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WIDENING HORIZONS
Prospects for Black Employment

A Commencement Address

By

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Andrew F. Brimmer^{*}

I spend a fair amount of time on college campuses, and whenever I can I try to get an appreciation for the expectations of black students regarding their careers. I am frequently told by many of them that they "want to help the black community" rather than engage in a "middle class race for economic security." Given the history of this institution--with its roots deep in the soil of career-oriented technical fields--this attitude may be less prevalent than on some other predominantly black campuses. However, the "soundings" I made when the invitation was extended to me indicated that this graduating class might be interested in hearing any thoughts I might have regarding the outlook for black job opportunities.

With this in mind, I undertook an analysis of recent changes in the pattern of black employment. This was done against the backdrop of the efforts to reduce racial discrimination in employment led by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission created by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. I have also reviewed the job progress made

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The views expressed here are my own and should not be attributed to anyone else.

by blacks employed by the Federal, State and local governments. Finally, an effort was made to assess job opportunities for blacks out to 1985. The main conclusions of this analysis can be summarized briefly:

- To a considerable extent, employment advances made by blacks during the 1960's were partly the result of the long period of economic expansion culminating in 1969. However, these gains were also partly a reflection of the rising educational level and the acquisition of skills within the black community.
- Moreover, legislation adopted in 1964 aimed at fostering equal opportunity in employment also played a role. The evidence reported by companies subject to the law indicates that they are opening jobs to blacks at a rate much faster than is true for all employers in the country as a whole. However, it appears that the expansion is much slower in the upper reaches of the occupational job categories than at the lower end. Thus, the task of occupational upgrading remains considerable.
- The extent of occupational integration varies greatly among different regions of the country. But in the last seven years, the greatest gains in white collar employment have been made in the South--although the absolute shortfall in that region remains the largest.
- Blacks have made relatively more job progress in public service than they have in the private sector. But, with employment opportunities likely to expand more slowly in the Federal Government in the years ahead, blacks would do well to look more to the private sector for future careers.
- Among the promising opportunities available to blacks, careers in protection are especially worthy of examination. Given the persistence of high crime rates in the black community (and blacks are the principal victims), there will be a strong demand for sympathetic police officials with better-than-average educations.

Each of these points is discussed more fully in the rest of these remarks.

Long-Term Trends in Black Employment

During the decade of the 1960's, blacks made substantial economic progress. This was evident in terms of the number and range of jobs held by them. The extent of occupational upgrading can be traced in Table 1 (attached). In general, blacks expanded their share of white collar jobs while their share of lower-paying service jobs shrank somewhat. The proportion of blue collar occupations held by blacks rose moderately. Blacks left agriculture (both as farmers and as farm laborers) at a much faster rate than American workers at large.

Within these broad trends, a number of important specific developments were occurring. For example, among white collar workers, the largest relative gains were made by those engaged in professional and technical occupations. In 1960, 4.7 per cent of all black workers (vs. 11.4 per cent for all workers) were in this category. By 1970, the fraction for blacks had climbed to 9.1 per cent and that for all workers to 14.2 per cent. Over the decade, blacks' share of these jobs at the top of the occupational scale expanded from 4.4 per cent to 6.9 per cent. However, the greatest growth occurred in technical fields (especially in fields requiring only moderate skills) rather than in those professions demanding long years of college education or advanced training.

Another sub-trend worthy of note is the relatively modest advances made by blacks as managers, officials, and proprietors. This category includes the self-employed as well as public and private salaried officials and administrators. In 1960, blacks held 2.5 per cent of the managerial jobs,

and their share had climbed to only 3.6 per cent in 1970. Within the economy at large, the number of self-employed businessmen continued to decline over the decade. When the figures are adjusted for this trend, it is evident that the number of salaried managers expanded appreciably. Blacks shared in this expansion--but to a much smaller degree than was true in the case of professional and technical workers.

The figures in Table 1 do not show it, but the steady progress made by blacks during the 1960's was seriously interrupted by the recession of 1970. In fact, between blacks as a group and whites as a group, blacks suffered all of the recession-induced decline in jobs--while whites made further job gains. From the fourth quarter of 1969 through the fourth quarter of 1970, total employment decreased by 66 thousand. This was the net result of a drop of 174 thousand in the number of jobs held by blacks which was partly offset by an increase of 108 thousand jobs held by whites. During the sluggish recovery of 1971, job gains by blacks lagged considerably, and unemployment in the black community continued to rise.

Only last year did the rate of job improvement among blacks resume the pace recorded during the 1960's. Figures on employment in the main occupational groups in 1973 are shown in Table 1. For the most part, the basic trends noted earlier are still evident. The proportion of white collar jobs held by blacks had risen further. The relative advances by professional and technical workers were again striking. But the gains by those in the managerial group were also noticeable.

To a considerable extent, employment advances made by blacks during the 1960's were partly the result of the long period of economic expansion culminating in 1969. However, these gains were also partly a reflection of the rising educational level and the acquisition of skills within the black community. Moreover, legislation adopted in 1964 aimed at fostering equal opportunity in employment also played a role.

The Campaign for Equal Employment Opportunity

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), and the Commission began operations on July 2, 1965. However, it was preceded by a generation of essentially voluntary action at both the Federal and State and local level. It was against this background that EEOC came into being. Actually, EEOC was not part of the legislation proposed by President John F. Kennedy in mid-1963 which became the Civil Rights Act of 1964. He thought that the inclusion of such a controversial provision would further decrease the already unpromising prospect of the bill's passage. Instead, he thought it best to expand further--through executive action--the existing efforts to check job discrimination. As the bill moved through the legislative process, the fair employment provision was added at Congressional initiative. Lyndon Johnson--who had by then succeeded to the presidency--threw his strong support behind the entire measure.

