil, sugar, tallow, and coconut, peanut, and olive oils. Cereal products advanced 3.2 percent; fruits and vegetables, 2.9 percent; and dairy products, 1.5 percent. Higher prices were reported for milk, flour, oatmeal, cornmeal, rice, bananas, fresh beef, mutton, cocoa beans, glucose, lard, pepper, and corn, cottonseed and soybean oils.

Sharp declines in prices of leather and sheep skins were responsible for a decrease of 0.3 percent in the hides and leather products group index. Prices for shoes, luggage, cow hides, and calfskins averaged above the November level.

Largely as a result of a 20-percent increase in prices of raw silk during December, the textile products group index rose to the highest point reached since the summer of 1937. The silk and rayon subgroup advanced 15.3 percent; hosiery and underwear, 1.9 percent; other textile products, 1.0 percent; and clothing and cotton goods, 0.5 percent. Among the important textile items for which higher prices were reported were overalls, denim, duck, osnaburg, tire fabrics, damask, cotton flannel, silk hosiery, silk and cotton underwear, raw silk, silk yarns, uniform serge, jute, sisal, and cordage. Lower prices were reported for cotton yarns, broadcloth, woolen yarns, burlap, and hemp. Each of the textile products subgroups showed substantial increases over a year ago. During the year period, silk and rayon advanced nearly 79 percent; other textile products, over 30 percent; woolen and worsted goods, more than 20 percent; cotton goods, 16 percent; hosiery and underwear, 11 percent; and clothing, 3 percent.

Weakening prices for coke, bituminous coal, fuel oil, and gasoline caused the fuel and lighting materials group index to decline 1.8 percent. Prices for crude petroleum, from the Pennsylvania field, were higher.

In the metals and metal products group, higher prices for wire rods, steel sheets, quicksilver, bar silver, and copper and brass manufactures were counterbalanced by lower prices for scrap steel, solder, pig tin, and pig zinc with the result that the group index remained unchanged at 96.0 percent of the 1926 average. Average wholesale

prices for agricultural implements, motor vehicles, and plumbing fixtures were steady.

The December index for the building materials group also remained at the November level, 93.0. Lumber, certain paint materials, plaster board, gravel, lime, and tar prices were lower. Quotations were higher for bone black, copal gum, Chinawood oil, linseed oil, shellac, turpentine, and prepared roofing. No changes were reported in prices of brick and tile, cement, and structural steel.

Higher prices for fertilizer materials, mixed fertilizers, camphor, castor oil, quinine, copperas, logwood extract, quebracho extract, salt cake, and toluene caused the chemicals and drugs group index to advance slightly. Prices of fats and oils averaged lower.

Advancing prices for bedding and oil cloth brought the house-furnishing goods group index to 88.5 percent of the 1926 average.

In the miscellaneous commodities group, cattle feed prices advanced slightly, because of higher prices for cottonseed and linseed meals. Quotations were higher also for paper and pulp, cooperage, cylinder oils, and wax. Lower prices were reported for bran, middlings, and crude rubber.

Index Numbers by Groups of Commodities

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1939, inclusive, and by months from December 1938 to December 1939, 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
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
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
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	83.9	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.6	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.5	86.3	74.8	77.1
By months:											
1938:											
December	67.6	73.1	93.1	65.8	73.2	94.6	89.4	76.7	86.0	73.1	77.0
1939:											
January	67.2	71.5	93.1	65.9	72.8	94.4	89.5	76.7	85.4	73.2	76.9
February	67.2	71.5	91.9	66.1	73.0	94.3	89.6	76.3	85.2	73.5	76.9
March	65.8	70.2	91.8	66.6	73.1	94.3	89.8	76.5	85.2	74.1	76.7
April	63.7	68.6	90.9	66.9	73.4	94.0	89.6	76.0	85.4	74.4	76.2
May	63.7	68.2	91.6	67.5	73.9	93.5	89.5	75.9	85.5	74.2	76.2
June	62.4	67.6	92.3	67.3	73.0	93.2	89.5	75.7	85.6	73.8	75.6
July	62.6	67.5	92.5	67.6	72.8	93.2	89.7	75.0	85.6	73.4	75.4
August	61.0	67.2	92.7	67.8	72.6	93.2	89.6	74.6	85.6	73.3	75.0
September	68.7	75.1	98.5	71.7	72.8	94.8	90.9	77.3	86.6	76.6	79.1
October	67.1	73.3	104.6	75.5	73.9	95.8	92.8	78.1	87.8	77.6	79.4
November	67.3	72.3	104.0	76.4	74.1	96.0	93.0	78.0	88.4	77.0	79.2
December	67.6	71.9	103.7	78.0	72.8	96.0	93.0	78.1	88.5	77.4	79.2

The trend in prices of raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 5.

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
By years:					
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
By months:					
1938:					
December	70.9	75.2	80.2	79.0	80.3
By months—Con.					
1939:					
January	70.9	74.9	80.0	78.9	80.2
February	70.9	74.4	80.2	78.9	80.2
March	70.1	74.6	80.2	79.0	80.4
April	68.5	74.4	80.1	78.8	80.5
May	68.9	74.3	79.9	78.8	80.6
June	67.7	74.1	79.6	78.4	80.2
July	67.8	74.4	79.2	78.1	80.2
August	66.5	74.5	79.1	77.9	80.1
September	72.6	81.8	81.9	81.3	82.1
October	72.3	83.1	82.3	82.0	83.8
November	72.4	82.1	82.0	81.6	84.0
December	73.3	82.0	81.7	81.6	83.9

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR DECEMBER 1939

Total Nonagricultural Employment

NONAGRICULTURAL employment increased by nearly a quarter of a million workers from mid-November to mid-December, due primarily to an increase of 390,000 workers in retail stores to handle increased volume of Christmas trade. This gain brought employment in nonagricultural industries in December to the highest level recorded since October 1937, the total being over 1,200,000 greater than in December 1938. The resumption of full activity by certain automobile plants which had been on strike resulted in factory employment showing a slight contraseasonal increase. These figures do not include emergency employment which increased 144,000 in December. Increases of 136,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration and 34,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration were partly offset by a decrease of 26,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Industrial and Business Employment

Increases in employment were shown by 37 of the 90 manufacturing industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and by 5 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered. Pay-roll gains were reported by 46 of the manufacturing and 8 of the nonmanufacturing industries.

The net gain from November of 0.3 percent, or 20,000 wage earners, in factory employment was the seventh consecutive monthly increase for this group and was in contrast to a seasonally expected decline of 1 percent, or 80,000 wage earners. Weekly factory pay rolls rose by 2.0 percent, or about $3,800,000, the average December change being an increase of about 0.2 percent. The December factory employment and pay-roll indexes were 10.7 and 18.9 percent, respectively, higher than a year ago. They were also higher than any recorded since the fall months of 1937, but were still substantially below the levels reached in the earlier months of that year.

The durable-goods group of industries continued to rise, while the nondurable-goods group showed a decline. The gains in the former group were chiefly contraseasonal or larger than seasonal, while the

declines among the industries comprising the latter group were largely of a seasonal nature. Among the more important increases in employment were automobiles (64,800 wage earners), foundries and machine shops (7,200), blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills (6,100), slaughtering and meat packing (5,300), electrical machinery (4,900), book and job printing (4,200), aircraft (3,800), boots and shoes (3,800), electric- and steam-railroad car building (3,600), shipbuilding (3,500), engines, turbines, and water wheels (3,200), and newspaper and periodical printing (2,300). Employment in the aircraft industry has expanded each month since September 1938 when the index stood at 774.2 percent of the 1923–25 level. In December it stood at 1,886.0, which was more than three and a half times the 1929 average. Among the manufacturing industries reporting large declines were canning and preserving (16,500 wage earners), sawmills (10,500), woolen and worsted goods (6,600), hosiery (6,200), radios and phonographs (5,100), women's clothing (4,300), and silk and rayon goods (3,000).

Retail stores reported a larger than seasonal employment gain of 12.3 percent for the Christmas trade. The general merchandising group, which includes department, variety, and general merchandising stores and mail-order houses, took on 37 percent more workers to handle the holiday trade. The employment index for this group climbed to 151.2 percent of the 1929 average, the highest point recorded over an 11-year interval. Apparel stores took on 11.9 percent more workers, jewelry stores added 24.5 percent more employees to their pay rolls, furniture stores showed an increase of 3.9 percent in the number of workers employed by them and hardware stores showed a gain of 5.2 percent. The remaining lines of retail trade also showed employment gains with the exception of "lumber and building materials" which showed a seasonal recession of 2.2 percent.

Wholesale trade as a whole showed virtually no change in employment since November. Among the more important lines showing employment gains were farm products, electrical goods, and paper and paper products. Among the lines showing declines were dry goods and apparel, metals and minerals, furniture and house furnishings, and lumber and building materials. Anthracite- and bituminous-coal mines reported small decreases in employment, coupled with substantial losses in pay rolls, resulting from sharply decreased production during the first half of December. Public utilities and other service industries reported small employment changes. Winter weather conditions brought a seasonal curtailment of employment in quarries. Employment in metal mines showed a gain of 1.2 percent, with the index standing at the highest level recorded in any month since January 1938.

Employment and pay rolls in private building construction decreased 6.9 and 7.0 percent, respectively, from November to December,

according to reports from 14,132 contractors employing 132,965 workers. These declines were less than the average decrease in December of the previous 7 years. Comparisons with December 1938 showed a gain of 5 percent in employment and 12.0 percent in weekly pay rolls. Seasonal reductions in employment from November to December were general throughout all parts of the country ranging from 2.6 to over 10 percent, with the exception of the East South Central area which showed a 3.5 percent gain. The reports on which these figures are based do not cover construction projects financed by the Work Projects Administration, the Public Works Administration, and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, or by regular appropriations of the Federal, State, or local governments.

Average pay rolls for the year 1939 were above those for 1938 for all of the industrial groups surveyed monthly by the Bureau except crude-petroleum producing, dyeing and cleaning, and brokerage. Average employment was higher for 8 groups: Manufacturing (7.9 percent), metalliferous mining (6.3 percent), quarrying and nonmetallic mining (5.4 percent), private building construction (1.9 percent), retail trade (1.5 percent), insurance (1.1 percent), wholesale trade (0.5 percent), and laundries (0.2 percent). Average employment was lower for the following industrial groups: Bituminous-coal mining (9.2 percent), crude-petroleum producing (8.7 percent), brokerage (3.7 percent), anthracite mining (3.3 percent), dyeing and cleaning (2.9 percent), electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance (1.0 percent), year-round hotels (0.8 percent), telephone and telegraph (0.5 percent), and electric light and power and manufactured gas (0.4 percent).

