MONTHLY

LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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In this issue . . . Wage Earners and the Loan Shark • Effect of Stamp Plan on Living Standards • Labor Turn-Over in Machine-Tool Industry • Vacations With Pay in Union Agreements

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This Issue in Brief

Wage Earners and Loan Sharks.

The loan shark thrives best where there is no law to curb him or where the law is not vigorously enforced. A study made for the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials showed that in 12 States which had no special small-loan laws the amounts owed to loan sharks at the end of 1939 averaged $6.98 per capita of population. In 10 jurisdictions with partially effective small-loan laws the average was $2.57. In 27 States with effective laws vigorously enforced, however, the average per capita amount owed to loan sharks was only 19 cents. Rates of interest charged have been found to run as high as 1,350 percent per year. Although it is estimated that these lenders had outstanding loans amounting to only 7.3 percent of loans of all types of credit agencies combined, their charges formed 34.2 percent of the total loan charges. A discussion of the loan-shark problem from the point of view of the wage earner, and the legal remedies available, is given on page 1051.

Food and Cotton Stamp Plans.

The Surplus Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture is attacking the closely related problems of farm surpluses and inadequate consumption by low-income families through a food-stamp plan and a cotton-stamp plan, which provide for the distribution of surplus agricultural products through normal channels of retail trade. By means of these plans persons receiving public assistance are able to obtain surplus foods and cotton goods. It is estimated that 4,000,000 people will participate in the food stamp plan during the next 12 months. Although neither plan was so intended, they have both become important in the defense program. Both plans serve to maintain the morale of that group of the population engaged in agriculture by enlarging the domestic market to replace foreign markets cut off by war. At the same time they contribute to the improvement of health in the Nation as a whole. Page 1060.

Labor Turn-Over in Machine-Tool Industry.

The machine-tool industry normally experiences more satisfactory turnover rates than most other industries. The chief reasons are the opportunities for advance planning for all-year-round employment and the payment of wages usually sufficient to hold expert machinists. The current expansion in the industry shown by the larger accession rate and the lower lay-off rate is taking place almost entirely in the larger metal-cutting machine-tool and accessory plants. The increased quit rate reflects the greater job opportunities primarily at the centers of activity and the higher discharge rate points to the possibility that some of the new workers are not satisfactory. Page 1066.

Vacations With Pay in Union Agreements.

Approximately two million union members, or 25 percent of all organized wage earners in the United States, receive annual vacations with pay under collective agreements with their employers. The majority of these workers receive a maximum of 1 week's vacation with pay after 1 year's service with their employer. Approxi-

mately one-half million union members work under agreements which provide a 2-week maximum for all or part of the working force. Page 1070.

Union Wages and Hours in the Building Trades.

On June 1, 1940, the average union wage rate for all journeyman building trades in the 72 cities covered in the annual survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics was $1.487 per hour. For union helpers and laborers the average was $0.898 per hour. Double time was reported as the agreed-upon initial overtime rate in exactly half of the total quotations. Nearly all of the other quotations gave time and one-half as the initial overtime rate. Page 1221.

Cooperative Burial Associations.

Cooperative burial associations are of rather recent growth, being a development of about the last 15 years. They still number fewer than 40 and are found only in 5 Midwestern States. On the basis of reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it is estimated that at the end of 1939 they had a total membership of 30,600 and did a combined business that year amounting to over $189,000. A description of these associations and the basis on which they operate is given on page 1160.

Earnings in Machine Shops.

Earnings of machine-shop employees in the latter part of 1938 and early part of 1939 averaged 72.4 cents per hour, the highest average—84.2 cents—being in the making of tractors. Skilled workers in all types of machine shops combined averaged 86.4 cents with an average of 95.1 cents in the shops making tractors. Page 1213.

Handicapped Workers.

Approximately 2,200,000 of the estimated 4,000,000 handicapped persons in the United States are in the working ages 17 to 64, according to a report by a committee of the American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons. Although there are no reliable statistics showing the proportion within the working ages who are totally disabled, nor of the number who are employed, it was estimated, on the basis of such figures as were available, that at least 300,000 handicapped persons in the country are in need of self-supporting employment. The total annual increment of handicapped employable persons is estimated to be about 75,000. Page 1123.

Measuring Industrial Production.

The Federal Reserve Board's new index of industrial production indicates that the growth in the output of manufactures and minerals has been considerably greater than shown by the series previously in use. Thus, from 1919 to 1939, the new index shows a 50-percent rise in production, as compared with a 27-percent increase over the same period in the old index. Page 1197.

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WAGE EARNERS AND THE LOAN SHARK

THE term "loan shark" has been associated in recent years almost entirely with money lenders making loans to wage earners at charges higher than the law allows. Various studies of interest charged by such lenders have revealed rates ranging as high as 1,350 percent per year.

All of the States have some kind of legislation intended to curb the activities of such agencies, but they vary greatly in effectiveness. In some jurisdictions the only protection for the borrower is under the usury laws; others have statutes regulating small-loan activities, but these are largely without effect because of deficiencies in the law or inadequate enforcement. A third group of States has been able, through well-drawn laws and vigorous enforcement, to reduce to a minimum the activities of the loan shark. The business of such lenders flourishes in direct proportion to inadequate legislative provision and enforcement.

The wage earners who, of necessity, are the chief patrons of the loan sharks are individually at a great disadvantage in their dealings with them. Nearly every State has created a special body—usually termed the labor department—to look after the welfare of working people. Recognizing that the credit needs of wage earners, and the sources from which such needs are filled, are a vital factor in the welfare of workers, the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials at its 1938 meeting appointed a committee to study and report on the whole question. The final report of this committee was made to the 1940 convention.[1]

In its report the committee points out that since the first decade of the present century there has been general awareness of the prevalence and antisocial character of these lenders' operations and many States have adopted measures to forestall their activities. Penalties for usury have been strengthened and certain forms of security outlawed in some jurisdictions. Legitimate lending agencies have been created.

[1] Report of the special committee (Eugene B. Patton, chairman) of the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials on the Enforcement of Laws Against Loan Sharks. The report was prepared with the assistance of Rolf Nugent of the Russell Sage Foundation.

Some States have enacted stringent legislation to cover small loans. However, in spite of the fact that "substantial progress has been made" in the prevention of abuses, "the loan shark continues to operate on a large scale in many areas."

Interest Rates and Scale of Operations of Loan Sharks

A study including 1,500 victims of loan sharks in Missouri, in 1938, indicated that 300 of these had paid $16,128 for the use of $5,848 for an average period of about 14 months. Interest rates on individual transactions ranged from 120 to 540 percent a year. An Oklahoma study made in the same year, covering 520 loans, showed average annual interest rates ranging from 56 percent on loans of $150 or over to 325 percent on those of $10 or less. The investigator found that there were some 300 unregulated loan offices in the State in addition to many lenders who had no established place of business. The findings led him to the conclusion that wage earners and salaried workers in Oklahoma were being "intolerably exploited."

A 1940 study of 1,042 loans in South Carolina revealed annual rates ranging from 97 percent on amounts over $50 to 463 percent on those of $10 or less, and 18 persons had paid over 1,000 percent a year. In Minneapolis, the loans of 414 borrowers involved rates of from 33 to 1,350 percent a year.

As such illegal lenders naturally surround their activities with as much secrecy as possible, information concerning the extent of the loan-shark business is very difficult to obtain. The special committee investigating the subject for the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials utilized the estimates made by the Russell Sage Foundation. Those estimates covered the operations of "unregulated lenders," using that term to include not only illegal lenders but also those operating legally under enabling acts yet charging rates that the Foundation considers to be excessive for small loans. The following figures, selected from the Foundation's estimates, omit States in which high rates are authorized by statute. Making these omissions, the amount of illegal loans outstanding at the end of each specified year is estimated to be as follows:

	Loans outstanding
1923	$21, 300, 000
1929	49, 500, 000
1933	37, 300, 000
1937	69, 000, 000
1939	71, 700, 000

It is evident that, notwithstanding preventive efforts, loan-shark operations have grown rapidly since 1923, and have nearly doubled since 1933. Loan sharks have been driven out of a number of States by enactment and aggressive enforcement of stringent regulatory laws.

This loss of territory to loan sharks, however, has been more than offset by the very rapid growth of illegal lending in other areas.

Although the total loan balance of loan sharks is small as compared with that of legitimate loan agencies, their charges account for a disproportionate part of the interest charges paid by borrowers, as the following table indicates.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Loans Outstanding and Charges of Consumer Loan Agencies, in 1937*

Type of agency	Estimated loans outstanding, end of year		Estimated charges collected during year	
	Amount	Percent of total	Amount	Percent of total
Personal loan departments of banks	$216,000,000	22.7	$22,000,000	8.4
Credit unions	94,000,000	9.9	9,000,000	3.4
Industrial banking companies	221,000,000	23.2	34,000,000	12.9
Regulated small-loan companies	351,000,000	36.9	108,000,000	41.1
Loan sharks	69,000,000	7.3	90,000,000	34.2
Total	951,000,000	100.0	263,000,000	100.0

Geographic Distribution of Loan-Shark Business

The extent of loan-shark operations in the different States varies according to the extent and effectiveness of the regulation of the business. The greater part of the loan-shark business is, as would be expected, carried on in the 12 jurisdictions which have not enacted legislation governing the small-loan business. In these States the only restrictions on interest charges are those imposed by the usury laws, and these usually provide inadequate penalties and rely upon court action by individual borrowers rather than by public prosecutors. In such States loan sharks therefore generally carry on their business openly and with considerable use of the various avenues of publicity. A second group of States has legal machinery, but notwithstanding its presence, a substantial part of the loan-shark business is done in those regions. "In these areas illegal lenders operate by means of evasive devices, by virtue of legal loopholes, or in sheer defiance of the regulatory law and prosecuting authorities." In the remaining States,[2] the small-loan business is subjected to effective regulatory legislation. Nevertheless, these areas are not completely free of loan-shark operations.

In some jurisdictions, carelessness or lack of interest on the part of law-enforcement authorities has permitted illegal lenders to gain a foothold. And in others, legalistic interpretations of evasive devices by the courts have prevented eradication of certain types of high-rate lenders by prosecuting officials. In large industrial cities, the job of protecting small borrowers from abusive loan contracts is a trying one even under the most favorable circumstances. Delays in obtaining

[2] Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

information concerning illegal lending activities, difficulties of obtaining adequate evidence or testimony to support prosecutions, devices that give the color of legality to usurious contracts, and defense counsel skilled in obstructive tactics frequently handicap the most vigorous and persistent prosecutors. Consequently a fringe of illegal lending, which can be minimized but not completely eradicated, persists in most industrial metropolises.

The extent of loan-shark balances in the three groups of States at the end of 1939, based upon estimates made by the Russell Sage Foundation, is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Total and Per Capita Loans Outstanding, by Classes of Jurisdiction, End of 1939*

Class of jurisdiction	Loans outstanding at end of year		Class of jurisdiction	Loans outstanding at end of year	
	Total	Per capita (based on 1930 urban population)		Total	Per capita (based on 1930 urban population)
All jurisdictions	$71,700,000	$1.04	States with partially effective small-loan laws	$15,200,000	$2.57
States with no special small-loan laws	46,500,000	6.98	Alabama	3,000,000	4.03
Idaho	700,000	5.41	Arkansas	500,000	1.31
Kansas	3,000,000	4.11	Delaware	300,000	2.44
Montana	1,200,000	6.63	District of Columbia	1,200,000	2.47
Nevada	300,000	8.71	Florida	2,000,000	2.63
North Carolina	3,400,000	4.20	Georgia	4,000,000	4.47
North Dakota	500,000	4.41	Kentucky	800,000	1.00
Oklahoma	7,200,000	8.76	Mississippi	500,000	1.48
South Carolina	1,800,000	4.85	Nebraska	400,000	.82
South Dakota	700,000	5.35	Tennessee	2,500,000	2.79
Texas	23,000,000	9.63	States with effective small-loan laws	10,000,000	.19
Washington	4,200,000	4.75			
Wyoming	500,000	7.13			

In some States, as already noted, money lenders may legally charge interest rates nearly as high as those that are outside the law elsewhere. Colorado and New Mexico are examples of "excessive charges made with full statutory authority." Under one Colorado law a fee of $10 may be charged for a loan of $50 repayable in 10 weekly installments (an interest rate of 189 percent per year); and under another act of the same State there is no restriction on rates for secured loans and consequently contracts are common which call for annual rates exceeding 200 percent. Similar rates of charge are possible for certain classes of loans under a recent New Mexico act.

The small-loan law of Oregon permits lenders to make a minimum charge of $1 for loans, and this provision has led several lenders to specialize in loans of $5 and $10 at rates ranging from 120 to 240 percent per year. Oregon and Missouri also allow lenders to charge fees for insurance on automobiles without issuing a policy to the borrower. When applied to small loans for short periods, these fees result in very high rates. In California and Washington a few loan agencies operating under industrial loan company acts "have been able to manipulate

fees permitted by these statutes to yield interest rates in excess of 75 percent a year for certain classes of loans."

Legal Remedies

Statutes have been enacted, in most States, designed to protect either borrowers in general or specific classes of borrowers. The remedies provided by these acts fall into two classes—those available to the borrower himself, and those available to the State.

REMEDIES AVAILABLE TO THE BORROWER

The principal types of laws which provide individual borrowers with legal remedies against oppressive loan contracts are: (1) Usury laws, (2) wage-assignment laws, (3) chattel-mortgage laws, (4) property- and wage-exemption laws, and (5) regulatory small-loan laws. Every State has one or more of these types of laws and many have all five.

Usury laws.—Most of the States,[a] as well as the District of Columbia and Hawaii, have usury laws. These in general set a maximum lawful rate of interest, and prohibit the taking of any interest in excess of this rate. The statutes differ widely, however, as regards remedies and penalties. Some merely permit the borrower, if sued, to prevent the collection of interest in excess of the maximum set by the law; others provide against the recovery of any interest whatever upon a usurious contract; and others provide a defense against both principal and interest by declaring usurious contracts void. Some laws also permit borrowers to apply the amount of usurious interest or all interest paid (or multiples of these amounts) toward reduction of the principal. Still others permit the borrower to recover all previous payments of either principal or interest.

In addition, some States authorize injunctions upon collections of usurious loans, or give the borrowers the right to compel the surrender and cancelation of usurious contracts.

Wage-assignment laws.—Thirty-one States [3] have enacted legislation regulating transactions designed to evade lending laws by the assignment of wages. In most of these States assignments which violate the law are void. Such provisions place upon the employer the major responsibility for determining the validity of a given wage assignment before paying over wages of employees to the assignees.

Property- and wage-exemption laws.—Laws exempting from garnishment and attachment certain minimum amounts of wages and exempting from execution certain kinds and amounts of personal prop-

[a] Exceptions are Colorado, Maine, and New Hampshire.

[3] Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

erty are found in all of the States, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii

Chattel-mortgage laws.—Although in most cases laws relating to chattel mortgages are intended for the protection of the mortgagees, some States do have provisions designed to protect the interests of the mortgagor. These provide that the wife or spouse must join in a mortgage on household goods,[4] or permit foreclosure only by court action.[5]

Regulatory small-loan laws.—Laws regulating the lending of money in small sums (generally $300 or less) are found in 39 jurisdictions.[6] These permit rates higher than those allowed under the usury laws, but the borrowers generally have remedies under both the small-loan and the usury laws. All but 5 of the small-loan laws[7] declare void and unenforceable any loan contract, subject to the law, in which any of the provisions restricting charges or affecting the making or collecting of loans are violated. Most of these statutes, either by express provision or by judicial construction, apply to any loan contract whether made by nonlicensees or by those licensed under the law, if the principal amount of the loan does not exceed $300. Therefore, even though the usury act does not render loan contracts void where excessive interest has been charged, the borrower may, under the small-loan act, have a usurious contract declared void as to principal as well as to interest.

Other remedies.—In addition to remedies under the above acts, there are several other possible avenues of redress for the borrower. Sometimes action for fraud may be brought against the lender, in which case damages may be recovered. Or if wrongful suit has resulted in loss of employment or other injury, suit for malicious prosecution or misuse of legal process may be maintained.

REMEDIES AVAILABLE TO THE STATE

Remedies available to the State are of three kinds—criminal, administrative, and civil. Criminal action is possible under the usury laws of some States, under the general misdemeanor laws of some, and under the wage-assignment laws of others. Regulatory small-loan laws, also, generally impose criminal penalties. State securities laws, Federal mail-fraud laws, and criminal conspiracy under common law may also be invoked in certain cases.

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[4] Colorado, Illinois. Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, North Dakota, and Ohio.

[5] Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio.

[6] Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

[7] Those of Delaware, District of Columbia, Mississippi, New Mexico, and Texas.

Administrative remedies necessarily rely for their effectiveness upon the powers conferred upon officials by the State laws, and these vary considerably.

Civil remedies not based upon statute are confined chiefly to injunctions against the carrying on of the offending businesses. Frequently such injunctions may be supplemented by the appointment of a receiver for the business enjoined. The purpose of this is to insure enforcement of the injunction and to "provide a sure means of protecting all of the current borrowers from any further unlawful exactions. It enables the court to supervise in one proceeding a lawful adjustment of each borrower's account with the loan shark."

The courts in several States[8] have upheld the right of the State to act thus. Since the power of the district, county, or State's attorney to file such a bill may be questioned, the cooperation of the State attorney general is generally essential in this type of case when carried on by the State. Sometimes the local prosecuting attorney and the attorney general of the State join in initiating the proceeding.

Which course of action is pursued—whether criminal, administrative, or civil procedure—will depend upon the form of the State acts, court decisions, and conditions in the local courts. All three types of action have their place. "Injunction and a receivership of the instrumentalities of the public wrong unquestionably fit the needs as to loan sharks, and where this remedy has been sustained by the courts, it has proven to be most effective." In fact, in States which lack regulatory small-loan laws and where, therefore, the loan-shark problem has been most severe, this is probably the only truly effective remedy.

The Wage Earner's Problem

As the greater part of the loans on which high rates are charged are usually small amounts or run for short periods, the high rates would not be disastrous if the loans were paid in full on maturity. However, the studies previously noted have disclosed that the lenders attempt to keep the borrowers in debt either by encouraging renewals or by so arranging the terms of repayment that it is difficult to repay the principal. One investigator found that half the borrowers had been indebted to the same lender for at least 3 years, and one of every 20 had been so indebted for 10 years or longer.

Also, a large proportion of the borrowers become indebted to several lenders, with the result that charges and payments become so heavy that many borrowers become "hopelessly enmeshed."

The person who falls behind in his payments is subject to harassment by letter, telephone, and personal visit to home or workplace. In some cases, investigation has shown, delinquent borrowers are

[8] Kansas, Kentucky, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Tennessee.

even in fear of personal violence. Further, from the borrowers' point of view the situation is difficult to remedy because many, if not most, of the borrowers are ignorant of their rights under the law, and they fear discharge if their employers learn of their predicament.

Even when borrowers are disposed to make a fight for their rights, often they are ignorant of the defenses open to them. They may be deterred by the "harassment to which they are invariably subjected by the lender when legal defenses are raised." Again, under conditions imposed by the lender, it may be extremely difficult to prove usury, and wage earners are usually unable to pay for adequate legal representation. Neither can they afford to have payment of their wages held up pending litigation, nor to leave work for attendance at court.

Circumstances peculiar to certain jurisdictions may provide additional handicaps. In most cases justices of the peace, in whose courts money-lender suits are frequently brought, depend for their compensation on fees paid by plaintiffs. These courts are in competition with each other for business and in order to encourage such business frequently render judgment "for those initiating many suits, regardless of the merits of the case in law or fact."

"A favorite trick of the loan shark is to bring actions in courts far removed from the residence of the borrower" or, if the employer of the borrower does business in several States, to proceed to garnishment in some other State than that in which the borrower works.

Thus, if the wage-earner borrower is left to his own devices, "he is generally beaten from the start in any legal contest with a money lender." However, there are certain ways, noted below, in which sympathetic assistance and support would materially strengthen his position as a litigant. It is suggested that State labor departments could be of assistance in all of these.

(1) Borrowers could be grouped together in making their defense. Not only would the cumulative effect of testimony of many borrowers enormously increase the likelihood of favorable action by the court, but "wholesale defense" would substantially reduce the cost of legal service. Attorneys who would be unwilling to take a single case for what the litigant could pay could afford to handle a number of similar cases for smaller individual fees. In most communities, also, the bar association "could easily be induced to defend a group of borrowers as a public service."

(2) Employers could be encouraged to cooperate in preventing enforcement of usurious claims against their employees.

(3) Public attention could be called to any failure in the administration of justice affecting wage-earner borrowers or in the enforcement of penal statutes for the protection of such borrowers. Publicity is a

powerful weapon and the press can usually be depended upon to give effective assistance.

In the application of remedies open to the State, public labor departments can aid (1) by keeping in touch with the three State agencies concerned (the State attorney general, the local prosecuting officers, and the State authority administering the regulatory and licensing laws), (2) by assisting in tapping the sources of evidence in loan-shark cases, and (3) by giving active support to the law-enforcing agencies in their endeavors to cope with the loan-shark evil.

EFFECT OF THE STAMP PLAN ON LIVING LEVELS [1]

THE Surplus Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture, established on July 1, 1940, took over the programs and functions previously handled by the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation,[2] which was created as a branch of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration in November 1935. The new agency copes with the problem of achieving a balance between the production and consumption of farm products in this country. The earliest activities of the FSCC included purchasing commodities in parts of the country where they had accumulated for lack of a market, and shipping them to public welfare departments throughout the country. Through the direct distribution of surplus commodities, nourishing school lunches have been provided for nearly 3 million underfed school children. Exports of cotton and cotton goods and of wheat and flour have been subsidized. Surplus fluid milk has been made available to relief families at prices considerably lower than the prevailing rates. Research is being done in the field of industrial uses of agircultural products.

Food-Stamp Plan

In April 1939 plans were announced for distributing surplus agricultural commodities to needy persons through normal wholesale and retail channels of trade. In the beginning the program was confined to the distribution of surplus foods under the food-stamp plan to certified persons receiving public assistance, and from this experimental beginning in one city it has gradually expanded to other areas on a Nation-wide basis. The success of the food-stamp plan suggested the possibility of its application to other commodities and led to the announcement in February 1940 of the cotton-stamp plan.

The European war has added to the problem of agricultural surpluses in the United States by cutting off markets for crops of which from 10 to 50 percent was normally exported. The immediate future seems to hold little promise of renewed foreign trade and the stamp plan offers a way to aid the farmer toward a fairer share of the national income through an expansion of the domestic market. At the same time it provides an attack on the problem of underconsumption by low-income families.

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[1] Prepared by Olive T. Kephart of the Bureau's Cost of Living Division from material supplied by the Economic Analysis Section of the Surplus Marketing Administration.

[2] The Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation succeeded the Federal Surplus Relief Corporation of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

METHOD OF OPERATION

The method of operation of the food-stamp program is simple. Local welfare agencies in areas where the plan is used certify families eligible to purchase stamps. Such families may purchase books of orange stamps, up to a value equivalent to their customary food purchases. These stamps may be used to purchase any food items. In addition, each book includes 50 cents' worth of free blue stamps for each $1 of orange stamps purchased. The blue stamps may be used to purchase only those foods which have been declared by the Secretary of Agriculture to be in surplus. Local welfare agencies are responsible for selling the stamp books to the needy families and for the establishment of a revolving fund for the redemption of the orange stamps which represent the family's customary food purchases. The stamps, both orange and blue, are treated as cash and may be spent at any retail store participating in the plan. Retailers paste the stamps on $10 cards and redeem them through their wholesalers, their banks, or through the Surplus Marketing Administration. The stamp books contain orange stamps to the value of $2, $3, $4, $6, $8, and $10, and blue stamps in the proportion of 1 blue stamp to 2 orange stamps. Food purchased with blue stamps is not subject to local retail taxes.

Persons eligible under the food-stamp plan include persons on work or direct relief; needy persons certified as eligible for either type of relief but not actually receiving aid; and persons receiving social-security benefits, who are in need of additional aid. In cases where eligible persons are unable to purchase orange stamps, blue stamps may be issued separately. Such figures as are available indicate that the average family receiving public assistance spends for food approximately $1 per person per week. Under the food-stamp plan a family of two persons with a customary expenditure of $2 per week for food will, by purchase of $2 in orange stamps, receive an additional $1 in stamps which can be spent for surplus commodities. This increase brings the family's weekly expenditure for food to $1.50 per person, and while raising the level of expenditure toward a minimum standard of adequacy, increases the value of food consumed only to 7½ cents per person per meal.

An important factor in the success of the food-stamp plan has been the cooperation of wholesale and retail food dealers. The plan functions through the normal channels of trade, the wholesaler and retailer making their purchases in the usual way. No price fixing or price regulation is involved and any retail food establishment conforming to the regulations established by the Secretary of Agriculture may accept the stamps in exchange for the designated commodities. Reliance is placed on competition to keep retailers' margins at a minimum.

LOCAL WELFARE EXPENDITURES NOT REDUCED

The plan is not to be considered as a means by which local welfare expenditures may be reduced. The distribution of surplus foods under the food-stamp plan is intended to supplement local relief. Contracts between the Government and the local officials in communities requesting the stamp plan provide that local expenditures for relief shall not be reduced as a result of its adoption. It is obvious that such protection is necessary if farmers are to have the benefit of a wider market and if the diets of underprivileged families are to be raised to a more satisfactory level.

COMMODITIES DISTRIBUTED

The surplus commodities purchasable with the blue stamps have changed from time to time in accordance with economic conditions and seasonal factors. The first commodities to be made available in the spring of 1939 were butter, eggs, wheat and graham flour, cornmeal, dried prunes, oranges, grapefruit, and dry beans. Other commodities which have been listed for varying periods of time include onions, pears, raisins, rice, lard, and pork. In July 1939 certain fresh fruits and vegetables were added for the summer months. During the summer of 1940 fresh vegetables and fruits were listed for varying periods of time in different parts of the country. Lard and pork have been listed since October 1 and December 15, 1939, respectively.

In order to know what the actual results of the food-stamp plan are, in terms of higher farm incomes and better nutrition for low-income families, continuous studies are being conducted which are yielding valuable information on the selection of foods by low-income families with increases in income and on the effect of the program on the agricultural situation. It is not enough to know in general that the plan results in increased consumption; it is necessary to know for each surplus crop what proportion of the surplus can be consumed by increasing the purchasing power in this way.

On the basis of studies covering the operation of the plan up to June 1, 1940, it appears that purchasers of surplus commodities have spent each dollar represented by blue stamps as follows: Butter, 19 cents; eggs, 16 cents; flour and other cereals, 17 cents; fruits and vegetables, 21 cents; pork and lard, 27 cents. The accompanying table shows the estimated quantity of each commodity purchased with blue stamps from May 16, 1939, to May 31, 1940.

As of August 31, 1940, the program was bringing the benefits of increased purchasing power to a total of 1,907,000 persons, and was in operation in 124 areas. It is expected that about 4,000,000 people will participate during the next 12 months. Plans for extending the program to a total of 202 areas had been announced by October 12, 1940.

Estimated Purchases of Surplus Foods With Blue Stamps, May 16, 1939, to May 31, 1940[1]

[Preliminary data]

Commodity	Quantity	Commodity	Quantity
Butter---pounds	7,940,000	Snap beans---pounds	70,000
Eggs---dozen	9,280,000	Prunes---do	2,670,000
White and graham flour---pounds	54,800,000	Raisins---do	2,150,000
Rice---do	3,170,000	Oranges---dozen	3,950,000
Cornmeal---do	9,220,000	Grapefruit	9,840,000
Hominy grits---do	590,000	Peaches---pounds	1,390,000
Dry beans---do	6,330,000	Pears---do	890,000
Onions---do	4,970,000	Apples---do	13,980,000
Cabbage---do	730,000	Lard---do	7,750,000
Peas---do	210,000	Pork---do	17,720,000
Tomatoes---do	1,240,000		

[1] Data supplied by Economic Analysis Section, Distribution and Purchase Division, Surplus Marketing Administration.

Total Federal expenditures for the program from May 1939 to July 1, 1940, were $16,500,000. As of that date the monthly cost was about $3,000,000. Expenditures in July were $3,500,000 and in August, $4,500,000, a total for these 2 months of nearly half the amount spent prior to that time. Funds for the purpose are derived from the 30 percent of customs revenues assigned by act of Congress to the Agricultural Adjustment Administration for the encouragement of the export of agricultural products and of domestic consumption of such products, as well as from special appropriations. Local and State administrative expenses have been kept to a minimum and largely replace those formerly incurred in the direct distribution of surplus commodities.

Cotton-Stamp Plan

In February 1940 Secretary Wallace announced the cotton-stamp plan, designed to provide for the movement of surplus cotton goods through the normal channels of trade. Under this plan at least part of the large surplus of cotton goods in this country will be made available to persons receiving public assistance, who have need of additional cotton goods.

The plan has been put into effect as an experiment, with the object of determining its effectiveness as one means of meeting the emergency which will occur if world conditions result in the loss of our present foreign markets. With 14 million persons estimated as dependent directly or indirectly on the production of cotton, it is evident that cotton production cannot be severely cut without creating serious and costly social and economic problems. The cotton-stamp plan opens a new market for cotton goods by increasing the purchasing power of the low-income families, and directing it toward purchases of cotton goods.

METHOD OF OPERATION

Operation of the cotton-stamp plan is very similar to that of the food-stamp plan. Certification of eligible persons is by State and

local welfare organizations. All persons receiving or eligible for public assistance and persons receiving aid through the social-security program are eligible to participate in the cotton-stamp plan.

Eligible persons may purchase cotton stamps in an amount equal to their present cotton expenditures and available resources. For each dollar of expenditure they receive another dollar's worth in free surplus stamps. The purchased stamps are green; the free stamps are brown. Both stamps are issued in denominations of 25 cents each.

In one city, for example, for each 3-month period, one- and two-person families may purchase as a minimum, a $4 book of stamps for which they pay $2, or as a maximum a $6 book of stamps for which they pay $3. For three- and four-person families the minimum purchase is a $6 book costing $3, and the maximum a $10 book costing $5. Families of 5 persons or more may purchase as the minimum for the 3-month period an $8 book costing $4, and as a maximum a $12 book for which they pay $6. In areas where the consumption of cotton is customarily higher than the average, both minimum and maximum purchase requirements are increased. Some families who are not able to purchase the green stamps are certified by local welfare agencies as eligible to receive the free brown surplus stamps without having to buy the green stamps.

The stamps are used to purchase new cotton goods for personal or household use in retail dry-goods stores. They are pasted on cards by the merchants and redeemed in the same manner as the food stamps. The plan was first put into effect in Memphis, Tenn., on May 7, 1940. Springfield Mass., was added on June 3, and more recently the plan became effective in Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.; Los Angeles, Calif.; Columbia, S. C.; and Hartford, Conn.

Extent of Available Market

Evidence as to the extent of the market available under the stamp plans and the desirability of that method of increasing domestic consumption, was furnished by the Study of Consumer Purchases. According to that survey, 4 million families, or 14 percent of all American families, had an average income of only $312. Another 8 million families, 27.5 percent, had an average income of $758. Seven million more had average incomes of $1,224, or about $100 a month. The average incomes of the 65 percent of all families with incomes of less than $1,500 was $826, or $69 a month per family. The families in the two lower groups comprising 41.7 percent of all families, were responsible for only 26 percent of the total family food bill. The families in the group with incomes of $312 spent only a little more than $1.00 per person per week for food; those with incomes of $758 on the average spent about $1.62 per person per week. Families with approximately $100 per month spent about

$2.18 per person per week for food. As income increased, food expenditures increased, at first rapidly, then more slowly after passing the $100 income level.[3] An analysis made by the Bureau of Home Economics of the Department of Agriculture of the quantities of different kinds of foods consumed by the families, offered convincing evidence that a large proportion of American families were not receiving the foods they needed in order to be well-nourished.[4]

On the basis of the Study of Consumer Purchases, referred to above, it has been estimated that a family of four persons with an income of less than $500 spends approximately $17.90 annually for cotton clothing and household goods, an amount which is obviously inadequate. Families of the same size with average incomes of $1,000 to $1,500 spend more than twice this amount, $36.73, and families with annual incomes of $5,000 or over spend $111.96 for cotton goods, according to these estimates.[5]

Stamp Plans in Relation to Defense

Although neither of the two stamp programs was conceived as a defense measure, their value in that relation has suddenly become very important. Both plans help to maintain the morale of that group of the population engaged in agriculture by providing a domestic market to replace markets cut off abroad and by preventing a collapse in the price of farm products. At the same time their importance as a contribution to national health defense is vital.

[3] See reports of the National Resources Committee: Consumer Incomes in the United States, and Consumer Expenditures in the United States.

[4] The Bureau of Home Economics, Department of Agriculture, will present the results of this analysis in two reports on family food consumption and dietary levels, now in press, for the Study of Consumer Purchases.

[5] These figures are from estimates prepared by the Marketing Section, U. S. Department of Agriculture, on data obtained in the Study of Consumer Purchases conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Home Economics, in cooperation with the Works Progress Administration, National Resources Committee, and Central Statistical Board.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN THE MACHINE-TOOL INDUSTRY [1]

A REVIEW of labor turn-over rates for the period, January 1938 to July 1940, reveals that under normal conditions, separation rates are lower in the machine-tool industry than for manufacturing industries as a whole. During 1938, the lay-off rate in the machine-tool industry was 31.60 per hundred employees or about one-fifth less than the average for all manufacturing industries. By comparison, the lay-off rate in the automobile-parts industry in 1938 was 91.01 and in electrical machinery it was 44.91.

Several factors contribute to this better-than-average labor situation in the machine-tool industry, some of which derive from general business conditions in the manufacturing industries, while other factors are inherent within the machine-tool industry itself. When industry, in general, places orders for machine tools, it is prepared to do so considerably in advance of actual needs. Often, months are required for design, building, and delivery, and the machine-tool builder is therefore presented with an opportunity for advance planning of production, a factor lacking in many other industries. Such planning of work schedules, of course, means fewer lay-offs and a generally better labor situation. Planned production is also possible in the case of a machine-tool builder who caters to a variety of industries. This is particularly true when the machine-tool requirements of these industries reach well-spaced seasonal peaks. One fair-sized firm manufacturing a variety of small tools in New England has been able to maintain, since January 1939, a monthly lay-off rate of only 0.16 per hundred employees, whereas the average for the whole machine-tool industry during the period was 0.45.

Workers with the special skills required in the machine-tool industry are not easily replaced, and lay-offs are consequently less frequent. Although the skills used in the manufacture of machine tools are as varied as in other industries, the proportion of highly skilled workers in this industry is among the highest found. It has been estimated that between 50 and 75 percent of the workers are highly skilled, depending on the work of the plant. Surveys conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1938 and 1939 showed that in the iron and steel industry 34 percent of the workers, and in machine shops 38 percent, were considered skilled. A worker who requires a training period of from 2 to 5 years is not laid off if a work schedule can be arranged to assure at least fairly permanent employment. It is the boast of a machine-tool company in Ohio that many of its workers have been employed by it for over 15 years.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Construction and Public Employment Division, by Myer H. Naigles, under the direction of Herman B. Byer, chief.

Effects of Increased Production Upon Turn-Over

In periods of increasing manufacturing activity, the scarcity of qualified machine-tool workers has an important effect on the turn-over rates. In 1938, the average monthly lay-off rate was 2.63 per hundred employees. In 1939 with the general improvement in manufacturing activity, the average monthly lay-off rate declined to 0.50, and during the first 7 months of 1940 it declined still further to 0.37. Accessions in 1938 averaged 1.23; in 1939, 4.35; and in the first 7 months of 1940, 4.55 workers per hundred employees. Although high accessions are often concurrent with low lay-offs, the latter rate seldom reaches as low a level as this industry shows.

That the number of new workers employed has increased tremendously is shown by the high accession rates and low lay-off rates and also by the index of employment in the machine-tool industry. At the peak of employment in 1937, the Bureau of Labor Statistics computed the index of employment for the industry at 176.6 (1923–25 = 100). In August 1938 the index had declined to 113.2. By May 1940 (the latest figure available) however, it had reached a new high of 221.1.

Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in the Machine-Tool Industry, January 1933 to July 1940 [1]

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Separations:												
Quits:												
1940	1.05	1.08	1.30	1.25	1.39	1.35	1.34					
1939	.44	.52	.56	.64	.75	.60	.61	0.79	1.38	1.38	1.26	0.91
1938	.41	.46	.38	.63	.52	.45	.48	.35	.56	.52	.38	.41
Discharges:												
1940	.45	.53	.41	.40	.44	.39	.54					
1939	.03	.04	.13	.05	.05	.06	.10	.10	.13	.14	.28	.31
1938	.14	.23	.05	.06	.11	.06	.03	.03	.15	.06	.02	.02
Lay-offs: [2]												
1940	.35	.47	.28	.25	.53	.47	.21					
1939	.55	.96	.67	.59	.36	.59	.28	.36	.55	.32	.38	.40
1938	2.57	3.86	4.10	4.13	3.69	2.72	2.37	1.36	1.80	3.43	.68	.89
Total:												
1940	1.85	2.08	1.99	1.90	2.36	2.21	2.09					
1939	1.02	1.52	1.36	1.28	1.16	1.25	.99	1.25	2.06	1.84	1.92	1.62
1938	3.12	4.55	4.53	4.82	4.32	3.23	2.88	1.74	2.51	4.01	1.08	1.32
Accessions: [3]												
Rehirings, 1940	.10	.24	.10	.16	.47	.33	.16					
New hirings, 1940	5.56	4.86	3.87	4.35	3.68	5.05	2.89					
Total:												
1940	5.66	5.10	3.97	4.51	4.15	5.38	3.05					
1939	2.41	3.37	3.63	2.65	3.56	4.01	3.81	3.35	5.34	7.92	6.90	5.19
1938	.54	.35	.38	.98	.74	.84	1.35	1.88	.99	2.60	1.88	2.27

[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.
[3] Beginning with January 1940, accessions have been separated into two classifications—rehires, which include workers hired after a separation of 3 months or less, and other employees hired.

Examination of the quit rates fails to disclose any large-scale raiding within the industry. The number of quits averaged 1.25 monthly per hundred employed during the first 7 months of 1940, com-

pared with 0.62 during 1938. The comparatively high quit rate of 1940 is, however, low in comparison with the new-hire rate of 4.32 for the same period. It would appear, therefore, that since considerable plant experience is nearly always a prerequisite to employment in the machine-tool industry, the rise in employment is being achieved through a shift of workers from other industries where such experience could have been obtained.

Discharges and Quits

There is some evidence that not all the workers coming into the machine-tool industry in 1940 were satisfactory. The average monthly discharge rate during 1938 was only 0.08 per hundred employees. During the first 7 months of 1940, the average monthly discharge rate rose to 0.45—almost six times as large. The Bureau's data for all industries show an average monthly discharge rate of 0.11 during 1938 and only 0.14 for the first 7 months of 1940.

It may be observed that the shifting of workers within the industry is greater in areas where the machine-tool industry is more concentrated than elsewhere. In the Cincinnati area, for example, the quit rate—the rate which most nearly measures the voluntary movements of workers—was 7.7 for the first 6 months of 1940, whereas the rest of the country averaged 5.9. A similar picture is shown for the broader and more comprehensive general manufacturing industries of the Hartford County (Conn.) area. In a recent report,[2] it was shown that in this highly industrialized area, in which an important section of the expanding airplane-engine industry is situated, there were 82 plants employing 39,580 workers in July 1940. Their quit rate for the month was about 1.5, equivalent to a rate of about 9.0 per hundred employees for the first 6 months of 1940.

Turn-Over in Relation to Size of Plant and Type of Product

Certain significant tendencies in turn-over rates appear when the rates in the larger plants are separated from those of the smaller plants. In the larger machine-tool plants, i. e., those in which the average employment for the first 7 months of 1940 was over 500, lay-offs per hundred employees were fewer while accessions were generally greater. This condition is probably due to the fact that the larger firms have been receiving a more than proportionate share of the recent increase in machine-tool orders.

Turn-over rates vary also according to the type of product. It is apparent that the builders of metal-cutting machines and their accessories are the chief beneficiaries of the present expansion in the machine-tool industry. Reports from firms engaged in the building

[2] Manufacturers' Association of Hartford County. Statistical Report, August 8, 1940.

of textile, woodworking, and other specialized machinery show higher separation rates and smaller accession rates. It is observable also that these firms rehire proportionately more of their former employees than do the builders of metal-cutting tools and accessories.

Certain firms deviate from the labor turn-over patterns prevailing in plants of their general size or product. Within the same group of machine-tool builders, rehiring rates were found to be comparatively very large or very small. Also, for the 7-month period of 1940, some firms had both a high separation rate and a high accession rate; others, however, presented the more satisfactory combination of a low separation rate and a high accession rate. Two of the largest plants in the industry, situated less than 50 miles apart, manufacture somewhat similar products and both have been enjoying high accession rates. One, however, had a high separation rate and the other a very low one.

VACATIONS WITH PAY IN UNION AGREEMENTS, 1940 [1]

AN ESTIMATED two million union members, or approximately 25 percent of all organized wage earners in the United States, receive annual vacations with pay under collective agreements with their employers. In the manufacturing industries about one-third of the union members receive paid vacations through their union agreements. In transportation, almost 40 percent of the union bus, city passenger, and maritime workers receive vacations, although almost none of the railroad employees are covered by such vacation provisions. Vacations with pay are almost entirely absent in coal and metal mining, as well as building construction agreements. In the professional and clerical occupations about 45 percent of the union members have paid vacations in their agreements.

The majority of these workers receive a maximum of 1 week's vacation with pay after 1 year's service with the company. Approximately one-half million union members work under agreements which provide a 2-week maximum for all or a part of the working force. However, since 2-week vacations are often restricted to employees with service records of longer than 1 year, it is impossible to estimate the number actually receiving 2-week vacations with pay.

The inclusion of paid-vacation plans has become general in the union agreements in many industries. Some of these industries, including iron and steel, rubber, cement, rayon yarn, and aluminum manufacture, are well organized and the vacation provisions in the written agreements, therefore, are representative of conditions throughout the industry. In some other trades and industries which are less well organized, while paid vacations are included in almost all of the existing union agreements, such provisions are not necessarily representative of conditions in the industry as a whole. These include office, technical and professional employees, wholesale and retail trade, telegraph and radio, meat packing, petroleum production and refining, light and power, coke and manufactured gas, chemicals, newspaper office employees, and building maintenance workers.

Paid vacations in the rubber, petroleum, and steel industries in many cases antedate the establishment of collective-bargaining relations. Paid vacations in the steel industry, for example, were adopted in 1936 by the majority of steel companies just before the organizing drive of the Steel Workers Organizing Committee, which brought most

[1] Based on the file of current union agreements in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, August 1940, and other sources.

of the industry under written union agreements. Since the inclusion of vacations in the first agreement in 1937, union efforts have been directed toward the liberalization and extension of vacation benefits.

Although the trend toward annual paid vacations for industrial wage earners is of comparatively recent origin, many salaried clerical, technical, and professional employees have enjoyed vacations with pay for many years. Union agreements covering "white-collar" workers therefore contain a higher proportion of vacation plans than the average industrial agreement. These include newspaper office employees, telegraph and radio operators, office workers, and employees in retail and wholesale establishments.

In contrast to the above-mentioned industries, there are significant sections of American industry which are marked by an almost complete absence of paid vacations in union agreements. In some cases these industries are highly organized and have a long history of collective bargaining. In this latter category are clothing manufacture, railroad transportation, building construction, coal mining, longshoring, and the entertaining occupations, including actors and musicians. With the exception of railroad transportation, these occupations and industries are marked by seasonal lay-offs and intermittent work. Further, in some of these industries workers are employed by a number of different employers during the year.

The absence of vacations in these industries is partially due to the contention that cumulative fatigue, which may justify vacations for year-round workers, is not a factor in casual or intermittent employment, which by the nature of the work provides opportunity for rest and relaxation. However, a recent arbitration decision granting paid vacations to several hundred ship clerks in San Francisco who are employed on a casual basis by numbers of different employers, refused to recognize this contention as a valid basis for denial of vacation rights.[2]

The following table indicates the extent of vacations with pay provisions in union agreements in the various trades and industries. It should be noted that those industries have been omitted from the table in which there is only a negligible amount of collective bargaining.

[2] In the matter of a controversy between the Ship Clerks' Union, Local 1-34, I. L. W. U., complainant, and the Waterfront Employers' Association of San Francisco, respondent. Final award dated June 25, 1940. Chairman Wayne L. Morse stated: "The fact that a clerk may take time off at his own expense does not provide him with a true vacation privilege * * * It isn't much of a vacation for a clerk to be out of a job intermittently and during that time be under the economic pressure of maintaining contacts each day with the hiring hall in the hope that he may be dispatched to another job." The chairman further suggested that the problem of diversity of employment might be solved through establishment of a vacation fund, administered by the local Joint Labor Relations Committee, which would make assessments on the various employers similar to present assessments for the cost of the hiring hall.

Prevalence of Paid-Vacation Provisions in Union Agreements, 1940

[Industries are omitted in which there is only a negligible amount of collective bargaining]

Proportion of union agreements with annual paid vacations, by trades and industries

Large proportion	About half	Moderate proportion	Almost entirely without
Aluminum (refining and fabrication). Building maintenance (residential and office buildings).[1] Cement manufacture. Chemicals (paints, varnish, fertilizer, cosmetics, perfume, soap, explosives, drugs, and industrial chemicals).[1] Coke and manufactured gas. Iron and steel. Light and power. Meat packing. Newspaper office employees (editorial, circulation, and advertising). Office, technical, and professional employees (excludes theater, newspaper and railroad employees).[1] Petroleum (crude production and refining). Rayon yarn. Retail trade (department, specialty and grocery stores—sales, delivery and office personnel).[1] Rubber (tires, inner tubes, boots, shoes, and other rubber goods). Sugar refining, cane and beet.[1] Telegraph. Wholesale trade.[1]	Aircraft manufacture.[1] Baking (bread, crackers and cake — includes route salesmen). Breweries. Bus transport, intercity. Butchers (employed in retail trade). City passenger transport (street railway, elevated, bus, and subway). Cleaning and dyeing. Electrical equipment (includes radios). Flour and other grain products. Jewelry and silverware. Laundries.[1] Machinery and parts. Maritime transport (licensed and unlicensed personnel).[2] Railroad clerical service. Shipbuilding and repairs (private shipyards).	Automobiles and parts. Automobile sales and service (includes gasoline stations).[1] Brick and clay products (includes pottery and chinaware).[3] Canning (vegetable, fruit, fish, etc.). Cigarettes. Cotton textiles and small wares. Dyeing and finishing textiles (excluding hosiery). Furniture (wood, upholstered, and metal). Hotels and restaurants. Metal mining, nonferrous. Milk and other dairy products (includes route salesmen). Printing and publishing, newspaper and book and job. Pulp and paper products. Silk and rayon textiles. Tailors (merchant tailors employed in retail trade). Trucking, city and intercity (excludes salesmen). Woolen and worsted textiles.	Barbers. Building construction. Cigars. Clothing, men's (outerwear and underwear). Clothing, women's (outerwear and underwear). Coal mining. Fishing. Furs. Glass (window, plate, and other flat glass). Glassware. Hats and millinery. Hosiery. Leather (tanning and leather products other than shoes). Longshore. Lumber and timber products (logging, sawmills, planing mills, and products other than furniture, pulp and paper, turpentine and rosin). Motion picture production (except actors). Musicians. Performers (legitimate stage, vaudeville, burlesque, grand opera, motion picture, and radio performers). Quarrying.[1] Railroad shops and maintenance. Railroad train and engine service. Shoes. Stoves. Taxicab. Theater-maintenance employees (picture machine operators, ushers, stage hands, box-office employees). Upholstering and floor-covering (employees in retail trade).

[1] The extent of collective bargaining in this industry is small.
[2] Almost all agreements covering licensed officers contain annual paid vacations.
[3] Only pottery workers receive vacations with pay in their union agreements.

Length of Vacation Period

The most common vacation provision found in union agreements establishes a 1-week vacation with pay annually for all "regular" employees of the company, usually defined as those with 1 or more years' service with the employer. There are practically no instances of vacation periods of shorter than 1 week, except for newer employees, who are entitled in some agreements to a shortened vacation prior to achieving service status for full vacation rights. A representative 1-week vacation clause reads as follows:

The company agrees to allow each employee who is on the pay roll at the time of the signing of this agreement and who has had 1 year's service up to June 1, 1940, 1 week's vacation with pay, based on his average hourly earnings for the preceding 6 months, he to be paid for 40 hours' vacation on this average earning period.

Two-week vacation periods for all "regular" employees are the rule in the vacation clauses covering licensed and unlicensed maritime personnel, telegraph and radio operators, office, technical and professional workers, newspaper office employees, and workers in light and power plants. A small number of city passenger transport agreements and scattered agreements in other industries also grant regular 2-week vacations to all employees with minimum service requirements.

A much higher proportion of agreements, however, grant 2-week vacations with pay to employees who have attained a specified length of service with the company beyond the minimum required for 1-week vacations. From information available, the Bureau of Labor Statistics is unable to estimate the actual number of workers who receive 2-week vacations with pay under union agreements, since this depends on the length of service of the individual employees. It is possible, however, to estimate the number of wage earners covered by union agreements which provide 2-week vacations and who may therefore become eligible for such additional vacation periods.

The Bureau estimates that nearly half a million employees work under agreements which provide annual 2-week vacations with pay for those employees with specified lengths of service. Industries in which a significant number of those entitled to vacations may receive 2 weeks annually with pay, after attaining certain required service status, include petroleum production and refining, meat packing, city passenger transportation, rubber, trucking, retail trade, machinery and parts, electrical equipment, and intercity bus transportation.

There are many industries in which union agreements, while providing 1-week vacations for considerable numbers of employees, do not establish 2-week vacation benefits for senior employees. These include iron and steel, cement, textile, automobile and parts, chemical, aluminum manufacturing, shipbuilding, baking, canning, printing, retail butchers, hotels and restaurants, laundries, and building maintenance employees. The following is typical of the 1- and 2-week vacation provisions:

Each employee who has been continuously in the service of the company for 1 year or more shall receive 1 week's vacation with pay. And each employee who has been continuously in the service of the company for 2 years or more shall receive an additional week's vacation with pay.

Those who are granted vacations shall be paid for 40 hours at their regular wage rates, respectively. Piece workers shall be paid at their regular hourly rate.

Vacation periods of more than 2 weeks annually are extremely rare. A few union agreements provide vacations of 3 or 4 weeks

with pay for special groups of employees or those with additional seniority. In this category are found most of the agreements referred to above in which a basic 2-week vacation is granted to all "regular" employees. Thus, licensed officers in maritime transportation often receive more than 2 weeks' vacation annually, as do some senior radio and telegraph operators, office, technical and professional workers, newspaper editorial employees, and employees in some large retail establishments.

Eligibility Requirements

In the great majority of union agreements, 1 year's service with the employer is the period required before an employee is eligible for a paid vacation. In a very few instances, agreements provide a full week's vacation for employees with but 6 months' service. The 6-month eligibility provision is the prevailing practice only in agreements covering office and professional workers.

In some agreements employees with less than a year's service at the time vacations are granted may be allowed a proportional share of the vacation allowed to regular employees, such as vacation credit at the rate of 1 day or a half day for each month's employment, until the maximum vacation allowance is reached.

In those few agreements which grant vacation rights to employees who have not worked steadily throughout the year, some provision is usually inserted defining the basis of eligibility in terms of the number of weeks, or number of hours worked during the year. Thus, two automobile agreements specify 1,000 and 1,440 hours, respectively, as the amount of employment necessary to obtain vacation rights. In the tobacco industry, one agreement sets 39 weeks' employment as the eligibility requirement, while two machinists' agreements provide vacations to all who have been employed 175 and 180 days, respectively, during the preceding year. Casual ship clerks in San Francisco receive 2-week vacations if they have been employed 90 percent of the total work hours permissible under the agreement, and 1-week vacations if their employment has reached 70 percent of the total permissible work hours. Other agreements merely state that breaks in service not exceeding a specified number of weeks or months do not disqualify an employee for vacation rights.

Longer periods of employment than 1 year are sometimes required. A requirement of 2 years' service is found in a majority of meat-packing agreements and in occasional agreements in the paper, petroleum, light and power, cleaning and dyeing, and automobile industries. Five years' service is required in several important agreements in the steel industry, and in a few agreements in the rubber industry.

Conditional Vacation Rights

In a small number of union agreements in which the principle of paid vacations has not yet been definitely established, conditions may be imposed by the employer upon which vacation rights are dependent. The most common of these conditions are based on the financial status of the company. The employer agrees to grant paid vacations, provided the company's profits or sales volume, or some other financial criteria, reach a specified level. A typical provision of this kind reads:

> It is agreed that in the event the employer shall have earned a net profit for the period from July 1, 1939, to July 1, 1940, as shown by the employer's profit and loss statement as of June 30, 1940, after payment or provision for all dividends upon the preferred stock, and an amount equal to 50 cents per share upon the common capital stock of the employer outstanding as of July 1, 1939, then the following vacation plan shall be effective for the year 1940:
> [Detailed vacation arrangements follow.]

Other agreements grant vacations but provide that certain conditions may allow the employer to reopen collective bargaining on the question, or to explain to the union his inability to grant vacation rights. In still other agreements vacations are made dependent on the competitive standing of the employer, who agrees to grant paid vacations when a certain proportion of his industry, or when certain-named competitors do likewise.

Loss of Vacation Rights

In many agreements an employee who suffers extended lay-offs because of slack work is excluded from vacation rights. Leave of absence which extends for a considerable length of time also disqualifies an employee for his vacation. Several agreements specify that time lost because of sickness or accident shall not be deducted from an employee's service record in computing vacation eligibility.

In extremely rare cases, the length of the vacation period for individual employees is reduced as a penalty for specified infractions of company rules, such as habitual tardiness or "ringing out" before quitting time.

The case of the employee who becomes separated from his employment prior to his vacation period is taken up in many agreements. In some, an employee who resigns or is discharged for cause loses all accumulated vacation rights. In other agreements such an employee is given a proportionate share of his expected vacation pay in lieu of a vacation.

Vacation Pay

The great majority of union agreements which grant paid vacations merely specify that the employee is to receive his regular rate of pay

for the vacation period. Some agreements, however, in an effort to eliminate future ambiguities or conflicts in interpretation of so general a phrase, outline more detailed plans for determining vacation pay. Piece workers, in particular, require more exact means of calculating vacation pay; usually an average is taken of the employee's weekly earnings over a specified period. Workers paid by the hour sometimes work at different rates during the same week, in which case the "predominating" rate is often used. Employees temporarily assigned to lower-paid work are thus assured that this lower rate shall not be made the basis of their vacation pay. The following is an example of an agreement provision which averages wages over a period of 1 year in determining vacation pay:

> Each employee, who on July 1, 1940, has accumulated service in the employ of the employer of at least 1 year, but less than 10 years, shall take 1 week's vacation, and in lieu of pay for such week shall receive an amount equal to 2 percent of the total wages actually received by such employee from the employer for the 12-month period immediately preceding July 1, 1940, and each employee who on July 1, 1940, has accumulated service in the employ of the employer of 10 years or over shall take 2 weeks' vacation, and in lieu of pay for such 2 weeks shall receive an amount equal to 4 percent of the total wages actually received by such employee from the employer for the 12-month period immediately preceding July 1, 1940. The vacation period or periods shall be designated by the employer.

Under many agreements, overtime or other extra earnings are excluded from the calculation of vacation pay. Some agreements which provide certain perquisites such as meals or lodging in addition to cash wages require that the cash value of such items be included in the base pay for vacation purposes. For example, an agreement covering restaurant workers provides that a $3 weekly meal allowance must be included in the employee's basic rate upon which vacation pay is computed.

In only a few agreements does the vacation pay differ from the employees' regular pay or its computed equivalent. In a limited number of agreements a flat amount is given to each employee regardless of salary level. This amount may be more or less than the regular rate of pay for those receiving it. In a few cases a flat payment is added to the employees' regular rate of pay, thus insuring extra pay for the vacation period.

Cash payments in lieu of vacations are prohibited in a large number of agreements. This provision insures to workers the time off for rest and recreation which a vacation affords, and which is the basic reason for the demand for vacation rights in union agreements. A few agreements, however, permit cash payments in lieu of vacations. Such provisions are usually found only in seasonal industries where there are periodic lay-offs. The recently negotiated General Motors agreement, for example, provides for vacation pay equal to a week's wages,

but does not explicitly provide for vacations. In one shipbuilding agreement the union agrees that employees will accept vacation pay and waive their right to time off for vacations if this is made necessary by the national defense program.

The time of the vacation payment is taken up in some agreements. Many of these specify that the vacation pay must be given in advance of the actual vacation.

Timing of Vacation Period

About half of the agreements set the general time during which vacations may be taken. In almost all of these the summer months are fixed as the vacation period. During the specified months, employees are usually given the choice of vacation periods on the basis of seniority, although the employer may veto an individual choice in the interest of efficient operation of the establishment. In some agreements a schedule of vacations is required to be posted at the beginning of the season.

When plants shut down for the vacation period, some agreements provide for joint negotiation between the union and the employer regarding the exact time of the shut-down. A frequent requirement for plant shut-down vacations is that notice be given to all employees sufficiently in advance to enable them to complete their vacation plans.

The splitting up of vacation time is prohibited in many agreements. Split vacations are customarily allowed only in agreements providing more than 1-week vacations; for example, senior employees in a few large department stores are granted 1-week winter vacations in addition to summer vacations under their union agreements.

Foreign Wartime Conditions

CANADIAN WAR MEASURES [1]

Rescinding of Order Fixing Bread and Flour Prices

ON AUGUST 6, 1940, the Wartime Prices and Trade Board ordered that the maximum prices of bread should be those prevailing on July 23, before the imposition of the wheat-processing tax and that flour prices should also be those of that date plus 35 cents additional per barrel.

On September 6, the order fixing bread and flour prices was rescinded. In announcing its action the Board stated:

> In ordering on August 6 that the prices of bread and wheat flour in Canada must revert to those prevailing on July 23 and that millers must, in respect of flour sales after the date of the order, add to their invoices not more than half the levy of 70 cents per barrel, the Board emphasized that its ruling was in the nature of a standstill order in the interest of consumers generally, to provide an opportunity to examine the implications of the new legislation and permit an adequate investigation to be made.
>
> The Board's inquiry followed immediately upon the standstill order. It has included an audit by the Board's auditors of the books of representative flour-milling companies in Canada. An interim report by the auditors indicates that the average profits resulting from the milling of flour for domestic consumption are considerably less in the case of the mills selected for investigation than the amount of the levy imposed by the order; and since the mills subject to audit are among the most efficient in Canada, it is a reasonable assumption that most of the hundreds of smaller mills throughout the country are even less able than their larger competitors to bear the levy at present being assessed against their product.

The audit of the Board included the 5 years ended August 31, 1939. It is pointed out that the operations of the milling year ended August 31, 1940, will disclose a somewhat improved position in regard to flour milled for domestic consumption, but full data for that year were not available at the time the order was rescinded.

Fixing of Maximum Rentals

Maximum rentals at which any housing accommodations may be offered for rent or rented may be fixed from time to time in any area in Canada, under the Wartime Prices and Trades Board, according

[1] Unless otherwise noted, data for this article are from the Canadian Labor Gazette, Ottawa, September 1940.

to an order in council of December 5, 1939 (P. C. 3998) as amplified by an order in council of September 11, 1940, (P. C. 4616), with the approval of the Governor in Council.[2]

On September 24, 1940, the Governor General, on the recommendation of the Dominion Minister of Labor issued an order, effective October 1, 1940, appointing an administrator and a technical adviser for the Board and specifying the Board's powers in this connection as follows:

(*a*) The Wartime Prices and Trades Board is hereby authorized, from time to time, in any area in Canada, to fix the maximum rental at which any housing accommodation may be rented or offered for rent and to prescribe the manner in which any maximum rental shall be determined and the conditions under which any housing accommodation may be rented or offered for rent. * * *

(*d*) The Wartime Prices and Trades Board is hereby authorized to appoint from time to time in any area a local committee, to be known by such title and to be composed of such person or persons as the Board may designate, for the purpose of investigating and adjudicating local complaints and applications respecting rentals and housing accommodations and performing such other local duties as may be designated by the Board and to delegate to any committee so appointed such powers to be exercised in such manner and according to such procedure as which the Board may from time to time prescribe.

(*e*) The Wartime Prices and Trades Board is hereby authorized from time to time to make regulations concerning rentals, housing accommodations, and leasehold rights and obligations, to apply throughout Canada or in such areas in Canada as the Board may designate.

Section 2 of order No. 7 of the Wartime Prices and Trades Board fixes the following maximum rentals:

(*a*) For any housing accommodation for which there was a lease in effect on January 2, 1940, the rental charged or demanded shall not exceed that in effect on that date;

(*b*) For any housing accommodation for which there was no lease in effect on January 2, 1940, but for which there was a lease in effect at some time or times during 1939, the rental charged or demanded shall not exceed that payable under the latest lease in 1939;

(*c*) For any other housing accommodation, the Rentals Administrator of his own motion or on application in writing by either landlord or tenant, may determine the maximum rental.

The same order also provides that no notice to vacate shall be given to a tenant who refuses to pay a rental in excess of the maximum fixed by the Board. Furthermore, where a maximum rental has not been determined and the landlord has demanded an increase, the tenant who refuses to pay such advance may not be given a notice to vacate the premises until the maximum rental has been determined by the Rentals Administrator. Any amount paid as rental for housing accommodation on or after October 1, 1940, above the maximum fixed by this order shall be recoverable by the person paying such

[2] The Canada Gazette, Extra, Ottawa, September 26, 1940. (No. 32.)

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excess. All leases shall be considered as amended insofar as may be necessary to make the order effective.

Any provision in a lease under which the tenant agrees to pay a rental in excess of that fixed by or determined under this order or to waive his rights thereunder shall be null and void.

Speeding Up the Industrial Program

In the last week of August 1940, construction work was begun on several new major establishments in the industrial-development program of the Dominion Government, a program involving expenditures and commitments aggregating $165,000,000. The plant construction under way will include the erection or expansion of over 100 plants.

Some of these Dominion-owned establishments are already operating, and a large percentage of them are expected to be producing within a few months. Still others are scheduled for operation in the second quarter of 1941, and a few are scheduled for completion during the current year.

The stimulating effects of this construction program on Canadian economy is suggested by the fact that in one city of moderate population some 15,000 additional men will be employed; in another municipality one additional plant will alone call for a staff of over 7,000.

No accurate estimate of the yearly value of the productions of these establishments is yet available, but the Minister of Munitions and Supply indicated that it might reach approximately $800,000,000. The plants are being erected in localities where materials can be produced with great rapidity—a war requirement—and where a sufficient supply of skilled workers, raw materials, and adequate transportation are available.

Not only are Government establishments to be constructed and equipped to manufacture materials for war, "but privately owned plants have increasingly been harnessed to war needs." Since the beginning of the war, expenditures of the Department of Munitions and Supply have averaged over $1,000,000 a day to meet the needs of the armed forces.

In the latter part of August the purchases by the Department of Munitions and Supply on Canadian account exceeded $300,000,000. Purchases on British account aggregated some $85,000,000. The plant-construction program together with other expenditures and commitments by the last-mentioned Department, totaled $550,000,000 in the last 11 months.

Expansion of Youth-Training Program

Over 22,000 Canadians will have been trained within a year to be airplane mechanics, aeroengine fitters, and wire operators for the

Royal Canadian Air Force as well as to fit into various skilled trades requisite for war industry, if anticipations in the early fall of 1940 are realized, according to an announcement of the Minister of Labor on September 14. He reported that the classes for these occupations so important for war work, which are carried on primarily as a part of the Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Program, would be extended substantially. The Dominion Department of Labor is working in close cooperation with the R. C. A. F. and other wartime industries in carrying out the youth-training program.

Training given to young men in the past year was of the following three types:

(1) Training in classes to fit men for different kinds of ground work. The enrollment in the classes in the past year was about 3,000. It is planned practically to double this number in the next 12 months. Up to September 14, 1940, the Dominion and the Provinces had shared the costs of this training, but in the future a considerable percentage of the increase will be met by the Dominion Government.

(2) Training in airplane manufacture and war industry. Such training which was conducted in the technical schools last summer, will also be carried on in the fall and winter. From July to September over 7,000 young men were trained in 65 schools. More than 7,000 others will probably be trained between October 1940 and June 1941. The training includes machine-shop work, aircraft manufacture, sheet-metal work, welding, and woodworking.

(3) Industrial classes. These classes, in which more than 5,000 men had been trained in the last year, are anticipating a similar enrollment for next year.

Provisions for Military Training

Following the national registration on August 19–21, 1940, the Department of National War Services, under the authority of the National Resources Mobilization Act, issued its first regulations concerning the calling out of classes for military training. The regulations require military service from all male Canadians, between 21 and 45, inclusive, who are unmarried or widowers without children. Persons excepted from call are listed below:

(*a*) Judges of superior, district, or county courts of justice;

(*b*) Members of the clergy or religious orders;

(*c*) Regular clergymen or ministers of religious denominations;

(*d*) Members of the naval, military, or air forces of Canada on active service and cadets entered at the Royal Military College of Canada;

(*e*) Permanently employed members of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police and of Provincial police forces;

(*f*) Permanently employed members of police forces and fire brigades of any incorporated city;

(*g*) Permanently employed wardens and officers of all penitentiaries, prisons, and lunatic asylums, or mental hospitals.

EMPLOYEES TO BE REINSTATED

Employers are required, under prescribed conditions, to reinstate all employees called out for military training at the termination of such service. The detailed provisions are:

> It shall be the duty of the employer of any person called out for military training to reinstate such employee at the termination of the period of training in his occupation, and under conditions not less favorable to the employee than those which would have applied to him had he not been called out for training; and an employer who, without just or reasonable cause, fails to comply with this regulation, shall be guilty of an offense against this regulation and liable, on summary conviction, to imprisonment not exceeding 6 months or to a fine not exceeding $500 and not less than $100 or to both such imprisonment and such fine; in addition, the court may order such employer to pay to the employee a sum not exceeding an amount equal to 5 week's remuneration at the rate prevailing at the time the employee was called out for training: *Provided, however*, That the employer aforesaid shall not be convicted if he proves that the person formerly employed did not within 1 week after the termination of his military training apply for reinstatement, or that, having been offered reinstatement, such person failed without reasonable excuse to present himself for employment.

Increased Employment of Older Workers

A marked increase in the demand for more highly skilled men in the metal trades, resulting from Canadian war activities was recently reported by the Dominion Department of Labor. The offices of the Employment Service of Canada in several localities announce a shortage of tool and die makers, and to meet the requirements of certain localities for other classes of skilled workers it is necessary to transfer such workers from point to point.

Some evidence is available, for example, in the case of tool makers, that those who had retired from or left the occupation in recent years were now going back to their trade. Furthermore, employers are taking on older skilled workers. Conditions are being reviewed by the Department of Labor in order to aid industry to secure the requisite personnel in these essential trades.

LABOR CONDITIONS IN CHUNGKING, CHINA [1]

BEFORE 1937 Chungking was but a handicraft city without industrial importance. After the war began, mass evacuation of factories from the Lower Yangtze to Chungking was achieved with Government assistance. This was followed by the concentration of skilled workers. The number of skilled workers has been increased from 120,000 to 200,000.

[1] Quoted from Chinese Association of Labor, Chinese Labor News Bulletin (Chungking, China), July 1, 1940.

At present Chungking has 86 trade and industrial unions with a membership of 157,000 persons. However, 30 percent of the newcomers from the war zone have not yet become members. They are distributed in different occupations as follows:

	Percent
Transportation	15
Construction	12
Bristles	20
Textiles and weaving	12
Public works	16
Communications	25

Since the war of resistance began, living conditions of the workers have been improved to an appreciable extent. With an increased demand for labor, an increase of wages followed. Now in Chungking the pay for an ordinary day is about 2 to 3 dollars. Despite the soaring of commodity prices, life of the workers is nevertheless improved. As a result of the inauguration of large-scale industrial enterprises, the demand for skilled workers is greater than the supply.

For the sake of solidarity, a preliminary trade-union was organized last February. It was formally organized on April 20. Important resolutions passed include: To start an institute for the children of workers, with classes for illiterates; to petition the Government to open a workers' hospital and to build workers' residences; to insist on proper representatives in the forthcoming National Assembly.

WARTIME WAGE CHANGES IN GREAT BRITAIN

WAGE rates in Great Britain increased 8 percent from August 1939 to March 1940. This was in contrast to the situation in the war of 1914–18 when the level of wages showed little change during the 7-month period following the outbreak of hostilities. From August 1914 to March 1915 a total of 805,000 operatives received advances in wage rates aggregating £105,000 weekly. From September to December 1939, increases were granted to 4,750,000 workers in the amount of £830,000 a week. In the first quarter of 1940 another 5,250,000 wage earners obtained raises of £855,000 a week. Some of the employees received two increases in pay.

Owing to the rapid wage changes as shown in the official statistics here cited, a request was addressed to a number of large firms in different industries to give information on wages paid in 3 selected weeks of 1939–40. The inquiry was conducted by the National Institute of Economic and Social Research [1] and the results are summarized in this article. Employers who were circularized were asked to state the number of operatives, by sex and age, receiving wages and

[1] The Royal Economic Society. The Economic Journal (London), June-September 1940: Changes in Wage Rates and Earnings.

the total amount paid to each group of workers in the 3 weeks ending March 18 and September 23, 1939, and March 16, 1940. Firms were also requested to give particulars of wage increases from September 24, 1939, to March 16, 1940.

Returns for 270 establishments in different industries were tabulated. The firms represented paid about £2,457,000 in wages in the week ending March 16, 1940. They employed 719,000 operatives, or about 9 percent of the total number of wage earners in manufacturing industries in the United Kingdom.

Index numbers showing changes in numbers of operatives employed and wages paid by the reporting firms are shown in table 1. The number of workers increased 3.8 percent between March 1939 and March 1940; total wages paid rose 20.6 percent; and average wages paid per worker advanced 16.3 percent in this 1-year period. However the industrial distribution of the sample appears to be such as to overstate the rise in average earnings since March 1939, according to the report here reviewed. If it is assumed that the changes in average earnings shown by reporting firms are typical of other firms in the same industries, and the returns are weighted by the estimated total number of operatives in the industries making returns, the resulting increase in average earnings per worker amounts to 14.6 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Changes in Numbers of Workers Employed and Wages Paid by Firms Making Returns*

Week ending—	Indexes (week ending Mar. 18, 1939=100.0) of—		
	Workers employed	Wages paid	Average wage paid per worker
Mar. 18, 1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sept. 23, 1939	101.9	108.2	106.1
Mar. 16, 1940	103.8	120.6	116.3

Average earnings increased more rapidly than wage rates, owing to the payment of bonuses, extension of piece work, and payment for longer hours and overtime. In the first 7 months of the present war earnings rose 10 percent and wage rates 7 percent.

Indexes of change in the number of workers employed by age and sex and wages paid by firms making returns are given in table 2. Employment of females increased more than that of males, and average wages increased more than the number employed. Girls and young women received an average weekly wage of 30s. 5d. in March 1940, the increase amounting to 20.6 percent in a year. Adult males averaged 70s. in March 1939 as compared with 81s. 8d. a year later, or an increase of 16.6 percent. For females 21 years old and over wages rose from 36s. 5d. to 41s. 2d. and for males under 21 from 30s. to 34s.

TABLE 2.—*Changes in Numbers of Workers Employed by Age and Sex and Wages Paid by Firms Making Returns*

Sex and age of workers	Week ending—	Indexes (week ending Mar. 18, 1939=100.0) of—		
		Workers employed	Wages paid	Average wage per worker employed
Males, 21 and over	Mar. 18, 1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Sept. 23, 1939	101.5	107.9	106.3
	Mar. 16, 1940	101.1	118.1	116.6
Males, under 21	Mar. 18, 1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Sept. 23, 1939	100.4	102.1	102.0
	Mar. 16, 1940	102.8	115.0	111.9
Females, 21 and over	Mar. 18, 1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Sept. 23, 1939	102.2	105.9	103.3
	Mar. 16, 1940	105.4	119.2	112.6
Females, under 21	Mar. 18, 1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Sept. 23, 1939	101.3	110.2	108.1
	Mar. 16, 1940	106.8	129.4	120.6

Average earnings changed most markedly in the shipbuilding, chemicals, and engineering trades in the 6 months before the war. The increase for shipbuilding was 26.0 percent, for chemicals 10.0 percent, and for engineering 8.5 percent. Since the war began the rise has been greatest in the mining, textiles, clothing, and pottery industries.

For the engineering industry the sample showed a 9.5 percent increase in number employed between March 1939 and 1940, a 26.3 percent rise in total wages paid, and a 15.6 percent increase in average earnings.

All firms taken together showed a 7-percent rise in wage rates between September 1939 and March 1940. All except four firms reported that wages had been increased after September 1939. Average earnings rose 10.0 percent and wage rates 7.0 percent. Shipbuilding and chemical firms reported a larger gain in wage rates than in average earnings. The reverse was true of engineering. Although earnings of males failed to keep pace with the rise in wage rates, the rise in earnings of females was greater than that in wage rates.

Collective Bargaining

ARBITRATION AWARD—SHIP CLERKS' UNION OF SAN FRANCISCO [1]

A RECENT arbitration award dealing with wage rates and paid vacations for ship clerks in San Francisco reveals the numerous factors which an arbitrator takes into account when rendering a decision. In this instance the board of arbitration was asked to make an award on the wages to be paid to ship clerks, and to decide whether or not such ship clerks should be given vacations with pay.[2] According to the rules of procedure followed, the issues were finally referred to the impartial chairman after the employer and the union representatives on the board were unable to come to an agreement.

The final award disallowed the wage increases asked by the union, but granted vacations with pay to both the monthly paid clerks and the casual daily clerks. Paid vacations for casual workers are quite uncommon in American industry, and the reasons given by the arbitrator for granting them are of particular interest. The following is quoted from the award. [3]

Chairman's Award

FACTORS CONSIDERED IN REACHING DECISION

"The chairman, in studying and analyzing the mass of evidence, much of it conflicting, which the parties introduced into the record at the arbitration hearings, was guided by the fair rule that each issue should be determined upon the basis of the preponderance of the evidence test. * * * It is exceptionally difficult to decide a wage issue in a case such as this one because of the large number of variable factors which must be taken into consideration, and because the evidence and exhibits are highly conflicting. Furthermore, there does not exist any fixed scale of wage measurement or any 'rule of thumb' set of wage criteria which can be applied automatically by

[1] In the matter of a controversy between the Ship Clerks' Union, Local 1-34, I. L. W. U., complainant, and the Waterfront Employers' Association of San Francisco, respondent. Mr. Wayne L. Morse, chairman of the board of arbitration.

[2] The award also included decisions on other issues, such as hiring hall rules, hours for monthly clerks, equalization of terms for daily clerks. The portions of the award dealing with these matters are not quoted in the above, but only those sections dealing with wages and vacations which are of general interest to all industrial workers and employers.

[3] Except headings which were inserted.

an arbitrator in settling a wage dispute. It is generally recognized that employees are entitled to wages and salaries sufficient to enable them, through the exercise of thrift and reasonable economy, to maintain themselves and families in decency and comfort and to make reasonable provision for old age. Such a wage is generally referred to as a fair and living wage, or an American standard of living wage.

"However, there is not any universal agreement among courts and arbitration boards as to just what criteria should be applied in determining a so-called fair and living wage. In fact there is such a great difference in evaluating the factors which should enter into the computing of a fair and living wage, that research experts, working in the field of wage economics, seldom agree in their computations.

"Nevertheless, there is general agreement that there are certain criteria which should be given weight by any court, arbitration board, agency, or group charged with the task of fixing a just and reasonable wage in a given dispute. They are as follows: (1) The scale of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries and by competitors; (2) the relation between wages and cost of living; (3) the hazards of employment; (4) the training and skill required; (5) the responsibility and authority entrusted to the employee; (6) the character and regularity of employment; (7) inequalities of wage rates within the industry; (8) opportunities for advancement within the industry; (9) the financial condition of the employer; and (10) the judgment and findings of other arbitrators, courts, and wage boards who have been called upon within recent periods of time to consider wage disputes in the same industry and in other industries within the same economic area. * * *"

Wages for this and similar work.—"The chairman, in reaching his final conclusion sustaining the employers' position on the wages to be paid monthly clerks, is satisfied from the record that the wages provided in the agreement of February 5, 1940, compare very favorably with the scale of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries in the San Francisco area and likewise compare favorably with the wages paid by competitors in the transportation industry. Although there was some conflict in the evidence concerning the average annual income of monthly senior clerks, the chairman is satisfied that the evidence supports the conclusion that the average annual income of such clerks, taking into account the overtime pay, is between $1,900 and $2,200." * * *

Relation between wages and cost of living.—"This arbitrator has held in previous arbitration awards and he repeats it now, that the relation between wages and the cost of living is the most important single factor to be taken into account in determining wages. After all is said and done, there is no escaping the fact that a fair and reasonable wage in keeping with American standards of living is largely deter-

mined by those price structures which enter into the computing of a cost-of-living budget. The union failed to introduce into the record any convincing evidence showing changes in cost of living in the San Francisco area during the past 2 years, which would justify an increase in the wage scale for monthly clerks. * * *

"The chairman has no right in rendering a wage award to take into account any changed circumstances that may have arisen within the industry since the arbitration hearing. It may be that if the wage issue were presented in light of recent developments caused by the rapidly changing international situation, evidence could be presented which would support a wage increase. Undoubtedly costs of living are gradually rising, and it probably is also true that recent changes in our national policy, relative to the national defense program and supplying of the Allies with war materials, will result in an economic stimulation which will reflect itself in various ways upon this industry, in a manner which may justify an increase in wages for monthly clerks in the near future. However, no evidence relative to such factors is a part of the record of this case and, of course, cannot be made a part of the record at this time. It is to be noted that section 21 of the agreement of February 5, 1940, provides that the wage scale may be reconsidered at the request of either party on the expiration of each succeeding 6-month period following this award. Thus, if changing conditions warrant it, the union may reopen the wage question 6 months hence and submit evidence on whatever factors may have arisen since this arbitration case, which may justify a revision of the wages allowed in this decision."

Hazards of the employment.—"The wage criterion as to the hazards of employment was considered by the chairman. However, although counsel for the union called attention to the fact that the hazards of employment are greater for dock clerks than for clerks in some other industries, such as hotels, no strong claim for an increase in wages on the ground of hazardous employment was made by the union. Obviously, the record would not support such a claim had it been made, because the evidence as to the nature of the work performed by dock clerks makes clear that, although there are dangers to safety involved in the work of a monthly dock clerk, they are not so exceptional or singular to the employment as to justify a wage increase on the hazard-of-employment factor alone."