Nevertheless, EEOC started life with a number of handicaps. In the first place, its start-up was delayed for a full year after the bill was signed. Its coverage was severely limited--being restricted for the most part to private companies in interstate commerce with 25 or more employees. Its actions had to depend on the filing of complaints by individual workers. This was an extension of the voluntary approach followed at the Federal level during World War II--and despite evidence accumulated in the intervening years under State fair employment programs which demonstrated that the complaint mechanism had not been particularly successful. For the first seven years of its life, the Commission had no enforcement powers of its own. The Attorney General could bring suit when a "pattern or practice" of discrimination was discovered by EEOC. But, for the most part, the Commission was left to rely on education and persuasion--along with the provision of technical assistance--in its efforts to end discrimination in employment.

After nearly eight years of effort, the EEOC's authority was strengthened by the 1972 amendments to the Act. The most important of these gave the Commission enforcement powers of its own. Once the new authority was implemented in March, 1973, EEOC could initiate civil actions in Federal Courts to enforce the provisions barring job discrimination and to remedy instances of their violation. Coverage of the statute was extended to employees of State and local governments and their instrumentalities, employees of educational institutions, and firms or labor organizations with 15 or more workers or members. Additional protection was also provided Federal Government employees.

Armed with this new authority and an enlarged budget, EEOC in the last two years has accelerated its drive against employment discrimination--concentrating on sex and language bias as well as on racial barriers. It achieved a landmark settlement of its suit against AT&T in January, 1973, which will result in cash payments (mainly to blacks and white women) in excess of \$50 million in compensation for past discrimination and as bonuses for transferring to better-paying jobs. The Commission has also worked out agreements in the trucking and steel industries which will yield greatly improved job opportunities for blacks in the years ahead.

Mixed Pattern of Job Expansion

Given the efforts of EEOC to broaden job opportunities for blacks and other minorities (and more recently for women), one can naturally ask just what has been the impact of the campaign. Unfortunately, no direct answer can be given. But the indirect evidence does suggest that the Commission's activities are having generally favorable results. Employers, trade unions and others covered by the statute are required to report the racial and sex composition of their work forces to the Commission at least once each year. So far EEOC has required annual reports from those with 100 or more employees. On the basis of these reports, one can get a fairly good idea of the changing composition of jobs held by blacks compared to others. Table 2 shows total and black employment in EEOC-reporting firms, by major occupational categories, for 1966 and 1973. Corresponding figures for all nonfarm employment

reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) in the U.S. Department of Labor are also shown. Changes in these job categories between 1966 and 1973 are shown in Table 3.

Several conclusions stand out in these data: Black employment in EEOC-reporting firms rose much faster than employment in the economy as a whole. For instance, blacks accounted for 21 per cent of the growth in jobs in EEOC-reporting firms vs. 15 per cent in the total. However, within the white collar category, only clerical workers and sales workers recorded relatively larger gains on EEOC-reported payrolls (34 per cent vs. 22 per cent and 10 per cent vs. 8 per cent, respectively). In the case of professional and technical workers, EEOC figures show blacks getting 10 per cent of the increase in jobs vs. 14 per cent for black professionals and technicians in the economy at large. The lag was especially noticeable among managers and officials. In the country as a whole, blacks accounted for 14 per cent of the expansion; their share in EEOC reporters was only 7 per cent. In contrast, blacks got a much larger share of the new craft and service jobs in EEOC-reporting firms--e.g., 26 per cent of craft jobs vs. 12 per cent for all firms and 31 per cent of service jobs vs. 10 per cent for all employers combined. The relative gains were about the same in the case of operatives (56 per cent). In the case of laborers, blacks in EEOC firms accounted for a smaller proportion of the rise in employment--18 per cent vs. 45 per cent.

On the basis of these figures, I conclude that the companies reporting under the EEOC requirements are opening jobs to blacks at a rate much faster than is true for all employers in the country as a whole.

At the same time, however, it appears that the expansion is much slower in the upper reaches of the occupational scale than it is among job categories at the lower end. Thus, the task of occupational upgrading for blacks remains considerable.

The EEOC data also enable one to get a feeling for the extent to which blacks have not made headway in gaining employment in specific types of firms. In response to my request, the Commission prepared special tabulations showing the number of firms which have black employees and those which do not. The number of total employees and the number of blacks on the payroll of each group of firms are also shown. The tabulations for 1973 covered 50 industry groups and 145,877 firms--which had 31,838,867 employees. Of the latter, 3,448,535 (or 10.8 per cent) were black. Of the total number of firms, 106,624 (or 73.1 per cent) had 28,502,748 employees. In these companies, 3,448,535 blacks were employed, representing 12.1 per cent of the total. The remaining 39,253 firms (26.9 per cent of the total) had 3,336,119 employees--10.5 per cent of the total. None of these was black.

Some idea of the distribution of firms with and those without black employees in 1966 and 1973 can be gotten from the figures reported in Table 4. In 1966, the data are based on the experience of 117,600 establishments and total employment of 25,571,000--of whom 2,097,000 (or 8.2 per cent) were black. Among the 22 industry groups identified in the table, securities' and commodities' brokers in 1973 had the largest proportion of firms (53 per cent) with no black employees.

Jobs in these firms represented 18 per cent of total industry employment. Eating and drinking places with no black workers accounted for 32 per cent of the firms--but for 23 per cent of the jobs--in that industry. The insurance industry also had a sizable proportion of firms with no black workers on their payroll--e.g., 34 per cent of insurance carriers and 38 per cent of agents and brokers. On the other hand, the percentage of firms without black employees in 1973 was substantially smaller in all but a few industry groups than was the case in 1966. In the latter year, almost half (47 per cent) of the EEOC reporters had no black workers. Among credit agencies, insurance firms, and securities' and commodities' brokers, the proportion in that year was in the neighborhood of three-quarters of the reporters.