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission showed an employment decline by class I railroads from November to December of 2.8 percent, the total number of workers in December being 1,009,526. Corresponding pay rolls were not available when this report was prepared. For November they were $163,721,972, a decline of 4.8 percent over the October figure.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by wage earners in manufacturing industries were 38.6 in December, an increase of 0.1 percent since November. The average hourly earnings of these workers were 66.2 cents, an increase of 1.4 percent as compared with the preceding month. Average weekly earnings of factory workers were $26.27, a gain of 1.6 percent since November.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available 6 showed increases in average hours worked per week and 10 reported gains in average hourly earnings. Eight of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed reported higher average weekly earnings.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in December 1939 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals, are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, December 1939 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, December 1939	Percentage change from—		Index, December 1939	Percentage change from—		Average in December 1939	Percentage change from—	
		November 1939	December 1938		November 1939	December 1938		November 1939	December 1938
	(*1923–25 =100*)			(*1923–25 =100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	104.1	+0.3	+10.7	103.6	+2.0	+18.9	$26.27	+1.6	+7.3
Class I steam railroads [2]	56.5	−2.8	+7.0	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	(*1929= 100*)			(*1929= 100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite [4]	51.0	−.7	−.6	26.6	−36.7	−37.4	17.16	−36.2	−37.0
Bituminous [4]	93.2	−1.8	+4.3	85.0	−11.7	+5.0	24.83	−10.1	+.6
Metalliferous mining	67.2	+1.2	+8.0	65.3	+2.2	+20.6	30.43	+1.0	+11.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	44.0	−6.5	+6.2	39.1	−8.9	+16.2	22.07	−2.6	+9.4
Crude-petroleum producing	63.8	+([5])	−5.9	59.1	−.8	−5.3	33.46	−.9	+.6
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	74.7	−.4	+.6	95.0	+.6	+2.8	[6]31.29	+1.1	+2.2
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	93.0	−.4	+1.7	101.1	−.4	+2.9	[6]34.09	−.1	+1.1
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	69.6	−.3	+.3	70.8	+.4	+1.6	[6]33.32	+.7	+1.2
Trade:									
Wholesale	92.2	+.1	+2.4	79.1	+.1	+4.5	[6]29.85	+.1	+2.1
Retail	101.0	+12.3	+3.0	82.7	+10.7	+4.4	[6]20.19	−1.5	+1.5
General merchandising [7]	151.2	+37.0	+4.9	129.7	+35.4	+5.6	[6]17.05	−1.2	+.6
Other than general merchandising	87.8	+3.8	+2.0	73.0	+3.7	+4.0	[6]24.01	−.1	+1.9
Hotels (year-round) [4 7]	90.8	−1.1	−1.3	81.1	−.9	0	[6]15.59	+.2	+1.3
Laundries [4]	95.5	−.1	+2.3	83.7	+1.0	+4.6	18.07	+1.1	+2.2
Dyeing and cleaning [4]	97.3	−.5	−.6	69.7	−1.6	+2.0	19.83	−1.1	+2.6
Brokerage	[3]	−.6	−1.2	[3]	+1.8	−1.3	[6]37.41	+2.5	−.1
Insurance	[3]	+.1	+1.5	[3]	+1.3	+.4	[6]35.63	+1.2	−1.1
Building construction	[3]	−6.9	+5.0	[3]	−7.0	+12.0	30.91	−.1	+6.6

[1] Revised indexes; adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, Employment and Pay Rolls.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[6] Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.
[7] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

The completion of a number of projects brought employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds down to 167,000 in the month ending December 15, a decrease of 37,000 from the preceding month. The $15,913,000 paid to workers

on these projects was $3,239,000 less than the amount paid in November.

Approximately 3,000 more building-trades workers found employment on low-rent housing projects of the United States Housing Authority during the month ending December 15. Because of inclement weather that slowed work on some northern projects and the fact that a considerable number of the new employees worked only a small part of the month, wage payments to the 33,000 men employed were $68,000 less than in November. Pay rolls for December totaled $3,547,000. These figures cover new construction and demolition and pertain only to those projects started under the United States Housing Authority; those formerly under the Public Works Administration are shown under the Public Works Administration building construction projects in this report.

Seasonal curtailment of work on public road projects was again responsible for decreased employment on construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations. Increases were reported on reclamation, ship construction, water and sewerage, and miscellaneous projects while all other types of projects showed decreases. Employment on all types of projects for the month ending December 15 was 255,000, a decrease of 21,000 from November. Pay-roll disbursements for the month were $27,294,000.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation showed a loss of 300, leaving 2,300 employed in the month ending December 15. Wage payments for the month amounted to $251,000.

The seasonal increase of activity on work relief projects of the Work Projects Administration continued in December when 136,000 more persons were given employment. During the month 2,076,000 persons were employed as compared with 1,940,000 in November. Pay rolls of $107,856,000 were $6,324,000 greater than in November. Employment on Federal agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration rose from 88,000 in November to 98,000 in December. Pay rolls were $4,745,000.

Work projects of the National Youth Administration furnished employment to 34,000 additional youths during December and 11,000 more students were added to the rolls of the Student Aid program. Pay-roll disbursements on the work projects amounted to $5,428,000 and on the Student Aid program to $2,967,000.

The end of an enlistment period caused the number of persons employed in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps to drop 26,000 in December. Of the 309,000 on the pay roll, 272,000 were enrollees; 200, reserve officers; 1,600, educational advisers; 300, nurses; and 34,900, supervisory and technical employees. Pay-roll disbursements for the whole group were $13,776,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government, increases were reported in the executive and military services, while decreases were reported in the legislative and judicial services. Of the 988,000 employees in the executive service, 128,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 860,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees who are on the Federal pay roll and are engaged on construction projects) were 9.4 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. Increased employment was reported in the Post Office Department, the Department of the Interior, and the War and Navy Departments, while a decrease was reported in the Federal Works Agency.

Further seasonal curtailment of work on State-financed road projects resulted in a decrease of 15,000 in the month ending December 15. Of the 122,900 at work, 19,100 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 103,800 on maintenance. Pay rolls for both types of road work were $9,030,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll data for December is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, December and November 1939* [1] *(Preliminary Figures)*

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	December	November	Percentage change	December	November	Percentage change
Federal services:						
Executive [2]	987,538	[3] 932,641	+5.9	$152,331,559	[3] $141,406,641	+7.7
Judicial	2,268	2,359	−3.9	550,008	573,308	+4.1
Legislative	5,535	5,583	−.9	1,252,503	1,255,856	−.3
Military	421,245	402,513	+4.7	29,705,737	29,686,462	+.1
Construction projects:						
Financed by PWA [4]	166,657	204,036	−18.3	15,912,909	19,151,916	−16.9
USHA low-rent housing	33,170	29,562	+12.2	3,547,123	3,615,213	−1.9
Financed by RFC [5]	2,322	2,638	−12.0	250,882	308,911	−18.8
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	255,106	276,073	−7.6	27,293,719	28,688,231	−4.9
Federal agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration	98,109	87,955	+11.5	4,744,815	4,425,156	+7.2
Projects operated by WPA	2,076,089	[3] 1,939,586	+7.0	107,855,673	[3] 101,532,368	+6.2
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects	295,295	261,181	+13.1	5,428,157	4,850,311	+11.9
Student Aid	434,350	423,122	+2.7	2,967,327	2,958,862	+.3
Civilian Conservation Corps	308,569	335,099	−7.9	13,775,996	14,868,058	−7.3

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.

[2] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 129,938 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $15,987,842 for December 1939, and 129,095 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $16,415,643 for November 1939.

[3] Revised.

[4] Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 12,093 wage earners and $1,172,452 pay roll for December 1939; 12,439 wage earners and $1,213,687 pay roll for November 1939, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 147,856 wage earners and $14,038,629 pay roll for December 1939: 183,630 wage earners and $17,180,040 pay roll for November 1939, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

[5] Includes 932 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $93,259 for December 1939; 973 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $101,831 for November 1939 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR NOVEMBER 1939

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is furnished free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of November, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 90 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private 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. 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

The employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for September, October, and November 1939, where available, are presented in table 1. The September and October figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published, because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample vary slightly from month to month. Therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from November 1938 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

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TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923–25=100, and are adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures for all industries except automobiles. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	**103.8**	**103.6**	**100.2**	**101.8**	**101.6**	**93.8**	**$25.78**	**$25.81**	**$24.72**	**38.6**	**39.1**	**38.0**	**65.3**	**64.6**	**63.8**
Durable goods	**98.2**	**96.1**	**89.8**	**101.3**	**99.6**	**87.8**	**29.51**	**29.71**	**28.18**	**39.7**	**40.1**	**38.2**	**71.6**	**71.3**	**70.9**
Nondurable goods	**109.2**	**110.7**	**110.2**	**102.4**	**103.8**	**100.5**	**22.06**	**22.02**	**21.54**	**37.6**	**38.2**	**37.8**	**59.9**	**59.0**	**58.3**
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**111.1**	**106.8**	**97.2**	**114.6**	**112.1**	**92.8**	**30.60**	**31.10**	**28.25**	**39.6**	**40.3**	**37.0**	**76.7**	**76.4**	**76.1**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	121.8	115.1	101.1	127.3	123.6	95.3	33.08	33.91	29.77	39.2	40.0	35.2	84.7	84.8	84.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	118.3	113.4	100.7	142.4	137.5	111.1	29.32	29.56	26.90	43.0	42.8	39.2	68.2	68.9	68.7
Cast-iron pipe	77.4	76.6	74.6	73.9	71.4	62.9	23.12	22.60	20.48	39.4	38.5	34.9	58.3	58.3	57.9
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	109.3	103.9	96.9	102.6	95.0	84.7	24.38	23.75	22.72	41.9	41.5	39.3	59.4	58.6	59.0
Forgings, iron and steel	70.1	65.2	58.9	83.7	74.7	63.0	32.59	31.24	29.15	41.8	40.4	38.4	78.1	77.4	75.8
Hardware	106.4	99.7	94.2	118.6	109.6	113.9	27.58	27.13	29.85	40.3	40.2	41.4	68.5	67.6	72.2
Plumbers' supplies	83.2	82.1	79.5	77.6	79.9	71.8	27.07	28.18	26.13	39.7	41.3	38.8	68.2	68.3	67.4
Stamped and enameled ware	166.3	163.6	156.7	171.3	172.7	158.8	24.49	25.08	24.07	39.3	40.4	38.5	62.2	62.1	62.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	87.3	86.4	81.2	79.8	83.3	71.3	28.00	29.49	26.84	40.1	41.8	38.6	69.9	70.6	69.7
Stoves	96.1	97.4	92.0	87.5	93.9	82.2	26.18	27.68	25.65	38.9	41.2	38.8	67.4	67.4	66.3
Structural and ornamental metalwork	76.0	76.3	73.8	67.1	68.3	63.3	28.52	28.87	27.62	39.3	39.9	38.3	72.5	72.5	72.1
Tin cans and other tinware	100.0	105.7	107.0	104.7	111.3	117.4	23.82	23.86	24.86	38.9	39.1	40.5	61.8	61.0	61.5
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	95.2	90.9	85.8	96.7	91.7	81.6	25.62	25.41	24.02	41.7	41.1	38.9	62.0	62.0	61.9
Wirework	172.8	165.9	144.9	199.7	183.3	161.4	28.73	27.47	27.70	41.1	40.3	39.4	70.0	68.2	70.4
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**111.0**	**106.6**	**100.3**	**117.0**	**111.0**	**100.9**	**29.52**	**29.20**	**28.23**	**40.9**	**40.6**	**39.1**	**72.3**	**72.1**	**72.2**
Agricultural implements (including tractors)	124.6	117.8	116.1	140.5	131.3	125.0	30.27	29.92	28.91	38.7	38.4	37.3	78.7	78.2	77.8
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	127.1	126.3	126.7	128.6	126.1	123.6	31.93	31.50	30.80	38.9	38.4	37.5	82.3	82.2	82.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	100.4	97.3	92.2	109.6	105.7	98.4	29.34	29.24	28.71	40.2	40.0	38.9	73.1	73.3	74.0

Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills	109.8	105.2	99.2	139.1	129.2	116.2	33.46	32.48	30.97	42.1	41.1	39.6	79.9	79.4	78.7
Foundry and machine-shop products	95.4	91.2	85.8	94.3	89.5	80.2	29.43	29.27	27.86	40.9	40.8	38.9	72.0	71.8	71.5
Machine tools	183.9	170.6	156.2	237.8	207.6	181.8	35.91	33.80	32.19	47.0	44.9	43.0	76.5	75.4	75.0
Radio and phonographs	179.7	176.5	150.1	170.3	169.6	139.0	23.47	23.79	22.92	40.3	41.6	39.8	58.3	57.3	57.7
Textile machinery and parts	84.3	79.7	77.3	81.9	75.7	73.1	26.73	26.14	26.15	40.8	40.2	39.8	65.6	65.0	65.8
Typewriters and parts	128.0	124.1	122.0	125.7	125.9	122.2	24.09	24.88	24.58	37.9	39.2	38.5	63.5	63.5	63.8
Transportation equipment	**102.8**	**105.3**	**97.0**	**108.0**	**109.9**	**99.5**	**33.96**	**33.82**	**33.25**	**38.6**	**38.1**	**37.3**	**88.8**	**89.1**	**89.5**
Aircraft	1,749.5	1,556.4	1,466.5	1,718.0	1,512.1	1,361.6	30.65	30.30	29.07	41.8	41.8	40.0	74.8	74.8	74.2
Automobiles	102.1	107.8	98.7	109.3	113.3	102.9	35.32	34.75	34.41	38.4	37.7	36.9	92.5	92.2	93.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	46.5	40.7	33.2	40.2	37.5	27.5	27.03	28.85	25.96	37.1	37.5	34.8	72.8	76.8	74.6
Locomotives	26.1	25.5	27.6	25.0	24.6	25.6	29.55	29.75	28.57	37.8	38.5	37.3	77.9	77.3	76.6
Shipbuilding	132.9	133.6	129.0	141.0	143.6	134.8	31.85	32.26	31.41	37.9	38.3	37.4	84.4	84.2	82.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	**113.4**	**110.4**	**100.3**	**115.3**	**113.6**	**96.5**	**28.25**	**28.58**	**26.69**	**41.0**	**41.4**	**39.9**	**69.0**	**69.1**	**67.4**
Aluminum manufactures	173.3	168.1	150.9	194.3	190.8	166.7	27.37	27.70	26.97	40.7	41.2	39.5	67.2	67.0	68.0
Brass, bronze, and copper products	137.4	131.1	115.2	157.0	154.1	122.8	31.39	32.21	29.15	41.7	42.6	40.9	75.3	75.7	71.4
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	93.1	90.0	86.0	99.8	98.6	88.3	23.84	24.39	22.86	40.4	41.4	39.1	59.1	59.0	58.4
Jewelry	107.0	106.7	99.9	90.9	92.6	83.6	23.94	24.50	23.54	41.0	41.5	40.8	57.7	58.2	57.9
Lighting equipment	93.4	98.4	88.3	78.2	82.4	74.7	27.01	27.03	27.42	39.9	39.5	39.5	67.7	68.3	69.4
Silverware and plated ware	76.2	73.1	71.4	75.1	70.8	65.6	28.48	27.98	26.54	44.0	43.6	41.4	65.2	64.8	64.6
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	86.0	83.8	77.4	85.3	81.3	71.3	27.80	27.20	25.85	39.1	38.5	36.9	71.2	70.7	70.0
Lumber and allied products	**73.0**	**72.4**	**70.0**	**68.8**	**68.7**	**63.5**	**20.64**	**20.80**	**19.95**	**39.7**	**40.9**	**39.3**	**51.5**	**50.2**	**50.1**
Furniture	**96.8**	**94.6**	**90.7**	**86.2**	**84.9**	**78.1**	**21.63**	**21.72**	**20.95**	**40.5**	**41.3**	**39.8**	**53.6**	**52.7**	**53.0**
Lumber:															
Millwork	64.1	63.6	62.2	52.8	**52.0**	**49.7**	23.04	22.91	22.51	42.6	43.0	**42.1**	54.2	53.2	53.5
Sawmills	65.5	65.5	63.4	60.8	61.6	**56.5**	19.20	19.45	18.39	38.6	40.3	**38.4**	**49.7**	48.3	47.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	**85.6**	**84.8**	**81.7**	**78.7**	**80.3**	**71.7**	**25.09**	**25.98**	**24.03**	**37.8**	**39.2**	**37.0**	**65.7**	**65.4**	**64.7**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	64.6	64.8	63.2	54.3	56.6	50.4	21.67	22.51	20.66	38.6	40.5	**38.1**	**55.4**	55.1	54.0
Cement	70.4	71.6	71.4	66.6	71.3	67.8	27.09	28.48	27.04	38.8	40.4	**38.3**	**69.8**	**70.5**	70.7
Glass	109.8	106.9	100.9	120.2	121.2	105.0	26.80	27.71	25.43	36.5	**38.0**	**35.4**	**73.5**	**73.0**	71.8
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	50.1	51.2	51.6	38.5	39.2	38.5	26.76	26.71	26.00	38.0	**38.2**	**36.9**	**71.4**	70.0	70.3
Pottery	95.3	91.6	85.9	89.2	87.0	74.4	23.75	24.15	22.00	38.1	38.8	36.7	**62.1**	61.8	62.0
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	**107.9**	**108.3**	**104.5**	**92.9**	**93.7**	**86.6**	**17.72**	**17.58**	**16.91**	**36.1**	**36.7**	**35.5**	**49.4**	**48.6**	**48.2**
Fabrics	100.9	98.8	**93.5**	91.7	88.0	81.0	17.67	17.21	16.73	37.3	37.8	37.0	47.8	46.4	46.1
Carpets and rugs	85.1	**83.2**	**78.3**	**75.8**	74.8	68.3	24.66	25.01	24.28	37.3	37.7	36.8	66.1	66.4	65.9
Cotton goods	96.8	**94.3**	**89.4**	90.8	84.2	79.2	15.37	14.61	14.49	37.4	38.0	37.8	**41.0**	38.4	38.4
Cotton small wares	**93.1**	**92.1**	**84.3**	90.5	89.2	81.5	18.89	18.93	18.81	39.7	39.6	**39.5**	**48.4**	48.1	48.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles	**134.2**	**132.9**	**125.0**	115.2	115.5	107.7	20.96	21.21	20.99	38.7	39.5	**39.1**	**53.7**	53.1	53.1
Hats, fur-felt	88.4	85.7	90.0	73.1	61.4	73.5	22.41	19.34	21.95	31.4	27.6	31.1	**71.2**	69.7	69.3
Hosiery	**154.7**	**153.8**	**149.8**	**170.0**	**173.8**	**156.4**	**19.83**	**20.40**	**18.85**	**36.0**	**37.1**	**35.5**	**55.8**	**55.5**	**53.4**
Knitted outerwear	**77.7**	**81.7**	**78.6**	**63.5**	**69.7**	**61.9**	**17.62**	**18.31**	**16.90**	**36.9**	**39.3**	**36.8**	**47.1**	**46.1**	**45.6**
Knitted underwear	**80.8**	**80.2**	**77.7**	**75.0**	**74.1**	**67.1**	**15.72**	**15.60**	**14.66**	**37.5**	**38.4**	**36.4**	**42.1**	**40.7**	**40.4**
Knitted cloth	**153.9**	**152.1**	**143.2**	**130.2**	**132.2**	**120.9**	**19.21**	**19.74**	**19.17**	**39.0**	**41.0**	**39.7**	**46.7**	**45.8**	**45.9**
Silk and rayon goods	**67.6**	**66.7**	**63.2**	**60.0**	**57.1**	**52.1**	**16.90**	**16.31**	**15.71**	**37.4**	**38.0**	**36.6**	**44.9**	**42.6**	**42.6**
Woolen and worsted goods	**95.0**	**90.9**	**82.1**	**82.3**	**76.6**	**67.6**	**19.98**	**19.46**	**19.00**	**37.8**	**37.1**	**36.0**	**52.7**	**52.5**	**52.9**