Training and skill required.—"The union stressed in its evidence the wage criterion relative to the training and skill required of monthly dock clerks. The chairman is satisfied that highly intelligent, conscientious, and responsible employees are necessarily required to perform the work of monthly clerks. However, there is nothing in the record that would support a finding that monthly dock clerks must possess abilities superior to those required of employees doing similar

work in other industries. The wage scale allowed in this award compares very favorably with the wage scale paid to employees doing similar work in other industries. In fact the wage scale allowed in this award is somewhat above the average for other industries, and hence the chairman was unable to grant any wage increase on the basis of the contention that the training and skill required of monthly dock clerks entitled them to more pay."

Responsibility and authority of employee.—"The next factor considered by the chairman was the one relating to the responsibility and authority entrusted to the employees. There is no doubt in the mind of the chairman that the dock clerks do perform work that entails entrusting to them a considerable amount of responsibility and authority. However, it cannot be said on the basis of the proof introduced into the record, that the dock clerks perform any work of an executive nature. In the main, they work within very closely prescribed rules and regulations, and their work is closely directed by executive and managerial officers. This is true even of the men working in the supervisor classifications. The record failed to convince the chairman that the work of the clerk involves such an independence of action on his part, or such managerial functions, or such executive responsibilities as to entitle the monthly clerks to a wage increase, because of the special responsibilities inherent in the performance of their work."

Regularity of employment.—"The next wage factor which the chairman wishes to apply to the record of this case is that pertaining to the character and regularity of employment. There is no doubt about the fact, as shown by the record, that the monthly clerks are in a favorable position compared with preferred clerks and daily casual clerks, as far as regularity and security of employment is concerned. The evidence introduced by the employers overwhelmingly establishes the fact that it is a common practice in most industries to pay monthly employees somewhat less than daily employees when the wage rate is figured on an hourly basis. There is good reason for such a wage differential because obviously regularity of employment certainty of monthly income, and reasonable security in one's job is of dollars-and-cents value to any worker. It is only reasonable that such job advantages should reflect themselves in wage rates. Thus, the chairman was unable, on the basis of the evidence submitted, to accept the contention of the union that the monthly clerks should receive the same wage on a hourly basis as that received by the daily clerks. As the industry is now organized, there is no doubt about the fact that the monthly jobs are very much to be desired, even though the rate of pay, when computed on an hourly basis, is somewhat less than the hourly rate of pay received by daily clerks."

Inequalities of wage rates within the industry.—"The seventh wage criterion considered by the chairman was that of inequalities of wage

rates within the industry. The record does not support any increase of wages for monthly clerks on the basis of this criterion. Although it is true that the hourly rate of pay of monthly clerks is somewhat less than that of daily clerks, the annual income is higher. Thus, any seeming inequality in rates of pay to the disadvantage of the monthly clerks, disappears when the wage rates are studied from the standpoint of annual income, and from the standpoint of job advantages which the monthly clerks have over the daily clerks. In fact, such wage inequalities as may exist within the industry seem to work to the disadvantage of the daily clerks, as far as is shown by any evidence submitted in this case."

Opportunities for advancement.—"Another wage factor given weight by the chairman was that pertaining to opportunities for advancement within the industry. Here, again, the chairman was satisfied that a preponderance of the evidence supported the contentions of the employers as to this factor. The record shows that it has been a common practice for the employers to select members of their managerial staff from the ranks of monthly clerks. However, the chairman is of the opinion that the evidence in the record on this factor is not entitled to any great weight, because after all, employees are entitled to a wage scale commensurate with the nature of the work they perform, irrespective of the fact that the work may lead to promotions for a few of them. Nevertheless, the opportunity-for-advancement factor is entitled to some attention, especially in those instances when employees are demanding a wage scale in excess of a reasonably good wage already paid for their services."

Employers financial condition.—"One of the claims stressed by the employers was that the financial condition of the industry is such that the employers cannot afford to pay higher wages. However, the employers' evidence on this point was of a most general nature, and entitled to very little weight. * * *

"As this chairman has held before, a board of arbitration is never justified in fixing wages below that standard which it considers to be a fair, reasonable, and living wage, even though it is satisfied that the financial condition of the industry is not good. It is one thing for a group of employees in such a situation to agree voluntarily to work for less than a living wage, in order to keep an industry alive, but it is quite a different thing for a board of arbitration to say to a group of workers, 'You must accept less than a fair, reasonable, and living wage because the industry is losing money.' It is true that the financial condition of an employer does become an important factor in fixing wages when an arbitration board has under consideration the question of whether it should grant the employees a wage somewhat higher than a minimum, fair, and living wage.

"However, no board of arbitration should give any weight to a contention on the part of an employer that he cannot pay higher

wages because of the unsatisfactory condition of his business, unless that employer presents book evidence on the financial condition of his business and satisfies the board of arbitration that all other resonable economies and savings in the various operations of the business have been made. Then and then only does the financial condition of the employer become an important factor in determining wages. Such evidence was not submitted in this case. On the other hand, the union failed to show that the business of the port has been such as to support a finding that the union is entitled to wages over and above the reasonably good wages which the monthly clerks now enjoy."

Other arbitration awards.—"The last factor to which the chairman wishes to refer specifically is that of the judgment and findings of other arbitrators and wage boards, which have been called upon within recent periods of time to consider wage disputes in this industry and other industries within the San Francisco area. Here, again, this factor, standing alone is not controlling, but it is entitled to its share of weight when analyzing the wage issue in its entirety. The chairman has studied very carefully the various wage arbitration awards introduced into the record by each side. Likewise, he has studied the wage provisions of the many union agreements, introduced into the record, and all this evidence taken together, clearly points to the fact that the wage award allowed in this decision is not at all out of line with the decisions of other arbitrators who have been faced with similar wage problems, nor does it place the dock clerks at a disadvantage from the standpoint of the wage scale provided in other union contracts. There are exceptions, of course, but in the main the wage scale provided in this award results in a higher annual income than that received by monthly clerks and other employees doing similar work in other industries.

"The chairman wishes to make clear that he would not hesitate to discard from consideration the wage award of another arbitrator if he became convinced that a given award on wages was not fair or just. However, the wage awards of the various arbitrators whose decisions were introduced into the record of this case were of such merit as to entitle them to consideration, and taken as a whole, they are consistent with the wage scale set forth in this award. * * *"

VACATIONS FOR MONTHLY AND DAILY CLERKS

"The union requested that the new agreement should provide for the granting of vacations to the three regular classifications of clerks, monthly, daily preferred, and daily casual. The employers opposed the granting of any vacations. However, the employers did point out that a good many of the individual employers had followed the practice for some time past of granting vacations to monthly clerks.

"It is the decision of the chairman that the record shows the union's proposal for vacations to be a fair and reasonable one on principle, and therefore, it should be granted, subject to certain modifications as to details hereinafter noted. Counsel for the employers particularly objected to granting vacations to preferred and casual clerks. As to granting vacations to monthly clerks, he argued that it was properly a question of management policy. However, it has become generally recognized in American industry, as shown by the union's exhibits on the subject, that the granting of vacations is a sound business and labor-relations practice, and one to which employees such as clerks are customarily entitled.

"Counsel for the employers objected to vacations for preferred clerks chiefly on the grounds that the preferred clerk's monthly hours are limited to only 160 and he received a relatively high hourly wage for his work. Further, he pointed out that the preferred clerks already enjoy liberal vacation opportunities because of the intermittent nature of their employment and therefore, incidentally, the cumulative fatigue factor is not present in the preferred clerk's employment. However, the chairman was not convinced by such arguments because, as he sees it, the controlling factor in the granting of vacations is reasonably continuous employment over a given period of time. The fact that a clerk may take time off at his own expense does not provide him with a true vacation privilege. The fact that a lack of work opportunity may throw him out of a job for a few days doesn't provide him with a vacation either, in the sense that the term is used in labor economics. It isn't much of a vacation for a clerk to be out of a job intermittently and during that time be under the economic pressure of maintaining contacts each day with the hiring hall in the hope that he may be dispatched to another job.

"Counsel for the employers raised several additional objections to the union's request for vacations for casual clerks. He asked, 'Who would determine when the casual clerk would be permitted to take his vacation? At whose expense would the vacation be provided? How much service and whose employ would entitle the casual clerk to a vacation?' He argued that 'the casual clerks are not employed by the Waterfront Employers Association; they are employed by all employers who order clerks from the hiring hall. This group of employers includes many nonmembers of the association, some of which are Government agencies. The members of the association cannot be saddled with the expense of providing vacations which are based upon employment by others than members.'

"It is the opinion of the chairman that the questions and objections raised by counsel for the employers to the granting of vacations to casual clerks go chiefly to the mechanics of administering such vacations and not to the merits of the issue or the soundness of the union's request for vacations for casual clerks as a matter of

principle. Further, the chairman is satisfied that the administrative problem, raised by the employers' objections, are not at all insurmountable. * * *

"The chairman is satisfied that if a casual clerk works a large share of the year within the industry he is as much entitled to a vacation as a monthly clerk. The fact that he may work for several employers during that time is not material when considering the matter from the standpoint of the clerk's right to a vacation. After all, the maintenance of the casual-clerk classification is essential to the best interests of all the employers in the industry and, therefore, as a group of employers, they should not be excused from vacation obligations in their labor relations with casual clerks. * * *

"In order to have casual daily clerks available in sufficient numbers to meet their needs, the employers have, in effect, pooled their employment interests in regard to casual daily clerks, with the result that all the employers hire their casual daily clerks from the same pool or source. Such an arrangement is of great advantage to the employers, and it carries along with it a corresponding obligation insofar as granting vacations to casual daily clerks is concerned. * * * Hence, it is the conviction of the chairman, based upon the record of the case, that he would be guilty of an unfair discrimination against the casual daily clerks if he failed to grant them a vacation, as requested by the union. * * *

"It is the chairman's ruling that the following section on vacations should be added to the agreement of February 5, 1940:

Vacations

'(*a*) Two weeks' vacation with pay shall be annually granted to monthly clerks at the end of each year of continuous service.

'(*b*) Each registered clerk employed from January 3, 1940, shall be entitled, on the following January 3, to two weeks' vacation, with pay, provided he works (sickness and injury excepted) not less than 90 percent of the total work hours per year permissible under the agreement, or to one week's vacation provided he works (sickness and injury excepted) in excess of 70 percent and less than 90 percent of the total work hours per year permissible under the agreement.

'(*c*) The joint labor relations committee shall have the authority to establish rules and vacation schedules for the purpose of making this provision of the agreement effective.'"

STATE UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION LAWS, OCTOBER 1, 1940[1]

PRIOR to the enactment of the Federal Social Security Act in 1935, provision of unemployment benefits was largely a matter of private initiative. Thus, a number of employers had adopted plans under which benefits were paid to their workers when laid off; in several industries plans had been created which were carried on jointly by trade-unions and employers; and a few labor unions paid unemployment benefits. The only legislation in this field was a statute passed in Wisconsin. Under the impetus of the Social Security Act, however, unemployment-compensation acts were adopted by the several States in rapid succession, and by the end of 1937 such legislation had been enacted in every State.

The Social Security Act did not establish a system of unemployment compensation, but merely provided the means whereby the States were encouraged to establish their own unemployment-compensation programs. This was accomplished by grants-in-aid to the States for the administration of State unemployment-compensation laws and the levying of a uniform pay-roll tax on employers of 8 or more workers, against which a 90-percent credit is allowed for contributions made by such employers to State unemployment funds.

Although the States must comply with certain standards set forth by the Social Security Board in order to obtain the benefits given by the act, they have considerable latitude in their choice of a system of unemployment compensation best suited to the conditions existing in each State. Practically all of the laws have been considerably revised since their original enactment. In 1939, 46 State laws were amended and in 1940 amendments were adopted in 13 States and the District of Columbia. By these amendments the States have strengthened eligibility requirements and attempted to provide for more effective distribution of compensation funds by increasing the amount of weekly benefits, shortening the waiting period, and lengthening the benefit period.

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[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Law Information Division, by Alfred Acee, under the direction of Charles F. Sharkey, chief.

Coverage of Laws

In all of the State laws the inclusion of the individual worker depends on the type of employment in which he has been engaged. All of the acts exclude certain occupations from coverage, such as agricultural labor, domestic service in a private home, Government employment, service for relatives, and religious, charitable, and other nonprofit institutions. Since railroad employees are now covered under the Federal Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act, they also are excluded from the State acts.

In determining whether a given employer is subject to the act, all except 3 States (Idaho, Nevada, and Utah) base coverage on number of workers employed. In these 3 States the amount of pay roll is the means of determining coverage, but in 5 additional States (Kentucky, Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, and Wyoming), the amount of the pay roll is used as a basis additional or alternative to number of workers. Of the jurisdictions basing coverage on the number of workers employed, 26 follow the plan prescribed by the Federal act, and cover only employers who have employed 8 or more workers in at least 20 days, each of which is in a different week; 8 cover those with 1 or more; 8 those with 4 or more; and the remaining jurisdictions those with 2 or more (1 State), 3 or more (2 States), 5 or more (1 State), and 6 or more (2 States). In 11 States, employers are subject to the act if they have a sufficient number of workers throughout the United States to be subject to the Federal employment tax, but do not have enough employees within the State to come under the State law.

Most of the State laws follow the method used in the Federal act which provides that an employer having a specified number of employees working in a stated number of weeks is subject to the act. Generally, the number of weeks represents the number of days, each day being within a different calendar week, and the employer must have employed the required number of workers during 1 day of each of the specified number of weeks. In 41 States the number of weeks is 20—the same as is required by the Federal act. The requirement is 18 weeks in Wisconsin, 15 in Iowa, 13 in New Mexico, and 15 days in New York.

Financial Provisions

The unemployment-compensation systems of the States are financed by contributions of employers based on the wages of their employees, although 5 States (Alabama, California, Kentucky, New Jersey, and Rhode Island) also require the workers to contribute. In 44 jurisdictions the contributions are placed in a State-wide pooled fund from which all benefits are paid. In 7 States (Indiana, Kentucky, Ne-

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braska, North Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wisconsin) all or part of the contributions are paid into individual reserve accounts; in these States contributions paid by an employer are available solely to pay benefits to his former workers, but after an individual reserve account is exhausted, payments may be made from a State pooled account.

The contributions of employers, as previously stated, are based on the wages of employees, and usually on wages earned, whether or not they have been paid. In most States tips paid by other persons are counted as a part of wages, and contributions are required on them. Contributions are required only on the first $3,000 of wages in 26 jurisdictions.[2] The standard rate of contributions required of employers is 2.7 percent in all States except Michigan which has a 3 percent rate. However, in 4 of the States (Indiana, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Wisconsin) the contribution rate may be varied from the standard if the employer's experience rating warrants it.

Employee contributions, which are required in five States, are also based on wages but the rates of contribution are lower. In Alabama, California, Kentucky, and New Jersey, the rate is 1 percent, and in Rhode Island 1.5 percent. The California and Kentucky laws provide, further, that employee contributions may not exceed 50 percent of the amount paid by the employer.

Experience rating, which is authorized in 40 jurisdictions, is a method by which individual employer contribution rates may be varied from the standard rate, according to the employer's past employment record or benefit experience. Usually, under these provisions, an employer's contributions are credited to his account and the benefits to his former workers are charged to this account. Thus, if an employer's contributions exceed the benefits paid, he may be entitled to a reduction in his contribution rates for a given period. All of the employer-reserve laws and 33 of the pooled-fund laws provide for some method of experience rating, and most of the other State laws authorize a study of the subject by the State agency administering the law.

Benefits

The amount of benefits which a worker receives while unemployed is determined by his wages or employment in a past period of time, usually called a "base period." Generally, this period is a year divided into four quarters of 13 weeks each and is used to determine a worker's earnings for eligibility, his weekly benefit, and the duration of benefits.

[2] Alabama, Arkansas, California, District of Columbia, Florida, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.

Under most of the State laws, benefits are paid to a totally unemployed worker at the rate of 50 percent of his full-time weekly wage. In 10 States an actual reported full-time weekly wage is used, but as an alternative, where there is no full-time wage or where its use would be arbitrary or unreasonable, full-time weekly wages are computed as one-thirteenth, or other fraction, of the worker's wages in the quarter (13 weeks) in which his wages were greatest during the base year. Thus, the benefit rate under this alternative plan in most of these 10 States is one twenty-sixth of the worker's earnings in the "highest quarter" of the year. Most of the other States compute the benefits as a fraction of the total wage for 13 weeks. In 8 States the benefit rate is one-twentieth, in one State one twenty-third, in one State one twenty-fourth, in 10 States one twenty-fifth, and in 10 States one twenty-sixth.

Maximum weekly payments of $15 are provided in the laws of 41 States, but in 5 jurisdictions (Alaska, Illinois, Michigan, Rhode Island, and Utah) the maximum is $16, and in 5 other jurisdictions (California, District of Columbia, Idaho, Louisiana, and Wyoming) the maximum is $18. Forty-two States have established a flat minimum weekly benefit, which ranges from $1.50 in North Carolina to $10 in California. Four States (Arizona, Georgia, Oklahoma, and Vermont) provide that the minimum shall be either a certain amount in dollars or three-fourths of full-time wages, whichever is greater, while in Kansas and Missouri the alternative is 6 percent of earnings in the highest quarter. The Indiana law authorizes the State agency to set a minimum of $5, and in Iowa the minimum is $5 or full-time wages. No minimum has been established in Ohio.

There is also a limitation on the number of full weekly benefits which a worker may receive within a certain length of time (usually 52 weeks), called the "benefit year." In 11 States this "duration of benefits" is uniform for all unemployed workers, but in the other 40 jurisdictions it varies in relation to past earnings (or employment, in Wisconsin). In these jurisdictions duration is based on a fraction of earnings during the four or more quarters of the base period, with a maximum of a given number of multiples of the weekly benefit rate. The most common maximum duration of benefits, effective in 28 States, is 16 times the weekly benefit amount.

Most States provide for the payment of compensation for partial unemployment. It is interesting to note in this connection that in a number of States part-time or odd-job earnings are disregarded in determining whether a worker is totally or partially unemployed, and in some States earnings of small amounts are not considered in determining the question of unemployment and calculating weekly benefits. In most States a worker is entitled to a partial benefit if he is working less than full time and earning less than his benefit rate.

Qualification for Benefits

Under all of the State unemployment-compensation laws, an unemployed worker must comply with certain requirements in order to be eligible for benefits. Generally, the worker is required to file a claim for benefits, to be able to work and be available for work, to register at a public employment office, to have earned a certain amount of money or to have been employed previously for a stated period, and to have served a waiting period.

In most of the early laws workers were required to have worked a set number of weeks within a specified period in order to be entitled to benefits, but at present this requirement appears in only two State laws (Ohio and Wisconsin). The qualification which is now required in the other States is that a worker must have earned a specified amount in covered employments.

Every State provides for the disqualification of a worker for benefits under certain conditions, such as discharge for misconduct, refusal to accept suitable work, etc. Workers who have refused to accept suitable work and workers on strike are disqualified in all jurisdictions, while in every State except Massachusetts and Pennsylvania employees who have been discharged for misconduct are disqualified. In addition, all States except New York bar from benefits a worker who left his job voluntary without good cause. Many States also refuse payments to a worker who is receiving workmen's compensation for temporary partial disability or other specified type of remuneration such as old-age benefits.

The period of disqualification is usually fixed by the administrative agency within the limits prescribed by the law, but sometimes it is a flat period specified in the statute. The disqualification period is generally in addition to the usual waiting period. In some States the benefits which ordinarily would be paid during this period are deducted from maximum benefits payable, while in other jurisdictions the deduction in benefit rights is not made mandatory but is dependent on the decision of the administrative agency.

Waiting Period

Every State requires a "waiting period" to be served by a worker after he becomes unemployed and before benefits may be paid. This period, which varies from 1 to 3 weeks, is the period of unemployment after a claim for benefits has been filed and during which no compensation is paid. The agency administering the law is thus enabled to investigate the claim, and the required period eliminates payments to workers who are unemployed for a short time. The waiting period is either 2 or 3 weeks in all States except Rhode Island and Texas

where only 1 week is required. The majority of the States require only one waiting period during 52 weeks, usually called the benefit year.

Legal Aspects

Unemployment-compensation legislation has been upheld as constitutional by the United States Supreme Court as well as by the highest courts of a number of States. On May 24, 1937, the Supreme Court sustained the validity of the taxation provisions of title 9 of the Social Security Act.[3] This decision recognized the fact that unemployment is a national problem upon which Congress may legislate, and removed all doubt of the right of the Federal Government to initiate legislation against the modern economic hazards. In holding this legislation valid, the Supreme Court denied the two main contentions that the pay-roll tax on employers of 8 or more workers was discriminatory and that it coerced the States in violation of the tenth amendment to the Constitution. The opinion held that the tax satisfied the constitutional requirement of uniformity, even though it did not apply to employers of fewer than 8 workers or to employers of farm and domestic labor.

The Supreme Court also held valid the Alabama unemployment-compensation law. A few months earlier the Court had by a 4 to 4 decision affirmed a ruling of the New York Court of Appeals holding the New York law valid.[4] In the Alabama case[5] the Court ruled that the act did not violate the "due process" and "equal protection" clauses of the fourteenth amendment. The decision also held that the act was not the invalid product of the coercive operation of the Federal Social Security Act and did not involve an unconstitutional surrender of State power.

Principal Provisions of Laws

The following table shows, in summary form, the principal provisions of the State unemployment-compensation laws as of October 1, 1940.[6]

[3] *Steward Machine Co.* v. *Davis*, 301 U. S. 548.

[4] *W. H. H. Chamberlin, Inc.* v. *Andrews*, 299 U. S. 515.

[5] *Carmichael* v. *Southern Coal & Coke Co.* and *Same* v. *Gulf States Paper Corp.*, 301 U. S. 495.

[6] The data given in this table were obtained from the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board. See Employment Security Memorandum No. 8: Comparison of State Unemployment Compensation Laws as of October 1, 1940.

Principal Provisions of State Unemployment-Compensation Laws, October 1, 1940

State	Type of fund	Coverage		Minimum employment or wage qualifications	Initial waiting period	Weekly benefits	Duration of benefits in a 52-week period [1]	
		Number of employees	Minimum period of employment during year				Maximum number of times weekly benefit payable	Total amount as proportion of wages earned in a prior period
			Weeks		*Weeks*			
Alabama	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters, including $39.01 earned in 1 quarter.	3	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $2.	20	1/3 in 4 quarters.
Alaska	do	8	20	25 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $16, minimum $5.	16	Do.
Arizona	do	3	20	14 times weekly benefit, earned in 3 quarters.	2	50 percent of full-time weekly wages, maximum $15, minimum $5 (or 3/4 full-time weekly wage).	14	1/6 in 8 to 12 quarters.
Arkansas	do	1	20	16 times weekly benefit, earned in 3 quarters.	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	16	1/3 in 4 quarters.
California	Pooled, experience rating. Exempt unemployment-benefit and guaranteed-employment plans.	4	20	$300 earned in 4 quarters	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $18, minimum $10.		26–54 percent in 4 quarters, according to schedule of wage classes.
Colorado	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	1/3 in 4 quarters.
Connecticut	do	5	20	24 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	Established by weighted table, maximum $15, minimum $5.	13	15 1/3–23 percent in 4 quarters, according to schedule of wage classes.
Delaware	do	1	20	$125 earned in 4 quarters	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	13	1/6 in 4 quarters.
District of Columbia	do	1	No provision.	25 times weekly benefit, or $250 (whichever is less) earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/23 of high quarter's wages, plus additional allowance (maximum $3) for dependents, maximum $18, minimum $6.	19	1/2 in 4 quarters.
Florida	Pooled, experience rating. Guaranteed employment plans.	8	20	60 times weekly benefit, earned in 8 quarters.[2]	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	16	1/6 in 8 quarters.
Georgia	Pooled	8	20	16 times weekly benefit, earned in 3 quarters.	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5 (or 3/4 full-time weekly wage).	16	1/6 in 8 to 12 quarters.
Hawaii	Pooled, experience rating	1	20	24 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	1/3 in 4 quarters.

Idaho	Pooled	(3)	(3)	28–52 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters, including $78 earned in 1 quarter.	2	Established by weighted table, maximum $18, minimum $5.	17	¼ in 4 quarters.
Illinois	Pooled, experience rating	6	20	$225 earned in calendar year	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $16, minimum $7.	16	Do.
Indiana	Contributions of 0.135 percent of employer's pay roll pooled; remainder employer reserve. Guaranteed employment accounts.	8	20	$50 earned in each of 3 of 4 quarters, or $250 in 4 quarters.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages; maximum $15; minimum $5 is authorized within discretion of State agency.	15 (in any benefit period).	16 percent in 5 quarters, in any benefit period.[4]
Iowa	Pooled, experience rating	8	15	15 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	50 percent of full-time weekly wage, maximum $15, minimum $5 (or full-time weekly wage).	15	1/6 in 8 quarters.
Kansas	do	8	20	16 times weekly benefit, earned in 3 quarters.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5 (or 6 percent of high quarter's wages).[5]		16 percent in 4 quarters.
Kentucky	Employer reserve; employee contributions and earnings from investment pooled.	8	20 [6]	$200 earned in 4 quarters	2	Based on schedule of annual wages, maximum $30, minimum $8.[7]	8 (uniform duration). [7]	Uniform duration.
Louisiana	Pooled	[8] 4	20 [8]	20 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	50 percent of full-time weekly wage, maximum $18, minimum $3.	20	¼ in 4 quarters.
Maine	do	8	20	$144 earned in calendar year	2	Based on schedule of annual wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	16 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.
Maryland	do	4	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in calendar year.	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	¼ in 4 quarters.
Massachusetts	Pooled, experience rating	4	20	25 times weekly benefit, earned in calendar year.	2	Based on weighted table, maximum $15, minimum $6.	20	30 percent in 4 quarters.
Michigan	do	8	20	$200 earned in 4 quarters, including $50 earned in each of 2 quarters.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $16, minimum $7.[9]	16	¼ in 4 quarters.[10]
Minnesota	do	[11] 1	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters, including $75 earned in 1 quarter.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	⅓ in 4 quarters.
Mississippi	Pooled	8	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	14 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.
Missouri	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	16 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.[12]	3	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5 (or 6 percent of high quarter's wages).	12	16 percent in 8 to 12 quarters.
Montana	Pooled	[13] 1	20 [13]	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.
Nebraska	Employer reserve; earnings in pooled account.	8	20	do	2	50 percent of full-time weekly wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	⅓ in 4 quarters.

See footnotes at end of table.

Principal Provisions of State Unemployment-Compensation Laws, October 1, 1940—Continued

State	Type of fund	Coverage		Minimum employment or wage qualifications	Initial waiting period	Weekly benefits	Duration of benefits in a 52-week period [1]	
		Number of employees	Minimum period of employment during year				Maximum number of times weekly benefit payable	Total amount as proportion of wages earned in a prior period
			Weeks		*Weeks*			
Nevada	Pooled, experience rating	(14)	(14)	$200 earned in 4 quarters	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	18	1/3 in 4 quarters.
New Hampshire	do	4	20	$200 earned in calendar year	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	1/6 in 4 quarters.
New Jersey	do	8	20	16 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	do	16	Do.
New Mexico	do	[15] 2	13 [15]	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters, including $37.50 earned in 1 quarter.	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	16	1/3 in 4 quarters.
New York	Pooled	4	15 [16]	25 times weekly benefit, earned in calendar year.	3	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $7.	13 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.
North Carolina	3/4 of contributions to employer reserve; remainder pooled.	8	20	$130 earned in calendar year	2	Based on schedule of annual wages, maximum $15, minimum $1.50.	16 (uniform duration).	Do.
North Dakota	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	50 percent of full-time weekly wage, maximum $15, minimum $5.	16	1/3 in 4 quarters.
Ohio	do	3	No provision.	Employment in 20 weeks during preceding year.	3	50 percent of average weekly wages, maximum $15, no minimum set.	16 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.
Oklahoma	do	8	20	16 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	50 percent of full-time weekly wage, maximum $15, minimum $8 (or 3/4 of full-time weekly wage).	16	1/6 in 4 quarters.
Oregon	do	4	(17)	$200 earned in prior year	3	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $7.	16	Do.
Pennsylvania	Pooled	1	20	13 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	3	50 percent of full-time weekly wage, maximum $15, minimum $7.50.	13	1/8 in 8 quarters.
Rhode Island	do	4	20	$100 earned in calendar year	1	Established by weighted table, maximum $16, minimum $6.		18-30 percent in 4 quarters, according to schedule of wage classes.
South Carolina	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	40 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.[18]	2	Established by table, maximum $15, minimum $3.	16 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.

South Dakota	5/6 employer reserve; remainder pooled.	8	20	$126 earned in calendar year	3	Based on schedule of annual wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	14 (uniform duration).	Do.
Tennessee	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	30 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	2	1/26 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $4.	16 (uniform duration).	Do.
Texas	do	8	20	8 times benefit [7] earned in 4 quarters.	1	1/13 of high quarter's wages [7], maximum $30, minimum $10.[7]	8 [7]	1/6 in 4 quarters.
Utah	do	(19)	(19)	36 times weekly benefit, minus $36, earned in calendar year.	2	1/54 of high quarter's wages, maximum $16, minimum $5.	16	Do.
Vermont	Employer's contribution over 0.54 percent to employer's reserve; remainder pooled.	8	20	25 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters.	3	50 percent of full-time weekly wage, maximum $15, minimum $5 (or 3/4 of full-time weekly wage).	14	1/3 in 4 quarters.
Virginia	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	25 times weekly benefit, earned in calendar year.	2	1/25 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	16	1/4 in 4 quarters.
Washington	Pooled	8	20	$200 earned in 4 quarters	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $15, minimum $7.	16	1/3 in 4 quarters.
West Virginia	Pooled, experience rating	8	20	$150 earned in calendar year	3	Based on schedule of annual wages, maximum $15, minimum $3.	14 (uniform duration).	Uniform duration.
Wisconsin	Employer reserve; earnings pooled.	6	18	Employment over 4 weeks (on 12 working days) or on monthly salary basis of more than 1 month, by employer from whose account employee draws benefits.	2	50 percent of average weekly wage, maximum $15, minimum $6.		From any one employer's account 1 week's benefit to each 3 weeks of employment within 52 weeks preceding close of employment.
Wyoming	Pooled, experience rating	[20] 1	[20] 20	28 times weekly benefit, earned in 4 quarters, including $50 earned in one quarter.	2	1/20 of high quarter's wages, maximum $18, minimum $5.	14	1/4 in 4 quarters.

[1] The lesser of the alternative amounts given in the two columns is used.
[2] For benefit year beginning before 1940, wages of 30 times weekly benefit, earned in 8 quarters.
[3] Employer with pay roll of $78 or more in 1 quarter is covered.
[4] Including uncompleted quarter in which waiting period is served.
[5] But benefits are paid at the rate of $5 per week until benefit rights are exhausted, even though the computed minimum is less than $5.
[6] Or employer of 4 or more in 3 quarters of preceding year, to each of whom $50 in wages was payable in each such quarter.
[7] For a 2-week period.
[8] Or employer having 12 employees in 10 weeks. Effective Jan. 1, 1941, law covers only employers of 4 or more in 20 weeks.
[9] If high quarter's wages are $100–$175, 7 dollars; if wages are less than $100, 6.
[10] $200, or (if wages are less than $800) 30 percent of base period wages, whichever is less.
[11] In cities of over 10,000 population: elsewhere, employees are covered if subject to Federal law.
[12] Also 3 weeks' (or if on monthly salary, 1 month's) probationary employment in last 2 years by employer whose account is to be charged.
[13] In addition year's pay roll must exceed $500.
[14] Employer with pay roll of $225 or more in 1 quarter is covered.
[15] Employer with pay roll of $450 or more in 1 quarter is covered also.
[16] Days.
[17] One day in any quarter in which pay roll amounts to $500 or more.
[18] If such benefit is from $3 to $5; 50 times weekly benefit if such amount is $7 or more.
[19] Employer with pay roll of $140 or more in 1 quarter is covered.
[20] In addition, 1 quarter's pay roll must amount to $150 or more.

RAILROAD RETIREMENT BENEFITS, 1939–40[1]

MONTHLY benefits under the Railroad Retirement Act at the close of June 1940 averaged $65.55 for employee annuities; $58.66 for pensions; $33.15 for survivor annuities; and $36.11 for death-benefit annuities. Corresponding benefits at the end of June 1939 were $65.38 for employee annuities; $58.37 for pensions; $34.35 for survivor annuities; and $35.49 for death-benefit annuities. Lump-sum death benefits during the fiscal year 1939–40 averaged $157.58, as compared with $86.08 in 1938–39.

Over 114 million dollars were paid in benefits under the Railroad Retirement Act during the fiscal year 1939–40. This was 6.4 percent higher than the total amount paid in 1938–39. Almost three-fourths (74.1 percent) of the total benefits paid in 1939–40 were for employee annuities and an additional 22.8 percent was for pension payments. Lump-sum death benefit payments constituted 1.9 percent of the total payments; survivor annuity payments, 0.8 percent; and death-benefit annuity payments, 0.4 percent.

From the beginning of operations under the act to the close of 1939–40, benefit payments totaled $308,325,857. Of this total $211,289,811, or 68.6 percent, was paid for employee annuities to 124,055 persons who had retired for age or disability. Benefits amounting to $89,565,821, or 29 percent of the total, were paid in pensions to 48,500 former pensioners of the railroads who had been transferred to the rolls in 1937. Payments to 2,453 survivor annuitants amounted to 0.7 percent of the total benefit payments; to 4,607 death-benefit annuitants, 0.6 percent of the total; and to 29,393 lump-sum death beneficiaries, 1.1 percent thereof.

At the end of the fiscal year 1939–40, altogether 141,224 employee annuities and pensions were in force, as compared with 129,662 at the beginning of the year. The total monthly payments to employee annuitants and pensioners at the end of June 1939 and June 1940 were, respectively, $8,201,004 and $9,015,381. The number of annuities in force continued to increase during 1939–40, new certifications exceeding terminations by death by about three to one. Although the number of pensions in force declined during the year as a result of terminations by deaths, the number of deaths has tended to decline. During 1939–40, 4,399 pensions were terminated by death, as compared with 4,510 during 1938–39.

Applications for employee annuities during 1939–40 were 26,218, and totaled 159,496 for the period since the beginning of operations. There were 7.8 percent fewer applications in 1939–40 than in the preceding fiscal year.

The following table presents the payments for each type of benefit.

[1] Railroad Retirement Board. Bureau of Research and Information Service. The Monthly Review, July 1940 (p. 3).

Total Benefit Payments Certified, by Class of Benefit, by Years 1936–37 to 1939–40 and by Months January to June 1940 [1]

Period	All classes	Employee annuities [2]	Pensions [3]	Survivor annuities [4]	Death-benefit annuities [5]	Lump-sum death benefits [6]
Cumulative through June 1940	$308,325,857	$211,289,811	$89,565,821	$2,124,682	$1,879,621	$3,465,919
Fiscal years:						
1936–37	4,514,617	4,409,019		36,751	68,846	
1937–38	82,654,660	46,932,740	34,701,617	388,519	599,674	32,108
1938–39	107,131,438	75,416,818	28,887,973	786,717	716,477	1,323,450
1939–40	114,025,141	84,531,233	25,976,230	912,693	494,622	2,110,360
1940:						
January	9,418,161	6,990,167	2,151,031	75,114	38,054	163,793
February	9,611,336	7,178,757	2,120,698	76,675	37,130	198,075
March	9,601,551	7,212,446	2,097,551	78,406	35,628	177,517
April	9,864,931	7,401,659	2,081,592	80,431	42,993	258,254
May	9,731,739	7,323,546	2,062,789	81,655	41,269	222,479
June	9,869,509	7,470,490	2,049,400	83,811	36,302	229,504

[1] Revised series.
[2] Employee annuities include age and disability annuities.
[3] Payments to individuals on the pension rolls of employers under the act on both March 1 and July 1, 1937, who were not eligible for employee annuities. Total payments of pensions in any month are frequently less than corresponding monthly amounts payable, due to cancelation of checks because of pensioner deaths reported after voucher for month's payment was sent to the Secretary of the Treasury.
[4] Survivor annuities are paid to the surviving spouse of a deceased employee annuitant who duly elected a reduced annuity during his lifetime in order to provide a lifetime annuity for his spouse after his death.
[5] Death-benefit annuities are paid under the 1935 act to the surviving spouse or dependent next of kin of a deceased annuitant for a period of 12 months.
[6] Lump-sum death benefits are paid under the 1937 act to a designated beneficiary or to the deceased employee's legal representative.

By the end of the fiscal year 1939–40, 13,329 of the total of 48,500 former carrier pensioners transferred to the pension rolls of the Retirement Board had died and their pensions were terminated. As of June 30, 1940, there were 35,146 pensions in force, the total monthly payment being $2,061,717.

Survivor annuities in force at the end of June 1940 numbered 2,341 with monthly payments totaling $77,595, as compared with 1,783 annuities and monthly payments of $61,239 at the end of June 1939. Sixty-one survivor annuities were terminated by death during the fiscal year 1939–40, as compared with 31 during 1938–39.

There was a decline of 22.6 percent in terminations of death-benefit annuities, which were due mainly to conclusion of the 12-month period for which such annuities are payable. Death-benefit annuities in force at the end of June 1940 numbered 725, the total monthly amount payable being $26,182, which compares with 771 annuities and $27,364 monthly payments at the close of June 1939.

Lump-sum death benefits totaling 13,368 were certified during the fiscal year 1939–40. These brought the total number certified since the beginning of operations under the Retirement Act to 29,393.

Collections under the Carriers Taxing Act for the fiscal year 1939–40 amounted to $120,966,719. This was an increase of 10.7 percent over the previous fiscal year. most of which was attributable to improvement in railroad employment. A small part of the increase was due to the higher tax rate on pay rolls for the last quarter of the fiscal year. The collections under the act from the beginning of

operations totaled $380,700,538. The appropriation by Congress for benefit payments and investments for the fiscal year 1940–41 was $122,600,000 and as there was a balance of $10,750,000 still in the appropriation account at the end of June 1940, which does not lapse, a total of $133,350,000 was in the appropriation account at the beginning of the new fiscal year.

Total expenditures for current expenses in administration of the retirement system during 1939–40 amounted to $2,804,000, which was about 3.1 percent lower than for the preceding fiscal year. The total investment in 3-percent special Treasury notes credited to the railroad retirement account in the Treasury amounted to $79,400,000 on June 30, 1940, which was $12,200,000 more than at the beginning of the fiscal year. This included interest credited on these investments totaling $5,895,215.

PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, AUGUST 1940 [1]

REFLECTING widespread gains in private employment, jobs filled by the public employment offices reached a total of 331,000 in August, a gain of 7 percent over July. More than 280,000 of these placements were in private employment, the highest August volume for such jobs in the history of the Employment Service. In addition, a record volume for the year of 167,000 supplemental placements were made, and reflected mainly the increased demand for agricultural workers. Applications for work declined 9 percent to approximately 1,300,000, reflecting somewhat expanded activity in defense and related industries. Partly as a result of the increase in placements and the decline in applications for work, the number of job seekers registered at the end of August declined 6 percent to approximately 5,200,000.

Relatively large gains in private placements among the 29 States reporting increases were shown for California, the District of Columbia, Florida, New York, North Carolina, and South Dakota. North Dakota more than doubled its volume of private placements in July as a result of the increased demand for harvest workers. The sharpest reductions, on the other hand, were reported by Arizona, Oklahoma, Utah, and Washington, attributable partly to the slackened demand for agricultural labor. By the end of August, public employment offices had filled nearly 2 million jobs in private employment, a gain of 24 percent over the comparable 8-month period of 1939. Declines in excess of 10 percent were shown only for Louisiana and Rhode Island, and 4 other States reported minor decreases from the number of private placements made in the first 8 months of 1939.

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

Placements in private employment expected to last 1 month or longer totaled 147,000 in August, or 53 percent of all private placements. The proportion of such regular jobs was 50 percent in July and 46 percent in June. In August placements in public and governmental work totaled more than 50,000, a gain of more than 2,000 jobs over July, but less than two-thirds the volume for August of 1939 and 1938. The expansion in supplemental placements mainly reflected increased opportunity for agricultural placements in connection with harvesting work in certain areas. Of the total supplemental placements, nearly 143,000 or 86 percent were agricultural jobs. In addition to Texas, where two-thirds of all such placements for the country were reported, California, Oregon, and Washington reported appreciable volumes of supplemental placements.

Decreases in the number of applications for work were reported by 33 States, with declines of 20 percent or more shown for California, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Texas, and Vermont. On the other hand, increases of more than 45 percent were reported by Hawaii, North Dakota, and Rhode Island. Registrants actively seeking work through the public employment offices the end of August were 6 percent less than at the close of July. Of the 41 States reporting decreases, reductions in excess of 20 percent occurred in Arkansas, Delaware, the District of Columbia, Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, and declines of more than 10 percent were reported in 14 other States. Registrants in the active file increased more than 10 percent only in Alaska, Louisiana, and Rhode Island.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Placement Activities of Public Employment Services, August 1940*

Activity	Number	Percent change from—		
		July 1940	August 1939 [1]	August 1938
Total complete placements	330,708	+7.3	−2.4	+22.0
Private	280,299	+8.0	+9.9	+47.6
Regular	147,288	+14.2	+9.0	+56.9
Temporary	133,011	+1.9	+11.0	+38.6
Public	50,409	+3.8	−40.2	−38.0
Supplemental placements	167,102	+46.0	−2.9	
Total applications	1,273,803	−9.1	−2.1	+8.3
Active file	5,211,688	−6.3	−10.4	−35.8

[1] Excludes South Dakota, as State agency suspended operations during August 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, August 1940*

Activity	Number	Percent change from—		
		July 1940	August 1939 [1]	August 1938
Total complete placements	10,767	+3.1	−16.8	−16.2
Private	7,996	−.2	−1.2	+12.8
Regular	3,118	+4.1	−.2	+32.1
Temporary	4,878	−2.8	−1.9	+3.2
Public	2,771	+13.9	−43.1	−51.9
Total applications	49,207	−1.2	+13.1	−1.0
Active file	220,645	−4.1	−13.6	−48.2

[1] Excludes South Dakota, as State agency suspended operations during August 1939.

TABLE 3.—*Activities of Public Employment Services, All Registrants, by States, August 1940*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Sept. 23, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements						Supplemental placements	Applications received			Active file as of Aug. 31, 1940
	Total	Private			Regular (over 1 month)	Public		Number	Percent change from—		
		Number	Percent change from—						July 1940	August 1939	
			July 1940	August 1939							
Total	330,708	280,299	+8.0	[1] +9.9	147,288	50,409	167,102	1,273,803	−9.1	[1] −2.1	5,211,688
Region I:											
Connecticut	5,400	4,418	+7.4	+28.9	3,029	982	96	17,470	−13.4	+1.2	73,605
Maine	2,734	2,219	−3.2	+26.7	1,596	515	2	8,077	−9.1	+4.3	26,505
Massachusetts	4,737	3,749	+16.3	+72.4	2,950	988	19	33,781	+5.2	+29.2	178,478
New Hampshire	2,451	1,758	+.6	+8.1	1,362	693	297	6,481	+5.1	+1.4	16,861
Rhode Island	791	715	+10.2	−20.9	519	76	67	8,641	+78.3	+17.4	48,483
Vermont	941	844	−10.4	+9.3	411	97	10	1,803	−21.9	−41.6	11,702
Region II:											
New York	32,054	30,259	+20.7	+77.4	16,913	1,795	719	135,225	−20.6	−14.5	559,519
Region III:											
Delaware	1,153	981	−17.4	−20.4	541	172	77	2,959	−11.6	−34.3	8,789
New Jersey	8,712	8,501	+14.9	−18.1	5,759	211	175	36,559	−28.9	−9.1	249,009
Pennsylvania	12,779	9,779	+5.8	+34.5	7,004	3,000	1,363	118,287	−7.6	−4.9	379,425
Region IV:											
District of Columbia	4,189	3,595	+20.3	+17.9	1,724	594	1	12,306	+2.8	+25.8	27,843
Maryland	4,243	3,572	−1.2	+23.5	1,942	671	9	18,497	−3.2	+10.3	62,031
North Carolina	6,531	5,433	+32.8	−43.0	2,991	1,098	307	24,557	−11.0	−17.3	95,069
Virginia	6,808	6,150	+47.1	−9.3	4,326	658	97	17,248	−11.0	−17.7	55,657
West Virginia	2,787	2,394	+2.4	+9.7	1,303	393	214	18,375	−7.1	−7.8	71,060
Region V:											
Kentucky	2,383	1,731	+2.2	+22.7	980	652	196	18,204	+9.8	−14.8	90,793
Michigan	12,210	10,766	−1.3	+1.0	6,162	1,444	165	64,354	−22.0	+14.6	221,419
Ohio	15,073	14,131	+8.8	+22.4	8,089	942	1,272	107,536	+11.4	+41.0	375,826
Region VI:											
Illinois	13,363	13,007	+10.6	+16.7	7,103	356	1,064	54,534	+5.0	−15.9	174,295
Indiana	7,634	7,253	+15.3	+3.5	4,600	381	2,069	39,143	−2.4	+18.0	135,947
Wisconsin	7,750	6,886	+2.7	+17.5	3,913	864	870	25,993	−12.3	−12.4	98,585
Region VII:											
Alabama	4,105	3,225	−5.6	+4.7	2,553	880	148	22,835	−13.7	+11.9	104,321
Florida	3,548	2,420	+39.0	+68.0	1,744	1,128	269	15,664	−19.3	+11.4	66,344
Georgia	11,622	9,775	+45.5	+68.5	4,717	1,847	149	24,117	−4.1	−13.7	161,433
Mississippi	3,752	2,171	+9.8	−7.1	1,196	1,581	444	19,344	−12.4	−23.4	65,548
South Carolina	2,320	1,444	+15.5	−16.9	873	876	26	9,196	−15.1	−6.1	52,792
Tennessee	5,403	4,557	+11.3	+38.5	3,075	846	1,312	13,848	+13.5	+.2	104,967
Region VIII:											
Iowa	6,381	4,780	−8.6	−.6	1,797	1,601	486	16,279	−6.6	−7.2	69,309
Minnesota	8,214	6,743	−10.0	+29.4	2,848	1,471	838	19,734	−10.3	+22.9	125,209
Nebraska	3,410	1,666	−7.8	+22.7	762	1,744	52	10,371	−3.8	−9.7	43,408
North Dakota	11,014	10,595	+162.8	+24.8	1,768	419	61	12,689	+101.3	+26.0	24,937
South Dakota	2,510	1,475	+20.7	(1)	500	1,035	129	4,370	+39.6	(1)	25,019
Region IX:											
Arkansas	3,371	2,712	−19.4	+16.1	1,097	659	2,214	9,328	−16.8	+11.4	32,616
Kansas	4,527	3,229	−9.1	+18.4	1,260	1,298	294	16,569	+3.2	−3.5	61,346
Missouri	8,630	7,360	+14.6	+47.3	4,480	1,270	481	40,737	−.1	+10.4	178,697
Oklahoma	4,243	3,536	−44.5	+21.3	1,162	707	811	16,051	−12.9	−28.3	80,116
Region X:											
Louisiana	2,938	2,617	+4.6	−30.4	1,570	321	271	20,137	−13.3	−4.4	82,637
New Mexico	1,347	870	−.4	−24.7	475	477	221	3,330	−16.0	−26.2	33,805
Texas	27,262	23,033	−9.0	+4.6	8,278	4,229	111,188	51,683	−19.6	+2.2	224,015
Region XI:											
Arizona	1,712	1,325	−27.4	−18.9	715	387	908	6,096	+4.6	−6.4	19,689
Colorado	8,519	7,867	+.5	+43.0	1,478	652	2,485	13,308	−17.9	−13.8	55,385
Idaho	3,359	2,393	+7.9	+25.7	860	966	1,540	6,715	−17.2	+14.8	13,886
Montana	2,551	1,613	−10.4	+60.6	940	938	774	4,808	+5.1	+3.7	17,802
Utah	1,852	1,181	−40.5	−32.7	651	671	287	7,438	−13.3	−23.1	20,450
Wyoming	1,610	678	−.7	−19.1	386	932	10	3,200	+3.4	−17.6	5,959
Region XII:											
California	27,021	23,701	+24.0	+.7	13,601	3,320	10,598	84,743	−20.0	−18.9	436,745
Nevada	1,336	1,084	−6.1	+15.8	622	252	350	3,280	+4.0	+28.2	5,580
Oregon	5,764	4,164	−8.5	−47.1	2,210	1,600	13,472	17,580	−17.5	+26.3	30,826
Washington	5,961	4,919	−25.8	−60.9	2,065	1,042	8,165	27,218	+7.1	+2.1	98,150
Territories:											
Alaska	702	401	−.7	+105.6	168	301	26	1,088	+19.6	+40.2	1,085
Hawaii	1,001	624	+18.2	+84.1	220	377	4	2,017	+45.5	+52.0	8,711

[1] Excludes South Dakota for August 1939, as State agency suspended operations during that month.

TABLE 4.—*Activities of Public Employment Services, Veterans, by States, August 1940*

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Sept. 23, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements					Applications received				Active file as of Aug. 31, 1940
	Total	Private			Regular (over 1 month)	Public	Number	Percent of change from—		
		Number	Percent of change from—							
			July 1940 [1]	August 1939 [1]				July 1940 [1]	August 1939	
Total	10,767	7,996	−0.2	[2]−1.2	3,118	2,771	49,207	−1.2	[2]+13.1	220,645
Region I:										
Connecticut	183	142	−1.4	+23.5	70	41	630	+11.7	−5.8	3,087
Maine	88	64	−3.0	−11.1	41	24	434	+37.3	+7.7	1,603
Massachusetts	120	64	+8.5	+14.3	45	56	895	+.9	+.1	5,089
New Hampshire	115	67	−1.5	−9.4	55	48	278	+2.6	−5.1	634
Rhode Island	20	17			13	3	214	+100.0	+24.4	1,124
Vermont	23	23			8	0	41	−26.8	−58.6	579
Region II:										
New York	554	468	−7.1	+45.3	189	86	2,143	−14.7	+4.6	14,882
Region III:										
Delaware	23	16			5	7	103	−22.6	−39.4	298
New Jersey	125	119	0	−17.9	76	6	987	−7.1	−.4	7,854
Pennsylvania	354	226	+1.8	+29.9	154	128	4,812	−5.7	+10.3	15,469
Region IV:										
District of Columbia	143	83	+15.3	−4.6	34	60	652	+18.3	+33.1	1,713
Maryland	193	145	+.7	+15.1	64	48	616	+14.9	−3.0	2,320
North Carolina	129	98	+2.1	−26.9	31	31	599	−11.2	−14.1	2,232
Virginia	161	131	+101.5	−16.0	75	30	433	−17.4	−28.3	1,417
West Virginia	60	49			24	11	683	−5.7	−5.5	3,678
Region V:										
Kentucky	66	41			21	25	830	+42.1	+3.2	3,730
Michigan	449	358	−8.4	+5.6	202	91	2,827	−10.0	+25.5	9,666
Ohio	517	463	+5.9	+27.9	200	54	6,970	+45.4	+167.2	19,162
Region VI:										
Illinois	360	319	−4.2	+26.1	121	41	2,001	+12.3	+4.0	7,560
Indiana	198	185	+66.7	+9.5	83	13	1,457	+9.8	+23.0	5,724
Wisconsin	244	176	+2.9	+24.8	89	68	1,218	−17.0	−7.0	5,859
Region VII:										
Alabama	102	80	−14.0	−20.8	51	22	905	+3.0	+24.1	4,425
Florida	116	75	+21.0		55	41	667	+.2	+14.8	2,662
Georgia	243	166	+17.7	+9.2	44	77	478	−30.0	−26.6	4,490
Mississippi	66	31			13	35	388	−51.4	−35.9	1,894
South Carolina	65	33			10	32	301	+5.2	+10.2	1,616
Tennessee	129	101	+13.5	+31.2	62	28	513	+42.1	+7.3	4,033
Region VIII:										
Iowa	423	308	−18.3	−4.6	46	115	768	−3.0	−4.4	4,375
Minnesota	364	278	+21.9	+55.3	86	86	820	−10.9	+35.3	8,012
Nebraska	130	61	−12.8	+5.2	13	69	514	−8.7	+10.5	2,460
North Dakota	303	282	+176.5	+16.0	49	21	314	+93.8	+11.7	1,071
South Dakota	111	43		[2]	9	68	197	+69.8	[2]	1,291
Region IX:										
Arkansas	72	55	−15.4	−36.8	13	17	367	+1.1	+7.0	1,314
Kansas	171	107	−18.3	+11.4	29	64	697	+10.3	−1.4	3,755
Missouri	325	284	+35.2	+58.6	131	41	1,849	+9.6	+39.9	8,639
Oklahoma	163	107	−63.5	−17.7	24	56	709	−23.7	−25.0	5,186
Region X:										
Louisiana	53	38			24	15	628	−18.1	+4.1	2,485
New Mexico	38	16			8	22	159	−4.8	−24.6	1,837
Texas	901	690	−11.8	−14.9	155	211	1,389	−26.0	+7.6	6,849
Region XI:										
Arizona	88	51	−15.0	−16.4	26	37	378	+18.9	+26.4	1,231
Colorado	240	212	+1.9	−7.4	43	28	611	−21.2	−8.0	2,764
Idaho	257	151	−4.4	+9.4	38	106	410	−21.2	+17.5	808
Montana	178	98	−4.8	+81.5	52	80	330	+23.1	+5.4	1,071
Utah	107	23			4	84	288	−20.9	−40.5	1,083
Wyoming	90	27			15	63	175	+8.7	−9.8	324
Region XII:										
California	1,095	876	−.8	−23.2	334	219	4,273	−20.0	−13.8	25,724
Nevada	118	99	+26.9	+26.9	39	19	157	+4.0	+6.1	267
Oregon	397	269	+14.0	−7.9	87	128	1,004	−7.0	+61.9	2,222
Washington	235	155	−22.9	−58.8	49	80	998	+1.9	−1.6	4,578
Territories:										
Alaska	29	16			9	13	61		+38.6	57
Hawaii	33	10			0	23	36		+33.3	442

[1] Where less than 50 veteran placements, applications, or registrants in active file were involved in either period the percentage change was not computed.

[2] Excludes South Dakota for August 1939, as State agency suspended operations during that month.

Veterans placed in August increased slightly to 10,800. Approximately 8,000 of these placements were in private employment, practically the same number as in July. Applications for work received during the month declined somewhat to approximately 49,000. The number of veteran registrants in the active file at the end of August totaled nearly 221,000 or about 9,000 fewer than on July 31, 1940.

UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, AUGUST 1940 [1]

INCREASED industrial employment in defense industries as well as exhaustion of benefit rights on the part of many claimants resulted in a decline of both claims and benefit payments in August. The decline was sharper for claims than for benefit payments, since the reduced claim load enabled States to issue payments against the backlog of compensable claims from the previous month. Continued claims decreased to 5,900,000 and benefit payments to $51,700,000. August disbursements compensated more than 5,000,000 weeks of total and partial unemployment. An average of about 1,100,000 workers received benefits weekly and a minimum of 1,300,000 workers received at least one benefit check during the month.

Special reports from several States indicated that various industrial developments contributed significantly to the level of the continued claim load. In Maine increased employment in the canning and woolen-textile industries was a factor in the decrease in claim receipts. New York reported a seasonal upturn in the garment trades and increased activity in the canning industry. Improved employment conditions in machinery and textile manufacturing were partially responsible for a decrease in Pennsylvania, despite lay-offs in the petroleum and coal-mining industries. Peak activity in the clothing and shoe industries, and rehiring in machinery, farm implements, automotive parts, and metal furniture contributed to the reduction in claim receipts in Illinois. Kentucky reported improvement in construction, machine tools and related industries, resulting from the defense program, as well as increased activity in coal mining and canning. The resumption of cotton-mill operations in South Carolina accounted for the decline in claim receipts in that State. Increased activity in textiles, construction, and cotton and tobacco processing was reported by Georgia. Although business conditions in general had not yet begun to show any marked improvement, increased activity in building construction contributed to the reduced volume of claims in Florida. Claims filed by workers employed in the cottonseed-oil, cotton-ginning, naval-stores, and sea-food industries contributed to the rise in claim receipts in Mississippi, although increased activity in

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

sawmills, logging and lumbering, and retail trade partially offset this increase.

Continued claim receipts in August totaled 5,900,000, a decline of 19 percent from July. Decreases were widespread, occurring in 41 States, with declines in excess of 30 percent reported for Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New York, and West Virginia. Reductions of more than 20 percent were reported by 13 additional States.

Weeks of unemployment compensated during August exceeded 5,000,000, a decline of 8 percent from July. More than 4,500,000—90 percent of all weeks of unemployment—were for total unemployment; this was 482,000 weeks fewer than for the previous month. Weeks of partial and part-total unemployment increased 4 percent to 501,000. More than one-fifth of all weeks of unemployment compensated in Delaware, Illinois, Michigan, Rhode Island, and Wyoming were for partial and part-total claims.

Benefit payments in August amounted to $51,700,000, a decrease of 7.2 percent from July. This marked the fourth successive month that disbursements have exceeded the $50,000,000 level. Decreases occurred in 30 States with relatively sharper declines apparent in 9 States which began uniform benefit years in April of this year. These 9 States comprised only 38 percent of all payments in contrast to nearly half of the total payments in June and July. Benefit payments in Michigan, however, were more than double July disbursements while Alaska and Utah both reported increases in excess of 50 percent. New highs for monthly disbursements were reached in Alaska, Florida, Georgia, and Louisiana during August.

Altogether, benefit payments for the first 8 months of 1940 totaled nearly $391,000,000. In spite of the cessation of benefits to railroad workers from State unemployment-compensation funds, since July 1939, this was an increase of 16 percent in benefit disbursements over the corresponding period of 1939 for the 49 States which paid benefits in both periods. Exclusive of Illinois and Montana, increased disbursements were shown for 35 States. Benefit payments in Florida were 2½ times the disbursements of the January–August 1939 period and 8 other States showed increases ranging between 50 and 75 percent. Fourteen States reported reduced amounts of payments; the sharpest reductions, ranging from 19 to 28 percent, were shown for Iowa, Michigan, and Pennsylvania.

The weekly average of benefit recipients decreased 8 percent to 1,100,000, marking the second successive month of declines since the high of 1,300,000 in June. Fewer recipients were reported in 29 States, with the principal reductions generally shown for the States initiating uniform benefit years in March and April; the 8 States reporting reductions of more than 20 percent were in this latter group.

Continued Unemployment Compensation Claims Received,

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Oct. 8, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Continued claims			Weeks compensated			
		Type			Type of unemployment		
	Number	Waiting period	Compensable	Number	Total	Partial and part-total combined [1]	Partial only [1]
Total	5,905,879	1,138,470	4,767,409	5,037,053	4,536,026	501,027	------
Region I:							
Connecticut	57,982	13,057	44,925	47,997	42,428	5,569	(4)
Maine	44,637	6,622	38,015	39,388	34,708	4,680	(4)
Massachusetts	330,561	38,278	292,283	347,421	347,421	(1)	(1)
New Hampshire	21,025	5,794	15,231	15,849	13,138	2,711	(4)
Rhode Island	71,100	8,965	62,135	62,135	49,000	13,135	(4)
Vermont	7,705	1,687	6,018	5,794	5,247	547	428
Region II:							
New York	955,207	162,390	792,817	855,074	855,074	(1)	(1)
Region III:							
Delaware	7,839	844	6,995	6,993	5,157	1,836	1,729
New Jersey	183,453	40,563	142,890	158,918	158,918	(1)	(1)
Pennsylvania	471,060	127,317	343,743	374,647	374,647	(1)	(1)
Region IV:							
District of Columbia	20,625	3,833	16,792	16,028	15,239	789	(4)
Maryland	82,344	13,895	68,449	69,071	60,375	8,696	8,130
North Carolina	150,519	30,420	120,099	123,892	115,597	8,295	7,644
Virginia	90,211	8,473	81,738	81,552	69,821	11,731	9,974
West Virginia	62,545	10,780	51,765	57,770	55,304	[5] 2,466	(4)
Region V:							
Kentucky	49,972	13,157	36,815	58,843	48,230	10,613	(4)
Michigan	603,394	87,681	515,713	536,136	421,753	114,383	(4)
Ohio	284,117	68,967	215,150	[6] 224,260	[6] 190,075	[6] 34,185	(4)
Region VI:							
Illinois	369,820	46,605	323,215	342,238	236,925	105,313	76,653
Indiana	132,006	30,519	101,487	101,276	82,484	18,792	(4)
Wisconsin	53,856	14,635	39,221	41,144	38,206	2,938	1,588
Region VII:							
Alabama	101,695	21,785	79,910	78,015	73,833	4,182	2,572
Florida	112,068	19,645	92,423	93,738	85,420	8,318	(4)
Georgia	101,368	21,109	80,259	86,092	78,334	7,758	6,559
Mississippi	48,800	10,653	38,147	36,356	34,867	[1] 1,489	(1)
South Carolina	59,236	14,946	44,290	36,342	31,906	4,436	2,180
Tennessee	116,938	20,733	96,205	90,286	83,320	6,966	2,465
Region VIII:							
Iowa	44,984	13,109	31,875	30,860	25,537	5,323	2,185
Minnesota	66,684	10,506	56,178	60,101	55,269	4,832	(4)
Nebraska	15,802	2,522	13,280	13,332	12,285	1,047	488
North Dakota	4,369	497	3,872	4,089	3,620	469	250
South Dakota	4,292	781	3,511	3,489	3,001	488	(4)
Region IX:							
Arkansas	58,748	10,648	48,100	48,100	45,230	2,870	278
Kansas	23,769	9,159	14,610	14,757	12,827	1,930	1,181
Missouri	121,318	43,075	78,243	79,706	68,226	11,480	6,017
Oklahoma	40,862	8,219	32,643	31,071	26,691	4,380	780
Region X:							
Louisiana	106,780	17,715	89,065	85,455	81,005	4,450	(4)
New Mexico	16,498	2,407	14,091	12,917	11,170	1,747	1,404
Texas	200,239	95,960	104,279	123,128	106,001	17,127	(4)
Region XI:							
Arizona	15,097	3,445	11,652	11,616	11,103	513	27
Colorado	36,440	4,024	32,416	33,246	28,516	4,730	3,598
Idaho	11,164	2,102	9,062	8,856	8,419	437	(4)
Montana	17,859	2,917	14,942	14,898	14,898	(1)	(1)
Utah	19,201	3,601	15,600	16,116	14,536	1,580	410
Wyoming	7,139	1,149	5,990	5,845	3,908	1,937	1,614
Region XII:							
California	407,819	47,992	359,827	368,707	324,707	44,000	28,530
Nevada	6,255	752	5,503	5,335	4,894	441	127
Oregon	26,387	5,735	20,652	19,711	15,896	3,815	3,044
Washington	55,296	7,293	48,003	50,919	43,599	7,320	(4)
Territories:							
Alaska	6,668	935	5,733	6,075	5,859	216	------
Hawaii	2,126	574	1,552	1,469	1,402	67	56

[1] Benefits for partial unemployment are not provided by State law in Montana, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. In Massachusetts and Mississippi provision for such payments is not effective until October 1940. Of these, only Mississippi provides for payments of less than full weekly benefit amount for total unemployment, i. e., part-total unemployment.

[2] Includes supplemental payments, not classified by type of unemployment.

[3] Adjusted to exclude returned and voided benefit checks.

Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, August 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Oct. 8, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Benefits paid				Month and year benefits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable [3]
	Amount [2]	Type of unemployment				
		Total	Partial and part-total combined [1]	Partial only [1]		
Total	$51,696,808	$48,419,743	$3,235,967	-------	-------	$1,214,850,164
Region I:						
Connecticut	434,049	403,200	30,285	(4)	January 1938	21,554,156
Maine	263,156	239,671	23,389	(4)	do	10,134,502
Massachusetts	3,530,718	3,530,718	(1)	(1)	do	69,790,680
New Hampshire	128,739	116,183	12,556	(4)	do	6,056,593
Rhode Island	604,396	545,870	58,526	(4)	do	21,697,478
Vermont	45,788	43,199	2,586	$1,842	do	2,121,868
Region II:						
New York	9,657,033	9,657,033	(1)	(1)	do	241,194,045
Region III:						
Delaware	57,296	46,868	10,416	9,734	January 1939	1,371,918
New Jersey	1,562,118	1,562,118	(1)	(1)	do	27,278,430
Pennsylvania	4,054,669	4,054,669	(1)	(1)	January 1938	160,753,638
Region IV:						
District of Columbia	161,668	153,827	7,423	(4)	do	4,412,780
Maryland	597,816	548,851	48,792	44,871	do	21,076,846
North Carolina	550,277	529,215	20,785	18,225	do	15,962,513
Virginia	622,079	562,169	59,396	48,406	do	14,671,530
West Virginia	463,209	441,772	21,437	(4)	do	19,221,893
Region V:						
Kentucky	444,295	386,816	47,371	(4)	January 1939	8,223,618
Michigan	6,724,357	5,947,731	776,626	(4)	July 1938	98,213,333
Ohio	[6] 2,111,866	[6] 1,945,272	[6] 166,594	(4)	January 1939	[6] 42,996,746
Region VI:						
Illinois	3,820,104	3,022,255	790,614	540,729	July 1939	49,908,413
Indiana	1,053,238	955,122	97,776	(4)	April 1938	33,961,750
Wisconsin	485,627	466,737	18,890	8,621	July 1936	18,589,334
Region VII:						
Alabama	482,654	461,836	20,630	12,137	January 1938	15,783,186
Florida	907,553	846,984	60,569	(4)	January 1939	7,664,139
Georgia	546,263	518,973	27,290	22,919	do	6,458,897
Mississippi	216,469	209,645	[1] 6,751	(1)	April 1938	4,466,353
South Carolina	233,948	214,105	19,769	8,806	July 1938	4,466,251
Tennessee	662,515	630,903	31,612	10,194	January 1938	15,195,504
Region VIII:						
Iowa	272,498	242,676	29,502	11,412	July 1938	10,954,694
Minnesota	593,597	558,100	35,438	(4)	January 1938	23,338,375
Nebraska	118,608	111,267	7,341	3,112	January 1939	2,696,622
North Dakota	37,310	33,678	3,632	1,948	do	1,044,861
South Dakota	23,447	20,548	2,861	(4)	do	683,840
Region IX:						
Arkansas	288,393	276,615	11,778	1,395	do	4,116,433
Kansas	129,090	116,634	12,456	7,073	do	3,797,818
Missouri	697,400	643,937	53,447	24,800	do	10,619,780
Oklahoma	288,977	261,568	27,409	3,149	December 1938	7,041,499
Region X:						
Louisiana	673,029	642,068	30,373	(4)	January 1938	14,473,296
New Mexico	115,978	103,540	12,438	9,723	December 1938	2,069,418
Texas	946,481	856,186	89,158	(4)	January 1938	27,292,199
Region XI:						
Arizona	124,795	120,766	4,029	144	do	4,361,063
Colorado	344,438	307,436	36,826	27,392	January 1939	6,726,206
Idaho	89,078	85,509	3,567	(4)	September 1938	4,195,556
Montana	160,959	160,959	(1)	(1)	July 1939	3,264,927
Utah	174,191	163,088	11,103	2,528	January 1938	5,278,263
Wyoming	68,131	50,960	17,171	14,019	January 1939	2,161,991
Region XII:						
California	5,135,058	4,724,792	392,058	243,008	January 1938	107,895,700
Nevada	68,329	64,128	4,201	1,266	January 1939	1,627,648
Oregon	217,225	189,916	26,829	20,333	January 1938	13,272,627
Washington	614,095	552,049	62,046	(4)	January 1939	13,451,773
Territories:						
Alaska	80,154	78,380	1,775	-------	do	765,241
Hawaii	13,647	13,201	446	348	do	493,940

[4] Data for partial unemployment included with data for part-total unemployment.

[5] Payments for part-total and partial unemployment are made for benefit periods of 1 quarter. The number of weeks represented by each such payment is determined by dividing the amount paid by the claimant's benefit rate for total unemployment.

[6] Figures for August exclude 21 payments amounting to $585 arising from recalculation of weekly benefit amounts and 129 payments for 357 weeks amounting to $3,779 for payment of miners' claims resulting from labor dispute in 1939. Both amounts, however, are included in benefits since first payable.

Of the 21 States reporting increases in the average number of benefit recipients, the sharpest expansions were shown for Michigan and Utah, in which new benefit years were initiated in July. Increases of more than 20 percent also occurred in Alaska and Florida.

CARE OF AGED IN ROCHESTER, N. Y.

ABOVE-AVERAGE facilities and methods of caring for aged were found in a recent survey made in Rochester, N. Y., by a committee of the Community Chest of that city.[1]

In addition to help rendered under the system of old-age assistance, the survey disclosed seven private homes for aged; an exceptionally well-built and managed county home; private housing accommodations which though "far from satisfactory" were yet "not so bad" as in larger cities; and reasonably satisfactory private nursing homes. Other advantages noted were readily available medical care, nursing service, and opportunities for recreation.

Persons 65 years of age or over in Rochester number about 20,000 (6 percent of the population). Of these, 7,300 are known to welfare agencies, 91 percent of them being cared for by public assistance and 9 percent by private agencies.

Recommendations Concerning Community Care of Aged

As a result of the study, the committee made a number of recommendations regarding a community program for care of aged, including the following:

There should be organized, within the Council of Social Agencies, a group for the purpose of improving and developing a program for the aged, specifically concerned with the care of the aged as a community problem, in which there is representation of all the services and agencies engaged in this field, including public and private institutions and agencies, the Public Health Nursing Association, and the medical profession. An organized group for this purpose should have the services of a full-time executive secretary for the first year at least.

A campaign of public education should be undertaken, through press, radio, and other means, to keep the public informed of what Rochester is doing for its old people; the vital and humanitarian aspects, as well as the statistical and legal aspects, of the operation of the social-security program; the changing conceptions of the present day in regard to old age, the potentialities of life in the later years, and the privileges of the aged.

The case-work service to old people should be strengthened as much as possible through (a) continued support of the division administering old-age assistance in its efforts to maintain an adequate staff and to develop a trained staff; and (b) assignment to one social worker in each of the family-service agencies of some responsibility for special attention to aged clients and to the problems of old people in the families served.

[1] Rochester Community Chest. A Survey of the Care of the Aged of Rochester, N. Y., by Mary C. Jarrett. Rochester, 1940.

The present provision of medical service available for the aged should be reviewed in connection with the study of medical and health services of the community as a whole, and should be so organized that the opportunity for complete medical care would be assured to every old person, whether he is in an institution, at home under the care of a public or private welfare agency, or at home with independent means that are insufficient for medical care.

There should be further study of the possibilities of keeping the aged in their own homes through nursing service and housekeeping service. * * *

A guidance service for old people with serious mental or emotional problems should be organized in connection with a psychiatric clinic, with the services of a psychiatrist interested in problems of old age and a psychiatric social worker. * * *

There should be a central office, or bureau of information, to which old people and anyone concerned about the problems of an old person, could go for guidance; so that they may be put in touch directly with the agency best fitted to deal with the problem. Careful consideration should be given to the most advantageous auspices for this service. The logical organization to conduct it would seem to be the Council of Social Agencies.

Some organized means should be developed of bringing to the attention of old people the recreational opportunities of the city and of providing opportunities for sociability and diversion for those who need them. A committee giving detailed attention to this problem might find it feasible to organize a volunteer corps, which could be called upon by the public and private agencies to supply these opportunities according to the individual needs of their clients. Some of the old people themselves would find the kind of satisfaction they most desire by enrolling in such a volunteer corps.

A committee should consider the opportunities for employment for aged persons and those approaching old age, with reference to finding some systematic means for bringing older people in touch with jobs that are open to them and creating new opportunities for their employment.

The same committee should consider whether there is a need for a sheltered workshop in the city, where persons unable to work in regular industry can employ their skills for a nominal wage.

Consideration should be given to the need of occupation for homebound aged persons. * * *

Consideration should be given to the possibility of providing small, inexpensive apartments especially designed for the use of one or two old people. Some provision might be made in connection with a home for the aged, or as an independent philanthropy. Another method of providing for old people who live alone might be a unit consisting of a number of 2-room apartments in a suitable neighborhood, and connected by telephone with the home of a nurse employed to be on call in case of illness.

Recommendations Concerning Homes for Aged

The homes studied were six in number, including four run under Protestant, one under Catholic, and one under Jewish auspices. A seventh home—also Protestant—was not a member of the Community Chest and was therefore not included. The six homes had a total capacity of 559 beds, of which 73 were for infirmary use.

All were found to be well situated, conveniently located, and occupying buildings in good condition and generally well kept. Some of the findings and recommendations might well be considered by

managements of homes for aged throughout the country, either individually or jointly with other similar institutions in their vicinity, and are therefore summarized here.

ADMINISTRATION AND POLICIES

Admissions.—The report notes an increasing tendency to have each applicant's situation and requirements studied by a trained social worker whose experience and personality fit her for work with the aged. This insures that the benefits of residence in the homes will go to those who are most needy and will benefit most. It is suggested that such a worker could be employed to serve several homes, thus minimizing the expense.

Fees.—A large proportion of homes for aged follow the practice of requiring the payment of a fixed fee upon admission, in consideration of which the home undertakes the care of the applicant for the remainder of his life.

The investigator points out that some homes are questioning the wisdom of this practice, for several reasons: (1) In some cases relatives or friends who might bear the cost of a resident's care are able to transfer their responsibility to the community; or they may be able and willing to make regular payments for care but may not be able to pay in one sum the amount represented by the admission fee. (2) The fees generally charged are usually insufficient to cover the cost of more than a few years' care, but a resident who has paid the fee may wrongly assume that he has paid for his care for life, and demand, as his right, privileges that he is actually receiving at the expense of the home.

The report recommends a study of the advantages and disadvantages of the life-fee system, as compared with a flexible system by which the resident and his friends make periodic payments ("boarding" rates) according to their ability. The homes should also join in a study "of problems connected with the care of recipients of [public] old-age assistance" and should try to work out a policy for the care of those whose funds are exhausted.

Regulations.—For the greatest degree of "home" atmosphere, rules and regulations should be reduced to the minimum required for the safety and comfort of the guests. Regimentation should be avoided.

Records.—Records were found to need improvement. The report recommends the introduction of a system of case records, and a folder for each resident, containing all the information at hand concerning him, which should be kept in a closed filing cabinet in the superintendent's office.

A method of keeping uniform significant statistics for all homes should be worked out. Reports should be published annually for each home and for all homes combined.

To draft plans for the above records, a committee of representatives of the individual homes and of community agencies caring for the aged is recommended, which might work with the local council of social agencies.

Other matters regarding which uniform practices are desirable include methods of dealing with applications, waiting lists, admission fees, operating costs, and medical care.

COST OF OPERATION

Data were obtained, for each of the homes, on yearly cost of services per resident for the year 1938–39. In the six homes these costs were $273, $340, $381, $460, $575, and $636. Two factors contributing to these wide variations were the differences in ratio of home staff to residents (i. e., labor cost) and the wide range in cost of food. One home had an employee for each 2.4 guests; another, at the other end of the scale, had an employee only for every 6 guests. Food costs in the homes purchasing all of their supplies ranged from 22 to 39 cents per day per person.

The following is suggested as a desirable distribution of food expenditures:

	Percent
Milk	16
Cereals and bread	12
Meat, eggs, and cheese	25
Vegetables and fruit	33
Miscellaneous	14

It is suggested that economies in purchasing might be possible through the organization of central purchasing of food and other items.

Supervision of food service by a trained dietitian is regarded as advisable both for the well-being of the residents and for financial reasons.

The report points out that there is only a limited knowledge regarding food requirements for aged. It is known, however, that because of the lower food intake of aged people, certain food constituents should be furnished in higher than ordinary quantities. These include the "protective" foods—milk, eggs, fruits, and vegetables. Daily minimum requirements are as follows: 1 pint to 1 quart of milk, 1 egg, 1 serving of meat or fish, 2 green vegetables (1 raw), 1 cereal (preferably whole grain), bread (preferably dark) as desired, 1½ to 2 ounces of butter or margarine reinforced with vitamin A, 4 ounces of fruit juice or 6 ounces of tomato juice, fresh or cooked fruit (fresh at least 3 times a week), 1 other vegetable, such as potatoes or rice, and tomatoes in some form 3 times a week.

Superintendent.—It is emphasized that, in the last analysis, the successful administration of a home for aged depends on the char-

acter and ability of the superintendent. The prime requisite is a liking for old people, which includes patience, tolerance, understanding, and an interest in the personal problems of individuals. "An equable and cheerful disposition is indispensable, for an institution takes its tone from the person at its head," and the general atmosphere of a home for aged should be peaceful and cheerful.

OCCUPATIONAL AND RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

All of the homes were found to be providing ample recreational activities, systematically planned and well organized.

There was, however, no systematic provision for constructive occupation for residents. Some of the homes required or encouraged the guests to perform light duties around the home; others did not. The report recommends that someone in each home should be "charged with the duty of being aware of each resident's need for occupation."

It is often a tedious process to establish the habit of constructive occupation after years of idleness, particularly among those who have never known work that gave them satisfaction. However, judging from experience in homes that have made the attempt, there seems to be no doubt that the effort is repaid in the greater happiness of individual residents and in the improvement of the general atmosphere of the home. As the atmosphere becomes more cheerful and vital, newly admitted residents unconsciously respond to its stimulation and adopt more active habits; so that an institution accepting such a policy will in time be transformed from a depressing refuge for those who have finished with life to a cheerful scene where old people are rounding out their lives with the satisfaction of being useful. Such a change in the atmosphere of an institution for the aged has a beneficial effect not only upon the residents but also upon the visitors, old and young, who come to see them.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT [2]

An interesting recommendation regarding the buildings and grounds was that ways be devised whereby their use could be extended to old people living in the neighborhood. All of the homes studied had spacious buildings and grounds. One home had unused land which, it was suggested, might be utilized as a site for apartment houses for aged people. Another was experimenting with a plan for "day boarders." Under this plan the facilities of the home are made available to aged who have their own rooms somewhere in the neighborhood, but come into the home during the day, using the grounds, porches, and religious and recreation facilities. A cot is provided for each boarder on which he can rest when he desires. He may have breakfast and supper outside the home or take all of his meals there; in any case his noonday meal is obtained there. If he is ill and needs bed care he is taken into the infirmary. In this way the institution is able to assist many more persons than can be accommodated with

[2] Persons interested in conditions in homes for aged are also directed to a report (Suggested Standards for Homes for the Aged) published in February 1937 by the Welfare Council of New York City, 44 East 23d St.

living quarters. "For many people this seems to be an ideal arrangement, as they have the advantage of protection, sociability and religious observances and at the same time preserve the independence to which they cling."

All of the institutions encourage visitors and invite the friends of residents to use their chapels.

It is possible that many other persons living alone or in families where they have little opportunity for sociability or recreation would be greatly benefited by the privilege of using some of the resources of the home regularly. Some of the residents would probably be glad to participate in extending the privileges that they enjoy to others. If it were carefully planned, this could probably be done without destroying any of the homelike "family" atmosphere which the homes endeavor to maintain.