So, from these data, a general conclusion emerges: while blacks are making considerable headway in finding new job opportunities, there remains many doors on which they must still knock! A substantial number of these are to be found in the banking and finance industry.

Geographical Pattern of Black Employment

In tracing trends in black employment, I also wanted to know the extent to which significant differences are observable in various geographical areas of the country. Figures for EEOC reporters showing regional patterns of black employment in 1966 and 1973 are given in Table 5. The details in this table underscore a number of regional differences, but only the highlights can be mentioned here. Perhaps the most striking change over these years is the sharp expansion in

white collar jobs held by black workers in the South. These relative gains were largest in the technical, sales, and clerical categories. However, noticeable improvement also occurred among professional workers and managerial personnel. In the Northeast and Mid-West, blacks also made significant gains in white collar employment, but the strides were proportionately less dramatic than those observed in the South.

An even more graphic picture of geographic differences in blacks' employment status emerges when the proportion of jobs held by blacks in each occupational category is viewed on the basis of data relating to metropolitan areas. This is done in Table 6, showing the situation in the United States as a whole and in 13 standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSA's). These are New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, D.C., Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, Atlanta, New Orleans, Dallas, Houston, Los Angeles and San Francisco-Oakland. The situation is put in even sharper focus when blacks' representation in a given occupation in a given SMSA is related to blacks' proportion of total employment in the area. For this purpose, an "Index of Occupational Integration" was calculated. The index was derived as follows: (1) blacks' share (percentage) of total employment and their share of employment in each occupational group in each metropolitan area was calculated. (These are the same data shown in Table 6.) (2) Next, blacks' share (percentage) in each occupation group was divided by their share (percentage) of total employment. The result is the "Index of Occupational Integration." An index number of 100 indicates

equality; an index number less than 100 indicates an occupational deficit, and an index number greater than 100 indicates a surplus or over-representation of blacks in a particular occupation. Indexes were calculated for the United States as a whole and for each of the 13 SMSA's. The results are shown in Table 7.

Several conclusions stand out in these data: In the country at large, blacks have a white collar job deficit of 48 per cent. But the biggest deficit (75 per cent) is evident in the managerial category--followed by professionals (70 per cent), salesworkers (53 per cent), and technical workers (31 per cent). The closest blacks come toward occupational equality is in the clerical category (where the deficit is 21 per cent). In contrast, blacks are heavily over-represented in blue collar jobs--except in the case of craft workers (where there is a deficit of 40 per cent). In the case of operatives, the index was 143, and it was 192 for laborers. Among service workers, it was 229.

The degree of occupational integration enjoyed by blacks in individual SMSA's in broad job categories in 1973 was as follows:

<u>Total</u> <u>White Collar</u> (<u>Deficit</u>)		<u>Professional</u> (<u>Deficit</u>)		<u>Total</u> <u>Blue Collar</u> (<u>Surplus</u>)		<u>Craft</u> <u>Workers</u> (<u>Deficit</u>)	
1. Dallas	63%	1. Dallas	89%	1. Dallas	58%	1. Detroit	57%
2. New Orleans	63%	2. New Orleans	80%	2. Wash., D.C.	48%	2. St. Louis	51%
3. Atlanta	55%	3. Detroit	80%	3. Atlanta	48%	3. Atlanta	47%
4. Baltimore	55%	4. Chicago	77%	4. Chicago	44%	4. Baltimore	42%
5. Houston	55%	5. Houston	76%	5. Houston	41%	5. Houston	38%
6. Detroit	53%	6. Baltimore	76%	6. New Orleans	40%	6. S.F.-Oakland	35%
7. Chicago	48%	7. Atlanta	76%	7. Detroit	39%	7. Phila.	32%
8. Phila.	47%	8. Phila.	74%	8. Baltimore	36%	8. Chicago	30%
9. St. Louis	44%	9. Wash., D.C.	70%	9. Phila.	30%	9. New York	30%
10. Wash., D.C.	39%	10. S.F.-Oakland	69%	10. S.F.-Oakland	29%	10. New Orleans	30%
11. Los Angeles	35%	11. Los Angeles	67%	11. Los Angeles	28%	11. Dallas	30%
12. S.F.-Oakland	31%	12. New York	60%	12. New York	18%	12. Wash., D.C.	27%
13. New York	23%	13. St. Louis	23%	13. St. Louis	14%	13. Los Angeles	21%

Several comments can be made with respect to this array.

In general, the cities in the South and Southwest are the farthest behind in the integration of blacks in white collar jobs. On the other hand, only a handful of cities in the North and West are doing appreciably better than the national average. The deficit in black employment in jobs is enormous all over the country. Likewise, every area recorded a surplus of blacks in blue collar occupations--except in the case of craft workers, where all areas reported deficits. Here also the lesson is clear: blacks all over the country still have a long way to go before they achieve occupational equality in the better-paying jobs. Much of the current deficit undoubtedly reflects the legacy of racial discrimination and exclusion suffered by blacks in the past. The effects

are observable not only in the large deficit in white collar jobs but also in the skilled crafts--where trade union practices have frequently kept blacks out of those fields. On the other hand, the lack of skills has prevented blacks from taking advantage of many opportunities which have emerged--especially in recent years. The task of remedying this deficit in skills should be high up on the agenda of the black community in the years ahead.

Employment Opportunities in the Public Sector

While I have dwelt on the employment status of blacks in private industry, we must not overlook the still unsatisfactory situation in public service. Historically, a larger proportion of employed blacks (especially of those in professional positions) has been on the public payroll than has been true for the population as a whole. For example, while blacks represented about 10 per cent of total employment in nonfarm occupations in private industry in 1973, they accounted for nearly 16 per cent of all civilian employees in the Federal Government (Table 8). Moreover, while Federal employment absorbed 3.0 per cent of the total civilian labor force, about 4.8 per cent of the blacks in civilian jobs were on the Federal payroll.