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100, and are adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures for all industries except automobiles. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939	November 1939	October 1939	September 1939
													Cents	*Cents*	
Textiles and their products—Continued.															
Wearing apparel	118.7	124.7	124.8	89.2	98.7	92.1	$17.86	$18.63	$17.40	33.7	34.5	32.8	52.5	52.7	51.9
Clothing, men's	104.7	109 4	110.6	76.1	82.9	79.6	18.84	19.65	18.62	32.2	33.6	31.9	58.4	57.8	57.5
Clothing, women's	168.0	178.2	178.8	116.1	133.2	118.1	18.64	20.15	17.82	33.6	33.6	31.8	52.2	54.0	51.2
Corsets and allied garments	116.9	117.6	115.9	121.6	126.5	120.3	17.14	17.78	17.13	36.7	38.6	37.4	46.0	45.6	45.4
Men's furnishings	136.7	143.7	132.6	138.8	142.9	120.7	15.73	15.33	13.99	37.4	39.0	35.7	41.1	38.4	38.0
Millinery	66.5	82.0	88.5	48.5	61.5	81.3	20.53	21.11	25.70	32.5	34.9	36.8	63.6	60.8	64.3
Shirts and collars	127.6	126.9	123.2	116.9	115.7	102.3	14.71	14.64	13.29	36.0	37.3	34.5	41.2	39.3	38.5
Leather and its manufactures	91.9	96.2	97.8	71.1	76.5	76.6	18.20	18.74	18.45	33.8	35.3	34.8	53.9	53.2	53.2
Boots and shoes	89.0	94.1	96.5	64.6	71.1	72.4	16.46	17.20	17.04	32.5	34.3	33.9	51.4	50.8	50.8
Leather	87.9	88.4	86.5	87.2	88.2	84.2	24.76	24.91	24.32	38.7	39.4	38.6	63.9	63.3	63.4
Food and kindred products	129.7	137.6	150.7	125.3	129.9	139.7	24.93	24.35	24.19	40.1	40.5	41.6	62.5	60.8	58.5
Baking	146.5	148.0	148.0	136.9	136.6	138.8	25.97	25.65	26.00	41.7	41.4	42.1	62.7	62.3	62.0
Beverages	261.2	270.9	287.4	293.7	309.0	335.5	32.89	33.29	34.04	37.7	38.7	39.8	88.1	87.1	86.4
Butter	94.1	95.0	99.1	79.3	81.6	83.8	22.47	22.99	22.72	46.3	47.2	47.1	48.5	48.7	48.3
Canning and preserving	120.4	180.7	303.7	100.7	154.1	264.3	16.55	16.87	17.32	34.8	38.1	41.0	48.8	45.7	43.2
Confectionery	98.0	96.8	91.4	96.2	96.0	91.5	19.06	19.25	19.43	39.5	40.7	40.6	48.8	48.0	48.6
Flour	77.9	82.3	84.3	70.5	82.6	93.6	24.48	27.06	29.98	40.5	43.1	47.3	60.2	61.4	62.8
Ice cream	69.3	73.0	82.3	57.8	62.2	68.6	29.32	29.97	29.31	44.1	46.3	46.1	64.2	63.9	63.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	108.0	102.7	101.3	112.5	107.7	107.9	27.45	27.60	27.99	40.0	40.3	40.8	68.4	68.5	68.6
Sugar, beet	286.5	286.5	120.8	283.7	244.9	116.6	25.77	22.25	25.12	49.2	42.3	42.1	52.9	52.6	61.4
Sugar refining, cane	93.0	100.9	90.7	77.2	86.5	86.3	23.35	24.12	26.75	37.2	38.1	43.0	62.8	63.3	62.2
Tobacco manufactures	66.4	66.7	66.4	62.9	63.4	62.9	17.50	17.55	17.44	36.6	37.0	36.9	47.9	47.4	47.5
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	61.0	62.4	61.2	67.7	70.8	67.1	17.92	18.37	17.73	34.2	35.2	34.4	52.4	52.1	51.5
Cigars and cigarettes	66.9	67.2	67.0	62.2	62.4	62.3	17.40	17.36	17.37	36.9	37.2	37.2	47.4	46.9	47.0
Paper and printing	117.5	116.5	113.2	114.2	113.8	109.3	29.22	29.40	28.89	39.6	39.7	39.0	77.2	77.3	77.4
Boxes, paper	128.9	128.3	118.8	145.4	150.6	133.2	22.60	23.46	22.28	41.7	43.4	41.3	54.5	54.6	54.4
Paper and pulp	115.2	113.6	108.8	124.6	125.6	113.4	26.61	27.19	25.64	42.5	43.2	41.4	62.7	62.9	62.0
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	101.0	99.1	98.3	88.7	84.4	85.6	30.71	29.76	30.38	38.8	37.8	38.3	80.3	80.1	80.5
Newspapers and periodicals	116.6	117.2	116.2	109.3	110.4	109.8	37.83	37.92	38.03	36.2	36.2	36.3	101.3	101.3	100.7
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products	122.6	122.3	118.0	133.0	133.3	124.6	29.52	29.54	28.74	38.8	39.8	38.8	75.2	73.8	74.1
Petroleum refining	123.7	122.7	123.1	137.9	140.0	134.8	34.94	35.77	34.38	36.1	36.9	35.6	97.2	97.4	96.9
Other than petroleum refining	122.3	122.2	116.7	131.4	131.2	121.5	27.25	26.99	26.31	39.8	40.8	39.9	67.7	65.9	65.8
Chemicals	137.5	133.6	123.6	161.2	157.9	139.7	31.73	32.51	31.08	40.3	41.2	39.8	78.7	78.9	78.1

Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	121.1	138.7	120.2	113.3	120.2	99.9	15.36	14.21	13.76	44.9	48.5	47.1	33.1	28.6	28.9
Druggists' preparations	117.7	116.7	113.9	131.1	133.0	123.8	25.24	25.82	24.65	40.6	41.5	39.3	59.5	59.5	59.6
Explosives	106.1	104.2	99.9	127.6	125.2	114.4	32.98	33.07	31.52	39.9	39.9	39.0	82.6	83.0	80.7
Fertilizers	91.5	98.5	98.4	75.9	79.8	86.3	15.32	14.91	16.27	34.0	35.5	36.8	45.1	42.0	44.2
Paints and varnishes	125.1	125.1	122.1	131.5	134.6	127.5	28.72	29.46	28.65	40.2	41.4	40.7	71.5	71.2	70.4
Rayon and allied products	313.4	310.2	300.2	310.4	303.0	286.4	25.42	25.03	24.49	38.6	38.7	37.9	65.9	64.6	64.6
Soap	88.6	90.4	88.5	104.4	109.0	107.1	27.60	28.23	28.33	39.6	40.6	40.3	69.7	69.6	70.3
Rubber products	94.0	92.4	86.0	100.1	101.9	91.0	29.02	30.11	28.93	38.0	39.2	37.6	76.8	76.9	76.8
Rubber boots and shoes	62.3	62.2	59.8	66.6	63.5	62.2	24.51	23.45	23.89	40.1	38.4	38.8	61.1	61.1	61.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes	74.6	73.6	70.0	86.4	90.6	82.7	33.78	35.91	34.55	35.2	37.5	36.2	95.9	96.1	95.9
Rubber goods, other	161.3	157.5	141.6	162.6	161.2	134.9	24.55	25.01	23.20	40.3	41.3	38.8	61.4	61.2	60.3

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	
Coal mining:																
Anthracite [2]	51.3	51.9	49.4	42.0	52.2	40.1	$26.90	$33.03	$26.64	28.8	35.6	28.4	92.3	93.0	92.0	
Bituminous [2]	95.0	93.0	85.4	96.7	97.6	80.2	27.84	28.49	25.51	31.7	32.6	28.5	89.0	88.2	89.6	
Metalliferous mining	66.3	65.3	62.9	63.7	63.4	55.1	30.15	30.64	27.60	41.2	42.4	39.6	73.5	72.7	70.1	
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	47.0	48.0	47.9	42.9	45.6	42.7	22.07	23.23	22.25	40.1	42.3	40.4	54.5	54.3	54.9	
Crude-petroleum producing	63.7	64.3	65.6	59.3	58.8	60.8	33.71	33.71	34.33	38.4	37.5	38.3	88.4	88.5	87.8	
Public utilities:																
Telephone and telegraph [3]	74.8	75.4	75.3	94.5	95.2	94.9	30.80	31.25	31.22	38.9	39.1	39.5	79.7	80.5	79.6	
Electric light and power and manufactured gas [3]	93.4	93.5	93.7	101.5	101.0	101.0	34.33	33.68	33.73	40.1	39.2	39.5	85.8	85.6	85.1	
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [3]	69.8	70.1	69.8	70.6	72.4	70.4	32.81	33.75	32.91	46.0	46.5	45.4	70.3	71.6	71.5	
Trade:																
Wholesale [3]	92.4	92.4	90.5	79.3	80.3	78.0	29.94	30.27	29.99	41.6	42.1	41.6	72.0	71.8	71.6	
Retail [3]	89.9	88.4	87.3	74.8	74.1	72.3	20.82	21.17	20.95	42.4	42.7	42.5	55.1	55.1	54.7	
General merchandising [3]	110.4	103.2	100.1	95.8	91.7	88.3	17.30	17.71	17.62	38.8	39.0	38.9	47.5	48.4	48.0	
Other than general merchandising [3]	84.5	84.5	83.9	70.4	70.5	69.0	24.10	24.16	23.77	43.6	43.9	43.6	57.6	57.2	56.8	
Hotels (year-round) [2 3 4]	91.9	92.9	91.3	81.9	82.2	80.4	15.53	15.43	15.25	46.8	46.4	46.5	33.1	33.0	32.6	
Laundries [2]	95.6	96.0	97.8	82.9	83.9	84.5	17.75	17.84	17.59	42.4	42.7	42.5	42.0	41.8	41.4	
Dyeing and cleaning [2]	99.5	105.1	105.2	72.1	77.3	78.3	19.95	20.32	20.48	41.3	42.5	42.7	50.1	49.1	49.3	
Brokerage [3 5]	−1.2	−.6	+8.1	−1.3	−1.3	+10.6	36.17	36.65	36.31	[6]	[6]	[6]	[6]	[6]	[6]	
Insurance [3 5]	−.2	−.2	−.4	+.2	−[7]	−.4	34.58	36.14	35.94	[6]	[6]	[6]	[6]	[6]	[6]	
Building construction [5]	−3.1	−.6	+.6	−3.6	−1.0	+1.5	30.89	31.08	31.05	33.4	34.0	33.9	92.6	91.6	91.8	

[1] Revised series for "all manufacturing," for various groups under manufacturing, for sawmills, fertilizers, soap, and telephone and telegraph. Mimeographed sheets, giving averages for these, as well as for the remaining industries covered, by years, 1932 to 1938, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to September 1939, inclusive, available on request. 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 not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

[2] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of this publication.

[3] Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not strictly comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

[4] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[5] Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available, percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

[6] Not available.