SUSPENSION OF RETIREMENT BENEFITS FOR PERSONS UNDER 60 IN BRAZIL

PAYMENT of retirement benefits in Brazil, for any cause other than invalidity, to persons under 60 years of age who are insured in retirement and pension institutes and funds under the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce, has been suspended. This was ordered by a decree-law of August 5, 1940, which became effective from date of publication. The purpose of the decree, as stated in the preamble, is to relieve these institutes and funds from their financial burden until a permanent solution can be applied, probably by transformation of ordinary retirement benefits into old-age pensions and by an increase in invalidity and survivors' benefits.[1]

Persons insured under 3 schemes are affected. The plan for public-utility workers and employees, and miners, established in 1931 and 1932, provides for ordinary retirement at 50 years of age after 30 years of service, or at 55 years of age after 20 years of service. The institute for maritime workers, established in 1933, provides for ordinary retirement at 55 years of age after 30 years' service and 5 years' membership in the institute. The bank employees' insurance scheme, adopted in 1934, provides for ordinary retirement at 50 years of age after 30 years' service and 5 years' contributions. The schemes for commercial employees (1934), stevedores (1934) and transport and loading and warehouse employees and workers (1934 and 1938), set 60 years as the minimum age for ordinary retirement; and funds for stevedores and for transport and loading and warehouse employees and workers, provide that retirement benefits shall not be paid until the financial condition of the funds permits.

[1] Data are from Revista do Trabalho, Rio de Janeiro, August 1940.

Older Workers

TOLEDO PLAN FOR PLACING VETERANS

FOR some time the Veteran's Placement Service of the U. S. Bureau of Employment Security has been stressing the need for well-planned collective activities to bring about the placement of unemployed workers over 40 years of age, especially veterans. For several years past, the national veterans' organizations have also made the placement of veterans and older workers an objective ranking next to their first objective—rehabilitation.

In view of these facts, the staff of the employment security center at Toledo recently instituted a campaign to arouse local interest in the unemployment problem of veterans and other older workers, and at the same time to promote the use by employers of the public employment service. An article in the Employment Security Review of the U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, for September 1940, explains the progress of this work.

Examination of veterans' registration cards revealed that many did not include up-to-date information. An intensive reregistration of all veterans in both the active and the inactive files, was conducted. Veteran groups were counseled to refer to the office of the Toledo employment security center competent veterans who were looking for jobs but had never been registered with the center.

After an inventory list had been completed, including the names not only of unemployed veterans but also of other registered job seekers over 40, it was made available in folder form and distributed by job campaigners to employers for their consideration during the year. This pamphlet was called "Experience for Sale," and included a part of a sales talk which was prepared in behalf of older workers. A supplementary sales talk was also prepared, emphasizing outstanding points in the report of the Committee of Employment Problems of Older Workers, appointed by the United States Secretary of Labor. The following statement was made in the folder:

> Each applicant listed in this folder has had years of experience and brings to you the fruit of that experience without an investment on your part for an expensive training period. Records show: Their productivity is greater than that of inexperienced workers. They have fewer accidents. They have more family responsibilities and are, therefore, more stable.

The main difficulty in the campaign was how to bring the veterans together to carry the scheme to prospective employers in the city covered. The employment office compiled a list of employers who, it was thought after a study of their organization and products, would be in a position to utilize middle-aged workers. The various groups of veterans' organizations were circularized, as were also other fraternal and civic groups interested in jobless older workers, requesting an opportunity to explain the employment scheme and secure their cooperation. As an outcome, a date was set for the representatives of the local employment security center to talk to veteran groups.

The plan of operation was for three members of the local office staff to attend each meeting, one member of the group to give a brief talk, another member to pass out the folders, and the third to answer pertinent questions which were brought up from the floor. This brief talk embraced pertinent points about the work of the employment service and stressed the types of qualified older workers who were registered and actively seeking work. They were told that the employer lays down the specifications which the employment service must meet in making every referral to the employer, that it is not within the discretion of the employment service to change arbitrarily the employer's orders so that a veteran or older worker can be sent, but that the remedy is to have the employer ask for a veteran in placing an order with the employment office.

Over 1,000 folders were given to veterans who were either employers or employed, the latter group being instructed to hand the folders to their immediate supervisors. At the same period the regular bulletin of the Toledo employment center, mailed each month to employers, emphasized reasons for taking on older workers. The center's regular radio broadcast, "The Opportunity Program," also featured middle-aged workers.

Increase of Placements Among Middle-Aged

As a result of this drive, the local permanent placements of veterans and others in the 40-plus age group in 1940 were 11 percent above the record for 1939. These represent merely the immediate job placements effected. Experience in service-employer relations has indicated that even more important results are shown after the close of a campaign.

The veteran and his organizations as a result have a better understanding of employment-service facilities in referring applicants for special types of jobs. The American Legion Councillor, The Ohio American Legion News, and similar publications of veterans' organizations have strongly commended the center. Furthermore, the presentation of the center's folders to the employed veterans' bosses, foremen, department managers, or superintendents enabled the employment security center to reach employers actually in need of additional workers. In this way contacts were made which had not before been possible.

The success of this drive has had favorable effects in other communities in Ohio as well as in other States. A summary of the program was sent to all veterans' placement representatives in the country, suggesting that at least one city in each State try out the scheme wherever possible. The local office in Toledo is responding to requests for copies of the folders and for an explanation of the plan and the methods by which it has been carried out in that city. Attention is also called to the fact that the interests of other groups were not neglected for this drive.

A complete analysis of this program should make it obvious that the same basic principle can be used in a campaign in behalf of other groups of applicants registered by the public employment offices. The scheme is especially adapted for use in increasing placements for the large numbers of registered Negro workers. The Toledo center is including the use of the same folder method in its reemployment activities for Negroes, and is meeting with considerable success.

Handicapped Workers

EMPLOYABILITY OF THE HANDICAPPED

ESTIMATES made from partial censuses by various agencies indicate that there are in the United States approximately 4,000,000 handicapped persons, of whom 2,200,000 are in the working ages 17 to 64. A report [1] by a committee of the American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons deals with the extent of the problem, the cause of impairments, measures to meet the needs of the handicapped, employment possibilities of such workers, and impediments to their employment.

For the purpose of the study a handicapped person was defined as "any person in whom there exists a permanent physical or mental or functional nervous defect or infirmity of at least appreciable degree of severity, whether congenital or acquired by accident, injury, or disease." This definition would include in its scope all permanent impairments which cause either total permanent disability or a definite handicap for employment, or which place no limitation whatever on an individual's employability. The study was limited to the physically handicapped, although it was recognized that there are many persons handicapped to some extent by mental or personality defects, by epilepsy, and by other functional disorders of nervous origin.

Number of Physically Handicapped

It was found by the committee that no reliable census or completely satisfactory estimate has ever been made of the number of persons in the country, at any one time, who are handicapped by permanent physical impairments or chronic disease. However, over a long period of years, surveys of the physically handicapped have been made in a number of States by various commissions, especially for the blind and deaf; such a survey was made in 1935–36 by the National Institute of Health. The estimate of approximately 4,000,000 handicapped persons was made on the basis of these surveys. No reliable estimate could be made of the proportion of the 2,200,000 persons of employable age who were totally disabled, but it was esti-

[1] Industrial Medicine (Beloit, Wis.), September 1940: Report of the [American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons] Committee on the Employability of the Handicapped, by Daniel L. Lynch and others.

mated that at least 300,000 handicapped persons in the country are in need of self-supporting employment. Likewise, no reliable census covering the entire country has been made of handicapped workers who are employed. Surveys show wide variations arising from different employment policies, the nature of the industry or the type of occupation, labor demand and supply, and the degree of cooperation of employer and employee in disclosing handicaps. One of the best of such surveys, made in California, showed that 2.3 percent of nearly 170,000 employed persons in industry were handicapped, while 7.9 percent of employees in the public service were handicapped. However, under a procedure established February 1, 1940, under the Wagner-Peyser Act, the unemployment commissions in the various States, cooperating with the Social Security Board, record any detectable, or visible, or stated physical impairment for every applicant for employment benefits and a record is also made of the handicapped persons who are placed in employment. After February 1, 1941, therefore, it should be possible to compile a rather comprehensive record of all handicapped persons seeking employment through these state Commissions, the nature of their handicaps, and their success in securing employment.

It is reported by the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation of the United States Office of Education that 800,000 persons become permanently disabled each year through congenital defect, accidental injury, or disease. Although this figure seems large, approximately 35,000 persons are killed each year in automobile accidents and there are 120,000 accidental deaths from all causes, so that the ratio of seven permanently disabled to each one killed does not seem to be unreasonable.

The functional capacity of approximately 600,000 of the yearly total of 800,000 persons becoming permanently handicapped each year either is not affected or is so slightly reduced that these persons are able to work. The disability of about 50,000 is such as to render them permanently unemployable, and approximately 40,000 are either under or over the age of employability. Of the remaining 110,000, about 20,000 are in receipt of vocational rehabilitation, and a fraction do not seek employment by reason of circumstance. The remainder, probably 75,000, represents the annual increment of handicapped employable persons.

Causes of Physical Impairments

The causes of permanent physical impairments were found by the National Institute of Health, in a survey of 312,000 persons, to be accidental injury in 61 percent of the cases, disease in 33 percent, and congenital defects in 6 percent. An analysis by the National Safety

Council of 400,000 permanent nonfatal disabilities in 1936 showed that 41.4 percent occurred in the home, 25.6 percent were motor accidents, 17.1 percent were occupational accidents, and 15.9 percent were accidents occurring in public places. The first survey revealed that the majority of permanent impairments result from accidents, but the second analysis brought out the fact that a man at work is relatively safe from injury. However, it is evident that safety movements in industry and upon the highways must be sustained and intensified if the annual increment of handicapped persons is to be controlled or reduced.

Rehabilitation of the Handicapped

Practically no organized effort was made to provide for the handicapped prior to the nineteenth century. The first institution established in the United States for the education and rehabilitation of any group was an institute for the blind established in Boston in 1829. During the past 75 years and particularly in the last few decades, public recognition of the needs of the physically handicapped as a whole has resulted in organized efforts by both public and private agencies to provide adequate treatment, vocational rehabilitation, and employment placement for the crippled and disabled. This has been motivated partly by altruism and partly by a realization of the high cost of institutional and private care of the handicapped. The fact that it cost from $500 upwards per year to support a crippled or disabled adult in idleness, whereas his rehabilitation for employment and economic independence could be effected by a single expenditure of $300 or less, has been the most convincing argument for rehabilitation of the handicapped. The need for a constructive rehabilitation program has also been emphasized by the increase in disabling accidents in recent years. Workmen's compensation laws failed to meet the problem, since compensation benefits frequently do not provide a margin whereby a disabled worker may fit himself for reemployment, and few disabled persons are able to adjust themselves to new vocations of their own initiative. The entry of the United States into the World War had a significant effect upon the whole problem, as in June 1918 a law was passed providing for the vocational rehabilitation of disabled soldiers, sailors, and marines. The program was taken over by the Veterans' Administration in 1921, and in 1928 when these activities stopped, 97.8 percent of the war disabled, who were unable to follow their pre-war occupations and who undertook retraining, were employed. The Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 has now been accepted by all of the States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. On June 30, 1938, approximately 119,000 persons had been trained or retrained for and established in self-

supporting employment under this program. It is to be expected that with a return of better business conditions and as a result of defense activities, many employment opportunities will now be opened both to the able-bodied and to the handicapped.

Employment Possibilities

Various surveys have been made showing the types of disabilities in the general population and among employed persons. Although disablements of the hands accounted for only 7.2 percent of the disabilities in a group of the general population, such disability was found in 23.1 percent of the total disabilities in a group of 5,000 employed persons. This suggests that although hand impairments do not bulk large in the general population they do form a plurality of disabilities among the employed group, which indicates, it is said, either that persons so handicapped are most readily employable or that they are more frequently reemployed because their injury was an occupational one. The large number of leg disabilities in both groups suggest that this type of impairment is not a severe handicap to employment, owing in some measure perhaps to the efficiency of artificial appliances. Disability from cardiac defects is relatively difficult to adjust to employment, while the blind are the most unfortunate group.

A survey in Massachusetts showed there were handicapped workers in 149 different occupations; one in California disclosed such employees in 290 different occupations; and a national survey recorded 628 different jobs at which physically handicapped persons were employed. An analysis was made in California in 1935 of a large number of jobs, from the point of view of feasibility of their operation by persons disabled in various ways. For 28 classifications of disabilities selected and 14,460 different jobs analyzed, there was found to be a total of 404,880 theoretical possibilities in office positions, commercial positions, factory jobs, mechanical jobs, and miscellaneous occupations in about equal proportions. The number of theoretical jobs which might be filled by suitably trained workers was found to be about 3 out of every 10 jobs.

The actual performance of handicapped persons in comparison with nondisabled workers was shown to be very favorable in a survey, made by a large manufacturing plant, of about 685 disabled and the same number of nondisabled workers. Resignations, absences, and discharges for cause were found to be from 7 to 8 percent higher among the nondisabled, while there were 5.6 percent fewer accidents among the disabled. A slightly higher percentage of the disabled (4.6 percent) as compared with the nondisabled (4 percent) received increased earnings.

Obstacles to Employment

The employability of the handicapped was found to be to a definite degree a psychosocial problem. Crippled and disabled young persons entering the age of employability are doubly handicapped by reason of their disability and by their lack of skill. Vocational rehabilitation and placement have much to offer these young persons if there is time and opportunity for training. Vocational training or retraining should be undertaken within a period of 5 years from the occurrence of disability or the arrival of the handicapped at employable age. After that time has passed, such persons probably have become adjusted upon welfare relief, have accepted a job at greatly reduced wages, or have become unemployable because of loss of skill, adaptability, or morale.

Limitations on the employment of handicapped persons are found to result from the disinclination of some employers to reemploy injured workers; from the operation of workmen's compensation laws, in most States, which definitely tend to militate against the employment of handicapped persons rather than to assist in their reestablishment in employment; and from the inadequacy of many of the laws in providing for the payment of compensation for second injuries, which operates against reemployment of disabled workers. Also, since the advent of preemployment physical examinations in industry, which applies also with particular emphasis to the Government and most of its subdivisions, the physically handicapped person has frequently found his opportunities limited. Placement of handicapped persons depends greatly upon the conditions of the labor market, since in periods of economic depression these workers have much less opportunity at a time when all the able-bodied cannot be absorbed.

General Conclusion

In conclusion, the report states that "the great majority of handicapped persons are so slightly or moderately impaired in function capacity, or their handicap is so well compensated by their remaining faculties, that they find work or return to their regular employment of their own initiative. The large progressive industries of the country do not discriminate against handicapped persons suitably trained or adaptable for the work. The number of unemployed but really employable handicapped persons in the country, as a group, does not appear to be out of proportion with unemployment among supposedly nonhandicapped persons who likewise need employment for their support and the maintenance of their families."

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Youth in Industry

JOB CAMPAIGNS FOR UNEMPLOYED YOUTH

IN VIEW of the pessimism which has prevailed concerning the plight of unemployed youth in the depression, recent reports on job campaigns for youth and by youth in various sections of the country are of much interest, and will probably serve to stimulate like efforts in other communities. Among the organizations conducting these drives are the Job Hunters of Boston—which was awarded first prize in the Y. M. C. A. Day competition at the New York World's Fair on July 9, 1940; the East Side Job Council in New York City; the Under Thirty Club of Houston, Tex.; and the 18 to 30 Associates of San Francisco. Job campaigns, sponsored by the National Youth Administrations of Illinois, Iowa, and Mississippi, have been carried on with considerable success.

These activities are described briefly in this article.

Job Hunters of Boston [1]

In January 1939, at the Huntington Avenue Branch of the Y. M. C. A., 7 young persons held a conference with Roland Darling, who started the 40-Plus of New England, and undertook to develop an organization of unemployed youth, which in the spring and summer of 1939, tried out various schemes for getting jobs for its members. The following September the Huntington Avenue Branch of the Boston Y. M. C. A. assumed sponsorship of the Job Hunters, and provided for their leadership. During the fall the organization experimented with a small number of unemployed, which never exceeded 60 persons. In January 1940, the membership was increased to 150. In July of the current year the organization was serving about 150 jobless at a time, from the office in Boston, and was keeping in close touch with the groups of Job Hunters in other cities and towns. Since September 1, 1939, the organization has served over 500 young persons, of whom 300 have obtained jobs.

The organization follows a daily office routine and meets frequently in order to—

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[1] Mimeographed report furnished to the Bureau by Roland Darling under date of July 30, 1940, and mimeographed report sent by E. R. Leibert from the headquarters of the National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, New York City.

1. Collect and file factual information regarding job opportunities in various fields, the employment policies of local firms, the manner in which employment agencies can be used to best advantage, services offered by social-service organizations and government agencies which are operated particularly to help the unemployed.
2. Provide activities which help the members become more marketable as they keep busy and learn more about the technique of job seeking.
3. Provide each member with an individualized job-seeking campaign based on the educational background, and experience, if any, and provide facilities which enable the member to carry the campaign through to a successful conclusion.

Membership requirements and activities.—To be eligible for membership a person must be under 30 years of age and without a job. No barriers are raised in regard to race, color, religion, or education.

The distribution of these young job seekers on the basis of educational background showed that 40 percent had finished high school and subsequently followed some short mechanical or business school course, 23 percent had finished high school but had taken no additional educational courses, 12 percent had been to college but had not graduated, 11 percent had completed their college education but had gone no farther, 8 percent had left high school before graduation, and 4 percent had finished college and had afterwards taken additional specialized courses.

Every member of the Job Hunters is made responsible for part of the office work on regular specified days. On Monday the office is operated by those who hope to find positions in advertising, selling or kindred fields. Tuesday the young persons who are in quest of mechanical or technical jobs are in charge. On Wednesday and Thursday the headquarters are taken over by those who are looking for office work. On Friday morning the organization welcomes and starts new members, and in the afternoon, the campaigns of members who feel that their progress is not satisfactory are reviewed.

Members call on firms to get information on employment policies; plan and carry out round tables on various aspects of job hunting; hold daily discussions with the director on interviewing, including sample interviews; collect and file data on firms and jobs; type employment-seeking letters; and carry on the details of office operation.

No dues are paid by members, nor is membership in the Y. M. C. A. obligatory, but the young people belonging to the Job Hunters, it is stated, are expected to give a minimum of 1 day at the office, and some are on duty 3 or 4 days weekly.

The campaigns of the organization are based on facts which the members file and keep up to date. One file includes over 3,000 folders, in which the members are able to find all kinds of factual material on job opportunities in various lines of employment, and requirements for new workers in these different types of work. The members themselves installed the filing system, which has been developed in accordance with plans which have the approval of a national employ-

ment organization. Another file is maintained for facts concerning thousands of establishments in and around Boston, including their requirements, the names of personnel directors, etc. The names of trade directors which are obtainable at local libraries are also kept on file, as are also descriptions of Governmental services, social service, and employment agencies, and other valuable information which may be of assistance.

Relations with alumni and with public.—Young people who have obtained employment during membership in the organization in Boston have assumed the responsibility of constituting units of Job Hunters in other cities. These alumni, at their own expense, have frequently visited units in Brockton, New Bedford, and Providence. The Providence unit was inititated March 10, 1940, and by the first of June, 29 of its original 52 members were reported to be employed.

Since September 1, 1939, about 85 business and professional men and women have given talks to the members of the organization, and members of the organization have addressed numerous meetings of service clubs, etc. The employment offices frequently have recourse to the Job Hunters for young persons, and in turn have referred many to the Job Hunters.

East Side Job Council [2]

In August 1939 several unemployed youth from social clubs on the East Side of New York City realized that various members of other social clubs in the East Broadway area of the city were in a similar jobless predicament. A meeting of some of these unemployed young people was arranged for by the Education Alliance which also made office space available to the group. At this meeting a plan for a cooperative job-finding organization was submitted, which first provided that members of the group should help each other to write letters in reply to advertisements. Later on settlement-house trustees and local employers were contacted.

Local social workers favored the scheme and were ready to help. In a few weeks a raffle supported by social clubs raised $30. Stationery was printed and letters sent to selected local employers.

The East Side Job Council is not a placement agency but a job-campaign organization and lays special stress on the visiting of employers by the membership. The council, however, is interested in and acts upon the problems which confront members—dearth of job opportunities, vocational and educational services, community cooperation with other groups, community unemployment, etc.

A report received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from the Executive Secretary of the council on August 30, 1940, states that the council has conducted two "mass job hunts"—one on January 17,

[2] Data transmitted under date of August 29, 1940, by the executive secretary of the council.

1940, and another on April 2, 1940. At the opening of the latter campaign 200 young persons were present to form teams.

Members are aided in writing letters in reply to want ads and are also encouraged to continue their struggle to find employment by making contacts, calling on former employers, and registering at employment offices. Through training gained by visiting employers and presenting their qualifications, the applicants develop greater confidence in approaching employers. Furthermore, the council makes its members "aware of their appearance and personal qualities which may be obstacles to employment. The finding of a job has some very significant intangible factors that come from within an individual. It is summed up in the words 'good personality.' The council is probably making its greatest contributions to the lives of its members by offering opportunities for constructive and purposeful group relationships that help emotional and social growth."

An analysis of the sex, age, and educational distribution of 369 members showed that 57.7 percent were males; 48.4 percent of the males and 75.0 percent of the females were under 21 years of age; and 57.7 percent were high-school graduates.

The council has recently opened a social room for its members, which is available every day from noon to 5 p. m. This meeting place, provided by the Educational Alliance, is equipped with magazines, radio, and a ping-pong table.

Feeling that the council, as a community group, should know the facts concerning unemployment, the organization has undertaken an employment survey of youth on the Lower East Side.

Under Thirty Club of Houston[3]

The Under Thirty Club, sponsored by the Y. M. C. A. of Houston, Tex., is a group of young men under 30 years of age, who are organized to aid each other in finding employment. The project was suggested by two visitors at that branch of the association who took the matter up with the local secretary. The three men worked out the scheme which is outlined below:

A standard of requirements is set up by a leader, which follows the three tests, namely; character references, education, and permanency. When a group of 10 or more young men have been brought together who fill the above requirements, the following plan of action is proposed:

1. Each man is to be supplied with a list of the employment qualifications of the other men of the group.

2. Individual members are to present themselves to prospective employers and seek employment for the other members of the group.

3. Meetings to be held several times a week early forenoons for the following purposes: (*a*) checking on previous day's accomplishment; (*b*) sharing of experiences to build morale; (*c*) for instructional purposes—to bring vocational guidance experts and business heads before the group.

[3] Information furnished by headquarters of the National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, New York City.

The above system of attack against unemployment is being followed by the Under Thirty Club, the success of which it is stated, is taking a hopeful "hold on the Houston business men who are in the market for qualified employees."

Every week a 6-minute radio program is given in the form of employment interviews, the main objective of which is to introduce club members to prospective employers. No charge is made for the radio time.

The mailing list containing the employment qualifications of each club member reaches about 250 firms. A new list is compiled weekly, which enables employers to find readily the men who may be of service to their establishments. The Y. M. C. A. furnishes the materials and postage, and the promotional activities are carried on through the teamwork of club members.

In 1939, the club found jobs for over 400 of Houston's young men. This year many employers who are in need of employees are calling on the club to supply them with suitable persons for their respective staffs.

Eighteen to Thirty Associates [4]

On January 27, 1940, under the guidance of Ted Lansborough, Chief of the Division of Cashiers of the Golden Gate International Exposition, 11 jobless young men and women organized the Eighteen to Thirty Associates in San Francisco—a nonprofit cooperative organization. By the middle of August of the same year nearly 200 had signed the roster.

The purposes of the association are: (1) To aid young people between 18 and 30 years of age to secure jobs for which their qualifications best suit them and (2) to assist them in taking vocational training which might improve their employment status.

Functions of special groups.—The project is sponsored by a special group of businessmen and is directed by 3 members of the association who act as coordinators, correlating the activities of the different groups of the organization:

The office group is charged with the responsibility of correspondence, filing, records, telephone calls, finances, etc.

The personnel department handles the personnel of the Associates—interviews applicants, keeps personnel records, arranges work programs and assigns tasks to be performed for the association, makes placements in job openings from membership and job-clinic lists, and refills positions on committees when members leave to take jobs.

The activities outlined for the guidance group are: The pointing out of ways and means of assisting persons interviewed to solve their respective job problems; the formation of a vocational library, using

[4] Information transmitted by the Controller of the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce in a letter dated September 26, 1940.

the material accumulated by the research group; the organization of discussion groups, in preparation for the kind of employment desired; the recommendation of additional training, if required, and of the best places to get such training; and the keeping of a comparatively detailed record of each individual handled by the guidance group.

It is the function of the contact and research committee to find material, literature, studies, surveys, etc., relative to the local youth employment problem; to cooperate with the guidance group to secure information bearing on guidance in general or on any special problems; to conduct such investigations or surveys of local industries and working conditions as may be required; to acquaint employers with the association; and to ascertain their demands upon young persons who apply to them for work.

The benefits of being a member of the contact committee are reported as follows in the August 19, 1940, issue of the News Bulletin of the Associates, which is published every 2 weeks:

> Opportunity to meet executives, which probably would not be provided in any other way.
>
> Opportunity while selling the other fellow's services to discuss problems of personnel and employment in an impersonal and objective way with the employer, learning more about the employer's real viewpoint.
>
> Opportunity, in doing the two above things, of more freely representing your own personality; while directly selling the services of the other fellow, your ideas and presentation are being displayed before the employer and tacitly invite his interest in you.
>
> Opportunity in carefully scheduling calls as to district, classification, etc., to gain valuable experience in the mechanical procedure of "outside" urban salesmanship.
>
> Opportunity to make the most of all the above points by comparing notes upon your experience in the contact committee meeting which will be held regularly every week, presided over by Mr. Swirsky, our public-relations director.

The committee on public relations is in charge of publicity, press, radio, speakers, etc.—having always in mind the policy and objectives of the group.

Community attitudes.—A member of the San Francisco Community Chest states that one of the features of the Eighteen to Thirty Associates that cannot be overemphasized "is the fact that since the young people are working without compensation for each other, there is scarcely a businessman in the city who will not give them every possible break on jobs he may have. In fact the Associates are practically on first base without having to face the pitcher at all."

State N. Y. A. Campaigns for Jobs [5]

Efforts are being made by every State to find permanent private jobs for workers temporarily employed on National Youth Adminis-

[5] Data are from National Youth Administration for Illinois, Job Hunt, an Outline of Plans and Procedures, Chicago, 1940; National Youth Administration for Iowa, The 45-Day Job Hunt Campaign of the National Youth Administration for Iowa, Des Moines, 1940; and National Youth Administration, Press releases 58 and 89, Washington, January 4 and May 13, 1940.

tration work projects. In most of the States these efforts have been in the form of conferences attended by representatives of industry, labor, and education. However, three carefully planned, energetic drives for jobs have been carried on in Illinois, Iowa, and Mississippi, respectively, sponsored by the National Youth Administration.

Illinois.—The first N. Y. A. job-getting campaign in Illinois was undertaken during 2 months of 1938. The result was 6,000 jobs for young people.

The byproducts of this campaign are stated by the N. Y. A. to have included:

1. An awakened community consciousness concerning the job problem of youth.
2. An improvement in job-getting techniques on the part of youth.
3. A growing eagerness on the part of employers to secure the services of youth trained in proper work habits and skills as the result of N. Y. A project employment.
4. A continuous evaluation of N. Y. A. work projects for the purpose of improving working conditions and training values so that youth engaged in such work projects may become increasingly employable in private industry.

It is pointed out that full-time N. Y. A. workers are not able, by themselves, to make a job hunt a great success. They must have the sustained cooperation of community agencies, employers, youth organizations, and the friends of youth. A central job-hunt committee should be appointed, representing various local groups. Qualified N. Y. A. staff members should be designated to direct the procedures with efficiency and dispatch.

A highly important preliminary requisite for the success of a campaign is a comprehensive and accurate survey of employment conditions in the community. Emphasis is also placed on the necessity of keeping youth records, and of publicity through direct-mail efforts, news stories, radio dramas, speeches, and spot announcements, mass meetings of youth and employers, posters, and booklets.

When the publicity campaign is effective and the study of community employment conditions and opportunities has been carefully made, job solicitation becomes largely a matter of consolidating the results into job orders. In this connection it is suggested that a field force be organized which will spend its entire time contacting employers during the period of the job hunt; that the N. Y. A. district be divided into several contact areas and that one person should have the responsibility for the work of each contact unit; and, if possible, that the employer contact file be secured from the local State Employment Service manager.

It is also suggested that an N. Y. A. representative calling on an employer should base his appeal on—

(1) The fact that a 1-month intensive drive is being conducted to place young persons in private industry.

(2) The fact that these N. Y. A. employees, because of their training, are ready for private employment and that some of them have had training as stenographers, typists, file clerks, woodshop workers, power sewing-machine operators, etc.

He should not make his appeal on the basis of sympathy or on the fact that the young persons he wishes to place are from families in the low-income groups.

In accordance with the procedures above outlined, the second job hunt of the National Youth Administration for Illinois was carried on in the spring of 1940, and resulted in the placement of 11,200 young people in private employment. Three-fourths of these placements were in permanent jobs. Of the 11,200 who obtained jobs, 5,300 were from those in N. Y. A. employment.

A canvass was made of employers, who were urged to take on young workers to fill existing vacancies.

Young people were aided by counselors in directing their search for employment to industries in which new job opportunities may be found. These young persons were also given valuable suggestions regarding job applications and training requirements for various kinds of work.

Mississippi.—Through a 7-week job drive, beginning November 1, 1939, sponsored by the National Youth Administration for Mississippi, 622 jobs were made available for youth who had been engaged on N. Y. A. projects. Four-fifths of these openings were in private employment. When the campaign was started, 5,400 Mississippi young people were engaged on N. Y. A. projects. Though the drive was not restricted to finding employment for N. Y. A. eligibles, more job data were available with regard to them, and of the 622 young people placed, 541 were on N. Y. A. projects when other work was found for them, and 81 had previously been on N. Y. A. rolls. However, a number of youths who were never on these rolls obtained their first jobs as an outcome of this Mississippi campaign.

Iowa.—On June 1, 1940, a 45-day job hunt by the National Youth Administration for Iowa was completed. Through this effort 1,108 N. Y. A. youths were placed in private jobs. Of this number, 216 were women. In addition, 16 N. Y. A. young people were placed in public employment. During the job drive, 90,560 pieces of mail were sent out from the State N. Y. A. office.

Before the actual campaign was begun, the N. Y. A. State office distributed by mail a 6-page booklet on the purposes and hoped-for accomplishments of this drive. Other publicity included radio programs, posters, and news releases.

As an outcome of this job hunt, the National Youth Administration in Iowa is promoting job clinics for N. Y. A. youth, the first of these experiments now being in course of organization in Sioux City.[6]

[6] National Youth Administration. The Proposed Job Clinic for Unemployed Sioux City Youth Cosponsored by the Sioux City Chamber of Commerce and the National Youth Administration for Iowa 1940.

The purpose of the proposed job clinic is to bring together unemployed young people in order to study and discuss their common job problems. To help them cope with these problems, it is planned to invite to the conferences, from time to time, employers, personnel managers, employment-service officials, and other persons competent to discuss, as occasion requires, job qualification for particular types of employment in business and industry, the needs of employers, job trends, job-finding techniques, and allied subjects.

Young participants in the job clinic will be expected to draw up and keep a current personal folder, including notes taken at clinic meetings, ideas for potential employment "leads," results of interviews in applying for jobs, and other data that may be of value to them in selecting or obtaining a job in private employment. "This," it is said, "is not a plan to 'mollycoddle' youth, but rather one to allow youth release for their energies, to give them a chance to work out their own employment destinies, along the lines of constructive endeavor."

CHILD LABOR IN MARYLAND VEGETABLE CANNERIES

LARGE numbers of children under 18 years of age, and some under 16 years of age, were working in Maryland vegetable canneries in 1937 and 1938.[1] About one-third of the cannery employees under 18 included in the 1938 survey had not completed their sixteenth year. The median weekly hours for children under 18 years of age ranged from 46 in pea canneries to 56 in corn canneries. Median earnings of the same group for the week when earnings were highest ran from $6.54 in tomato canneries to $11.82 in corn canneries.

Occupations

A large part of the routine hand work in canneries can be performed by boys and girls from 14 to 17 years of age. The greatest numbers of these child workers are listed on the pay rolls as "general laborers," a designation covering the majority of the hand occupations in preparing and canning vegetables. However, the specific type of employment was reported for a substantial number. More girls than boys were employed in canning string beans and tomatoes; more boys than girls in canning peas and corn.

Girls snipped, inspected, and graded beans, peeled tomatoes, husked corn, and packed peas; boys handled the empty cans in the lofts, dropping them into the chutes for transfer to the sterilizing and filling machines or unloading them from the freight cars and packing them in boxes or conveyors before they were taken to the lofts; or they boxed and prepared goods for shipment. Both boys and girls worked as labelers, pasting labels on cans.

[1] United States Children's Bureau. The Child, August 1940: Child Labor in Vegetable Canneries in Maryland, by Caroline E. Legg and Ella Arvilla Merritt.

Hours and Earnings

As the pay-roll periods selected in the 1938 survey were the peak weeks for each product, hours and earnings for these child workers were typical of the few weeks in the rush season in the canning of the specified product.

The piece-work operation in which the greatest number of minors was engaged was tomato peeling, these young people being paid on the basis of the number of buckets of tomatoes peeled. In the canning of peas, corn, and string beans, the work was done on a time basis, and the hours of a large percentage of the children were reported.

Tables 1 and 2, respectively, give the weekly hours and earnings of minors under 18 years working on certain products in 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Weekly Hours of Minors Under 18 Years of Age Working on Specified Products in Maryland Canneries, 1938*

Weekly hours	Minors under 18 years of age working on—						
	String beans		Tomatoes	Corn		Peas	
	Number	Percent	Number [1]	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	227		100	106		91	
Hours reported	227	100	28	85	100	88	100
Less than 40	90	40	8	13	15	33	37
40, less than 44	18	8	2	6	7	6	7
44, less than 48	5	2	2	5	6	9	10
Exactly 48 hours	2	1				2	2
More than 48, less than 54	79	35	4	12	14	5	6
54, less than 60	12	5	10	17	20	14	16
60 or more	21	9	2	32	38	19	22
Hours not reported			72	21		3	
Median hours	48.0			56.3		46.2	

[1] Percents and median not shown because the total number for whom hours are reported is too small to make the distribution significant.

TABLE 2.—*Weekly Earnings of Minors Under 18 Years of Age Working on Specified Products in Maryland Canneries, 1938*

Weekly earnings	Minors under 18 years of age working on—							
	String beans		Tomatoes		Corn		Peas	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	227		100		106		91	
Weekly earnings reported	227	100	96	100	99	100	91	100
Less than $5	18	8	35	36	7	7	11	12
$5, less than $10	75	33	40	42	20	20	29	32
$10, less than $15	123	54	12	13	38	39	34	37
$15 or more	11	5	9	9	34	34	17	19
Weekly earnings not reported			4		7			
Median weekly earnings	$10.47		$6.54		$11.82		$10.61	

Necessity for Employment Certificates

In 1938, better enforcement of the requirement for employment certificates for children under 16 greatly improved the situation in regard to the problem of age misrepresentations. Fifty-nine percent of the children under 16 who were employed for the first time in 1938 had employment certificates which gave their correct ages, as compared with 30 percent in 1937; and in 1938 only 30 percent under 16 overstated their ages, as compared with 49 percent in the previous year.

It is obvious from the investigations by the Children's Bureau that employers cannot rely on the statements of minors concerning their ages, and that certificates of employment should be required of all minor employees for at least a 2-year period beyond the minimum age for employment.

EARNINGS OF NEGRO WORKERS IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY, APRIL 1938 [1]

NEGRO workers, as a group, were earning substantially less per hour than white workers in the iron and steel industry in April 1938, the respective average hourly earnings being 68.7 and 85.7 cents.[2] However, where Negroes were doing the same kind of work as white workers they were found to be receiving the same rate of pay.[3] The above difference in average hourly earnings, therefore, is a reflection of the limited occupational opportunities for Negroes in the industry.

Distribution of Negroes Within the Industry

Although Negroes have long been employed in the iron and steel industry, their numerical strength did not increase to any great extent until the World War. In 1930 the census of population showed that one of every eight workers (12.8 percent) in the iron and steel industry was a Negro.[4] A slightly lower ratio is indicated in both the 1935 and the 1938 wage surveys of the industry made by the Bureau, Negroes accounting for 10 percent of the total labor force in the former year and 9.6 percent in the latter year. The small decline between 1935 and 1938 was due to a decrease in the relative number of Negroes in rolling mills (from 9.8 to 8.7 percent), where over 70 percent of the Negroes in the industry were found. During the same interval the percentage of Negroes in blast furnaces increased from 15.6 to 20.8, while in steel works there was a slight advance from 8.6 to 8.7 percent.

The relative number of Negroes varied widely between regions, as may be seen from table 1. The highest ratio of Negro workers was found in the South, where they constituted 44.7 percent of all male workers reported. In the North they represented 7.9 percent of all male workers, and in the West only 2 percent.

[1] Prepared by Victor S. Baril, assisted by Abner C. Lakenan, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

[2] See articles on earnings and hours in the iron and steel industry which appeared in the August, September, and October 1940 issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

[3] This analysis is of necessity limited to male workers, as the Negro coverage of the study did not include any females.

[4] Of the 377,556 workers in the industry in 1930, 48,867 were Negroes.

Of the three branches of the industry, blast furnaces had the highest relative number of Negro workers (20.8 percent of all male workers), which may be compared to 8.7 percent in steel works and 8.8 percent in rolling mills.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Male Workers in Iron and Steel Industry, by Branch, Region, and Race, April 1938*

Branch of industry and region	All workers			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Whites [1]	Negroes	Total	Whites [1]	Negroes
All branches	80,711	72,909	7,802	100.0	90.3	9.7
North	73,819	67,972	5,847	100.0	92.1	7.9
West	2,632	2,580	52	100.0	98.0	2.0
South	4,260	2,357	1,903	100.0	55.3	44.7
Blast furnaces	5,996	4,747	1,249	100.0	79.2	20.8
Steel works	11,457	10,464	993	100.0	91.3	8.7
Rolling mills	63,258	57,698	5,560	100.0	91.2	8.8
North	58,720	54,486	4,234	100.0	92.8	7.2
West	1,599	1,588	11	100.0	99.3	.7
South	2,939	1,624	1,315	100.0	55.3	44.7

[1] Includes 944 Mexicans.

Comparison of Average Hourly Earnings of Whites and of Negroes

Male workers earned an average of 84.1 cents an hour in April 1938. The earnings of male whites amounted to 85.7 cents, while those of male Negroes were 68.7 cents (table 2). Thus, as a group, Negroes in the iron and steel industry had substantially lower average hourly earnings than whites, the actual difference amounting to 17 cents.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings of Male Workers in Iron and Steel Industry, by Branch, Region, and Race, April 1938*

Branch of industry and region	All workers		Whites		Negroes	
	Number	Average hourly earnings	Number	Average hourly earnings	Number	Average hourly earnings
All branches	80,711	$0.841	72,909	$0.857	7,802	$0.687
North	73,819	.849	67,972	.858	5,847	.739
West	2,632	.923	2,580	.926	52	.768
South	4,260	.660	2,357	.749	1,903	.536
Blast furnaces	5,996	.736	4,747	.777	1,249	.585
North	4,746	.772	4,064	.790	682	.657
West	214	(1)	178	(1)	36	(1)
South	1,036	(1)	505	(1)	531	(1)
Steel works	11,457	.873	10,464	.892	993	.685
North	10,353	.873	9,422	.891	931	.699
West	819	(1)	814	(1)	5	(1)
South	285	(1)	228	(1)	57	(1)
Rolling mills	63,258	.846	57,698	.858	5,560	.715
North	58,720	.852	54,486	.858	4,234	.762
West	1,599	.949	1,588	.949	11	(1)
South	2,939	.679	1,624	.760	1,315	.558

[1] Averages not presented either on account of small number of workers or to keep from revealing plant identity.

Further evidence of the lower wage level of Negro workers is found in table 3, which gives a distribution of employees according to average hourly earnings. Although 15 percent of the Negroes averaged less than 52.5 cents an hour and one-third (33.2 percent) less than 62.5 cents an hour, only 1.6 and 7.6 percent, respectively, of the white workers had such earnings. Two-thirds of the colored workers (66.8 percent) earned 62.5 cents or more an hour, but less than one-fourth (22.6 percent) received as much as 82.5 cents and less than one-tenth (8.1 percent) as much as $1. In contrast, 92.4 percent of the whites earned 62.5 cents or more an hour, somewhat more than two-fifths (43.9 percent) 82.5 cents or more, and one-fifth (20.2 percent) $1 or more.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Male Workers in Iron and Steel Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Race, April 1938*

Average hourly earnings	All workers	Whites [1]			Negroes		
		Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage	
			Simple	Cumulative		Simple	Cumulative
Under 30.0 cents	10	2	(2)	(2)	8	0.1	0.1
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	80	44	0.1	0.1	36	.5	.6
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	26	20	(2)	.1	6	.1	.7
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	136	68	.1	.2	68	.9	1.6
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	119	73	.1	.3	46	.6	2.2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	247	130	.2	.5	117	1.5	3.7
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	600	291	.4	.9	309	4.0	7.7
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	1,089	523	.7	1.6	566	7.3	15.0
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	2,281	1,542	2.1	3.7	739	9.4	24.4
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	3,536	2,845	3.9	7.6	691	8.8	33.2
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	13,069	11,536	15.8	23.4	1,533	19.5	52.7
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	9,683	8,848	12.1	35.5	835	10.6	63.3
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	8,397	7,796	10.7	46.2	601	7.6	70.9
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	7,757	7,253	9.9	56.1	504	6.5	77.4
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	6,712	6,278	8.6	64.7	434	5.6	83.0
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	5,645	5,308	7.3	72.0	337	4.3	87.3
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	6,075	5,714	7.8	79.8	361	4.6	91.9
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	5,199	4,929	6.8	86.6	270	3.5	95.4
110.0 and under 120.0 cents	3,400	3,224	4.4	91.0	176	2.3	97.7
120.0 and under 130.0 cents	2,270	2,155	3.0	94.0	115	1.5	99.2
130.0 and under 140.0 cents	1,248	1,227	1.7	95.7	21	.3	99.5
140.0 and under 150.0 cents	831	817	1.1	96.8	14	.2	99.7
150.0 and under 160.0 cents	534	529	.7	97.5	5	.1	99.8
160.0 and under 170.0 cents	493	487	.7	98.2	6	.1	99.9
170.0 and under 180.0 cents	368	368	.5	98.7			99.9
180.0 and under 190.0 cents	290	286	.4	99.1	4	.1	100.0
190.0 and under 200.0 cents	151	151	.2	99.3			
200.0 and under 220.0 cents	199	199	.3	99.6			
220.0 and under 240.0 cents	115	115	.2	99.8			
240.0 cents and over	151	151	.2				
Total	80,711	72,909	100.0		7,802	100.0	

[1] Includes 944 Mexicans.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

In each of the three branches of the industry whites earned substantially more per hour than did Negroes. The smallest difference in favor of whites (14.3 cents) was found in rolling mills, where they averaged 85.8 cents an hour as compared with 71.5 cents for Negroes.

On the other hand, the greatest difference in hourly earnings occurred in the steel works branch of the industry, in which the average was 89.2 cents for whites—20.7 cents more than the Negroes' average of 68.5 cents. In blast furnaces the difference closely approximated that in steel works, whites averaging 77.7 cents an hour and Negroes, 58.5 cents.

In each of the three regions, white workers also enjoyed a very substantial difference in earnings over Negroes. In the North, this amounted to 11.9 cents, the respective average hourly earnings being 85.8 cents and 73.9 cents. The difference in earnings was much more pronounced in the South, where whites earned an average of 74.9 cents an hour—21.3 cents more per hour than Negroes received. In the West, white workers averaged 92.6 cents an hour as compared with 76.8 cents for Negroes. The western average for Negroes, however, has only a limited significance, because of the very small number of such workers in this region.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Distribution of Male Workers in Iron and Steel Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings, Race, and Region, April 1938*

Average hourly earnings	United States		North		West		South	
	Whites[1]	Negroes	Whites[2]	Negroes	Whites[3]	Negroes	Whites	Negroes
Under 30.0 cents	(4)	0.1	(4)	(4)				0.4
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	0.1	.5	(4)				1.6	1.9
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	(4)	.1	(4)				.4	.3
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	.1	.9	(4)				2.3	3.6
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	.1	.6	(4)	(4)			2.2	2.4
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	.2	1.5	0.1	(4)			2.3	6.0
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	.4	4.0	.3	(4)	(4)		4.4	16.1
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	.7	7.3	.6	1.2	0.5		5.0	26.0
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	2.1	9.4	2.0	7.6	.5		6.0	15.3
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	3.9	8.8	3.5	9.5	7.7	11.5	10.2	6.7
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	15.8	19.5	16.1	23.9	15.7	40.5	9.4	6.5
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	12.1	10.6	12.4	13.3	8.6	11.5	10.8	2.7
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	10.7	7.6	11.0	9.5	8.4	7.7	7.6	2.2
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	9.9	6.5	10.1	7.9	5.7		9.3	2.2
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	8.6	5.6	8.8	6.8	6.5	1.9	4.4	1.9
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	7.3	4.3	7.3	5.4	7.9	7.7	4.8	.9
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	7.8	4.6	7.9	5.5	8.5	9.6	5.3	1.7
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	6.8	3.5	6.8	4.1	7.9	3.8	4.5	1.5
110.0 and under 120.0 cents	4.4	2.3	4.4	2.7	6.4	5.8	2.0	.7
120.0 and under 130.0 cents	3.0	1.5	2.9	1.7	4.0		2.3	.8
130.0 and under 140.0 cents	1.7	.3	1.7	.4	2.6		1.5	
140.0 and under 150.0 cents	1.1	.2	1.1	.2	1.6		.9	
150.0 and under 160.0 cents	.7	.1	.7	.1	1.7		.4	.1
160.0 and under 170.0 cents	.7	.1	.6	.1	1.6		.6	.1
170.0 and under 180.0 cents	.5		.5		.8		.5	
180.0 and under 190.0 cents	.4	.1	.4	.1	1.2		.2	
190.0 and under 200.0 cents	.2		.2		.6		.3	
200.0 and under 220.0 cents	.3		.3		.7		.3	
220.0 and under 240.0 cents	.2		.1		.3		.3	
240.0 cents and over	.2		.2		.6		.2	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Includes 944 Mexicans.
[2] Includes 687 Mexicans.
[3] Includes 257 Mexicans.
[4] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

In the North, the lower earnings of colored workers by comparison with those of white workers are clearly indicated by the concentration of the former in the lower-wage and of the latter in the upper-wage brackets. According to table 4, roughly one-fifth (18.3 percent) of the Negroes earned under 62.5 cents an hour and over two-fifths (42.2 percent) under 67.5 cents. The relative number of whites with such earnings amounted only to 6.5 and 22.6 percent, respectively. On the other hand, only 27.1 percent of the Negroes averaged 82.5 cents or more an hour, whereas 43.9 percent of the whites had such earnings. There was not much difference in the proportions of workers with earnings between 67.5 and 82.5 cents, the percentages being 33.5 for whites and 30.7 for Negroes.

In the South, roughly four-fifths of the Negroes (78.7 percent) earned less than 62.5 cents an hour, well over one-half (56.7 percent) less than 52.5 cents and three-tenths (30.7 percent) less than 47.5 cents. In each instance, the relative number of white workers with similar earnings was very much lower, the respective percentages being 34.4, 18.2, and 13.2. Only slightly more than one-fifth of the Negroes in the South (21.3 percent) received as much as 62.5 cents an hour and less than one-twelfth (7.7 percent) as much as 82.5 cents. In contrast, nearly two-thirds of the whites in the South (65.6 percent) earned 62.5 cents or more an hour and over one-fourth (28.5 percent) 82.5 cents or more.

Cause of Lower Earnings of Negroes

Various reasons have been advanced to explain the comparatively low earnings of Negroes in various industries. The impression has been rather general that Negroes receive a lower rate of pay than whites for the same type of work. However, insofar as the iron and steel industry is concerned, this is not the case. A very careful examination of the reports for plants employing both whites and Negroes revealed that whenever whites and Negroes were found in the same occupations in any given plant, both were receiving the same basic rates. For instance, white and Negro workers received the same hourly rate of pay as blast-furnace keepers in plant A (81.5 cents), as stockers in plant B (63.0 cents), and as bottom makers in plant C (68.3 cents). Similarly, with respect to common laborers, white and colored workers received the same hourly rate in plant X (62.5 cents), in plant Y (59.5 cents), and in plant Z (56.5 cents).

DISTRIBUTION BY SKILL

The explanation of the lower earnings of Negroes in the iron and steel industry lies in their limited occupational opportunities. This may be seen from the distributions of white and colored workers, by skill, which appear in tables 5 and 6.

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TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Male Workers in Iron and Steel Industry, by Branch of Industry, Skill, and Race, April 1938*

Branch of industry and skill group	All workers		Whites [1]			Negroes		
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Percent of total workers in group	Number	Percent	Percent of total workers in group
All branches	80,711	100.0	72,909	100.0	90.3	7,802	100.0	9.7
Skilled	27,320	33.8	26,345	36.1	96.4	975	12.5	3.6
Semiskilled	32,594	40.4	29,609	40.6	90.8	2,985	38.3	9.2
Unskilled	20,797	25.8	16,955	23.3	81.5	3,842	49.2	18.5
Blast furnaces	5,996	100.0	4,747	100.0	79.2	1,249	100.0	20.8
Skilled	2,045	34.1	1,907	40.1	93.3	138	11.0	6.7
Semiskilled	2,403	40.1	1,854	39.1	77.2	549	44.0	22.8
Unskilled	1,548	25.8	986	20.8	63.7	562	45.0	36.3
Steel works	11,457	100.0	10,464	100.0	91.3	993	100.0	8.7
Skilled	4,667	40.7	4,552	43.5	97.5	115	11.6	2.5
Semiskilled	3,368	29.4	3,070	29.3	91.2	298	30.0	8.8
Unskilled	3,422	29.9	2,842	27.2	83.1	580	58.4	16.9
Rolling mills	63,258	100.0	57,698	100.0	91.2	5,560	100.0	8.8
Skilled	20,608	32.6	19,886	34.4	96.5	722	13.0	3.5
Semiskilled	26,823	42.4	24,685	42.8	92.0	2,138	38.5	8.0
Unskilled	15,827	25.0	13.127	22.8	82.9	2,700	48.5	17.1

[1] Includes 944 Mexicans.

Negroes accounted for only 3.6 percent of the 27,320 skilled male workers, but for 9.2 percent of the 32,594 semiskilled and for 18.5 percent of the 20,797 unskilled male workers in the industry. Even more revealing is the skill composition of each racial group. Thus, one-half of the Negroes (49.2 percent), in contrast to less than one-fourth of the whites (23.3 percent), were found in unskilled occupations. Conversely, well over one-third of the latter (36.1 percent) but only one-eighth of the former (12.5 percent) were in skilled occupations. The relative number of workers in the semiskilled group of occupations did not differ greatly, amounting to 40.6 percent for white and 38.3 percent for colored workers.

The proportion of Negroes in each of the three skill groups also varied between branches of the industry. It was much greater in blast furnaces than in either steel works or rolling mills. In blast furnaces, where Negroes accounted for 20.8 percent of all workers, they constituted more than one-third (36.3 percent) of the total unskilled workers, over one-fifth (22.8 percent) of the semiskilled, and only 6.7 percent of the skilled. In steel works and rolling mills, Negroes accounted for about one-sixth (16.9 and 17.1 percent, respectively) of the unskilled, one-twelfth (8.8 and 8.0 percent, respectively) of the semiskilled, and for only 2.5 and 3.5 percent, respectively, of the skilled workers. In each of these branches they made up about 9 percent of the total labor force.

Especially significant is the skill composition of each racial group in each of the three branches of the industry. In blast furnaces 45 percent of the Negroes were unskilled, 44 percent semiskilled, and only 11.0 percent skilled. In contrast, only 20.8 percent of the whites in

blast furnaces were unskilled, but 39.1 percent were semiskilled and 40.1 percent were skilled. Of the Negroes in steel works, nearly three-fifths (58.4 percent) were unskilled, while 30 percent were semiskilled and only 11.6 percent skilled. The corresponding percentages for whites in steel works were 27.2, 29.3, and 43.5, respectively. In rolling mills, nearly one-half of the Negroes (48.5 percent) were in unskilled occupations, approximately two-fifths (38.5 percent) in semiskilled, but only one-eighth (13 percent) in skilled. The respective percentages for whites were 22.8, 42.8, and 34.4. These figures indicate that occupational opportunities of Negroes were on the whole greatest in blast furnaces and least in steel works.

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of Male Workers in Iron and Steel Industry, by Region, Branch of Industry, Skill, and Race, April 1938*

Region, branch, and skill	All workers		Whites [1]			Negroes		
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Percent of total workers in group	Number	Percent	Percent of total workers in group
North								
All branches	73,819	100.0	67,972	100.0	92.1	5,847	100.0	7.9
Skilled	25,007	33.9	24,292	35.7	97.1	715	12.2	2.9
Semiskilled	29,841	40.4	27,611	40.6	92.5	2,230	38.1	7.5
Unskilled	18,971	25.7	16,069	23.6	84.7	2,902	49.7	15.3
Blast furnaces	4,746	100.0	4,064	100.0	85.6	682	100.0	14.4
Skilled	1,715	36.1	1,633	40.1	95.2	82	12.0	4.8
Semiskilled	1,859	39.2	1,559	38.4	83.9	300	44.0	16.1
Unskilled	1,172	24.7	872	21.5	74.4	300	44.0	25.6
Steel works	10,353	100.0	9,422	100.0	91.0	931	100.0	9.0
Skilled	4,232	40.9	4,117	43.7	97.3	115	12.4	2.7
Semiskilled	3,013	29.1	2,730	29.0	90.6	283	30.4	9.4
Unskilled	3,108	30.0	2,575	27.3	82.9	533	57.2	17.1
Rolling mills	58,720	100.0	54,486	100.0	92.8	4,234	100.0	7.2
Skilled	19,060	32.5	18,542	34.0	97.3	518	12.2	2.7
Semiskilled	24,969	42.5	23,322	42.8	93.4	1,647	38.9	6.6
Unskilled	14,691	25.0	12,622	23.2	85.9	2,069	48.9	14.1
West								
All branches	2,632	100.0	2,580	100.0	98.0	52	100.0	2.0
Skilled	1,008	38.3	993	38.5	98.5	15	28.8	1.5
Semiskilled	986	37.5	963	37.3	97.7	23	44.3	2.3
Unskilled	638	24.2	624	24.2	97.8	14	26.9	2.2
South								
All branches [2]	4,260	100.0	2,357	100.0	55.3	1,903	100.0	44.7
Skilled	1,305	30.6	1,060	45.0	81.2	245	12.9	18.8
Semiskilled	1,767	41.5	1,035	43.9	58.6	732	38.5	41.4
Unskilled	1,188	27.9	262	11.1	22.1	926	48.6	77.9
Rolling mills	2,939	100.0	1,624	100.0	55.3	1,315	100.0	44.7
Skilled	926	31.5	729	44.9	78.7	197	15.0	21.3
Semiskilled	1,213	41.3	724	44.6	59.7	489	37.2	40.3
Unskilled	800	27.2	171	10.5	21.4	629	47.8	78.6

[1] Includes 944 Mexicans.
[2] Includes data for blast furnaces and steel works, separate figures for which would have revealed plant identity.

The skill make-up of the Negro group for the industry as a whole was practically the same in both the North and the South, one-eighth of the Negroes being skilled, roughly two-fifths semiskilled, and approximately one-half unskilled. Comparison of these ratios with the corresponding ratios for whites reveals the much less favorable

position of colored workers. In the North, for instance, less than one-fourth of the whites (23.6 percent) were unskilled, but more than one-third (35.7 percent) were skilled. In the South as high as 45.0 percent of the whites were skilled and only 11.1 percent were unskilled. In the semiskilled group, the relative number of whites and Negroes was approximately 40 percent in both the North and South.

DISTRIBUTION BY OCCUPATIONS

Also indicative of the more limited opportunities of Negroes in the industry are the occupations in which they are generally found. There are two general types of occupations in this industry—jobs peculiar to each department and those more or less common to all departments. The former are essentially direct or operating jobs, while the latter are largely indirect occupations relating to transportation, maintenance, and repair.

Of the 48,357 male workers found in occupations peculiar to each department, 10.8 percent were Negroes. In this group of occupations the distribution of whites and Negroes was widely different, at least insofar as skilled and unskilled workers are concerned. Thus, 35.2 percent of the whites, but only 14.8 percent of the Negroes, were found in skilled occupations. On the other hand, 41.2 percent of the Negroes, but only 23 percent of the whites were in unskilled jobs. The relative number of Negroes in semiskilled occupations did not differ greatly from that of whites, the respective percentages being 44.0 and 41.8.

Although 11.7 percent of the Negroes in occupations peculiar to blast furnaces were skilled furnace keepers, not far from one-third (31.6 percent) were semiskilled keepers' helpers and one-fifth (20.1 percent) unskilled stockers. In open-hearth furnaces over half of the Negroes in direct occupations were found in two unskilled jobs, 31.5 percent being stockers and 19.5 percent melters' third helpers. While 18.1 percent of the Negroes in jobs peculiar to plate mills were skilled shearmen, 66.2 percent were unskilled shearmen's helpers.

It should not be assumed, however, that Negroes are seldom found in appreciable numbers in the more skilled direct occupations. For instance, while one-third of the Negroes in jobs peculiar to blooming mills were doing unskilled work, not far from one-half (47.9 percent) were semiskilled chippers and grinders. Moreover, in both sheet and tin mills, Negroes were well represented in a number of semiskilled occupations. Finally, of the Negroes in occupations peculiar to wire mills, 57.4 percent were skilled wire drawers.

Equally significant is the proportion of Negroes in the group of mechanical, transportation, power, and other occupations more or less common to all departments. The distribution of white and colored workers according to these occupations appears in table 7. Of the 32,354 workers included in the group, only 8 percent were Negroes.

TABLE 7.—*Distribution of Workers in Occupations Common to All Departments of Iron and Steel Industry, by Race, April 1938*

Occupation	All workers	Whites		Negroes	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All occupations	32,354	29,774	92.0	2,580	8.0
Blacksmiths	198	194	98.0	4	2.0
Blacksmiths' helpers	143	130	90.9	13	9.1
Boilermakers	96	96	100.0		
Bricklayers	302	301	99.7	1	.3
Bricklayers' helpers	172	141	82.0	31	18.0
Carpenters	192	192	100.0		
Clerical, plant	2,611	2,599	99.5	12	.5
Cranemen, miscellaneous, skilled	198	197	99.5	1	.5
Cranemen, miscellaneous, semiskilled	3,081	2,993	97.1	88	2.9
Crane followers	1,801	1,627	90.3	174	9.7
Electricians	918	916	99.8	2	.2
Electricians' helpers	140	138	98.6	2	1.4
Engineers, locomotive	447	421	94.2	26	5.8
Engineers, power, electric	149	148	99.3	1	.7
Engineers, power, steam	101	101	100.0		
Firemen, locomotive	62	59	95.2	3	4.8
Firemen and water tenders, power	337	309	91.7	28	8.3
Inspectors and repairmen, motors	607	607	100.0		
Inspectors and repairmen's helpers, motors	122	122	100.0		
Laborers, common	4,517	3,628	80.3	889	19.7
Laborers, miscellaneous	2,891	2,320	80.2	571	19.8
Ladle liners	126	109	86.5	17	13.5
Machinists	1,256	1,255	99.9	1	.1
Machinists' helpers	292	281	96.2	11	3.8
Millwrights	1,333	1,323	99.2	10	.8
Millwrights' helpers	518	514	99.2	4	.8
Oilers and greasers, equipment	901	810	89.9	91	10.1
Pipe fitters	543	535	98.5	8	1.5
Pipe fitters' helpers	160	145	90.6	15	9.4
Pumpers	153	152	99.3	1	.7
Riggers	235	221	94.0	14	6.0
Roll turners	462	462	100.0		
Service workers, plant	945	830	87.8	115	12.2
Supervisory, plant	2,404	2,342	97.4	62	2.6
Switchmen, locomotive	510	433	84.9	77	15.1
Welders	409	392	95.8	17	4.2
Miscellaneous skilled workers	1,376	1,338	97.2	38	2.8
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers	1,271	1,131	89.0	140	11.0
Miscellaneous unskilled workers	375	262	69.9	113	30.1

On a skill basis the position of the Negroes was on the whole much less favorable in the group of occupations more or less common to all departments than in those direct occupations peculiar to each department. Among the white workers in the occupations shown in table 7, 37.4 percent were skilled, 39.0 percent semiskilled, and 23.6 percent unskilled. In contrast, only 7.8 percent of the Negroes were skilled and 26.7 percent semiskilled but 65.5 percent were unskilled.

No Negroes were found in the skilled occupations of boilermakers, carpenters, roll turners, and motor inspectors and repairmen. Furthermore, very few were employed either as blacksmiths, bricklayers, electricians, machinists, millwrights, or pipefitters. As a matter of fact, there was an appreciable number of Negroes in only three of the skilled mechanical occupations: Welders, 4.2 percent; riggers, 6.0 percent; and ladle liners, 13.5 percent.

On the whole, the proportion of Negroes was substantially higher in the helper group of mechanical occupations than in the skilled or

journeyman group. Thus, Negroes accounted for 3.8 percent of the machinists' helpers, 9.1 percent of the blacksmiths' helpers, 9.4 percent of the pipe fitters' helpers, and 18.0 percent of the bricklayers' helpers. It should be pointed out, however, that no Negroes were employed as motor inspectors' and repairmen's helpers and that only 0.8 percent of the millwrights' helpers and 1.4 percent of the electricians' helpers were Negroes.

NEGRO COMMON LABORERS

Altogether 4,517 common laborers were covered in the present survey. Of these, 3,628 or 80.3 percent were white and 889 or 19.7 percent colored. Especially significant is the fact that the former represented only 5 percent of all the white workers, while the latter represented nearly one-eighth (11.4 percent) of all the Negroes.

It will be seen from table 8 that four out of every five common laborers in the South were Negroes, 80.5 percent being Negroes and 19.5 percent whites. In contrast, only one out of every seven common laborers in the North was a Negro, as 85.6 percent of the common laborers in this region were white and only 14.4 percent colored.

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of White and Negro Common Laborers in Iron and Steel Industry by Branch and Region, April 1938*

Branch and region	Total common laborers	Whites		Negroes	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All branches	4,517	3,628	80.3	889	19.7
North	4,043	3,461	85.6	582	14.4
West	95	93	97.9	2	2.1
South	379	74	19.5	305	80.5
Blast furnaces	584	367	62.8	217	37.2
Steel works	911	766	84.1	145	15.9
Rolling mills	3,022	2,495	82.6	527	17.4
North	2,793	2,414	86.4	379	13.6
West	43	42	97.7	1	2.3
South	186	39	21.0	147	79.0

Of the three branches of the industry, blast furnaces had the highest ratio of Negroes in the common-labor group—three out of every eight. This may be compared with ratios of approximately one in six in steel works and in rolling mills. In each case, the relative number of Negro common laborers was much higher in the South than in the other two regions. This was particularly true of rolling mills, in which 79.0 percent of the common laborers in the South were Negroes as compared to only 13.6 percent in the North.

The average hourly earnings of white and Negro common laborers further confirm the fact that the lower earnings of Negroes are due not to wage discriminations but rather to lack of occupational opportunities. In the North, white common laborers averaged 62.4 cents an hour or 3.1 cents more than Negro common laborers. The opposite was true in the South, where Negro common laborers earned an average

of 43.1 cents an hour—3.2 cents more than white common laborers. In both cases, the differences are the result of weighting factors, as within individual plants white and Negro common laborers received the same rate of pay.

DISTRIBUTION OF COLORED WORKERS IN VIRGINIA INDUSTRIES, 1938

OF 160,729 wage earners—the average number employed in the manufacturing industries of Virginia for the period of operation in 1938—slightly over 27 percent were colored. Of these 44,008 colored workers, 32.0 percent were females. The highest average number of colored workers for any industry group, 11,759, was reported in tobacco products.

Among other industries in which colored wage earners were numerically strong were food and kindred products with an average of 10,163 colored workers; wood products with 7,280 such workers; and transportation equipment with 5,093,[1] as shown in the following table based on the 1939 annual report of the Department of Labor and Industry of Virginia.

Distribution of White and Colored Workers in Specified Industries in Virginia, by Sex, 1938

Industry group	Number of plants reporting	Number of wage earners (average for period of operation)			
		Males		Females	
		White	Colored	White	Colored
Manufacturing industries					
All manufacturing	2,316	82,859	29,917	33,862	14,091
Tobacco products	53	2,219	4,841	3,554	6,918
Cigars and cigarettes	9	1,839	1,357	3,246	1,372
Tobacco: Chewing, smoking, and snuff	4	168	487	308	219
Tobacco rehandling	40	212	2,997	----	5,327
Food and kindred products	754	8,161	4,629	4,479	5,534
Slaughtering, meat packing, poultry dressing	34	603	382	202	45
Butter, ice cream, and other creamery and dairy products	76	1,371	165	117	28
Seafoods: Canning, preserving, including oyster shucking	45	305	1,218	22	784
Fruit and vegetables, canning and preserving	117	1,763	1,244	3,192	3,051
Flour, meal, and feeds	110	619	116	2	----
Bread and other bakery products	113	1,463	298	402	52
Candy and other confections	24	234	368	374	335
Foods, n. e. c.[1]	16	133	66	54	39
Peanut, cleaning, shelling, grading	21	46	382	32	1,195
Coffee, spice: Roasting, grinding	6	20	17	19	3
Alcoholic beverages	13	244	35	43	----
Carbonated beverages	94	800	168	20	2
Ice, manufacturing	85	560	170	----	----
Textiles and their products	195	20,516	1,650	21,978	1,046
Cotton goods	7	7,602	661	3,908	393
Woolen and worsted goods	10	928	1	405	----
Rayon yarn	4	5,253	447	2,539	27
Silk and rayon goods	24	2,501	28	2,454	1

[1] Partly estimated.

Distribution of White and Colored Workers in Specified Industries in Virginia, by Sex, 1938—Continued

Industry group	Number of plants reporting	Number of wage earners (average for period of operation)			
		Males		Females	
		White	Colored	White	Colored
Manufacturing industries—Continued					
Textiles and their products—Continued.					
Hosiery and other knit goods	34	2,013	41	3,900	137
Clothing, outerwear and underwear (except knit)	56	901	173	7,833	299
Hats and caps	5	74	28	172	
Bags and burlap	13	200	121	327	181
Awning, tents, sails, and canvas covers	11	33	13	19	
Mattresses	16	90	80	36	5
Textiles, n. e. c.[1]	15	921	57	385	3
Wood products	396	12,459	6,828	137	452
Planing mill products	106	1,739	722	6	2
Cooperage	48	110	139	25	
Boxes, crates, woodenware, n. e. c.[1]	15	627	891	28	7
Pins, brackets, and other wood turnings	8	117	48		
Furniture, including store and office fixtures	50	6,762	933	24	
Veneers and veneer containers	14	685	1,157	39	436
Caskets, coffins, burial cases	7	53	6	15	
Excelsior	18	89	56		
Wood preserving	7	94	205		
Lumber and timber products, n. e. c.[1]	123	2,183	2,671		7
Paper and printing	258	7,729	1,523	1,271	14
Paper and pulp	15	4,956	1,266	183	3
Paper boxes and bags	17	310	100	270	2
Paper products, n. e. c.[1]	8	285	36	303	
Printing, publishing, engraving, and allied industries	218	2,178	121	515	9
Chemical products	131	3,403	3,142	138	90
Chemicals, acids, insecticides, fungicides	12	1,067	186		15
Medicines, drugs, flavoring extracts and toilet articles	17	82	63	113	1
Tanning extracts and dyestuffs	5	197	94		
Paints and varnishes	11	313	31	3	1
Compressed and liquefied gases	9	146	79		
Gas—illuminating and heating	13	312	182		1
Fish oil, scrap and guano	10	314	676	3	26
Fertilizers	47	927	1,787	5	25
Chemical products, n. e. c.[1]	7	45	44	14	21
Leather and its products	21	3,124	255	1,802	11
Leather tanned, curried, and finished	7	484	80		
Shoes, trunks, bags and other leather products	14	2,640	175	1,802	11
Stone, clay, and glass products	106	2,623	1,223	148	
Brick, tile and pottery	27	506	619	40	
Lime	23	670	165		
Concrete products	17	110	235		
Monuments and tombstones	20	99	12		
Cement, plaster, soapstone, other stone products, n. e. c.[1]	8	681	92	7	
Glass—mirrors, cutting, ornamenting	11	557	100	101	
Metals and machinery	143	4,055	660	87	7
Structural and ornamental steel and iron work	15	693	40		
Foundries, without machine shops, and blast furnaces	36	1,600	509		
Machinery and repairs, including foundries with machine shops	62	710	45		
Hardware, tools, cutlery and metal goods, n. e. c.[1]	15	679	57	87	7
Copper, tin, sheet and plate iron works	15	373	9		
Transportation equipment	233	[2] 17,793	[2] 5,092	12	1
Shipbuilding and repairs	19	9,305	2,879	11	
Railroad repair shops, steam	38	[2] 5,917	[2] 1,785	1	1
Vehicles, bodies and parts	24	1,464	206		
Automobile repair shops	152	1,107	222		
Miscellaneous manufacturing	26	777	74	256	18
Services and public utilities					
Services	288	1,676	758	1,692	2,034
Cleaning, dyeing and pressing	187	597	409	348	170
Laundering	101	1,079	349	1,344	1,864
Public utilities	50	3,972	576	1,575	32
Light and power	20	1,725	208	10	8
Street transportation and telephone	30	2,247	368	1,565	24

[1] Not elsewhere classified.
[2] Division between white and colored male wage earners partly estimated.

Farm Labor

WAGE LABORERS AND SHARECROPPERS IN COTTON PRODUCTION

IN 1935 there were 716,000 sharecropper families in 16 Southern States, and 537,000 in the 8 principal cotton-producing States. In these 8 States, the average number of hired farm workers or wage laborers in 1935 was 737,000, and the total number of workers in sharecropper families, assuming 3 workers per family, was 1,611,000. These comparisons are given in a statement, here summarized, by Ernest J. Holcomb of the United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics, presented before a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.[1]

Some of the wage laborers are regularly employed workers, and many of these live on the employers' farms, and, like sharecroppers, receive payment in part in the form of certain perquisites, such as a cabin, a garden plot, and fuel from the owner's woodlot. If a regularly employed wage laborer is the head of a family, members of his family are frequently employed at certain times of the year and are thus in a sense resident seasonal laborers. In addition to seasonal laborers of this type, there are large numbers of seasonal workers who do not reside on the employer's farm. Such laborers may come from nearby communities, but in many areas there is a large body of migratory labor in cotton production during the peak seasons of cotton chopping and picking. As early as 1930, according to the census of that year, one-third of all hired farm workers in the 16 Southern States lived elsewhere than on farms. Even the hired workers who live on their employers' farms while employed may have long intervals of unemployment.

Types of Labor

There are several types of share laborers as distinguished from wage laborers. In the Southeastern States, there are hoecroppers, whose work is limited to hoeing and chopping and the nonmechanical parts of the harvesting. Widows and children of sharecroppers sometimes become hoecroppers. These share laborers usually pay one-fourth of

[1] U. S. Department of Agriculture. Bureau of Agricultural Economics. The Sharecropper and Wage Laborer in Cotton Production, by Ernest J. Holcomb. Presented before a subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. Senate, Pursuant to S. Res. 266, Washington, 1940. (Mimeographed.)

ginning charges and one-fourth of the cost of fertilizers, and usually receive one-fourth of the crops grown. In western Texas, and to some extent in the bottom-land areas of Arkansas, there are patch-croppers who produce the crops but do not harvest the owner's part and who receive the crops on specified tracts, which they must harvest as their compensation. The patch-croppers may also be provided with housing facilities by the owner. These and other types of share laborers are derivatives, however, of the sharecropper type, which is the basic type recognized by the Bureau of the Census.

The sharecropper of the prevailing type supplies all the labor in the production and harvesting of crops and receives a portion, usually one-half, of the product. The owner usually supplies the equipment, the work stock and their feed, and the seed for planting. Such costs as fertilizers and the ginning and bagging of cotton are usually shared. There are numerous variations of these basic arrangements.

Sharecroppers are classified by the Bureau of the Census as tenants. The basis of this classification is the element of risk involved on the part of the sharecropper in depending for his compensation on the uncertain amount of crop harvested and on the uncertain prices received for the product. It is pointed out, however, in the statement here summarized, that the sharecropper's resources are so limited and his relation to the landowner is so dependent as to reduce him to a status not significantly different from that of the wage earner. Sharecroppers customarily depend upon credit advances from landlords for their shares of crop expenses and even for a large part of their living expenses between harvest seasons. The net returns to sharecroppers usually do not differ significantly from the incomes of wage earners.

Trends in Employment of Various Types of Labor

In geographical distribution, sharecroppers are prevalent in the Eastern Cotton area, including South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, and wage laborers are more commonly employed in the Western Cotton area, including Texas and Oklahoma. In many areas, both forms of labor are in extensive use. In most areas there is much flexibility in the arrangements for labor, with frequent shifts from one status to the other. There is evidence that in many areas there has been a marked tendency toward wage labor. Ordinary tenancy, as distinguished from the sharecropping arrangement, exists in many areas and in some is prevalent.

The censuses of 1920 and 1930 show increases, which in most instances were large, in the number of sharecroppers in all of the cotton States. In the Eastern Cotton area, consisting of Alabama, South Carolina, and Georgia, the increase was 13.6 percent. In this same area, there was an increase of only 0.3 percent in the num-

ber of wage earners. The number of sharecroppers in the Delta Cotton area, consisting of Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana, increased 56.6 percent during this decade, and the number of hired farm workers in the same area decreased 8.4 percent. In the Western Cotton area, consisting of Texas and Oklahoma, the number of sharecroppers increased 63.2 percent, and the number of wage earners decreased 0.4 percent. There were increases in the number of sharecroppers in various other States where sharecropping was important enough for inclusion in census reports.

There was a decline from 1930 to 1935 in the number of sharecroppers in all of the major cotton areas, although not in all of the eight States comprising these areas. In the Eastern Cotton area, the decline was 9.4 percent and, at the same time, there was also a decrease of 1.4 percent in the number of wage earners. In the Delta Cotton area, the number of sharecroppers fell off 2.7 percent and the number of wage earners increased 4.1 percent. In the Western Cotton area, the number of sharecroppers was 28.6 percent smaller in 1935 than in 1930, and in the same area the number of wage earners was 22.3 percent smaller.

Special studies in certain counties indicate a continuation after 1935 of the decline in number of sharecroppers, especially on the larger plantations. These studies also reveal the economic basis of the shift in the status of labor in cotton production. Particularly significant is the evidence of instability, which is illustrated by the experience of sharecroppers and wage families in Laurens and Florence Counties, S. C. Among the workers who had the status of sharecroppers in 1937 in Laurens County, 75.7 percent had been sharecroppers in 1930, 8.6 percent had been wage laborers, and 15.7 percent had had some other status. In Florence County, among the workers with a sharecropper status in 1937, 67.1 percent had been sharecroppers in 1930, 10.1 percent had been wage laborers, 6.3 percent had been renters, and 16.5 percent had had some other status. The status of wage earners showed even greater instability. Among the wage laborers of Laurens County in 1937, 38.6 percent had been wage laborers in 1930, 22.6 percent had been sharecroppers, 19.4 percent had had some other status, and 19.4 percent were not at work in 1930. Among the wage laborers in Florence County in 1937, 61.4 percent had been wage laborers in 1930, 6.8 percent had been sharecroppers, 4.5 percent had had some other status, and 27.3 percent were not working in 1930.

A study of tenure experience in four counties of Arkansas indicates extreme instability of tenure and of economic status on the part of both wage earners and sharecroppers. In this area the net change was decidedly in the direction of wage labor. The number of share renters per 10,000 acres of cropland fell from 143.1 in 1932 to 104.5 in 1938, and the corresponding number of sharecroppers fell from 798.1 to

581.2. In contrast, the number of wage families per 10,000 acres of cropland rose from 247.2 in 1932 to 293.6 in 1938, and the corresponding number of wage hands rose from 27.5 to 39.5.

It is particularly significant that the total amount of labor per 10,000 acres of cropland was 16 percent lower in 1938 than in 1932. This fact reflects a major change in methods of farming in the direction of mechanization, which in turn has had a tendency not only to reduce the total amount of labor but also to bring about a shift from sharecroppers to hired laborers.

Instability of Residence

The instability of tenure and economic status is illustrated by the frequent changes in location on the part of both sharecropper and wage-earner families. In Laurens and Florence Counties, S. C., sharecroppers and wage laborers lived, on an average, on the same farm between 3 and 4 years. Some families moved back to the same farms two or more times during their lives. In the three bottom-land counties of Arkansas, 4 out of 10 sharecropper and wage-earner families were residing on their 1937 farms for the first year and 3 out of 5 had lived there for 2 years or less. Three out of four had lived on the farms of their 1937 residences 4 years or less. The average length of residence on the same farm in 1937 was less than 2 years. The report here summarized comments on these conditions as follows:

> Mobility of families tends to breed instability into the lives of their children and retardation in educational attainment is associated with it. Moreover, there are social losses in the continual severance of the family from community ties, and a decay of social institutions. These social losses result in economic losses to individuals and to communities and the costs of moving about are additional individual losses which in their aggregate become losses to society, also.

Economic Status

The economic status of both sharecroppers and wage workers, as represented by special studies in South Carolina and Arkansas, appeared to undergo some improvement between 1933 and 1937, but the income figures for 1937 reveal remarkably small resources for the support of a family. The total income of sharecropper families in Laurens County, S. C., averaged for the year 1937 only $285, including $214 advances and sums owed at the "settlement" date, and $71 cash paid on that date. In Florence County, S. C., the advances made by the landlord and owed by the sharecropper plus the cash settlement paid to the sharecropper was on the average $329. The average income of wage-earner families in Laurens County was $250, and in Florence County, $258. In four bottom-land counties of Arkansas, the cash settlement and advances combined averaged, for sharecropper families, $229. There was usually a small amount of addi-

tional income in the form of perquisites not counted in the advances made to sharecroppers or in the wages paid to hired workers.

The changing status of farm laborers in cotton production is largely a result of economic conditions which determine the comparative advantage, to landowners, of sharecropper labor and wage labor. These economic conditions are dependent on such factors as mechanization, the comparative amount of preharvest and harvest labor required, public policy relating to farm-benefit payments, and especially prevailing wage rates, which in recent years have shown a remarkably slight advance as compared to the sharp rise in rates of industrial wages.