Behind these overall statistics is an even heavier reliance by blacks on the public sector for a disproportionate share of the better jobs they hold. The extent of this reliance was fully documented in the 1960 and 1970 Census of Population. In 1960, employment in public administration at the Federal, State and local level accounted for about

4.9 per cent of total employment. The percentage of blacks so employed was roughly the same, 5.0 per cent. However, while just 6 per cent of all professional and technical workers were employed by public agencies, 7.3 per cent of black workers in the same occupations were employed by such agencies. By 1970, public administration represented 5.5 per cent of total employment, but the proportion for blacks had risen to 6.6 per cent.

The much greater reliance of blacks on the public sector for better-paying white collar jobs is particularly noticeable. For instance, in 1960 about 1 in 8 of all salaried managers (both black and the total) worked for public institutions; by 1970, the ratio had declined to under 10 per cent for the total--but it had risen to 16 per cent for blacks. Nearly one-fifth of the black engineers worked for government bodies in 1960 and 1970 compared with only 8 per cent for all engineers. For accountants, the ratios were roughly one-third for blacks and only 13 per cent for all accountants in both years. Some 18 per cent of black lawyers were employed by public agencies in 1960, compared with only 12 per cent of all lawyers. By 1970, the proportion of all lawyers employed in public administration had risen to 18 per cent, but for blacks the figure was 26 per cent.

Clerical workers provide the most striking example of all. In 1960, about two-fifths of all black women employed as secretaries, stenographers, and other classes of clerical workers were on the public payroll. Only 14 per cent of the white women employed as clerical

workers were on the public payroll. Moreover, while black women represented less than 4 per cent of all women with such jobs, they accounted for 10 per cent of those employed in the public sector. By 1970, these proportions had changed very little. Black women still constituted only 3.6 per cent of all clerical workers--but 10 per cent of those in public administration. And 30 per cent of all black female clerical workers were on the public payroll.

Although the details obviously have changed since 1970, the broad conclusions probably still hold. While private industry has greatly accelerated its hiring of blacks in recent years, so has the public sector. For example, as shown in Tables 8 and 9, in 1963, blacks constituted 13 per cent of total employment in the Federal Government; by 1973, the ratio had risen to almost 16 per cent of the work force. In the ten-year period, the number of blacks employed by the Federal Government rose from 302 thousand to 395 thousand, a gain of 93 thousand--representing 41 per cent of the increase in total Federal civilian employment.

However, while great strides have been made in the employment of minority groups in the Federal Government, the vast majority of blacks is still concentrated in the low- and middle-grade jobs. Again, as Table 8 shows, of the 395 thousand blacks employed by the Federal Government in 1973, two-fifths (162 thousand) were in the regular civil service grades, and three-fifths were in the postal field service or held blue collar (wage board) jobs. Moreover, in regular civil service categories, blacks are heavily concentrated in the low- to middle-salary grades.

The employment status of blacks in State and local governments appears to be generally less favorable than it is in the Federal Government. The extent to which this is the case cannot be determined because of a lack of comprehensive information. However, a survey conducted in 1967 by the U.S. Civil Rights Commission casts considerable light on the situation.

The Commission collected information on government employment in seven major metropolitan areas--representing 628 governmental units. The areas were San Francisco-Oakland, Baton Rouge, Detroit, Philadelphia, Memphis, Houston, and Atlanta. In all, nearly 250,000 jobs were involved. About one-fourth of these jobs were held by blacks.

Of the black workers in State and local governments, more than half were on the payrolls of central city governments. The distribution of black and other minority group employment in the seven central cities is shown in Table 10. In four of these areas (San Francisco, Philadelphia, Detroit, and Memphis), the percentage of total city jobs held by blacks was equal to--or exceeded--their proportion of the population. In both Baton Rouge and Oakland, the city employment rate for blacks was roughly one-half of their representation in the population.

The data from the survey also show that blacks are heavily concentrated in the low-skill, low-pay occupations in all of the central cities listed. In fact, in each of the cities (except San Francisco and Oakland), blacks held 70 per cent or more of all laborer jobs. In three of the cities (Philadelphia, Detroit, and Memphis), they made up

about one-third of all service workers. In only two cities--Philadelphia and Detroit--did the number of blacks in white collar positions come near to reflecting their proportion of the population.

On the basis of these results from the survey, one must share the Commission's conclusion: State and local governments have fallen far short of meeting their obligation to assure equal employment opportunity to all of their citizens. Consequently, the quest for job equality must still be pressed at city halls and in State capitals--as well as in the Federal Government.

On the other hand, I am personally convinced that blacks would do well to look more to the private sector--and less to public payrolls--for expanded job opportunities in the years ahead. This is especially true of the Federal Government--where the expansion of employment is likely to be quite sluggish.

Outlook for Black Employment: Selected Occupations

Over the next decade, job prospects for blacks will be especially good--if they have marketable skills and can take advantage of the unfolding opportunities. According to projections published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the civilian labor force is expected to expand as follows out to 1985:

<u>Category</u>	<u>Actual</u>	<u>Projected</u>		
	<u>1973</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1985</u>
Total civilian labor force (millions)	88.7	90.1	98.0	104.4
Black labor force (millions)	10.2	10.5	11.9	13.2
Per Cent of Total	11.5	11.6	12.1	12.6

Thus, by 1985, more than 13 million black workers will be holding jobs or seeking work. Between 1973 and 1985, the black labor force will expand substantially faster than the civilian labor force as a whole. As a consequence, their share of the total will rise from 11.5 per cent to 12.6 per cent. Moreover, the demand for skills over the next decade will strengthen considerably, and workers with few skills--whites as well as blacks--will find the competition for jobs especially keen.