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

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in table 2 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, from November 1938 to November 1939, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to November 1939.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 manufacturing industries. These reports 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 90 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and the clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale trade and dyeing and cleaning to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

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 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing [1] and Nonmanufacturing [2] Industries, November 1938 to November 1939, Inclusive*

Industry	Av. 1938	1938		1939										
		Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
Employment														
Manufacturing														
All industries	89.7	93.3	94.0	92.2	93.6	94.3	94.1	93.0	93.4	93.5	96.3	100.2	103.6	103.8
Durable goods [3]	77.9	82.9	83.8	82.3	83.3	84.1	84.8	84.0	84.6	83.0	83.9	89.8	96.1	98.2
Nondurable goods [4]	100.9	103.1	103.8	101.7	103.5	104.0	103.0	101.6	101.8	103.5	108.1	110.2	110.7	109.2
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining	52.3	51.0	51.3	50.0	52.2	51.7	53.0	52.6	51.2	44.7	48.5	49.4	51.9	51.3
Bituminous-coal mining	86.7	88.6	89.3	88.7	88.6	87.4	25.9	47.9	78.3	79.4	81.4	85.4	93.0	95.0
Metalliferous mining	59.0	61.9	62.3	62.6	60.9	61.0	61.5	61.9	61.6	60.4	60.4	62.9	65.3	66.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	42.3	44.4	41.4	38.3	37.9	40.1	43.0	45.6	47.3	47.5	48.1	47.9	48.0	47.0
Crude-petroleum producing	72.1	68.3	67.8	67.0	66.4	66.2	65.8	66.1	67.0	67.3	66.7	65.0	64.3	63.7
Telephone and telegraph	75.1	74.4	74.3	74.1	73.3	73.4	74.1	74.7	75.3	75.4	75.5	75.3	75.4	74.8
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas	92.3	91.9	91.4	90.0	89.6	89.5	90.3	91.0	92.3	93.2	93.8	93.7	93.5	93.4
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	70.3	69.5	69.4	69.2	69.3	69.5	69.1	69.6	69.9	69.7	69.8	69.8	70.1	69.8
Wholesale trade	88.8	89.8	90.0	88.3	87.9	87.4	87.3	87.2	88.1	87.9	89.0	90.5	92.4	92.4
Retail trade	85.2	86.9	98.1	82.2	81.5	83.8	85.5	85.7	86.4	83.6	82.5	87.3	88.4	89.9
General merchandising	98.0	104.5	144.1	90.7	88.8	93.2	96.9	96.8	97.4	91.7	89.8	100.1	103.2	110.4
Other than general merchandising	81.8	82.3	86.0	80.0	79.6	81.3	82.5	82.8	83.5	81.5	80.6	83.9	84.5	84.5
Year-round hotels	92.7	92.5	92.0	91.8	92.6	92.7	93.2	93.9	92.8	90.3	89.8	91.3	92.9	91.9
Laundries	95.7	93.7	93.4	93.3	92.8	92.9	93.5	95.5	98.7	100.0	99.1	97.8	96.0	95.6
Dyeing and cleaning	104.3	102.5	97.9	94.2	92.1	95.4	102.2	107.0	110.1	106.5	102.7	105.2	105.1	99.5
Pay rolls														
Manufacturing														
All industries	77.9	84.4	87.1	83.7	86.0	87.6	85.5	85.0	86.5	84.4	89.7	93.8	101.6	101.8
Durable goods [3]	67.6	77.6	79.6	76.0	77.7	79.4	79.5	78.8	80.7	76.0	81.5	87.8	99.6	101.3
Nondurable goods [4]	89.6	92.1	95.4	92.4	95.3	96.7	92.2	91.9	93.0	93.7	99.0	100.5	103.8	103.4
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining	38.2	36.2	42.5	38.0	45.2	34.2	43.4	57.0	36.1	25.2	33.8	40.1	52.2	42.0
Bituminous-coal mining	67.9	81.4	80.9	78.2	81.2	77.8	17.6	20.4	66.5	64.5	74.6	80.2	97.6	96.7
Metalliferous mining	50.4	52.3	54.1	55.3	53.4	53.6	52.6	54.1	53.8	48.5	53.0	55.1	63.4	63.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	35.1	37.2	33.7	30.2	29.7	33.1	35.9	39.7	41.7	40.9	42.9	42.7	45.6	42.9
Crude-petroleum producing	66.5	63.3	62.5	60.9	62.7	61.3	60.8	61.2	62.5	61.9	62.0	60.8	58.8	59.3
Telephone and telegraph	92.1	93.0	92.5	92.0	91.7	91.9	92.1	93.7	93.7	94.6	94.3	94.9	95.2	94.5
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas	98.5	98.6	98.2	95.9	96.4	96.7	96.9	98.8	100.2	100.0	101.1	101.0	101.0	101.5
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance	69.7	68.8 75.4	69.7 75.7	71.1 75.5	69.9 74.6	70.5 74.7	69.6 74.8	70.1 74.9	71.2 75.8	70.6 75.8	71.0 76.2	70.4 78.0	72.4 80.3	70.6 79.3
Wholesale trade	74.7	71.5	79.2	69.7	68.4	69.6	71.3	71.5	72.5	70.9	69.4	72.3	74.1	74.8
Retail trade	70.4													
General merchandising	87.8	91.8	122.9	84.0	81.0	83.4	86.6	86.7	88.1	83.8	81.1	88.3	91.7	95.8
Other than general chandising	66.8	67.3	70.1	66.7	65.8	66.8	68.1	68.3	69.3	68.2	67.0	69.0	70.5	70.4
Year-round hotels	80.3	81.3	81.1	80.2	82.8	81.1	81.9	82.4	82.0	79.1	79.2	80.4	82.2	81.9
Laundries	80.6	79.3	80.0	79.6	78.6	79.3	79.9	83.9	86.9	88.0	85.9	84.5	83.9	82.9
Dyeing and cleaning	75.3	73.9	68.3	65.8	63.2	67.7	73.3	83.0	84.2	77.1	73.0	78.3	77.3	72.1

[1] 3-year average, 1923–25=100—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.

[2] 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review, except for anthracite and bituminous-coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning. Indexes for these industries from January 1929 forward have been adjusted to the 1935 census and are presented in the January 1938 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls.

[3] Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.

[4] Includes: 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.

TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in October and November 1939 is shown in table 3 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 total for all groups 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 90 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 (except building construction), and seasonal hotels.

Similar comparisons showing only percentage changes are available in mimeographed form for all groups combined, all manufacturing, anthracite mining, bituminous-coal mining, metalliferous mining, quarrying and nonmetallic mining, crude-petroleum production, public utilities, wholesale trade, retail trade, hotels, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and brokerage and insurance.

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1939, 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 November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
New England	**11,864**	**918,210**	**+1.3**	**21,934,720**	**+2.9**	**3,543**	**656,718**	**+1.7**	**15,358,620**	**+4.2**
Maine	760	53,928	−1.5	1,109,996	−1.3	273	46,119	−1.6	929,648	−1.3
New Hampshire	540	38,512	+.7	784,056	+3.7	207	34,623	+.8	705,163	+4.1
Vermont	430	18,666	+5.8	431,699	+5.7	148	12,569	+9.2	291,939	+9.4
Massachusetts	[1] *7,546*	*494,910*	*+.3*	*11,832,563*	*+1.0*	*1,797*	*294,437*	*+.4*	*6,729,229*	*+1.9*
Rhode Island	817	100,543	+3.2	2,198,172	+12.0	417	85,272	+3.4	1,846,534	+14.3
Connecticut	1,771	211,651	+3.3	5,578,234	+4.5	701	183,698	+3.6	4,857,107	+4.8
Middle Atlantic	**31,383**	**2,254,399**	**+1.5**	**61,613,755**	**+.4**	**6,788**	**1,376,820**	**+1.5**	**37,656,616**	**+1.4**
New York	19,439	979,878	+.8	27,187,624	+.5	[2] *2,756*	*482,591*	*+.7*	*13,370,389*	*+.4*
New Jersey	3,587	372,493	+1.5	10,094,003	+1.8	1,610	324,424	+1.8	8,842,267	+1.9
Pennsylvania	8,357	902,028	+2.3	24,332,128	−.2	*2,422*	*569,805*	[3] *+1.5*	*15,443,960*	[3] *+1.5*
East North Central	**23,770**	**2,207,968**	**+.5**	**62,984,860**	**−.8**	**8,212**	**1,694,810**	**—(4)**	**49,950,000**	**−1.5**
Ohio	6,291	546,253	+1.4	15,748,868	+.2	2,316	436,443	+1.4	12,966,460	+.2
Indiana	*2,935*	*286,829*	*+1.2*	*7,869,855*	*−.3*	*1,082*	*234,452*	[3] *+1.3*	*6,677,154*	[3] *+.4*
Illinois	[5] *6,756*	*653,239*	*+1.9*	*17,693,497*	*−.1*	*2,356*	*436,521*	*+2.0*	*11,921,402*	*−.1*
Michigan	3,575	468,869	−3.9	14,916,487	−4.2	*1,006*	*411,368*	*−5.9*	*13,574,325*	*−6.7*
Wisconsin	[6] *4,213*	*252,778*	*+2.4*	*6,756,153*	*+2.3*	[7] *1,452*	*176,026*	[3] *+3.1*	*4,810,659*	[3] *+3.3*

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1939, by Geographic Divisions and by States*—Continued

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
West North Central	10,701	426,882	+0.2	10,665,515	−0.8	2,404	220,959	+0.8	5,508,067	+0.6
Minnesota	[5] *2,632*	*133,010*	−.4	*3,654,499*	*−1.8*	*630*	*53,398*	+.6	*1,452,147*	+.5
Iowa	1,543	59,811	+3.1	1,458,926	+1.1	356	38,440	+5.1	963,598	+2.9
Missouri	2,460	144,764	−.4	3,465,771	−1.0	774	90,886	−.8	2,132,906	−.6
North Dakota	417	3,449	−2.0	83 211	−6.3	25	352	−8.3	9,150	−9.1
South Dakota	382	3,694	−[4]	79,966	+2.3	28	889	+3.5	19,425	+17.2
Nebraska	867	26 432	+.2	614,011	+3.5	133	11.044	+1.2	281,372	+10.5
Kansas	[9] *2,400*	*55,722*	[10]*−1.9*	*1,309,131*	[3]*−2.4*	*458*	*25,950*	+.8	*649,469*	*−2.3*
South Atlantic	8,967	869,422	+1.7	17,973,227	+2.3	2,872	630,008	+1.6	12,180,730	+2.9
Delaware	226	16,212	−.1	404.493	+1.0	*79*	*11.572*	−.4	*282,745*	+.9
Maryland	*1,569*	*153,382*	*+2.3*	*3,927,330*	*+2.1*	*642*	*110,719*	[3]+.7	*2,871,962*	[3]+.8
District of Columbia	931	28,992	+1.7	757,322	+.9	37	3,083	−.6	106,143	−.8
Virginia	1,513	117,724	+.3	2,326,887	+1.2	451	87,080	−.1	1,690,200	+1.9
West Virginia	1,017	138,977	+2.4	3,855,131	+1.0	200	54.636	+3.6	1,470,977	+1.7
North Carolina	1,306	171,636	+1.3	2,786,176	+2.4	649	158,618	+1.3	2.581,195	+2.4
South Carolina	625	86,372	+2.8	1,320,693	+5.9	259	81,542	+3.1	1,234,898	+6.6
Georgia	1,003	117,361	+.8	1,900,885	+3.9	377	100,718	+.9	1,562,890	+5.2
Florida	777	38,766	+4.4	694,310	+5.0	178	22,040	+3.0	379,720	+2.9
East South Central	3,526	279,034	+1.2	5,362,360	−.2	991	192,116	+1.5	3,544,729	+1.1
Kentucky	1,028	76,213	+1.8	1,722,826	−2.9	283	35,000	+3.2	759,403	−1.7
Tennessee	953	94,809	+1.2	1,725,061	+.7	339	75,646	+1.3	1,396,345	+1.0
Alabama	1,185	88,157	+1.1	1,619,044	+1.7	274	66,067	+1.4	1,169,550	+3.1
Mississippi	360	19,855	−.4	295,429	+.6	95	15,403	−.2	219,431	+1.1
West South Central	4,911	211,343	−.4	4,736,186	−1.0	1,231	113,124	−1.1	2,458,126	−1.8
Arkansas	[11] *752*	*26,948*	*−3.0*	*431,754*	−.4	*246*	*19,404*	*−2.8*	*303,779*	*−.1*
Louisiana	716	49,525	−.8	987,505	+.2	232	31,680	−2.1	619.650	+1.2
Oklahoma	1,144	35,343	+.6	871,111	−1.1	138	12,051	+1.4	287,770	−1.9
Texas	*2,299*	*100,027*	+.2	*2,445,816*	*−1.5*	*615*	*49,989*	[3]−.7	*1,246,927*	[3]*−2.9*
Mountain	3,427	114,469	−.9	3,022,812	+.6	534	37,155	−5.5	957,619	+1.7
Montana	497	17,192	+5.7	482.690	+5.1	73	5,888	−1.6	158,380	−6.0
Idaho	408	10,667	+.9	274,924	−1.5	56	4,187	−2.0	107,333	−5.7
Wyoming	298	8,124	−.2	233,502	−6.4	38	1,833	+.3	54.082	−2.1
Colorado	1,020	34,377	−3.0	891,351	+2.8	193	14,099	−5.6	370,722	+10.3
New Mexico	245	5,228	−.3	114.087	−.1	29	716	+5.0	13,720	+4.0
Arizona	374	15,792	+2.0	449.897	+1.2	37	2,672	+.6	66,976	−.2
Utah	488	20,963	−5.6	511,763	−2.1	94	7,476	−13.3	177,998	+.8
Nevada	97	2,126	−1.7	64,598	−4.1	14	284	−15.2	8,408	−26.8
Pacific	9,549	475,455	−3.4	13,747,119	−4.5	2,679	264,361	−5.0	7,540,786	−5.5
Washington	1,990	83,977	−3.5	2,319,067	−3.8	519	54,851	−4.2	1,53o, 324	−4.4
Oregon	839	39,771	−4.0	1,004,480	−7.8	284	29,423	−5.0	759,797	−9.2
California	[12] *6,720*	*351,707*	*−3.3*	*10,423,572*	*−4.3*	*1,876*	*180,087*	*−5.2*	*5,242,665*	*−5.3*