Studies of the comparative advantage to farm operators, under specified conditions, of using sharecroppers and wage laborers were made in several cotton-producing areas. It was estimated that in Laurens County, in the Piedmont area of South Carolina, the operators' cash returns over variable expenses, excluding farm-benefit payments, were $9.78 per acre under the sharecropper system, and $10.86 under the wage-labor system; and including farm benefits with rates and divisions between owners and sharecroppers as in 1939, $14.25 per acre under the sharecropper system, and $19.80 under wage labor. Similar figures for Mississippi County, Ark., indicate operators' cash returns under variable expenses, excluding farm-benefit payments, as $20.87 under the sharecropper system, and $23.18 under wage labor; and including farm-benefit payments, $27.48 under the sharecropper system, and $36.41 under wage labor. Estimates for Lamb County, Tex., in the High Plains area, indicate that when farm-benefit payments are excluded, the operators' cash returns over variable expenses were $9.46 under the sharecropper system and $14.26 under wage labor; and the corresponding figures when farm-benefit payments are included are $13.08 and $21.50.

Prison Labor

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING OF PRISONERS

A SURVEY of release procedures in prisons, recently issued by the United States Attorney General (in 5 volumes), includes a volume dealing with prisons and their administration.[1] This study is viewed by the Attorney General as a source from which legislators, administrators, scientists, and students may draw in dealing with the problems involved in punishing and rehabilitating convicted men. Altogether, 88 State prisons and reformatories were investigated during 1936 and 1937. Although the data here summarized deal with conditions in State prisons, Federal institutions were also examined, and a separate section of the report deals with them.

It has been a general impression that prisons both punish and reform convicts, and that if released prisoners again commit crimes, the particular release procedure is to blame. The report here reviewed states that it is obviously too much to expect that an institution which is organized for safekeeping the offender will release him "competent and willing to find a way of adjusting himself to the community without further law violations." A prison can examine and diagnose a case and give the individual some training, but rehabilitation is the function of the parole system.

The general situation presented in this survey is not encouraging, if viewed as a whole. Of 137,000 male felons in American State prisons in 1936–37, nearly 30,000 were living in road and farm camps "most of which at best were only convenient concentration stockades for criminals." In 390 prison road and farm camps, little was being done to prepare prisoners for release. However, the convicts were not idle, and were living a healthy outdoor existence. In 85 penal institutions where the remainder of the prison population lived, over 40,000 were housed in overcrowded quarters.

Business administration in 75 percent of the State prisons for men has been strengthened by the centralization of control in a single paid State director or State board. But men are selected "primarily for political rather than penological qualifications" to administer prisons. The salaries received by guards are the equivalents of those paid for unskilled labor, but many prisons have adopted reasonable pay scales

[1] U. S. Department of Justice. Attorney General's Survey of Release Procedures, vol. V: Prisons. Washington, 1939.

for administrative and professional workers. Over half of the prisons operate on a 48- or 56-hour week for employees, but a large majority of the others still work from 70 to 84 hours weekly.

As the training function of the prison becomes increasingly important, the tendency is for it to be harmonized with the custodial function rather than to be substituted for it. Prison industries are essential as a means of keeping prisoners normal and of helping to pay expenses. These industries were found to be at a low ebb, however, at the time of the survey, except for the manufacture of binder twine, farm machinery, and automobile license plates. From a total value of $70,000,000 in 1932, prison production was reduced to $20,000,000 in 1936–37. In this period the number of prisoners employed dropped from over 70,000 to not more than 25,000. Adding 26,000 prisoners working in farm, road, and forestry jobs, and 33,000 engaged in maintenance, there was apparently no work for 55,000, out of a total of approximately 135,000 male prisoners.

Training facilities were also very limited. Vocational work supplemented the instruction given by industrial foremen in the course of shop routine in 17 prisons. Shop practice, although helpful, is not enough to enable prisoners to acquire definite skills. A permanent policy of experimentation in prison education was found in 24 prisons. Little correlation has been developed between correction of criminal tendencies and education.

As a result of study of the essential functions of custody and discipline, the introduction of classification, and the development of medical care, religious work, prison industries, and education in prisons, imprisonment is better understood in its relation to release procedures, the report states. It has become a recognized fact that prisons are limited in their power to reform criminals. Application in normal society of knowledge and skill gained in prison is the real test.

Housing Conditions

NEED FOR TOWN PLANNING IN GREAT BRITAIN

THE need for keeping alive the vital issues of town and country planning is stressed in an article in a recent British publication, Town and Country Planning.[1] In focusing attention on this need, the author states that it may seem hopeless to think in terms of town planning at a time when cities are being destroyed as a result of military operations. Nevertheless, planning for the post-war period is essential, since it will be a key factor in reconstruction.

Following the last European war, it is stated, little interest was taken in this subject. Housing was just beginning to be considered as a national problem. A vast building program was launched, but the advice of town planners was not regarded for 20 years, after which it was too late to undo the damage of the past. The situation is now different, and it is believed that the time is ripe for application of a much broader policy of town building.

As a result of a 2-year special study by the Barlow Commission, which recommended relocation of the industrial population,[2] there is substantial agreement as to what the objective is to be in a community. Two fundamentals must be provided for—family housing and highly organized industry. Food production should never again be neglected but must not be allowed to interfere with the provision of adequate land for urban houses and gardens. Home gardens for the production of food are a very important element in the national economy, both in war and in peace.

Following the present war, new building will be required to make up for inactivity in construction and to replace structures that have been destroyed. Projects need not always be erected in the localities where they were formerly placed. Therefore, advance planning is essential and must accord with practical expediency, owing to the existence of a poorer world, and take into account the aspirations of the people.

Planners are at work in 1940, including voluntary private groups and the Ministry of Health. The latter Government agency is maintaining, on a reduced basis, its administrative machinery for town

[1] Town and Country Planning, Quarterly Review of the Garden Cities and Town Planning Association (Welwyn Garden City, Herts.), August 1940, pp. 41, 42: Through the Tunnel.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, May 1940, for a summary of the recommendations.

and country planning. The staffs of local authorities are in most cases engaged in war work. Although building is practically at a standstill, planning problems are arising continually.

The effect of high concentration of populations in cities on the military position of European nations is also stressed in the statement under review. Large cities are not merely difficult to defend, but are a definite military liability. Open areas proved relatively much safer than dense developments in the last war. In the present war, bombs dropped on the evacuation areas (the larger cities) are officially estimated to kill and injure, on the average, 15 times as many persons as bombs dropped on the reception areas.

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Cooperation

OPERATIONS OF COOPERATIVE BURIAL ASSOCIATIONS, 1939

Summary

ON THE basis of reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics it is estimated that the cooperative burial associations in the 5 midwestern States of Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Wisconsin conducted about 1,100 funerals in 1939 and had a total income for their services of over $187,000. These are associations providing complete funeral service. In addition there are a few associations which buy caskets cooperatively, the funeral then being conducted by a private undertaker.[1] It is estimated that these provided about 65 caskets at an estimated total of nearly $2,400. The funeral associations are estimated to have had a combined membership of over 29,000 at the end of 1939, and the casket associations about 1,600.

Most of the associations for which the Bureau has records have shown a steady growth in membership since their formation. The number of funerals conducted and the gross income have varied erratically, however, depending on the incidence of death among the member families.

The majority of the associations have a more or less definite territory for their operations. The older associations usually confined their services to a radius of 20–35 miles around the town where the funeral home was located, and one organization covered "40 townships." The tendency, however, has been toward a greater coverage of territory and of families. One of the associations, which in the beginning restricted its services to the region within a radius of 20 miles of its headquarters, in 1933 removed that restriction and now conducts funerals as far away as Minneapolis and St. Paul, a distance of 50 to 60 miles.

Many of the more recently organized associations cover a whole county or even more. Of the associations in operation at the end of

[1] Mutual aid or benefit associations which pay cash benefits upon the death of a member are not covered in this article, nor are the funeral-aid associations in Washington State which have developed under Grange auspices. The latter are a combination of contract undertaking service and mutual aid. They operate on an assessment basis, and when a member dies his family receives the total amount of the previous assessment, minus a few cents per member for administrative expenses. The State Grange has made a contract with the Washington State Undertakers' Association, whereby private undertakers who ratify the contract agree to provide complete funeral service for $165.

1939, four in Iowa, seven in Minnesota, one in Nebraska, and one in South Dakota are organized on a county basis. Iowa, Minnesota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin each have one association serving several counties. Since 1932 no association, as far as the knowledge of this Bureau goes, has been formed on the old town basis.

Most of the associations are in places where there are other types of cooperatives, so that many if not most of the members already have a knowledge of the principles of cooperation. Indeed, three of the most recent funeral associations were organized by consumers' cooperative associations, to provide funeral service for their members. At one stroke, therefore, the association was assured of a very large membership including the members of all the affiliated cooperatives. In these three federations the original member cooperatives were within a well-defined area and no others are accepted as members unless they are so located that they can be served conveniently.

In the undertaking field, the advantages of the association with a large membership are obvious. Efficient use of plant and equipment requires a certain volume of business. But as the latter is entirely dependent upon the death rate among the membership, no amount of sales campaigns or of loyalty and activity among the members will increase it; only by broadening the base—i. e., by increasing the membership—can increased business be assured. Organization on a county-wide and federated basis assures a sufficient volume. Thus, two of the federations serve from 6,000 to 7,000 cooperators each, as compared with an average of 640 in the other funeral associations. In these two federations the members of the local cooperatives are entitled to use the funeral facilities by virtue of their membership in the local. In the third funeral federation (started in June 1939) the stock of the association is held by the 14 local cooperatives, which are its members, but in order to become eligible to use the services of the funeral association, an individual belonging to one of the local cooperatives must join the burial association and pay a membership fee.

Of 24 associations reporting membership, 3 had fewer than 100 members, 7 had between 100 and 500 members, 8 had between 500 and 1,000 members, 4 had between 1,000 and 2,000 members, and 2 (both federations) were serving over 5,000 persons each.

The associations in Iowa and Minnesota each have a State-wide federation composed of the local associations. These central organizations do not carry on any business. Their function is to protect the interests of the local associations, be on the watch for legislation detrimental to cooperatives, provide speakers, do educational work, and serve as a clearing house of experience among the members.

The Bureau's latest previous report on burial associations covered the year 1936. Since that time 14 associations have been dropped from the register because they had gone out of business or (although chartered) had never gone into operation, or were no longer operating

as cooperatives, or for other reasons.[2] An additional association has become inactive but still retains its charter. Between 1936 and 1939 seven new associations are known to have been formed, and a service federation and a retail distributive association each established a mortuary department. At the end of 1939 some 36 associations were therefore in active operation. At least 4 associations have been started since the beginning of 1940, and one of the associations covered in the present report has opened a branch in a neighboring town, buying out the local undertaker.

Funds of Associations

As is usual in consumers' cooperative associations, the capital of the funeral and casket associations is provided by the members.

These associations are more generally of the nonstock than the capital-stock type, only a few of the South Dakota associations and the federations having share capital. These latter provide that shares shall be nontransferable, except on the books of the association.

In all of the others the member receives, not a share of stock, but a nontransferable membership certificate. The advantage of the membership-certificate plan, to the association, is that unlike share capital the certificate does not draw interest and upon the death of the member and his family it goes into a special fund to be used for free burials. The share of stock remains a liability to the association as long as the association exists. Membership certificates are repayable only if the member family moves from the territory.

The membership fee—or in the few capital-stock associations, the share—is almost invariably $5. Only a few associations charge $10, although some associations penalize the person who postpones joining the association until he wishes to use its facilities, by charging him double the regular fee.

In the federations the capital is provided by the member associations. Thus, in the Northland Cooperative Federation, the 22 affiliates pay a $5 membership fee and 50 cents for each of their members. In United Cooperative Funeral Service, $100 shares of stock are held by the local cooperatives which in turn sell $5 life memberships in the association to their members. As the funeral service of the Range Cooperative Federation (which has 19 affiliates) is only one of the many departments of the federation, its operating capital comes from the federation's funds.

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[2] This group includes 4 funeral associations in the mining sections of southern Illinois. These are not technically cooperative but are nonprofit organizations which are owned by the local unions—generally of miners but in some cases including other occupations such as carpenters and railroad workers. In the beginning each local assessed its members $1 each and these funds provided the capital for the enterprise. Each local union participating is represented by a delegate through whom control over the business is exercised. Business is done at as near cost as possible, allowing for reserves and the upkeep and depreciation of equipment and buildings. As far as is known, all 4 of these enterprises, which date back to the early twenties, are still in operation. Three others formed in the same period had gone out of business before 1930.

Services and Charges

The desire to escape what were felt to be unduly high costs was the reason for the formation of these associations. The high costs, in turn, are at least in part attributed to the disorganized condition of the industry. Considerable light on the reasons for the level of funeral costs was given by a study carried out some years ago by a committee representative of various social and religious interests and the undertaking industry itself, and financed by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.[3] The study covered costs of over 15,000 funerals in working-class families of various income levels.

Various factors influenced the level of funeral charges. Among these were the desire on the part of the family for an elaborate funeral, either as a token of respect to the departed or to comply with convention or the social and religious traditions of the family; the inability of the family to withstand sales pressure; and the disorganization and waste in the industry itself.

Examination of census data indicated that in 20 years the number of deaths in the United States annually had increased 2.3 percent, whereas the number of undertakers had increased 51.0 percent. Thus, the number in the industry had increased about 25 times as fast as the volume of business.

In the cities covered, 50 percent of the business was done by 10 to 25 percent of the undertakers, the other 75 to 90 percent having to divide the remainder of the business. In New York City 8 percent of the undertakers handled 44 percent of the business. The others averaged 25 funerals a year and were therefore "trying to make a living out of two funerals a month." The "marginal" undertaker, the committee found, was an important factor in the problem of high funeral costs. Because of their volume of business the largest establishments had the lowest ratio of operating costs, whereas the smaller firms were obliged to charge more than the larger ones, in order to exist.[4]

A report by the Committee on Costs of Medical Care[5] describes practices in the industry as follows:

> When an industry is confronted with a fixed or diminishing volume of business, either higher-priced goods must be sold to the same number of customers or the volume of business must be concentrated in fewer hands, through the elimination of uneconomic units. There has been practically no elimination of marginal establishments, and the industry has met the dilemma by persuading the public to purchase each year more expensive merchandise and more elaborate funerals.

[3] Advisory Committee on Burial Survey. The Reasons for Present-Day Funeral Costs, by John C. Gebhart. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. [1928?].

[4] Incidentally it may be pointed out that in order to make a living many funeral directors have been obliged to develop another activity, such as selling insurance or furniture.

[5] Committee on the Costs of Medical Care. Miscellaneous contributions No. 3: Funeral Costs, by John C. Gebhart. Washington, 1930.

The report notes that "the common practice is to charge enough for the casket to cover all overhead and service cost and a fair margin of profit." However, "certain trade practices have grown up which are wasteful, and have led to many abuses."

> In large cities casket manufacturers maintain showrooms, to which the undertaker, particularly the one with little volume, brings the family to select a casket and other paraphernalia. A salesman for the casket factory, not the undertaker, usually makes the sale and sets the price. The mark-up price may vary from 300 to 500 percent of the wholesale value, and is usually enough to yield a good profit on the funeral despite the small volume of business of the small undertaker. Some manufacturers, however, mark retail prices in plain figures, and refuse to be a party to a sliding scale of prices. Casket houses in some cities also rent paraphernalia and hire out personnel to undertakers with no establishments of their own. This practice also makes it possible for the undertaker with little or no investment to survive in spite of competition.
>
> Another reason for the high prices of funerals of adults is that the loss on certain types of funerals must be carried by the others.

The report reached the conclusion that funeral prices can never be greatly lowered until the volume of business, which is fixed by the death rate, is concentrated in fewer hands. The report revealed that for adult industrial policyholders, average expenditures per funeral ranged from $194 in North Carolina to $484 in New Jersey. The average for all States was $363.

Among the cooperative burial associations reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the average cost of the funerals held in 1939 was $166. Each association was asked what was the average cost per funeral to the patron in 1939. The lowest average, $84, was reported by one association in Iowa. The highest average was for the association in Nebraska. The following statement shows the range of averages reported by the associations and the State average:

	Range	*State average*
Iowa	$84–$225	$142
Minnesota	111–231	172
Nebraska	250	250
South Dakota	200	200
Wisconsin	150	150

These are averages for adult funerals; also, they do not include associations which merely provide caskets.

These charges include "complete funeral service," meaning by this the embalming of the body, funeral direction, casket with cover box of wood, and use of hearse, lowering device, and grave cover. Generally the price of the casket determines the cost of the funeral, as the charge for the other services is standard. If a steel vault is desired, its cost is extra. Other charges not included in the above prices are the digging of the grave and the rental of automobiles for the mourners.

Most of the associations carry in stock a considerable assortment of caskets. At least one association keeps on hand a stock of dresses for the deceased; it also handles flowers. This association and several others provide tombstones.

The great majority of the associations for which there is information own or lease quarters in which they have a chapel, "slumber room," casket showroom, and embalming room. Generally, also, they have their own hearse, and the larger associations usually employ a full-time undertaker, who also acts as manager for the association. Several associations, however, report that they have contracts with local undertakers to handle funerals for their members, at a fixed price.

To care for needy members who, at the time of death, are not able to pay for the funeral, most of the associations provide for a free burial fund. To this fund the members are encouraged to contribute 25 cents a year, but this is of course optional with the members. This fund also receives the membership fees for families whose membership has lapsed because of death or because of the children's marriage or attainment of 30 years of age.

Business in 1939

Business to the amount of $187,204 was done by the 31 funeral associations, and that of the 5 associations providing caskets only was $2,359. More than 1,100 funerals were conducted by the funeral associations during the year, and the casket associations furnished coffins for 64 funerals which were conducted by private undertakers.

Of 20 funeral associations reporting, two had had fewer than 10 funerals during the year, five had had between 10 and 25, eight had had between 25 and 50, 3 had had between 50 and 100, and 2 had had 100 or more.

The following table shows the business done in 1939, by States, for each type of association.

Membership and Business [1] *of Funeral and Casket Cooperatives, 1939, by States*

State, and type of association	Number of associations	Number of members	Funerals conducted	Amount of business
All States	36	31,247	1,180	$189,563
Funeral associations	31	29,647	1,116	187,204
Casket associations	5	1,600	64	2,359
Iowa:				
Funeral associations	8	6,082	247	35,598
Casket associations	1	200	[2] 4	205
Minnesota:				
Funeral associations	15	[3] 21,180	735	128,806
Casket associations	4	1,400	[2] 60	2,154
Nebraska: Funeral associations	1	65	8	2,000
South Dakota: Funeral associations	5	1,699	91	15,502
Wisconsin: Funeral associations	2	621	35	5,298

[1] Figures are partly estimated.
[2] Number of caskets provided for funerals.
[3] Includes 13,000 persons who were members of the local cooperatives affiliated with the two regional federations.

Earnings and Patronage Refunds

The great majority of the associations for which information is available provide in their bylaws for the return of patronage refunds. However, with few exceptions the burial associations do not follow the practice of Rochdale cooperatives, i. e., of making their charges conform to the current prices. Rather, most of them set their rates as low as possible consistent with the financial stability of the organization. One of the larger associations, which retains an undertaker on contract, specifies in its bylaws that the charges shall be set at "as near cost as practicable," and that the price of the funeral shall be set at a sum covering the price of the casket and other supplies furnished, plus the amount paid the funeral director in accordance with the association's contract with him, plus a charge for use of hearse, plus enough to meet current operating expenses and fixed charges on any borrowed capital.

The price policy followed does not, however, generally yield a surplus. Thus, only eight associations reported having any such surplus or net gain on the year's operations. These had combined earnings of $7,792. One association, the smallest reporting, had a loss of $804. Two associations made patronage refunds aggregating $387. The federation with the mortuary department also returned earnings of several thousand dollars, but as its report did not make a division of refunds, by departments, it was not possible to ascertain how much was refunded on patronage by the mortuary department.

Cooperative Procedures

Any family residing within the territory served by the association is welcome to join, though one organization in its bylaws prohibits from membership any undertaker except the one employed by the association.

Only cooperative associations are accepted into membership in the three organizations of the federated type. Of these, the Northland Cooperative Federation's affiliates include local cooperatives running grocery and general merchandise stores, gasoline service stations, and creameries. Associations of the same type are members of the Range Cooperative Federation. The members of the third federation, United Cooperative Funeral Service, consist of the cooperative oil associations, creameries, and stores in Midland Cooperative Wholesale's District No. VI covering, roughly, 10 counties in central Minnesota.[6]

In general the membership is a family membership covering parents, single children under 30 years of age, and any dependent relatives living with the family. It continues in force during the lifetime of

[6] Anoka, Benton, Chisago, Hennepin, Isanti, Kanabec, Mille Lacs, Pine, Sherburne, and Washington Counties.

parents or dependent relatives and until the children marry or reach 30 years of age.

Although some of the associations serve nonmembers as well as members,[7] sometimes higher rates are charged to them. Thus, one association each charges nonmembers 5, 10, and 20 percent more than the prices paid by members. Several associations penalize the person who fails to join and give the association his support until he himself needs to make use of the facilities, by requiring him to pay a membership fee $5 or $10 more than the regular fee, and one association also requires a contribution of $1 to the free-burial fund.

Without exception the associations for which the Bureau has data allow one vote per member and prohibit proxy voting. In the federated associations, member control is exercised through elected delegates varying in number according to the membership of the affiliated cooperative (usually 1 delegate for each 50 members).

Probably because new associations have been patterned on those already operating and also because of the existence of State-wide federations in Iowa and Minnesota, the bylaws in use are fairly uniform in their provisions.

Generally, provision is made for an allocation of 10 percent of the year's net earnings to the reserves, and of from 1 to 5 percent for educational purposes and the spreading of knowledge about cooperation.

All except one or two associations provide in their bylaws for the payment of patronage refunds if there is a surplus. As already noted, however, such a surplus seldom occurs, because of the service-at-cost principle on which most of them operate.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATION IN CANADA, 1939 [1]

THE cooperative movement in Canada had its beginnings about 1850. At that time mutual fire-insurance associations, cheese factories, and creameries were in existence. Cooperative stores were a somewhat later development. As in the United States, agricultural cooperatives have far outdistanced consumers' cooperatives, although the latter have shown considerable growth, especially in recent years.

The consumers' cooperative associations have a national federation, the Cooperative Union of Canada, the membership of which includes a few farmers' marketing associations and dairies, as well as the consumers' cooperatives operating stores, filling stations, etc. It also

[7] The Iowa law of 1935 limits nonmember business to 50 percent of the total business of the association.

[1] Data are from Canadian Cooperator (Brantford, Ontario), November 1939, and January, July, and September 1940: Cooperative League News Service (New York), October 5, 1939; International Labor Office Cooperative Information No. 11 (Geneva), 1939; Canada, Department of Agriculture, Marketing Service, Economic Annalist (Ottawa), June 1940; and Statistical Year Book of Quebec, 1939.

has in membership three provincial wholesale associations and a productive federation.

The 1939 report of the Cooperative Union to its membership shows increases in the sales, but decreases in the net gain and the share capital of the affiliated associations. The reporting retail associations had a combined business of $5,567,246, net gain of $257,237, and share capital amounting to $601,414. Patronage refunds of $172,488 were reported.

There are three provincial wholesales—in Alberta, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan—affiliated with the Cooperative Union of Canada. The amount of business of these associations in 1939 is shown below:

	Sales	*Net gain*
Alberta	$573, 289	$15, 528
Manitoba	615, 000	36, 281
Saskatchewan	1, 497, 781	60, 329
Total	2, 686, 070	112, 138

The above sales represent an increase of 43.5 percent over 1938.

The three wholesales returned, in cash or credits, patronage refunds to the amount of $73,346.

In 1940, the Inter-Provincial Cooperative Wholesale was formed, to coordinate the purchases of the wholesales of the three prairie Provinces noted above. It was reported, also, that a charter had been obtained for a new provincial wholesale, to serve local associations in British Columbia. A wholesale association was started in Nova Scotia in 1938, but no data are available as to the amount of its business in 1939.

A cooperative wholesale to refine crude oil and act as a source of supply to local associations handling petroleum products was formed in 1934. This association, Consumers' Cooperative Refineries, which is also an affiliate of the Union, had a business of $979,942 in 1939, and realized a net gain of $113,354. It was the first cooperative refinery association to be established in North America.[2] This association serves 120 oil cooperatives in Saskatchewan. It has recently built another plant which went into production during the summer of 1940.

Canada has two associations in a rather unusual line of activity for cooperatives. One of these, in British Columbia, operates a fleet of automobiles to transport members from their homes to the smelter where they are employed. The other, started at the end of 1938, operates passenger busses for its members (who are employees of the refinery cooperative) and also purchases supplies for them.

Credit Cooperatives, 1938

The idea of cooperative credit has been known in Canada since 1900, when Alphonse Desjardins was instrumental in the foundation

[2] Two refinery associations in the United States—one at Philipsburg, Kans., and the other at Mount Vernon, Ind.—have since been formed.

of a credit association in the town of Levis, Quebec. This and two other associations patterned upon it operated without specific legal authorization until 1906, when the Province of Quebec passed a law authorizing the formation of cooperative credit associations.

The first association was called a "people's bank" (*caisse populaire*) and the later associations have all followed this style.[3]

Attempts to obtain a Federal law for the whole of Canada failed, and the development of people's banks therefore had to wait upon the action of the Provincial legislatures. For many years Quebec was the only Province having people's banks. Within recent years, however, six other Provinces have passed credit-union legislation.

Table 1 shows for the six Provinces, for which data are available, the status of the cooperative credit associations at the end of 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Cooperative Credit Associations in Canada, 1938*

Province	Number of associations	Number of members	Amount of loans 1938
All Provinces	646	119,625	$7,589,259
New Brunswick	70	6,000	(1)
Nova Scotia	148	22,869	1,750,000
Ontario [2]	35	10,410	(1)
Prince Edward Island	36	3,283	30,947
Quebec	338	75,419	5,771,429
Saskatchewan	19	1,644	36,883

[1] No data.
[2] Data as of 1940.

The International Labor Office reported in Cooperative Information No. 13, 1939, that "a real social revolution seems to be in progress in the maritime Provinces of Canada." It pointed out how the poverty-stricken mining and fishing villages had improved their economic position through cooperative action. Generally, the first enterprise was the credit union, and benefiting by the experience thus gained, other cooperatives had gradually followed, such as fish and lobster processing and marketing associations, grocery stores, and housing projects.

The basis of all this activity had been the cooperative study group. There the members learned about cooperation, and later, when the cooperative enterprises had been started, there they came to discuss and work out their day-to-day problems.

At the end of 1938 there were in Nova Scotia 40 consumers' cooperatives of various kinds, a cooperative wholesale, 16 fishermen's associations, and 142 credit unions. In addition, there were a housing project of 11 houses and a hospitalization plan. Prince Edward Island had 36 credit unions, and the Province of New Brunswick 70.

Quebec.—The 338 cooperative people's banks in operation in the Province of Quebec at the end of 1938 had combined assets of $16,057,-

[3] The credit unions in the United States are patterned upon the people's banks of Canada. The so-called cooperative banks of Massachusetts are not credit unions but building and loan associations. For statistics of credit unions in the United States in 1939, see Monthly Labor Review, September 1940 (p. 654).

994; share capital amounted to $1,993,426. During the year they made loans aggregating $5,771,429 to 23,586 borrowers. Loans outstanding at the end of the year amounted to $13,035,610.

The above data are given in the 1939 year book of Quebec. Statistics for respective previous years as far back as 1934 indicate a steady growth, number of associations and membership having nearly doubled in the 5-year period, whereas the amount of loans made was nearly 2¾ times as much in 1938 as in 1934.

Table 2 gives statistics of development of these banks during the 5 years, 1934 to 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Development of Cooperative People's Banks in Province of Quebec, 1934 to 1938*

Year	Number of banks	Number of members	Number of depositors	Number of loans granted	Amount of loans granted	Net earnings
1934	184	38,811	39,723	11,295	$2,141,801	$441,876
1935	202	43,045	42,856	12,175	2,803,748	472,543
1936	234	49,890	49,796	13,974	3,370,821	459,601
1937	256	57,216	56,493	17,639	4,310,777	519,714
1938	338	75,419	73,262	23,586	5,771,429	624,263

The government of Quebec in 1932 granted a yearly subsidy of $20,000 to the Quebec federation of people's banks, "to foster the founding, maintenance, and inspection of such credit societies."

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1930 TO 1939

DURING 1939, about 38,000 persons were injured and another 4,700 killed in railroad accidents. Deaths were about 200 fewer than in 1938, but the number of nonfatal injuries was about 1,700 higher.

Measured against train-miles of operation, approximately 6 persons were killed and about 46 injured for every million miles. The general average for 1939 was 51.19, which is slightly above the average of 50.99 for the preceding year.

As indicated in table 1, the injury rate has decreased fairly consistently since 1930, when it stood at 71.25. The downward trend was interrupted in 1936 and 1937, when increases in train-miles operated resulted in proportionately larger increases in injuries. Since then, the injury rate decreased to a low of 50.99 in 1938 but rose slightly to 51.19 in 1939. The decrease, however, occurred primarily in the number of nonfatal injuries which dropped from about 71,000 in 1930 to nearly 50,000 in 1931, and thereafter, with few exceptions, declined fairly steadily to 38,000 in 1939. The number of fatalities fluctuated from a high of 5,900 in 1930 to a low of 4,700 in 1939, but with practically no difference in the fatality rates for these 2 years. The fatality rate per million train-miles remained consistently above 6.30 from 1932 through 1937. The data given here have been adjusted by shifting into the fatality column all injuries which resulted in death later than 24 hours after the accident.

TABLE 1.—*Casualties in Railway Accidents, 1930 to 1939* [1]

Year	Train-miles[2] (millions)	Number of casualties			Rate per million train-miles		
		Total	Killed	Injured	Total	Killed	Injured
1930	1,082	77,094	5,926	71,168	71.25	5.48	65.77
1931	951	55,128	5,491	49,637	57.96	5.77	52.19
1932	813	44,852	5,137	39,715	55.17	6.32	48.85
1933	779	42,313	5,434	36,879	54.32	6.98	47.34
1934	808	44,210	5,281	38,929	54.72	6.54	48.18
1935	818	43,387	5,527	37,860	53.04	6.76	46.28
1936	891	54,135	5,862	48,273	60.76	6.58	54.18
1937	918	57,035	5,784	51,251	62.13	6.30	55.83
1938	817	41,659	4,879	36,780	50.99	5.97	45.02
1939	843	43,156	4,699	38,457	51.19	5.57	45.62

[1] Computed from Interstate Commerce Commission Accident Bulletin No. 107 and unpublished 1939 data.

[2] Transportation service, class I railways, excluding switching and terminal companies.

Injuries to Railroad Employees

Whereas the majority of fatal injuries involved primarily persons other than railroad employees, the nonfatal injuries involved primarily such employees. The 565 deaths during 1939 were only 12 percent of the year's fatality total, but the 27,563 nonfatal injuries were almost 72 percent of the total for this type of casualty. In terms of frequency rates (i. e., the average number of injuries per million employee-hours of exposure), the 1939 rate of 11.67 was the lowest during the 10-year period. From 1930 to 1935, the frequency rate dropped fairly steadily—from 16.06 in 1930 to 11.78 in 1935. Coincident with an exposure increase from 2,300 million hours in 1935 to 2,586 million in 1936—with which went an increase in train-miles from 818 million to 891 million—the frequency rate increased from 11.78 to 14.14. A further increase in employee-hours of exposure and train-miles of operation resulted in an increase in the frequency rate to 14.46 in 1937. In 1938, however, the employee-hours of exposure decreased to 2,255 million, and with it the frequency rate fell to 11.77. The increase to 2,411 million employee-hours in 1939 deviated from this earlier experience with a slight decrease in the frequency rate from 11.77 to 11.67.

As is apparent from table 2, the frequency rate of deaths to employees ranged between 0.23 in 1939 and 0.30 in 1936, but without any discernible trend until 1936. Since then, the rate has dropped year after year.

TABLE 2.—*Injuries to Railroad Employees on Duty, 1930 to 1939* [1]

Year	Employee-hours [2] (millions)	Number of injuries				Frequency rate		
		Total	Death	Disability of over 3 days	Disability of 3 days or less [3]	Total	Death	Nonfatal
1930	3,641	58,460	1,011	35,249	22,200	16.06	0.28	15.78
1931	2,931	37,998	708	22,890	14,400	12.96	.24	12.72
1932	2,287	28,871	625	17,346	10,900	12.62	.27	12.35
1933	2,149	25,883	571	15,512	9,800	12.04	.27	11.77
1934	2,301	28,216	593	16,923	10,700	12.26	.26	12.00
1935	2,300	27,103	638	16,265	10,200	11.78	.28	11.50
1936	2,586	36,571	768	21,772	14,031	14.14	.30	13.84
1937	2,717	39,288	753	23,542	14,993	14.46	.28	14.18
1938	2,255	26,549	549	16,093	9,907	11.77	.24	11.53
1939	2,411	28,128	565	16,888	10,675	11.67	.23	11.44

[1] Computed from Interstate Commerce Commission Accident Bulletin No. 107 and unpublished 1939 data.
[2] Class I railways.
[3] Data prior to 1936 estimated. Total figures include estimate.

Until 1936 railroads were not required to report injuries which resulted in disabilities of less than 4 days' duration. Reports covering such injuries since then indicate that these injuries were about 63 percent as numerous as the disabilities of longer duration. Estimates were made for the years prior to 1936 by the application of this ratio.

Reports from railroads clearly show that it is possible for workers to lose no time from work, even though they have suffered some per-

manent impairment. In 1938, during which 26 549 injuries disabling beyond the day of injury were reported, there were 2,007 cases which involved either fracture or some permanent impairment but no loss of time. Most of these, 1,463, were fractures. Eighty were amputations, 198 permanent injuries to eyes, 145 permanently affected other parts of the body, and 121 more required the use of splints or crutches. The figures for 1937, as shown in table 3, are above those for 1938. No 1939 data are available. These injuries are not included in other tabulations given here.

TABLE 3.—*Injuries to Railroad Employees Involving No Lost Time but Requiring More Than First Aid, 1937 and 1938* [1]

Kind of injury	1938	1937
All injuries	2,007	2,819
Fractures	1,463	1,952
Amputations	80	102
Impairment of vision	198	346
Other permanent injuries	145	204
Injuries requiring use of splints or crutches not included above	121	215

[1] Data are from Interstate Commerce Commission Accident Bulletin No. 107.

Injuries to Trespassers

Trespassers sustained the largest proportion of fatalities. Of the 4,699 persons killed in railroad accidents in 1939, 2,364, or over 50 percent, were trespassers. Further, the number of trespassers injured during that year, 1,813, was less than the number killed.

For every 3 million locomotive-miles operated during 1939, 10 trespassers were killed or injured. The rate per million miles, 3.37, was the lowest since 1930 (when it was 3.30) and was substantially below the rate of 4.01 for 1938. Since 1935, however, the trespasser fatality rate has been higher than or as high as the injury rate.

TABLE 4.—*Casualties to Trespassers on Railroad Property, 1930 to 1939* [1]

Year	Locomotive miles [2] (millions)	Casualties			Rate per million locomotive-miles		
		Total	Killed	Injured	Total	Killed	Injured
1930	1,591	5,252	2,451	2,801	3.30	1.54	1.76
1931	1,360	5,715	2,572	3,143	4.20	1.89	2.31
1932	1,131	6,286	2,672	3,614	5.56	2.36	3.20
1933	1,107	6,823	3,025	3,798	6.16	2.73	3.43
1934	1,156	5,810	2,840	2,970	5.03	2.46	2.57
1935	1,182	5,742	2,877	2,865	4.85	2.43	2.42
1936	1,321	5,432	2,882	2,550	4.11	2.18	1.93
1937	1,369	5,198	2,727	2,471	3.80	1.99	1.81
1938	1,178	4,727	2,428	2,299	4.01	2.06	1.95
1939	1,241	4,177	2,364	1,813	3.37	1.91	1.46

[1] Computed from Interstate Commerce Commission Accident Bulletin No. 107 and unpublished 1939 data.

[2] Includes motor-train miles.

Most of the trespasser casualties involved adults. Only about 13 percent of the persons injured were children or minors under 21. The fatality figure for 1939 includes 493 deaths of "hoboes and tramps." About 60 percent of the deaths were due to trespassers being struck or run over at places other than public crossings. Getting on or off cars or locomotives, while playing a minor role in accidents resulting in death, was the most prominent cause of nonfatal injuries, accounting for about one-third.

Injuries to Passengers

Injuries to passengers during 1939 were relatively few. Forty-six passengers, i. e. passengers on trains or lawfully on the premises of the carriers, were killed and 3,314 injured. About one-quarter of the 1939 fatalities were caused by train derailments, and another 17 percent by falls while getting on or off cars. In 1938, by comparison, 55 percent of all fatalities were due to derailments. As apparent from table 5, the rate of 4.1 passenger fatalities per billion passenger-miles that year was the highest since 1930. The rate of 2.0 for 1939, although less than half the 1938 rate, nevertheless is higher than any rate since 1934 exclusive of 1938. On the other hand, the nonfatal injury rate for 1939, 146.0, is the highest experienced during the 10-year period since 1930, with the single exception of 1933, for which the rate was 153.1.

More than one-quarter of the nonfatal passenger injuries were incurred while getting on or off cars. The percentages for 1938 and 1939 were 30 and 28, respectively.

TABLE 5.—*Injuries to Railroad Passengers, 1930 to 1939* [1]

Year	Passenger-miles (billions)	Number of casualties			Rate per billion passenger-miles		
		Total	Killed	Injured	Total	Killed	Injured
1930	26.9	3,213	56	3,157	119.4	2.1	117.3
1931	21.9	2,710	41	2,669	123.7	1.9	121.8
1932	17.0	2,380	36	2,344	140.0	2.1	137.9
1933	16.4	2,572	60	2,512	156.8	3.7	153.1
1934	18.1	2,593	50	2,543	143.3	2.8	140.5
1935	18.5	2,543	33	2,510	137.5	1.8	135.7
1936	22.5	3,273	43	3,230	145.5	1.9	143.6
1937	24.7	3,324	36	3,288	134.6	1.5	133.1
1938	21.7	3,086	88	2,998	142.2	4.1	138.1
1939	22.7	3,360	46	3,314	148.0	2.0	146.0

[1] Computed from Interstate Commerce Commission Accident Bulletin No. 107 and unpublished data.

Rail-Highway Grade-Crossing Accidents

Almost nine-tenths of all grade-crossing accidents in 1939 involved automobiles. In the 3,476 collisions with motor vehicles during the year 1,398 persons were killed and 3,999 injured. The 1939 figures

are substantially the same as for 1938, when 1,517 persons were killed and 4,018 injured in 3,494 accidents. The number of fatalities during 1939, however, was lower than that for any year since 1930. Similarly, the accident rate of 4.12 per million train-miles was the lowest during this 10-year period.

As in the earlier years, the late fall and early winter months were the periods of most frequent motor-vehicle-train collisions in 1939. Thirty-five percent of these accidents occurred during the three months, October to December, and another 11 percent took place in January. About three-quarters of all collisions involved passenger automobiles. On the other hand, freight trains were involved in nearly 46 percent of all such collisions, as against 40 percent for passenger trains. Work and yard trains accounted for the rest. About one-third of all grade-crossing accidents occurred at crossings protected by lowered gates, watchmen, trainmen, or other visible or audible signs.

Of the 1,530 crossing accidents which occurred at night, 54 percent took place at unlighted crossings. The lack of illumination may have been an important factor in these accidents.

It is interesting to note that in nearly half of the collisions involving freight trains, the trains were moving at speeds of less than 20 miles per hour, and that in 10 percent the trains were standing still.

Weather appears to have been a minor factor in these collisions during 1939. In 67 percent of the crossing accidents the weather was reported as clear. In only about 6 percent of collisions had the motor vehicles stalled on the tracks, and in only 4 percent was the vehicle speed in excess of 60 miles per hour. In nearly 25 percent of the accidents the vehicle speed was between 10 and 19 miles per hour, and in another 21 percent between 20 and 29 miles per hour. In only 15 percent of the cases were automotive vehicles reported as traveling over 40 miles per hour.

TABLE 6.—*Accidents Involving Railroad Trains and Motor Vehicles, 1930 to 1939* [1]

Year	Number of accidents	Persons—		Train-miles [2] (millions)	Number of accidents per million train-miles
		Killed	Injured		
1930	4,853	2,020	5,517	1,082	4.49
1931	4,100	1,811	4,657	951	4.31
1932	3,499	1,525	3,989	813	4.30
1933	3,236	1,511	3,697	779	4.15
1934	3,728	1,554	4,300	808	4.61
1935	3,933	1,680	4,658	818	4.81
1936	4,277	1,786	4,930	891	4.80
1937	4,489	1,875	5,136	918	4.89
1938	3,494	1,517	4,018	816	4.28
1939	3,476	1,398	3,999	843	4.12

[1] Interstate Commerce Commission, Statement No. 4025, May 1940.
[2] In transportation service, class I steam railways, excluding switching and terminal companies.

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

LEGISLATIVE SESSIONS IN 1941

IN 1941, regular legislative sessions will convene in all States except five (Alabama, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Virginia). The Legislatures of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands also will meet during 1941. In Puerto Rico and the Philippine Islands annual sessions are held, while in Alaska and Hawaii the legislature meets only once in 2 years. In Alaska and the Philippines the sessions convene on the fourth Monday of January, in Puerto Rico on the second Monday of February, and in Hawaii on the third Wednesday in February. In the majority of the States, the legislatures hold biennial sessions and assemble in odd-numbered years. At present only four States meet annually (New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and South Carolina).

The Alabama Legislature met in 1939. Heretofore, in this State, quadrennial sessions of the legislature have been held. However, beginning in 1943, the legislature will meet biennially. This change resulted from a constitutional amendment passed by the Alabama Legislature on March 29, 1939 (Act No. 12), and overwhelmingly approved by the voters at a special election held during the same year. The amendment limits the regular biennial sessions to 60 days, and increases the compensation of legislators from $4 a day to $10, and provides that hereafter the legislature shall convene on the first Tuesday in May for legislative business, instead of the second Tuesday in January. However, as the legislators are elected for 4-year periods, provision is made for them to meet every 4 years for "organization" purposes, this meeting to last not longer than 10 days.[1]

The inauguration of the next President of the United States will take place on January 20, 1941. The new Congress (Seventy-Seventh), however, will convene on January 3, 1941. At this session of the Congress all members of the House of Representatives and of the Senate elected at the national election held on November 5, 1940, will take their seats and begin deliberations.

Like the Federal Congress, most of the State legislatures convene in January. The Florida Legislature, however, assembles on the Tuesday after the first Monday in April. In Georgia the law fixes the second Monday in January for organization purposes, and the regular session is deferred, according to the State constitution, until

[1] See State Government (Chicago), March 1940, p. 43.

the second Monday after July 4th, unless a prior date is designated by the legislature. This is accomplished by a concurrent resolution by a majority of the house and senate at the organization session. In practice, the legislature usually convenes a few days following the organization meeting.

The terms of the legislative sessions are limited in about one-third of the States, the period ranging from 40 days in Wyoming to 5 months in Connecticut. In 26 States there is no limit as to the length of the session. The pay of legislators, however, in some of the States ceases after the session has extended beyond a specified period. There is no constitutional limitation as to the length of the sessions of the Congress of the United States.

The following table shows the States which will meet in regular legislative session in 1941, as well as the date of convening, and the length of the session wherever fixed by law.

Date Set by Law for Convening of State Legislatures

State	Time of assembly	Date of convening, 1941 session	Length of session
Arizona	Second Monday in January	Jan. 13	No limit.
Arkansas	do	do	60 days.[1]
California	Monday after first day in January	Jan. 6	No limit.[2]
Colorado	First Wednesday in January	Jan. 1	Do.
Connecticut	Wednesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 8	5 months.
Delaware	First Tuesday in January	Jan. 7	No limit.
Florida	Tuesday after first Monday in April	Apr. 8	60 days.
Georgia	Second Monday in January [3]	Jan. 13	Do.
Idaho	First Monday after January 1	Jan. 6	No limit.
Illinois	Wednesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 8	Do.
Indiana	Thursday after first Monday in January	Jan. 9	61 days.
Iowa	Second Monday in January	Jan. 13	No limit.
Kansas	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 14	Do.
Maine	First Wednesday in January	Jan. 1	Do.
Maryland	do	do	90 days.
Massachusetts	do	do	No limit.
Michigan	do	do	Do.
Minnesota	Tuesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 7	90 days.
Missouri	Wednesday after January 1	Jan. 8	No limit.
Montana	First Monday in January	Jan. 6	60 days.
Nebraska	First Tuesday in January	Jan. 7	No limit.
Nevada	Third Monday in January	Jan. 20	60 days.
New Hampshire	First Wednesday in January	Jan. 1	No limit.
New Jersey	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 14	Do.
New Mexico	do	do	60 days.
New York	First Wednesday in January	Jan. 1	No limit.
North Carolina	Wednesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 8	Do.
North Dakota	Tuesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 7	60 days.
Ohio	First Monday in January	Jan. 6	No limit.
Oklahoma	Tuesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 7	Do.
Oregon	Second Monday in January	Jan. 13	Do.
Pennsylvania	First Tuesday in January	Jan. 7	Do.
Rhode Island	do	do	60 days.
South Carolina	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 14	No limit.
South Dakota	Tuesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 7	60 days.
Tennessee	First Monday in January	Jan. 6	No limit.
Texas	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 14	Do.
Utah	Second Monday in January	Jan. 13	60 days.
Vermont	Wednesday after first Monday in January	Jan. 8	No limit.
Washington	Second Monday in January	Jan. 13	60 days.
West Virginia	Second Wednesday in January	Jan. 8	Do.[1]
Wisconsin	do	do	No limit.
Wyoming	Second Tuesday in January	Jan. 14	40 days.
United States Congress	January 3 annually	Jan. 3	No limit.

[1] The session may be extended by a two-thirds vote of each house.

[2] Regular sessions continue for 30 days, after which a recess of not less than 30 days must be taken. On the reassembling of the legislature, no bill may be introduced without the consent of three-fourths of the members and not more than 2 bills may be introduced by 1 member.

[3] Meets for organization and fixes a time for regular legislative session, usually several days following the organization meeting.

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Interpretation of Utah 8-Hour Law

A UTAH statute which limits the period of employment in all "underground mines" or "workings" to 8 hours a day has been held by the State supreme court to apply only to employees engaged in mining and smelting operations. Specifically, the court ruled that the law is not applicable to employees engaged in constructing a tunnel to be used for the conveyance of water.

This decision was based principally on the ground that the legislature had passed this statute in conformity with a provision of the State constitution that authorized the enactment of laws to provide for "health and safety of employees in factories, smelters, and mines." From a historical review of this legislation, the court concluded that the legislature did not have in mind any form of occupation other than mining and smelting. There was no justification for a broader interpretation of the law, the court said, except that greater social justice might be accomplished. This, the court further declared, is "for the legislature to determine and not for the courts." (*Thompson* v. *Industrial Commission*, 104 Pac. (2d) 629.)

Employee not Participating in Strike Entitled to Unemployment Benefits

The Supreme Court of New Jersey recently held that a "handy man" or "utility man" who did not participate in a strike of production employees is entitled to benefits under the State unemployment compensation law. This act provides that an unemployed worker is disqualified for benefits if he is participating in or financing or in any way is directly interested in a labor dispute which has caused a stoppage of work. He is disqualified also if he belongs to a grade or class of workers who might be engaged in any such activity.

In the case under consideration, the evidence showed that the employee had taken no part in the dispute. However, it was claimed that he was "directly interested" in it, as he would benefit by the agreement between his employer and the striking labor union as to wages, working hours, and other conditions of employment. The court did not agree with this contention, declaring that it would be a strained interpretation of the statute. The clear meaning of the language of the law, the court said, is to confine disqualification to those who are creating the dispute or participating in it in order to enforce their demands.

The strike, allegedly, was caused by the production workers, and in order for the unemployed worker to be denied compensation he had to be classed as a production worker. Actually his work was varied and he had no fixed duties, but was considered merely a "handy

man" or "utility man." The court pointed out in this connection that "production connotes the creation of something"; hence, a production worker is one who is engaged in the actual making of the article created. For these reasons the court ruled that the employee was not a production worker and was entitled to compensation. (*Kieckhefer Container Co.* v. *Unemployment Compensation Commission*, 13 Atl. (2d) 646.)

Relation Between Individual Contract and Union Agreement

An employee who continued to work under his individual wage contract, after his employer entered into an agreement with a union which he joined, may not recover the higher wages under the union agreement, according to a decision of the Washington Supreme Court.

From the facts of the case, it appeared that the employee joined the union after he had made an individual contract with his employer. However, he continued to work under the terms of his contract for over 2 years, when he was laid off because of insufficient work. Higher wages were paid to other workers under the terms of the union agreement, but the employee never protested to his employer as to the amount of his wages. Furthermore, the check which he received and endorsed each Saturday contained the clause "endorsement of this check is acknowledgement of payment account in full as follows."

In suit brought to compel payment of the difference between his contract wages and the union scale, the employee contended that the union agreement was for the benefit of each member of the union. The court agreed with this contention and stated that "a contract made by a labor union with an employer for the benefit of employees may be enforced by an employee, even if not mentioned by name in that contract." However, such a contract would not necessarily abrogate a prior agreement of an employer and employee, notwithstanding the fact that the employee subsequently joined the union in question. A member of the contracting union could not be divested of the right to continue to work under a different contract with his employer without his consent. As the employee had accepted wages under his individual contract for more than 2 years and did not ask for the higher wages payable under the union contract until he was discharged, the court held that he had denied to himself the right to claim compensation under the contract. (*Huston* v. *Washington Wood & Coal Co.*, 103 Pac. (2d) 1095.)

Disease Contracted From Fellow Employee Held an Accident

The Supreme Court of North Carolina has held that an employee who has become disabled from tuberculosis, allegedly contracted from a fellow employee sitting at the same desk, was entitled to compen-

sation under the State workmen's compensation act on the ground that this was an injury resulting from an accident. The court, however, declared that tuberculosis is not an occupational disease unless it results from the cumulative effect of "long, continuous exposure to risks and conditions inherent and usual in the nature of the employment."

From the facts of the case, it appeared that the tubercular employee had coughed into the face of a fellow employee who was unable to protect himself because both of his hands were engaged in holding a tray. About 2 months later it developed that the latter employee had night sweats and sleepless nights and several weeks thereafter was found to be suffering from tuberculosis. It was claimed that the tubercular employee could have avoided the spread of the spray from the cough by placing a handkerchief or his hand over his mouth. This overt, positive action, the court ruled, was sufficient to satisfy the definition of accident, as "injuries resulting from either willful or negligent actions of a fellow employee constitute injuries by accident." (*Mac Rae* v. *Unemployment Compensation Commission of North Carolina*, 9 S. E. (2d) 595.)

Death of Railroad Employee Traveling on Pass Held Compensable

In a decision of the New Jersey Department of Labor the death of a railroad employee while attempting to alight from a train was held to be compensable under the State workmen's compensation act. The employee had been furnished a pass by the railroad company for the purpose of going to and from work. The pass contained the express condition that the railroad should not be considered a common carrier and that the user of the pass assumed all risks of accident. The deputy commissioner, who delivered the opinion of the State department of labor, ruled that the employee, while using the pass, was deprived of the benefits of the Federal Employers' Liability Act, and thus his dependents were entitled to compensation under the State law. Although at times the employee was engaged in work of both an interstate and intrastate character, the facts showed that the interstate relation ceased when he left his work to go to his home.

The decision of the deputy commissioner was based on the fact that, at the time of the employee's death, he was acting under the terms of his general employment and exercising a privilege incidental to that employment. The commissioner declared that the general employment continues while a man is going to and from work where a pass is customarily furnished by the employer and the practice is beneficial to both the employer and employee, as in this case. At the time of the employee's death, the commissioner said, the relationship of employer and employee was in existence, and "the accident causing his death arose out of and in the course of his employment." (*Micieli* v. *Erie R. Co.*, 14 Atl. (2d) 56.)

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates indicate slight increases in the number of strikes, workers involved, and idleness due to strikes in September 1940, as compared with August. The number of strikes increased about 4 percent to 220; the number of workers involved in new strikes increased 6 percent to 55,000; and the number of man-days idle increased 18 percent to 725,000. The largest strike in September involved nearly 9,000 employees of the Celanese Corporation of America at Cumberland, Md., from September 17 to 30.

Trend of Strikes, 1933 to September 1940 [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
1939		2,613				1,170,962		17,812,219
1939								
January	120	203	323	184	139	51,159	72,427	513,460
February	139	204	343	204	139	68,252	88,267	553,138
March	139	210	349	199	150	43,337	64,660	618,147
April	150	281	431	255	176	396,166	425,748	4,902,238
May	176	258	434	272	162	95,239	457,407	3,547,868
June	162	245	407	269	138	62,534	127,474	958,127
July	138	251	389	216	173	175,542	211,548	1,168,382
August	173	275	448	272	176	79,670	118,772	1,101,419
September	176	197	373	222	151	36,846	103,538	892,485
October	151	205	356	217	139	106,628	139,608	1,508,120
November	139	178	317	201	116	43,239	130,341	1,664,574
December	116	106	222	128	94	12,350	37,122	384,261
1940								
January	94	116	210	118	92	25,156	39,503	239,170
February	92	153	245	134	111	28,613	36,979	284,640
March	111	159	270	172	98	22,076	42,688	380,996
April	98	204	302	189	113	38,034	51,291	442,154
May	113	208	321	222	99	50,801	75,526	664,058
June	99	175	274	166	108	34,572	52,347	465,976
July	108	182	290	182	108	58,234	75,920	552,189
August [1]	108	212	320	190	130	52,000	73,000	615,000
September [1]	130	220	350	210	140	55,000	95,000	725,000

[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 September 1940 was somewhat greater than in September a year ago in terms of number of strikes and number of workers involved, but less in terms of man-days of idleness. Estimates for September 1940 show increases, as compared with September 1939, of 12 percent in number of strikes and 49 percent in number of workers involved, but a decrease of 19 percent in the number of man-days idle because of strikes.

The figures given for August and September in the foregoing table are preliminary estimates, based principally on newspaper information. 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 JULY 1940 [1]

THE number of strikes beginning in July was a little larger than in June, but smaller than the number in April or May, the two highest months of the year. Detailed information has been received on 182 strikes beginning in July, involving 58,000 workers. These, with 108 strikes which continued into July from preceding months resulted in 552,000 man-days of idleness.

The largest stoppage in July was in the cloak and suit industry in New York City and adjacent territory, in connection with the renewal of association agreements. It involved about 15,000 workers, began on July 11, and was settled the next day.

The industries having the greatest number of strikes in July were building and construction (21), trade (20), textiles and their products (19), and lumber and allied products (16). The largest numbers of workers involved were in textiles (19,247), extraction of minerals (6,885), machinery (5,987), and building and construction (5,196). The greatest number of man-days of idleness were in the following groups: Machinery (86,766), lumber and allied products (81,113), textiles (56,217), and transportation and communication (48,408)

Pennsylvania had more new strikes (23) and a greater number of workers (10,299) involved in local strikes beginning in July than any other State. These were comparatively small strikes with the exception of a few in the coal-mining industry which involved between 1,000 and 2,000 workers each.

There were 18 local strikes in New York involving 1,939 workers. More than 11,000 New York workers were involved also in the garment stoppage, referred to previously, which is classified in table 2 as an interstate dispute. There were 16 strikes in Illinois, and 14 each in New Jersey and Ohio. The greatest numbers of man-days of idle-

[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.

ness because of strikes were in Illinois (65,476), Pennsylvania (61,873), and Missouri (50,579). There were 7 strikes which extended across State lines, one of which was the stoppage in the cloak and suit industry in the New York and New Jersey area. (See table 2.)

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in July 1940, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in July		In progress during July		Man-days idle during July
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	**182**	**58,234**	**290**	**75,920**	**552,189**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**12**	**2,776**	**20**	**3,977**	**36,778**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	2	1,157	3	1,307	6,756
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	1	9	1	9	9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	1	21	3	201	3,486
Forgings, iron and steel			1	56	504
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures			1	377	3,016
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	2	373	3	565	6,660
Stoves	1	65	1	65	900
Structural and ornamental metal work			1	161	2,254
Wire and wire products	1	74	1	74	222
Other	4	1,077	5	1,162	12,971
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**12**	**5,987**	**22**	**8,673**	**86,766**
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	1	34	4	1,740	37,527
Foundry and machine-shop products	9	5,252	13	6,033	34,966
Other	2	701	5	900	14,273
Transportation equipment	**2**	**220**	**5**	**805**	**11,324**
Automobiles, bodies, and parts	2	220	5	805	11,324
Nonferrous metals and their products	**2**	**692**	**9**	**3,123**	**40,490**
Lighting equipment			1	148	2,960
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	1	132	2	986	19,448
Stamped and enameled ware			3	1,131	3,578
Other	1	560	3	858	14,504
Lumber and allied products	**16**	**4,291**	**30**	**7,727**	**81,113**
Furniture	6	1,114	14	1,923	19,985
Millwork and planing	6	2,936	8	3,044	17,272
Sawmills and logging camps	2	140	5	1,938	37,501
Other	2	101	3	822	6,355
Stone, clay, and glass products	**2**	**946**	**8**	**1,514**	**16,584**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	2	946	4	1,243	10,358
Glass			1	26	572
Other			3	245	5,654
Textiles and their products	**19**	**19,247**	**26**	**20,397**	**56,217**
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods			1	175	3,850
Cotton small wares	1	18	1	18	90
Dyeing and finishing textiles	1	88	2	188	552
Silk and rayon goods	3	1,032	3	1,032	3,141
Other	3	591	3	591	6,273
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	2	631	3	797	4,560
Clothing, women's	6	15,551	7	15,579	32,215
Hats, caps, and millinery	2	1,308	4	1,933	3,828
Hosiery			1	56	1,232
Knit goods	1	28	1	28	476
Leather and its manufactures	**4**	**1,457**	**5**	**1,507**	**8,120**
Boots and shoes	3	1,389	3	1,389	5,796
Leather			1	50	1,100
Other leather goods	1	68	1	68	1,224
Food and kindred products	**13**	**1,322**	**20**	**1,668**	**14,831**
Baking	4	229	7	283	2,495
Canning and preserving	2	27	5	290	4,414
Confectionery	2	417	2	417	4,803
Flour and grain mills	1	220	1	220	1,320
Slaughtering and meat packing	1	10	2	39	804
Other	3	419	3	419	995
Tobacco manufactures	**1**	**67**	**1**	**67**	**201**
Cigars	1	67	1	67	201

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in July 1940, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in July		In progress during July		Man-days idle during July
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Paper and printing	**5**	**1,234**	**8**	**1,389**	**14,833**
Boxes, paper	2	1,057	2	1,057	11,933
Paper and pulp	1	29	1	29	145
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job			2	130	1,135
Other	2	148	3	173	1,625
Chemicals and allied products	**3**	**690**	**4**	**1,290**	**19,123**
Fertilizers	1	155	1	155	310
Petroleum refining	1	513	1	513	9,747
Other	1	22	2	622	9,066
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**5**	**1,275**	**11**	**1,858**	**20,229**
Furriers and fur factories			1	8	72
Other	5	1,275	10	1,850	20,157
Extraction of minerals	**9**	**6,885**	**10**	**7,018**	**22,698**
Coal mining, anthracite	2	3,512	2	3,512	10,640
Coal mining, bituminous	6	3,123	7	3,256	10,808
Other	1	250	1	250	1,250
Transportation and communication	**15**	**2,543**	**23**	**5,096**	**48,408**
Water transportation	5	423	5	423	2,088
Motortruck transportation	5	1,898	7	2,930	26,197
Motorbus transportation	1	46	2	59	676
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	3	170	6	1,009	18,286
Telephone and telegraph			2	669	1,065
Radio broadcasting and transmitting	1	6	1	6	96
Trade	**20**	**2,439**	**30**	**3,014**	**38,207**
Wholesale	5	314	11	743	11,093
Retail	15	2,125	19	2,271	27,114
Domestic and personal service	**12**	**543**	**17**	**649**	**4,677**
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	3	253	6	334	2,884
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors	1	15	1	15	15
Laundries	3	121	4	134	564
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	5	154	5	154	1,166
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)			1	12	48
Professional service	**2**	**84**	**6**	**172**	**1,710**
Recreation and amusement	2	84	6	172	1,710
Building and construction	**21**	**5,196**	**25**	**5,515**	**27,811**
Buildings, exclusive of PWA	14	4,601	16	4,682	24,270
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings)	7	595	9	833	3,541
Agriculture and fishing	**2**	**157**	**3**	**219**	**943**
Agriculture	1	7	2	69	193
Fishing	1	150	1	150	750
Other nonmanufacturing industries	**5**	**183**	**7**	**242**	**1,121**

The average number of workers involved in the 182 strikes beginning in July was 320. Over half (54 percent) involved less than 100 workers each; 41 percent involved between 100 and 1,000 workers each, and 10 strikes (5 percent) involved over 1,000 workers each. There was only one strike involving more than 10,000 workers—the cloak and suit stoppage in the New York metropolitan area previously mentioned. (See table 3.)

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in July 1940, by States*

State	Beginning in July		In progress during July		Man-days idle during July
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	182	58,234	290	75,920	552,189
Alabama	2	25	4	205	5,109
Arkansas	1	171	3	1,782	33,930
California	12	1,581	20	2,914	24,767
Colorado			1	45	855
Connecticut	4	823	6	1,417	4,425
District of Columbia	4	856	4	856	2,368
Florida	3	91	4	129	1,283
Georgia	1	35	3	226	961
Illinois	16	2,385	22	5,173	65,476
Indiana	6	489	9	976	9,670
Iowa	2	50	2	50	762
Kentucky	2	56	3	75	693
Louisiana	1	100	2	175	725
Maryland	1	29	2	195	1,575
Massachusetts	12	3,036	13	3,061	24,069
Michigan	4	2,749	8	3,095	37,953
Minnesota	1	300	5	690	9,707
Missouri	7	2,097	12	3,753	50,579
Nebraska	2	264	3	273	828
Nevada			1	28	364
New Hampshire	2	897	2	897	2,991
New Jersey	14	2,208	20	3,051	40,239
New Mexico	1	75	2	218	5,143
New York	18	1,939	30	2,853	33,950
North Carolina			1	175	3,850
Ohio	14	6,484	25	7,780	40,666
Oregon	2	90	3	237	3,574
Pennsylvania	23	10,299	36	11,422	61,873
Tennessee	3	171	5	242	2,790
Texas	2	906	6	1,233	8,133
Utah	1	20	1	20	80
Virginia	3	227	4	827	10,950
Washington	4	2,627	6	2,752	11,910
West Virginia	3	102	4	128	1,170
Wisconsin	4	933	8	1,280	7,588
Interstate	7	16,119	10	17,687	41,183

One-half of the strikes beginning in July were over union-organization matters. About 25 percent of the total workers were involved in these strikes. The wage-and-hour disputes accounted for about 36 percent of the total strikes and involved 33 percent of the workers. The disputes over miscellaneous matters amounted to 14 percent of the total strikes and included about 42 percent of the workers. This latter group included strikes due to union rivalry, jurisdictional questions, protests against increased work load, hiring of out-of-town workers, and other miscellaneous issues. The large number of workers in the group was accounted for principally by the New York area garment stoppage in which one of the principal issues was the union's effort to stabilize the industry by limiting the number of contractors to whom each jobber could give work. (See table 4.)

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in July 1940, 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	182	34	64	59	15	9	1
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	12	1	4	5	2		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	12	1	4	4	2	1	
Transportation equipment	2			2			
Nonferrous metals and their products	2			1	1		
Lumber and allied products	16		9	6		1	
Stone, clay, and glass products	2			1	1		
Textiles and their products	19	1	6	8	2	1	1
Leather and its manufactures	4		1	2		1	
Food and kindred products	13	5	2	6			
Tobacco manufactures	1		1				
Paper and printing	5		3	1	1		
Chemicals and allied products	3		1	1	1		
Miscellaneous manufacturing	5			4	1		
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	9			5	1	3	
Transportation and communication	15	4	8	2		1	
Trade	20	11	5	2	2		
Domestic and personal service	12	5	6	1			
Professional service	2		2				
Building and construction	21	5	7	7	1	1	
Agriculture and fishing	2	1		1			
Other nonmanufacturing industries	5		5				

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in July 1940*

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	182	100.0	58,234	100.0
Wages and hours	65	35.7	19,114	32.8
Wage increase	46	25.3	15,780	27.1
Wage decrease	9	4.9	1,024	1.8
Wage increase, hour decrease	8	4.4	1,235	2.1
Hour decrease	2	1.1	1,075	1.8
Union organization	91	50.0	14,758	25.3
Recognition	13	7.1	674	1.2
Recognition and wages	17	9.3	3,347	5.6
Recognition, wages, and hours	17	9.3	728	1.3
Closed or union shop	27	15.0	5,097	8.8
Discrimination	9	4.9	3,336	5.7
Strengthening bargaining position	6	3.3	1,479	2.5
Other	2	1.1	97	.2
Miscellaneous	26	14.3	24,362	41.9
Sympathy	1	.5	2,500	4.3
Rival unions or factions	4	2.2	544	.9
Jurisdiction [1]	5	2.7	600	1.0
Other	14	7.8	20,661	35.6
Not reported	2	1.1	57	.1

[1] It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Due to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

The average duration of the 182 strikes which ended in July was 23 calendar days. Thirty-six percent of them ended in less than a week after they began, 39 percent lasted from a week to a month, 21 percent lasted from 1 to 3 months, and 4 percent (7 strikes) had been in progress 3 months or more. These were all small strikes, none of them involving as many as 200 workers.

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in July 1940*

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	182	65	41	30	28	11	7
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	13	3	1	2	6	1	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	14	3	1	6	3		1
Transportation equipment	2	1				1	
Nonferrous metals and their products	5			1	3	1	
Lumber and allied products	15	3	5	2	3	1	1
Stone, clay, and glass products	3				2	1	
Textiles and their products	17	7	4	2	1	1	2
Leather and its manufactures	3	2		1			
Food and kindred products	12	5	2	2	3		
Paper and printing	5	2	1	2			
Chemicals and allied products	1			1			
Miscellaneous manufacturing	5		3	1	1		
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	8	7			1		
Transportation and communication	18	6	5	3	1	2	1
Trade	18	7	6	1	1	2	1
Domestic and personal service	10	5	2	1	1	1	
Professional service	5	3		1	1		
Building and construction	21	9	8	3			1
Agriculture and fishing	1		1				
Other nonmanufacturing industries	6	2	2	1	1		

About 45 percent of the strikes ending in July, which included about 64 percent of the workers involved, were settled with the assistance of Government officials or boards. Employers and representatives of organized workers negotiated the settlement of 41 percent of the strikes including 34 percent of the workers involved. Ten percent of the strikes were ended without formal settlement; that is, the workers returned without settlement of the disputed issues, or they lost their strikes when the employers filled their places with new workers, moved to other localities or went out of business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in July 1940*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	182	100.0	49,370	100.0
Employers and workers directly	5	2.7	473	1.0
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	75	41.2	16,917	34.3
Government officials or boards	82	45.2	31,396	63.5
Private conciliators or arbitrators	1	.5	91	.2
Terminated without formal settlement	19	10.4	493	1.0

Compromise settlements terminated about 42 percent of the strikes ending in July and affected 69 percent of the workers involved in all strikes ending during the month. About 37 percent of the strikes, involving 16 percent of the workers, resulted in substantial gains to the workers and in 14 percent of the strikes, involving 7 percent of the workers, little or no gains were made.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in July 1940*

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	182	100.0	49,370	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	67	36.8	7,913	16.0
Partial gains or compromises	76	41.9	34,119	69.1
Little or no gains to workers	26	14.3	3,614	7.3
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	11	6.0	1,195	2.4
Indeterminate	1	.5	2,500	5.1
Not reported	1	.5	29	.1

About half of the strikes ending in July were over union-organization matters. Of these 43 percent were successful from the workers' point of view, 37 percent were compromised, and in 20 percent little or no gains were made. Of the strikes over wages and hours, about 34 percent were won by the workers, 58 percent were compromised, and in 8 percent little or no gains were made.

Of the workers involved in strikes over wages and hours, about 80 percent obtained compromise settlements, 19 percent substantially won what was demanded, and only 1 percent made little or no gains. In the strikes over union-organization matters, about 50 percent of the workers obtained compromise settlements, 34 percent substantially won their demands, and 16 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in July 1940, 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	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Number of Strikes						
All issues	182	67	76	26	11	1	1
Wages and hours	62	21	36	5			
Wage increase	49	15	30	4			
Wage decrease	6	4	1	1			
Wage increase, hour decrease	5	1	4				
Hour decrease	2	1	1				
Union organization	93	40	34	19			
Recognition	15	7	4	4			
Recognition and wages	20	4	12	4			
Recognition and hours	1		1				
Recognition, wages, and hours	22	12	3	7			
Closed or union shop	21	12	7	2			
Discrimination	9	4	3	2			
Strengthening bargaining position	4		4				
Other	1	1					
Miscellaneous	27	6	6	2	11	1	1
Sympathy	1					1	
Rival unions or factions	6				6		
Jurisdiction	5				5		
Other	14	6	6	2			
Not reported	1						1
	Number of Workers Involved						
All issues	49,370	7,913	34,119	3,614	1,195	2,500	29
Wages and hours	17,472	3,386	13,886	200			
Wage increase	14,085	2,999	10,986	100			
Wage decrease	931	365	466	100			
Wage increase, hour decrease	1,476	14	1,462				
Hour decrease	980	8	972				
Union organization	9,624	3,266	4,833	1,525			
Recognition	804	503	231	70			
Recognition and wages	2,268	231	1,914	123			
Recognition and hours	10		10				
Recognition, wages, and hours	1,134	629	216	289			
Closed or union shop	2,686	1,289	1,340	57			
Discrimination	1,580	544	50	986			
Strengthening bargaining position	1,072		1,072				
Other	70	70					
Miscellaneous	22,274	1,261	15,400	1,889	1,195	2,500	29
Sympathy	2,500					2,500	
Rival unions or factions	595				595		
Jurisdiction	600				600		
Other	18,550	1,261	15,400	1,889			
Not reported	29						29

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, SEPTEMBER 1940

THE United States Conciliation Service, in September, disposed of 346 situations involving 170,799 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties.

Of these situations, 204 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 149,305 workers. The remaining situations, involving 21,494 workers, were services rendered such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, consulting with labor and management, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 29 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 38 States and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, September 1940, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	204	149,305	142	21,494	346	170,799
Agriculture			1	5	1	5
Automobile	13	43,065	2	3	15	43,068
Building trades	13	14,270	9	236	22	14,506
Chemicals	8	1,368	1	3	9	1,371
Communications	1	13,000			1	13,000
Domestic and personal	13	969	4	223	17	1,192
Electrical equipment	11	5,119	1	250	12	5,369
Food	24	7,197	4	113	28	7,310
Furniture	2	287	1	2	3	289
Iron and steel	19	8,654	6	365	25	9,019
Leather			1	1	1	1
Lumber	7	2,108	2	3	9	2,111
Machinery	18	4,592	15	3,912	33	8,504
Maritime	1	34	2	1,400	3	1,434
Mining	1	750	1	2,000	2	2,750
Motion picture	3	148	3	9	6	157
Nonferrous metals	7	1,262	1	1	8	1,263
Paper	4	735			4	735
Petroleum	2	24	11	748	13	772
Professional	1	55	1	1	2	56
Printing	2	24			2	24
Rubber	5	1,949	4	154	9	2,103
Stone, clay, and glass	7	1,003	2	351	9	1,354
Textile	12	25,485	29	4,241	41	29,726
Tobacco	2	2,400			2	2,400
Trade	9	3,526	8	46	17	3,572
Transportation	9	285	6	34	15	319
Transportation equipment	5	10,150	3	3	8	10,153
Utilities			1	1	1	1
Unclassified	5	846	23	7,389	28	8,235

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, September 1940, by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	204	149,305	142	21,494	346	170,799
Alabama	7	3,641	5	1,753	12	5,394
Arkansas	1	26	1	2	2	28
California	19	6,278	4	508	23	6,786
Colorado	1	5,000			1	5,000
Connecticut	1	600	1	128	2	728
District of Columbia	8	300	6	424	14	724
Florida	3	2,043	2	25	5	2,068
Georgia	1	15	1	1	2	16
Illinois	8	1,424	11	8,044	19	9,468
Indiana	6	3,764	2	52	8	3,816
Iowa	1	3			1	3
Kentucky	2	465	3	433	5	898
Louisiana	6	717	4	230	10	947
Maryland	3	19,900	4	61	7	19,961
Massachusetts	3	233	12	2,892	15	3,125
Michigan	20	43,973	4	903	24	44,876
Minnesota	3	547			3	547
Mississippi	1	30			1	30
Missouri	7	5,571	9	368	16	5,939
Montana	1	25			1	25
Nebraska	1	257			1	257
New Hampshire			1	290	1	290
New Jersey	7	1,388	8	113	15	1,501
New Mexico			1	2	1	2
New York	14	27,043	22	374	36	27,417
North Carolina	3	317	2	560	5	877
North Dakota	1	371			1	371
Ohio	20	7,193	9	1,162	29	8,355
Oregon	2	34	1	900	3	934
Pennsylvania	22	4,519	4	57	26	4,576
Rhode Island	1	450	4	702	5	1,152
South Carolina	1	65	1	1	2	66
Tennessee	5	294	5	303	10	597
Texas	4	137	3	303	7	440
Utah	2	290	2	310	4	600
Virginia	2	3,700	1	1	3	3,701
Washington	8	7,514	3	37	11	7,551
West Virginia	2	450	3	204	5	654
Wisconsin	7	728	3	351	10	1,079

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LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, AUGUST 1940

IMPORTANT changes in turn-over rates for August compared with preceding months were indicated by reports on labor turn-over received from approximately 6,500 manufacturing establishments with 2,550,000 employees. The quit rate, 1.10 per 100 employees, reached the highest point since September 1937, and the discharge rate increased from 0.14 in July to 0.16. The lay-off rate declined sharply from 2.25 to 1.63 per 100 employees, which was with one exception the lowest lay-off rate recorded since April 1937. The accession rate, at 6.63 per 100 employees, represented the highest level since January 1935. Since the quit rate is based on the total number of employees who voluntarily leave their jobs, usually because they have opportunities for reemployment at higher wage rates or under im-

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 135 Industries* [1]

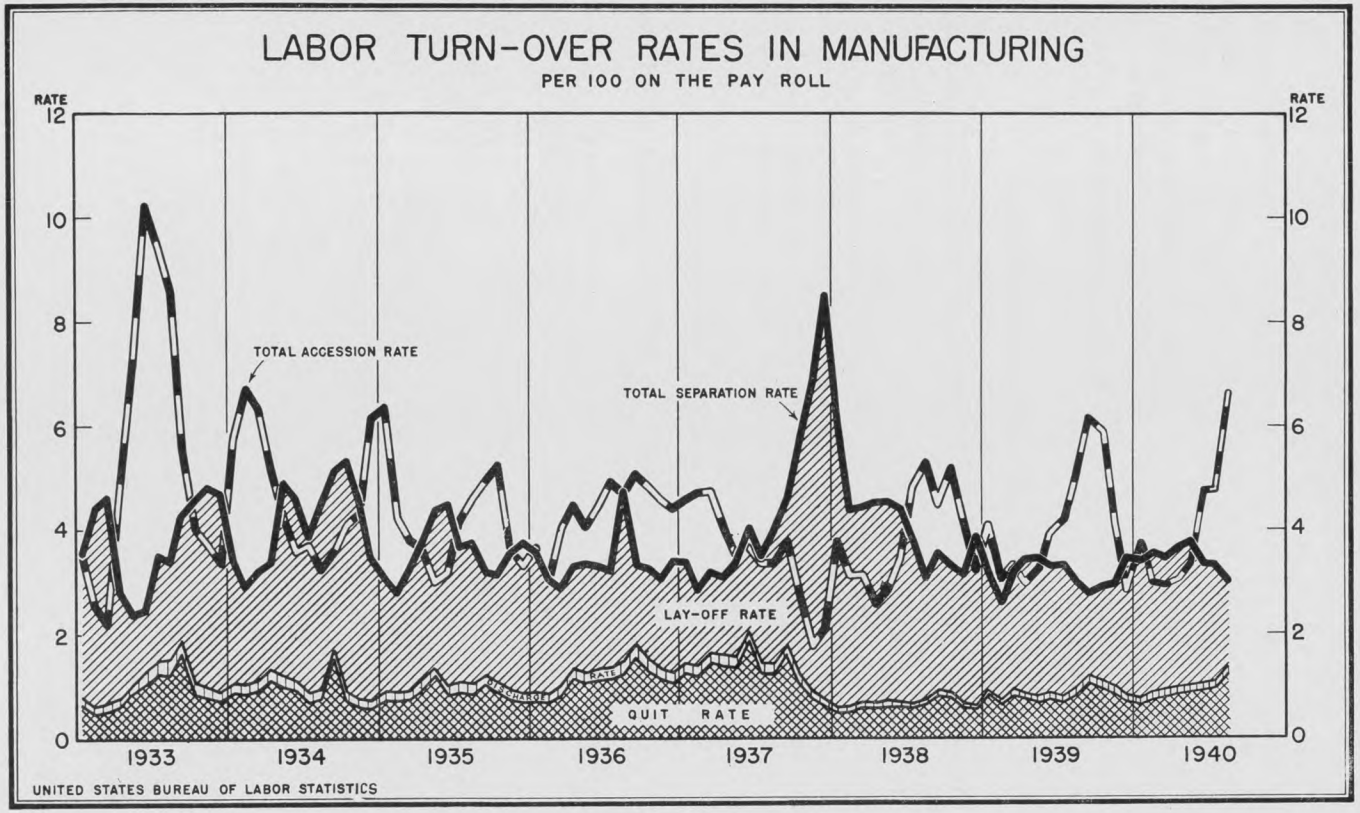
Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1940	0.63	0.62	0.67	0.74	0.77	0.78	0.85	1.10					
1939	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.02	0.93	0.83	0.69	0.79
Discharges:													
1940	.14	.16	.15	.13	.13	.14	.14	.16					
1939	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12	.13
Lay-offs: [2]													
1940	2.55	2.67	2.53	2.69	2.78	2.32	2.25	1.63					
1939	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65	2.22
Miscellaneous separations: [3]													
1940	.11	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.11	.11					
Total:													
1940	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.66	3.78	3.36	3.35	3.00					
1939	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46	3.14
Accessions: [4]													
Rehires 1940	1.96	1.26	1.38	1.42	1.49	2.06	1.94	3.04					
New hires 1940	1.78	1.72	1.56	1.63	1.87	2.70	2.83	3.59					
Total:													
1940	3.74	2.98	2.94	3.05	3.36	4.76	4.77	6.63					
1939	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84	4.07

[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.

[3] Beginning with January 1940, miscellaneous separations, such as deaths, permanently disabled, retired on pensions, etc., have been reported separately. Such separations were formerly reported under the classification "quits and miscellaneous separations."

[4] Beginning with January 1940, accessions have been separated into two classifications: rehires, which include workers hired after a separation of 3 months or less, and new hires, which include other employees hired.



proved working conditions, the sharp rise in the quit rate indicates an increasing demand for workers in manufacturing industries.