Aside from trying to get an appreciation for the general outlook for black employment in the years ahead, I have attempted to assess the prospects in those fields which may be of particular interest to the black community. For this purpose, a combination of data (shown in Table 11) was used. Blacks' share of employment in selected occupations was obtained from the 1970 Census of Population. An assessment of employment prospects in particular occupations was derived from the Bureau of Labor statistics' Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1974-75 Edition. The specific occupations were grouped under 10 headings--beginning with those which appear central to the solution of some of the most pressing problems facing the black community (health, education, social services, urban improvement and protection) and fanning out into fields more related to the economy as a whole. In drawing up this array, however, I must stress the fact that I am not suggesting that blacks who pursue occupations in categories I through IV should work only--or even primarily--in the black community. Rather, I am suggesting

that young blacks who place special emphasis on service to the black community may well find it rewarding to consider those lines of career development. Although the annual incomes one might expect in those fields may not be as high as in some other areas of specialization, many young people may still find them attractive.

The information in Table 11 indicates that job opportunities in the health field are likely to be very good out to 1985. With the spread of pre-paid medical care, the demand for health personnel is likely to be quite strong. So while the supply of workers with such skills will also grow appreciably, the number of job openings may expand even faster. In contrast, the demand for school teachers is expected to be quite weak. The supply of college graduates going into education is expected to slacken somewhat, but a sizable surplus of teachers is expected to prevail for some time. The field of social services (including both recreation and social workers) is expected to offer good job prospects. This is a field into which blacks have gone in considerable numbers in the past, and undoubtedly many will continue to find it attractive.

I would especially urge young blacks to consider opportunities in the area of urban improvement and protection. The need to rebuild or rehabilitate urban facilities will give rise to strong demands for architects, urban planners, and other professionals with similar skills. But even more strongly, I would urge young blacks to examine the prospects for careers involved with protection. The persistent high crime rates in the black community (in which blacks are the principal victims)

clearly call for an increased number of blacks interested in fighting crime and improving the security of the community. So far, the representation of blacks in most city police departments is proportionately quite small. In most State police forces, the situation is much worse.

Among the other occupations identified in Table 11, I would call attention particularly to those associated with electronic computers and banking and finance. Undoubtedly, the computer will continue to transform the techniques for controlling the production and distribution of goods in the economy. Moreover, further inroads will be made in the handling of financial and other service transactions--including the provision of medical care. Blacks have already established a toehold in computer-related occupations, and considerable scope will exist for broadening these. The demand for workers in the banking and financial field will also remain strong. Here, too, blacks can expect to find better-than-average career opportunities. Many of these will be at the officer--rather than clerical--level; they will also involve lending as well as community relations functions.

In the final analysis, however, the extent to which blacks can take advantage of the widening opportunities on the horizon will depend as much on them as on the continuing efforts by Government and business to eradicate the legacy of racial discrimination and deprivation which still restricts blacks' chances for economic development.

Table 1. Employed Persons by Major Occupation Group and Color, 1960, 1970, 1973
(Numbers in thousands)

	Total Employment: 1960					Total Employment: 1970					Total Employment: 1973				
	Total		Black 1/		Per Cent by Occupation	Total		Black 1/		Per Cent by Occupation	Total		Black 1/		Per Cent by Occupation
	Number	Percentage Distribution	Number	Percentage Distribution		Number	Percentage Distribution	Number	Percentage Distribution		Number	Percentage Distribution	Number	Percentage Distribution	
<u>Total Employed</u>	65,778	100.0	6,927	100.0	10.5	78,527	100.0	8,445	100.0	10.7	84,409	100.0	9,131	100.0	10.8
<u>White Collar Workers</u>	28,522	43.3	1,113	16.1	3.9	37,997	48.3	2,356	27.9	6.2	40,386	47.8	2,840	31.1	7.0
Professional & Technical	7,469	11.4	331	4.7	4.4	11,140	14.2	766	9.1	6.9	11,777	14.0	901	9.9	7.7
Managers, Officials & Prop.	7,067	10.7	178	2.5	2.5	8,289	10.5	297	3.5	3.6	8,644	10.2	374	4.1	4.3
Clerical Workers	9,762	14.8	503	7.3	5.2	13,714	17.4	1,113	13.2	8.1	14,548	17.2	1,356	14.9	9.3
Sales Workers	4,224	6.4	101	1.5	2.4	4,854	6.2	180	2.1	3.7	5,415	6.4	209	2.3	3.9
<u>Blue Collar Workers</u>	24,057	36.6	2,780	40.1	11.6	27,791	35.3	3,561	42.2	12.8	29,869	35.4	3,721	40.8	12.5
Craftsmen & Foremen	8,554	13.0	415	6.0	4.8	10,158	12.9	692	8.2	6.8	11,288	13.4	809	8.9	7.2
Operative	11,950	18.2	1,414	20.4	11.8	13,909	17.7	2,004	23.7	14.4	14,269	16.9	2,030	22.2	14.2
Nonfarm Laborers	3,553	5.4	951	13.7	26.8	3,724	4.7	866	10.3	23.2	4,312	5.1	883	9.7	20.5
<u>Service Workers</u>	8,023	12.2	2,196	31.7	27.4	9,712	12.4	2,199	26.0	22.6	11,128	13.2	2,314	25.3	20.8
Private Household	1,973	3.0	982	14.2	49.8	1,558	2.0	652	7.7	41.8	1,353	1.6	520	5.7	38.4
Other Service Workers	6,050	9.2	1,214	17.5	20.1	8,154	10.4	1,546	18.3	19.0	9,775	11.6	1,794	19.6	18.4
<u>Farm Workers</u>	5,176	7.9	841	12.1	16.2	3,126	4.0	328	3.9	10.5	3,027	3.6	255	2.8	8.4
Farmers & Farm Managers	2,776	4.2	219	3.2	7.9	1,753	2.2	87	1.0	5.0	1,664	1.9	62	0.7	3.7
Farm Laborers & Foremen	2,400	3.7	622	8.9	25.9	1,373	1.8	241	2.9	17.6	1,363	1.9	193	2.1	14.2

1/ Negro and other races.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, April, 1974, Tables A-11, p. 267 and A-12, p. 269.