[1] Includes banks and trust companies; construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment; amusement and recreation; professional services; and trucking and handling.
[2] Includes laundering and cleaning; and water, light, and power.
[3] Weighted percentage change.
[4] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[5] Includes automobile and miscellaneous services; restaurants; and building and contracting.
[6] Includes construction but not public works.
[7] Does not include logging.
[8] Includes banks; real estate; pipe-line transportation; motor transportation (other than operation and maintenance); water transportation; hospitals and clinics; and personal, business, mechanical repair, and miscellaneous services.
[9] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[10] Weighted percentage change, including hired farm labor.
[11] Includes automobile dealers and garages; and sand, gravel, and building stone.
[12] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in October and November 1939 is made in table 4 for 13 metropolitan areas, each of which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas, but having a population of 100,000 or over, are not included. Footnotes to the table specify which cities are excluded. Data concerning them have been prepared in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more according to the 1930 Census of Population.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1939, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments, November 1939	Number on pay roll, November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week), November 1939	Percentage change from October 1939
New York [1]	13,375	633,075	+0.6	$17,256,753	+0.6
Chicago [2]	4,295	446,857	+2.5	12,350,912	+.4
Philadelphia [3]	2,266	223,782	+.7	6,128,740	+.1
Detroit	1,441	281,416	−8.2	9,451,411	−8.2
Los Angeles [4]	2,749	156,851	+.1	4,570,718	−1.5
Cleveland	1,472	116,559	+2.6	3,541,897	+1.2
St. Louis	1,288	114,364	+.8	2,859,725	−.6
Baltimore	1,124	116,747	+2.3	3,006,162	+2.3
Boston [5]	2,961	188,147	+.1	4,611,784	+(6)
Pittsburgh	1,181	200,697	+4.0	6,110,925	+2.3
San Francisco [7]	1,540	77,229	−3.8	2,334,186	−6.2
Buffalo	777	74,973	+3.7	2,106,759	+2.9
Milwaukee	947	98,111	+5.0	2,781,958	+6.3

[1] Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J., or Yonkers, N. Y.
[2] Does not include Gary, Ind.
[3] Does not include Camden, N. J.
[4] Does not include Long Beach, Calif.
[5] Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, or Somerville, Mass.
[6] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[7] Does not include Oakland, Calif.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

JANUARY 1940

Consumer Problems

Buyer guidance, please! By Maxine Enlow. Columbia, Mo., Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, 1939. 51 pp.

Describes the various directions from which consumer guidance may be expected, discusses the extent to which such information is factual and to what extent trade promotional, and gives references for further reading.

Consumer problems manual. Salt Lake City, Salt Lake Committee on Consumer Problems, and Utah Works Progress Administration, 1938. Various paging; mimeographed.

The future of consumer education. By John M. Cassels. (Speech delivered at Business-Consumer Relations Conference, Buffalo, N. Y., June 5, 1939.) Columbia, Mo., Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, 1939. 14 pp.; mimeographed.

Labeling the consumer movement: An analysis from the retailers' point of view of organizations and agencies engaged in consumer activities. By Werner K. Gabler. Washington, American Retail Federation, 1939. 58 pp.

Impartial examination of the consumer movement, what caused its development, the different groups and organizations engaged in it, and what the retailers have done and can do to meet its demands for truthful information about the goods consumers buy. One chapter deals with consumers' cooperatives. An appendix of 45 pages, published separately, gives a detailed analysis of consumer organizations.

Development of collective enterprise. By Seba Eldridge. Manhattan, Kans., University of Kansas, 1938. 82 pp.; mimeographed.

The author describes the services already "collectivized," in the interest of the consumer, such as the postal service, streets and highways, life insurance, public educational systems, etc.; and those now in process of collectivization, such as electric power, credit, distribution (through consumers' cooperatives), and rural resettlement. He outlines the requirements of an organization of society in the interest of the consumer, and sketches a collectivist theory in which he discusses the probable relationship between the consumers and the State, how the consumers should organize to enforce their demands, work incentives under such a scheme, etc.

Cooperative Movement

Controlled competition—corporate chains, cartels, and cooperatives. By Hector Lazo. Washington, Cooperative Food Distributors of America, 1939. 77 pp., maps.

The thesis of this book is that cooperatives of whatever type (whether consumers' or private retailers') are the best safeguard against monopoly. The author is an official in a of private retail dealers' cooperative wholesale organization.

Cooperative action in rural life. Survey prepared by Cooperative Service of International Labor Office. (Annals of Collective Economy, Geneva, September-December 1939, pp. 550–587.)

Discusses the economic and social functions of rural cooperative associations of various types—credit, marketing, insurance, etc.—and cooperatives in relation to public measures to control and regulate production and distribution. Gives statistics, by countries, for the various types of associations covered.

Managing farmers' cooperatives. By Kelsey B. Gardner. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1939. 12 pp. (Circular E–21.)
Written for farmers' organizations, but equally applicable to urban consumers' associations.

Sizing up your cooperative. By J. E. Wells, Jr. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1939. 13 pp. (Circular E–18.)
Gives 9 factors to be taken into consideration in "sizing up" a farmers' cooperative. These are equally applicable to consumers' cooperatives.

Suggestions for educational committees of Federal credit unions. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, Credit Union Section, 1939. 16 pp., charts. (Circular No. 23.)
Valuable for credit unions organized under State laws, as well as for Federal credit unions. Contains a bibliography on credit unions and consumer credit.

When consumers run their own banks. (In Consumers' Guide, U. S. Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Consumers' Counsel Division, Washington, October 15, 1939, pp. 9–12.)
Credit unions—how they are formed, what they do, and how they are run.

Self-help cooperatives in California. By Clark Kerr and Arthur Harris. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, 1939. 26 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (1939 Legislative problems, No. 9.)
Data from this report were used in an article on self-help organizations in the Monthly Labor Review, December 1939.

Economic and Social Problems

Economic consequences of 7-hour day and wage changes in bituminous-coal industry. By Waldo E. Fisher. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. 130 pp., charts. (Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, Industrial Research Department, Research study XXXII.)
Shows some of the economic effects of the collective agreement entered into by the United Mine Workers of America and the bituminous-coal operators in April 1934. It was concluded that the immediate result of the introduction of the 7-hour day and the accompanying increase in hourly wage rates decreased output per man per day 10 percent. To counteract an 18.5 percent increase in labor costs in a period of improving business, operators placed large orders for mechanical loading equipment. In 1935 the proportion of deep-mined coal mechanically loaded increased 10.7 percent. By 1937 it represented 20.2 percent of the total. The extended use of mechanical loading devices increased man-day output, notwithstanding shorter hours, and in 1937 output per man per day was only 1.9 percent below the 1933 level. The author foresees a growing use of mechanical equipment.

Rebirth of monopoly: A critical analysis of economic conduct in the petroleum industry of the United States. By William J. Kemnitzer. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1938. 261 pp., bibliography.
A study of the growth of monopolistic controls from the Standard Oil dissolution decree of 1911 to the early months of 1938, with a discussion of the consequences of monopoly.

Government ownership of railroads: Annual debater's help book, Vol. VI. Edited by E. C. Buehler. New York, Noble and Noble, Inc., 1939. 389 pp., bibliography.

An economic constitution for democracy. By George Soule. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1939. 101 pp.
The author conceives of a "true constitution" as "a gradual growth" of order supplanting "anarchistic" economy. He thinks that this requires an increasing scope of action by central government "because our society is in confusion and there is no other agency that can do the job."

Relations between cooperative action and public action in the field of economic organization—principal results and conclusions. Enquiry of International Committee for Inter-Cooperative Relations. (Annals of Collective Economy, Geneva, September–December 1939, pp. 489–527.)
Discusses measures taken by the Governments in various countries to control prices, establish quotas, and otherwise intervene in the marketing and distribution of goods; shows how these measures affect the cooperatives, and how the latter are sometimes utilized (and to what extent) in stabilizing market conditions.

Housing and Rents

Housing in Colorado, 1938. Denver, Colorado Housing Committee, 1939. 55 pp.; mimeographed.
Describes housing activities and needs in the State of Colorado.

Annual report of Massachusetts State Board of Housing, for year ending November 30, 1938. Boston, Department of Public Welfare, 1939. 59 pp., maps, plans.
Includes reports covering activities of the various city housing authorities in the State.