The decrease in the lay-off rate was, to a large extent, the result of the seasonal resumption of production in the automotive industries. Despite the decrease in the lay-off rate and the increase in the quit rate, the former was still the greater. No acute shortage of labor is implied by these figures, notwithstanding the high rate of accessions.

The total accession rate comprised a rehire rate of 3.04 and new-hire rate of 3.59 per 100 employees. The defense industries continued to show high accession rates of which a large percentage was new hirings.

Labor Turn-Over, by Industries

In addition to the rates for all industries combined, detailed labor turn-over data are available for 36 separate manufacturing industries.

It is significant that a substantial increase over the preceding month was shown in the number of industries in which the quit rate exceeded the lay-off rate. In most instances the difference was small and due mostly to an unusually low lay-off rate rather than a high quit rate, as in foundries and machine shops, registering a quit rate of 0.99 and a lay-off rate of 0.77; and iron and steel with a quit rate of 0.71 and a lay-off rate of 0.45 per 100 employees.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 36 Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939
	Agricultural implements			Aircraft			Automobiles and bodies		
Separations	2.27	2.90	10.87	3.76	3.57	4.60	3.42	22.79	6.37
Quits	.73	.50	.52	2.96	2.96	1.45	.77	.48	.61
Discharges	.08	.12	.13	.39	.44	.30	.07	.05	.08
Lay-offs	1.32	2.18	10.22	.30	.15	2.85	2.47	22.22	5.68
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.14	.10	-------	.11	.02	-------	.11	.04	-------
Accessions [3]	4.97	3.09	5.35	7.91	12.40	6.71	22.52	8.74	27.48
Rehirings	2.63	1.36	-------	.15	.15	-------	19.05	7.49	-------
New hirings	2.34	1.73	-------	7.76	12.25	-------	3.47	1.25	-------
	Automobile parts			Boots and shoes			Brass, bronze, and copper products		
Separations	3.33	9.45	3.29	2.81	1.96	2.86	2.56	1.74	1.08
Quits	1.18	.80	.66	.82	.72	.87	1.23	.79	.56
Discharges	.23	.25	.12	.15	.14	.15	.13	.07	.11
Lay-offs	1.80	8.33	2.51	1.74	1.05	1.84	1.15	.77	.41
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.12	.07	-------	.10	.05	-------	.05	.11	-------
Accessions [3]	19.19	9.10	16.65	2.72	4.43	2.19	5.94	5.58	4.31
Rehirings	9.20	5.74	-------	1.29	2.43	-------	.90	1.73	-------
New hirings	9.99	3.36	-------	1.43	2.00	-------	5.04	3.85	-------

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 36 Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Class of turn-over	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cast-iron pipe			Cement		
Separations	3.72	4.04	3.56	1.36	.55	2.58	1.84	2.18	2.64
Quits	1.36	.87	.77	.61	.40	.52	.31	.33	.37
Discharges	.15	.14	.34	.13	.08	.28	.10	.11	.09
Lay-offs	2.14	2.98	2.45	.59	.04	1.78	1.27	1.50	2.18
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.07	.05		.03	.03		.16	.24	
Accessions [3]	4.98	3.87	5.55	2.44	3.47	1.34	4.21	6.30	1.56
Rehirings	1.68	1.58		.08	.14		2.19	4.50	
New hirings	3.30	2.29		2.36	3.33		2.02	1.80	
	Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing			Dyeing and finishing textiles		
Separations	2.32	3.04	2.44	3.95	3.99	3.16	2.38	1.55	2.23
Quits	1.47	1.27	1.43	1.79	1.40	1.53	.87	.75	.92
Discharges	.10	.07	.23	.25	.17	.26	.31	.16	.19
Lay-offs	.54	1.58	.78	1.80	2.29	1.37	1.09	.52	1.12
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.21	.12		.11	.13		.11	.12	
Accessions [3]	6.69	1.93	6.25	5.50	4.32	4.49	4.49	3.41	2.96
Rehirings	1.33	.61		2.48	2.06		2.80	1.71	
New hirings	5.36	1.32		3.02	2.26		1.69	1.70	
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Separations	2.05	1.86	1.98	2.04	1.91	2.27	3.38	3.24	2.79
Quits	.87	.68	.75	.99	.71	.49	1.32	.97	.87
Discharges	.12	.10	.08	.19	.13	.10	.27	.23	.24
Lay-offs	.80	.90	1.15	.77	.99	1.68	1.71	1.95	1.68
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.26	.18		.09	.08		.08	.09	
Accessions [3]	5.51	4.75	3.85	5.07	3.88	3.12	5.05	5.11	5.62
Rehirings	1.55	1.71		1.03	1.04		1.44	2.14	
New hirings	3.96	3.04		4.04	2.84		3.61	2.97	
	Glass			Hardware			Iron and steel		
Separations	1.54	4.38	4.06	2.54	2.85	1.34	1.42	1.20	1.02
Quits	.73	.51	.36	1.62	1.29	.61	.71	.59	.40
Discharges	.11	.10	.27	.14	.08	.19	.08	.08	.06
Lay-offs	.66	3.63	3.43	.71	1.36	.54	.45	.38	.56
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.04	.14		.07	.12		.18	.15	
Accessions [3]	4.69	4.57	2.67	6.76	3.90	3.15	3.71	3.91	2.31
Rehirings	2.68	2.34		1.95	.90		.83	1.35	
New hirings	2.01	2.23		4.81	3.00		2.88	2.56	
	Knit goods			Machine tools			Men's clothing		
Separations	3.39	2.95	2.67	1.97	2.09	1.25	2.74	4.48	2.62
Quits	1.03	.84	1.00	1.54	1.28	.79	.95	.86	.86
Discharges	.11	.14	.14	.25	.54	.10	.14	.20	.12
Lay-offs	2.24	1.91	1.53	.10	.21	.36	1.57	3.35	1.64
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.01	.06		.08	.06		.08	.07	
Accessions [3]	4.14	3.17	2.94	4.20	3.05	3.35	6.00	6.18	3.43
Rehirings	2.04	1.83		.48	.16		2.56	4.34	
New hirings	2.10	1.34		3.72	2.89		3.44	1.84	

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 36 Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Class of turn-over	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939	August 1940	July 1940	August 1939
	Paints and varnishes			Paper and pulp			Petroleum refining		
Separations	1.69	1.92	1.76	2.13	1.46	1.75	1.63	1.44	2.52
Quits	.87	.75	.80	.96	.50	.64	.60	.40	.68
Discharges	.27	.25	.08	.18	.15	.10	.04	.05	.10
Lay-offs	.51	.85	.88	.81	.64	1.01	.87	.93	1.74
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.04	.07	-------	.18	.17	-------	.12	.06	-------
Accessions [3]	2.83	3.66	1.97	2.00	2.73	2.73	1.94	1.57	2.18
Rehirings	.77	1.15	-------	.52	.72	-------	.74	.37	-------
New hirings	2.06	2.51	-------	1.48	2.01	-------	1.20	1.20	-------
	Printing and publishing						Radios and phonographs		
	Book and job			Newspapers					
Separations	3.41	3.65	4.48	1.54	1.96	1.83	2.83	2.87	5.55
Quits	.67	.50	.43	.41	.44	.39	1.86	1.66	2.25
Discharges	.18	.06	.14	.06	.02	.09	.24	.13	.32
Lay-offs	2.51	3.02	3.91	1.02	1.45	1.35	.57	1.05	2.98
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.05	.07	-------	.05	.05	-------	.16	.03	-------
Accessions [3]	5.56	3.74	4.15	2.65	1.26	2.47	8.84	8.87	8.16
Rehirings	2.57	1.82	-------	1.09	.66	-------	1.31	2.48	-------
New hirings	2.99	1.92	-------	1.56	.60	-------	7.53	6.39	-------
	Rayon and allied products			Rubber boots and shoes			Rubber tires		
Separations	1.26	1.29	1.24	1.95	1.99	2.54	1.47	2.59	1.39
Quits	.65	.59	.65	.92	.85	.85	.53	.42	.48
Discharges	.10	.11	.14	.09	.07	.08	.04	.04	.05
Lay-offs	.50	.56	.45	.56	.87	1.61	.83	2.00	.86
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.01	.03	-------	.38	.20	-------	.07	.13	-------
Accessions [3]	2.88	2.39	2.41	5.12	3.01	4.08	4.12	2.84	3.47
Rehirings	.80	.56	-------	1.73	1.76	-------	1.64	.96	-------
New hirings	2.08	1.83	-------	3.39	1.25	-------	2.48	1.88	-------
	Sawmills			Shipbuilding			Silk and rayon		
Separations	3.20	2.97	4.59	7.21	5.40	5.02	5.13	2.68	5.15
Quits	1.83	1.26	1.48	1.29	1.14	.78	1.08	.77	1.13
Discharges	.15	.17	.18	.39	.48	.07	.18	.13	.14
Lay-offs	1.18	1.45	2.93	5.46	3.71	4.17	3.81	1.70	3.88
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.04	.09	-------	.07	.07	-------	.06	.08	-------
Accessions [3]	7.17	5.75	5.93	9.19	13.00	5.36	4.63	7.01	4.74
Rehirings	2.68	2.15	-------	1.78	1.86	-------	2.15	4.20	-------
New hirings	4.49	3.60	-------	7.41	11.14	-------	2.48	2.81	-------
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Steam and hot-water heating apparatus			Woolen and worsted goods		
Separations	9.02	7.02	6.55	2.47	1.70	2.06	6.24	3.69	7.54
Quits	.86	.61	.53	1.48	.96	.95	1.40	1.24	1.14
Discharges	.19	.15	.16	.29	.18	.13	.23	.10	.20
Lay-offs	7.72	6.07	5.86	.65	.46	.98	4.41	2.23	6.20
Miscellaneous separations [2]	.25	.19	-------	.05	.10	-------	.20	.12	-------
Accessions [3]	6.42	7.41	5.96	6.77	6.75	3.49	8.15	8.49	3.80
Rehirings	4.95	4.38	-------	.22	1.05	-------	3.37	2.35	-------
New hirings	1.47	3.03	-------	6.55	5.70	-------	4.78	6.14	-------

[1] No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.
[2] Prior to January 1940, miscellaneous separations were included with "quits."
[3] No break-down of accessions prior to January 1940.

Industrial Production

NEW FEDERAL RESERVE INDEX OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION [1]

THE Federal Reserve Board index of industrial production is a revision designed to provide a broader and more accurate measure of current changes in the physical volume of industrial output. Over a long term of years the revised index indicates that the growth in industrial output of manufactures and minerals has been greater than was apparent from the series previously in use. From 1919 to 1939, the new index shows a 50-percent rise in production, as compared with a 27-percent increase formerly shown for the same period. From 1929 to June 1940, the increase now indicated amounts to 10 percent, while the old index declined 5 percent over this period.

Factors in the Change

Two factors are important in accounting for the differences in rate of expansion between the present index and that which was formerly issued by the Board. In making the revision, weights were given to production in new and rapidly expanding industries which were not previously included, and adjustment was also made for growth in certain other industries which were formerly included in the index but with relatively less weight. In addition, the new index is more adequately weighted for nondurable-goods industries. These industries have contributed most heavily and consistently to national output, not being subject to the extreme fluctuations which characterize durable-goods production.

Typical nondurable manufactures included in the index for the first time are chemicals, rayon textiles, alcoholic beverages, dairy products and certain other manufactured foods. Data for pulp and paper production were improved. However, production of certain important durable goods was also included for the first time, notably machinery and furniture. Special upward adjustments were likewise made for nonferrous-metal products and for stone, clay, and

[1] Sources: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, new Federal Reserve Index of Industrial Production (reprinted from Federal Reserve Bulletin, August 1940); General Indexes of Business Activity, by Frank R. Garfield (reprinted from Federal Reserve Bulletin, June 1940); Measurement of Production, by Woodlief Thomas and Maxwell R. Conklin (reprinted from Federal Reserve Bulletin, September 1940); and Federal Reserve Bulletin, September 1940.

glass products, to allow for the long-term movements of industries not directly represented in these groups.

Recent trends in manufacturing necessitated a relatively heavier weighting for nondurable than for durable goods. In recent years the standard of living has tended to rise, bringing about a growing demand for nondurable consumer goods. The demand for durable goods, especially in the field of capital goods, has not kept pace. This, of course, has been partly the result of the condition of business, as during the years of depression new investment in capital goods was at a minimum. But the major causes are of a more permanent nature. Owing to the slackening in the rate of population increase and in the growth of cities and new communities, the need for new durable capital goods is likely to be reduced relatively. Another important factor is the improvement in plant facilities and in methods of using them, making for longer usefulness and greater efficiency. For example, machines are being made of better steel; through careful design less material is required per unit; and the more efficient grouping of machines, coordination of processes, and management of labor have brought about important economies in the use of capital goods.

Production incident to the rearmament program will bring about a considerable increase in durable-goods production for several years to come. The effect of Government orders is already resulting in record expansion in the metals industries and in machine and airplane production. Temporarily, activity in the durable-goods industries will be at a high level, but once the country is fully equipped from a military standpoint the tendencies already mentioned are likely to reappear.

Index of Production

The revised index numbers of industrial production are shown in table 1 for specified years 1919 to 1939 and, adjusted for seasonal variation, for June 1939 and June 1940. The indexes are given for industrial production as a whole, and separately for production of manufactures, durable and nondurable goods, and minerals.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Industrial Production, 1919 to June 1940*

[Average 1935–39=100]

Item	1919	1923	1929	1932	1937	1939	June 1939 (adjusted for seasonal variation)	June 1940 (adjusted for seasonal variation)
Industrial production	72	88	110	58	113	108	102	121
Manufactures	72	86	110	57	113	108	102	121
Durable goods	84	104	133	41	122	108	97	131
Nondurable goods	62	72	93	70	106	108	106	114
Minerals	71	98	107	66	112	106	105	118

The indexes of industrial production and manufactures rose from 110 in 1929 to 113 in 1937. In this period there was an increase from 93 to 106 in the nondurable-goods index, and from 107 to 112 for minerals; the index for durable goods declined from 133 to 122. In 1939, the indexes for each of the separate groups was 108, except for minerals which had an index of 106. Adjusting for seasonal variation, the indexes for June 1939 and June 1940 show the effects of the recent rise in industrial activity. For industrial production as a whole and for manufactures, the indexes increased from 102 to 121 in this 1-year period, or by 19 percent. The greatest relative increase, about 35 percent, was for durable goods; for nondurable goods it amounted to 8 percent; and for minerals 12 percent.

Many of the consumption-goods industries had an especially marked expansion in production from 1929 to 1939. This is shown in table 2, which gives the index numbers on the new base for selected industries as of 1929, 1932, 1937, and 1939 and, adjusted for seasonal variation, as of June 1939 and June 1940.

These increases are particularly significant in their bearing on the improved condition of wage earners as the largest group of consumers and on the shift of emphasis from capital goods to consumption goods in the maintenance of employment and business activity.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Industrial Production in Selected Industries, 1929 to June 1940*

[Average 1935–39=100]

Industry	1929	1932	1937	1939	June 1939 (adjusted for seasonal variation)	June 1940 (adjusted for seasonal variation)
Glass-container production	75	59	114	110	113	111
Textile-fabric production	101	75	106	110	105	102
Cotton consumption	105	75	111	110	106	112
Rayon deliveries	42	46	97	129	131	144
Silk deliveries	148	131	103	91	81	56
Wool-textile production	97	60	103	108	104	89
Carpet-wool consumption	120	43	111	108	85	79
Apparel-wool consumption	90	67	98	104	108	88
Woolen-yarn production	96	60	104	98	95	92
Worsted-yarn production	93	68	97	119	114	93
Woolen and worsted cloth production	91	63	104	112	112	89
Shoe production	89	77	102	105	105	100
Manufactured-food production	101	79	103	108	108	115
Wheat-flour production	114	100	99	104	105	98
Cane-sugar meltings	120	94	106	98	93	112
Ice-cream production	103	61	109	110	109	----
Butter production	96	101	96	104	103	105
Cheese production	73	73	98	103	104	110
Canned and dried milk production	82	76	99	108	104	117
Meat packing	115	108	94	112	109	126
Pork and lard production	143	133	90	124	120	152
Beef production	88	81	97	99	98	101
Veal production	74	74	110	91	89	91
Lamb and mutton production	78	98	98	100	94	99
Tobacco-products production	96	79	103	106	108	115
Cigar production	131	89	104	103	103	98
Cigarette production	76	66	103	110	113	127
Manufactured tobacco and snuff production	110	102	99	100	101	99
Paper-pulp production	81	61	111	116	106	159
Paper production	92	67	107	113	103	128
Printing-paper production	101	69	111	112	103	135
Paperboard-container production	65	59	105	118	111	128
Newsprint consumption	107	79	107	99	98	106
Gasoline production	81	73	105	111	110	110
Kerosene production	90	71	105	110	109	116
Tire and tube production	135	77	104	111	111	126
Anthracite production	144	98	101	101	89	113

In many of these industries, production increased at a much more rapid rate than the population during the past decade. According to preliminary census returns for 1940, the population was 7 percent above the level of 1930. In contrast, the index for rayon deliveries rose over 200 percent from 1929 to 1939, and that for paperboard containers by nearly 82 percent. There were increases of between 40 and 50 percent in the indexes for glass containers, cheese, cigarettes, and pulp production. A rise of 30 to 40 percent occurred in the same period for gasoline and for canned- and dried-milk production. The groups with a 20 to 30 percent increase consist of worsted yarn, woolen and worsted cloth, veal, lamb, and mutton, and kerosene.

A number of industries showed decreases in production from 1929 to 1939, as, for example, anthracite, cigars, and silk. Compensatory increases occurred in the production of substitute products—notably, fuel oil and gas, cigarettes, and rayon. Tire and tube production declined, a decrease largely attributable to the greater wearing qualities of the new product.

Changes and Methods

Both the earlier Federal Reserve Board index of industrial production (based on 1923–25 as 100) and the current series (based on 1935–39 as 100) show the same major cyclical movements in timing and degree of change. The new index, however, reflects less erratic short-term changes and month-to-month fluctuations, owing largely to a more complete coverage of the more stable nondurable-goods industries and to the inclusion of new series for products representing the more advanced stages of manufacture. As no method has been found to take into account the qualitative changes, the new index continues to understate the total increase in production in the industries.

Differences between the two indexes for recent years are not great as the old index showed an average of 99 for the period 1935–39, which years form the base of 100 in the new series. As already stated, the long-term changes are much greater under the new system of computation than under the old.

The years 1935–39 were chosen as a base because a period more recent than 1923–25 was considered desirable, and business was neither at an abnormally high nor low level in those years. The base period was lengthened from 3 to 5 years in an effort to average out variations which might be reflected in a shorter period. No revisions were made in the index for the years 1919–22 and the earlier combined index of industrial production was linked to the new series by means of the 1923 ratio. Two sets of indexes were computed—one with and one without seasonal adjustment.

In the construction of the new production index, 81 individual series distributed among 16 groups of manufacturing industries and 2

groups of mining industries were used, as compared with only 60 series in the previous index. Of the 81 series, 23 were included for the first time, 28 were revised, and 30 were approximately the same as when used earlier. Some individual series are based on statistics of monthly output of finished products, while others, such as the series on consumption or shipments of materials, machinery-hours active, or man-hours worked, more or less directly represent productive activity of individual industries or groups of industries.

A large part of the work of revision was devoted to individual series. The development of production estimates by compiling series on man-hours worked and adjusting them for changes in output per man-hour was a major task. An important reason for this was the lack of comparable physical production units for measuring current changes in output. By using this method it was possible to include such important industries as machinery, furniture, chemicals, baking, and canning, which had not previously been included in most monthly production indexes, and also to obtain a better measure of monthly output for the locomotive, railroad-car, and shipbuilding industries than could be obtained from other current statistics on these industries. An allowance similar to that for man-hour output was made in the series representing production of woolen yarn, worsted yarn, and woolen and worsted cloth. The underlying figures relate to active spindle and loom hours and an adjustment was made to allow for long-term changes in the efficiency of the looms and spindles in use.

In compiling the composite index of industrial production, the importance of individual series of manufactures was measured by the value added by manufacture as shown in census reports. For minerals the value of product was used. Classification of manufactured products was also based on the census usage. The broad grouping of manufactures as to durability is approximately the same as that used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in classifying employment data. Minerals are not classified as to durability but are divided into fuel and metal groups.

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

WHITE-COLLAR WORKER EXEMPTIONS UNDER WAGE AND HOUR LAW [1]

CLASSIFICATIONS of white-collar employees who need not be paid overtime after 40 hours a week were redefined on October 14, 1940, in amended regulations affecting almost all interstate commerce establishments, by the Administrator of the wage and hour law. The regulations became effective October 24, 1940, the same day on which the standard workweek under the Fair Labor Standards Act became 40 hours. These regulations are not retroactive.

A separate definition was issued for "administrative" employee, heretofore defined together with "executive." An executive as defined remains one whose primary duty consists in management and who, among other qualifications, gets $30 a week or more. Administrative employees are more broadly defined in the new regulations to include those whose duties, while important and associated with management, are functional rather than supervisory, and who are paid "a salary commensurate with the importance supposedly accorded the duties in question." The regulations require that such a salary be not less than $200 a month.

Protection for the typical white-collar worker from inconsiderate exploitation as to his or her working hours will continue. These workers will also continue to have the protection of section 6 requiring that they be paid at least $12 for a 40-hour week, and in certain industries operating under wage orders establishing various higher minima, at least $13, $14, or $16 a week.

The provision in the original definition for executive which caused more questions than any other was the requirement that an executive do no substantial amount of the work done by his subordinates. The new regulations define "substantial" as meaning more than 20 percent on an hourly basis. Thus, a foreman listed on the pay-roll records as exempt from overtime because he comes under the "executive" definition, whose subordinates work 40 hours a week may work 8 hours at the same kind of work. More than 8 hours of such work would make him a working foreman and legally necessitate payment of at least time and a half his regular rate for his work in excess of 40

[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press release No. R. 1090.

hours a week. Most representatives of industry at the four hearings were in agreement that the working foreman should be paid overtime.

The definition for an employee employed in a "professional" capacity and thereby exempt from overtime requirements has been broadened by including the artistic professions and narrowed by the requirement that the "professional" employee exempt from overtime requirements must be paid $200 a month or more. The $200 salary requirement does not apply to licensed members of the legal and medical professions. Under the regulations, there is no legal obligation to pay graduate chemists, engineers, etc., $200 a month. But if they are not paid $200 a month, they must be paid time and a half for all work over 40 hours a week.

The definition of "outside salesman" is broadened to exempt from minimum-wage and overtime-pay requirements "driver-salesmen." It is further amended to assure the exemption of advertising solicitors selling publication and radio advertising contracts, and freight solicitors.

The amended regulations make one change in the definition of "employees employed in a local retailing capacity." The phrase, "who does no substantial amount of work of the same nature as that performed by nonexempt employees," occurs in the original definition. The amended definition substitutes for "no substantial amount of work" the words "whose hours of work * * * do not exceed 20 percent of the number of hours worked in the workweek by * * * nonexempt employees."

CHANGE IN LEARNER REGULATIONS UNDER WAGE AND HOUR LAW[1]

REGULATIONS governing the employment of learners in industries subject to the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act were modified on August 2, 1940, by the Administrator. The changes were based on experience in administering the previous regulations relating to the employment of learners at rates of pay below the statutory minimum prescribed by the terms of the legislation.[2] Under both sets of regulations public hearings are provided for in order that employers and employees may present their cases.

An important change deals with the employment of learners by employers in industries for which no industry regulations are in effect. The Administrator may, upon receipt of an application for such an exemption or for the employment of learners in excess of the number or percentage allowed by an industry regulation, deny the application

[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press releases Nos. 943 and 948.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review for September 1940 for a statement on these regulations.

if it is unwarranted or issue a special certificate immediately if the facts disclose that this is justified. No special certificate may be applied to more than one plant.

The new regulations stipulate that when a certificate authorizing the employment of learners is canceled, on the ground that it is not necessary to prevent curtailment of opportunities for employment, learners having jobs under the certificate will be permitted to finish their learning period. This plan is described by the Administrator as fairer to both employer and worker than it would be to remove the learner from the subminimum classification at once. Certificates canceled for cause by the employer are made ineffective as of the date of issue, if the certificate was obtained through fraud or misrepresentation, and otherwise as of the date of the first violation on the pay-roll records of the employer.

Employers who are deprived of certificates or whose applications are denied may petition for a reconsideration of their cases. Application may be made to the authorized representative of the Administrator; or a petition may be made for review of the decision by the Administrator or an authorized representative who has taken no part in the action which is the subject of review. Either of the latter officials may examine the petition.

Findings and learner regulations issued for 10 industries, by the Administrator or his authorized representative, and dealing with the employment of learners and their wages, are shown below. As more wage orders are made, it is probable that additional findings and regulations will be issued setting forth the terms and provisions governing the employment of learners in a particular industry.

(a) Industry	(b) Length of learning period [1]	(c) Wages during learning period	(d) Occupations covered by learner exemption	(e) Percent or number of learners allowed [2]
Seamless hosiery (Regular minimum — 32½ cents.)	480 hours—knitting, except transfer-top knitting; seaming; topping; boarding; pairing; folding; examining and inspecting; mending; welting. 960 hours—transfer-top knitting; looping.	22½ cents—480-hour occupations. 22½ cents for first 480 hours and 27½ cents for second 480 hours, 960-hour occupations—piece-rate basis. 22½ cents for first 480 hours and 29 cents for second 480 hours, 960-hour occupations, hourly rate basis.	See column (b)	5 percent of the total number of factory workers or up to 5 where the number of such workers is less than 100.
Full-fashioned hosiery (Regular minimum—40 cents.)	480 hours—boarding; pairing; folding; examining and inspecting; mending. 960 hours—knitting; looping; seaming; topping.	25 cents—480-hour occupations. 25 cents for first 480 hours and 30 cents if piece-rate basis or 35 cents if hourly rate basis for second 480 hours.	do	Do.
Apparel (Regular minima vary from 32½ cents to 40 cents, according to division of the industry.)	320 hours; retraining period of 160 hours if experienced worker is transferred to another division of the industry.	Not less than 75 percent of the minimum regularly applicable under the Administrator's wage orders for the industry.	Machine operating (except cutting); pressing; hand sewing.	Do.
Knitwear (Regular minima of 33½ cents for knitted underwear and 35 cents for knitted outerwear.)	480 hours—machine knitter. 320 hours—machine stitcher; presser. 240 hours—winder; dyeing-machine operator; brush-machine operator; dryer operator.	Not less than 25 cents per hour.	See column (b)	Do.
Textiles [3] (Regular minimum — 32½ cents.)	6 weeks except in silk-throwing branch, where it shall be 12 weeks; 8 weeks for chenille operating and 16 weeks for punchwork operating, in tufted-bedspread branch.	do	Machine operating, tending, fixing, and jobs immediately incidental thereto; punchwork and chenille operations in tufted-bedspread branch.	3 percent of the total number of workers engaged in the occupations noted in column (d), except for the tufted-bedspread branch, where 5 percent is allowed. Up to 3 or 5 where the number of workers in learner occupations is less than 100.
Gloves (Regular minima of 32½ cents for work gloves and mittens and 35 cents for other kinds of gloves.)	480 hours	do	Hand- and machine-stitching operations on leather dress gloves; machine stitching on knit fabric or work gloves; finger knitting and finger closing on knit wool gloves.	5 percent of the total number of workers engaged in the occupations noted in column (d) or up to 5 where the number of such workers is less than 100.

See footnotes at end of table.

Regulations on Employment of Learners at Subminimum Rates Under Section 14 of Fair Labor Standards Act—Continued

(a) Industry	(b) Length of learning period [1]	(c) Wages during learning period	(d) Occupations covered by learner exemption	(e) Percent or number of learners allowed [2]
Independent telephone (Regular minimum—30 cents.)	320 hours	Not less than 25 cents per hour.	Commercial switchboard operating.	1 where employment of operators is up to 8 persons; 2 from 9–18; 3 from 19–30; 4 from 31–44; and 1 additional for each added 15 operators employed.
Millinery (Regular minimum—40 cents.)	240 hours—trimming or stitching of straw or fabric, popular-priced branch. 1 year—makers in the custom-made branch.	Not less than 35 cents per hour in trimming or 30 cents per hour in stitching (straw or fabric operating). In custom-made branch, 30 cents for the first 6 months and 35 cents for the second 6 months.	Trimming; straw or fabric operating (stitching)—popular-priced branch. Making—custom-made branch.	Not in excess of 10 percent of the straw or fabric operators and 5 percent of the trimmers currently employed, or 10 percent and 5 percent of the largest number of operators and trimmers employed during the same season of the previous year, whichever number is larger—popular-priced branch. Not in excess of 10 percent of makers currently employed or 10 percent of the average number employed during the previous year, whichever number is larger.
Artificial flowers (Regular minimum—35 cents.)	160 hours	Not less than 75 percent of the minimum regularly applicable under the Administrator's wage order.	Flower-making, including slipping-up, heading, tying, pasting, rosemaking, branching, and stemming.	Not in excess of 15 percent of the number of flower-makers employed in the plant except that where the number of flower-makers employed is 6 or less, 2 learners may be employed; 7–14, 3 learners may be employed; 15–19, 4 learners may be employed; 20–29, 5 learners may be employed; 30 or over, 5 learners may be employed or 15 percent of the flower-makers employed whichever is larger.
Woolen (Regular minimum—36 cents.)	320 hours—mule piecer; drawer-in; percher; gill box tender; drawing machine tender; cap spinner; ring spinner; twister; spooler; sewer. 24 hours—chain builder; burler; drop wire hand; winder; reeler.	Not less than 30 cents per hour.	See column (b)	3 percent of the total number of production workers (not including maintenance, supervisory, shipping, and clerical personnel).

[1] In some instances in hosiery (both branches) experienced workers in 1 occupation may be retrained as learners in another occupation for a retraining period of 480 hours. See sections 522.023 and 522.024 of the hosiery learner regulations.

[2] Learners in excess of the number or percentage here given may be permitted under unusual circumstances, such as the expansion of an existing plant, the opening of a new plant, or the necessity of increased production because of the National Defense Program. This has particular reference to all of the industries here listed excepting independent telephone, millinery, and artificial flowers.

[3] Regulations now being revised with slight changes to be made.

EARNINGS IN GRAY-IRON AND MALLEABLE-IRON FOUNDRIES, 1938–39 [1]

DURING the latter part of 1938 and the early months of 1939, hourly earnings of all male workers in gray-iron foundries averaged 67.1 cents, according to findings in a study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Weekly hours averaged 35.0 and the average weekly earnings amounted to $23.44. Male workers in malleable-iron foundries, on the other hand, had average hourly earnings of 68.9 cents and average weekly hours and earnings of 35.4 and $24.37 respectively.

An important factor in the wage structure of the foundry industry is the predominance of males in the labor force. Virtually the entire personnel in gray-iron foundries, 99.7 percent, consists of men. Of these males, about two-fifths (39 percent) were classed as skilled, 24 percent as semiskilled, and 37 percent as unskilled. There is also a heavy concentration of gray-iron foundries in the high-wage industrial areas. In malleable-iron foundries, also, the labor force was composed almost entirely of men. Of these males, 35.8 percent were classed as skilled, 25.9 percent as semiskilled, and 38.3 percent as unskilled. All of this branch of the foundry industry is in the northern States, and race is not a factor of importance in accounting for differences in hourly earnings.

Classified Hourly Earnings

Of the 36,749 male workers in gray-iron foundries covered by the study, only 7.7 percent had hourly earnings of less than 40 cents, and about one-fourth (26.8 percent) of the total earned less than 52.5 cents an hour (table 1). In contrast, there was a fairly substantial number of employees in the higher wage brackets, 23.9 percent earning 82.5 cents or more and 9.5 percent with earnings of $1 or more an hour.

An outstanding feature of the wage structure in malleable-iron foundries is the small proportion of workers in the low-wage brackets. Of the 6,157 males covered, only 0.7 percent had earnings of less than 40 cents an hour. By contrast, 4.9 percent had hourly earnings of $1 or more. Two-thirds (65.1 percent) of all male workers had

[1] Prepared by O. R. Mann and D. L. Helm, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

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hourly earnings concentrated within the comparatively narrow range of 52.5 and under 82.5 cents.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Foundry Workers According to Average Hourly Earnings, by Sex and Skill, 1938 and 1939* [1]

GRAY-IRON FOUNDRIES

Average hourly earnings	All workers			Skilled male workers	Semi-skilled male workers	Unskilled male workers
	Total	Males	Females			
Under 22.5 cents	0.1	0.1			(2)	0.2
22.5 and under 25.0 cents	(2)	(2)		(2)	(2)	(2)
25.0 and under 27.5 cents	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.1	0.5	2.3
27.5 and under 30.0 cents	.6	.6		.1	.2	1.3
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	1.3	1.3	1.1	.1	1.2	2.5
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	2.2	2.2	1.1	.1	1.1	5.1
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	1.3	1.3	4.3	.2	1.5	2.4
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	1.3	1.2	4.3	.3	1.2	2.3
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	3.1	3.1	3.2	.5	3.1	6.0
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	6.7	6.7	13.7	1.3	7.4	12.0
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	9.3	9.3	10.6	2.3	10.2	16.0
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	9.8	9.8	10.6	3.3	12.4	14.9
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	10.0	10.0	9.5	5.2	14.7	11.8
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	9.2	9.3	10.6	6.9	13.9	8.7
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	8.1	8.1	8.5	9.3	10.6	5.2
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	6.6	6.6	8.5	9.2	7.5	3.1
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	5.5	5.5	1.1	9.4	4.8	1.9
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	5.1	5.1	4.3	9.6	3.5	1.5
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	4.0	4.0	2.1	8.2	2.1	.9
92.5 and under 97.5 cents	3.9	3.9	2.1	8.5	1.3	.7
97.5 and under 100.0 cents	1.4	1.4		2.9	.6	.3
100.0 and under 105.0 cents	3.7	3.7	1.1	8.6	.9	.5
105.0 and under 110.0 cents	2.3	2.3	1.1	5.3	.5	.2
110.0 and under 115.0 cents	1.6	1.6	1.1	3.8	.4	.2
115.0 and under 120.0 cents	.7	.7		1.7	.3	(2)
120.0 and under 125.0 cents	.4	.4		1.0	.1	(2)
125.0 and under 130.0 cents	.3	.3		.7	(2)	(2)
130.0 and under 135.0 cents	.2	.2		.5	(2)	
135.0 and under 140.0 cents	.1	.1		.3	(2)	(2)
140.0 and under 150.0 cents	.1	.1		.3	(2)	(2)
150.0 and under 160.0 cents	.1	.1		.2		
160.0 cents and over	(2)	(2)		.1		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	36,843	36,749	94	14,419	8,743	13,587
Average hourly earnings	$0.670	$0.671	$0.583	$0.834	$0.620	$0.553

MALLEABLE-IRON FOUNDRIES

25.0 and under 27.5 cents	0.2	0.2				0.5
27.5 and under 30.0 cents						
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	.1	.1	0.4			.2
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	.1		2.9			
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	.4	.2	4.5	0.1	0.1	.4
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	.3	.2	4.1	.1	.2	.2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	1.7	1.6	3.7	.2	1.1	3.3
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	4.0	3.7	9.8	.5	3.5	6.9
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	9.2	8.8	19.0	2.4	9.2	14.4
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	13.3	13.3	13.9	3.9	15.8	20.5
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	14.7	14.6	16.8	6.8	16.9	20.4
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	10.7	10.7	10.2	10.0	13.1	9.7
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	10.2	10.3	7.0	12.1	11.9	7.6
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	8.5	8.7	4.9	11.7	10.7	4.4
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	7.2	7.5	1.2	12.5	6.0	3.9
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	5.9	6.1	.4	11.2	4.1	2.8
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	4.6	4.8	.4	8.9	2.8	2.3
92.5 and under 97.5 cents	2.9	3.0	.4	5.4	1.8	1.5
97.5 and under 100.0 cents	1.2	1.3		2.3	1.1	.5
100.0 and under 105.0 cents	1.9	2.0		4.5	1.0	.3

[1] Preliminary data, subject to revision.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Foundry Workers According to Average Hourly Earnings, by Sex and Skill, 1938 and 1939*—Continued

MALLEABLE-IRON FOUNDRIES—Continued

Average hourly earnings	All workers			Skilled male workers	Semi-skilled male workers	Unskilled male workers
	Total	Males	Females			
105.0 and under 110.0 cents	1.0	1.0	0.4	2.4	0.2	0.2
110.0 and under 115.0 cents	.6	.6	----	1.6	.2	(2)
115.0 and under 120.0 cents	.4	.4	----	1.0	----	----
120.0 and under 125.0 cents	.3	.3	----	.7	.2	(2)
125.0 and under 130.0 cents	.2	.2	----	.4	.1	----
130.0 and under 135.0 cents	.1	.1	----	.4	----	----
135.0 and under 140.0 cents	.1	.1	----	.4	----	----
140.0 and under 150.0 cents	.2	.2	----	.5	----	----
150.0 and under 160.0 cents	(2)	(2)	----	(2)	----	----
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	6,401	6,157	244	2,205	1,592	2,360
Average hourly earnings	$0.684	$0.689	$0.556	$0.804	$0.657	$0.605

[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Geographical Variations

In gray-iron foundries, as in many other branches of productive activity, there are pronounced geographical differences in hourly earnings. Against an average of 80.4 cents for all gray-iron foundry employees (table 2) in the State of Washington, those in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina averaged 41.8 cents. In any geographical comparison in this industry, however, the factor of race should be considered. In the northern States, colored workers are found in all of the skill classifications, whereas in the South, the colored workers are confined almost entirely to the unskilled group.

Hours and Earnings by Occupation

Hourly earnings in gray-iron foundries are dependent to a large extent on the specific occupations of the individual employees. The skilled occupations, with but few exceptions, had average hourly earnings ranging between 80 and 90 cents. These occupations were made up of such skilled craftsmen as molders, pattern makers, core makers, etc. Most of the semiskilled occupations had average hourly earnings of between 53.9 cents (the average for apprentices) and 65 cents. Among the unskilled jobs, consisting mostly of various types of foundry labor, the range was from 41.8 cents for watchmen to 60.3 cents for core-oven tenders.

By far the greatest proportion of the few females employed in gray-iron foundries held semiskilled jobs. The average hourly earnings of all females were 58.3 cents, and their weekly earnings amounted to $18.69 for an average workweek of 32.1 hours.

Skilled workers in malleable-iron foundries had average hourly earnings of 80.4 cents, with most of the occupational averages coming within the narrow range of 75 to 85 cents an hour. Semiskilled workers in malleable-iron foundries averaged 65.7 cents an hour and the unskilled workers had an hourly average of 60.5 cents. Of the few females employed, about two-thirds were in semiskilled jobs and the remainder were unskilled. Hourly earnings of all females averaged 55.6 cents. Their average workweek was 33.4 hours, with average weekly earnings of $18.55.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Foundry Workers, by State, 1938 and 1939* [1]

State	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
Gray-iron foundries				
United States	36,843	$0.670	35.0	$23.43
Alabama	1,605	.485	30.9	14.98
Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi	120	.458	43.4	19.88
California	834	.803	35.9	28.81
Colorado and Utah	196	.628	39.7	24.94
Connecticut	953	.669	34.9	23.33
Delaware and Maryland	460	.560	32.9	18.42
Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina	442	.418	38.3	15.99
Illinois	3,119	.762	34.3	26.18
Indiana	927	.652	37.8	24.63
Iowa	1,128	.738	37.7	27.80
Kansas and Nebraska	189	.525	33.6	17.67
Kentucky	682	.670	34.0	22.76
Maine	181	.644	26.2	16.88
Massachusetts	2,128	.706	35.8	25.28
Michigan	1,168	.654	36.4	23.81
Minnesota	390	.774	36.5	28.26
Missouri	749	.641	37.4	23.93
New Hampshire and Vermont	275	.669	32.6	21.83
New Jersey	2,192	.652	34.8	22.71
New York	3,030	.711	32.6	23.17
Gray-iron foundries—Continued				
North Carolina	602	$0.435	38.7	$16.85
Ohio	5,648	.696	36.0	25.08
Oklahoma	130	.574	33.1	18.98
Oregon	127	.781	35.9	27.99
Pennsylvania	4,985	.666	33.0	21.97
Rhode Island	336	.652	33.8	22.05
Tennessee	418	.529	35.1	18.55
Texas	556	.496	35.8	17.77
Virginia	535	.515	34.8	17.91
Washington	456	.804	33.7	27.14
West Virginia	263	.624	38.7	24.13
Wisconsin	2,019	.725	37.6	27.25
Malleable-iron foundries				
United States	6,401	.684	35.3	24.14
Connecticut and Rhode Island	492	.612	32.3	19.78
Illinois	1,205	.707	33.6	23.74
Indiana	442	.663	37.8	25.02
New Jersey and New York	631	.659	34.4	22.67
Ohio	1,202	.727	35.5	25.82
Pennsylvania	763	.655	35.8	23.43
Wisconsin	1,011	.746	38.0	28.33
Other States [2]	655	.581	34.9	20.29

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.
[2] Includes Delaware, Iowa, Minnesota, New Hampshire, and West Virginia.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Foundry Workers, by Occupation, Sex, and Skill, 1938 and 1939* [1]

GRAY-IRON FOUNDRIES

Occupation, sex, and skill	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
Males				
All occupations	36,749	$0.671	35.0	$23.44
Skilled workers	14,419	.834	34.3	28.66
Core makers, skilled	2,165	.847	34.5	29.24
Foremen, working, skilled	816	.924	40.4	37.33
Maintenance and repairmen, skilled	295	.775	39.5	30.59
Millwrights	122	.778	41.7	32.48
Miscellaneous skilled workers, direct	116	.869	36.8	32.03
Miscellaneous skilled workers, indirect	35	.900	40.0	36.03
Molders, hand, bench	2,446	.796	32.5	25.86
Molders, hand, floor	4,614	.818	32.5	26.57
Molders, machine, skilled	2,224	.840	34.2	28.73
Molders, nonferrous	58	.818	36.3	29.72
Pattern makers, metal	291	.836	38.7	32.31
Pattern makers, wood	1,142	.893	37.5	33.51
Welders and burners	95	.692	37.2	25.76
Semiskilled workers	8,743	.620	36.1	22.38
Apprentices, foundry	1,064	.539	35.0	18.86
Carpenters, flask	316	.641	36.5	23.39
Chippers	1,543	.588	34.9	20.51
Core makers, semiskilled	505	.618	35.1	21.66
Core pasters	277	.706	37.5	26.46
Crane operators	699	.646	35.8	23.13
Cupola tenders	630	.640	36.1	23.09
Factory clerks	130	.614	38.3	23.48
Foremen, working, semiskilled	313	.652	38.8	25.32
Inspectors and testers	295	.612	37.9	23.16
Ladle liners	135	.600	35.8	21.48
Maintenance and repairmen, semiskilled	243	.614	37.7	23.14
Miscellaneous furnace men	39	.787	35.6	28.05
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers, direct	273	.605	38.2	23.10
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers, indirect	113	.623	36.5	22.75
Miscellaneous machine operators	97	.608	34.7	21.08
Molders, machine, semiskilled	799	.712	35.4	25.23
Pourers and ladlemen	509	.632	35.8	22.61
Shipping and receiving clerks	290	.585	37.9	22.18
Storekeepers	156	.644	37.8	24.31
Truck drivers	197	.570	41.0	23.33
Truckers, power	120	.633	35.8	22.64
Unskilled workers	13,587	.533	34.9	18.58
Casting cleaners	582	.530	35.0	18.58
Core carriers	212	.469	33.7	15.82
Core makers' helpers	625	.534	35.4	18.90
Core-oven tenders	141	.603	36.5	21.98
Cupola chargers and helpers	1,022	.542	33.9	18.36
Flask and pattern carriers	243	.547	35.9	19.64
Grinders, rough	1,262	.573	35.5	20.35
Janitors	167	.511	36.5	18.65
Laborers, foundry	2,231	.493	34.7	17.11
Learners	245	.507	37.7	19.10
Loaders and unloaders	234	.445	30.8	13.68
Maintenance helpers	98	.553	38.3	21.17
Miscellaneous furnace helpers	68	.569	34.8	19.79
Miscellaneous unskilled workers, direct	244	.502	36.9	18.50
Miscellaneous unskilled workers, indirect	156	.550	34.6	19.01
Molders' helpers	1,870	.523	34.0	17.79
Sandblasters	308	.592	36.1	21.38
Sand conditioners, hand	264	.506	34.6	17.48
Sand conditioners, machine	353	.602	36.4	21.91
Shake-out men	2,026	.580	32.7	18.97
Stock and shipping-room labor	170	.458	37.4	17.12
Truckers, hand	184	.538	34.0	18.29
Tumbler operators	481	.556	36.0	20.01
Watchmen	357	.418	44.0	18.38
Packers and wrappers	44	.577	39.0	22.50
Females				
All occupations [2]	94	.583	32.1	18.69

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.
[2] Includes 64 semiskilled core makers with average hourly earnings of 62.5 cents.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Foundry Workers, by Occupation, Sex, and Skill, 1938 and 1939*—Continued

MALLEABLE-IRON FOUNDRIES

Occupation, sex, and skill	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
Males				
All occupations	6,157	$0.689	35.4	$24.37
Skilled workers	2,205	.804	34.5	27.71
Core makers, skilled	254	.757	34.8	26.36
Foremen, working, skilled	95	.796	38.9	30.93
Maintenance and repairmen, skilled	119	.754	37.6	28.37
Millwrights	38	.715	38.9	27.80
Miscellaneous skilled workers, direct	35	.757	39.6	29.99
Miscellaneous skilled workers, indirect	24	.804	40.7	32.71
Molders, hand, bench	525	.758	31.5	23.90
Molders, hand, floor	100	.771	29.3	22.60
Molders, machine, skilled	887	.862	34.7	29.92
Pattern makers, metal	89	.792	38.9	30.76
Pattern makers, wood	39	.809	35.6	28.79
Semiskilled workers	1,592	.657	36.7	24.13
Annealers	220	.664	37.3	24.77
Apprentices, foundry	27	.483	34.5	16.65
Carpenters, flask	47	.684	37.8	25.82
Chippers	227	.654	36.3	23.72
Core makers, semiskilled	38	.662	35.9	23.80
Core pasters	24	.589	39.5	23.30
Crane operators	36	.697	38.3	26.72
Foremen, working, semiskilled	49	.654	39.2	25.66
Inspectors and testers	206	.614	37.3	22.90
Ladle liners	46	.616	35.3	21.74
Maintenance and repairmen, semiskilled	53	.640	35.7	22.82
Miscellaneous furnace men	68	.721	37.8	27.28
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers, direct	76	.689	34.8	24.00
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers, indirect	101	.601	38.8	23.32
Miscellaneous machine operators	60	.678	35.3	23.98
Molders, machine, semiskilled	124	.703	32.7	23.02
Pourers and ladlemen	56	.811	36.6	29.70
Shipping and receiving clerks	30	.604	36.2	21.89
Straighteners	59	.701	39.9	27.97
Truckers, power	45	.604	37.0	22.36
Unskilled workers	2,360	.605	35.4	21.46
Annealing firemen	52	.553	39.1	21.59
Casting cleaners	71	.575	35.6	20.46
Core carriers	32	.579	35.2	20.38
Core makers' helpers	90	.552	35.4	19.51
Core-oven tenders	34	.590	36.3	21.42
Flask and pattern carriers	38	.575	35.3	20.32
Grinders, rough	389	.659	35.4	23.34
Janitors	50	.538	35.9	19.29
Laborers, foundry	431	.570	33.4	19.06
Loaders and unloaders	41	.686	30.3	20.78
Maintenance helpers	48	.623	37.0	23.04
Miscellaneous furnace helpers	116	.631	36.3	22.92
Miscellaneous unskilled workers, direct	79	.505	37.0	18.72
Miscellaneous unskilled workers, indirect	21	.604	36.8	22.24
Molders' helpers	101	.635	34.4	21.82
Sandblasters	54	.666	36.4	24.21
Sand conditioners, hand	62	.608	36.4	22.09
Sand conditioners, machine	84	.642	36.8	23.61
Shake-out men	196	.678	34.1	23.11
Stock and shipping room labor	62	.516	37.1	19.15
Truckers, hand	92	.596	34.4	20.48
Tumbler operators	83	.682	34.4	23.47
Watchmen	72	.496	43.7	21.69
Packers and wrappers	62	.560	35.4	19.79
Females				
All occupations	244	.556	33.4	18.55
Semiskilled workers [3]	157	.558	33.3	18.57
Unskilled workers	87	.552	33.5	18.52

[3] Includes 121 core makers with average hourly earnings of 56.6 cents.

EARNINGS OF MACHINE-SHOP EMPLOYEES, 1938–39 [1]

A STUDY made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering the latter part of 1938 and the early months of 1939, indicates that hourly earnings of all workers in the machine-shop industries averaged 72.4 cents. Weekly hours averaged 37.6, and the average weekly earnings amounted to $27.22.

The relatively high wage level of the machine-shop industries is the result of several factors. Thus, these are predominantly man-employing industries, with males forming 99 percent of the labor force. The shops are largely concentrated in high-wage industrial areas. Average hourly earnings are also influenced by pronounced geographical differences and by variations in wage levels according to product manufactured and according to the relative incidence of skilled high-wage occupations in the various branches of the industry.

The variations of average hourly earnings according to the kind of products manufactured are shown in table 1. Hourly earnings were highest in plants manufacturing tractors, with an average, for all workers employed, of 84.2 cents an hour. Relatively high hourly earnings were also reported for shops specializing in production of metal-working machinery, printing machinery, and machine tools. The lowest hourly earnings—60.1 cents—were shown for workers employed in plants making sawmill and woodworking machinery.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Machine-Shop Workers, by Product, Sex, and Skill, 1938 and 1939* [1]

Product	Total workers				Skilled workers			
	Employees	Average hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings	Employees	Average hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings
All workers [2]								
All products	90,419	$0.724	37.6	$27.22	34,094	$0.864	38.2	$32.97
Agricultural implements	7,268	.702	34.9	24.48	1,286	.822	36.1	29.70
Tractors	9,205	.842	36.1	30.39	3,072	.951	36.1	34.35
Cranes, dredging, etc	5,943	.726	38.9	28.20	2,232	.847	38.8	32.88
Machine tools	17,249	.751	38.7	29.08	7,930	.877	39.4	34.61
Engines, turbines, etc	6,309	.728	36.5	26.57	2,474	.855	37.1	31.66
Printers' machinery and equipment	3,332	.797	37.9	30.20	1,470	.968	37.3	36.16
Pumps and pumping equipment	5,975	.673	37.9	25.48	2,155	.805	38.2	30.74
Textile machinery and parts	6,372	.649	39.1	25.35	1,979	.801	39.9	32.00
Machine shops	5,512	.667	38.5	25.65	1,838	.842	39.3	33.09
Paper mill and pulp machinery	1,082	.671	40.4	27.11	468	.815	40.1	32.69
Metal-working machinery	2,425	.765	37.8	28.88	1,119	.920	37.8	34.74
Oil-well and refinery machinery	2,685	.745	37.3	27.81	1,156	918	36.9	33.88
Conveying and elevating machinery	1,817	.685	37.7	25.82	656	.850	37.7	32.05
Mining machinery and equipment	2,784	.646	34.7	22.42	1,042	.798	35.8	28.55
Sawmill and woodworking machinery	1,097	.601	41.3	24.80	457	.703	41.4	29.15
Packing, wrapping, etc., manufacturing machinery	1,122	.722	41.1	29.63	561	.863	41.2	35.53
Food, beverage, and drug preparation machinery	2,242	.645	38.0	24.51	962	.792	37.9	30.06
Machinery, not elsewhere classified	8,000	.723	36.7	26.54	3,237	.870	37.1	32.26

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.
[2] Number of women insufficient to warrant separate tabulation.

[1] Prepared by O. R. Manu and D. L. Helm of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

TABLE 1.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Machine-Shop Workers, by Product, Sex, and Skill, 1938 and 1939*—Continued

Product	Total workers				Skilled workers			
	Employees	Average hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings	Employees	Average hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings
Males								
All products	89,240	$0.727	37.6	$27.34	34,094	$0.864	38.2	$32.97
Agricultural implements	7,240	.703	34.9	24.51	1,286	.822	36.1	29.70
Tractors	9,179	.842	36.1	30.42	3,072	.951	36.1	34.35
Cranes, dredging, etc	5,939	.726	38.9	28.21	2,232	.847	38.8	32.88
Machine tools	17,073	.752	38.8	29.22	7,930	.877	39.4	34.61
Engines, turbines, etc	6,302	.728	36.5	26.58	2,474	.855	37.1	31.66
Printers' machinery and equipment	3,198	.809	37.8	30.60	1,470	.968	37.3	36.16
Pumps and pumping equipment	5,943	.674	37.9	25.53	2,155	.805	38.2	30.74
Textile machinery and parts	6,208	.653	39.1	25.56	1,979	.801	39.9	32.00
Machine shops	5,117	.679	38.4	26.12	1,838	.842	39.3	33.09
Paper mill and pulp machinery	1,075	.673	40.4	27.21	468	.815	40.1	32.69
Metal-working machinery	2,424	.765	37.8	28.89	1,119	.920	37.8	34.74
Oil-well and refinery machinery	2,684	.745	37.3	27.82	1,156	.918	36.9	33.88
Conveying and elevating machinery	1,806	.686	37.7	25.86	656	.850	37.7	32.05
Mining machinery and equipment	2,783	.646	34.7	22.42	1,042	.798	35.8	28.55
Sawmill and woodworking machinery	1,094	.601	41.3	24.80	457	.703	41.4	29.15
Packing, wrapping, etc., manufacturing machinery	1,122	.722	41.1	29.63	561	.863	41.2	35.53
Food, beverage, and drug preparation machinery	2,230	.646	38.0	24.56	962	.792	37.9	30.06
Machinery, not elsewhere classified	7,823	.727	36.8	26.73	3,237	.870	37.1	32.26

Product	Semiskilled workers				Unskilled workers			
	Employees	Average hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings	Employees	Average hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings
All workers								
All products	40,253	$0.673	37.0	$24.91	16,072	$0.551	37.8	$20.82
Agricultural implements	4,071	.717	34.7	24.90	1,911	.585	34.3	20.07
Tractors	4,758	.813	35.9	29.23	1,375	.696	36.7	25.53
Cranes, dredging, etc	2,679	.683	38.7	26.46	1,032	.576	39.2	22.61
Machine tools	7,013	.666	37.7	25.12	2,306	.561	39.4	22.12
Engines, turbines, etc	2,926	.672	35.7	23.99	909	.559	37.5	20.98
Printers' machinery and equipment	1,294	.704	37.8	26.63	568	.580	39.5	22.91
Pumps and pumping equipment	2,673	.631	37.3	23.53	1,147	.523	38.5	20.11
Textile machinery and parts	3,264	.612	38.5	23.55	1,129	.482	39.3	18.90
Machine shops	2,444	.624	37.8	23.59	1,230	.482	38.6	18.62
Paper mill and pulp machinery	379	.595	40.3	24.00	235	.512	41.0	21.01
Metal-working machinery	863	.666	38.0	25.31	443	.564	37.3	21.04
Oil-well and refinery machinery	893	.670	37.9	25.42	636	.542	37.2	20.13
Conveying and elevating machinery	723	.632	37.5	23.73	438	.526	37.9	19.93
Mining machinery and equipment	1,108	.581	33.8	19.66	634	.499	34.4	17.17
Sawmill and woodworking machinery	538	.546	41.0	22.40	102	.431	41.6	17.91
Packing, wrapping, etc., manufacturing machinery	403	.618	41.0	25.35	158	.481	40.8	19.61
Food, beverage, and drug preparation machinery	868	.561	38.0	21.30	412	.480	38.2	18.33
Machinery, not elsewhere classified	3,356	.660	35.9	23.72	1,407	.536	37.5	20.09
Males								
All products	39,576	.675	37.1	25.00	15,570	.553	37.8	20.95
Agricultural implements	4,062	.717	34.7	24.91	1,892	.586	34.3	20.11
Tractors	4,738	.814	36.0	29.27	1,369	.697	36.7	25.56
Cranes, dredging, etc	2,679	.683	38.7	26.46	1,028	.577	39.2	22.63
Machine tools	6,891	.667	37.9	25.27	2,252	.563	39.7	22.33
Engines, turbines, etc	2,925	.672	35.7	23.99	903	.560	37.5	21.02
Printers' machinery and equipment	1,232	.714	37.8	26.94	496	.587	39.5	23.22
Pumps and pumping equipment	2,658	.631	37.3	23.57	1,130	.522	38.7	20.21
Textile machinery and parts	3,172	.615	38.5	23.71	1,057	.484	39.3	19.05
Machine shops	2,212	.633	37.7	23.86	1,067	.487	38.5	18.78
Paper mill and pulp machinery	379	.595	40.3	24.00	228	.517	41.3	21.32
Metal-working machinery	863	.666	38.0	25.31	442	.564	37.4	21.06
Oil-well and refinery machinery	892	.670	37.9	25.43	636	.542	37.2	20.13
Conveying and elevating machinery	721	.632	37.5	23.74	429	.526	37.9	19.97
Mining machinery and equipment	1,108	.581	33.8	19.66	633	.499	34.4	17.17
Sawmill and woodworking machinery	535	.546	41.0	22.39	102	.431	41.6	17.91
Packing, wrapping, etc., manufacturing machinery	403	.618	41.0	25.35	158	.481	40.8	19.61
Food, beverage, and drug preparation machinery	867	.561	38.0	21.30	401	.480	38.3	18.40
Machinery, not elsewhere classified	3,239	.662	36.1	23.87	1,347	.538	37.7	20.30

Table 2 reveals the relatively small proportion of workers in low-wage brackets. Taking all classes of machine shops together, only 2.7 percent of the workers earned less than 40 cents an hour, and less than a quarter (23.0 percent) of the labor force averaged less than 57½ cents. In contrast, there was a fairly substantial scattering of employees in the higher-earnings classes, 29.8 percent averaging 82.5 cents or over and 9.1 percent averaging $1.00 or more an hour.

In the machine-shop industries, as in many other branches of manufacturing, there are pronounced geographical differences in hourly earnings (table 3). Against an average of 88.3 cents for all machine-shop employees in Washington, those in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina averaged 44.6 cents. Generally speaking, a relatively high level of wages likewise prevailed in the Middle Atlantic region and in most States of the Midwest.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Machine-Shop Workers by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, 1938 and 1939* [1]

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All divisions	Agricultural implements	Tractors	Cranes, dredging, etc.	Machine tools	Engines, turbines and water wheels	Printers' machinery and equipment	Pumps and pumping equipment	Textile machinery and parts	Machine shops
Under 30.0	0.5	0.9	------	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	1.3	1.2
30.0 and under 32.5	.4	.2	0.1	.2	.2	.1	.3	.2	1.1	.9
32.5 and under 35.0	.3	.3	(2)	.1	.1	.2	.5	.2	.5	.7
35.0 and under 37.5	.9	.9	.1	.4	.6	.5	.3	.7	1.1	1.8
37.5 and under 40.0	.6	.5	.2	.1	.4	.4	.8	.5	1.2	1.0
40.0 and under 42.5	1.9	1.2	.2	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.3	2.2	2.5	5.1
42.5 and under 47.5	3.9	3.6	.6	2.1	3.0	3.2	2.1	4.9	7.1	6.9
47.5 and under 52.5	6.8	6.6	1.0	5.5	6.4	7.2	6.0	8.3	11.0	9.9
52.5 and under 57.5	7.7	8.4	1.7	7.9	6.6	7.7	7.5	11.6	10.4	8.3
57.5 and under 62.5	9.4	11.2	5.0	9.8	9.5	8.5	8.3	12.6	11.5	9.6
62.5 and under 67.5	10.1	10.5	7.9	13.9	10.0	10.8	7.1	12.4	11.4	8.0
67.5 and under 72.5	10.0	11.1	8.9	11.1	10.8	10.0	7.8	11.3	10.1	8.5
72.5 and under 77.5	9.3	10.0	8.2	11.1	9.7	10.4	8.3	9.6	9.1	8.2
77.5 and under 82.5	8.4	9.0	8.4	10.4	9.8	10.1	6.8	7.4	6.3	6.3
82.5 and under 87.5	7.5	8.8	11.4	8.3	7.6	9.0	5.8	6.2	5.1	6.3
87.5 and under 92.5	6.6	6.3	12.0	6.8	6.5	7.0	6.1	5.0	3.8	6.0
92.5 and under 100.0	6.6	6.7	15.5	4.9	6.7	6.2	8.3	3.1	3.4	4.8
100.0 and under 110.0	5.5	3.2	14.7	3.8	5.5	4.7	6.8	2.2	1.7	4.6
110.0 and under 120.0	2.4	.6	3.2	1.3	2.8	1.9	12.0	.9	.7	1.3
120.0 and under 130.0	.8	(2)	.6	.5	1.5	.5	2.5	.3	.3	.4
130.0 and under 140.0	.3	(2)	.2	.3	.7	.2	.8	.1	.3	.2
140.0 and over	.1	------	.1	.1	.1	.1	.4	(2)	.1	(2)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of establishments	685	41	14	41	91	41	19	46	44	96
Number of workers	90,419	7,268	9,205	5,943	17,249	6,309	3,332	5,975	6,372	5,512
Average hourly earnings	$0.724	$0.702	$0.842	$0.726	$0.751	$0.728	$0.797	$0.673	$0.649	$0.667

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Machine-Shop Workers by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, 1938 and 1939*—Continued

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Paper mill and pulp machinery	Metal-working machinery	Oil well and refinery machinery	Conveying and elevating machinery	Mining machinery and equipment	Sawmill and wood machinery	Packing, wrapping, etc., manufacturing machinery	Food, beverage and drug-preparation machinery	Machinery not elsewhere classified
Under 30.0	2.1	(2)	0.3	0.1	0.6	0.7	1.3	0.6	0.7
30.0 and under 32.5	.8	0.2	.6	.1	.5	1.5	.9	.6	.6
32.5 and under 35.0	.6	-------	.2	.4	.3	.5	.7	.5	.3
35.0 and under 37.5	1.1	1.4	1.4	.7	2.9	1.4	1.9	2.4	.8
37.5 and under 40.0	.7	.5	.9	.3	.8	.5	.4	1.8	.4
40.0 and under 42.5	1.8	.8	2.8	2.1	5.6	4.8	2.2	3.8	1.8
42.5 and under 47.5	5.3	3.0	4.3	6.5	5.0	5.1	4.4	8.5	4.7
47.5 and under 52.5	7.3	5.1	4.9	10.2	9.2	11.4	5.9	10.6	6.6
52.5 and under 57.5	8.9	5.6	4.8	9.9	12.6	17.6	6.1	10.8	7.9
57.5 and under 62.5	10.4	6.6	7.6	10.1	12.8	16.8	8.1	9.8	8.9
62.5 and under 67.5	12.2	10.6	10.4	11.5	10.4	13.1	10.6	10.9	8.8
67.5 and under 72.5	9.8	10.7	9.7	9.4	9.8	9.5	9.1	9.6	9.5
72.5 and under 77.5	9.5	11.3	12.4	8.5	8.1	8.9	8.3	8.0	7.8
77.5 and under 82.5	11.6	9.7	7.7	7.0	6.4	3.6	7.2	6.2	7.9
82.5 and under 87.5	6.2	7.4	5.9	5.9	4.6	2.0	8.6	4.1	7.7
87.5 and under 92.5	3.7	5.2	5.7	5.2	4.2	1.3	8.7	3.3	7.7
92.5 and under 100.0	2.9	6.4	6.3	4.7	2.4	.8	7.2	4.0	7.4
100.0 and under 110.0	4.0	7.7	8.4	4.9	2.2	.5	5.9	2.4	6.4
110.0 and under 120.0	1.0	5.4	4.2	1.7	1.1	-------	1.7	1.3	2.4
120.0 and under 130.0	-------	1.3	1.2	.4	.1	-------	.5	.5	1.2
130.0 and under 140.0	-------	.8	.2	.2	.4	-------	.2	.2	.4
140.0 and over	.1	.3	.1	.2	-------	-------	.1	.1	.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of establishments	20	27	21	20	29	16	14	36	69
Number of workers	1,082	2,425	2,685	1,817	2,784	1,097	1,122	2,242	8,000
Average hourly earnings	$0.671	$0.765	$0.745	$0.685	$0.646	$0.601	$0.722	$0.645	$0.723

[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Machine-Shop Workers, by State, 1938 and 1939* [1]

State	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
United States	685	90,417	$0.724	37.6	$27.22
Alabama and Mississippi	4	189	.545	37.7	20.56
Arkansas and Oklahoma	6	268	.590	41.7	24.63
California	25	2,370	.825	37.4	30.85
Colorado and Utah	8	420	.685	36.7	25.17
Connecticut	25	3,728	.694	39.8	27.63
Delaware and Maryland	10	854	.604	34.8	20.99
Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina	15	402	.446	38.2	17.05
Illinois	66	14,099	.763	36.4	27.81
Indiana	20	2,434	.653	38.3	24.98
Iowa and Nebraska	19	3,054	.729	39.1	28.52
Kansas	9	291	.553	43.0	23.76
Kentucky	9	902	.588	36.8	21.61
Louisiana	7	173	.609	41.8	25.42
Maine and New Hampshire	9	1,759	.633	34.5	21.84
Massachusetts	42	5,807	.720	38.4	27.61
Michigan	35	4,059	.772	39.7	30.62
Minnesota	13	1,651	.776	39.3	30.52
Missouri	10	886	.645	37.7	24.32
New Jersey	31	3,459	.739	38.1	28.13
New York	56	7,659	.715	37.3	26.65
North Carolina	6	180	.513	40.0	20.51
Ohio	80	12,584	.740	37.1	27.49
Oregon	7	222	.759	36.0	27.36
Pennsylvania	75	9,323	.707	37.1	26.19
Rhode Island	17	2,701	.674	37.7	25.40
Tennessee	12	633	.546	36.4	19.85
Texas	13	1,453	.654	40.8	26.71
Vermont	4	1,077	.685	37.9	26.01
Virginia	7	141	.560	39.4	22.10
Washington	5	245	.883	35.9	31.71
West Virginia	5	113	.714	38.0	27.14
Wisconsin	35	7,281	.768	37.6	28.89

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.

Variations by Occupation and Skill

Hourly earnings in machine shops are dependent largely on the specific occupations of the individual employees. Broadly speaking, the highest hourly earnings are paid to working foremen. For this occupation, hourly earnings in the latter part of 1938 and the early months of 1939 averaged 95.2 cents (table 4). Other occupational groups with high hourly earnings were boring-mill operators and wood-pattern makers; these are highly skilled occupations, averaging 90 cents or more an hour.

Below the skilled groups were the semiskilled machine operators and the attendants and helpers, whose hourly earnings for the most part ranged from about 60 to 70 cents. There were, however, a number of important exceptions. Bulldozers and upsetters, for example, averaged 78.6 cents, and only slightly lower averages were reported for riveters, straighteners, sheet-metal operators, and gear cutters. By contrast, apprentices averaged 48.1 cents an hour.

Among the unskilled occupational groups hourly earnings ranged from 49.8 cents for watchmen to 67.9 cents for parts cleaners. The overwhelming majority of the unskilled occupations, however, were restricted to the 10-cent range of 50 to 60 cents an hour.

The actual working time of all wage earners employed in machine shops averaged 37.6 hours a week in the latter part of 1938 and the early months of 1939. A somewhat longer workweek was reported for the skilled employees than for the other groups, but the differences were not important. Compared with 38.2 hours a week for the skilled employees, the average for the semiskilled was 37.0 hours. Unskilled employees averaged 37.8 hours a week.

Weekly earnings of workers employed in machine shops averaged $27.22 in 1938–39. As with hourly earnings, weekly earnings varied conspicuously among the principal occupational groups. Among the skilled occupations, for example, weekly earnings ranged from $27.81 for production blacksmiths to $38.67 for working foremen. With the exception of apprentices, all of the semiskilled occupations averaged over $20 a week, but none averaged as much as $30. The great majority of the unskilled employees averaged about $20 a week.

Of the few females employed in machine shops, the majority held semiskilled jobs. Largely on this account, the earnings of the women were restricted to a relatively narrow range. The average hourly earnings of all females was 51.7 cents. Their weekly hours averaged 35.4, and their weekly earnings amounted to $18.33.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Male Machine-Shop Workers, by Occupation and Skill, 1938 and 1939* [1]

Occupation and skill	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
All occupations	89,240	$0.727	37.6	$27.34
Skilled workers	34,094	.864	38.2	32.97
Assemblers and erectors, floor, skilled	2,844	.842	38.8	32.64
Assemblers and fitters, bench, skilled	1,979	.838	38.5	32.22
Assemblers, miscellaneous, skilled	247	.872	35.5	31.00
Blacksmiths, production	438	.780	35.7	27.81
Boring-mill operators, skilled	1,511	.904	37.8	34.21
Carpenters, maintenance, skilled	242	.777	38.9	30.25
Drill-press operators, multiple, skilled	296	.881	35.7	31.50
Drill-press operators, radial, skilled	571	.850	37.9	32.24
Drill-press operators, single, skilled	338	.804	36.8	29.58
Electricians, maintenance	523	.833	40.4	33.64
Electricians, production	202	.814	40.2	32.72
Engineers, boiler and power house	242	.793	42.9	33.99
Foremen, working, skilled	2,878	.952	40.6	38.67
Gear cutters, skilled	342	.891	37.5	33.38
Grinding-machine operators, skilled	1,442	.906	36.8	33.37
Hammersmiths, skilled	168	.939	35.1	32.95
Hardeners and heat treaters, skilled	269	.843	38.0	32.08
Inspectors, skilled	1,179	.854	37.9	32.34
Lathe hands, engine, skilled	2,970	.848	37.3	31.60
Lathe hands, turret, skilled	1,834	.861	37.1	31.91
Lathe and screw-machine operators, automatic, skilled	479	.903	36.8	33.25
Lathe and screw-machine operators, semiautomatic, skilled	135	.938	31.7	29.70
Layout men	534	.848	37.2	31.52
Machinists	1,397	.811	40.1	32.51
Maintenance and repairmen, skilled	758	.842	38.5	32.41
Milling-machine operators, skilled	1,678	.877	37.4	32.82
Millwrights	485	.782	39.2	30.68
Miscellaneous machine operators, skilled	229	.907	37.6	34.13
Miscellaneous skilled workers, direct	164	.918	34.5	31.66
Miscellaneous skilled workers, indirect	65	.801	38.7	30.99
Pattern makers, wood	488	.916	39.1	35.82
Pipefitters and plumbers	223	.802	38.4	30.79
Planer operators, skilled	972	.885	38.2	33.82
Screw-machine operators, hand, skilled	297	.889	38.2	33.96
Set-up men	446	.861	37.9	32.66
Shaper operators, skilled	237	.852	37.5	31.99
Sheet-metal workers, skilled	335	.817	39.0	31.83
Testers, skilled	240	.815	39.0	31.82
Tool and die makers	2,194	.899	38.3	34.43
Tool grinders	763	.802	38.0	30.44
Welders and brazers, hand	1,460	.822	37.4	30.71
Semiskilled workers	39,576	.675	37.1	25.00
Apprentices	2,385	.481	38.0	18.30
Assemblers and erectors, floor, semiskilled	3,781	.698	37.2	25.98
Assemblers and fitters, bench, semiskilled	3,213	.696	36.4	25.33
Assemblers, miscellaneous, semiskilled	303	.669	37.6	25.15
Boring-mill operators, semiskilled	687	.705	36.9	25.99
Broachers, keyseaters and spliners	175	.735	35.6	26.17
Bulldozers and upsetters	244	.786	33.9	26.64
Burners and cutters	187	.700	38.2	26.73
Carpenters, maintenance, semiskilled	157	.611	39.1	23.91
Checkers	241	.686	37.3	25.59
Chippers	103	.712	36.7	26.12
Cold-saw operators	309	.635	38.3	24.32
Crane operators	804	.660	37.2	24.58
Craters	774	.646	38.1	24.62
Drill-press operators, multiple, semiskilled	712	.738	36.0	26.59
Drill-press operators, radial, semi-skilled	887	.715	36.1	25.79
Drill-press operators, single, semiskilled	1,674	.680	35.8	24.34
Factory clerks	669	.646	38.6	24.97
Firemen, boiler, and powerhouse	568	.600	43.0	25.83
Foremen, working, semiskilled	375	.696	39.9	27.77
Gear cutters, semiskilled	362	.759	36.3	27.58
Grinding-machine operators, semiskilled	1,758	.727	36.2	26.30
Hammersmiths, semiskilled	231	.731	31.7	23.15
Hardeners and heat treaters, semiskilled	366	.704	37.4	26.31

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Male Machine-Shop Workers, by Occupation and Skill, 1938 and 1939*—Continued

Occupation and skill	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
Semiskilled workers—Continued.				
Inspectors, semiskilled	1,066	$0.685	37.2	$25.49
Lathe hands, engine, semiskilled	1,572	.671	36.9	24.72
Lathe hands, turret, semiskilled	1,379	.705	36.4	25.72
Lathe and screw-machine operators, automatic, semiskilled	363	.729	35.9	26.21
Lathe and screw-machine operators, semiautomatic, semiskilled	258	.750	35.7	26.81
Maintenance and repairmen, semiskilled	531	.644	38.7	24.94
Milling-machine operators, semiskilled	1,589	.720	36.3	26.17
Miscellaneous machine operators, semiskilled	633	.678	37.1	25.17
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers, direct	671	.689	35.9	24.75
Miscellaneous semiskilled workers, indirect	214	.694	35.9	24.91
Oilers and beltmen	232	.630	37.5	23.66
Painters, brush	667	.650	37.9	24.61
Painters, spray	578	.685	38.7	26.48
Planer operators, semiskilled	272	.668	36.9	24.67
Polishers and buffers	614	.714	34.5	24.61
Punch and press machine operators, semiskilled	990	.732	35.8	26.21
Repairmen, product	169	.740	36.1	26.68
Riveters	217	.782	35.9	28.08
Screw-machine operators, hand, semiskilled	360	.712	37.2	26.52
Shaper operators, semiskilled	160	.656	37.4	24.52
Shearmen	287	.710	35.5	25.20
Sheet-metal machine operators	117	.758	36.0	27.28
Sheet-metal workers, semiskilled	266	.632	39.3	24.85
Shipping and receiving clerks	577	.622	40.2	24.99
Stock clerks	1,185	.617	37.3	23.04
Storekeepers	466	.697	38.1	26.52
Straighteners	222	.782	34.5	26.98
Testers, semiskilled	432	.727	36.0	26.15
Threading-machine operators	145	.723	36.8	26.61
Timekeepers	271	.626	38.8	24.31
Tool-crib attendants	700	.633	37.6	23.79
Truck drivers	445	.607	41.4	25.14
Truckers, power	374	.645	37.4	24.13
Welders, machine	151	.749	36.0	26.97
Woodworkers	438	.666	36.5	24.29
Unskilled workers	15,570	.553	37.8	20.95
Assemblers and erectors, floor, unskilled	368	.601	36.6	22.02
Assemblers and fitters, bench, unskilled	464	.536	36.2	19.39
Burrers and rough grinders	657	.606	36.1	21.88
Cleaners, parts	311	.679	37.9	25.71
Crane followers	134	.663	36.8	24.39
Drill-press operators, single, unskilled	257	.512	34.9	17.90
Elevator operators	153	.553	37.0	20.45
Helpers, assemblers'	516	.546	37.2	20.30
Helpers, blacksmith and forge	476	.613	35.2	21.61
Helpers, general	900	.560	36.7	20.55
Helpers, machine-tool operators'	352	.568	37.2	21.12
Helpers, machinists'	388	.533	39.7	21.19
Helpers, maintenance	548	.596	38.5	22.93
Helpers, sheet-metal workers'	220	.564	38.4	21.64
Inspectors, unskilled	141	.543	37.5	20.38
Janitors	1,321	.535	38.1	20.35
Laborers, common	1,996	.527	37.2	19.58
Learners	861	.511	37.6	19.21
Loaders and unloaders	486	.633	36.1	22.86
Miscellaneous machine operators, unskilled	204	.543	36.6	19.87
Miscellaneous unskilled workers, direct	359	.571	37.0	21.15
Miscellaneous unskilled workers, indirect	215	.543	37.2	20.18
Packers and wrappers	482	.613	38.0	23.27
Painters, dip	168	.638	35.2	22.49
Punch and press machine operators, unskilled	177	.525	36.4	19.07
Stock and shipping room labor	967	.539	37.5	20.20
Truckers, hand	909	.573	36.8	21.08
Watchmen	1,540	.498	44.2	22.02

Overtime Work and Pay

Table 5 shows the practice regarding overtime work in machine shops, and the rates paid for such work.

TABLE 5.—*Overtime Work and Rates in Machine Shops, 1938 and 1939*[1]

Overtime provisions	Number of establishments covered	Establishments with full-time weekly hours of—					Establishments with weekly overtime rates,[2] beginning at—				
		Under 40 hours	Exactly 40 hours	Over 40 and under 44 hours	Exactly 44 hours	Over 44 hours	Under 40 hours	Exactly 40 hours	Over 40 and under 44 hours	Exactly 44 hours	Over 44 hours
Total	685	18	402	13	237	15	1	243	2	434	5
Overtime prohibited	1	------	------	------	1	------	------	------	------	1	------
Double time	4	------	4	------	------	------	------	4	------	------	------
Double time and time and one-half	16	------	12	------	4	------	------	15	------	1	------
Time and one-half	655	17	382	13	230	13	1	220	2	429	3
Other overtime rates	3	[3] 1	[4] 1	------	------	[5] 1	------	[4] 1	------	[6] 1	[5] 1
Overtime at straight-time rates	6	------	3	------	2	1	------	3	------	2	1

[1] Preliminary figures, subject to revision.
[2] Includes 340 establishments with additional provisions for daily overtime rates, such as time and one-half after an 8-hour day.
[3] One and one-fourth after 40 hours.
[4] One and one-fourth after 40 hours, and one and one-half after 44 hours.
[5] One and one-half after 49 hours.
[6] One and one-fourth after 44 hours.

The special arrangements for work on Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays in machine shops are shown below:

	Number of plants
Total covered	685
Plants with special provisions	151
Double time, all day Saturdays and Sundays and holidays	14
Double time, Sundays and holidays	114
Double time, Sundays only	8
Double time, holidays only	3
Double time, Sundays, holidays, and Saturday afternoons (Saturday hours sometimes specified)	7
Overtime prohibited on Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays	2
Other provisions	3

UNION WAGES AND HOURS IN THE BUILDING TRADES, JUNE 1, 1940 [1]

Summary

THE average union wage rate per hour was $1.369 for all of the building trades in the 72 cities covered in a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on June 1, 1940. The average for the journeyman trades was $1.487, and for the helper and laborer trades, $0.898.

Although there were three journeyman rates as low as $0.55 and one as high as $2.50 per hour, nearly 99 percent of the journeyman membership had rates between $1 and $2.10, with about 65 percent receiving between $1.20 and $1.70. The rates for helpers and laborers ranged from $0.35 to $1.517, although very few were either below $0.50 or above $1.30 per hour.