Table 2. Total and EEOC-Reported Employment, 1966 and 1973
(Number in Thousands)

Occupation	1966						1973					
	Total Employment 1/ Black			EEOC-Reported Employment 2/ Black			Total Employment 1/ Black			EEOC-Reported Employment 2/ Black		
	Total	Number	Per cent of total	Total	Number	Per Cent of total	Total	Number	Per Cent of total	Total	Number	Per Cent of total
<u>Total Employment</u>	67,325	6,487	9.6	25,571	2,097	8.2	80,029	8,356	10.4	31,839	3,439	10.8
<u>White Collar</u>	33,068	1,644	5.0	10,996	286	2.6	40,386	2,840	7.0	15,061	843	5.6
Professional and tech.	9,310	551	5.9	2,833	69	2.4	11,777	901	7.7	4,143	194	5.7
Professional	--	--	--	1,692	22	1.3	--	--	--	2,703	86	3.2
Technical	--	--	--	1,141	47	4.1	--	--	--	1,440	108	7.5
Managers and officials	7,405	207	2.8	2,083	18	0.9	8,644	374	4.3	3,066	83	2.7
Sales workers	4,541	138	3.0	1,802	43	2.4	5,415	209	3.9	2,745	140	5.1
Clerical workers	11,812	748	6.3	4,277	150	3.5	14,548	1,356	9.3	5,108	434	8.5
<u>Blue Collar</u>	26,950	3,300	12.2	12,613	1,362	10.8	29,869	3,721	12.5	14,287	1,986	13.9
Craftsmen	9,589	600	6.3	3,630	131	3.6	11,288	809	7.2	4,173	271	6.5
Operatives	13,829	1,782	12.9	6,506	702	10.8	14,269	2,030	14.2	7,221	1,112	15.4
Laborers	3,532	918	26.0	2,477	525	21.2	4,312	883	20.5	2,894	599	20.7
<u>Service Workers</u>	7,308	1,544	21.1	1,961	453	23.1	9,775	1,794	18.4	2,491	615	24.7

1/ Excluding private household and farm workers.

2/ Reported to U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission by firms with 100 or more employees.
Components may not add to totals because of rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Manpower Report of the President, April, 1974, Tables A-11, p. 267 and A-12, p. 269, and U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Table 3. Changes in Total and EEOC-Reported Employment, 1966-1973
(Numbers in Thousands)

OCCUPATION	Total Employment			EEOC-Reported Employment		
	Black			Black		
	Total	Number	Percent of Total	Total	Number	Percent of Total
<u>Total Employment</u>	12,704	1,869	14.7	6,268	1,342	21.4
<u>White Collar</u>	7,318	1,196	16.3	4,065	557	13.7
Professional and technical	2,467	350	14.2	1,310	125	9.5
Professional	--	--	--	1,011	64	6.3
Technical	--	--	--	299	61	20.4
Managers and officials	1,239	167	13.5	983	65	6.6
Sales workers	874	71	8.1	943	97	10.3
Clerical workers	2,736	608	22.2	831	284	34.2
<u>Blue Collar</u>	2,919	421	14.4	1,674	624	37.3
Craft workers	1,699	209	12.3	543	140	25.8
Operatives	440	248	56.4	715	410	57.3
Laborers	780	350	44.9	417	74	17.7
<u>Service Workers</u>	2,467	250	10.1	530	162	30.6

Source: Table 2

Table 4. Black Employment and Firms with NO Black Employees, Selected Industries, 1966 and 1973

	<u>Black Employment as</u> <u>Per Cent of Total Employment</u> <u>1/</u>		<u>Percentage of Firms with No</u> <u>Black Employees</u>		
	<u>1966</u>	<u>1973</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1973</u>	
				<u>Firms</u>	<u>Per Cent of</u> <u>Total Employment</u>
All Industry	8.2	10.8	47.1	26.9	10.5
Banking and Finance					
Banking	4.4	9.1	31.9	21.8	6.7
Insurance	3.3	--	77.8	--	
Insurance carriers	--	8.1	--	34.0	12.9
Agents and brokers	--	6.2	--	38.0	18.5
Securities, commodity brokers	2.4	6.2	75.5	52.6	18.2
Credit agencies	2.4	7.1	71.3	18.4	5.6
Communication	4.3	9.9	40.9	14.9	5.6
Construction (Heavy const. contractors)	12.7	13.7	47.0	20.3	8.8
Manufacturing					
Food/Kindred product	11.1	13.0	39.0	31.0	14.5
Printing and publishing	4.8	6.6	32.7	24.0	10.3
Primary metals	12.3	12.8	23.5	18.9	6.9
Transportation equipment	9.1	12.8	27.7	23.2	4.2
Machinery, non-electrical	4.3	6.8	37.4	26.7	10.3
Electrical machinery	5.4	8.4	26.0	21.7	6.6
Railroad Transportation	8.0	7.2	25.5	22.1	7.3
Air Transportation	4.2	6.4	50.3	20.8	5.1
Electric, Gas, Sanitary Service	3.8	7.4	48.4	28.9	11.2
Wholesale Trade	6.5	8.7	62.5	26.7	12.1
Retail: General Merchandise Stores	7.4	8.6	33.4	28.4	10.7
Eating, Drinking Places	23.3	14.4	28.4	32.4	22.8
Hotels, Lodging Places	25.3	19.5	13.4	19.6	11.9
Medical, Health Services	16.4	16.0	17.8	21.5	8.4

1/ Reported to EEOC by firms with 100 or more employees.