Housing in Yonkers. Yonkers, N. Y., Municipal Housing Authority,1939. 27 pp., illus.
Summarizes the work done from 1935 to the summer of 1939, showing the preparatory research undertaken and describing the housing projects built.

Subsidized low-rent housing. San Francisco, Commonwealth Club of California, 1939. 37 pp. (In The Commonwealth, Part 2, Vol. XV, No. 47.)
A collection of articles on housing with particular reference to California.

Managing low-rent housing: A record of current experience and practice in public housing. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, 1939. 289 pp.; mimeographed.
This volume is based on lectures and discussions at the Management Training Institute held at Washington, D. C., during June 1938.

Rent control in war and peace. By Edith Berger Drellich and Andrée Emery. New York, National Municipal League, 1939. 124 pp., charts.
Covers the world-war experience, the post-war emergency, the value of rent laws, legislation in other countries, and the existing housing shortage in the United States. A section is also devoted to the recommendations of the Citizens' Housing Council of New York.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Injury experience in iron and steel industry, 1937 and 1938. By Roy F. Fleming. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1029, reprint from November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Ongevallenstatistiek—betreffende het kalenderjaar 1937. Amsterdam, Rijksverzekeringsbank, 1939. 295 pp.
Report on industrial accidents in the Netherlands in 1937, including information on pertinent legislation, disability benefits and death payments to survivors, and safety measures. Special attention is given to accidents in agriculture.

The organization of safety services in industrial undertakings in Great Britain. (In Industrial Safety Survey, International Labor Office, Geneva, November-December 1939, pp. 149–157.)
The concluding article in a series describing industrial safety services in various countries. The countries previously covered were France, Hungary, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States.

Cost of compensation [New York State], 2 years, 1936 and 1937. New York City, State Department of Labor, 1939. 127 pp., charts. (Special bulletin No. 202.)

Workmen's compensation in Canada—a comparison of Provincial laws. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1939. 24 pp.; mimeographed.

Industrial Hygiene and Occupational Diseases

Industrial hygiene. Edited by A. J. Lanza, M. D., and Jacob A. Goldberg. New York, Oxford University Press, 1939. 743 pp., bibliographies, illus.
This compilation covers various occupational-disease hazards, industrial injuries and their results, tuberculosis, diseases of the heart, poisonous substances, and gases and fumes. There are also chapters on lighting and atmospheric control, hygiene and medical care of workers on American railroads, industrial health education, the nurse in industry, and problems in workmen's compensation.

A text-book of occupational diseases of the skin. By Louis Schwartz, M. D., and Louis Tulipan, M. D. Philadelphia, Lea & Febiger, 1939. 799 pp., illus.

The high incidence of compensable dermatoses in industry and the lack of comprehensive data on the effects of new chemicals and new mechanical processes make this work of importance. There is a chapter on the relationship of workmen's compensation laws to dermatoses in the United States and one on the incidence of industrial skin disease. The subject matter has been arranged by trade, occupation, and profession as well as according to the agents producing the dermatoses.

Benzene (benzol) poisoning in rotogravure printing industry in New York City. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, October 1939, pp. 395–420, charts.)

Lead poison and you—valuable information on physical, medical, and insurance angles which all craftsmen should know. By O. Howard Mills. Hollywood, Calif., Oxford Press, 1939. 119 pp.

An account by a printer and linotype operator of his experience in arriving at a diagnosis of lead poisoning acquired in his trade and in securing compensation for the resulting disability. The book was written with the view of assisting workers in lead-using industries to avoid the difficulties he met in reaching a final disposal of his case.

Survey in seventeen cement plants of atmospheric dusts and their effects upon the lungs of twenty-two hundred employees. By Leroy U. Gardner and others. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, September 1939, pp. 279–318, illus.)

The study included an engineering survey of environmental conditions in 17 plants located in different sections of the United States, physical and roentgenographic examinations of workers in 11 of the plants, and an attempt to correlate the medical findings with the varying kinds and quantities of dust in the atmosphere.

Disabling morbidity and mortality among white and Negro male employees in slaughter and meat-packing industry, 1930–34, inclusive. By Hugh P. Brinton. (In Public Health Reports, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, November 3, 1939, pp. 1965–1977, charts.)

Wisconsin physical examination program. Designed to aid in the control and prevention of occupational diseases and accidents and to promote industrial health. Madison, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, 1939. 22 pp.

The pamphlet contains a declaration of principles by the Wisconsin Industrial Commission concerning physical examinations in industry; and the recommendations of a medical subcommittee on scope and frequency of examinations and form of reports to be made, the information to be given to employers and employees regarding the results of examinations, and physical conditions which should influence employment or continuation of employment after examinations are made. The report was indorsed by representatives of labor and industry.

Industrial Relations

Adjustment of labor disputes. By Florence Peterson. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 22 pp. (Serial No. R. 1026, reprint from November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Industrial-relations machinery in democratic foreign countries. By Margaret H. Schoenfeld. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 25 pp. (Serial No. R. 1028, reprint from November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Municipal labor boards of Toledo and Newark. By William L. Nunn. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 1027, reprint from November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Employer-employee relation activities of trade associations—an outline. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Trade Association Department, 1939. 40 pp.; mimeographed.

International Labor Conditions

International Labor Conference, twenty-fifth session, Geneva, 1939—record of proceedings. Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place NW., Washington, D. C.), 1939. xxx, 670 pp.

Verbatim report of the proceedings of the conference, in English and French. The appendixes contain the reports of the various committees and the texts of resolutions, draft conventions, and recommendations adopted by the Conference.

Report of Director of International Labor Office: First item on agenda of Second Conference of American States Members of International Labor Organization, Havana, November 1939. Geneva, International Labor Office, 1939. 78 pp.

Considers the place of American economy in world economy, progress of social legislation in American countries, status of ratification of international labor conventions by American countries, and participation of American countries in the International Labor Organization.

The International Labor Organization. By Smith Simpson. (In International Conciliation, No. 355, New York, December 1939, pp. 594–601.)

The present-day significance of the International Labor Organization. By Robert J. Watt. (In International Conciliation, No. 355, New York, December 1939, pp. 602–608.)

The United States in the International Labor Organization. By Ethel M. Johnson. Washington, D. C., International Labor Office, Washington branch, 1939. 24 pp.

Reprinted with minor changes from Information Service of Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, September 9, 1939.

Labor Legislation

Reports of committees and resolutions adopted by Sixth National Conference on Labor Legislation [Washington, D. C.], November 13–15, 1939. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1939. 30 pp. (Bulletin No. 35–A.)

The role of recent labor legislation in modern economic society. By Walter L. Daykin. (In American Federationist, American Federation of Labor, Washington, December 1939, pp. 1321–1329.)

Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act—rules and interpretations, No. 2, superseding No. 1, issued July 6, 1937. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Public Contracts, 1939. 51 pp.

Text of the act, regulations of Secretary of Labor, important rulings and interpretations of general interest, and pertinent opinions of the Comptroller General on the act.

The new labor legislation in Spain. (In Industrial and Labor Information, International Labor Office, Geneva, November 20, 1939, pp. 213–216.)

This first article in a series summarizing the most important labor measures in Spain in 1938 and 1939 discusses the main provisions of the Labor Charter (published on March 10, 1938). Succeeding articles, in the issues of Industrial and Labor Information for November 27 and December 4, 1939, dealt, respectively, with organization of the Ministry of Labor, reorganization of the trade-unions, and establishment of labor courts; and extension of the labor inspectorate and reemployment of mobilized wage earners.

Legislative councils and commissions. By Grace M. Kneedler. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, 1939. 34 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (1939 Legislative problems, No. 12.)

Seven States have established what the writer terms "true" legislative councils, while three other States have agencies which perform similar functions. The report discusses the development of the legislative-council idea, duties of the councils, how they work, size and composition, cost of maintenance, etc.

Report of [New York] Joint Legislative Committee on Interstate Cooperation. Albany, 1939. 261 pp. (Legislative document, 1939, No. 100.)

The report of the subcommittee on labor reviews the accomplishments in the movement for interstate labor compacts, while the report of the subcommittee on social welfare discusses the problem of relief.

Labor Offices and Their Activities

The Bureau of Employment Security [of the U. S. Social Security Board]. By Oscar M. Powell, director. (In Employment Service News, Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, August-September 1939, pp. 3–5.)

Describes the organization and functions of the Bureau, which was created when the U. S. Employment Service (of the Department of Labor) was consolidated with the Bureau of Unemployment Compensation (in the Social Security Board), in 1939.

A counseling program for public employment offices. St. Louis, Mo., U. S. Employment Service, Division of Standards and Research, 1939. 112 pp.; mimeographed.

Defines and delimits the counseling function in public employment offices and suggests a plan for organizing staff, classifying functions, and developing procedures for the achievement of desired results with minimum reorganization and expansion of any office.

The Division of Labor Standards [of the U. S. Department of Labor]. Washington, Division of Labor Standards, 1939. 22 pp. (Bulletin No. 33.)

The development and functions of the New York State Department of Labor. New York City, State Department of Labor, 1939. 29 pp.; mimeographed.

Compiled from addresses and reports of Elmer F. Andrews, former industrial commissioner, and Frieda S. Miller, present industrial commissioner, of New York Department of Labor.

Labor Organizations and Congresses

Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen. By D. B. Robertson. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, December 1939, pp. 1–4.)

Characteristics of 60 company-dominated unions. Washington, U. S. National Labor Relations Board, Division of Economic Research, 1939. 8 pp.; mimeographed. (Research memorandum No. 10.)

Organize the unorganized: The CIO, its progress and its goal. Washington, Congress of Industrial Organizations, 1939. 46 pp.

Daily proceedings of second constitutional convention of Congress of Industrial Organizations, October 10–13, 1939, San Francisco, Calif. Washington, Congress of Industrial Organizations, 1939. 294 pp.

A brief account of the proceedings of the convention was published in the November 1939 Monthly Labor Review.

Report of proceedings of 55th annual convention of Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, held at London, Ontario, September 25–30, inclusive, 1939. Ottawa, Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, 1939. 228 pp.

Overzicht van den omvang der vakbeweging in Nederland op 1 Januari 1939. The Hague, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 1939. 63 pp., charts.

Report on the labor-union movement in the Netherlands up to 1939. The total membership on January 1, 1939, was 769,400, comprising 498,400 wage earners, 77,700 salaried employees engaged in private industries and trades, and 193,300 public servants.

Printed in Dutch with résumé in French and French translations of table of contents and some of the text accompanying tables.

Berättelse over Landsorganisationens i Sverige verksamhet år 1938. Stockholm, Landsorganisationen i Sverige, 1939. 615 and 71 pp.

Annual report on labor unions and their activities in Sweden, including information on the economic development of the country by industries and trades, congresses and conferences of the Federation of Swedish Labor Unions, labor legislation, industrial conflicts and their results, wages, working hours, employment and unemployment, labor councils, arbitration, and labor agreements.