On June 1, 1940, the index of union hourly wage rates for all building trades was 109.1 (1929=100). This was 1.5 percent above the index for 1939. The journeyman index, at 108.3, was 1.4 percent higher than in 1939, and the helper and laborer index, at 114.8, was 2 percent higher than in 1939. Increases over the wage rates of 1939 were reported in 15.6 percent of the quotations which gave data for both years. These increases applied to about 21 percent of the total membership.

The maximum permitted weekly hours specified in the agreements of all trades averaged 38.3 in 1940. The journeyman average was 38 hours per week and the helper and laborer average was 39.1 hours. Comparatively few changes in hour scales were reported as having occurred during the year. The hour index for all trades declined about 0.2 percent over the year to a value of 88.4. There was no change in the index of journeyman hours, but the helper and laborer index declined from 89.7 in 1939 to 89.2 in 1940, a decrease of 0.5 percent.

Scope and Method of the Study

Union scales of wages and hours in the building trades have been collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics each year since 1907. The early studies were made in 39 cities and included 14 journeyman trades and 4 helper and laborer trades. The study has been gradually extended to cover 72 cities, and now includes 28 journeyman trades

[1] Prepared by Frank S. McElroy, of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief.

and 9 helper and laborer trades. These cities are located in 40 States and the District of Columbia.[2]

As far as possible, the scales collected were those actually in force on June 1. The collection of the data was made by agents of the Bureau who personally visited some responsible official of each local union included in the study. Each scale was verified by the union official interviewed, and was further checked by comparison with the written agreements when copies were available. Interviews were obtained with 1,799 union representatives and 3,007 quotations of scales were received. The union membership covered by these contractual scales of wages and hours was approximately 468,000.

DEFINITIONS

A union scale is a wage rate or schedule of hours agreed to by an employer (or group of employers) and a labor organization for persons who are actually working or would be working if there were work to be done in that locality. A union scale usually fixes a limit in one direction, that is, a minimum wage rate and maximum hours of work with specific provisions for overtime.

The union may be (1) either an independent local union, (2) one affiliated with a national or international federation, (3) an organization embracing one craft or more than one craft, or (4) have a contract with only one employer or more than one employer.

A collective agreement is a mutual arrangement between a union and an employer (or group of employers) regarding wages and hours and other working conditions. Collective agreements are usually written and signed by both parties, although oral agreements may be equally binding. The Bureau has included scales set under oral agreements only in those cases where there was clear evidence that the rates were actually in effect.

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[2] The following are the cities covered. The numerals indicate the population group in which the city is included in Tables 8 and 9.

North and Pacific

Baltimore, Md. II.
Boston, Mass. II.
Buffalo, N. Y. II.
Butte, Mont. V.
Charleston, W. Va. V.
Chicago, Ill. I.
Cincinnati, Ohio. III.
Cleveland, Ohio. II.
Columbus, Ohio. III.
Davenport, Iowa, included in Rock Island (Ill.) district.
Dayton, Ohio. IV.
Denver, Colo. III.
Des Moines, Iowa. IV.
Detroit, Mich. I.
Duluth, Minn. IV.
Erie, Pa. IV.
Grand Rapids, Mich. IV.
Indianapolis, Ind. III.
Kansas City, Mo. III.
Los Angeles, Calif. I.
Madison, Wis. V.
Manchester, N. H. V.
Milwaukee, Wis. II.
Minneapolis, Minn. III.
Moline, Ill., included in Rock Island (Ill.) district.
Newark, N. J. III.
New Haven, Conn. IV.
New York, N. Y. I.
Omaha, Nebr. IV.
Peoria, Ill. IV.
Philadelphia, Pa. I.
Pittsburgh, Pa. II.
Portland, Maine. V.
Portland, Oreg. III.
Providence, R. I. III.
Reading, Pa. IV.
Rochester, N. Y. III.
Rock Island (Ill.) district. IV.
St. Louis, Mo. II.
St. Paul, Minn. III.
Salt Lake City, Utah. IV.
San Francisco, Calif. II.
Scranton, Pa. IV.
Seattle, Wash. III.
South Bend, Ind. IV.
Spokane, Wash. IV.
Springfield, Mass. IV.
Toledo, Ohio. III.
Washington, D. C. II.
Wichita, Kans. IV.
Worcester, Mass. IV.
York, Pa. V.
Youngstown, Ohio. IV.

South and Southwest

Atlanta, Ga. III.
Birmingham, Ala. III.
Charleston, S. C. V.
Charlotte, N. C. V.
Dallas, Tex. III.
El Paso, Tex. IV.
Houston, Tex. III.
Jackson, Miss. V.
Jacksonville, Fla. IV.
Little Rock, Ark. V.
Louisville, Ky. III.
Memphis, Tenn. III.
Nashville, Tenn. IV.
New Orleans, La. III.
Norfolk, Va. IV.
Oklahoma City, Okla. IV.
Phoenix, Ariz. V.
Richmond, Va. IV.
San Antonio, Tex. IV.

Apprentices and foremen.—A young person working in a trade for a definite number of years, for the purpose of learning the trade, and receiving instruction as an element of compensation, is considered an apprentice. Scales for apprentices have not been included. Scales for helpers in a number of trades were collected. In some trades the work of helpers is performed at least in part by apprentices. Whenever it was found that helpers' work was done largely by apprentices, the scales for such helpers were omitted.

No rates were collected for strictly supervising foremen nor for individuals who were paid unusual rates because of some personal qualification as distinct from the usual trade qualifications.

Union rates and actual rates.—As mentioned above, the rates of wages and hours included in this report were obtained from union business agents, secretaries, and other officials of local unions in the 72 cities visited. A large majority of the rates were recorded in written agreements, copies of which in most cases were given to the agents for the Bureau's files. Where no written records were on file in the union office, the Bureau representative listed the scales on a schedule which the union official then signed. If the Bureau representative had any reason to doubt the accuracy of these scales, he made further inquiry from persons who might be informed about the situation. It is believed that the scales collected in this survey accurately represent the union scales in effect on June 1, 1940.

It does not necessarily follow, however, that these scales are in all cases the actual wages paid or hours worked. The union agreement usually fixes the minimum wages and maximum hours. More experienced and skilled workers may command more than the union rate. This is especially true during periods of prosperity, when a plentiful supply of jobs creates competitive bidding for the better workmen. In periods of depression, in order to spread or share available work, actual hours worked are sometimes less than those provided in the union agreement. Where such a share-the-work policy was formally adopted by the union and in effect for a majority of the members, the adjusted scale of hours is used in this report rather than the theoretical scale appearing in the written agreement.

Union rates and prevailing rates.—This report is concerned only with the contract scales for union members on union jobs. No attempt has been made to discover what proportions of all the workers in the different occupations are members of the unions. Inasmuch as union strength varies from city to city and between trades, the prevailing scale for any occupation in any one city may or may not coincide with the union scale. Where practically all the workers of a particular trade belong to the local union, the union scale will be equivalent to the prevailing scale in that community. On the other hand, where the proportion of craftsmen belonging to the union is small, the union scale may not be the actual prevailing scale.

Averages.—The averages for each trade given in this report are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions. Thus the averages reflect not only the specific rates provided in the union agreements but also the number of persons presumably benefiting from these rates.

Index numbers.—In the series of index numbers the percentage change from year to year is based on aggregates computed from the quotations of the unions which furnished reports for identical occupations 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 for each year is computed by multiplying the index for the preceding year by the ratio of the aggregates so obtained. The index numbers were revised on this basis in 1936 in order to eliminate the influence of changes in union membership which obscure the real changes in wages and hours.

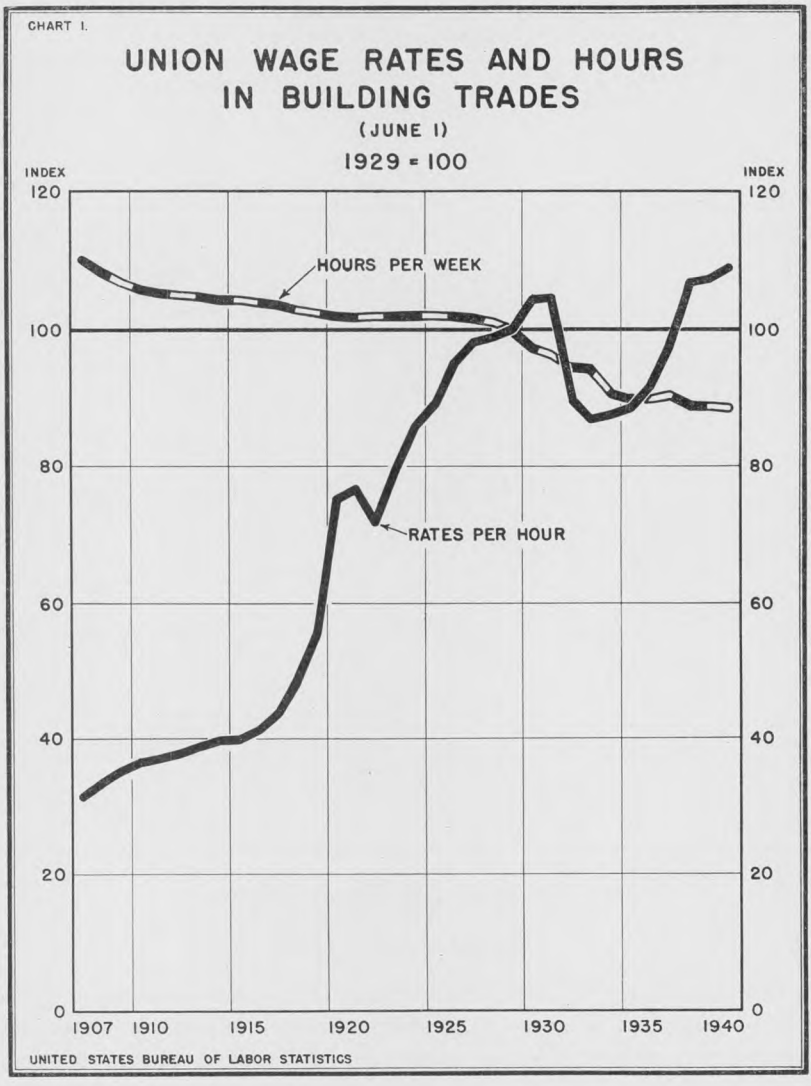
For the trend of union rates, the table of indexes should be consulted; for a comparison of wage rates between trades or cities at a given time, the table of averages should be used.

Trend of Union Wage Rates and Hours, 1907–40

Hourly wage rates.—Throughout the period covered by the series, from 1907 to date, the index numbers have almost consistently reflected an upward trend in the hourly wage rates of union members in the building trades. Declines in the index for all trades were recorded in only three years, 1922, 1932, and 1933.

Between 1907 and 1917 the index rose gradually from 31.5 to 43.8 (1929=100). Owing to war influences, wage rates turned sharply upward during the spring of 1918 and continued to increase at an accelerated rate for 3 years, culminating in a rise of 35 percent between 1919 and 1920. In 1921 there was only a minor advance of 1.8 percent. Reflecting the post-war depression, union building trades' rates declined 6.2 percent, on the average, in 1922, which brought the index down to 71.8. With the recovery of business conditions during the latter part of 1922, building wage rates again increased, the index of 79.4 in 1923 being higher than at any time during the war. For the next 4 years, rates rose materially each year but remained about the same during the short depression in 1927–8. They advanced a little in 1929 and increased 4.2 percent in 1930. A slight increase in 1931 brought the index to 104.5.

The declines of 1932 and 1933 carried the index down to 86.8, a point very near to the level of 1924. Wage rates rose moderately from 1933 to 1936. Between 1936 and 1937 there was an average increase of 7 percent, and in the following year there was a further advance of 8.9 percent, bringing the index for 1938 (106.7) above the previous high index of 1931. Since 1938 the index has risen only slightly to 109.1.



Maximum weekly hours.—In almost every year from 1907 to 1940, the index of union scales of weekly hours in the building trades has recorded a gradual decline. Between 1920 and 1925 average hours remained at almost the same level, decreased slightly in the following 4 years and then declined rapidly until 1934 when the rate of decrease lessened appreciably. During the past 11 years the index of hours has declined 11.6 percent, most of the decrease having taken place during the years 1930–34.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in All Building Trades, 1907 to 1940*

Year	Index numbers (1929=100)					
	All building trades		Journeymen		Helpers and laborers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	31.5	110.0	31.7	109.3	30.7	113.1
1908	33.5	108.3	33.8	107.7	32.1	110.8
1909	35.1	106.8	35.5	106.4	33.2	108.5
1910	36.5	105.5	37.0	105.2	34.3	106.6
1911	37.1	105.1	37.6	104.8	34.5	106.4
1912	37.9	104.8	38.5	104.5	34.8	106.1
1913	38.8	104.6	39.4	104.2	35.8	106.1
1914	39.6	104.2	40.3	103.9	36.2	105.5
1915	39.9	104.1	40.6	103.8	36.5	105.4
1916	41.2	103.7	42.0	103.4	37.7	105.1
1917	43.8	103.5	44.3	103.2	41.4	104.7
1918	48.6	102.9	49.0	102.6	48.0	104.3
1919	55.7	102.4	56.0	102.2	55.5	103.3
1920	75.2	101.9	74.9	101.7	80.5	102.7
1921	76.6	101.8	76.3	101.6	81.3	102.7
1922	71.8	101.8	71.9	101.7	74.0	102.4
1923	79.4	101.9	79.2	101.8	78.5	102.6
1924	85.7	101.9	85.6	101.8	84.9	102.6
1925	89.0	101.9	88.8	101.8	87.7	102.4
1926	94.8	101.7	94.7	101.6	95.6	102.2
1927	98.1	101.5	97.9	101.4	97.3	102.2
1928	98.7	100.9	98.7	100.7	98.3	102.1
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	104.2	97.2	104.1	97.1	105.1	97.8
1931	104.5	96.0	104.5	95.8	104.5	97.0
1932	89.3	94.3	89.3	94.1	89.2	94.8
1933	86.8	94.0	86.9	93.8	85.2	94.4
1934	87.4	90.5	87.4	90.3	87.7	91.4
1935	88.4	89.8	88.4	89.6	88.2	90.8
1936	91.6	89.8	91.3	89.6	93.4	91.0
1937	98.0	90.2	97.6	90.0	101.5	91.3
1938	106.7	88.7	106.1	88.4	111.7	89.9
1939	107.4	88.5	106.8	88.3	112.6	89.7
1940	109.1	88.4	108.3	88.3	114.8	89.2

Trends in Individual Trades

HOURLY WAGE RATES

The indexes for the separate crafts indicate that the average wage rate of every trade except the stonemasons and granite cutters rose somewhat between 1939 and 1940 (table 2). All of the increases were moderate, none amounting to as much as 4 percent on the previous years' index.

In the journeyman group three trades had advances of over 2 percent in their average rates, the greatest of these being a 2.5 percent rise for the carpenters. Eight of the journeyman rate indexes advanced between 1 and 2 percent; 11 advanced less than 1 percent; 1 had no change; and 1 declined 0.5 percent.

The hod carriers had the greatest proportionate increase among all of the trades. Their index moved from 109.4 in 1939 to 113.6

in 1940, an advance of 3.8 percent. The marble setters' helpers index rose 2.2 percent over the year and the building laborers' index rose 1.6 percent. The other four helper and laborer trades for which indexes are computed each had increases of less than 1 percent in their index numbers.

Compared to the base year (1929), the average rate for steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers has advanced more than that of any other trade, their 1940 wage-rate index being 123.2. In the journeyman group the engineers have had the greatest rise since 1929, their rate index being 118.4 in 1940. Twelve other journeyman index numbers were more than 10 percent above the base year (1929) in 1940; six were between 5 and 10 percent above 1929; two were higher by less than 5 percent; and three were somewhat lower than in 1929.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Building Trade, 1907 to 1940*

[1929=100]

Year	Asbestos workers		Bricklayers		Carpenters		Cement finishers		Electricians (inside wiremen)		Elevator constructors	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	-------	-------	37.9	112.0	32.0	107.2	38.5	109.1	31.3	110.3	-------	-------
1908	-------	-------	38.9	109.6	34.0	105.6	38.4	108.1	34.2	109.5	-------	-------
1909	-------	-------	39.7	107.3	35.9	104.4	39.6	108.9	35.3	108.8	-------	-------
1910	-------	-------	40.4	105.3	37.6	103.1	40.0	108.7	36.3	108.2	-------	-------
1911	-------	-------	40.4	104.9	38.1	102.6	41.5	107.7	36.7	108.0	-------	-------
1912	-------	-------	41.0	104.9	38.9	102.5	41.5	107.7	37.1	107.6	-------	-------
1913	-------	-------	41.7	104.7	39.5	102.4	42.5	106.5	37.9	107.2	-------	-------
1914	-------	-------	42.8	104.2	40.1	102.0	42.9	105.8	39.1	106.8	41.8	102.7
1915	-------	-------	42.9	104.1	40.6	102.0	43.3	105.8	39.9	106.2	42.1	102.2
1916	40.0	103.0	43.3	103.9	41.8	102.0	43.7	104.2	40.7	105.3	43.1	102.1
1917	42.1	102.6	44.8	103.6	45.5	102.0	46.2	103.0	43.3	104.9	46.2	101.6
1918	47.1	102.0	48.1	103.6	50.5	100.9	51.0	102.5	48.2	104.2	49.2	101.6
1919	57.3	101.0	53.4	103.4	58.2	100.3	57.2	101.7	55.2	103.3	57.3	100.9
1920	74.5	100.9	72.8	103.3	77.8	100.4	77.7	101.2	72.8	103.0	73.6	100.8
1921	75.5	101.1	72.3	103.3	78.4	100.3	80.3	101.2	75.4	103.0	77.4	100.7
1922	70.3	101.1	70.4	103.3	72.7	100.4	74.5	101.1	71.1	103.0	72.4	100.4
1923	72.9	100.9	79.7	103.3	81.0	100.7	81.5	101.1	73.8	103.0	76.9	100.5
1924	81.4	101.0	84.3	103.2	86.7	100.6	90.1	101.1	82.4	102.9	86.3	100.5
1925	84.6	101.0	89.2	103.1	88.5	100.6	90.6	100.8	86.7	102.9	90.5	100.4
1926	90.5	101.0	94.7	103.2	95.0	100.6	96.7	100.8	91.3	102.9	95.3	100.4
1927	95.0	100.9	97.0	102.7	98.1	100.6	101.0	100.5	95.1	102.9	98.8	100.4
1928	95.6	100.9	97.8	102.7	98.4	100.0	100.0	99.9	96.0	102.4	99.8	100.4
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	105.8	96.3	102.4	97.6	104.0	96.9	106.6	96.1	101.8	97.6	104.7	96.8
1931	106.8	94.0	102.2	96.1	104.2	95.4	107.0	95.0	103.2	96.6	105.2	95.0
1932	89.0	92.8	87.5	93.9	85.4	93.0	93.4	93.9	98.5	94.3	97.9	95.0
1933	88.7	91.8	85.2	94.9	85.2	91.6	91.2	95.7	89.9	94.3	91.0	93.0
1934	88.6	91.7	84.5	93.3	86.7	90.8	92.1	92.2	90.1	88.7	91.2	92.2
1935	89.8	91.0	84.2	93.2	87.8	90.4	92.6	92.0	94.4	85.1	91.3	91.9
1936	93.4	91.3	84.7	93.2	92.3	90.5	95.0	91.6	96.9	85.4	92.4	92.6
1937	100.6	91.0	90.6	94.1	98.3	90.3	101.9	91.7	101.1	89.6	96.0	92.4
1938	110.3	89.5	100.1	91.0	107.1	88.6	111.3	88.9	111.4	89.1	107.7	91.7
1939	110.8	89.5	100.6	91.1	107.3	88.6	111.7	88.9	112.0	88.8	109.5	89.5
1940	112.0	89.0	102.8	90.8	110.0	88.6	112.7	89.1	113.9	88.8	111.2	89.1

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Building Trade, 1907 to 1940*—Continued

Year	Engineers (portable and hoisting)		Glaziers		Granite cutters		Lathers		Marble setters		Mosaic and terrazzo workers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907					36.6	102.5			38.4	102.6		
1908					36.8	102.3			38.8	102.6		
1909					37.4	102.3			39.0	101.5		
1910					37.6	101.9			39.5	101.3		
1911					37.7	101.6			39.9	100.9		
1912	41.8	105.6			38.1	101.2	39.4	104.0	40.1	100.9		
1913	43.0	104.1			40.1	100.0	40.3	104.0	42.7	100.9		
1914	43.6	104.0			40.3	100.4	41.0	104.0	43.2	100.7		
1915	43.6	103.5			40.5	100.4	41.5	103.5	43.6	100.7		
1916	44.1	103.1			42.2	100.3	42.7	103.5	43.8	100.5	37.7	103.9
1917	46.5	102.4			43.8	100.3	44.4	103.0	43.8	100.4	39.7	103.9
1918	53.2	100.8	45.9	101.6	52.2	100.3	47.9	103.0	46.1	100.4	42.9	100.2
1919	58.3	100.3	49.1	101.6	61.7	100.3	53.3	102.7	51.2	100.0	46.1	100.2
1920	75.5	99.8	71.0	101.2	76.0	100.3	76.0	102.1	67.7	100.0	68.2	100.2
1921	76.7	99.4	72.2	101.6	83.7	100.1	77.2	101.9	68.8	100.1	69.4	100.2
1922	72.2	99.1	72.4	101.7	83.5	99.3	72.5	102.0	67.4	100.1	67.4	100.2
1923	79.8	98.7	76.7	101.2	85.1	99.9	80.1	102.3	76.2	100.1	69.0	100.2
1924	84.8	98.7	80.9	101.2	85.8	100.2	86.4	102.1	79.7	100.1	81.5	100.3
1925	88.5	99.0	90.0	100.8	86.8	100.3	94.2	101.8	81.4	100.1	85.7	100.2
1926	93.4	99.2	91.2	101.2	97.7	100.1	96.6	101.5	91.0	100.1	87.5	100.2
1927	96.4	100.8	97.4	101.5	97.1	100.3	100.5	101.0	92.9	100.0	91.1	99.9
1928	100.4	99.7	98.5	101.1	98.2	100.3	100.8	100.5	93.4	100.0	95.3	99.9
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	107.7	95.1	104.6	96.8	105.1	95.2	104.3	94.3	100.3	94.7	104.7	94.5
1931	107.7	93.7	105.3	95.1	105.2	94.4	103.7	93.8	100.8	93.0	105.6	93.6
1932	100.7	92.6	88.2	92.9	94.2	94.8	93.1	93.3	92.3	92.0	97.2	89.8
1933	99.6	91.7	88.0	92.9	90.7	93.6	89.7	92.9	89.2	91.9	89.5	91.0
1934	101.4	89.7	93.2	88.1	90.6	92.1	92.1	87.5	88.8	90.9	90.8	90.9
1935	103.1	89.2	94.1	87.5	90.5	92.1	93.1	87.4	89.4	90.9	90.8	90.3
1936	104.2	89.7	95.5	87.8	90.5	91.5	95.5	86.5	89.9	90.8	91.1	89.4
1937	112.6	89.5	104.6	87.9	91.0	91.9	101.8	87.7	95.1	90.8	95.4	90.0
1938	116.0	89.3	112.2	86.3	96.3	85.3	112.7	86.1	103.2	90.8	106.0	87.7
1939	117.4	89.2	113.0	86.1	97.7	85.3	116.4	85.4	103.5	90.8	107.5	87.7
1940	118.4	89.1	114.3	86.1	97.7	85.3	117.2	85.2	105.2	86.7	108.0	87.7

Year	Painters		Plasterers		Plumbers and gas fitters		Roofers—composition		Roofers—slate and tile		Sheet-metal workers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	27.5	114.1	39.9	108.8	37.8	104.7					33.8	105.4
1908	30.5	112.3	39.8	108.3	38.2	104.8					34.5	105.3
1909	32.6	110.7	40.1	108.3	38.8	104.8					34.7	105.3
1910	34.6	109.3	40.5	108.2	39.1	104.6					35.7	105.3
1911	35.3	108.6	40.8	108.8	41.4	104.3					36.8	105.0
1912	35.7	108.5	41.6	107.5	41.6	103.5					37.6	103.7
1913	37.3	107.9	42.0	107.5	43.0	103.5					39.3	103.5
1914	38.5	107.6	42.2	107.4	43.6	103.1	36.2	103.7	37.0	104.0	40.7	103.4
1915	38.7	107.6	42.4	106.9	43.9	103.1	37.1	103.7	38.4	104.0	41.3	103.2
1916	42.3	106.9	43.9	105.8	44.3	102.6	37.4	103.7	39.5	103.6	42.0	102.8
1917	43.6	106.8	45.2	105.7	45.8	102.5	39.5	103.0	42.1	101.8	43.8	102.7
1918	48.1	106.3	47.6	105.4	50.6	101.6	44.8	102.5	46.1	101.8	51.3	101.6
1919	56.3	106.1	54.9	105.4	57.2	101.3	49.8	102.5	52.5	101.5	56.6	101.2
1920	76.7	103.0	71.7	105.2	74.0	101.3	70.8	102.5	67.9	101.5	75.9	100.8
1921	78.9	103.1	75.6	104.9	77.4	101.1	74.2	100.6	73.9	101.4	78.7	100.8
1922	73.8	103.9	72.7	105.0	71.9	101.1	71.0	100.6	70.7	101.3	73.0	100.7
1923	81.0	103.6	81.0	105.5	79.4	101.1	71.9	100.6	78.8	101.6	78.6	100.7
1924	85.3	103.5	90.6	105.6	86.6	101.1	83.3	100.6	87.3	101.2	86.3	100.7
1925	90.0	103.8	92.1	105.3	88.4	101.1	85.8	100.6	91.3	101.2	89.2	100.7
1926	95.4	103.4	98.9	102.2	95.2	101.1	93.3	100.6	94.3	101.2	95.3	100.7
1927	98.6	103.0	101.0	101.8	97.2	100.9	95.9	100.6	98.8	101.2	98.2	100.4
1928	100.2	100.3	101.2	100.9	99.2	100.9	98.1	100.5	99.0	101.2	96.3	100.1
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	105.6	98.9	105.0	97.7	103.9	95.4	106.0	96.1	103.1	95.7	104.6	96.3
1931	106.1	98.0	104.7	97.0	105.1	94.1	106.7	94.9	103.5	94.1	106.2	94.7
1932	89.6	97.9	87.1	95.2	91.4	93.7	93.2	93.9	89.9	94.1	92.1	93.3
1933	87.8	97.7	83.7	97.2	90.6	93.3	91.2	95.1	87.7	94.1	89.4	93.2
1934	86.4	85.6	84.6	93.1	91.4	92.4	93.0	92.6	87.2	93.8	89.7	91.9
1935	86.7	85.5	85.6	91.6	92.8	91.8	95.6	92.5	89.5	92.6	90.4	92.0
1936	91.1	85.9	86.1	90.1	95.2	90.6	96.2	93.1	90.2	93.4	92.2	91.9
1937	97.7	85.9	94.9	90.2	100.4	91.1	103.7	93.2	96.9	93.3	98.9	92.0
1938	104.2	86.0	106.1	86.5	112.5	86.5	114.8	91.5	103.4	92.2	108.8	90.1
1939	105.0	85.7	107.0	86.5	113.5	86.8	115.2	91.6	104.4	92.2	110.4	90.1
1940	105.2	86.1	107.5	86.3	115.3	85.9	117.9	91.2	106.2	92.1	112.4	90.1

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Building Trade, 1907 to 1940*—Continued

Year	Sign painters		Steam and sprinkler fitters		Stonecutters		Stonemasons		Structural-iron workers [1]		Tile layers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	-------	-------	33.8	105.9	38.1	101.2	34.7	106.8	31.8	108.1	-------	-------
1908	-------	-------	34.2	105.9	38.2	101.2	35.2	106.8	34.7	105.9	-------	-------
1909	-------	-------	38.9	105.6	38.2	101.2	35.3	106.8	37.2	104.5	-------	-------
1910	-------	-------	36.1	105.0	38.4	101.2	35.6	105.2	39.5	103.4	-------	-------
1911	-------	-------	37.3	104.9	38.5	101.2	36.0	104.5	40.5	103.2	-------	-------
1912	-------	-------	37.9	104.2	38.6	100.9	36.4	104.5	41.2	102.1	42.7	102.8
1913	39.9	106.7	39.3	103.8	39.6	100.8	37.6	104.4	42.5	101.7	44.8	102.3
1914	40.1	106.3	40.0	102.5	41.1	100.8	38.7	104.4	43.3	101.5	45.0	102.3
1915	40.1	106.0	40.9	102.5	41.4	100.8	39.1	104.3	43.3	101.5	45.3	101.9
1916	40.9	106.1	41.7	102.2	41.8	100.4	39.7	104.1	44.0	101.2	45.9	101.4
1917	42.7	105.6	43.3	102.1	43.8	100.3	41.2	104.0	46.6	101.0	48.2	101.1
1918	46.7	105.5	47.3	101.1	46.7	100.3	45.2	104.0	53.4	100.7	49.6	101.1
1919	56.1	105.4	53.2	101.0	55.5	100.3	50.7	103.4	60.1	100.5	54.1	100.7
1920	75.7	105.3	70.2	100.9	72.7	100.2	70.7	103.4	76.2	100.5	72.8	100.4
1921	78.5	105.4	71,1	100.8	74.7	100.2	72.4	103.5	77.6	100.5	72.2	100.5
1922	77.8	105.4	69.5	100.8	71.7	100.2	67.4	103.4	70.5	100.5	71.0	100.3
1923	84.0	103.4	72.9	100.8	78.2	100.1	79.7	103.4	75.1	100.5	77.6	100.6
1924	95.7	101.6	83.6	100.8	84.0	100.1	84.5	103.1	85.0	100.5	88.1	100.6
1925	96.7	101.6	88.0	100.8	87.5	100.3	86.1	103.1	85.9	100.2	90.2	100.6
1926	96.2	103.7	95.3	100.7	95.4	100.1	94.9	103.3	92.4	100.5	94.6	100.6
1927	98.9	101.8	98.0	100.5	95.1	100.1	96.1	103.1	99.0	100.5	99.0	100.5
1928	99.0	101.7	99.4	100.5	95.5	100.2	97.3	103.0	99.2	100.4	98.9	100.2
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	99.9	99.1	104.9	95.5	100.7	96.9	101.5	96.6	105.5	96.9	104.5	94.8
1931	99.8	98.1	105.5	94.5	101.0	96.4	102.0	94.9	106.5	95.8	105.6	93.6
1932	90.1	97.6	90.9	93.6	93.7	94.3	90.5	94.5	92.3	93.4	91.1	92.6
1933	83.2	97.8	88.2	93.1	84.7	94.3	84.5	93.8	91.3	93.1	88.3	92.4
1934	82.9	95.1	89.2	92.5	85.1	93.0	84.4	93.4	92.5	91.8	88.3	86.2
1935	85.6	93.1	90.7	92.2	85.1	92.7	84.2	93.3	93.2	90.7	89.0	86.2
1936	87.6	92.9	93.7	92.4	86.3	92.8	85.2	93.3	95.6	90.6	90.7	86.1
1937	96.8	92.9	98.8	92.5	88.3	92.8	94.1	93.3	104.4	90.2	97.1	89.8
1938	97.7	92.0	111.4	87.6	96.1	91.7	102.1	90.2	112.7	89.2	106.4	89.8
1939	97.9	91.9	112.2	88.0	96.5	91.8	102.4	90.2	114.0	89.1	106.5	89.8
1940	98.1	92.1	112.5	88.0	96.8	91.7	101.9	90.1	114.4	89.1	106.7	89.8

[1] Included rodmen prior to 1938.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Building Trade, 1907 to 1940*—Continued

Year	Building laborers		Hod carriers (masons' tenders)		Plasterers' laborers		Elevator constructors' helpers		Marble-setters' helpers		Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers		Tile layers' helpers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	35.0	108.5	33.1	110.5	34.1	106.6	------	------	------	------	26.4	103.1	------	------
1908	35.2	108.5	33.2	110.5	35.6	106.2	------	------	------	------	26.8	103.0	------	------
1909	35.3	108.1	33.3	110.1	36.0	105.9	------	------	------	------	26.9	102.8	------	------
1910	36.7	105.5	33.8	109.2	36.2	105.9	------	------	------	------	29.1	101.8	------	------
1911	36.8	105.5	34.1	108.6	36.2	105.8	------	------	------	------	29.3	101.7	------	------
1912	37.2	105.5	34.3	107.8	36.6	105.3	------	------	35.8	100.5	30.2	101.6	36.1	103.0
1913	38.8	105.5	34.8	107.8	37.5	105.3	------	------	37.9	100.5	31.0	101.3	36.8	102.5
1914	39.2	105.2	35.2	106.4	38.3	105.4	37.5	102.9	38.1	100.1	31.6	102.0	37.1	102.5
1915	39.4	105.2	35.4	106.4	38.4	105.4	37.8	102.2	38.1	100.1	32.5	102.0	38.4	100.9
1916	41.2	104.6	36.5	106.4	39.4	104.4	38.8	102.2	38.1	100.1	33.0	101.7	39.8	100.6
1917	45.5	103.5	40.7	106.3	42.1	104.2	40.9	101.7	40.6	100.1	35.1	101.7	40.8	99.8
1918	53.4	103.0	47.5	106.3	48.5	104.2	43.6	101.7	42.5	100.1	40.5	100.3	42.1	99.8
1919	60.5	101.1	55.6	105.9	55.3	103.8	52.9	100.9	48.6	100.0	48.6	100.2	51.0	99.5
1920	87.7	100.0	80.8	105.7	80.1	103.8	74.1	100.7	82.0	100.0	70.4	100.2	83.5	99.5
1921	88.2	100.0	81.2	105.7	82.7	103.4	77.5	100.5	81.9	100.2	72.2	100.2	84.4	99.6
1922	82.8	99.3	67.3	105.9	72.6	103.4	73.8	100.6	76.2	100.2	74.1	100.3	79.3	99.6
1923	84.4	100.0	73.5	105.9	80.0	103.5	77.3	100.6	82.3	100.2	78.7	100.3	81.1	100.5
1924	93.9	99.7	76.8	105.8	86.0	103.4	85.2	100.6	89.2	100.2	87.2	100.3	88.3	100.5
1925	89.7	99.8	85.8	105.7	91.7	103.3	89.2	100.5	84.6	100.2	89.7	100.3	90.8	100.5
1926	98.7	100.0	93.5	105.8	97.1	99.9	96.1	100.5	93.9	100.2	95.0	100.2	98.4	100.5
1927	99.1	100.2	95.7	105.8	98.0	99.8	99.0	100.5	93.3	100.0	99.3	100.4	99.5	100.5
1928	99.5	100.1	95.8	105.8	99.6	100.1	100.9	100.5	94.3	100.1	101.4	100.0	101.5	100.5
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	105.5	98.1	103.8	99.3	106.0	97.4	105.4	96.2	101.7	95.9	109.3	92.1	108.5	93.6
1931	103.9	97.0	103.5	98.8	105.6	96.6	105.7	94.7	101.8	94.2	109.3	91.8	108.5	92.6
1932	89.4	93.6	85.8	96.6	87.6	96.3	96.9	94.7	93.2	93.8	94.3	91.7	95.8	91.4
1933	84.2	93.2	84.7	96.1	82.5	94.7	88.9	92.5	90.7	94.0	91.6	91.6	91.4	91.5
1934	87.3	89.1	90.3	94.3	84.8	91.8	88.4	91.8	90.9	92.3	91.9	91.1	91.5	87.6
1935	88.6	89.0	87.4	94.2	86.2	90.7	88.6	91.5	91.5	92.3	93.0	91.1	94.6	76.3
1936	96.2	89.5	92.1	94.0	88.0	89.2	89.5	92.1	91.6	92.2	93.2	91.5	96.0	76.3
1937	105.3	89.7	99.1	94.3	95.8	89.2	91.8	91.7	97.0	92.2	100.0	91.8	101.2	81.6
1938	112.9	89.3	109.1	93.2	108.1	85.1	104.5	91.1	105.4	92.2	121.8	82.3	111.6	81.6
1939	113.6	89.2	109.4	92.9	109.0	84.8	107.9	86.8	105.9	92.2	122.5	82.2	111.9	81.6
1940	115.4	88.7	113.6	92.8	109.2	84.5	108.9	86.6	108.2	88.3	123.2	82.2	112.1	81.6

MAXIMUM WEEKLY HOURS

Twelve journeyman indexes of allowed weekly hours were lower in 1940 than in 1939; three were slightly higher; and nine were unchanged. Five helper and laborer hour indexes declined during the year, and two showed no change.

As measured by the index numbers, none of the increases amounted to as much as 0.5 percent over the 1939 level. Fifteen of the decreases were of less than 1 percent, the marble setters and their helpers, whose indexes declined 4.5 and 4.2 percent, respectively, being the only trades for which greater changes were reported.

In comparison with the base year (1929), all of the trades have had reductions in their average allowed weekly hours. The greatest decline has been that of the tile layers' helpers, whose hour index is 81.6. The hod carriers, whose index is 92.8, have had the least reduction. Among the journeyman trades the index of the lathers (85.2) indicates the greatest reduction in allowed weekly hours since 1929, and those of the slate and tile roofers and sign painters (92.1) indicate the least average reduction.

RATE CHANGES IN SPECIFIED TRADES

Since data for boilermakers, machinists, paperhangers, and rodmen were not collected in 1929, it is impossible to present index numbers for these crafts or to include them in the trend discussion above, since it is based upon the changes in the index numbers. The changes over the previous years, as shown in comparable quotations for each year in which data have been collected for these trades, however, are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Specified Building Trades, 1936 to 1940*

Item	Percent of change from previous year			
	1937	1938	1939	1940
Boilermakers:				
Hourly wage rates	+2.4	+10.4	+0.6	+1.5
Weekly hours	−.1	−5.0	0.0	0.0
Machinists:				
Hourly wage rates	+14.7	+6.5	+.2	+.4
Weekly hours	−.4	−.5	−.1	0.0
Paperhangers:				
Hourly wage rates	----	+1.7	+.5	+.8
Weekly hours	----	−.6	+.2	+.3
Rodmen:				
Hourly wage rates	----	+9.8	+1.0	+1.2
Weekly hours	----	0.0	−.1	0.0

Changes in Union Scales Between 1939 and 1940[3]

HOURLY WAGE RATES

Increased hourly wage rates were reported in 433, or 15.6 percent, of the 1940 quotations, which were comparable with 1939 (table 4). The greatest part of the comparable quotations, 2,329 of the total 2,773, indicated that the wage scales of 1939 were still in effect on June 1, 1940. Only 11 quotations, or 0.4 percent, showed that decreases had occurred during the year.

Slightly more than 1 in every 5 union members in the building trades were benefited by the increased wage scales. Nearly 79 percent of the total membership had no change in rates, and only half of 1 percent received decreases.

[3] Certain anomalies enter into a comparison of average rates between 2 years when such averages reflect not only the actual rates provided for in the agreements but the number of union members for that year in each local union covered by the reported rates. By and large, it would be expected that a general increase in actual rates would be accompanied by a corresponding increase in the average rate paid to union members, but if union membership increases most (or decreases least) in the lower-paid crafts or in areas with less-than-average rates, the average of the rates paid to all union members may not increase correspondingly, or may even show a decrease. Conversely, the average rate may increase in spite of a downward swing in actual rates, if union membership declines sufficiently in the lower-paid crafts or in areas where lower-than-average rates are paid.

Because the averages do not accurately reflect changes from year to year, no table comparing 1939 and 1940 averages is included in this report. For the trend of actual union rates, the table of indexes (table 1) should be consulted, since these are so computed as to eliminate the effect of fluctuating memberships at various rates. The current averages, on the other hand, best serve for comparison of the general level of wage rates between trades, or between cities and regions at the time the survey was made.

Proportionately the number of increases in wage rates were equally distributed between the journeymen and the helpers and laborers. In respect to the proportion of members benefited, however, the helper and laborer group led with over 25 percent of its membership receiving wage-rate increases, compared with 19.7 percent in the journeyman group.

Some increases in wage rates were reported for every trade except the granite cutters. The hod carriers with 14 increases among the 83 comparable rates reported, led all trades in the proportion of their total membership benefited (53.4 percent). Among the journeyman trades, the marble setters, reporting 4 increases in 65 quotations, showed the greatest proportion of members receiving raises (41.3 percent). Two other journeyman trades, the bricklayers and composition roofers, reported wage-rate increases for over 30 percent of their members; and six journeyman trades, the carpenters, electricians, elevator constructors, paperhangers, slate and tile roofers, and sheet-metal workers, reported increases benefiting over 20 percent of their members. In 10 of the 28 journeyman classifications, however, over 90 percent of the total memberships were reported as having had no changes in their wage scales during the year.

In the helper and laborer group of trades, the marble setters' helpers and the plumbers' laborers, in addition to the hod carriers, each reported wage-rate increases that benefited over 30 percent of their respective members. Two other helper trades obtained rate increases for over 20 percent of their memberships, and the building laborers reported increases for 18 percent of their members. The distribution of the wage-rate changes and of the members affected are shown in table 4.

Of the total increases reported, 247 were advances of less than 10 percent over the 1939 rates; 118 were raises of 10 to 15 percent; and 68 were increases of 15 percent or more. The largest percentage increase was that of the engineers operating bulldozers, graders, tractors, and 1-bag mixers in Erie, whose rate changed from $0.925 in 1939 to $1.375 in 1940. Other large percentage increases were reported in the quotations for painters, paperhangers, composition roofers, and slate and tile roofers in Jacksonville, and for residential electricians in Louisville, each of which indicated an advance from $0.750 to $1 per hour. The only other increase amounting to as much as 30 percent of the 1939 rates was that of the Richmond hod carriers, whose hourly rate was raised from $0.50 to $0.65.

TABLE 4.—*Number of Changes in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940, Compared with June 1, 1939*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1939	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of union members affected		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All building trades	2,773	433	11	2,329	20.9	0.5	78.6
Journeymen	2,254	352	7	1,895	19.7	.6	79.7
Asbestos workers	61	15		46	15.3		84.7
Boilermakers	41	5		36	14.8		85.2
Bricklayers	74	5		69	39.5		60.5
Carpenters	109	20		89	28.8		71.2
Cement finishers	69	9		60	12.7		87.3
Electricians, inside wiremen	93	22		71	20.7		79.3
Elevator constructors	122	35		87	27.8		72.2
Engineers, portable and hoisting	275	37		238	8.0		92.0
Glaziers	65	17		48	17.8		82.2
Granite cutters	29			29			100.0
Lathers	90	14	1	75	8.9	(1)	91.1
Machinists	34	4		30	2.8		97.2
Marble setters	65	4		61	41.3		58.7
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	59	3	1	55	9.9	2.8	87.3
Painters	115	23	1	91	8.5	3.3	88.2
Paperhangers	63	11	1	51	21.1	1.8	77.1
Plasterers	73	9		64	8.8		91.2
Plumbers and gas fitters	78	10		68	15.7		84.3
Rodmen	67	13	1	53	13.7	.3	86.0
Roofers, composition	96	30		66	32.8		67.2
Roofers, slate and tile	57	16		41	22.3		77.7
Sheet-metal workers	61	16		45	24.1		75.9
Sign painters	66	3		63	1.9		98.1
Steam and sprinkler fitters	98	10	1	87	4.7	.6	94.7
Stonecutters	79	4		75	7.2		92.8
Stonemasons	67	3	1	63	14.3	5.7	80.0
Structural-iron workers	81	10		71	5.4		94.6
Tile layers	67	4		63	3.6		96.4
Helpers and laborers	519	81	4	434	25.4	.1	74.5
Building laborers	75	11		64	18.3		81.7
Composition roofers' helpers	23	6		17	26.8		73.2
Elevator constructors' helpers	91	25	2	64	21.5	2.9	75.6
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	83	14		69	53.4		46.6
Marble setters' helpers	45	6		39	38.4		61.6
Plasterers' laborers	68	6		62	4.2		95.8
Plumbers' laborers	37	3	1	33	34.3	.8	64.9
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	49	4	1	44	9.2	.2	90.6
Tile layers' helpers	48	6		42	3.7		96.3

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The larger rate increases, however, benefited only a small number of union members. Of the total membership receiving rate increases, nearly two-thirds had their scales raised by less than 10 percent and over a fourth had raises amounting to between 10 and 15 percent of their 1939 rates. The raises amounting to 15 percent or more of the 1939 rates applied to only 6.7 percent of the members for whom increases were reported. Table 5 shows the distribution of the wage-rate increases according to the percentage of increase.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Increases in Union Wage-Rate Quotations, and Percent of Members Affected, by Percent of Increase, June 1, 1940, Compared With June 1, 1939*

Trade	Number of quotations showing increases of—						Percent of total members affected by increases of—					
	Less than 10 percent	10 and under 15 percent	15 and under 20 percent	20 and under 25 percent	25 and under 30 percent	30 percent and over	Less than 10 percent	10 and under 15 percent	15 and under 20 percent	20 and under 25 percent	25 and under 30 percent	30 percent and over
All building trades	247	118	24	16	21	7	13.5	6.0	0.9	0.1	0.3	0.1
Journeymen	194	105	18	12	17	6	13.2	5.0	.9	.1	.4	.1
Asbestos workers	7	5	-----	-----	3	-----	10.5	4.0	-----	-----	8	-----
Boilermakers	4	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	11.3	-----	-----	3.5	-----	-----
Bricklayers	4	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	39.3	-----	-----	-----	.2	-----
Carpenters	7	8	2	-----	3	-----	18.5	7.6	1.7	-----	1.0	-----
Cement finishers	4	3	-----	-----	2	-----	5.7	6.3	-----	-----	.7	-----
Electricians, inside wiremen	9	11	1	-----	-----	1	6.6	10.6	3.3	-----	-----	.2
Elevator constructors	34	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	26.1	-----	1.7	-----	-----	-----
Engineers, portable and hoisting	23	9	1	2	1	1	6.1	1.7	.1	.1	(1)	(1)
Glaziers	9	5	3	-----	-----	-----	13.3	3.2	1.3	-----	-----	-----
Lathers	6	4	2	1	1	-----	6.2	1.5	1.0	.2	(1)	-----
Machinists	1	1	-----	1	1	-----	.1	1.3	-----	.4	1.0	-----
Marble setters	4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	41.3	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	3	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	9.9	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Painters	8	8	3	2	1	1	6.5	1.2	.3	(1)	.1	.4
Paperhangers	5	3	1	1	-----	1	19.5	.8	.3	.3	-----	.2
Plasterers	6	1	1	1	-----	-----	6.4	1.5	.7	.2	-----	-----
Plumbers and gas fitters	3	6	-----	-----	1	-----	2.1	13.5	-----	-----	.1	-----
Rodmen	5	7	-----	-----	1	-----	6.1	7.0	-----	-----	.6	-----
Roofers, composition	15	10	3	1	-----	1	19.5	11.9	1.0	.3	-----	.1
Roofers, slate and tile	9	4	-----	1	1	1	13.8	5.1	-----	.7	1.9	.8
Sheet-metal workers	7	9	-----	-----	-----	-----	11.6	12.5	-----	-----	-----	-----
Sign painters	-----	3	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1.9	-----	-----	-----	-----
Steam and sprinkler fitters	5	4	-----	-----	1	-----	3.0	1.5	-----	-----	.2	-----
Stonecutters	4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	7.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Stonemasons	3	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	14.3	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Structural-iron workers	7	2	-----	1	-----	-----	4.7	.3	-----	.4	-----	-----
Tile layers	2	2	-----	-----	-----	-----	2.1	1.5	-----	-----	-----	-----
Helpers and laborers	53	13	6	4	4	1	14.4	9.7	1.0	.1	.1	.1
Building laborers	4	5	1	-----	1	-----	3.7	12.9	1.5	-----	.2	-----
Composition roofers' helpers	2	1	1	1	1	-----	9.4	3.8	3.8	4.0	5.8	-----
Elevator constructors' helpers	23	-----	-----	-----	2	-----	21.4	-----	-----	-----	.1	-----
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	9	3	-----	1	-----	1	48.5	4.4	-----	.1	-----	.4
Marble setters' helpers	4	1	1	-----	-----	-----	37.6	.6	.2	-----	-----	-----
Plasterers' laborers	5	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	3.6	-----	-----	.6	-----	-----
Plumbers' laborers	1	2	-----	-----	-----	-----	.6	33.7	-----	-----	-----	-----
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	1	-----	2	1	-----	-----	5.1	-----	3.5	.6	-----	-----
Tile layers' helpers	4	1	1	-----	-----	-----	3.2	.3	.2	-----	-----	-----

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

MAXIMUM WEEKLY HOURS

Comparatively few changes were made in the maximum weekly hour scales of union members in the building trades between June 1, 1939 and June 1, 1940. Only 88 reductions and 10 increases in weekly hours were reported among the 2,773 quotations showing comparable scales of hours for the past two years. The decreases applied to 2.1 percent of the total membership and the increases to 0.6 percent.

The reports for four journeyman and two helper and laborer trades showed no changes in hour scales from any of the cities covered. The 10 increases in weekly hours were divided among eight journeyman trades and one helper and laborer trade, more than one increase being

reported only for the sign painters. All but five of the journeyman trades and two of the helper and laborer trades reported some downward revisions in working hours, those having the greatest proportionate number of reductions being the elevator constructors and their helpers.

Generally speaking, comparatively few union members were affected by changes in hour scales. In only one journeyman trade and two helper and laborer trades did the proportion of the membership affected amount to as much as 10 percent, the number affected in most trades ranging well below 5 percent.

The distribution of the changes in weekly hours between 1939 and 1940 and the percentages of members affected are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Number of Changes in Union Hour Quotations, and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940, Compared With June 1, 1939*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1939	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of union members affected		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All building trades	2,773	10	88	2,675	0.6	2.1	97.3
Journeymen	2,254	9	63	2,182	.8	1.4	97.8
Asbestos workers	61		4	57		6.6	93.4
Boilermakers	41			41			100.0
Bricklayers	74		3	71		2.5	97.5
Carpenters	109		1	108		(1)	100.0
Cement finishers	69	1	1	67	3.6	1.3	95.1
Electricians, inside wiremen	93	1	5	87	1.5	3.9	94.6
Elevator constructors	122	1	11	110	.2	4.6	95.2
Engineers, portable and hoisting	275		4	271		1.3	98.7
Glaziers	65	1	1	63	.2	.4	99.4
Granite cutters	29			29			100.0
Lathers	90		2	88		1.5	98.5
Machinists	34			34			100.0
Marble setters	65		3	62		36.3	63.7
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	59		1	58		.6	99.4
Painters	115	1	1	113	3.3	(1)	96.7
Paperhangers	63	1		62	1.8		98.2
Plasterers	73		2	71		1.6	98.4
Plumbers and gas fitters	78	1	1	76	.5	8.5	91.0
Rodmen	67		2	65		.4	99.6
Roofers, composition	96		6	90		3.6	96.4
Roofers, slate and tile	57		3	54		3.2	96.8
Sheet-metal workers	61			61			100.0
Sign painters	66	2	1	63	3.1	2.3	94.6
Steam and sprinkler fitters	98		2	96		.7	99.3
Stonecutters	79		3	76		.6	99.4
Stonemasons	67		2	65		1.4	98.6
Structural-iron workers	81		2	79		.3	99.7
Tile layers	67		2	65		.7	99.3
Helpers and laborers	519	1	25	493	(1)	5.0	95.0
Building laborers	75		5	70		5.7	94.3
Composition roofers' helpers	23		2	21		6.8	93.2
Elevator constructors' helpers	91	1	10	80	.2	2.8	97.0
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	83		3	80		1.1	98.9
Marble setters' helpers	45		2	43		33.8	66.2
Plasterers' laborers	68		2	66		2.2	97.8
Plumbers' laborers	37		1	36		22.9	77.1
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	49			49			100.0
Tile layers' helpers	48			48			100.0

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Average Union Wage Rates, 1940

The average union rate per hour for all building trades in the 72 cities studied was $1.369 per hour on June 1, 1940. The journeyman average was $1.487 and that of the helpers and laborers was $0.898. (See table 7.)

The bricklayers' average of $1.711 was higher than that of any other trade, although the plasterers were a close second with an average of $1.704. The structural-iron workers ($1.614) and the lathers ($1.602) were next in line. Ten other journeyman trades had averages of $1.50 per hour or higher, and nine had averages between $1.40 and $1.50. Only five of the journeyman trades had averages below $1.40, the lowest being that of the composition roofers, $1.276 per hour.

Five of the seven helper and laborer trades, for which averages were computed, had averages exceeding $1 per hour, the highest being $1.096 for the elevator constructors' helpers. The building laborers, who had the lowest average ($0.812), and the hod carriers, ($0.974) were the only trades with averages of under $1.

The extreme range of journeyman rates was from $0.55 per hour, for glaziers, paperhangers, and some of the painters in Charleston, S. C., to $2.50 per hour, for bucket-hoist operators in New York City. Nearly 99 percent of the journeymen, however, had rates between $1 and $2.10, with about 65 percent receiving between $1.20 and $1.70. The rates reported for the larger proportionate memberships, in the order of the memberships to which they applied, were: $1.50, $1.25, $1.625, and $1.375 per hour. Without regard to memberships, the most frequently reported rates, were, in the order of their frequencies: $1.25, $1.50, $1.375, $1.00, and $1.125. These concentrations at 12½ cent intervals resulted from the general tendency to establish wage scales in even dollars per day coupled with the general prevalence of the 8-hour day. This same combination of factors resulted in comparatively few hourly rates being reported in the range between $1.40 and $1.50 of the journeyman distribution and between $0.90 and $1 in the helper and laborer distribution.

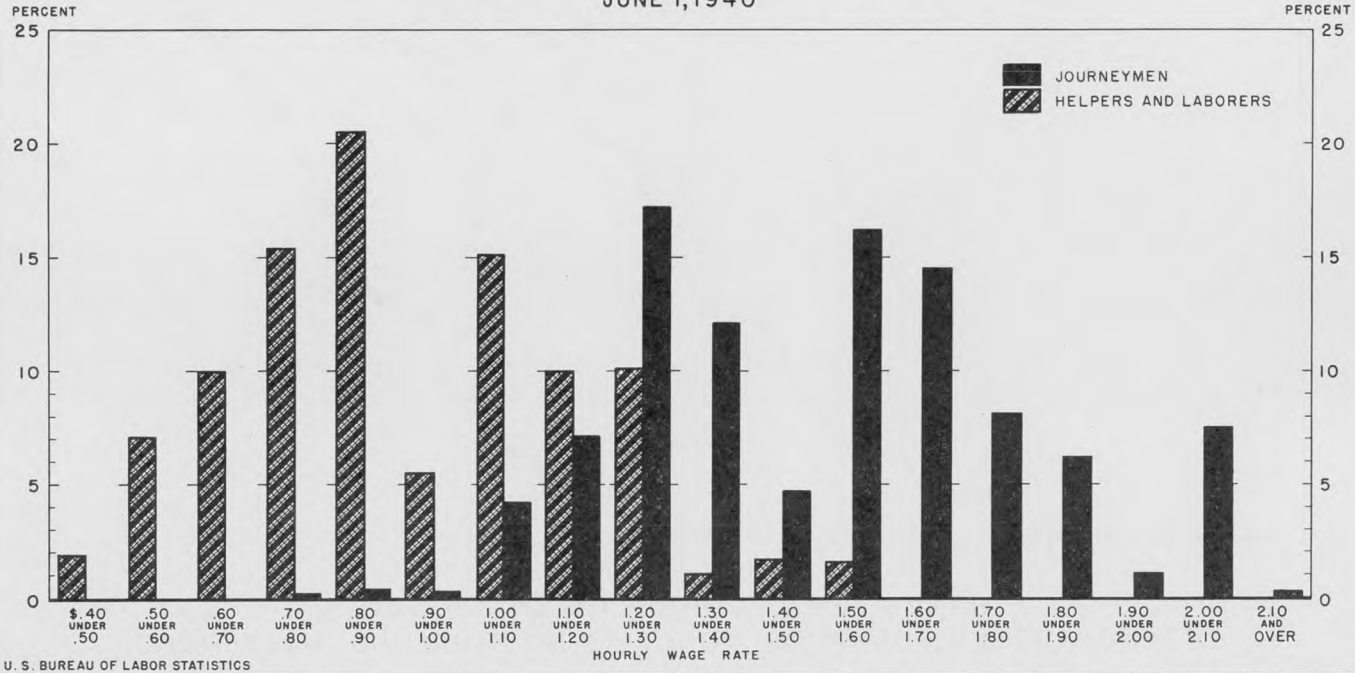
Sixteen journeyman trades had over half of their total membership in wage brackets of $1.50 and over per hour. In 7 of these, and in 2 other trades, over 10 percent of the members were receiving $2 or more per hour. The machinists and the mosaic and terrazzo workers had no rates as high as $1.80 per hour; and the painters, paperhangers, and tile layers had none as high as $1.70. On the other hand, 10 journeyman trades reported no hourly rates of less than $1; the marble setters and tile layers reported none under $1.10; and the boilermakers reported none below $1.20.

The rates for helpers and laborers ranged from $0.35 per hour for building laborers in Charleston, S. C., to $1.517 for plasterers' laborers in Brooklyn. Comparatively few of the helpers and laborers, how-

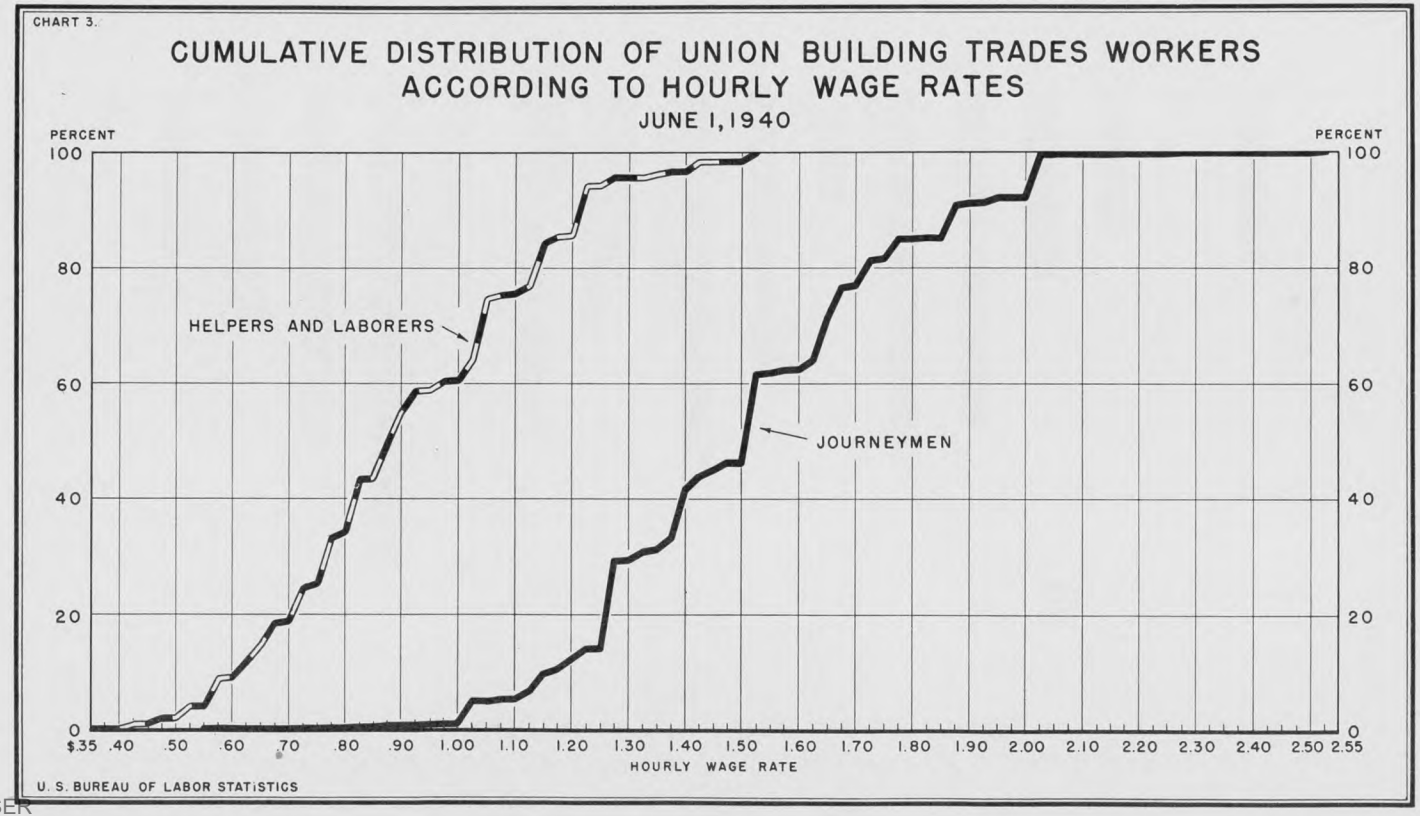
CHART 2.

DISTRIBUTION OF UNION BUILDING TRADES WORKERS ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES

JUNE 1, 1940



U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



ever, had rates either below $0.50 or above $1.30 per hour. About 25 percent of the members had rates within a range of 10 cents per hour about the average for all members, while a 20-cent range about the average included well over half of the total membership. The specific rates reported for the greater proportionate helper and laborer memberships, in the order of the memberships to which they applied, were: $1.025, $0.80, $1.20, $0.75, $1.125, and $0.85. Without regard to memberships, the most frequently reported rates, in the order of their frequencies were: $0.75, $1.00, $0.90, $0.70, $0.80, and $0.85.

TABLE 7.—*Distribution of Union Members in the Building Trades, by Hourly Wage Rates, June 1, 1940*

Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union journeymen whose rates (in cents) per hour were—												
		Under 100	100 and under 110	110 and under 120	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160	160 and under 170	170 and under 180	180 and under 190	190 and under 200	200 and under 210	210 and over
Journeymen	$1.487	0.9	4.2	7.1	17.1	12.1	4.7	16.2	14.5	8.1	6.2	1.1	7.5	0.3
Asbestos workers	1.470	7.1	.6	1.2	12.0	31.6	9.0	4.1	12.2	9.2	-----	-----	13.0	-----
Boilermakers	1.576	-----	-----	-----	6.0	2.6	-----	62.4	5.1	3.9	-----	20.0	-----	-----
Bricklayers	1.711	-----	.8	.3	4.5	3.4	1.8	23.1	10.3	19.7	2.1	.1	33.9	-----
Carpenters	1.425	.8	4.4	12.2	23.4	11.8	8.5	6.4	13.7	3.3	15.5	-----	-----	-----
Cement finishers	1.439	-----	4.0	3.6	31.5	15.3	3.8	9.2	11.0	19.8	1.3	-----	.5	-----
Electricians, inside wiremen	1.552	.2	4.1	2.2	13.5	20.9	.8	11.6	17.8	7.5	1.2	-----	20.2	-----
Elevator constructors	1.511	.1	.8	1.6	9.8	12.5	20.9	23.7	15.7	2.7	9.3	2.9	-----	-----
Engineers, portable and hoisting	1.539	1.0	5.0	3.0	13.8	12.0	3.1	23.8	9.2	9.7	2.4	2.6	11.0	3.4
Glaziers	1.412	2.7	11.9	14.1	20.1	10.6	5.6	5.4	1.8	-----	13.9	13.9	-----	-----
Granite cutters	1.342	-----	18.3	18.4	4.4	41.0	4.7	.3	-----	.4	-----	-----	12.5	-----
Lathers	1.602	.3	.9	7.9	5.2	8.0	2.5	20.1	15.9	24.5	-----	.9	6.0	7.8
Machinists	1.500	-----	1.1	.3	25.2	6.7	-----	9.4	53.5	3.8	-----	-----	-----	-----
Marble setters	1.589	-----	-----	.2	5.9	17.1	1.5	17.9	14.6	41.5	1.3	-----	-----	-----
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	1.451	-----	1.8	1.8	29.1	15.4	6.7	14.8	8.5	21.9	-----	-----	-----	-----
Painters	1.390	1.8	7.5	10.8	19.1	8.1	.2	27.1	25.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Paperhangers	1.367	2.7	7.7	13.3	18.8	21.5	-----	4.2	31.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Plasterers	1.704	-----	.1	1.0	3.7	11.6	-----	19.5	11.2	17.3	.8	-----	34.8	-----
Plumbers and gas fitters	1.537	.2	2.1	.9	11.3	13.8	16.4	20.0	3.9	17.0	-----	-----	14.4	-----
Rodmen	1.454	-----	2.1	6.4	25.1	12.4	5.2	16.0	7.2	23.1	-----	-----	2.5	-----
Roofers, composition	1.276	9.1	16.4	9.0	25.6	9.3	5.1	4.5	13.8	5.8	-----	-----	1.4	-----
Roofers, slate and tile	1.417	1.0	13.6	7.2	17.2	9.1	2.9	11.2	17.6	12.3	7.9	-----	-----	-----
Sheet-metal workers	1.447	-----	3.5	3.1	26.3	23.7	.6	16.3	2.4	8.0	16.1	-----	-----	-----
Sign painters	1.500	.1	7.7	2.3	20.8	12.6	3.3	14.4	8.4	13.8	13.7	-----	-----	2.9
Steam and sprinkler fitters	1.585	.1	1.8	2.1	5.2	19.5	5.0	19.3	3.6	26.1	-----	-----	17.3	-----
Stonecutters	1.389	8.4	5.6	9.6	26.2	6.5	1.8	2.3	31.1	1.7	-----	6.5	.3	-----
Stonemasons	1.540	-----	.4	(1)	21.2	3.5	10.9	32.5	7.1	6.8	1.2	8.5	7.9	-----
Structural-iron workers	1.614	-----	.1	-----	7.6	12.5	.7	28.8	13.9	14.4	.1	15.8	6.1	-----
Tile layers	1.469	-----	-----	2.3	20.2	18.9	3.4	21.5	33.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union helpers and laborers whose rates (in cents) per hour were—											
		Under 50	50 and under 60	60 and under 70	70 and under 80	80 and under 90	90 and under 100	100 and under 110	110 and under 120	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160
Helpers and laborers [2]	$0.898	1.9	7.1	10.0	15.4	20.5	5.5	15.1	10.0	10.1	1.1	1.7	1.6
Building laborers	.812	3.0	10.7	14.5	13.3	27.8	3.6	17.8	9.3	-----	(1)	-----	-----
Elevator constructors' helpers	1.096	-----	-----	.1	.7	6.8	11.7	43.3	22.7	-----	14.7	-----	-----
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	.974	.9	2.2	3.7	24.5	10.5	6.4	8.0	4.5	39.2	.1	-----	-----
Marble setters' helpers	1.058	-----	.8	2.9	11.0	12.9	17.4	14.7	6.2	-----	34.1	-----	-----
Plasterers' laborers	1.085	-----	3.7	3.3	6.8	5.2	9.1	15.3	26.1	6.3	.2	20.2	3.8
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	1.095	-----	.3	7.1	22.8	11.9	6.4	7.5	4.9	-----	-----	-----	39.1
Tile layers' helpers	1.001	-----	1.1	1.9	16.9	13.6	18.9	6.3	12.7	28.5	.1	-----	-----

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

[2] Includes also plumbers' laborers and composition roofers' helpers, not shown separately because of the small number of quotations obtained for these trades.

Rates of $1 or higher per hour were reported for over half of the members in each of the unskilled trades except the building laborers and the tile layers' helpers. The tile layers' helpers, however, had their rates concentrated in a comparatively narrow range, having only 3 percent of their members in wage brackets under 70 cents per hour and only 0.1 percent with rates of $1.30 or higher. The building laborers reported a substantial proportion of their membership as being in the lower wage-rate brackets, over 10 percent having rates between 50 and 60 cents per hour, and 3 percent having rates below 50 cents per hour. The hod carriers also reported a few members with rates of less than 50 cents per hour. No other trade had any members in that bracket, although each one, except the elevator constructors, helpers, reported some within the 50 to 60 cent range.

The average rates, as of June 1, 1940, and the distribution of the memberships according to the reported hourly wage rates are shown in table 7.

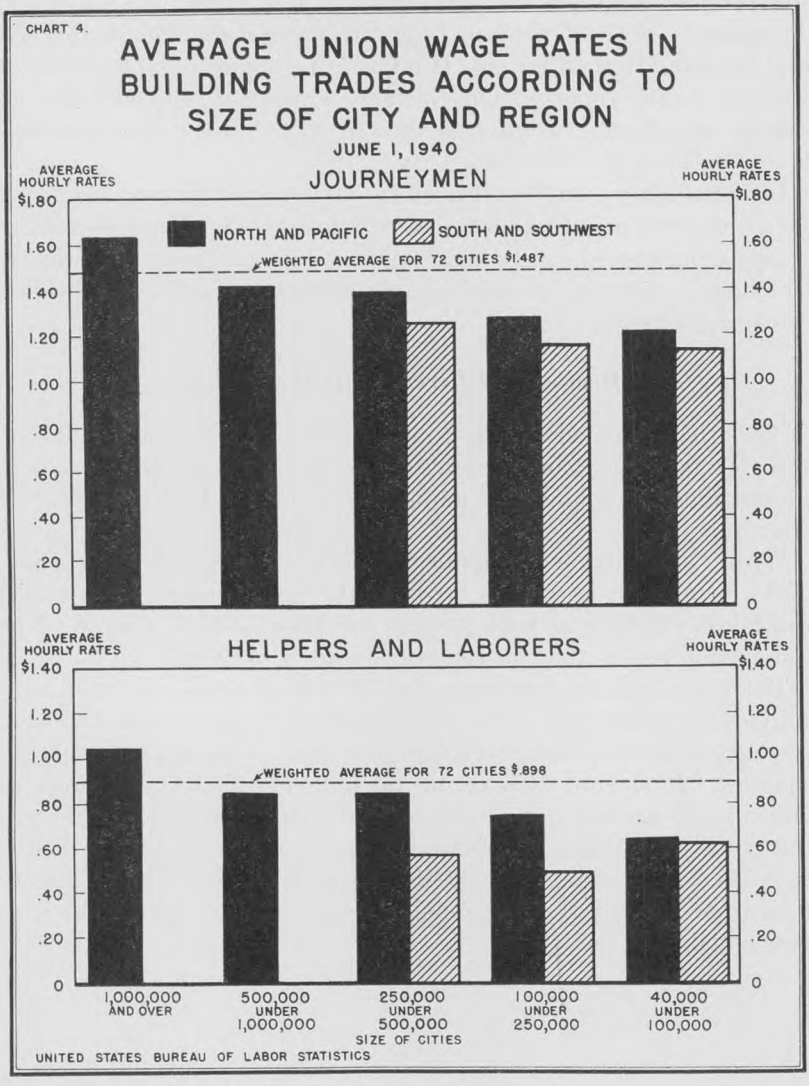
Average Wage Rates by Size of City

The averages of the wage rates for all building trades within the several population groups varied directly with the size of the cities. The cities having the largest populations (group I: over 1,000,000) had an average rate nearly 22 cents per hour higher than those having populations between 500,000 and 1,000,000 (group II). The group II cities, in turn had an average 7 cents per hour higher than that for group III cities (250,000 to 500,000 population). The group III average exceeded the group IV (100,000 to 250,000) average by over 11 cents per hour, and the group IV average exceeded the group V (40,000 to 100,000) average by over 7 cents per hour. The same general relationship between the average hourly wage rates and the city sizes prevailed not only for all building trades combined, but also for the separate averages of all journeymen and of all helpers and laborers. (See table 8.)

In the northern and Pacific region the direct variation between the wage-rate averages and the city sizes held for all trades combined, and also for the journeyman trades as a group. In the helper and laborer group averages there was one exception in that the average for size III cities slightly exceeded that for size II cities. This was largely due to the influence of proportionately large memberships reported in Washington, Baltimore, and Buffalo, which were the cities having less than average rates for helpers and laborers in group II, plus the proportionately large membership reported for Newark, Seattle, and Minneapolis, which were among the cities having the highest averages in group III.

In the South and Southwest the averages for the journeyman trades varied directly with the city sizes, but the averages for the helper and laborer trades and those for all trades combined did not. In the helper

and laborer group the average for size V cities exceeded that of the size IV cities, owing to the proportionately large membership reported for Phoenix, in which city the helpers and laborers had higher average rates than in any other city of either size IV or V in the South and Southwest. This influence carried over into the averages for all



trades combined with the result that the size V average was nearly a cent higher than that of size IV.

In general the averages for the individual trades varied directly with the size of city. Including cities in all regions, the averages for 21 journeyman and 4 helper and laborer trades varied directly throughout the city-size classifications. The averages including only northern

and Pacific cities for 15 journeyman and 3 helper and laborer trades maintained direct variation, while those including only southern and southwestern cities varied directly in 14 journeyman and 2 helper and laborer trades.

In the northern and Pacific region the overlap of wage rates as between city sizes was most apparent in respect to sizes II and III, the majority of the deviations from direct variation being higher averages for size III than for size II cities. To a considerable extent this was due to the reports from Newark, which not only included substantial memberships, but also showed wage rates approximating or equal to those of New York City.

In the southern and southwestern cities the deviations from direct variation were mostly as between the size IV and V cities, resulting mainly from the relatively large memberships and high rates reported for Phoenix and Jackson as compared with those for other cities in the two size groups.

Regional Differences in Wage Rates

Since there is no city in the South or Southwest with a population of over 500,000, any comparison of average wage rates between the regions must be confined to population groups III, IV, and V. (See table 8.)

Within the city size classifications the averages for all building trades combined, as well as for both the journeyman and the helper and laborer groups of trades, were consistently higher in the North and Pacific region than in the South and Southwest.

The same relationship prevailed throughout the averages of the individual trades, the only exceptions occurring in the city-size V averages of the marble setters, sign painters, tile layers, and plasterers' laborers. In each of these trades the influence of the quotations from Phoenix was mainly responsible for the higher averages for the South and Southwest. The mosaic and terrazzo workers reported identical rates ($1.25 per hour) for each of the size V cities in which they were organized, so that their regional averages in this population group were equal.

TABLE 8.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Building Trades, by Region and Population Group, June 1, 1940*

Trade	Cities in specified population group [1]											
	Group I [2]	Group II [2]	Group III			Group IV			Group V			
	North and Pacific	North and Pacific	All cities	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	All cities	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	All cities	North and Pacific	South and Southwest
All building trades	$1.522	$1.306	$1.236	$1.287	$1.083	$1.122	$1.151	$1.026	$1.047	$1.054	$1.035
Journeymen	1.638	1.415	1.359	1.391	1.254	1.249	1.277	1.160	1.177	1.210	1.133
Asbestos workers	1.607	1.466	1.338	1.338	1.337	1.306	1.322	1.272	1.224	1.371	1.094
Boilermakers	1.740	1.494	1.488	1.529	1.317	1.455	1.461	1.238	1.405	1.445	1.346
Bricklayers	1.855	1.576	1.559	1.603	1.460	1.487	1.498	1.464	1.329	1.383	1.256
Carpenters	1.612	1.344	1.296	1.340	1.166	1.178	1.219	1.055	1.105	1.139	1.042
Cement finishers	1.567	1.410	1.333	1.351	1.283	1.245	1.272	1.177	1.225	1.324	1.181
Electricians, inside wiremen	1.716	1.487	1.439	1.469	1.344	1.281	1.316	1.178	1.159	1.233	1.060
Elevator constructors	1.602	1.530	1.434	1.465	1.365	1.341	1.363	1.256	1.175	1.239	1.112
Engineers, portable and hoisting	1.707	1.579	1.454	1.477	1.290	1.293	1.312	1.196	1.295	1.310	1.281
Glaziers	1.669	1.350	1.185	1.227	1.041	1.105	1.143	.849	.999	1.057	.935
Granite cutters	1.417	1.145	1.173	1.173	------	1.063	1.063	-------	[3]	[3]	------
Lathers	1.700	1.574	1.475	1.513	1.388	1.416	1.427	1.374	1.243	1.340	1.130
Machinists	1.615	1.354	1.405	1.461	1.200	1.315	1.389	1.223	------	------	------
Marble setters	1.694	1.501	1.483	1.496	1.425	1.394	1.421	1.338	1.400	1.333	1.429
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	1.631	1.378	1.345	1.354	1.322	1.349	1.376	1.273	1.250	1.250	1.250
Painters	1.495	1.328	1.215	1.248	1.067	1.090	1.128	.962	.956	.971	.927
Paperhangers	1.553	1.334	1.201	1.229	1.069	1.094	1.113	.972	1.048	1.095	.911
Plasterers	1.837	1.631	1.527	1.573	1.433	1.455	1.474	1.409	1.302	1.383	1.267
Plumbers and gas fitters	1.655	1.479	1.436	1.445	1.415	1.310	1.314	1.301	1.277	1.347	1.186
Rodmen	1.560	1.484	1.360	1.430	1.179	1.333	1.369	1.180	1.228	1.362	1.105
Roofers, composition	1.469	1.247	1.208	1.253	.953	1.053	1.070	.918	.983	1.054	.925
Roofers, slate and tile	1.621	1.534	1.290	1.333	1.211	1.163	1.200	1.031	1.000	[3]	1.000
Sheet-metal workers	1.645	1.370	1.329	1.348	1.248	1.241	1.274	1.115	1.136	1.185	1.000
Sign painters	1.759	1.557	1.336	1.346	1.312	1.155	1.192	1.052	1.232	1.193	1.250
Steam and sprinkler fitters	1.742	1.464	1.445	1.453	1.404	1.286	1.309	1.201	1.357	1.406	1.214
Stonecutters	1.449	1.349	1.316	1.333	1.094	1.209	1.209	-------	------	------	------
Stonemasons	1.578	1.520	1.515	1.529	1.448	1.459	1.474	1.418	1.298	1.324	1.200
Structural-iron workers	1.756	1.597	1.539	1.589	1.399	1.419	1.439	1.339	1.362	1.425	1.303
Tile layers	1.547	1.438	1.422	1.452	1.330	1.310	1.339	1.256	1.308	1.282	1.329
Helpers and laborers [4]	1.046	.848	.766	.849	.572	.693	.743	.497	.664	.682	.623
Building laborers	.966	.786	.697	.781	.535	.637	.683	.428	.624	.643	.577
Elevator constructors' helpers	1.156	1.104	1.037	1.060	.983	.945	.974	.883	.849	.870	.781
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	1.070	.916	.847	.936	.644	.769	.822	.551	.740	.750	.715
Marble setters' helpers	1.249	.925	.891	.934	.583	.851	.851	-------	[3]	[3]	[3]
Plasterers' laborers	1.274	1.045	.949	1.036	.662	.788	.917	.578	.853	.841	.889
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	1.287	.875	.909	.918	.750	.699	.708	.666	.616	.732	.541
Tile layers' helpers	1.092	.908	.858	.915	.556	.845	.845	-------	.950	1.100	[3]

[1] Group I includes cities of over 1,000,000 population; group II, 500,000 to 1,000,000; group III, 250,000 to 500,000; group IV, 100,000 to 250,000; and group V, 40,000 to 100,000.