Source: Special Tabulation by Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Table 5. Regional Pattern of Black Employment, By Major Occupation Group, 1966 and 1973

Year and Region	Total Employed (thousands)	Black: Total		WHITE COLLAR WORKERS						BLUE COLLAR WORKERS				SERVICE WORKERS
		Number Employed (thousands)	Percent of Total	Total	Prof.	Tech.	Managers & Officials	Sales Workers	Clerical Workers	Total	Craft Workers	Operatives	Laborers	
1966														
United States	25,571	2,097	8.2	2.6	1.3	4.1	.9	2.4	3.5	10.8	3.6	10.8	21.2	23.1
New England	1,786	59	3.3	1.3	.7	2.0	.4	.9	1.9	4.1	1.8	4.6	6.7	9.0
Middle Atlantic	5,322	397	7.5	3.6	1.8	5.1	1.1	2.8	5.3	9.3	4.1	9.5	16.8	21.5
East North Central	6,338	540	8.5	2.7	1.2	3.8	.9	2.6	4.1	11.0	3.6	12.5	16.3	22.2
West North Central	1,773	79	4.4	1.4	.9	2.8	.4	1.3	1.6	5.2	2.0	5.6	9.0	15.7
South Atlantic	3,550	510	14.4	3.1	2.0	5.6	1.3	3.7	3.6	18.4	5.5	15.0	44.1	39.5
East South Central	1,368	168	12.3	2.2	1.6	6.1	1.2	2.5	1.8	14.6	4.6	12.4	32.9	38.9
West South Central	1,762	183	10.4	1.7	1.1	4.3	.7	1.7	1.7	14.5	3.7	13.8	33.1	33.1
Mountain	695	16	2.2	.8	.4	1.2	.2	.7	1.2	2.0	.7	1.9	4.2	8.8
Pacific	2,977	140	4.7	2.1	1.0	3.2	.6	2.0	3.0	6.1	2.8	7.1	10.0	14.0
1973														
United States	31,839	3,439	10.8	5.6	3.2	7.5	2.7	5.1	8.5	13.9	6.5	15.4	20.7	24.7
New England	2,043	91	4.5	2.9	1.8	3.7	1.4	2.3	4.5	5.3	2.9	6.3	6.4	10.0
Middle Atlantic	6,327	639	10.1	7.2	4.0	8.7	3.1	5.2	11.5	11.1	6.0	12.0	16.9	25.2
East North Central	7,412	764	10.3	5.5	2.8	7.1	2.8	4.9	8.5	12.8	5.7	15.0	16.4	22.5
West North Central	2,177	125	5.8	3.4	3.4	5.0	1.7	2.7	4.4	6.4	3.4	7.3	8.4	14.8
South Atlantic	4,804	917	19.1	8.0	4.9	10.9	3.8	8.5	11.1	24.9	11.2	25.8	41.4	41.7
East South Central	1,849	310	16.8	6.2	4.2	10.7	3.1	6.5	8.0	20.5	9.7	20.4	35.2	37.8
West South Central	2,499	351	14.0	5.8	3.1	9.1	2.5	6.2	8.0	18.8	8.7	20.7	30.7	35.7
Mountain	1,031	33	3.2	1.9	1.2	2.4	1.0	1.8	2.7	3.0	2.0	3.1	4.6	9.6
Pacific	3,697	219	5.9	4.2	2.2	5.6	2.0	3.9	6.2	7.0	4.3	8.4	8.4	12.7

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Table 6. Occupational Pattern of Black Employment in Major Metropolitan Areas, 1973