Trade-union membership is shown to have increased steadily from 1899 to December 1938, when it reached 897,947.

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Leisure-Time Activities

Facilities for use of workers' leisure during holidays. Geneva, International Labor Office (American branch, 734 Jackson Place NW., Washington, D. C.), 1939. 96 pp. (Studies and reports, Series G, No. 5.)

Leisure—a national issue: Planning for the leisure of a democratic people. By Eduard C. Lindeman. New York, Association Press, 1939. 61 pp.

3,000 books of leisure. Boston, Mass., Leisure, Book Department, 1939. 61 pp. Second edition.

Many of the publications listed have interest from an occupational standpoint, as, for example, those on basket making, bookbinding, costuming, designing, drawing, electrical work, furniture making, interior decorating, printing, toy making, woodworking, etc.

Negro Labor and Social Conditions

The position of the Negro in the American social order. (In Journal of Negro Education, Yearbook number VIII, Washington, July 1939; 356 pp.)

The 29 contributions in the volume are distributed under 3 major headings: The Negro as a racial minority group; the present status of the Negro; and the position of the Negro in 1950. Among the articles of special interest to labor are: The black worker in industry, agriculture, domestic and personal service; the Negro business, professional, and white-collar worker; organized labor and the Negro; the vocational education, guidance, and placement of Negroes in the United States.

Selected bibliography on the Negro. New York, National Urban League, September 1939. 46 pp.; mimeographed. Revised edition.

Source materials on the urban Negro in the United States, 1910–1938. New York, National Urban League, May 1939. 37 pp.; mimeographed.

The State-wide public forum project: An experiment in civic education among Negroes in Georgia, Part 1. By Nathaniel P. Tillman. Atlanta, National Youth Administration of Georgia, 1939. xi, 80 pp.; mimeographed. (Bulletin No. 14.)

Reviews the work, indicates the possibilities of forums in connection with the civic education of Negroes, and describes the procedures and experiences in carrying out the program.

Nutrition

Guiding principles for studies on nutrition of populations. By E. J. Bigwood. Geneva, League of Nations, Health Organization, 1939. 281 pp.

Nutrition and the public health. Proceedings of a national conference on the wider aspects of nutrition, April 27–29, 1939. London, British Medical Association, 1939. 150 pp.

The conference was composed of representatives in the fields of medicine, agriculture in Great Britain and overseas, industry, and education. The topics dealt with were medical aspects of nutrition and means of stimulating production and consumption.

Alimentación de la clase obrera en Bogotá. By José Francisco Socarrás. (In Anales de Economía y Estadística, Contraloría General de la República de Colombia, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, Bogotá, September 1939, pp. 1–109; bibliography.)

Deals with chemical composition, nutritive value, and cost of Colombian foods, present ration of the people and its biological and pathological consequences, and related matters.

Nutrition in the Colonial Empire [*Great Britain*]. First report of Economic Advisory Council's Committee on Nutrition in the Colonial Empire. London, 1939. Part 1, 210 pp.; part II (summary), 146 pp. (Cmd. Nos. 6050 and 6051.)

The study examines the diets of the native populations of the British colonies with a view to showing to what extent they are adequate or deficient and the relation of the diets to health.

Occupations

Advertising as an occupation. By Edwin W. Davis. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1939. 48 pp., charts. (Occupational monograph 9.)

While rich opportunities for the employment of youth still exist in the field of advertising, the author of this report emphasizes that they are available only for well-trained young persons with special abilities. Those in quest of this line of work should also plan with intelligence their job-seeking campaigns.

Cotton growing in Texas. Austin, National Youth Administration of Texas, 1939. 79 pp., bibliography; mimeographed.

This analysis of cotton growing and related industries in Texas was designed to give to boys and girls, who are seeking information regarding fields of employment, as accurate a picture as possible of the types of work to be done, qualifications for employment, compensation, and future prospects.

Structural steel workers. Chicago, National Youth Administration of Illinois, 1939. 39 pp., charts, illus.; mimeographed. Revised edition. (Occupational information research report No. 19.)

Occupations of applicants for work—New York City: Active file of New York State Employment Service. New York City, State Department of Labor, Division of Placement and Unemployment Insurance, 1939. 52 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Summary of an occupational inventory of 350,000 work registrants in September 1939.

The strategy of job finding. By George J. Lyons and Harmon C. Martin. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. 408 pp.

Offered as a guide to the job seeker in selecting a vocation, developing a successful interview technique, and obtaining a career job.

Vocations for girls. By Mary Rebecca Lingenfelter and Harry Dexter Kitson. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1939. 358 pp.

Reviews occupational opportunities for women, including those in the manufacturing and mechanical industries and in domestic and personal service. The preface cautions that the figures on salaries should not be taken too literally as they are subject to change. It would appear that in some cases they are also rather optimistic. Various reading lists are given at the end of the book.

Personnel Management

Management and the worker. By F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1939. 615 pp.

A study of human reactions of employees to their working conditions, and various types of action taken by the management and by supervisors, based on a series of experiments extending over 12 years at the Western Electric Co.'s Hawthorne Works, Chicago.

Personnel administration—bibliography. Washington, American University, School of Public Affairs, [1939?]. 14 pp.; supplements, 3 pp.; mimeographed.

State personnel administration, with special reference to departments of education. By Katherine A. Frederic. Washington, U. S. Advisory Committee on Education, 1939. xiv, 267 pp. (Staff study No. 3.)

Chapters are devoted to State officials and agencies concerned with personnel administration; selection of personnel; functions, classification, and qualifications of department personnel; practices affecting employees in the service (compensation, training, promotions, vacations, sick leave, etc.); length of service and provision for retirement; and findings and suggested improvements.

Training solutions of company problems: A, Programs giving special attention to development of executive and supervisory personnel. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1939. 78 pp., bibliography. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 15.)

Social Security

Financing economic security in the United States. By William Withers. New York, Columbia University Press, 1939. 210 pp., charts.

A critical examination of present relief and security programs in the United States; of the sources of funds, including the various tax methods and their effects; and of the economic effects of relief and social-security finance. Reaches the conclusion that a combination of relief and public-works expenditures may offer the greatest promise of economic recovery. Sets forth a program embodying greater outlay for public purposes, a reorganization of the taxing measures, and a new formula for the distribution of security funds.

Social security: Selected list of references on unemployment, old age and survivors', and health insurance. Prepared by Helen Baker. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, November 1939. 28 pp. Revised edition.

Social security in Italy. By J. C. Rocca. (In American Federationist, American Federation of Labor, Washington, December 1939, pp. 1303–1312.)

Brief historical account of social insurance in Italy, with the most important provisions of the revised legislation of April 14, 1939, concerning insurance for invalidity and old age, unemployment, tuberculosis, maternity, and health, and workmen's compensation, with some statistics through 1937.

Bilancio della previdenza sociale per il 1938. Rome, Istituto Nazionale Fascista della Previdenza Sociale, 1939. 47 pp. (Appendix to Le Assicurazioni Sociali, July–August 1939.)

Report of Italian National Fascist Institute of Social Welfare, covering invalidity and old age pensions, insurance against unemployment and tuberculosis, maternity aid, family allowances, seamen's insurance, and pertinent legislation.

Women in Industry

The woman wage earner—her situation today. By Elizabeth D. Benham. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1939. 56 pp. (Bulletin No. 172.)

Information is given on the situation of woman workers in various manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, distribution in the woman-employing industries, earnings, participation in labor organizations, and unemployment.

Women at work—a century of industrial change. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1939. 80 pp. (Bulletin No. 161.)

Job histories of women workers at the summer schools, 1931–34 and 1938. By Eleanor M. Snyder. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1939. 25 pp. (Bulletin No. 174.)

Youth Problems

Federal programs to assist unemployed youth in the United States. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, December 1939, pp. 836–848.)

Describes the organization and work of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration, the two organizations through which the United States Government is attempting to meet the problem of unemployed youth.

A program of action for American youth: Recommendations of American Youth Commission of American Council on Education. Washington, 1939. 18 pp.

The proposals cover employment, health, and education. Those concerned with employment were given in the January 1940 Monthly Labor Review.

Rural youth in farm organization and other national agency programs. Washington, American Council on Education, American Youth Commission, 1939. 82 pp.; mimeographed.

Part I deals with older-youth activities in leading farm organizations, and part II, with rural young people's part in civic and character-building organizations.

A list of references on the United States Civilian Conservation Corps. Washington, Office of Director of Civilian Conservation Corps, 1939. 60 pp.; mimeographed.

Boy transiency in America: A compilation of articles dealing with youth wandering in the United States. By George E. Outland. Santa Barbara, Calif., Santa Barbara State College Press, 1939. 141 pp.

Proceedings, Congress of Youth, New York City, July 1–5, 1939. New York, American Youth Congress, 8 West 40th Street, 1939. 52 pp.

General Reports

Applied general statistics. By Frederick E. Croxton and Dudley J. Crowden. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. 944 pp., charts.

Similar in arrangement to the authors' earlier book, "Practical Business Statistics," but business applications of statistical methods are less emphasized and there is a more detailed treatment of analytical methods. The main sources of illustrative material are economics, sociology, and business.

A preliminary report on living, working, and health conditions in tri-state mining area (Missouri, Oklahoma, and Kansas). New York City, Tri-State Survey Committee, Inc., 100 Fifth Ave., 1939. Various paging, illus.; mimeographed.

The Canada year book, 1939: The official statistical annual of the resources, history, institutions, and social and economic conditions of the Dominion. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1939. xlvii, 1190 pp., maps, charts.

The thirty chapters of this publication include the following: Immigration and colonization; Labor and wages; and Prices.

Beretning om arbejds- og fabriktilsynets virksomhed i aaret 1938. Copenhagen, Direktoratet for Arbejds- og Fabriktilsynet, 1939. 167 pp., diagrams, illus.

Report on labor and factory inspection in Denmark in 1938, including information on organization of administration, pertinent legislation, and measures for prevention of industrial accidents and diseases.

Latvijas statistikas gada grāmata, 1939. Riga, Valsts Statistiskā Pārvalde, 1939. 316 pp. (In Latvian and French.)

This Latvian yearbook contains statistical information on economic and social conditions and developments in Latvia in 1939 and earlier years, including public health, the cooperative movement, wages, employment, labor inspection, labor organizations, social insurance, and public relief.

México en cifras, 1938. México, D. F., Secretaría de la Economía Nacional, Dirección General de Estadística, 1939. 67 pp., bibliography.

Statistics of Mexico for various years up to 1937, presented in colored charts with explanatory texts. Topics of labor interest include tenure and use of rural land, agricultural and industrial production, wages and salaries by industry, unemployment, strikes, workers' organization, industrial accidents and workmen's compensation, and indexes of prices in rural districts and in the city of Mexico.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1940