[2] No city of this size in South or Southwest.

[3] Reports for these trades were received from only 1 city in each of these classifications; therefore, no averages could be shown.

[4] Includes also plumbers' laborers and composition roofers' helpers, not shown separately because of the small number of quotations obtained for these trades.

Average Rates in Each City

Averages of the combined journeyman rates and of the combined helper and laborer rates in each city, grouped according to population, are presented in table 9.[4]

The highest city averages for the journeyman trades were those of New York ($1.796 per hour) and Newark ($1.708). Chicago ($1.663), Washington ($1.661), Pittsburgh ($1.561), and St. Louis ($1.521) averaged above $1.50 per hour. The majority of the averages ranged between $1.10 and $1.40 per hour. In 9 cities the journeyman average was between $1.40 and $1.50; in 13 it was between $1.30 and $1.40; and in 24 it was between $1.20 and $1.30. Eleven cities had journeyman averages of under $1.20 but over $1.10; 5 had averages of over $1.00 but less than $1.10; and only York ($0.989) and Portland, Maine ($0.983) had averages of under $1.00.

Not all of the trades had effective rates in all of the cities. This was especially true among the helper and laborer trades, particularly in the smaller cities. In order to insure comparability in the composition of the averages, and recognizing the numerical importance of the building laborers within the helper and laborer group of trades, no city averages have been shown in the absence of effective union rates for at least one helper trade and a substantial number of building laborers. In many of the smaller cities no union rates were reported for the more unskilled occupations. To some extent this tended to raise their averages higher than they would have been had all of the helper and laborer trades been included.

The city averages for the helper and laborer trades ranged from $1.169 per hour in New York to $0.439 per hour in Jacksonville, Fla. Newark ($1.073), Chicago ($1.037), and Spokane ($1.001) each had helper and laborer averages exceeding $1 per hour. In 6 cities the helpers and laborers averaged between 90 cents and $1 per hour; in 10 they averaged between 80 and 90 cents; and in 17 they averaged over 70 but under 80 cents per hour. In 14 cities the averages were between 60 and 70 cents; in 7 between 50 and 60 cents; and in 7 they were below 50 cents but higher than 40 cents.

[4] The averages are weighted according to the number of members in each local union covered by the reported rates. While a comparison of average rates between cities where averages include the influence of the membership factor may be somewhat misleading where membership in particular trades is unusually large or small in comparison with the same trades in other cities, a weighted average of this kind is obviously more realistic than a simple average of specific rates. In the latter case, a wage rate for a trade including half a dozen members would be given the same importance as a trade including several hundred members.

TABLE 9.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Building Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, June 1, 1940*

City and population group	Average hourly rate
Journeymen	
Population group I (over 1,000,000):	
New York, N. Y.	$1.796
Chicago, Ill.	1.663
Average for group I	*1.638*
Detroit, Mich.	1.396
Philadelphia, Pa.	1.364
Los Angeles, Calif.	1.189
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):	
Washington, D. C.	1.661
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1.561
St. Louis, Mo.	1.521
Cleveland, Ohio	1.445
Average for group II	*1.415*
Boston, Mass.	1.413
Baltimore, Md.	1.329
Buffalo, N. Y.	1.327
San Francisco, Calif.	1.303
Milwaukee, Wis.	1.218
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):	
Newark, N. J.	1.708
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.439
Toledo, Ohio	1.434
Denver, Colo.	1.419
Kansas City, Mo.	1.411
Indianapolis, Ind.	1.360
Average for group III	*1.359*
Rochester, N. Y.	1.350
Seattle, Wash.	1.334
Birmingham, Ala.	1.318
Minneapolis, Minn.	1.305
Columbus, Ohio	1.304
Houston, Tex.	1.286
St. Paul, Minn.	1.286
Louisville, Ky.	1.285
Dallas, Tex.	1.259
New Orleans, La.	1.247
Providence, R. I.	1.239
Memphis, Tenn.	1.235
Portland, Oreg.	1.234
Atlanta, Ga.	1.122
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
Dayton, Ohio	1.422
Peoria, Ill.	1.402
Youngstown, Ohio	1.365
Spokane, Wash.	1.320
Des Moines, Iowa	1.296
Erie, Pa.	1.287
Springfield, Mass.	1.284
Scranton, Pa.	1.274
Oklahoma City, Okla.	1.270
South Bend, Ind.	1.264
Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	1.258
Average for group IV	*1.249*
San Antonio, Tex.	1.244
Reading, Pa.	1.236
New Haven, Conn.	1.233
El Paso, Tex.	1.226
Nashville, Tenn.	1.210
Omaha, Nebr.	1.204
Grand Rapids, Mich.	1.179
Duluth, Minn.	1.169
Worcester, Mass.	1.158
Salt Lake City, Utah	1.157
Richmond, Va.	1.100
Jacksonville, Fla.	1.089
Wichita, Kans.	1.084
Norfolk, Va.	1.066
Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
Butte, Mont.	1.474
Charleston, W. Va.	1.252
Phoenix, Ariz.	1.209
Madison, Wis.	1.186
Jackson, Miss.	1.184
Average for group V	*1.177*
Manchester, N. H.	1.150
Little Rock, Ark.	1.101
Charlotte, N. C.	1.057
Charleston, S. C.	1.044
York, Pa.	.989
Portland, Maine	.983
Helpers and laborers	
Population group I (over 1,000,000):	
New York, N. Y.	$1.169
Average for group I	*1.046*
Chicago, Ill.	1.037
Detroit, Mich.	.851
Philadelphia, Pa.	.734
Los Angeles, Calif.	.710
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):	
St. Louis, Mo.	.941
Cleveland, Ohio	.919
San Francisco, Calif.	.910
Boston, Mass.	.886
Milwaukee, Wis.	.883
Pittsburgh, Pa.	.876
Average for group II	*.848*
Washington, D. C.	.834
Baltimore, Md.	.686
Buffalo, N. Y.	.664
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):	
Newark, N. J.	1.073
Seattle, Wash.	.925
Kansas City, Mo.	.908
Minneapolis, Minn.	.903
Cincinnati, Ohio	.851
Toledo, Ohio	.801
Denver, Colo.	.799
Indianapolis, Ind.	.793
St. Paul, Minn.	.793
Portland, Oreg.	.789
Average for group III	*.766*
Rochester, N. Y.	.731
Providence, R. I.	.717
Columbus, Ohio	.679
Houston, Tex.	.609
New Orleans, La.	.601
Dallas, Tex.	.598
Louisville, Ky.	.584
Birmingham, Ala.	.466
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
Spokane, Wash.	1.001
Peoria, Ill.	.879
Worcester, Mass.	.839
Salt Lake City, Utah	.789
South Bend, Ind.	.786
New Haven, Conn.	.767
Des Moines, Iowa	.763
Scranton, Pa.	.734
Dayton, Ohio	.720
Springfield, Mass.	.716
Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	.709
Average for group IV	*.693*
Reading, Pa.	.683
Youngstown, Ohio	.682
Duluth, Minn.	.643
Erie, Pa.	.632
Omaha, Nebr.	.629
Oklahoma City, Okla.	.570
Grand Rapids, Mich.	.549
San Antonio, Tex.	.546
El Paso, Tex.	.516
Nashville, Tenn.	.481
Richmond, Va.	.481
Wichita, Kans.	.469
Jacksonville, Fla.	.439
Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
Butte, Mont.	.872
Madison, Wis.	.726
Manchester, N. H.	.688
Phoenix, Ariz.	.685
York, Pa.	.675
Average for group V	*.664*
Portland, Maine	.627
Charleston, W. Va.	.535
Jackson, Miss.	.462
Charleston, S. C.	.448

[1] Includes Rock Island, Ill., Davenport, Iowa, and Moline, Ill.

Overtime Rates

Double time was reported as the agreed-upon initial overtime rate in exactly half of the total quotations. Nearly all of the other quotations gave time and one-half as the initial overtime rate.

The journeymen generally tended more to the double-time rate than did the helpers and laborers, over 52 percent of the quotations for the skilled group showing that scale, compared with about 38 percent of the quotations for helpers and laborers. In the journeyman group of trades the double-time rate for initial overtime applied to 69.1 percent of the total membership, but in the helper and laborer group it applied to only 20.4 percent, the majority of the unskilled and semiskilled members being covered by a time and one-half rate for overtime.

TABLE 10.—*Overtime Rates Provided in Building-Trades Union Agreements, June 1, 1940*

Trade	Number of quotations showing initial overtime rates of—					Percent of union members having initial overtime rates of—				
	Time and one-half	Double time	Other penalty scales	Overtime prohibited	No penalty rate specified	Time and one-half	Double time	Other penalty scales	Overtime prohibited	No penalty rates specified
All building trades	1,440	1,504	15	7	41	39.3	59.5	0.5	0.1	0.6
Journeymen	1,109	1,293	15	7	24	29.8	69.1	.7	.2	.2
Asbestos workers	31	33	------	------	1	30.9	68.2	------	------	.9
Boilermakers	7	37	------	------	------	4.3	95.7	------	------	------
Bricklayers	24	57	------	------	------	11.3	88.7	------	------	------
Carpenters	48	71	------	------	1	18.8	81.2	------	------	(1)
Cement finishers	50	21	------	------	2	55.2	44.4	------	------	.4
Electricians, inside wiremen	39	59	1	------	2	40.3	59.1	.2	------	.4
Elevator constructors	26	98	------	------	------	15.5	84.5	------	------	------
Engineers, portable and hoisting	154	184	------	------	1	45.5	54.5	------	------	(1)
Glaziers	54	16	------	------	------	44.5	55.5	------	------	------
Granite cutters	17	12	------	------	------	32.2	67.8	------	------	------
Lathers	17	73	------	------	4	2.7	90.9	------	------	6.4
Machinists	14	22	------	------	------	22.5	77.5	------	------	------
Marble setters	30	37	------	------	------	27.8	72.2	------	------	------
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	35	26	------	------	------	53.7	46.3	------	------	------
Painters	100	21	4	5	2	55.5	42.8	.6	.9	.2
Paperhangers	52	10	3	2	1	88.2	10.4	.8	.3	.3
Plasterers	23	55	------	------	------	9.7	90.3	------	------	------
Plumbers and gas fitters	32	53	------	------	------	26.8	73.2	------	------	------
Rodmen	4	64	------	------	------	3.1	96.9	------	------	------
Roofers, composition	71	25	3	------	5	66.5	30.3	1.0	------	2.2
Roofers, slate and tile	41	15	2	------	3	58.4	36.9	3.7	------	1.0
Sheet-metal workers	18	49	------	------	------	23.0	77.0	------	------	------
Sign painters	53	15	1	------	1	57.8	41.2	.3	------	.7
Steam and sprinkler fitters	31	70	------	------	------	31.2	68.8	------	------	------
Stonecutters	65	20	------	------	1	33.6	65.9	------	------	.5
Stonemasons	27	43	------	------	------	28.0	72.0	------	------	------
Structural-iron workers	5	77	1	------	------	2.0	82.2	15.8	------	------
Tile layers	41	30	------	------	------	46.6	53.4	------	------	------
Helpers and laborers	331	211	------	------	17	77.2	20.4	------	------	2.4
Building laborers	69	10	------	------	7	89.9	7.4	------	------	2.7
Composition roofers' helpers	22	4	------	------	1	78.9	20.2	------	------	.9
Elevator constructors' helpers	16	77	------	------	------	14.1	85.9	------	------	------
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	75	12	------	------	6	87.3	9.3	------	------	3.4
Marble setters' helpers	30	15	------	------	------	38.5	61.5	------	------	------
Plasterers' laborers	47	23	------	------	2	43.6	55.7	------	------	.7
Plumbers' laborers	26	15	------	------	1	29.6	70.2	------	------	.2
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	11	42	------	------	------	5.9	94.1	------	------	------
Tile layers' helpers	35	13	------	------	------	45.6	54.4	------	------	------

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The overtime sections of the agreements frequently provided that the initial overtime rate should apply only for a limited number of hours after the regular quitting time, and that a further increased scale should apply thereafter. This was particularly true of those agreements which specified time and one-half as the initial overtime rate. These agreements frequently required the payment of double time for overtime work of over 1 or 2 hours' duration, and also for any overtime work on Saturday.

A slight modification of the overtime provisions was reported under some of the helper and laborer agreements which permitted serving laborers to begin work before the regular starting time in order to have the materials prepared and distributed before the journeymen were ready to start work. The limited periods allowed for this preparatory work were not usually classed as overtime nor made subject to penalty rates.

The distribution of the initial overtime rates and the percentages of the memberships to which each applied are shown in table 10.

Sunday Rates

Double time was reported as the rate for Sunday work in the great majority of the quotations. Nearly all of the exceptions specified time and one-half, although a few quotations indicated that other penalty rates, generally specific monetary rates which were not multiples of the regular rates, applied or that Sunday work was prohibited entirely. A small group of reports stated that no provisions had been made for a special Sunday rate, inasmuch as there had been no Sunday work for a number of years. These reports in the main came from unions in the smaller cities where the scales and working conditions had been set by oral agreement.

Of the total journeyman membership, 89 percent had a double-time rate for Sunday and 10 percent had a time and one-half rate. The helpers and laborers had a double-time rate for over 96 percent of their total membership and a rate of time and one-half for about 3 percent.

In most of the individual trades the double-time Sunday rate applied to well over 90 percent of the membership. The electricians, painters, paperhangers, steam and sprinkler fitters, and the composition roofers' helpers were the only trades having as many as 20 percent of their members working under agreements which specified other than double time for Sunday. The distribution of the Sunday rates reported, and of the proportionate membership covered by each rate, are shown in table 11.

TABLE 11.—*Sunday Rates Provided in Building-Trades Union Agreements, June 1, 1940*

Trade	Number of quotations showing Sunday rates of—					Percent of union members having Sunday rates of—				
	Time and one-half	Double time	Other penalty scales	Sunday work prohibited	No penalty rate specified	Time and one-half	Double time	Other penalty scales	Sunday work prohibited	No penalty rate specified
All building trades	311	2,650	8	5	33	8.6	90.5	0.5	0.1	0.3
Journeymen	263	2,152	8	5	20	10.0	89.0	.6	.1	.3
Asbestos workers	17	47			1	18.2	80.9			.9
Boilermakers	2	42				.6	99.4			
Bricklayers	1	79			1	.4	99.4			.2
Carpenters	8	111			1	1.3	98.6			.1
Cement finishers	6	67				2.5	97.5			
Electricians, inside wiremen	15	85			1	28.2	71.6			.2
Elevator constructors	3	121				.4	99.6			
Engineers, portable and hoisting	9	329			1	2.9	97.1			(1)
Glaziers	21	49				10.5	89.5			
Granite cutters	1	28				3.0	97.0			
Lathers	6	84			4	.9	92.7			6.4
Machinists	3	33				1.0	99.0			
Marble setters	3	62			2	.9	93.5			5.6
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	5	55			1	5.3	94.4			.3
Painters	53	73	3	1	2	31.4	67.5	.5	.4	.2
Paperhangers	25	39	3		1	49.0	49.9	.8		.3
Plasterers	7	71				2.0	98.0			
Plumbers and gas fitters	10	74			1	3.3	96.4			.3
Rodmen		68					100.0			
Roofers, composition	18	86				11.2	88.8			
Roofers, slate and tile	12	49				16.2	83.8			
Sheet-metal workers	3	64				1.3	98.7			
Sign painters	17	51	1	1		11.9	87.3	.3	.5	
Steam and sprinkler fitters	13	88				24.0	76.0			
Stonecutters	1	81		3	1	.4	84.7		14.4	.5
Stonemasons	1	67			2	.2	95.0			4.8
Structural-iron workers		82	1				84.2	15.8		
Tile layers	3	67			1	1.2	98.7			.1
Helpers and laborers	48	498			13	2.9	96.5			.6
Building laborers	10	72			4	2.8	96.6			.6
Composition roofers' helpers	8	19				31.0	69.0			
Elevator constructors' helpers	1	92				.4	99.6			
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	11	78			4	3.4	95.9			.7
Marble setters' helpers	2	43				1.1	98.9			
Plasterers' laborers	8	62			2	3.0	96.3			.7
Plumbers' laborers	5	35			2	3.0	96.3			.7
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	1	52				.1	99.9			
Tile layers' helpers	2	45			1	1.1	98.8			.1

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Union Hours, 1940

The average maximum workweek provided in the union agreements of all building trades was 38.3 hours on June 1, 1940. The average for the journeyman trades was 38 hours, and for the helper and laborer trades, 39.1 hours (table 12).

The plasterers' average of 35.2 hours per week was the lowest of any trade, and the average of 40.8 hours for the engineers was the highest. This high average was due to the fact that many of the agreements for engineers specify a 48-hour week for street or road work.

The average for steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers, 35.8 hours per week, was the lowest among the helper and laborer trades. The highest average in this group was that of the building laborers, 40.1 hours per week.

Forty hours was the basic workweek for 66.9 percent of the total building-trades membership. Comparatively few of the members were allowed to work longer than 40 hours without being paid for overtime, there being only 0.1 percent reported as having a 42-hour scale, 2.8 percent as having a 44-hour scale, and 1.0 percent as having scales in excess of 44 hours. Workweeks of less than 40 hours, however, were specified for a substantial number of members, 9.5 percent of the total having a 30-hour scale and 19.6 percent having a 35-hour scale.

The 40-hour week predominated in both the journeyman and the helper and laborer group of trades. Scales of less than 40 hours, however, were reported for 30.6 percent of the journeymen compared with 23.1 percent of the helpers and laborers. The helpers and laborers, on the other hand, reported scales of over 40 hours for 13.2 percent of their members compared with 1.6 percent of the journeymen.

TABLE 12.—*Distribution of Union Members in Each Building Trade, by Weekly Hours June 1, 1940*

Trade	Average hours per week	Percent of union members whose hours per week were—							
		30	32	35	40	42	44	45	48
All building trades	38.3	9.5	0.1	[1] 19.6	66.9	0.1	2.8	0.1	[2] 0.9
Journeymen	38.0	10.2	.1	[1] 20.3	67.8	.1	.8	------	[2] .7
Asbestos workers	38.5	14.5	------	1.8	80.0	3.1	.6	------	------
Boilermakers	38.8	1.5	------	20.0	78.5	------	------	------	------
Bricklayers	37.9	1.6	------	38.7	59.1	------	.6	------	------
Carpenters	38.7	2.5	------	20.9	75.7	------	.9	------	------
Cement finishers	38.8	1.6	------	22.7	73.2	------	1.4	------	1.1
Electricians, inside wiremen	37.4	22.6	------	7.3	69.8	------	.1	------	.2
Elevator constructors	40.0	.5	------	9.8	76.2	.9	12.6	------	------
Engineers, portable and hoisting	40.8	3.3	------	1.4	79.4	.6	1.0	------	[2] 14.3
Glaziers	38.4	1.5	------	30.7	66.0	------	1.8	------	------
Granite cutters	37.0	------	------	60.1	39.9	------	------	------	------
Lathers	37.0	26.3	------	7.6	65.7	------	.4	------	------
Machinists	39.8	------	------	3.8	95.4	------	.5	------	.3
Marble setters	38.1	.5	------	36.8	62.6	------	.1	------	------
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	38.8	1.0	------	23.5	73.9	------	1.6	------	------
Painters	36.2	20.5	------	36.4	42.5	------	.6	------	------
Paperhangers	36.3	32.3	------	11.0	55.5	------	1.2	------	------
Plasterers	35.2	44.7	2.2	4.0	48.4	------	.7	------	------
Plumbers and gas fitters	37.8	15.5	------	14.3	69.0	------	1.2	------	------
Rodmen	39.5	3.3	------	2.5	94.2	------	------	------	------
Roofers, composition	39.3	1.0	------	[1] 15.7	79.3	1.7	.4	------	1.9
Roofers, slate and tile	39.4	.4	------	15.0	79.8	3.0	1.0	------	.8
Sheet-metal workers	38.9	2.4	------	17.0	80.3	------	.3	------	------
Sign painters	39.2	1.0	------	18.4	73.5	2.2	4.9	------	------
Steam and sprinkler fitters	37.8	19.2	------	6.4	74.3	------	.1	------	------
Stonecutters	39.6	------	------	8.5	90.4	.5	.6	------	------
Stonemasons	38.7	.8	------	23.7	75.4	------	.1	------	------
Structural-iron workers	39.2	5.2	------	5.7	89.1	------	------	------	------
Tile layers	39.8	1.4	------	1.6	96.2	------	.8	------	------
Helpers and laborers [3]	39.1	6.4	------	16.7	63.7	[4]	10.9	.5	1.8
Building laborers	40.1	1.7	------	9.8	71.8	------	14.2	.7	1.8
Elevator constructors' helpers	39.8	1.3	------	11.6	75.2	.1	11.8	------	------
Hod carriers (masons' tenders)	38.6	1.0	------	39.1	45.7	------	11.1	.2	2.9
Marble setters' helpers	38.2	1.0	------	35.0	63.8	------	.2	------	------
Plasterers' laborers	36.6	33.5	------	4.3	59.6	------	2.0	.3	.3
Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	35.8	39.1	------	6.2	54.6	------	.1	------	------
Tile layers' helpers	39.9	1.3	------	1.4	96.0	------	.2	------	1.1

[1] Includes 0.3 percent of the composition roofers having a 36.9-hour scale, amounting to less than a tenth of 1 percent in the journeyman and all building trades totals.
[2] Includes less than a tenth of 1 percent of the engineers, reported as having a 54-hour week.
[3] Includes also plumbers' laborers and composition roofers' helpers, not shown separately because of the small number of quotations obtained for these trades.
[4] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Granite cutters, painters, and plasterers, each reported a majority of their members as having less than 40-hour weeks. In each of the other journeyman trades the 40-hour basic week prevailed for a majority of the members. In the helper and laborer group the 40-hour week prevailed for a majority of the membership of each trade except the hod carriers, who reported less than 40-hour scales for 40.1 percent of their membership and over 40-hour scales for 14.2 percent. Every trade had some reports showing 35-hour scales and nearly all reported some 30- and 44-hour scales. The 45-hour scales were confined to the serving laborer trades. Relatively few trades reported any 48-hour scales and in none of these excepting the engineers did the 48-hour week apply to any substantial proportion of the membership.

INCOMES OF PHYSICIANS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1939

GROSS incomes of physicians in the United States averaged $7,365 in 1939, according to data obtained in a survey of medical practice made by Medical Economics, Inc. (Rutherford, N. J.), and published in its journal, Medical Economics, for September 1940. The figure for 1939, an average based on 7,565 reports, is about 20 percent (or more than $1,200) higher than average gross incomes in 1935 ($6,139, based on 4,565 returns), but still about $2,000 under those received before the depression. The average for 994 physicians in 1928 was found to be $9,329. The low point of the depression for physicians apparently was reached around 1935.

Replies to the questionnaire used in the survey were received from 8,540 active private physicians, but 833 were not usable for the purposes of the study as a whole. The analysis is therefore based, in general, on the remaining 7,707 reports. This sample is said to be the largest on which such a survey of the medical profession has ever been based. Fairly proportionate returns were received from the 48 States, from towns of different sizes, and from doctors of different ages in general and specialty practice. There was no disproportion of replies from specialists, from members of the American Medical Association, or from men with presumably higher incomes. Among the 7,707 physicians whose reports were used in the general analysis, there were 5,944 general practitioners, 2,312 partial specialists, and 1,719 full specialists.

Gross income was used as the basic unit of measurement, it being considered more accurate than a net figure, owing to a tendency on the part of those reporting either to minimize or to overlook certain items of overhead which, if included, would reduce the net amount. All figures given in this article therefore represent gross income.

A physician's maximum earning capacity seems to come between the thirteenth and seventeenth years of practice, usually while he is in the forties. From this period until retirement, Medical Economics states, earnings may be expected to decline more than 40 percent. It was found that physicians who had been practicing from 13 to 17 years averaged $9,330 in 1939, while those who had practiced for 43 or more years averaged only $5,298. For the intermediate period of 28 to 32 years, the figure was $7,741. The averages for physicians in the earlier years of practice ranged from $3,647 for beginners (2 years or under) to $8,545 for those with 8 to 12 years' experience.

The analysis of incomes according to length of training revealed the peculiar situation that although there was a steady increase with years of training from 4 to 7, the trend was reversed after 7, men with 8 years' training earning less than those with 7, and men with 9 less than those with 8. Men with 10 years of training averaged slightly more than those with 9, but less than those with 8.

Comparing the earnings of specialists and nonspecialists, the average for 1,663 specialists was $10,057, or about 65 percent more than the $6,096 averaged by 3,593 general practitioners. The average for partial specialists, $7,411, was about $1,300 more than for nonspecialists. However, it is pointed out that the higher incomes of specialists may be due in part to their having practiced longer.

Average Gross Income of 5,522 General Practitioners in 1939

Years of practice and geographic area	Population of community		
	Under 2,500	2,500 to 100,000	More than 100,000
Less than 13 years:			
East	$5,921	$6,851	$5,113
West	6,424	7,812	6,159
South	5,121	7,088	6,790
13 to 27 years:			
East	6,252	8,589	7,201
West	5,044	8,880	7,743
South	5,124	7,431	8,652
More than 27 years:			
East	4,192	6,890	6,028
West	4,403	6,196	5,942
South	3,623	5,335	5,953

Incomes varied considerably with size of community and between different sections of the country. In general, they were lowest in towns of under 10,000 population and in cities of over 1,000,000, being highest in localities of from 50,000 to 100,000 population. In rural sections they ran about 37 percent under the average for all physicians combined. Incomes in cities of 1,000,000 and over, and in communities of from 5,000 to 10,000, averaged about the same—$7,117 and $7,162, respectively. For those of from 50,000 to 100,000, the figure was $8,395. The highest incomes were earned in the Pacific and Mountain States. Pacific Coast physicians received over 25 percent

more than those in the Middle Atlantic States (including New York). Relatively high incomes, however, were found among physicians in the South Atlantic States.

The foregoing table shows average gross incomes in 1939 of 5,522 general practitioners, by years of practice, geographic area, and size of community.

The purpose of the survey by Medical Economics, Inc., was to ascertain not only how much is earned by a physician in the United States but what percentage of his accounts he collects, how large a capital investment he has, what he spends for such items as rent and equipment, how much he saves, how many hours he works, how many patients he sees daily, the kind of office occupied, and other phases of his economic and financial experience. The results of the investigation are being made available in a series of articles in Medical Economics.

SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN CANADA, 1939

MEDIAN annual salaries of male teachers in publicly controlled schools of 8 Provinces of Canada in 1939 ranged from $518 on Prince Edward Island to $1,653 in Ontario. Those of female teachers ranged from $463 on Prince Edward Island to $1,192 in British Columbia. Comparing rural schools, town and village schools, and city schools, the medians varied from $490 for males and $449 for females in rural 1-room schools in New Brunswick to $2,534 for males in city schools of Ontario and $1,593 for females in city schools of British Columbia. These figures and the other data in this article are from a report on Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications in Eight Provinces, 1939, published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics (Ottawa).

Table 1 shows median annual salaries of teachers, by sex, in 1939, in all publicly controlled schools combined, and in city, town and village, and rural schools, separately, in each of the 8 Provinces covered by the survey.

In elementary and secondary schools of 13 Canadian cities in 1939, the combined median salaries of male and female teachers ranged from $912 in Ottawa to $2,181 in Toronto for elementary schools, and for secondary schools, from $1,921 in Saint John to $3,159 in Toronto. The lowest medians for male teachers were $1,100 in elementary schools and $2,025 in secondary schools, and for female teachers, $893 in elementary schools and $1,625 in secondary schools. The highest medians in the two classes of schools respectively were $2,737 and $3,164 for males, and $2,062 and $3,150 for females.

Median annual salaries in elementary and secondary schools in 1939 are given in table 2 by city and by sex of teachers.

TABLE 1.—*Median Annual Salaries of Teachers in Canadian Provinces, 1939*

Province, and sex of teachers	All publicly controlled schools	City Schools	Town and village schools	Rural schools of—	
				More than 1 room	1 room
Prince Edward Island	$483	$842	$690	$496	$463
Males	518	1,025	816	590	509
Females	463	828	594	471	450
Nova Scotia	609	1,204	854	601	501
Males	748	2,092	1,450	728	522
Females	594	1,174	821	580	498
New Brunswick	550	1,372	864	634	458
Males	772	2,075	1,369	825	490
Females	523	1,334	832	613	449
Ontario	1,019	1,731	1,103	952	694
Males	1,653	2,534	1,635	1,090	723
Females	911	1,424	984	902	686
Manitoba	707	1,580	838	715	520
Males	807	2,273	1,065	879	562
Females	659	1,552	779	638	514
Saskatchewan	552	1,372	694	570	498
Males	625	1,820	878	677	524
Females	518	1,179	620	511	488
Alberta	861	1,667	970	868	798
Males	909	2,129	1,184	920	825
Females	851	1,592	900	851	787
British Columbia	1,297	1,643	1,122	1,088	817
Males	1,539	2,169	1,312	1,236	837
Females	1,192	1,593	1,031	966	813

TABLE 2.—*Median Annual Salaries of Teachers in 13 Canadian Cities, 1939*

City	Elementary schools			Secondary schools		
	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes
Halifax, N. S	$1,733	$1,123	$1,242	$2,400	$1,838	$2,008
St. John, N. B	2,175	1,258	1,266	2,075	1,625	1,921
Toronto, Ont	2,737	2,062	2,181	3,164	3,150	3,159
Hamilton, Ont	1,750	1,103	1,176	2,837	2,250	2,581
Ottawa, Ont	1,100	893	912	2,665	2,782	2,700
London, Ont	1,850	1,064	1,154	2,625	2,137	2,370
Windsor, Ont	1,392	1,033	1,077	2,305	2,300	2,300
Winnipeg, Man	2,185	1,556	1,569	2,565	1,923	2,383
Regina, Sask	1,533	1,277	1,300	2,420	1,800	2,213
Saskatoon, Sask	1,825	1,341	1,365	2,025	1,750	1,978
Edmonton, Alta	2,037	1,641	1,683	2,950	2,550	2,883
Calgary, Alta	1,990	1,634	1,644	2,550	2,500	2,515
Vancouver, B. C	2,158	1,642	1,649	2,926	2,300	2,670

WAGES AND COST OF LIVING IN COSTA RICA [1]

THE average daily cost of food per person for the Republic of Costa Rica in 1938 was 0.57 colon,[2] as compared with 0.529 colon in 1936, an increase of 7.7 percent. The average cost per room of housing in 1938 was 5.481 colones, an increase of 23.6 percent over the average (4.435 colones) for 1936. The monthly rent of a 4-room house in the city of San José was 13.08 colones in 1936; but had increased to 19.26 colones in 1938; this represented an advance of 47.2 percent. Data are not available on cost of clothing, medical supplies, or other expenditures.

[1] Costa Rica. Memoria de Governación, Policía, Trabajo, y Previsión Social, presentada al Congreso Constitucional por el Lic. Luis Fernández, Secretario de Estado, año 1938. San José, 1939.

[2] Average controlled rate of exchange of Costa Rican colon, July 1940=17.8 cents.

Law No. 82 of August 25, 1937, regulating consumers' prices of corn, beans, and rice, is said to have acted as "a brake on the abuses which were committed against small producers, who were paid pitifully small sums for their crops." Law No. 157 of August 21, 1935, fixed as minimum wages to agricultural workers 0.25 colon per hour for laborers on coffee, sugarcane, and tobacco plantations, and 0.50 colon per hour on banana and cacao plantations. Law No. 41 of December 19, 1934, had authorized minimum-wage commissions, whose function was to study the condition and income of the various industries and the needs of the workers, and to recommend to the Ministry of Labor the wages which should be paid. The appointment of each commission is dependent upon the presentation of a petition by interested parties. Such a commission has been named in the city of San José, and has recommended minimum daily wages in bakeries for the central district of that city. This recommendation was approved by decree No. 1, of January 16, 1939. Rates vary from 3.25 to 5.25 colones for day work (8 hours) and from 4.50 to 6.25 colones for night work (6 hours), according to job.

WAGE AGREEMENT IN PRINTING TRADES IN SWEDEN [1]

AN AGREEMENT for the printing trades in Sweden provides for a wage increase retroactive to July 1. The total increase is 6.36 percent—3 percent applied to the minimum wage, in the form of a fixed cost-of-living adjustment, and 3.36 percent applied to the average wage,[2] as estimated by each district for all adults (those aged 20 years or over), in the form of a variable adjustment in accordance with the agreement reached between the General Federation of Swedish Employers and the General Federation of Swedish Trade Unions on December 16, 1939. As of August 1, 1940, the variable adjustment was to be increased to 6.30 percent on the average wage, making the total increase about 10 percent on the minimum wages fixed in the agreement.

This new collective agreement will be in force until July 1, 1941, with the understanding that either party may give notice of termination 14 days before either February 1 or April 1, 1941.

According to the cost-of-living index issued quarterly by the Social Board, there was an increase of 5 points—from 119 at the end of the first quarter of 1940 to 124 at the end of the second quarter (1935 = 100). Food, heat and light, clothing, and sundry expenses were the

[1] Data are from a report of George C. Howard, American commercial attaché, Stockholm, forwarding statement of F. A. M. Alfsen, American assistant trade commissioner, Stockholm.

[2] The "average wage" is based on the hourly wage for adults during ordinary working hours in 1939.

groups principally responsible for a rise of approximately 15 percent in cost of living as of June 30, 1940, over August 1939.

The cost-of-living adjustment applicable to Government employees' salaries will give 100,000 employees a 3-percent increase during the third quarter, or a 15-percent increase on their basic salary.

The provisions of the sliding-scale wage increase under existing labor wage agreements will cost employers 3,000,000 kroner [3] monthly in additional wages, starting August 1, 1940.

[3] Average exchange rate of krona in July 1940=23.8 cents.

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Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR SEPTEMBER 1940

Total Nonagricultural Employment

APPROXIMATELY 36,650,000 persons were engaged in nonagricultural occupations in September 1940. This total is 620,000 larger than in August 1940 and 1,200,000 above the level of September of last year. The major factor contributing to the increase of more than 600,000 workers over the month was the rise in factory employment of approximately 300,000 wage earners. Increases from August to September were also reported in trade (157,000); Federal, State, and local government service (43,000, excluding the National Guard called into active service); transportation and public utilities (37,000); finance, service, and miscellaneous (31,000); construction (30,000); and mining (11,000).

Each of the 7 major groups of nonagricultural employment showed gains over the year interval, the most pronounced of which was in manufacturing industries. A regrouping of the various industries comprising the nonagricultural totals, according to defense activities, shows that in the primary defense industries, such as shipbuilding, aircraft, and ordnance, there was a gain of more than 230,000 workers. In the secondary defense industries, such as the iron and steel and chemical industries, primarily engaged in supplying civilian needs, but also supplying semifinished products for primary defense industries, the expansion over the year interval amounted to nearly 270,000 workers.

These figures do not include emergency employment which decreased 40,000 from August to September as a result of the following changes: A decrease of 10,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration, a decrease of 31,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps, and an increase of 1,000 on the out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration.

Industrial and Business Employment

Increases in employment from August to September were reported by 79 of the 90 manufacturing industries regularly surveyed and by 9 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered. Pay rolls were larger in 79 of the manufacturing and 11 of the nonmanufacturing industries.

For all manufacturing industries combined there was a net employment expansion of 3.8 percent or about 305,000 wage earners. This was coupled with a pay-roll rise of 5.7 percent or $11,200,000 in weekly wages. These gains were much larger than the seasonally expected gains for September of 2.4 percent (196,000) in employment and 1.0 percent ($1,970,000) in weekly pay rolls, and with but few exceptions, were the largest aggregate gains of any single month since 1919.

Employment continued to expand in industries manufacturing materials for national defense. The largest gains in these industries from August were in aircraft (8,000), shipbuilding (3,800), machine tools (3,000), and engines (2,300). Other manufacturing industries stimulated directly or indirectly by war orders and showing large employment increases between August and September were foundries and machine shops (11,500), electrical machinery (10,200), sawmills (6,700), brass, bronze, and copper products (5,400), and steel (4,500). The increased production of new models was reflected in the gain of 106,300 wage earners in the automobile industry, and seasonal factors contributed to the increases of 13,200 workers in cotton goods, 10,200 in confectionery, 8,700 in women's clothing, and 6,200 in furniture. Among the few manufacturing industries showing reduced employment were beverages (4,400), shoes (3,000), and ice cream (2,300), in each of which a seasonal curtailment is expected in September.

Because of the demand for more comprehensive employment and pay-roll information concerning manufacturing industries, 67 new industries are now shown separately in the monthly survey. Forty-eight of these 67 industries showed gains in employment and pay rolls between August and September. The percentage increases in employment from August to September in some of these newly added industries affected by defense activity were as follows: Fire extinguishers (9.9), instruments and apparatus (4.5), abrasives (7.7), ammunition (7.7), firearms (5.6), screw-machine products (5.5), and optical goods (2.6).

Retail stores added 4.6 percent more workers to handle fall business. This gain was larger than the average September increase of 3.9 percent for the past 11 years. Most of the lines of retail trade showed increases, the most marked gains being reported in department stores (13.3 percent), women's apparel (25.7 percent), shoes (24.8 percent), men's and boys' clothing (9.4 percent), and variety stores (7.9 percent).

The employment increase of 1.1 percent in wholesale trade equaled the usual fall gain in this industry. Among the various wholesale lines reporting increases were hardware (0.6 percent), lumber and building materials (1.5 percent), plumbing and heating equipment (1.3 percent), electrical goods (0.4 percent), furniture and house-furnishings (1.4 percent), iron and steel scrap (1.9 percent), metals

and minerals (2.3 percent), paper and paper products (1.6 percent), and jewelry and optical goods (2.6 percent).

Anthracite mines curtailed employment slightly between mid-August and mid-September, but pay rolls rose 18.8 percent, reflecting increased production. A seasonal employment pick-up of 2 percent was reported in bituminous-coal mining, accompanied by a pay-roll gain of 0.7 percent. Employment in metal mining increased 1.6 percent, continuing the gains of the last 5 months and raising the employment index to the highest level since November 1937. Quarries and nonmetallic mines reported a contraseasonal increase of 1 percent, while oil companies reduced their forces by 0.7 percent.

Slight employment decreases in telephone and telegraph and street railway and bus companies were partially offset by a small gain in electric light and power companies. Year-round hotels reported the usual September employment gain (0.9 percent), laundries showed a seasonal loss of 1 percent, and dyeing and cleaning plants increased employment seasonally by 3.1 percent. Personnel in brokerage houses and insurance firms was curtailed by 3.2 percent and 0.5 percent, respectively.

Employment in the private building-construction industry showed a larger-than-seasonal increase of 2.9 percent from August to September and weekly pay rolls, a gain of 4.1 percent. The September 1940 employment level was 18.2 percent higher than that in September 1939 and weekly pay rolls were 23.0 percent above the level of a year ago. All of the geographic divisions reported increases over the month except the Middle Atlantic States where a 12.4 percent decrease in the State of New York caused a 4.5 percent decrease for the area as a whole. The largest gains were in the East South Central States and in the Mountain, West South Central, and South Atlantic States. General contractors continued to increase their working forces more rapidly than special trades contractors, as indicated by a 4.7-percent employment gain for the former compared with a slight average gain of 1.1 percent for contractors engaged in the various special building trades. Employment gains in the special trades group were as follows: Glazing (10.8 percent), building insulation (3.0 percent), roofing and sheet-metal work (8.0 percent), plumbing and heating (6.6 percent), carpentering (3.9 percent), and structural and steel erection (1.9 percent). Large reductions in employment were reported by contractors engaged in painting and decorating (10.9 percent), plastering (12.8 percent), tile and terrazzo contracting (6.9 percent), and excavating (4.7 percent). The reports on which the private building-construction 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.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for class I steam railroads showed an employment gain of 0.7 percent between August and September. The total number employed in September was 1,066,612. Corresponding pay-roll figures for September were not available when this report was prepared. For August they were $171,642,184, an increase of $4,013,486 since July.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 38.8 in September, an increase of 1.1 percent over August. The corresponding average hourly earnings were 67.1 cents, an increase of 0.6 percent over the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory workers were $26.54, an increase of 1.9 percent since August. Wage-rate increases were reported by 130 manufacturing establishments out of a total of approximately 30,000 which supplied employment information to this Bureau in September. About 32,000 wage earners out of a total of approximately 5,400,000 covered in this survey were affected by these wage-rate increases which averaged 6.7 percent. Among the firms reporting increases were 8 paper and pulp mills with 5,070 workers affected, 5 beet-sugar mills (2,430 workers), 17 foundries and machine shops (1,693 workers), 4 steel mills (1,557 workers), 8 sawmills (1,530 workers), and 6 planing mills (1,375 workers).

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry, and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing industries.

Eleven of the sixteen nonmanufacturing industries surveyed reported gains in weekly earnings. Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 10 showed gains in average hours worked per week, and 9 showed increases in average hourly earnings. In the group of nonmanufacturing industries surveyed, wage-rate increases were reported by 13 retail stores (affecting 1,827 employees), 35 metal mines (affecting 2,529 employees), and 4 street railway and bus companies (affecting 2,054 employees).

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for September 1940 are given in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, for water transportation, and for class I railroads. Percentage changes over the month and year intervals are also given.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, September 1940 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, September 1940	Percentage change from—		Index, September 1940	Percentage change from—		Average in September 1940	Percentage change from—	
		August 1940	September 1939		August 1940	September 1939		August 1940	September 1939
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	(*1923–25 = 100*) 107.7	+3.8	+7.4	(*1923–25 = 100*) 110.0	+5.8	+17.1	$26.54	+1.9	+9.1
Class I steam railroads [2]	59.7	+0.7	+4.5	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Coal mining:	(*1929 = 100*)			(*1929 = 100*)					
Anthracite [4]	50.2	−.3	+1.6	39.3	+18.8	−1.8	25.77	+19.1	−3.4
Bituminous [4]	88.3	+2.0	+3.5	83.0	+.7	+3.5	25.01	−1.2	+ (5)
Metalliferous mining	72.6	+1.6	+15.4	69.6	+1.6	+26.4	30.00	+ (5)	+9.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	49.0	+1.0	+2.4	46.6	+3.1	+9.0	23.70	+2.1	+6.4
Crude-petroleum production	63.1	−.7	−2.9	57.4	−2.7	−5.7	33.31	−2.0	−2.9
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph [6]	78.9	−.2	+3.3	100.8	+.4	+4.0	[7] 31.43	+.6	+.7
Electric light and power [6]	93.1	+.1	+2.8	105.7	−2.2	+3.4	[7] 34.58	−2.3	+.6
Street railways and busses [6 8]	68.4	− (5)	−1.2	71.3	+1.2	+3.0	[7] 34.08	+1.2	+4.2
Trade:									
Wholesale [9]	91.1	+1.1	+.7	81.0	+2.9	+3.9	[7] 30.87	+1.8	+3.2
Retail [6]	92.8	+4.6	+2.5	85.0	+4.3	+5.1	[7] 21.16	−.3	+2.5
Hotels (year-round) [4 10]	91.1	+.9	−.3	81.3	+.7	+1.1	[7] 15.44	−.1	+1.4
Laundries [4]	101.8	−1.0	+4.0	89.8	−.8	+6.3	18.12	+.2	+2.2
Dyeing and cleaning [4]	110.0	+3.1	+4.6	85.6	+8.5	+9.3	21.09	+5.2	+4.5
Brokerage	(3)	−3.2	−12.1	(3)	−1.8	−15.5	[7] 35.71	+1.5	−3.9
Insurance	(3)	−.5	+1.7	(3)	−.3	+2.3	[7] 36.13	+.1	+.6
Building construction	(3)	+2.9	+18.2	(3)	+4.1	+23.0	32.92	+1.2	+4.0
Water transportation [11]	79.6	−1.7	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)

[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] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.
[7] Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the pamphlet dated earlier than January 1938, or in 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.
[8] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.
[9] Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet or February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.
[10] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.
[11] Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission.

Public Employment

Employment and pay-roll figures for the month of September on construction projects financed from appropriations to regular Federal agencies give further evidence that America's defenses are rapidly taking shape. Increases of 28,500 in the number of workers employed on building construction projects, 8,000 on the construction of naval vessels, and 10,000 on airport construction can all be attributed to the national defense program. These sizable gains, together with expanding employment on many other types of projects brought the total number of men employed on construction work financed from regular funds up to 390,000 for the month ending September 15.

This represents an increase of 55,000 over August. Pay-roll disbursements on all types of projects totaled $42,796,000.

Employment on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority showed a gain of approximately 100 during the month ending September 15. Pay-roll disbursements to the 51,000 building-trades workers on the projects amounted to $5,228,000.

The Public Works Administration program, still operating with funds appropriated in 1938 and earlier years, furnished employment to 50,000 men during the month ending September 15, a decrease of 8,000 from August. Pay rolls of $5,283,000 were $1,202,000 less than in August.

Approximately 1,800 men were employed on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in the month ending September 15. Pay-roll disbursements totaled $205,000, a decrease of $78,000 from the preceding month.

The expansion of industrial employment and the increased demand for workers on Federal construction projects is reducing the number of persons employed on relief programs of the Federal Government. Employment on work-relief projects of the Work Projects Administration fell to 1,637,000, a decrease of 10,000 from August and 83,000 from September 1939. Pay rolls for the month totaled $90,907,000. The 69,000 persons working on Federal-agency projects under the Work Projects Administration represents a decline of 2,000 from August and 14,000 from the corresponding month in 1939. Workers on these projects were paid $3,102,000 in September.

With the beginning of a new school year in September the student-work program gave employment to 21,000 students, which was, however, 49,000 less than the number employed on this program in September 1939. Pay rolls amounted to only $93,000. Approximately 1,000 additional young persons were employed on the out-of-school work program in the same period. Pay-roll disbursements on this program were $4,827,000.

The number of persons at work in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps declined 31,000 in September. Of the 294,600 on the pay roll, 259,200 were enrollees; 1,500, educational advisers; 200, nurses; and 33,700, supervisory and technical employees. Pay rolls were $13,524,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government, employment increases were reported in executive, judicial, and military branches, while a decrease was reported in the legislative branch. Of the 1,059,000 employees in the executive service, 146,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 913,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees on the pay roll of the United States Government who are engaged on construction projects, and whose period of employment terminates as the project is completed) were

11 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. In the executive service increased employment was reported in the War, Navy, and Post Office Departments, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Panama Canal, while decreases were reported in the Treasury Department, the Department of the Interior, and the Department of Commerce.

Five thousand fewer workers were given employment on State-financed road projects in September. Of the 197,000 on the pay roll, 66,000 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 131,000 on maintenance. Wage payments for the month totaled $14,178,000.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data in the regular Federal services and on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds, September 1940 (Preliminary Figures)*

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	September 1940	August 1940	Percentage change	September 1940	August 1940	Percentage change
Federal services:						
Executive [1]	1,058,596	[2] 1,038,876	+1.9	$159,581,436	[2] $159,199,273	+0.2
Judicial	2,746	2,702	+1.6	686,424	642,475	+6.8
Legislative	5,938	6,011	−1.2	1,298,842	1,313,988	−1.2
Military	633,589	549,290	+15.3	38,532,284	38,364,271	+.4
Construction projects:						
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	389,615	334,593	+16.4	42,796,030	39,006,635	+9.7
U. S. H. A. low-rent housing	50,829	50,695	+.3	5,228,033	5,602,339	−6.7
Financed by P. W. A.[3]	50,051	58,303	−14.2	5,282,875	6,484,992	−18.5
Financed by R. F. C.[4]	1,845	2,133	−13.5	205,252	283,288	−27.5
Federal agency projects financed by Work Projects Administration	69,156	70,841	−2.4	3,102,015	2,768,053	+12.1
Projects operated by W. P. A.	1,636,824	1,647,123	−.6	90,907,258	94,784,451	−4.1
National Youth Administration:						
Student work program [5]	21,056	0	0	92,953	0	0
Out-of-school program	241,060	240,067	+.4	4,827,087	4,777,920	+1.0
Civilian Conservation Corps	294,622	326,244	−9.7	13,523,515	14,420,968	−6.2

[1] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 150,090 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $20,024,268 for September 1940, and 139,190 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $19,436,574 for August 1940.

[2] Revised.

[3] Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, 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 5,785 wage earners and $567,057 pay roll for September 1940; 6,023 wage earners and $682,614 pay roll for August 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 41,738 wage earners and $4,468,447 pay roll for September 1940; 49,781 wage earners and $5,565,863 pay roll for August 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

[4] Includes 795 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $96,927 for September 1940; 1,173 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $181,105 for August 1940 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

[5] Not in operation during August.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR AUGUST 1940

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 establish-

ments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of August 1940, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

The estimates of "Total nonagricultural employment," given on the first line of table 1, represents the number of persons engaged in gainful work in the United States in nonagricultural industries, including proprietors and firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers. The series described as "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" does not include proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic or casual workers. Neither set of figures includes persons employed on W. P. A. or N. Y. A. projects or enrollees in C. C. C. camps. The estimates for "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown separately for each of seven major industry groups. Tables giving figures for each group, by months, for the period from January 1929 to date are available on request.

The figures represent the number of persons working at any time during the week ending nearest the middle of each month. The totals for the United States have been adjusted to conform to the figures shown by the 1930 Census of Occupations for the number of nonagricultural "gainful workers" less the number shown to have been unemployed for 1 week or more at the time of the census. Separate estimates for "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown in table 2 for each of the 48 States and the District of Columbia for July and August 1940 and August 1939. Tables showing monthly figures for each State from January 1938 to date are available on request. The State figures do not include the armed forces of the United States nor employees on merchant vessels. Certain adjustments have been made in the United States estimates which cannot be made on a State basis, and for this reason the total of the State estimates will not agree exactly with the United States figures even if allowance is made for military, naval, and maritime employment. These estimates are based in large part on industrial censuses and on regular reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and to other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission. Data derived from employers' quarterly reports in connection with "old age and survivors' insurance," and employers' monthly reports in connection with unemployment compensation have been used extensively as a check on estimates derived from other sources, and in some industries they have provided the most reliable information available.

TABLE 1.—*Estimates of Total Nonagricultural Employment, by Major Groups*

[In thousands]

Industrial group	August 1940 (preliminary)	July 1940	Change July to August 1940	August 1939	Change August 1939 to August 1940
Total nonagricultural employment [1]	35,991	35,553	+438	34,856	+1,135
Employees in nonagricultural establishments [2]	29,848	29,413	+435	28,710	+1,138
Manufacturing	9,866	9,544	+322	9,260	+606
Mining	845	837	+8	807	+38
Construction	1,420	1,379	+41	1,415	+5
Transportation and public utilities	3,035	3,018	+17	2,946	+89
Trade	6,074	6,078	−4	5,988	+86
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,220	4,213	+7	4,169	+51
Federal, State, and local government, including armed forces	4,388	4,344	+44	4,125	+263

[1] Includes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers.
[2] Does not include proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States*

[Excludes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, domestic workers, the armed forces of the United States, and employees on merchant vessels]

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	August 1940 (preliminary)	July 1940	Change, July to August 1940		August 1939	Change, August 1939 to August 1940	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
New England	2,514	2,483	+31	+1.3	2,429	+85	+3.5
Maine	194	193	+1	+.5	198	−4	−2.0
New Hampshire	132	131	+1	+1.0	130	+2	+1.2
Vermont	79	79	0	+.2	74	+5	+6.8
Massachusetts	1,304	1,289	+15	+1.2	1,277	+27	+2.1
Rhode Island	228	224	+4	+1.8	219	+9	+4.2
Connecticut	577	567	+10	+1.7	531	+46	+8.6
Middle Atlantic	7,697	7,594	+103	+1.4	7,378	+319	+4.3
New York	3,842	3,799	+43	+1.1	3,773	+69	+1.8
New Jersey	1,193	1,163	+30	+2.6	1,095	+98	+8.9
Pennsylvania	2,662	2,632	+30	+1.1	2,510	+152	+6.1
East North Central	6,712	6,599	+113	+1.7	6,343	+369	+5.8
Ohio	1,754	1,730	+24	+1.4	1,667	+87	+5.2
Indiana	776	753	+23	+3.0	731	+45	+6.1
Illinois	2,234	2,204	+30	+1.4	2,125	+109	+5.2
Michigan	1,312	1,273	+39	+3.1	1,199	+113	+9.4
Wisconsin	636	639	−3	−.6	621	+15	+2.3
West North Central	2,336	2,338	−2	(1)	2,331	+5	+.2
Minnesota	530	528	+2	+.3	527	+3	+.4
Iowa	400	396	+4	+1.0	403	−3	−.7
Missouri	751	755	−4	−.5	751	0	(1)
North Dakota	79	80	−1	−.2	78	+1	+2.3
South Dakota	84	84	0	+.3	83	+1	+1.3
Nebraska	201	203	−2	−.8	201	0	+.1
Kansas	291	292	−1	−.1	288	+3	+1.1
South Atlantic	3,417	3,345	+72	+2.2	3,293	+124	+3.7
Delaware	72	69	+3	+4.7	66	+6	+9.2
Maryland	511	504	+7	+1.3	474	+37	+7.7
District of Columbia	342	335	+7	+2.0	319	+23	+7.3
Virginia	481	478	+3	+.7	470	+11	+2.2
West Virginia	370	368	+2	+.6	355	+15	+4.0
North Carolina	586	552	+34	+6.1	590	−4	−.6
South Carolina	274	273	+1	+.6	270	+4	+1.7
Georgia	456	451	+5	+1.0	442	+14	+3.0
Florida	325	315	+10	+3.2	307	+18	+5.8
East South Central	1,354	1,327	+27	+2.0	1,301	+53	+4.0
Kentucky	357	356	+1	+.2	351	+6	+1.6
Tennessee	455	440	+15	+3.4	425	+30	+7.1
Alabama	358	353	+5	+1.4	341	+17	+5.0
Mississippi	184	178	+6	+3.1	184	0	−.2
West South Central	1,787	1,781	+6	+.3	1,790	−3	−.2
Arkansas	175	171	+4	+2.1	178	−3	−1.4
Louisiana	362	361	+1	(1)	363	−1	−.5
Oklahoma	290	289	+1	+.3	293	−3	−1.1
Texas	960	960	0	+.1	956	+4	+.5

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

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States*—Continued

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	August 1940 (preliminary)	July 1940	Change, July to August 1940		August 1939	Change, August 1939 to August 1940	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
Mountain	779	776	+3	+0.4	757	+22	+2.9
Montana	115	114	+1	+.9	112	+3	+2.9
Idaho	86	85	+1	+1.4	83	+3	+3.2
Wyoming	54	54	0	+1.2	54	0	+.6
Colorado	226	223	+3	+.9	217	+9	+3.7
New Mexico	68	69	−1	−1.2	69	−1	−1.5
Arizona	85	86	−1	−.5	83	+2	+2.6
Utah	113	113	0	−.4	108	+5	+4.7
Nevada	32	32	0	+.2	31	+1	+4.0
Pacific	2,451	2,383	+68	+2.8	2,377	+74	+3.1
Washington	430	423	+7	+1.6	419	+11	+2.6
Oregon	240	234	+6	+2.3	233	+7	+2.9
California	1,781	1,726	+55	+3.2	1,725	+56	+3.2

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 90 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; water transportation; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission. They are presented in the foregoing summary for September.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100 and are adjusted to 1937 census data. 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 clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

The indexes for retail trade have been adjusted to conform in general with the 1935 census of retail distribution and are weighted by lines of trade. For the public utilities they have been adjusted to the 1937 census of electrical industries, for wholesale trade to the 1933 census, and for coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning to the 1935 censuses.

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.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 3 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 movement 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 August 1939 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS

The indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries for June, July, and August 1940, where available, are presented in table 3. The June and July figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports.

In table 4, indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 nonmanufacturing industries, by months, from August 1939 to August 1940, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to August 1940.

TABLE 3.—*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]		
	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	103.6	99.5	99.4	103.8	96.5	97.9	$26.10	$25.25	$25.79	38.4	37.3	37.5	66.7	66.7	67.2
Durable goods	99.5	95.6	97.0	105.0	96.1	100.0	29.98	28.52	29.48	39.8	37.9	38.7	72.8	72.7	73.2
Nondurable goods	107.6	103.3	101.7	102.5	97.1	95.6	22.10	21.87	21.81	37.2	36.7	36.4	61.3	61.5	61.7
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	110.7	106.2	103.7	113.5	104.3	102.8	30.24	28.89	29.30	38.8	37.2	37.6	77.7	77.7	77.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	122.1	119.0	114.3	124.8	116.2	113.9	32.25	30.75	31.53	38.1	36.4	37.1	85.0	84.9	84.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	114.9	109.1	104.2	138.7	111.6	111.3	29.02	24.60	25.79	41.5	35.4	37.3	70.0	69.5	69.1
Cast-iron pipe	80.2	78.2	76.8	76.3	74.9	70.0	22.72	22.97	21.80	37.8	37.9	35.9	59.9	60.3	60.5
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	101.6	98.8	101.2	93.5	90.6	91.6	24.00	23.81	23.63	38.8	38.6	38.4	62.3	62.4	62.3
Forgings, iron and steel	72.7	67.8	66.0	86.2	77.6	74.1	31.97	30.90	30.48	40.6	39.4	39.1	79.3	78.7	78.1
Hardware	96.4	82.9	81.6	107.2	85.7	85.8	27.36	25.45	25.85	39.2	37.3	38.0	70.1	68.3	68.0
Plumbers' supplies	86.7	84.3	82.9	79.9	74.2	73.0	26.97	25.63	25.70	38.7	36.6	36.8	69.7	70.1	70.0
Stamped and enameled ware	163.7	152.4	152.7	181.7	166.1	162.6	26.43	25.93	25.34	39.9	38.6	38.3	65.7	67.2	65.7
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	89.7	84.2	85.1	84.6	78.0	76.6	28.80	28.25	27.47	40.3	39.8	39.2	71.6	71.1	70.3
Stoves	97.7	91.8	92.6	89.1	81.3	82.7	26.10	25.21	25.49	38.6	37.4	37.3	67.8	67.7	68.4
Structural and ornamental metalwork	79.9	76.0	73.5	72.9	67.6	64.8	29.51	28.87	28.56	40.1	39.0	38.6	73.6	73.8	74.1
Tin cans and other tinware	108.1	105.9	102.8	121.9	113.4	113.5	25.61	24.38	25.04	40.4	39.1	39.8	63.9	62.7	63.2
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	95.6	94.0	91.6	95.6	91.7	88.6	25.22	24.60	24.42	39.8	39.0	38.9	63.4	63.1	62.8
Wirework	146.2	136.2	152.1	163.4	140.8	161.0	28.07	25.96	26.48	39.6	37.1	37.5	71.0	70.0	70.7
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	119.2	116.1	115.1	131.0	125.7	125.1	30.67	30.29	30.41	41.2	40.5	40.8	74.5	74.4	74.3
Agricultural implements (including tractors)	131.2	130.6	137.3	152.0	148.9	157.8	30.87	30.42	30.74	38.6	38.3	38.6	80.1	79.5	79.8
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	128.7	129.6	130.4	135.9	135.6	138.0	33.11	32.92	33.32	40.2	40.0	40.4	82.7	82.7	83.0
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	106.6	103.8	103.3	123.7	118.1	118.3	30.92	30.14	30.52	40.7	39.8	40.2	76.5	76.5	76.4
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills	175.2	167.5	158.1	238.9	223.8	210.7	35.85	35.14	35.05	44.2	43.7	43.8	81.0	80.3	80.3
Foundry and machine-shop products	100.5	98.0	96.9	101.2	96.3	95.8	30.12	29.34	29.41	41.0	40.1	40.4	73.3	73.0	72.8
Machine tools	237.5	234.8	229.1	302.9	307.8	302.9	35.48	36.45	36.68	46.7	47.5	47.9	76.0	76.8	76.6
Radios and phonographs	157.1	143.4	141.0	149.8	138.5	134.0	23.49	23.90	23.61	38.5	38.6	38.5	61.1	62.1	61.4
Textile machinery and parts	76.4	77.0	79.0	73.5	73.4	74.1	26.30	26.13	25.70	39.6	39.2	39.4	66.9	66.8	65.4
Typewriters and parts	118.0	114.3	111.0	125.4	116.9	112.1	26.04	25.05	24.75	39.7	38.5	37.7	65.6	65.1	65.6

Transportation equipment	102.6	97.5	112.3	113.1	96.4	118.8	35.31	31.88	34.21	39.9	36.2	38.1	89.7	89.1	90.5
Aircraft	2,890.9	2,703.3	2,518.7	3,014.2	2,635.4	2,514.0	32.60	30.48	31.18	44.6	42.0	42.7	74.7	73.8	74.2
Automobiles	86.4	82.3	104.9	97.5	80.5	112.0	37.05	32.24	35.28	38.8	34.0	37.0	95.5	94.8	95.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	50.7	50.6	51.2	46.8	42.7	45.3	28.94	26.43	27.68	38.4	35.0	36.7	75.5	75.5	75.3
Locomotives	33.0	31.1	29.1	32.8	31.3	28.5	30.47	30.99	30.12	39.0	39.1	38.2	78.2	79.2	78.9
Shipbuilding	181.0	170.1	162.8	211.5	193.4	185.8	34.86	34.03	34.17	40.3	39.3	39.2	86.7	86.2	86.9
Nonferrous metals and their products	113.8	106.9	106.6	117.0	105.8	105.8	28.18	27.12	27.25	40.1	38.6	39.0	70.3	70.1	70.2
Aluminum manufactures	189.2	181.1	176.5	224.5	194.1	204.3	28.91	26.05	28.20	40.1	36.5	39.7	72.0	71.4	71.0
Brass, bronze, and copper products	138.4	129.7	127.1	160.8	146.2	140.8	31.42	30.46	29.95	41.4	40.4	39.8	76.2	75.7	75.5
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	95.2	90.1	91.1	101.4	91.1	92.2	23.67	22.42	22.44	39.6	37.6	37.5	59.7	59.5	59.8
Jewelry	99.3	93.2	91.2	82.9	75.8	76.3	23.32	22.71	23.35	39.5	38.1	38.7	58.0	58.1	59.5
Lighting equipment	87.7	76.8	83.9	76.5	64.4	70.0	27.17	26.13	26.19	39.1	37.7	36.9	69.4	69.3	70.9
Silverware and plated ware	68.8	63.1	68.3	60.5	51.2	55.9	25.33	23.39	23.58	38.9	36.3	36.5	64.8	64.6	64.7
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	91.4	89.0	87.2	88.8	86.8	85.7	27.17	27.29	27.57	38.2	38.2	38.7	71.2	71.5	71.3
Lumber and allied products	71.3	68.2	68.3	68.3	60.7	63.6	20.81	19.37	20.17	40.1	37.0	38.5	51.7	51.9	52.3
Furniture	91.1	87.7	88.1	81.8	74.3	75.9	21.49	20.28	20.67	39.5	37.1	38.1	54.8	55.0	54.8
Lumber:															
Millwork	64.3	62.6	61.5	52.5	48.8	48.5	22.61	21.66	21.82	41.6	39.7	40.2	55.0	54.8	54.5
Sawmills	64.9	61.5	61.9	62.2	53.9	58.1	19.79	18.02	19.32	40.1	36.4	38.3	49.3	49.6	50.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	84.5	82.4	82.9	76.7	71.1	73.4	24.81	23.49	24.20	37.0	35.5	36.3	66.8	66.5	66.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	64.4	64.1	63.1	53.6	51.8	51.1	21.34	20.72	20.74	38.1	37.1	37.4	55.6	55.3	55.1
Cement	74.5	72.0	72.4	72.6	68.4	69.9	27.94	27.12	27.42	38.8	37.9	38.9	71.6	71.5	70.4
Glass	106.9	103.3	104.9	116.0	105.2	111.0	26.56	24.91	25.89	35.9	33.8	35.1	74.3	74.2	74.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	48.6	47.5	48.5	36.6	34.2	35.6	26.53	25.33	25.84	36.4	34.7	34.9	73.6	73.7	74.4
Pottery	90.9	87.3	89.5	79.8	71.0	75.8	22.17	20.53	21.52	36.0	34.6	35.4	64.2	63.7	64.0
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	99.8	94.5	93.7	87.4	77.7	75.4	17.64	16.85	16.43	34.9	33.8	33.5	51.2	50.2	49.6
Fabrics	90.4	88.0	85.7	80.9	76.4	72.5	17.15	16.71	16.24	35.7	34.8	34.1	48.6	48.6	48.4
Carpets and rugs	71.4	70.8	70.2	58.7	54.0	54.6	22.78	21.11	21.55	33.8	31.7	32.4	67.4	66.5	66.6
Cotton goods	88.7	88.0	86.9	80.0	78.2	74.7	14.67	14.43	13.92	35.5	34.9	34.0	41.0	41.2	41.0
Cotton small wares	76.7	74.0	73.8	72.6	69.2	66.8	18.36	18.12	17.54	37.1	37.0	36.3	49.5	49.0	48.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles	121.5	116.1	115.7	101.8	95.0	93.0	20.53	20.05	19.67	37.1	36.4	35.5	54.6	54.6	54.9
Hats, fur-felt	86.5	82.9	71.2	83.1	78.4	57.5	26.17	25.84	22.08	36.6	35.9	31.6	74.5	75.0	72.4
Hosiery	136.2	131.2	130.2	144.2	129.5	127.9	18.73	17.60	17.52	33.8	31.8	32.2	55.4	55.8	55.3
Knitted outerwear	70.3	66.1	63.1	59.9	53.8	50.6	17.88	17.07	16.99	37.0	35.9	35.8	47.6	47.2	47.1
Knitted underwear	73.1	72.4	72.8	65.5	63.0	63.6	15.24	14.63	14.68	35.0	34.3	34.4	43.6	43.4	43.0
Knitted cloth	147.5	136.3	128.0	129.4	117.1	107.2	19.73	19.34	18.76	39.7	39.0	37.0	49.4	49.3	50.0
Silk and rayon goods	63.0	60.5	59.7	51.4	46.6	45.6	16.77	15.82	15.78	36.8	34.3	34.2	45.5	45.8	45.8
Woolen and worsted goods	86.9	83.3	75.7	77.9	73.8	65.4	20.60	20.44	19.87	36.5	36.4	35.3	56.5	56.3	56.3
Wearing apparel	116.8	104.9	107.9	94.8	75.6	76.6	18.95	17.26	16.96	33.5	31.9	32.5	55.8	53.4	51.8
Clothing, men's	107.5	103.2	98.6	82.0	76.7	71.1	19.72	19.29	18.69	32.8	32.2	32.3	60.1	59.8	58.1
Clothing, women's	164.3	137.3	148.1	129.1	89.0	95.1	20.93	17.27	17.22	34.0	31.6	32.7	57.1	52.0	49.6
Corsets and allied garments	109.7	102.5	111.9	108.4	99.7	109.2	16.38	16.11	16.16	33.7	34.2	34.0	48.7	47.2	46.6
Men's furnishings	116.6	109.8	109.7	113.9	97.7	94.9	15.10	13.75	13.36	33.8	31.7	31.9	43.1	41.8	41.1
Millinery	73.3	54.5	65.7	64.7	36.5	47.1	26.14	19.84	21.08	34.7	29.2	31.6	67.4	64.8	68.7
Shirts and collars	117.1	110.6	115.1	102.1	87.8	92.0	13.96	12.71	12.84	33.6	32.0	32.1	41.9	40.9	40.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940	August 1940	July 1940	June 1940
Nondurable goods—Continued													*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Leather and its manufactures	92.0	91.6	86.8	77.1	76.4	67.0	$19.90	$19.80	$18.17	35.8	35.9	33.2	55.4	55.3	55.3
Boots and shoes	91.1	90.7	84.8	75.1	74.6	62.7	18.97	18.92	17.00	35.4	35.7	32.3	53.4	53.2	53.1
Leather	80.3	80.1	80.1	77.0	76.0	75.7	23.96	23.69	23.56	37.3	36.7	36.9	64.4	64.6	64.2
Food and kindred products	146.0	135.5	129.7	139.2	131.4	129.0	24.17	24.33	25.54	40.4	39.9	40.1	61.5	62.5	64.1
Baking	146.6	147.1	147.0	140.1	142.1	140.8	26.40	26.69	26.57	41.2	41.8	41.7	64.3	64.0	63.9
Beverages	299.1	300.3	301.5	357.1	352.8	375.6	34.99	34.41	36.52	40.1	39.3	41.6	88.4	88.1	88.7
Butter	103.2	104.6	105.0	89.4	89.9	90.8	23.10	22.93	23.04	47.7	47.4	47.7	48.2	47.7	47.6
Canning and preserving	264.8	179.9	140.5	250.6	146.7	117.2	18.14	15.69	16.05	39.6	36.3	34.3	[2] 46.5	[2] 43.7	[2] 47.0
Confectionery	79.8	73.6	74.7	77.1	69.2	72.3	19.01	18.48	18.98	36.7	35.7	36.8	51.8	51.9	51.6
Flour	79.6	80.0	77.6	76.4	75.8	72.3	25.92	25.59	25.13	42.0	41.9	41.2	61.4	61.0	60.9
Ice cream	91.1	92.1	92.0	78.0	78.1	77.9	29.97	29.66	29.63	46.6	46.0	46.6	63.5	63.5	62.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	106.8	111.1	108.2	112.3	117.6	114.7	27.57	27.76	27.82	39.8	40.3	40.2	69.1	68.9	69.1
Sugar, beet	89.2	57.7	52.9	87.5	55.5	54.2	25.40	24.88	26.55	38.4	35.8	37.1	67.3	71.8	73.6
Sugar refining, cane	98.3	101.1	98.3	85.4	91.4	88.7	24.44	25.45	25.37	37.3	39.3	38.9	65.6	64.7	65.2
Tobacco manufactures	64.4	62.4	64.9	62.3	62.3	66.9	17.79	18.36	18.98	36.1	36.8	38.1	49.2	50.2	50.5
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	55.4	56.1	58.0	64.7	66.5	67.4	18.86	19.16	18.77	34.6	35.4	35.4	54.7	54.3	53.5
Cigars and cigarettes	65.5	63.2	65.7	61.9	61.7	66.7	17.57	18.19	19.03	36.2	36.9	38.4	48.6	49.4	50.1
Paper and printing	115.2	114.7	114.5	110.9	111.2	112.3	28.73	29.00	29.27	38.2	38.4	38.5	78.9	79.1	79.7
Boxes, paper	117.5	116.0	115.3	130.7	127.7	127.4	22.10	21.87	21.99	39.4	38.9	39.0	56.4	56.6	56.7
Paper and pulp	116.9	117.1	116.2	124.8	126.3	126.2	26.14	26.47	26.70	40.4	40.8	41.5	65.0	64.9	64.4
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job	99.7	99.0	97.1	85.9	86.7	85.1	30.07	30.57	30.59	37.9	38.4	37.9	80.8	81.3	82.0
Newspapers and periodicals	113.8	113.5	116.2	105.4	105.3	111.1	37.66	37.72	38.55	35.9	35.5	35.9	103.1	103.3	103.6
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products	119.4	118.5	119.0	134.8	133.4	133.2	30.16	30.12	30.08	38.7	38.5	38.5	77.8	78.3	77.7
Petroleum refining	122.7	122.9	123.2	137.4	136.6	137.1	34.94	34.73	34.84	35.8	35.3	35.7	97.7	98.6	98.3
Other than petroleum refining	118.6	117.4	118.0	134.0	132.4	132.0	28.34	28.27	28.09	39.8	39.7	39.6	70.7	70.9	70.2
Chemicals	141.6	140.4	138.3	171.0	168.9	165.2	32.18	31.95	32.08	40.3	40.2	40.0	80.6	80.4	80.2
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	52.4	45.3	51.4	48.5	43.4	46.3	14.67	15.15	14.27	41.8	42.4	39.5	33.5	33.9	34.3
Druggists' preparations	114.6	113.7	115.8	127.4	124.8	126.1	25.13	24.91	24.71	39.5	40.1	38.3	61.5	61.2	61.1
Explosives	139.9	132.7	126.4	172.1	166.8	153.7	33.70	34.43	33.32	40.6	40.9	39.9	82.8	83.9	83.6
Fertilizers	81.1	79.8	88.5	70.7	69.7	78.4	16.14	16.05	15.99	34.6	35.2	36.1	46.6	45.6	44.3
Paints and varnishes	123.5	124.6	126.4	132.1	132.4	136.2	29.28	29.13	29.55	40.6	40.4	41.2	72.0	72.1	71.7
Rayon and allied products	307.7	306.9	306.0	318.0	314.7	314.3	26.53	26.32	26.36	39.4	38.9	39.1	67.2	67.6	67.5
Soap	83.6	81.3	81.5	101.8	99.9	100.4	28.68	28.77	28.85	40.3	40.4	40.4	71.2	71.2	71.5

Rubber products	85.8	83.5	83.4	87.8	85.2	86.4	27.98	27.90	28.27	36.3	35.7	36.4	77.9	78.5	78.0
Rubber boots and shoes	54.7	53.6	54.9	57.2	50.7	56.2	24.12	21.81	23.50	38.4	35.5	38.3	62.5	61.0	61.4
Rubber tires and inner tubes	70.5	69.3	68.5	76.3	77.4	77.5	31.64	32.66	33.11	33.0	33.8	34.3	96.0	97.1	96.7
Rubber goods, other	143.3	137.8	138.4	141.9	131.9	133.1	24.10	23.30	23.42	39.3	38.0	38.2	62.2	62.2	61.9

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Coal mining:															
Anthracite [3]	50.3	50.8	50.2	33.1	36.5	40.6	$21.63	$23.63	$26.63	24.2	26.5	29.3	91.8	91.8	92.2
Bituminous [3]	86.6	84.9	83.8	83.3	75.2	73.9	25.37	23.36	23.48	28.7	26.6	26.8	88.1	88.0	88.7
Metalliferous mining	71.5	71.0	70.3	69.1	63.7	65.4	30.10	27.95	28.95	41.4	38.7	40.1	73.1	72.4	72.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	48.8	48.1	47.9	45.0	43.5	43.9	23.03	22.57	22.89	40.7	39.7	40.2	56.6	56.9	56.7
Crude-petroleum production	63.4	63.7	63.8	59.1	59.1	58.8	34.11	33.97	33.74	38.4	38.2	37.4	87.2	87.4	88.3
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph [4 5]	78.6	78.8	77.8	100.8	101.3	100.0	31.47	31.56	31.54	39.5	39.5	39.5	80.1	80.4	80.3
Electric light and power [4 5]	92.9	92.2	91.2	107.6	105.8	104.8	35.29	34.96	35.03	40.4	39.5	39.3	87.3	88.7	89.0
Street railways and busses [4 5 6]	68.4	68.4	68.5	70.3	70.0	70.5	33.77	33.62	33.80	46.1	45.8	46.3	72.3	72.4	72.3
Trade:															
Wholesale [4 7]	90.0	89.2	89.6	78.7	78.3	78.4	30.25	30.36	30.41	41.3	41.0	41.2	73.2	74.0	73.7
Retail [4 5]	88.4	89.1	91.9	81.3	82.6	84.8	21.54	21.71	21.51	43.0	43.0	42.9	54.5	54.9	54.8
Food [5]	102.9	103.6	104.8	95.9	96.0	96.3	23.96	23.84	23.48	43.9	43.9	43.5	52.9	52.9	52.5
General merchandising [4 5]	88.9	90.3	96.2	81.1	84.0	89.3	17.94	18.29	18.20	38.0	38.4	38.9	47.4	47.6	46.9
Apparel [5]	72.9	75.1	88.0	68.3	70.8	80.4	21.91	22.04	21.15	39.0	38.8	38.2	55.2	55.8	55.2
Furniture [5]	74.8	75.4	77.4	66.1	66.6	70.2	27.18	28.00	30.12	44.0	43.8	44.1	69.0	69.9	70.9
Automotive [5]	86.1	86.8	86.5	79.8	82.3	83.4	27.87	28.50	28.82	47.1	47.1	47.5	59.3	60.6	60.3
Lumber [5]	75.6	75.6	75.1	72.4	71.9	71.4	26.83	26.64	26.58	42.8	42.8	42.7	63.0	62.8	62.6
Hotels (year-round) [3 4 8]	90.6	90.3	92.0	80.9	80.5	82.0	15.44	15.42	15.47	46.6	46.7	46.3	33.0	32.9	33.3
Laundries [3]	102.8	102.5	102.1	90.6	90.0	92.4	18.02	17.96	18.51	43.0	43.0	43.9	42.2	42.1	42.2
Dyeing and cleaning [3]	105.9	108.2	112.6	78.0	80.0	89.6	20.05	20.13	21.57	42.7	42.5	45.0	48.4	48.6	49.1
Brokerage [4 9]	−2.7	−1.6	−.2	−5.4	−3.5	−1.6	35.35	36.34	36.73	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)
Insurance [4 9]	+.2	+.9	+.4	−.3	+.1	−.2	36.26	36.45	36.90	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)
Building construction [9]	+5.2	+5.9	+5.1	+6.7	+5.2	+5.0	32.47	31.78	31.94	34.1	33.6	33.8	95.6	94.7	94.8

[1] Revised series. Mimeographed sheets, giving averages by years, 1932 to 1938, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to September 1939, inclusive, available on request. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than average weekly earnings, 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] Average hourly earnings not comparable with previously published averages because of expansion in reporting sample.

[3] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet.

[4] Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not 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.

[5] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable to indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940.

[6] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

[7] Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet.

[8] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

[9] Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

[10] Not available.

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TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing [1] and Nonmanufacturing [2] Industries, August 1939 to August 1940, Inclusive*

Industry	1939 Av.	1939 Aug.	1939 Sept.	1939 Oct.	1939 Nov.	1939 Dec.	1940 Jan.	1940 Feb.	1940 Mar.	1940 Apr.	1940 May	1940 June	1940 July	1940 Aug.
Employment														
Manufacturing														
All industries	96.8	96.3	100.2	103.6	103.8	104.1	101.4	101.4	100.8	99.6	99.0	99.4	99.5	103.6
Durable goods [3]	87.8	83.9	89.8	96.1	98.2	100.0	97.4	96.6	96.4	96.0	96.5	97.0	95.6	99.5
Nondurable goods [4]	105.5	108.1	110.2	110.8	109.2	108.0	105.3	106.1	105.1	103.0	101.4	101.7	103.3	107.6
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining [5]	50.6	48.5	49.4	51.9	51.3	51.0	51.5	52.0	52.6	51.6	52.2	50.2	50.8	50.3
Bituminous-coal mining [5]	78.6	81.4	85.4	93.0	94.9	92.6	91.8	91.7	89.7	86.2	85.1	83.8	84.9	86.6
Metalliferous mining	62.7	60.4	62.9	65.3	66.5	67.3	66.4	66.3	66.2	67.7	69.2	70.3	71.0	71.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	44.6	48.1	47.9	48.0	47.1	44.0	37.8	38.3	41.0	44.5	46.9	47.9	48.1	48.8
Crude-petroleum production	65.8	66.7	65.0	64.3	63.8	63.8	63.2	63.0	63.2	63.1	63.3	63.8	63.7	63.4
Telephone and telegraph [6]	75.8	76.6	76.4	76.5	76.1	75.8	76.1	75.9	76.0	76.7	77.3	77.8	78.8	78.6
Electric light and power [6]	89.0	90.6	90.6	90.4	90.3	90.1	89.1	89.2	89.3	90.0	90.6	91.2	92.2	92.9
Street railways and busses [6 7]	69.0	69.2	69.2	69.5	69.3	69.0	68.8	68.7	68.2	68.3	68.4	68.5	68.4	68.4
Wholesale trade	89.2	89.0	90.5	92.4	92.1	92.2	90.6	90.2	90.5	89.3	88.9	89.6	89.2	90.0
Retail trade [6]	89.8	86.3	90.5	91.7	93.3	104.2	87.7	87.0	91.1	89.8	91.2	91.9	89.1	88.4
Year-round hotels [5]	92.0	89.8	91.3	92.9	91.8	90.8	91.3	92.1	92.0	92.7	93.4	92.0	90.3	90.6
Laundries [5]	95.9	99.1	97.8	96.0	95.6	95.6	96.0	95.8	96.2	97.2	99.1	102.1	102.5	102.8
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	101.3	102.7	105.2	105.1	97.8	97.4	94.0	93.7	99.5	104.5	108.7	112.6	108.2	105.9
Pay rolls														
Manufacturing														
All industries	90.8	89.7	93.8	101.6	101.6	103.7	98.3	97.8	98.2	96.3	96.3	97.9	96.5	103.8
Durable goods [3]	85.2	81.5	87.8	99.6	100.9	104.6	98.2	96.7	97.6	97.2	97.5	100.0	96.1	105.0
Nondurable goods [4]	97.0	99.0	100.5	103.9	102.4	102.8	98.4	99.1	99.0	95.4	94.9	95.6	97.1	102.5
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining [5]	39.5	33.8	40.1	52.2	42.0	26.6	52.5	32.9	38.4	36.3	40.0	40.6	36.5	33.1
Bituminous-coal mining [5]	69.9	74.6	80.2	97.6	96.3	84.3	87.0	87.0	78.3	72.2	75.3	73.9	75.2	83.3
Metalliferous mining	56.0	53.0	55.1	63.4	63.9	65.0	63.6	64.2	63.2	63.5	65.7	65.4	63.7	69.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	38.7	42.9	42.7	45.6	42.9	39.2	29.6	30.8	34.1	38.1	42.7	43.9	43.5	45.0
Crude-petroleum production	61.0	62.0	60.8	58.8	59.6	59.2	58.4	59.0	58.4	59.0	58.7	58.8	59.1	59.1
Telephone and telegraph [6]	95.6	96.3	96.9	97.2	96.4	97.4	97.4	96.9	98.1	98.7	98.8	100.0	101.3	100.8
Electric light and power [6]	100.4	102.2	102.2	102.0	102.5	102.4	101.6	102.2	102.3	103.3	104.2	104.8	105.8	107.6
Street railways and busses [6 7]	69.5	69.8	69.2	71.2	69.4	69.8	69.0	71.5	69.5	69.2	69.2	70.5	70.0	70.3
Wholesale trade	76.6	76.2	78.0	80.3	79.0	79.1	77.1	77.1	77.8	77.4	77.4	78.4	78.3	78.7
Retail trade [6]	80.8	78.0	80.9	83.2	83.6	91.8	79.9	[illegible]1	82.0	82.3	83.4	84.8	82.6	81.3
Year-round hotels [5]	81.2	79.2	80.4	82.2	81.8	81.1	81.1	82.7	81.8	83.2	83.0	82.0	80.5	80.9
Laundries [5]	83.1	85.9	84.5	83.9	82.9	83.7	83.4	83.1	84.1	85.6	88.5	92.4	90.0	90.6
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	73.6	73.0	78.3	77.3	70.8	69.9	65.5	64.4	72.7	79.6	85.4	89.6	80.0	78.0

[1] 3-year average 1923–25=100—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.

[2] 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5 and 6.

[3] Indexes: 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.

[5] Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet.

[6] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.

[7] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in July and August 1940 is made in table 5 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 5.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in July and August 1940, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments August 1940	Number on pay roll August 1940	Percentage change from July 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) August 1940	Percentage change from July 1940
New York [1]	14,467	792,402	+2.4	$22,836,295	+4.1
Chicago [2]	4,388	474,528	+1.1	13,687,299	+2.0
Philadelphia [3]	2,481	256,328	+3.5	7,188,641	+3.4
Detroit	1,668	293,490	+4.7	10,486,770	+12.9
Los Angeles [4]	3,014	184,359	+3.1	5,604,841	+5.7
Cleveland	1,351	129,965	+3.1	3,965,005	+7.3
St. Louis	1,376	118,716	−.2	3,007,531	+1.5
Baltimore	1,153	119,692	+1.1	3,088,781	+.9
Boston [5]	2,970	182,708	+1.2	4,683,609	+2.3
Pittsburgh	1,296	214,496	+2.1	6,564,495	+6.8
San Francisco [6]	1,828	114,012	+9.7	3,528,550	+11.1
Buffalo	1,105	82,872	+1.9	2,415,674	+3.0
Milwaukee	992	105,587	+2.8	3,081,137	+3.9

[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] Does not include Oakland, Calif.

WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN AMERICAN INDUSTRIES

The following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending August 15, 1940, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to this Bureau.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

TABLE 6.—*Wage Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments During Month Ending Aug. 15, 1940* [1]

Group and industry	Total number of establishments reporting	Total number of employees covered	Number of establishments reporting—		Number of employees having—		Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having—	
			Wage-rate increases	Wage-rate decreases	Wage-rate increases	Wage-rate decreases	Increases	Decreases
All manufacturing	26,203	4,980,486	169	-------	24,677	-------	6.6	-------
Iron and steel group	2,134	762,027	7	-------	876	-------	6.6	-------
Structural metalwork	304	27,350	3	-------	36	-------	8.8	-------
Machinery group	3,357	724,481	16	-------	1,844	-------	6.2	-------
Electrical machinery	554	208,529	5	-------	623	-------	6.9	-------
Foundries and machine shops	2,205	268,002	9	-------	537	-------	7.0	-------
Transportation equipment group	643	488,542	5	-------	2,105	-------	2.7	-------
Nonferrous metals and products group	808	158,936	5	-------	772	-------	8.7	-------
Brass, bronze, and copper products	325	61,678	4	-------	358	-------	12.4	-------
Lumber and allied products group	1,943	242,584	8	-------	1,665	-------	3.5	-------
Millwork	574	35,634	4	-------	789	-------	3.6	-------
Stone, clay, and glass products group	1,206	154,609	5	-------	249	-------	4.4	-------
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	535	39,534	4	-------	93	-------	5.0	-------
Fabrics group	2,845	795,156	8	-------	3,010	-------	3.5	-------
Woolen and worsted goods	421	131,609	3	-------	1,788	-------	3.6	-------
Wearing apparel group	2,831	294,493	32	-------	3,168	-------	17.3	-------
Men's clothing	1,121	130,511	15	-------	1,664	-------	17.8	-------
Women's clothing	1,071	81,362	7	-------	517	-------	16.8	-------
Men's furnishings	151	13,247	3	-------	297	-------	13.7	-------
Shirts and collars	275	50,479	7	-------	690	-------	17.9	-------
Food group	4,382	466,874	13	-------	801	-------	8.3	-------
Baking	1,059	79,709	4	-------	260	-------	5.2	-------
Beverages	638	43,130	3	-------	101	-------	4.3	-------
Paper group	3,376	305,125	28	-------	6,238	-------	4.2	-------
Paper boxes	665	41,472	5	-------	262	-------	3.9	-------
Paper and pulp	423	128,674	18	-------	5,917	-------	4.2	-------
Newspapers	692	57,412	5	-------	59	-------	11.5	-------
Chemicals group	1,594	238,403	4	-------	761	-------	7.1	-------
All nonmanufacturing (except building construction)	68,208	1,931,603	33	15	3,141	905	3.2	5.1
Electric light and power	1,409	138,871	3	-------	127	-------	2.0	-------
Natural gas distribution	400	10,555	5	-------	873	-------	4.0	-------
Street railways and busses	239	87,974	4	-------	1,637	-------	1.5	-------
Wholesale trade	11,636	248,599	7	-------	80	-------	8.4	-------
Retail trade	38,224	615,768	9	-------	66	-------	6.4	-------

[1] As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry, and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, the figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring. Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included, where practicable, in "all manufacturing," in "all nonmanufacturing," and in the various industry groups.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, SEPTEMBER 1940 [1]

SEPTEMBER building-permit valuations for all classes of construction combined increased 22.5 percent from the corresponding month in 1939. The feature of the September reports was a gain of 39.0 percent over the year period in the indicated volume of new residential construction. All city-size groups participated in the increased activity with gains ranging from 12.7 percent in the group of cities with a population of 1,000 and under 2,500 to 67.2 percent in the group of cities with a population of 5,000 and under 10,000. Permit valuations of new nonresidential construction were 5.7 percent higher than in September 1939 and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures showed a gain of 6.4 percent.

As compared with August permit valuations of all classes of construction combined fell off seasonally by 6.3 percent. The decrease was the result of diminished activity in the field of nonresidential construction, which declined 28.1 percent from August to September. Permit valuations of new residential construction, however, and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures increased 8.7 and 0.2 percent, respectively.

Comparison of September 1940 With August 1940 and September 1939

Summaries of building construction, and of permit valuations and the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, in 2,157 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over, are shown in tables 1 and 2, respectively, for September 1940 with percentage changes from August 1940 and September 1939.

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, September 1940," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,157 Identical Cities, September 1940*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	September 1940	Percentage change from—		September 1940	Percentage change from—	
		August 1940	September 1939		August 1940	September 1939
All construction	78,549	+0.4	+14.6	$218,233,648	−6.3	+22.5
New residential	23,493	−3.1	+33.7	124,022,762	+8.7	+39.0
New nonresidential	14,457	+5.4	+11.4	63,250,487	−28.1	+5.7
Additions, alterations, and repairs	40,599	+.8	+6.9	30,960,399	+.2	+6.4

TABLE 2.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,157 Identical Cities, by Type of Dwelling, September 1940*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation			Number of dwelling units		
	September 1940	Percentage change from—		September 1940	Percentage change from—	
		August 1940	September 1939		August 1940	September 1939
All types	$123,087,462	+9.9	+39.0	33,810	+7.2	+39.9
1-family	84,639,933	−1.0	+36.3	21,253	−3.6	+30.6
2-family [1]	4,643,923	−.1	+19.6	1,867	+7.1	+29.1
Multifamily [2]	33,803,606	+54.7	+49.9	10,690	+37.9	+65.8

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 9 Months, 1939 and 1940

Cumulative totals for the first 9 months of 1940 compared with the same months of the preceding year 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, by Class of Construction, Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, First 9 Months, 1939 and 1940*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 9 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939	
All construction	$1,669,606,128	$1,584,272,823	+5.4
New residential	936,720,229	848,020,706	+10.5
New nonresidential	470,985,732	467,044,989	+.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs	261,900,167	269,207,128	−2.7

Table 4 presents the permit valuation and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over for the first 9 months of 1939 and 1940.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units by Type of Dwelling, First 9 Months, 1939 and 1040* [1]

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation, first 9 months of—		Percentage change	Number of dwelling units, first 9 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939		1940	1939	
All types	$919,554,204	$837,305,504	+9.8	255,920	229,128	+11.7
1-family	663,413,842	593,132,796	+11.8	168,386	153,139	+10.0
2-family [2]	33,731,374	34,875,971	−3.3	13,307	12,525	+6.2
Multifamily [3]	222,408,988	209,296,737	+6.3	74,227	63,464	+17.0

[1] Based on reports from cities with a population of 1,000 and over, the cities being identical for any given month of both years.
[2] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[3] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, September 1940

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in September 1940 with percentage changes from August 1940 and September 1939, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Various Classes of Building Construction in 2,157 Identical Cities, by Size of City, September 1940*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, September 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, September 1940	Percentage change from—	
			August 1940	September 1939		August 1940	September 1939
Total, all reporting cities	2,157	$218,233,648	−6.3	+22.5	$124,022,762	+8.7	+39.0
500,000 and over	14	65,275,721	−27.8	+10.5	42,548,838	+37.9	+29.0
100,000 and under 500,000	79	50,496,362	+20.4	+39.8	23,400,409	−2.4	+35.5
50,000 and under 100,000	95	22,087,906	+6.2	+47.7	10,984,876	+2.1	+51.2
25,000 and under 50,000	168	20,840,164	+1.4	+31.9	10,843,200	−3.5	+55.4
10,000 and under 25,000	449	32,681,935	+3.4	+4.7	17,783,502	+1.9	+42.2
5,000 and under 10,000	388	14,800,819	−2.5	+31.2	10,036,489	−3.8	+67.2
2,500 and under 5,000	474	7,985,894	−.7	+39.2	5,446,423	−7.9	+51.2
1,000 and under 2,500	490	4,064,847	−6.6	+1.4	2,979,025	−12.9	+12.7

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, September 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, September 1940	Percentage change from—		
		August 1940	September 1939		August 1940	September 1939	
Total, all reporting cities	$63,250,487	−28.1	+5.7	$30,960,399	+0.2	+6.4	60,785,124
500,000 and over	12,520,744	−74.7	−27.6	10,206,139	+1.4	+16.1	21,449,853
100,000 and under 500,000	19,874,544	+92.6	+69.4	7,221,409	−5.4	+1.4	15,017,880
50,000 and under 100,000	8,155,064	+20.7	+103.7	2,947,966	−10.0	−20.1	6,321,443
25,000 and under 50,000	6,339,443	+1.4	+9.6	3,657,521	+19.1	+20.4	5,876,211
10,000 and under 25,000	11,124,453	+9.7	−25.8	3,773,980	−6.2	+1.1	6,901,225
5,000 and under 10,000	2,983,554	+1.0	−19.8	1,780,776	−.8	+14.4	2,727,545
2,500 and under 5,000	1,581,583	+12.7	+12.1	957,888	+32.4	+32.4	1,698,353
1,000 and under 2,500	671,102	+9.9	−27.5	414,720	+30.2	−5.5	792,614

The permit valuation and number of new dwelling units provided, by type of dwelling and size of city, in the 2,157 identical cities reporting for August and September 1940, are given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,157 Identical Cities, by Size of City and Type of Dwelling, September 1940*

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]	
	September 1940	August 1940	Percentage change	September 1940	August 1940	September 1940	August 1940	September 1940	August 1940	September 1940	August 1940
Total, all reporting cities	$123,087,462	$111,954,655	+9.9	33,810	31,551	21,253	22,055	1,867	1,743	10,690	7,753
500,000 and over	42,463,838	30,644,210	+38.6	11,464	8,138	4,741	4,639	565	650	6,158	2,849
100,000 and under 500,000	23,274,909	23,620,251	−1.5	6,430	7,205	4,414	4,749	457	422	1,559	2,034
50,000 and under 100,000	10,969,476	10,720,067	+2.3	3,069	3,057	1,933	2,077	235	190	901	790
25,000 and under 50,000	10,774,200	11,169,029	−3.5	3,208	3,411	2,305	2,345	194	180	709	886
10,000 and under 25,000	17,654,602	17,264,602	+2.3	4,736	4,803	4,024	4,072	187	170	525	561
5,000 and under 10,000	9,532,189	9,228,953	+3.3	2,634	2,491	1,818	1,971	117	69	699	451
2,500 and under 5,000	5,441,723	5,903,533	−7.8	1,501	1,601	1,297	1,427	84	35	120	139
1,000 and under 2,500	2,976,525	3,404,020	−12.6	768	845	721	775	28	27	19	43

[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 2,157 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 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 September 1940 the value of these buildings amounted to $41,780,000, for August 1940 to $56,252,000, and for September 1939 to $18,780,000.

Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during September 1940, August 1940, and September 1939 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, September 1939* [1]

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started—		
	September 1940	August 1940 [2]	September 1939 [2]
Total	$2,779,446,554	$177,978,606	$170,824,996
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	147,250	21,860	1,308,568
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	17,050	30,441	1,634,978
E. R. A. A.	1,087,725	286,437	6,518,067
P. W. A. A., 1938	1,840,543	541,682	37,389,782
Federal agency projects under the WPA	594,151	2,347,443	7,800,165
Regular Federal appropriations	2,752,819,942	154,484,648	105,132,492
United States Housing Authority	22,939,893	20,266,095	11,040,944

[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 September 1940, August 1940, and September 1939, is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	*Highway construction*
September 1940	$2,534,422	$16,627,123
August 1940	3,810,941	12,910,673
September 1939	667,920	9,494,756

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN SEPTEMBER 1940

PRICES of food bought by families with moderate incomes increased 1 percent between August 13 and September 17, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of retail food costs. The rise was due to increased prices for meats, dairy products, and eggs, and was in part a seasonal movement. Offsetting these increases to some extent were declines in the price of flour and seasonally reduced prices for fruits and vegetables.

The most important increases during the month were in meat prices, for which there was an average rise of 3 percent. Reports from a limited group of cities indicate that meat prices had reached their autumn peak somewhat earlier than mid-September and had already begun to decline by that time. Later reports from both wholesale and retail markets indicate further reductions in late September.

The peak of the advance in food prices following the outbreak of war in Europe was reached in September 1939. Prices of food in September 1940 were slightly more than 1 percent lower than a year ago. Reductions ranging from 20 to 30 percent were reported for such important commodities as sugar, lard, potatoes, and cabbage.

Details by Commodity Groups

Prices of cereals and bakery products declined slightly in September for the fourth consecutive month due to a general reduction in the price of flour, reflecting the effect of low prices for wheat during the past few months. Retail prices of flour, which declined in 43 of the 51 cities included in the Bureau's indexes, were still 1.3 percent higher than in September 1939. Slight changes in the price of white bread in 6 cities did not affect the average price of this item for the country as a whole. Prices of rye and whole-wheat bread also remained unchanged for the month. The average cost of bread of all types was about 4 percent higher than in September last year. Of the other items in the group, prices of macaroni and corn flakes declined between mid-August and mid-September, vanilla cookies increased and prices of corn meal and soda crackers remained unchanged.

As previously noted, the increases in meat prices over the month amounted to 3 percent for all meats combined. Beef prices, which at the middle of September were 5½ percent higher than in the middle of August, were about 7 percent higher than in the same period last year and were higher than any time since the latter part of 1937. Prices of pork advanced also between August 13 and September 17, fresh pork by 4½ percent and cured pork by 3 percent. Pork prices, however, were from 7 to 14 percent lower than they were in September of a year ago when they rose sharply after the outbreak of war in Europe. Of the other meats for which prices are secured, lamb advanced slightly during the month while prices of roasting chickens were about 2 percent lower; prices of fresh and frozen fish increased somewhat while canned salmon prices, which have been advancing steadily for the past 2 years, declined for the first time since early in 1939. Meats as a group were 1½ percent higher than last year.

Prices of dairy products rose seasonally by 0.7 percent due to a widespread but moderate advance in butter prices. The only changes in prices of delivered milk were increases of 1 cent per quart in Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, and smaller increases in New York and Kansas City. Prices of delivered milk had decreased 2 cents per quart in Kansas City between July and August. These increased prices resulted in an average advance of 0.8 percent for the country as a whole. A slight advance in the price of cheese was reported, while the price of evaporated milk remained unchanged.

Egg prices rose about 15 percent, an increase which was partly seasonal. The average price per dozen was practically the same as in the same month last year.

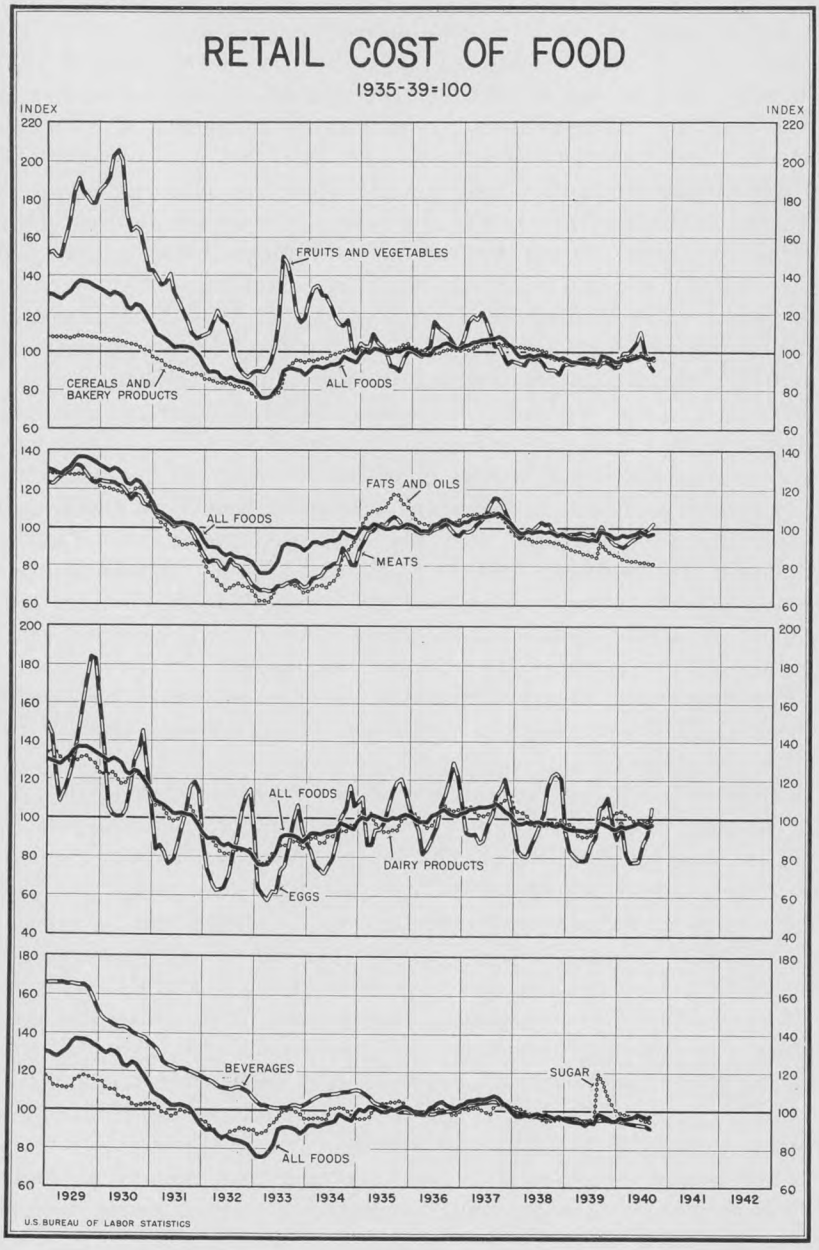
Prices of fruits and vegetables, following seasonal trends, declined 3.3 percent from mid-August to mid-September. The largest decreases, ranging from 14 to 33 percent, were reported for onions, green beans, and sweetpotatoes. Prices of potatoes and apples, two of the more important items of the group, declined about 7½ percent, while smaller decreases were reported for cabbage and oranges. In contrast to these reduced prices, carrots, spinach, and lettuce prices advanced from 4 to 9 percent. Canned and dried fruits and vegetables were also slightly lower, the greatest decrease being about 2 percent for canned peaches. Prices of navy beans were unchanged.

Coffee prices continued to decrease, reaching an all-time low in Bureau pricing of 20.8 cents per pound.

Lard prices increased 1 percent, in line with somewhat higher prices paid for live hogs, while vegetable-shortening prices declined about 2 percent.

Sugar prices were slightly lower than a month ago (0.6 percent) as reduced prices were reported from 26 cities. Sugar prices were about 20 percent lower in September than for the same period last

year when they advanced sharply a few days after the outbreak of the European war.



Indexes of retail food costs for September and August 1940 and September 1939 are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart on the 1935–39 base shows the trend in prices on all foods and of each

major commodity group for the period of January 1929 to September 1940, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups, September and August 1940 and September 1939* [1]

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1940		1939
	September 17 [2]	August 13	September 19
All foods	97.2	96.2	98.4
Cereals and bakery products	96.2	96.8	94.5
Meats	102.4	99.2	101.0
Dairy products	99.7	99.0	98.2
Eggs	105.7	91.7	105.6
Fruits and vegetables	90.4	93.5	94.4
Fresh	89.4	93.4	94.6
Canned	91.9	92.3	92.7
Dried	100.5	100.8	98.5
Beverages	91.1	92.3	95.1
Fats and oils	81.3	81.7	92.3
Sugar	94.8	95.4	119.2

[1] Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers have been combined with the use of population weights. (A discussion of the revision of the retail food-cost indexes will be found in the May 1940 issue of Retail Prices.)
[2] Preliminary.

Prices of 22 of the 54 foods included in the index were lower in September than in August, 19 were higher, and for 13 there was no change. Of the 52 foods included in the Bureau's reports for which last year's prices are available, 27 were quoted at lower prices, 22 at higher prices, and for 3 there was no change. Average prices of each of 63 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for August and September 1940 and September 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, September and August 1940 and September 1939*

Article		1940		1939
		Sept. 17 [1]	Aug. 13	Sept. 19
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	40.1	41.6	39.6
Macaroni	pound	13.9	14.0	14.0
Wheat cereal [2]	28-oz. pkg.	23.6	23.6	23.8
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	7.0	7.2	7.0
Corn meal	pound	4.2	4.2	4.1
Rice [2]	do	7.9	8.0	7.9
Rolled oats [2]	do	7.2	7.2	7.1
Bakery products:				
Bread, white	do	8.1	8.1	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.0	9.0	8.7
Bread, rye	do	9.4	9.4	9.0
Vanilla cookies	do	24.9	24.8	
Soda crackers	do	15.1	15.1	15.1
Meats:				
Beef:				
Round steak	do	40.3	38.6	38.0
Rib roast	do	31.7	29.8	30.6
Chuck roast	do	25.5	23.8	24.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, September and August 1940 and September 1939*—Continued

Article		1940		1939
		Sept. 17	Aug. 13	Sept. 19
Meats—Continued.				
Veal:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Cutlets	pound	45.0	43.1	45.2
Pork:				
Chops	do	32.9	31.5	35.5
Bacon, sliced	do	27.6	26.6	31.8
Ham, sliced [2]	do	44.6	44.0	46.8
Ham, whole	do	25.4	24.8	28.3
Salt pork	do	15.0	14.1	17.4
Lamb:				
Leg	do	29.3	28.8	29.9
Rib chops	do	37.8	38.2	38.7
Poultry:				
Roasting chickens	do	31.0	31.6	30.8
Fish:				
Fresh, frozen	do	[3]	[3]	[3]
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	15.7	15.9	13.6
Salmon, red [2]	do	25.9	25.8	24.3
Dairy products:				
Butter	pound	34.3	34.1	34.2
Cheese	do	25.7	25.5	25.4
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	12.7	12.6	12.4
Milk, fresh (store)	do	11.3	11.3	11.5
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [2]	do	12.3	12.2	12.1
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	7.0	7.0	6.8
Eggs	dozen	37.2	32.3	37.4
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	4.7	5.1	4.0
Bananas	do	6.4	6.4	6.2
Oranges	dozen	30.3	31.2	35.5
Beans, green	pound	7.7	9.6	8.0
Cabbage	do	2.8	2.9	3.7
Carrots	bunch	5.1	4.9	5.1
Lettuce	head	8.2	7.5	8.4
Onions	pound	3.6	4.2	3.4
Potatoes	15 pounds	28.7	30.9	36.9
Spinach	pound	7.9	7.3	7.5
Sweetpotatoes	do	4.3	6.4	3.8
Canned:				
Peaches	No. 2½ can	16.8	17.1	17.2
Pineapple	do	20.9	21.0	21.1
Beans, green [2]	No. 2 can	9.8	9.9	9.9
Corn	do	10.5	10.5	10.6
Peas	do	13.5	13.6	13.7
Tomatoes	do	8.4	8.4	8.6
Dried:				
Prunes	pound	9.7	9.8	8.9
Navy beans	do	6.6	6.6	7.1
Beverages and chocolate:				
Coffee	do	20.8	21.2	22.3
Tea	¼ pound	17.5	17.5	17.3
Cocoa [2]	8-oz. can	9.1	9.1	8.8
Fats and oils:				
Lard	pound	9.3	9.2	13.2
Shortening, other than lard:				
In cartons	do	11.6	11.7	12.6
In other containers	do	18.6	19.1	19.9
Salad dressing	pint	20.6	20.6	[4]
Oleomargarine	pound	15.8	15.8	16.7
Peanut butter	do	17.8	18.0	18.1
Sugar and sweets:				
Sugar	10 pounds	50.9	51.3	64.4
Corn sirup [2]	24-oz. can	13.5	13.6	13.5
Molasses [2]	18-oz. can	13.4	13.4	13.4

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not included in index. Prices for these items for September 1939 are weighted averages.
[3] Composite prices not computed.
[4] Effective January 1940, salad dressing replaced mayonnaise in the food-cost index.

Details by Regions and Cities

Food costs advanced in 44 of the 51 cities surveyed and declined in 7. The largest increases were reported for Providence (2.8 percent), Cincinnati (2.7 percent), and Atlanta (2.7 percent). The higher costs in these 3 cities were due largely to greater-than-average increases in the prices of meats and less-than-average declines in the prices of fruits and vegetables. Food costs declined 1 percent or more in 2 cities, Mobile (1.3 percent) and Norfolk (1.2 percent). The low costs in these 2 cities resulted from greater-than-average reductions in the prices of cereals and bakery products as well as sharp decreases for fruits and vegetables in Norfolk and a moderate decline in Mobile.

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for September and August 1940 and September 1939.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *September and August 1940 and September 1939*

[1935-39=100]

Region and city	1940		1939	Region and city	1940		1939
	Sept. 17[2]	Aug. 13	Sept. 19		Sept. 17[2]	Aug. 13	Sept. 19
United States	97.2	96.2	98.4	South Atlantic:			
New England:				Atlanta	94.7	92.2	98.3
Boston	96.8	95.7	98.1	Baltimore	96.4	94.6	99.4
Bridgeport	97.8	96.7	97.8	Charleston, S. C	96.3	95.5	99.8
Fall River	97.9	96.3	97.9	Jacksonville	101.3	100.0	100.4
Manchester	98.7	96.5	99.8	Norfolk	95.2	96.4	97.3
New Haven	97.2	96.2	98.5	Richmond	93.4	92.0	96.4
Portland, Maine	96.0	95.1	97.7	Savannah	99.5	98.1	100.8
Providence	99.2	96.5	99.7	Washington, D. C	96.9	96.3	99.5
Middle Atlantic:				East South Central:			
Buffalo	98.7	97.8	100.0	Birmingham	94.1	93.2	95.4
Newark	99.4	98.5	100.0	Louisville	94.6	93.3	97.1
New York	99.1	97.8	100.6	Memphis	93.0	93.3	97.6
Philadelphia	93.8	94.2	97.4	Mobile	96.5	97.8	100.2
Pittsburgh	97.0	95.4	97.1	West South Central:			
Rochester	99.5	98.8	98.1	Dallas	92.8	92.1	94.8
Scranton	97.1	95.5	99.0	Houston	99.7	99.4	100.9
East North Central:				Little Rock	93.5	93.4	98.7
Chicago	97.6	96.7	97.4	New Orleans	101.9	101.5	102.4
Cincinnati	96.6	94.1	95.4	Mountain:			
Cleveland	100.5	98.5	98.9	Butte	97.7	97.8	98.1
Columbus, Ohio	92.1	90.1	94.7	Denver	92.9	92.6	95.7
Detroit	96.0	95.3	96.2	Salt Lake City	98.5	97.7	99.4
Indianapolis	96.7	95.3	96.0	Pacific:			
Milwaukee	95.1	95.5	96.2	Los Angeles	97.8	97.5	99.2
Peoria	98.7	97.7	98.9	Portland, Oreg	100.5	99.8	101.6
Springfield, Ill	97.7	96.6	99.4	San Francisco	97.9	96.2	99.0
West North Central:				Seattle	100.1	100.4	102.0
Kansas City	89.8	89.2	97.6				
Minneapolis	97.1	95.4	99.5				
Omaha	97.3	96.7	99.8				
St. Louis	96.7	96.1	98.8				
St. Paul	95.0	94.2	98.0				

[1] Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. (A discussion on the revision of the retail food-cost indexes will be found in the May 1940 issue of Retail Prices.)

[2] Preliminary.

ELECTRICITY AND GAS

Price Changes Between June and September 1940

Residential rates are secured quarterly from 51 cities for electricity and from 50 cities for gas. These rates are used in the computation of monthly bills for blocks of consumption which have been selected as representative of average conditions throughout the country.

ELECTRICITY

Prices of electricity are based upon the monthly use of 25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small energy-consuming appliances; 100 kilowatt-hours for greater use of lighting and small appliances, and an electric refrigerator; and 250 kilowatt-hours for a still greater use of lighting, a larger number of small appliances, and both an electric refrigerator and an electric range.

Changes in prices of electricity between June and September were reported for 10 of the 51 cities. Lower bills for 8 cities resulted from rate reductions, while slight increases for 2 cities, Dallas and Houston, were due to the inclusion of the defense tax of one-third of 1 percent, in accordance with certain provisions in the rate schedules. The cities in which changes occurred and the percentages of change in costs for customers using 25, 100, and 250 kilowatt-hours are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Change in Retail Prices of Specified Monthly Consumptions o Electricity Between June 15 and Sept. 15, 1940,[1] by Cities*

City	Percentage change in price of—			City	Percentage change in price of—		
	25 kwh	100 kwh	250 kwh		25 kwh	100 kwh	250 kwh
Bridgeport	0	−3.7	−5.5	New York: Company 3[2]	−5.6	−3.3	−1.9
Cleveland: Company 1	0	−10.7	−7.2	Peoria	0	−6.3	−5.6
Columbus: Company 2	−2.0	−10.5	−24.7	Rochester	−6.3	−6.8	−5.4
Dallas[3]	0	+.3	+.4	Seattle:			
Houston[3]	0	+.3	+.4	Company 1	−22.1	−1.7	−7.6
New Haven	0	−3.7	−5.5	Company 2	−22.1	−1.7	−7.6

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Serving Richmond Borough.
[3] Includes a defense tax of ⅓ of 1 percent in accordance with provision of rate schedule.

Decreases of more than 20 percent were shown for 2 cities. In Columbus, there was a drop of almost 25 percent for customers using 250 kilowatt-hours per month, the highest consumption level regularly priced by the Bureau. Seattle reported the greatest decrease for the use of comparatively small amounts, a decline of 22 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours.

In Bridgeport and New Haven, decreases were applicable to customers using between 90 and 330 kilowatt-hours per month with no change for the use of electricity above or below those amounts.

Reductions for Rochester and for Richmond Borough, New York City, showed some slight variations for the use of different amounts of electricity. The greatest decreases were 7 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours in Rochester and 6 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours in Richmond Borough.

In Cleveland, the average monthly bill for customers using 100 kilowatt-hours was 11 percent lower than in June and for those using 250 kilowatt-hours the bill decreased by 7 percent.

Peoria reported lower rates for all electricity in excess of 25 kilowatt-hours per month. The decreases in the monthly bills amounted to 6 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours and for 250 kilowatt-hours.

GAS

Prices of gas are based upon 10.6 therms for the use of a range; 19.6 therms for range and manual type water heater; 30.6 therms for range and automatic storage or instantaneous water heater; and 40.6 therms for range, automatic water heater, and gas refrigerator.

Changes in prices of gas between June and September occurred in three cities; Pittsburgh, Minneapolis, and Washington, D. C. The rates reported by two of the three gas companies in Pittsburgh remained unchanged over the quarter. The third company which serves approximately 10 percent of the customers in the city announced increases, which, as shown in table 5, varied with the amount of gas consumed.

Lower rates in Minneapolis resulted in reductions of from 2 to 5 percent in the monthly bills. The decrease in Washington, D. C., provided slightly lower costs amounting to 2 percent or less for customers using more than 1,500 cubic feet per month.

Percentage changes in prices to customers using 10.6 therms, 19.6 therms, 30.6 therms, and 40.6 therms of gas per month are shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Change in Retail Prices of Specified Monthly Consumptions of Gas Between June 15 and Sept. 15, 1940,*[1] *by Cities*

Kind of gas and city	Heating value per cubic foot in British thermal units	Percentage change in price of—			
		10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms
Natural gas:					
Pittsburgh: Company 3	1,100	+39.0	+80.4	+54.5	+43.4
Mixed gas:					
Minneapolis	800	−2.1	−3.4	−4.0	−4.4
Washington	604	0	−1.9	−1.3	−1.2

[1] Preliminary.

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Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN SEPTEMBER 1940 [1]

MARKED advances in prices of grains and livestock and its products, particularly meats, hides, and skins, largely accounted for a gain of 0.8 percent in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of wholesale commodity prices in September. The increase reversed the recent downward tendency and the index rose to 78.0 percent of the 1926 average, the highest level since May. It is 1.4 percent below September a year ago when prices advanced sharply following the outbreak of war in Europe.

The upturn in commodity prices was quite general, as 7 of the 10 major commodity group indexes advanced during the month. Foods were up 2 percent; hides and leather products increased 1.4 percent; building materials, 1.2 percent; farm products, 0.9 percent; metals and metal products, 0.5 percent; textile products, 0.3 percent; and chemicals and allied products, 0.1 percent. Miscellaneous commodities declined 0.3 percent and fuel and lighting materials dropped 0.1 percent. The housefurnishing goods group index remained unchanged at the August level, 88.5 percent of the 1926 average.

Half of the commodity group indexes were higher than a year ago, the increases ranging from 0.3 percent for chemicals and allied products to over 4 percent for building materials. Compared with September of last year, the foods group showed the greatest decline, nearly 5 percent, while miscellaneous commodities were only 0.1 percent below their September 1939 level.

Higher prices for agricultural commodities, hides, hemp, coal, steel, and tankage were reflected in the index for the raw materials group which rose 1 percent. Semimanufactured and manufactured commodities followed the movement in prices for raw materials and advanced 0.8 and 0.6 percent, respectively. Nonagricultural commodity prices rose 0.6 percent, according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products," and industrial commodities were 0.4 percent higher as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods."

The marked decline in prices of hides and skins during August was partially offset by a gain of 8.9 percent in September. Prices for leather advanced fractionally and the hides and leather products group index rose to 98.3 percent of the 1926 average.

[1] More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Prices pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

Food prices at wholesale rose 2 percent to the highest point since April. Following the sharp upturn in livestock prices during September, meat advanced 3.8 percent. "Other foods," including such items as cocoa beans, glucose, pepper, raw sugar, and edible tallow, rose 3.6 percent. Higher prices for flour caused "cereal products" to increase 1.2 percent and dairy products rose 1.1 percent. The fruit and vegetable subgroup, on the other hand, declined 3.8 percent as a result of lower prices for onions, potatoes, citrus fruits, canned tomatoes, and pears.

Wholesale market prices for farm products advanced 0.9 percent during September largely because of advances of 4.0 percent for grains and 1.3 percent for livestock and poultry. Quotations were higher for barley, oats, rye, wheat, calves, steers, hogs, sheep, live poultry, eggs, fresh milk (Chicago), peanuts, tobacco, and domestic wools. Lower prices were reported for corn, cows, lambs, cotton, hay, hops, seeds, and imported wools.

A pronounced advance in prices for lumber caused the building materials group index to rise 1.2 percent to the highest level in nearly 3 years. Minor advances were reported in prices for common building brick, sand, and paint materials such as red lead, litharge, and tung oil. Rosin and turpentine rose sharply. Prices were lower for copal gum, linseed oil, shellac, zinc oxide, prussian blue, gravel, and prepared roofing.

Higher prices for agricultural implements, motor vehicles, scrap steel, and nonferrous metals such as copper, lead, zinc and their products were responsible for the advance of 0.5 percent in the metals and metal products group index. Prices were lower for pig tin and quicksilver.

In the textile products group, prices were higher for most cotton goods, woolen and worsted yarns, burlap, and manila hemp. Lower prices were reported for raw silk, silk yarns, raw jute, and cordage.

Seasonal advances in prices for coal, together with higher prices for Pennsylvania fuel oil and Oklahoma natural gasoline, were more than outbalanced by lower prices for Pennsylvania crude petroleum, kerosene, and gasoline from the north Texas field, with the result that the fuel and lighting materials group index declined 0.1 percent.

Higher prices for copper sulphate, potassium iodide, tankage, sulfur oil, and inedible tallow were responsible for the 0.1 percent gain in the chemicals and allied products group index. Prices for ergot and castor oil continued to decline and quotations were lower also for benzene, stearic acid, tin tetrachloride, and most vegetable oils.

Advancing price for pillowcases and sheets were not reflected in the index for the housefurnishing goods group. It remained unchanged at 88.5 percent of the 1926 average.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, September 1940, Compared With August 1940 and September 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	September 1940	August 1940	Change from a month ago	September 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
All commodities	**78.0**	**77.4**	**+0.8**	**79.1**	**−1.4**
Farm products	**66.2**	**65.6**	**+.9**	**68.7**	**−3.6**
Grains	61.7	59.3	+4.0	65.1	−5.2
Livestock and poultry	72.4	71.5	+1.3	76.3	−5.1
Other farm products	63.2	63.3	−.2	64.6	−2.2
Foods	**71.5**	**70.1**	**+2.0**	**75.1**	**−4.8**
Dairy products	75.1	74.3	+1.1	74.5	+.8
Cereal products	76.0	75.1	+1.2	78.8	−3.6
Fruits and vegetables	60.8	63.2	−3.8	62.8	−3.2
Meats	79.0	76.1	+3.8	81.0	−2.5
Other foods	62.6	60.4	+3.6	71.7	−12.7
Hides and leather products	**98.3**	**96.9**	**+1.4**	**98.5**	**−.2**
Shoes	107.0	107.0	0	101.8	+5.1
Hides and skins	84.0	77.1	+8.9	97.4	−13.8
Leather	88.9	88.3	+.7	92.0	−3.4
Other leather products	99.7	99.7	0	97.1	+2.7
Textile products	**72.5**	**72.3**	**+.3**	**71.7**	**+1.1**
Clothing	85.6	85.6	0	81.7	+4.8
Cotton goods	69.2	68.6	+.9	70.4	−1.7
Hosiery and underwear	61.4	61.5	−.2	62.8	−2.2
Rayon	29.5	29.5	0	29.0	+1.7
Silk	42.8	43.0	−.5	49.7	−13.9
Woolen and worsted goods	84.2	83.7	+.6	84.0	+.2
Other textile products	71.6	71.9	−.4	69.8	+2.6
Fuel and lighting materials	**71.0**	**71.1**	**−.1**	**72.8**	**−2.5**
Anthracite	79.6	79.0	+.8	72.5	+9.8
Bituminous coal	96.8	96.2	+.6	96.7	+.1
Coke	109.6	109.6	0	104.2	+5.2
Electricity	[1]	[1]		77.5	
Gas	[1]	84.5		87.2	
Petroleum and products	48.9	49.2	−.6	53.3	−8.3
Metals and metal products	**95.4**	**94.9**	**+.5**	**94.8**	**+.6**
Agricultural implements	92.4	92.3	+.1	93.5	−1.2
Farm machinery	93.7	93.5	+.2	94.7	−1.1
Iron and steel	94.9	94.8	+.1	95.5	−.6
Motor vehicles[2]	96.1	95.6	+.5	92.1	+4.3
Nonferrous metals	80.7	79.1	+2.0	84.7	−4.7
Plumbing and heating	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5
Building materials	**94.6**	**93.5**	**+1.2**	**90.9**	**+4.1**
Brick and tile	90.2	90.1	+.1	91.0	−.9
Cement	90.6	90.6	0	91.3	−.8
Lumber	104.6	100.3	+4.3	93.7	+11.2
Paint and paint materials	84.1	84.2	−.1	84.7	−.7
Plumbing and heating	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	93.5	93.4	+.1	90.3	+3.5
Chemicals and allied products	**76.8**	**76.7**	**+.1**	**76.6**	**+.3**
Chemicals	84.8	84.8	0	84.5	+.4
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	96.0	96.2	−.2	78.4	+22.4
Fertilizer materials	68.1	68.0	+.1	67.2	+1.3
Mixed fertilizers	74.2	74.2	0	72.4	+2.5
Oils and fats	39.9	39.1	+2.0	54.2	−26.4
Housefurnishing goods	**88.5**	**88.5**	**0**	**86.6**	**+2.2**
Furnishings	94.8	94.8	0	91.7	+3.4
Furniture	81.8	81.8	0	81.3	+.6
Miscellaneous	**76.5**	**76.7**	**−.3**	**76.6**	**−.1**
Automobile tires and tubes	58.8	58.8	0	60.5	−2.8
Cattle feed	75.9	74.5	+1.9	93.4	−18.7
Paper and pulp	93.2	93.5	−.3	81.8	+13.9
Rubber, crude	39.8	41.0	−2.9	47.7	−16.6
Other miscellaneous	82.6	82.8	−.2	82.8	−.2
Raw materials	**70.5**	**69.8**	**+1.0**	**72.6**	**−2.9**
Semimanufactured articles	**77.6**	**77.0**	**+.8**	**81.8**	**−5.1**
Manufactured products	**81.5**	**81.0**	**+.6**	**81.9**	**−.5**
All commodities other than farm products	**80.4**	**79.9**	**+.6**	**81.3**	**−1.1**
All commodities other than farm products and foods	**82.3**	**82.0**	**+.4**	**82.1**	**+.2**

[1] Data not yet available.

[2] Preliminary revision.

In the miscellaneous commodities group, crude rubber dropped 2.9 percent and paper and pulp declined 0.3 percent. Quotations were also lower for cylinder oil and soap. Cattle feed prices rose nearly 2 percent during September.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for August and September 1940 and September 1939 and the percentage changes from a month ago and a year ago are shown in table 1.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to September 1940

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1939, inclusive, and by months from September 1939 to September 1940, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*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 allied products	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	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
By months:											
1939:											
September	68.7	75.1	98.5	71.7	72.8	94.8	90.9	76.6	86.6	76.6	79.1
October	67.1	73.3	104.6	75.5	73.9	95.8	92.8	77.6	87.8	77.6	79.4
November	67.3	72.3	104.0	76.4	74.1	96.0	93.0	77.4	88.4	77.0	79.2
December	67.6	71.9	103.7	78.0	72.8	96.0	93.0	77.7	88.5	77.4	79.2
1940:											
January	69.1	71.7	103.6	77.9	72.7	95.8	93.4	77.7	87.9	77.7	79.4
February	68.7	71.1	102.4	75.4	72.4	95.3	93.2	77.5	88.0	77.3	78.7
March	67.9	70.2	101.8	74.0	72.2	95.5	93.3	77.0	88.0	76.9	78.4
April	69.4	71.6	101.8	72.9	71.8	94.5	92.5	76.8	88.4	77.7	78.6
May	67.9	71.4	101.3	72.9	71.7	94.5	92.5	76.7	88.5	77.7	78.4
June	66.2	70.3	99.2	72.6	71.4	94.7	92.4	76.1	88.5	77.3	77.5
July	66.5	70.3	99.0	72.4	71.1	95.1	92.7	77.0	88.5	77.7	77.7
August	65.6	70.1	96.9	72.3	71.1	94.9	93.5	76.7	88.5	76.7	77.4
September	66.2	71.5	98.3	72.5	71.0	95.4	94.6	76.8	88.5	76.5	78.0

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was given in Serial No. R.1069, Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1939.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Con.					
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1940:					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	January	73.8	81.7	81.7	81.5	83.9
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	February	72.7	79.9	81.4	80.8	83.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	March	72.0	79.7	81.1	80.5	82.9
						April	73.0	78.2	81.2	80.5	82.5
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May	72.0	78.3	81.3	80.5	82.5
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3						
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	June	70.7	77.9	80.5	79.8	82.2
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	July	70.7	77.8	80.9	80.0	82.3
By months:						August	69.8	77.0	81.0	79.9	82.0
1939:						September	70.5	77.6	81.5	80.4	82.3
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						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during August and September are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, August and September 1940*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Sept. 28	Sept. 21	Sept. 14	Sept. 7	Aug. 31	Aug. 24	Aug. 17	Aug. 10	Aug. 3
All commodities	77.7	77.7	77.9	78.0	77.7	77.2	77.2	76.9	77.0
Farm products	65.7	65.7	66.8	67.6	66.7	65.6	65.3	65.2	65.2
Foods	70.8	71.1	71.3	71.6	71.4	70.0	70.1	69.3	69.1
Hides and leather products	99.3	99.0	98.6	97.8	97.1	97.0	97.7	97.9	98.1
Textile products	72.1	72.0	71.9	71.8	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.8	71.8
Fuel and lighting materials	71.8	71.9	71.8	71.8	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.6	71.7
Metals and metal products	95.7	95.3	95.3	95.0	95.0	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9
Building materials	94.7	94.2	94.4	94.2	93.5	93.4	93.1	92.8	92.8
Chemicals and allied products	76.7	76.8	76.8	76.8	76.5	76.4	76.5	76.7	76.8
Housefurnishing goods	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0
Miscellaneous	76.1	76.3	76.3	76.4	76.2	76.4	76.4	76.7	77.4
Raw materials	70.0	70.1	70.5	70.9	70.2	69.6	69.4	69.4	69.4
Semimanufactured articles	78.3	77.5	77.4	76.8	76.8	76.5	76.7	77.2	77.3
Manufactured products	81.6	81.7	81.8	81.8	81.7	81.2	81.3	80.8	80.8
All commodities other than farm products	80.4	80.4	80.3	80.3	80.1	79.7	79.8	79.5	79.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	82.6	82.5	82.5	82.3	82.2	82.1	82.1	82.2	82.3

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

[The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.]

Agricultural Conditions and Land Reclamation

Land tenure in Arkansas: II, Change in labor organization on cotton farms. By J. G. McNeely and Glen T. Barton. Fayettesville, Ark., Agricultural Experiment Station, 1940. 26 pp. (Bull. No. 397.)

A study of recent trends in cotton and other crop acreages, changes in use of mechanized equipment, and the effects of these changes on employment of renters, sharecroppers, and wage laborers on cotton farms, based on data obtained for 6 counties of Arkansas.

Agriculture of the Netherlands Indies. By W. Ladejinsky. (In Foreign Agriculture, U. S. Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, Washington, September 1940, pp. 511–574; map, charts, illus.)

The writer gives particular attention to the effects on the economy of the Netherlands Indies of the world depression, which he states threatened the entire economic structure with disintegration, and caused the government, in its efforts to avert the catastrophe, to discard its 60-year-old policy of free trade and the "open door" for one of "extreme protectionism and government intervention in every aspect of the country's economic life."

Philippine agriculture, a problem of adjustment. By Owen L. Dawson. (In Foreign Agriculture, U. S. Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, Washington, July 1940, pp. 383–456; bibliography, maps, charts, illus.)

The first part of the report presents a general picture of Philippine agriculture and problems involved in its adjustment to a status of nonpreferential trade with the United States. It includes brief discussions of the rural standard of living, health, land settlement, labor conditions, and cooperative marketing. In the second part of the study the present position and future prospects of various individual commodities produced in the Philippines are considered.

Ten years of integral land reclamation under the Mussolini Act. By Giuseppe Tassinari. Faenza, Italy, Fratelli Lega, 1939. 165 pp., map, illus.

An account of land reclamation in Italy, including a brief section on labor.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperatives, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 18 pp., chart. (Serial No. R. 1158, reprint from October 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

The cooperative movement in Chile. By Oscar Parrao S. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, September 1940. 21 pp. (Series on cooperatives, No. 16.)

Rapports et comptes sur l'activité des organes de l'Union suisse des Coopératives de Consommation (U. S. C.) en 1939. Basel, 1940. 129 pp., illus.

Fiftieth anniversary report on activities of the various departments of the Swiss Union of Consumers' Cooperatives, during 1939, with comparative statistics for the whole 50 years of the Union's existence.

The problem of cooperative medicine. By V. J. Tereshtenko. New York, Work Projects Administration of New York City, 1940. 78 pp. (Studies of the Cooperative Project, Series B: Studies in field of cooperative medicine, Part 1.)

First of a series of four publications on the subject of cooperative medicine. This report presents the views for and against provision of medical care under the cooperative plan.

The story of Tompkinsville. By Mary Ellicott Arnold. New York, Cooperative League, 1940. 102 pp., plans, illus.

A moving and practical book telling how a group of poor Nova Scotia miners built themselves houses. This activity, like the other cooperative activity in Nova Scotia, grew out of study clubs which examined all phases of their project before actually undertaking it. Emphasizing the importance of solid grounding in cooperative understanding, the author includes here a study-club program, an outline for such clubs to use, and suggested topics for study. A section on "Cooperative versus private ownership of homes" gives the basic ways in which cooperative housing and ownership differ from private ownership. The volume also shows how the individual and group may go about acquiring homes on the cooperative basis and how to plan the construction, and gives practical points on construction, design, and color. A model lease is reproduced and several standard house plans are given.

Cost and Standards of Living

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' new index of cost of living. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 38 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1156, reprint from August 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Family expenditures in selected cities, 1935–36—Volume II, Food. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 406 pp. (Bull. No. 648.)

Expenditures of wage earners and clerical workers for housefurnishings and operation. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 18 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1129, reprint from June 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Savings of wage earners and clerical workers. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 21 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1146, reprint from July 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Differences in family savings between cities of different size and location, whites and Negroes. By Horst Mendershausen. (In Review of Economic Statistics, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., August 1940, pp. 122–137; charts.)

The economic status of 436 families of Missouri clerical workers and wage earners. By Jessie V. Coles and Lucile Hieser. Columbia, Mo., Agricultural Experiment Station, 1940. 80 pp., charts. (Research bull. 318.)

A report based on data obtained in 1936 by the United States Bureau of Home Economics, in its country-wide consumer purchases study, on family size and composition, housing, amount and sources of income, and expenditures of 220 families in Columbia and 217 in Moberly, Mo.

Changes in cost of living in Pennsylvania, June 15, 1939, to June 15, 1940. Harrisburg, Department of Labor and Industry, Bureau of Research and Information, 1940. 15 pp.; mimeographed.

Kosten van levensonderhoud te 's-Gravenhage: Nieuwe reeks indexcijfers voor arbeiders- en ambtenaarsgezinnen op den grondslag van de uitgaven in hetjaar April 1937 t./m. Maart 1938. The Hague, Statistisch Bureau, [1940?]. 6 pp. (In Dutch and French.)

Data on cost of living of families of wage earners and salaried workers in The Hague in June, September, and December 1938, and in March, June, and September 1939.

Economic and Social Problems

Government spending and economic expansion. By Arthur E. Burns and Donald S. Watson. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1940. 174 pp.

The general policy of deficit spending of the past decade is praised on grounds of economic theory as well as of immediate national needs, but the authors are not uncritical. It is held that public spending should have begun earlier, that expenditures were not large enough to meet the needs of the national economy during years of extreme depression, and that the program of spending was not thought out with enough care and continuity of purpose. The authors hold that it is a false analogy to compare the national debt to the debt of an individual and that the main concern of budget making should be not the avoidance of deficits but the proper direction of expenditures, combined with adjustments of the system of taxation to harmonize with the spending program. "Just as Government spending is intended to increase the total of all spending throughout the economy, in the same way taxes should curtail the total of spending as little as possible."

The plans of men. By Leonard W. Doob. New Haven, Yale University Press (for Institute of Human Relations), 1940. 411 pp., bibliography.

The author discusses the use of science in helping men solve their problems. Each science that examines a separate phase of human behavior is analyzed in the light of modern research and criticized for what it contributes or fails to contribute to the guiding of society.

The social mind: Foundations of social philosophy. By John Elof Boodin. New York, Macmillan Company, 1939. 593 pp.

This volume is in a field of critical interest connected with the contemporary conflict between democratic and dictatorial concepts of society, but it is described as the result of 25 years of work. The author defines the social mind as "the synthesis of individual minds into wholes, with new properties." He makes use of the body of knowledge connected with various sciences. His interest is practical as well as theoretical. The great problem is to understand the conditions of the syntheses of individual minds into the social mind "in order that we may guide them towards harmonious behavior, as the chemist, by understanding physical syntheses, is able to avert catastrophes and to guide them into useful channels." He states further that "the chief purpose of striving to understand society is that we may create a better society."

The United States and the League, the Labor Organization, and the World Court, in 1939. Geneva, Geneva Research Center, 1940. 67 pp. (Geneva studies, vol. XI, No. 1.)

Ninth of a series of annual studies on the relation of the United States to the international agencies growing out of the peace settlement of 1919. It shows the degree of development of these agencies in the 20 years between the World War and the present war, the extent of American participation in the work of agencies, and the amount of material available for the reorganization and reconstruction of international life which must follow the present war.

The cost of the World War to Germany and to Austria-Hungary. By Leo Grebler and Wilhelm Winkler. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1940. xviii, 192 pp.

One of the supplementary volumes in the series on the Economic and Social History of the World War issued by Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. There are discussions of the exhaustion of human resources and other items of real costs such as cannot be reduced to monetary or statistical terms.

Employment and Unemployment

The construction industry and American economy. Testimony of Isador Lubin, U. S. Commissioner of Labor Statistics, before Temporary National Economic Committee, Congress of the United States, June 27, 1939. Washington, [Temporary National Economic Committee], 1940. 60 pp., charts.

In considering the importance of the construction industry to the economy of the United States, Dr. Lubin presented data to bring out the industry's importance in terms of the employment it affords directly and indirectly, and then discussed housing needs and the effects upon employment of building programs which would meet minimum housing requirements.

Construction expenditures and employment, 1936–1939. By Peter A. Stone. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1940. 21 pp., charts.

Contains estimates of construction expenditures and employment during the past 4 years of expansion, making use of existing statistical data and estimating where necessary. Methods are described where estimates are used.

Employment and income from gold placering by hand methods, 1935–37. By Robinson Newcomb, Charles White Merrill, and R. L. Kiessling. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1940. 142 pp., charts, illus. (National Research Project, Mineral technology and output per man studies, Report No. E–14.)

Hand placering for gold is described as a vanishing frontier enterprise, from which it is impossible to extract a living. The study of the industry was prompted by the fact that thousands of unemployed persons and their families attempted small-scale placer mining during the depression. By 1937 the number had dropped from approximately 100,000 to about 22,000. Some of these found no gold at all. The average gross earnings of miners who found gold in California, where most of the hand placering is carried on, were $6.02 per full working week, for the 3 years 1935 to 1937. Net earnings were much smaller.

Trends of manufacturing employment, 1929 to 1937. By A. F. Hinrichs and Harry Brenner. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 32 pp. (Serial No. R. 1127, reprint from June 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Estimates of unemployment in the United States. By Russell A. Nixon and Paul A. Samuelson. (In Review of Economic Statistics, Cambridge, Mass., August 1940, pp. 101–111; charts.)

The authors analyze the theoretical problems underlying estimates of unemployment and discuss such concepts as "full employment" and "total labor force." There is a brief critical consideration of such estimates of unemployment as those that are made by the American Federation of Labor and the National Industrial Conference Board.

Report of Employment Division, New Zealand Department of Labor, for year ended March 31, 1940. Wellington, 1940. 22 pp.

Covers public activities in subsidizing and training labor.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

An "American" health program. By D. B. Armstrong, M. D., and W. P. Shepard, M. D. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, September 1940, pp. 1023–1026.)

The authors outline a proposed health program for the country covering the public health services, private medical services, voluntary prepayment insurance plans, combinations for special population units, and State subsidies for indigents and unemployed.

The changing front of health: Proceedings of eighteenth annual conference of Milbank Memorial Fund, April 2 and 3, 1940. New York, Milbank Memorial Fund, 1940. 104 pp.

Subjects discussed at the conference included public health standards in housing, the relation of diet and nutrition to public health, and population trends and programs of social welfare.

Cooperation in administration of tax-supported medical care. Chicago, American Public Welfare Association, Committee on Medical Care, 1940. 32 pp.

Examples of existing cooperative plans which have been developed between departments of health and welfare and other agencies in the administration of public medical service are discussed in the report.

Manual of international list of causes of death, as adopted for use in the United States, based on fifth decennial revision by International Commission, Paris, October 3–7, 1938; Manual of joint causes of death (fourth edition), 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1940. 444 pp.

Disabling morbidity among male and female industrial workers during 1938 and 1939, and among males during first quarter of 1940, with an inquiry into occurrence of multiple attacks of disabling sickness and injuries, 1939. By William M. Gafafer. (In Public Health Reports, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, August 2, 1940, pp. 1402–1406.)

Pneumoconiosis among mica and pegmatite workers. By Waldemar C. Dressen and others. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1940. 74 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. (Public health bull. No. 250.)

The investigation covered the working environment of 1,138 men and 105 women in mines, grinding plants, china-clay plants, and mica-fabricating plants. The report shows the incidence of pneumoconiosis in relation to dust concentration, and the incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis, and recommendations are made for the control of the dust hazards.

Silicosis in iron ore workers. By L. E. Hamlin, M. D. (In Industrial Medicine, Beloit, Wis., September 1940, pp. 429–441; illus.)

Report of Medical Officer of Industrial Hygiene, New South Wales, for year ended December 31, 1938. Sydney, Department of Public Health, 1940. 16 pp. (Section I–E, Annual report of Department of Health for 1938; also reprinted.)

The Division of Industrial Hygiene investigates health hazards in factories, mines, and industry generally. The studies carried out during the year covered dust diseases of the lungs in different industries, lead poisoning in brass workers, and ventilation of theaters and public halls.

Housing

Builders of 1-family houses in 72 cities. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1151, reprint from September 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Sixth annual report of Federal Housing Administration, for year ending December 31, 1939. Washington, 1940. 162 pp., charts, illus.

The financial statistics in the report are broken down for rental and low-cost housing.

A condensed summary of the third year's work of the Citizens' Housing Council of New York. New York, Citizens' Housing Council of New York, Inc., 1940. 24 pp.; mimeographed.

Gives the results of the council's research and educational programs.

Memoria de hacienda [Colombia], 1940. Bogotá, Ministerio de Hacienda y Crédito Público, 1940. 224 pp.

This report of the Colombian Ministry of Finance for the year ending June 30, 1940, contains a section showing the operation of Government aid for rural housing.

Four million tenants: A study of English public housing management. By Kenneth R. Kidd. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, Managers' Division, 1940. 90 pp., map, diagrams, illus.

Chiefly a report on management practice but contains suggestions on the application of certain methods or results to American conditions.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Industrial injuries in the United States during 1939. By Max D. Kossoris and Swen Kjaer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 24 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1144, reprint from July 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

National fire codes for prevention of dust explosions, 1940. Boston, Mass., National Fire Protection Association, 1940. 135 pp.

These codes, which have been approved as American standards by the American Standards Association, constitute a revision of the codes published by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in its bulletins No. 562 (1932) and No. 617 (1936).

Kansas accidental deaths, 1939. Topeka, State Board of Health, [1940]. 17 pp., chart.

Accidents ranked fifth in causes of death in Kansas in 1939, although the number recorded—1,333, or 7.2 percent of the total of 18,528 deaths from all causes—was the lowest since 1926 when there were 1,220 accidental deaths. Carelessness or recklessness on the part of the victims or of persons responsible for their well-being were reported as the chief causes. Accidents to persons at work accounted for 176 deaths, and accidents in the home, for 537.

A compilation of workmen's compensation cases argued and adjudged in Court of Appeals of Maryland (to Maryland report, Volume 175). By Robert Edward Coughlan, Jr. Baltimore, A. W. Zimmer, 1939. xvii, 243 pp.

Industrial Relations

Improvement of employer-employee relations. By William M. Leiserson. (In Conference Board Management Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, August 1940, pp. 89–94.)

Labor and the Government: Proceedings of labor institute at eighth annual summer session, Pacific Coast School for Workers, Berkeley and Oakland, Calif., July 13 and 14, 1940. Berkeley, Calif., Pacific Coast School for Workers, 1940. 58 pp.; mimeographed. (P.C.S.W. publication No. 38.)

Report of Virginia Labor Relations Commission. Richmond, Va., 1940. 155 pp., bibliography.

The greater part of the report is devoted to the methods used and the results attained in the settlement of industrial disputes in various States of the United States and in Australia, Canada, Great Britain, and New Zealand, which were studied to obtain a basis for the preparation of a suggested bill providing measures for the peaceful settlement of disputes between employers and employees in Virginia. The final chapters deal with conditions in Virginia—industrial growth, strikes in recent years, and methods that have been used in dealing with industrial disputes.

The organization of production and the syndical corporative system [Italy]—an outline study. New York, Italian Library of Information, [1940?]. 58 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Historical account of labor organizations and relations between employers and workers in Italy from ancient times to the present, followed by a fuller discussion of the syndical organization of workers and of employers, and the corporative system or "horizontal organization of production."

Industry Reports

The coal industry—a study in social control. By Glen Lawhon Parker. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1940. 197 pp.

Reviews the economic life of the coal industry and discusses in detail the attempts to introduce a controlled system beginning with the NRA experience of 1933–35.

Fifty-eighth coal report of Illinois, 1939. Springfield, Department of Mines and Minerals, 1940. 285 pp.

Contains data on production, employment, fatal and nonfatal accidents, and mechanization.

Shoes—the workers and the industry. By Horace B. Davis. New York, International Publishers, 1940. 256 pp., illus.

This book deals with the whole leather industry from tanning through the production of manufactured leather goods, with particular emphasis on the manufacture of shoes. It also contains a brief history of labor relations and the development of different types of labor organizations characteristic of the boot and shoe industry since the Civil War.

Labor and Social Legislation

Digest of State and Federal labor legislation enacted July 1, 1939, to July 1, 1940. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1940. 14 pp. (Bull. No. 40.)

Summary of major legislation, and of Federal court decisions on its constitutionality, 1933–1940. Prepared by W. H. McClenon, Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress. Washington, 1940. 123 pp. (Senate Doc. No. 187, 76th Cong., 3d sess.)

Labor matters, relief, and social security are among the subjects covered by the legislation summarized.

Industrial disputes and Federal legislation, with special reference to railroad, coal, steel, and automobile industries in the United States since 1900. By Thomas Russell Fisher. New York, Columbia University Press, 1940. 370 pp.

Wage-hour legislation and the white-collar worker. Memorandum submitted to Wage and Hour Division, U. S. Department of Labor, in opposition to proposed amendments to Part 541 of Fair Labor Standards Act. Presented by Lewis Merrill. New York, United Office and Professional Workers of America, 1940. 18 pp.; mimeographed.

Labor legislation in Canada, 1939. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1940. 120 pp.

In addition to the text or summary of the legislation of labor interest, the report contains information regarding the more important regulations made under statutory authority during the same period.

Código del trabajo, concordado y anotado [*Chile*]. Compiled by Alfredo Gaete Berrios. Santiago, Ediciones Ercilla, 1940. 720 pp. Third edition, corrected and enlarged.

The Chilean Labor Code of 1931 and other Chilean labor legislation, with annotations and cross references; a statistical table of court rulings and decisions on this legislation; conventions of the International Labor Office ratified by Chile; and an extensive bibliography of books and periodicals on labor legislation published in Chile and other countries. An index to the labor legislation covered in the volume is provided.

Labor problems and labor legislation in India. (In Indian Journal of Economics, Allahabad, April 1940, pp. 611–616, 663–693.)

Two papers under this title were presented at the conference of the Indian Economic Association held at Allahabad in January 1940, proceedings of which are given in the April 1940 Indian Journal of Economics. One paper had special reference to the Indian Trade Disputes Act of 1938; the other was devoted to legislation pertaining to railway employees.

Memoria del Ministerio de Hacienda, Abril de 1939 a Marzo de 1940, República Oriental del Uruguay. Montevideo, Ministerio de Hacienda, 1940. xl, 839 pp., pasters.

Laws, decrees, and resolutions enacted in Uruguay from April 1939 to March 1940, dealing with retirement benefits, survivors' aid, and other social-welfare aid, and price control are reproduced in this annual report of the Ministry of Finance.

Cases in labor law. Washington, Federal Workers School, 1940. Various paging; mimeographed.

Collection of important decisions by the United States Supreme Court, brought together by the Federal Workers School for use in its course on labor law.

Legislative councils. Baltimore, Md., Maryland State Planning Commission, 1939. 76 pp., bibliography; mimeographed.

Following a brief discussion of the nature and growth of legislative councils in the United States, information is given on legislative councils and similar agencies in various States, the types of studies made by the councils, and recommendations for a council for Maryland.

Labor Organization

Labor's civil war. By Herbert Harris. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1940. 298 pp.

A brief and concise analysis of the economic, political, and personality issues involved in the rift between the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations. The author's conclusion is that the principal cause of the rift, namely, the issue of industrial versus craft unionism, no longer exists and that organized labor and its recent gains in the United States are bound to be seriously endangered unless a way is found to bring the two factions into a united labor movement.

Women's Trade Union League of America. By Elizabeth Christman. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, September 1940, pp. 10–12.)

The clothing workers in Philadelphia—history of their struggles for union and security. By Elden LaMar. Philadelphia, Pa., Philadelphia Joint Board of Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, 1940. 221 pp., illus.

One of a series of studies on the history and accomplishments of local unions of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America prepared for the silver anniversary celebration of the union. This book deals with the history of clothing workers in Philadelphia since 1790, with particular emphasis on the growth and spread of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers' Union in the Philadelphia district, which includes New Jersey. It is profusely illustrated with pictures of workers at their jobs as well as with pictures illustrating the cultural activities of the union in Philadelphia.

Trade union experience and policy [*Great Britain*], *1914–18.* By Maurice Dobb. London, Labor Research Department, 1940. 32 pp.

Outline of labor's experience in the last war with respect to unemployment, wages, prices, labor disputes, and related questions.

The Trades Union Congress in wartime. By Sir Walter Citrine. London, Trades Union Congress, 1940. 47 pp.
A record of 3 months' progress from December 1, 1939, through February 29, 1940.

Minimum Wage

Regional conference of State minimum-wage inspectors (Connecticut, District of Columbia, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island), New York City, February 2 and 3, 1940. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1940. 13 pp.; mimeographed.

Salário mínimo, sua teoria e aplicação [Brazil]. By Ruy Santiago. Rio de Janeiro, Gráfica Editora Mandarino, 1938. 141 pp.
Brazilian legislation, through April 30, 1938, setting up machinery for establishing a minimum-wage system in Brazil, with information on the steps in establishing minimum-wage rates and the manner of determining them.

Occupations and Occupational Guidance

80 new books on occupations, 1939–40. By Walter J. Greenleaf. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 31 pp. (Misc. 2395.)
Annotated list of books selected as especially useful to the counselor, homeroom teacher, parent, or the student who is himself making plans for his future.

Occupational information and guidance—organization and administration, with a brief survey of development of guidance and reports on present practices. By Layton S. Hawkins, Harry A. Jager, Giles M. Ruch. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 181 pp. (Vocational division bull. No. 204.)
Gives in brief the background of the guidance movement; the principles and policies of the Office of Education in the administration of the Occupational Information and Guidance Service as related to the Federal, State, and local educational structure; and a picture of occupational information and guidance practices and programs throughout the United States.

The unskilled worker. By Louis Eisman. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1940. 48 pp., illus. (Occupational monograph 16.)
Reviews the history and points out the importance of unskilled labor, and reports on its advantages and disadvantages for young persons.

Old-Age Pensions

A decade of court decisions on teacher retirement, 1930–1939, inclusive. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, 1940. 30 pp.

Analysis of local provisions for teacher retirement. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, 1940. 45 pp., charts. (Research bull., vol. 18, No. 3.)

Nineteenth report of comptroller on operation of [New York] State employees' retirement system, together with report of actuary on nineteenth valuation of its assets and liabilities, as of June 30, 1939. Albany, 1940. 60 pp. (Legislative document, 1940, No. 44.)

Production and Productivity of Labor

Production, employment, and productivity in the mineral extractive industries, 1880–1938. By Vivian Eberle Spencer. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1940. xviii, 168 pp., charts. (National Research Project, Studies of labor supply, productivity, and production, Report No. S–2.)
An attempt to bring together the diverse and fragmentary statistics of the various minerals industries. It is stated that the decline in mineral production since 1929 has been accompanied by an uninterrupted rise of output per man-hour and by declining levels of employment despite reductions in hours of work. The prospects of employment in the minerals industries reaching the levels of the twenties is not viewed as promising even with the increased demand resulting from the armament program.

The productivity of labor in the rubber tire manufacturing industry. By John Dean Gaffey. New York, Columbia University Press, 1940. 204 pp., bibliography. (Studies in history, economics, and public law, No. 472.)

In many respects, Dr. Gaffey's book constitutes a continuation of the study of labor productivity in the tire industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and published as its Bulletin No. 585. This book, however, goes somewhat beyond the field of productivity and deals with major economic and financial problems as well as the recent tendency of the industry toward decentralization.

Productivity, wage rates, and employment. By Mordecai Ezekiel. (In American Economic Review, Menasha, Wis., September 1940, pp. 507–523.)

A critical examination of the recent Brookings Institution publication entitled "Productivity, wages, and national income," by Spurgeon Bell. Mr. Ezekiel holds that the statistical evidence presented in the volume does not warrant some of the conclusions reached, especially the implication that too large a proportion of productivity gains has been diverted to higher wage rates and too little to lower prices. It is stated, however, that the data presented in the volume suggest the need for futher investigation of the failure of the economic system to distribute buying power sufficient to consume the goods that the system has demonstrated its ability to produce.

Statistics (General)

Standard industrial classification. Volume I, Manufacturing industries: Part 1, List of industries; Part 2, Description of industries; Part 3, Alphabetic index of products, establishments, and processes; Part 4, Alphabetic index of products, establishments, and processes by major industry groups. Volume II, Nonmanufacturing industries: Part 1, List of industries; Part 2, Description of industries; Part 3, Alphabetic index of products, establishments, and services. Washington, U. S. Central Statistical Board, Technical Committee on Industrial Classification, 1940. 7 vols.

Prepared primarily for the use of Federal and State agencies to assist them in improving both the usefulness and the comparability of the data they tabulate.

The statistical services and activities of the United States: A chapter of the inter-American statistical compendium. Prepared under direction of Central Statistical Board for statistical section of eighth American Scientific Congress, Washington, D. C., May 10–18, 1940. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Budget, 1940. 151 pp.

The fields covered by the statistical services and activities dealt with in this volume include health and medical care, social security, education, housing, labor, prices, and national income and wealth. A 37-page bibliography is included.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Hourly earnings in 105 selected industries, by States, 1937. By A. F. Hinrichs and Arthur F. Beal. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 1134, reprint from June 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Earnings and hours in carpet and rug industry. By H. E. Riley and Edyth M. Bunn. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 1148, reprint from July 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Hourly earnings in luggage and miscellaneous products industries, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 21 pp. (Serial No. R. 1136, reprint from October 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Pay of enlisted personnel in the United States Army and Navy. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 1138, reprint from July 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Time rates of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts, 1939. Boston, Department of Labor and Industries, 1940. 115 pp. (Labor bull. No. 181.)

Wages, hours, and employment in New York Metropolitan Area, 1928–1940. (In Conference Board Economic Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, August 6, 1940, pp. 332–336; charts.)

Wage differentials—the case of the unskilled. By Carrie Glasser. New York, Columbia University Press, 1940. 169 pp., bibliography. (Studies in history, economics, and public law, No. 476.)

A study of the persistence of differentials in both rates of pay and annual earnings in various industries and in different sections of the United States and of factors which may account for the variations found.

Wartime Labor and Economic Conditions

If war comes—mobilizing machines and men. By Percy W. Bidwell. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1940. 32 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 48.)

Based on the book entitled "Mobilizing Civilian America," published by the Council on Foreign Relations (New York).

Labor in wartime. By Charles E. Noyes. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1940. 32 pp. (Vol. II, 1940, No. 2.)

Discussion of labor problems arising under the national defense program, and of experience in industrial relations and in fixing wages and hours during the last war.

Labor's role in national defense. By Sidney Hillman. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, September 1940, pp. 1–4.)

Wartime control of prices. By Charles O. Hardy. Washington, Brookings Institution, Institute of Economics, 1940. 216 pp., charts. (Publication No. 84.)

This volume consists of two parts of which the first deals with the problems involved in the control of prices in wartime, and the second reviews and appraises the price controls developed in the United States during the last war.

Industrial relations in wartime—Great Britain, 1914–1918: Annotated bibliography of materials in Hoover Library on War, Revolution, and Peace, Leland Stanford Junior University. Compiled by Waldo Chamberlin. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University Press, 1940. 239 pp.

The foreword to this compilation, dated July 10, 1940, states that a companion bibliography for Germany, covering chiefly the period 1933–1940, is in course of preparation.

Schedule of reserved occupations. London, Ministry of Labor, 1940. 134 pp. (Revision of May 1940; reprinted July 1940 with minor corrections.)

Lists the occupations from which workers in Great Britain may not be withdrawn for national defense service, together with the ages of reservation.

General Reports

Estadistica industrial de 1937—resultados del relevamiento practicado al 31 de Diciembre de 1937 [*Argentina*]. Buenos Aires, Dirección General de Estadística de la Nación, 1940. 353 pp.

Contains data from the industrial census of Argentina of December 31, 1937, showing, among matters of labor interest, employment of salaried and wage-earning employees, by position, sex, whether less or more than 18 years of age, by geographical divisions, and by industry and branch of industry; and hours per week worked by wage earners, by geographical division and by industry, classified from less than 40 to more than 48 hours per week.

Instituto de Derecho del Trabajo [*Argentina*], *Vol. 1.* Santa Fe, Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Facultad de Ciencias Jurídicas y Sociales, 1940. 156 and 98 pp.

The first volume of studies issued by the Institute of Labor Law of the Faculty of Juridical and Social Sciences of the National University of the Litoral of Argentina, containing treatises on the labor contract, rights of commercial employees, labor courts, credits due the worker as pay, and the principles governing labor as found in the Argentine Constitution. There is a 98-page annotated bibliography on labor topics.

Statistical abstract of Brazil, 1938. Rio de Janeiro, Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics, 1940. lxiii, 314 pp. (In Portuguese and English.)

Comprehensive statistical annual of Brazil, including data, through 1937, on retail and wholesale prices of staple foods; salaries and wages in industry, commerce, agriculture, etc.; cost of living; living conditions of low-income wage earn-

ers; Government-supervised retirement and pension funds; consumers' cooperatives; colonies supervised by the Federal Government; labor agreements; and legally recognized trade-unions (1931–1938).

The economic welfare of Canadian employees: A study of occupations, earnings, hours, and other working conditions, 1913–1937. Kingston, Ontario, Queen's University, Industrial Relations Section, 1940. 144 pp. (Bull. No. 4.)

Papers read and discussed at twenty-third conference of Indian Economic Association held at Allahabad, January 1940. (In Indian Journal of Economics, Allahabad, April 1940, pp. 395–846.)

A number of the papers were devoted to labor conditions in India, the subjects discussed including labor unrest, industrial disputes, labor legislation, price control, and agricultural labor (in Hyderabad).

Lietuvos statistikos metraštis, 1939 m. Vilnius, Centralinis Statistikos Biūras, 1940. 378 pp.

This statistical yearbook of Lithuania contains information in regard to economic and social conditions in that country in 1939, the topics covered including population movements, prices and cost of living, housing, cooperative societies, wages of agricultural workers, public relief, and activities of sickness and old-age insurance funds.

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