OCCUPATION GROUP	United States	New York, N.Y.	Philadelphia, Pa.	Baltimore, Md.	Washington, D.C.	Detroit, Mich.	Chicago, Ill.	St. Louis, Mo.	Atlanta, Ga.	New Orleans, La.	Dallas, Tex.	Houston, Tex.	Los Angeles, Cal.	San Francisco Cal.
<u>Total Employment</u>	31,839	1,870	797	353	362	752	1,458	480	321	158	353	391	1,217	510
<u>White Collar Workers</u>	15,061	1,267	414	177	236	352	757	235	179	75	202	208	687	316
Professional	2,703	229	80	31	54	65	118	44	24	12	34	42	141	63
Technical	1,440	80	40	17	22	34	61	20	11	7	22	24	59	27
Managers & officials	3,066	228	79	34	36	77	147	48	34	15	39	41	125	55
Sales workers	2,745	194	66	33	46	62	150	48	47	15	37	34	113	46
Clerical workers	5,108	536	149	62	79	114	280	75	62	25	70	68	249	125
<u>Blue Collar Workers</u>	14,287	430	322	145	79	349	598	203	117	68	129	152	438	154
Craft workers	4,173	159	111	48	32	94	167	65	37	28	37	66	167	57
Operatives	7,221	173	149	69	29	205	294	101	58	25	69	58	193	69
Laborers	2,894	98	62	29	17	49	137	37	22	15	24	28	79	28
<u>Service Workers</u>	2,491	173	61	31	48	52	103	43	25	14	22	30	91	39
<u>Black Employment: Total</u>	3,439	267	113	74	89	132	217	64	60	39	45	61	104	43
<u>White Collar Workers</u>	843	139	31	17	35	29	58	18	15	7	10	15	38	18
Professional	194	13	3	2	4	2	4	4	1	1	1	2	4	2
Technical	86	12	5	2	4	3	5	2	1	1	2	3	4	2
Managers & officials	108	10	3	2	3	3	5	1	1	1	1	1	3	1
Sales workers	83	14	4	3	7	5	9	3	4	2	2	3	6	2
Clerical workers	140	90	17	8	18	15	35	6	8	3	5	7	21	11
<u>Blue Collar Workers</u>	434	73	59	41	29	85	128	31	32	23	26	34	48	17
Craft workers	1,986	16	11	6	6	7	18	4	4	5	3	6	11	3
Operatives	271	32	29	22	13	65	70	17	16	9	16	16	26	8
Laborers	1,112	24	19	14	10	13	40	9	12	9	7	11	11	5
<u>Service Workers</u>	599	55	22	16	25	18	31	15	13	8	9	13	18	8
<u>Black as Per Cent of All Employees</u>														
<u>Total Employment</u>	10.8	14.3	14.1	20.9	24.6	17.6	14.9	13.3	18.6	24.7	12.7	15.7	8.5	8.4
<u>White Collar Workers</u>	5.6	11.0	7.5	9.3	15.0	4.2	7.7	7.5	8.3	9.2	4.7	7.1	5.5	5.8
Professional	3.2	5.7	3.7	5.0	7.4	3.6	3.4	10.2	4.9	4.9	1.4	3.7	2.8	2.6
Technical	7.5	15.1	12.0	14.2	13.6	7.8	8.5	12.2	9.5	10.8	7.0	11.4	7.4	8.4
Managers & officials	2.7	4.4	3.5	4.6	1.1	4.3	3.5	2.9	3.8	4.4	2.0	2.7	2.6	2.4
Sales workers	5.1	7.1	6.0	8.4	14.5	7.3	6.7	5.9	7.7	11.8	4.6	8.0	4.9	5.0
Clerical workers	8.5	16.8	11.3	13.6	22.6	13.5	12.3	8.6	12.4	12.3	7.2	9.9	8.4	8.6
<u>Blue Collar Workers</u>	13.9	16.9	18.4	28.5	36.5	24.4	21.4	15.2	27.5	34.6	20.1	22.2	10.9	10.8
Craft workers	6.5	10.0	9.6	12.2	18.0	7.6	10.5	6.5	9.9	17.3	8.9	9.7	6.7	5.5
Operatives	15.4	18.6	19.6	31.7	43.9	31.7	23.8	17.3	28.5	36.6	22.7	27.9	13.4	12.2
Laborers	20.7	24.8	31.3	48.0	58.5	25.8	29.2	24.9	54.6	63.8	30.1	40.2	13.8	18.1
<u>Service Workers</u>	24.7	32.0	36.7	50.4	52.4	35.6	29.7	35.7	50.2	59.6	42.5	41.9	19.8	20.9

Source: Special tabulation by U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Table 7. Index^{1/} of Occupational Integration in Major Metropolitan Areas, 1973

Metropolitan Area	WHITE COLLAR WORKERS						BLUE COLLAR WORKERS				SERVICE WORKERS
	Total	Prof.	Tech.	Managers & Officials	Sales Workers	Clerical Workers	Total	Craftsmen	Operatives	Laborers	
United States	52	30	69	25	47	79	129	60	143	192	229
New York City	77	40	106	31	50	117	118	70	130	173	224
Baltimore	45	24	68	22	40	65	136	58	152	230	241
Philadelphia	53	26	85	25	43	80	130	68	139	222	260
Washington, D.C.	61	30	76	33	59	92	148	73	178	238	213
Detroit	47	20	56	24	41	77	139	43	180	147	202
Chicago	52	23	60	23	40	83	144	70	160	196	199
St. Louis	56	77	92	22	44	65	114	49	130	187	268
Atlanta	45	26	51	20	41	67	148	53	153	293	270
New Orleans	37	20	44	18	48	50	140	70	148	258	241
Dallas	37	11	55	16	36	57	158	70	179	237	335
Houston	45	24	73	17	51	63	141	62	178	256	267
Los Angeles	65	33	87	31	58	99	128	79	158	162	233
San Francisco	69	31	100	29	60	102	129	65	145	215	249

^{1/} The index is calculated as follows: (1) Blacks' share (percentage) of total employment and of employment in each occupation group in each metropolitan area is calculated.
 (2) Blacks' share (percentage) in each occupation group is divided by their share (percentage) of total employment. An index number of 100 indicates equality. An index number of less than 100 indicates an occupational deficit, and an index number greater than 100 indicates an over-representation in a particular occupation.

Source: Calculated from Table 6.

Table 8. Minority Group Employment in the Federal Government
1973

<u>PAY SYSTEM</u>	<u>Total Full Time Employees</u>	<u>Minority Groups</u>		<u>Black</u>		<u>Spanish Surnamed</u>		<u>American Indian</u>		<u>Oriental</u>		<u>All Other</u>	
		<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>
Total: All Pay Systems	2,524,968	515,129	20.4	395,409	15.7	78,243	3.1	20,266	.8	21,211	.8	2,009,839	79.6
Total: General (or similar) Schedule	1,330,581	217,346	16.3	162,203	12.2	29,984	2.3	13,229	1.0	11,930	.9	1,113,235	83.7
GS-1 thru 4	314,999	89,045	28.3	69,051	21.9	11,082	3.5	6,805	2.2	2,107	.7	225,954	71.9
GS 5 thru 8	386,860	79,354	20.5	62,585	16.2	9,880	2.5	3,595	.9	3,294	.8	307,506	79.5
GS-9 thru 11	314,738	31,552	10.0	20,339	6.5	5,822	1.8	1,885	.6	3,506	1.1	283,186	90.0
GS-12 thru 18	313,984	17,395	5.5	10,228	3.3	3,200	1.0	944	.3	3,023	1.0	296,589	94.5
GS-12 thru 15	308,267	17,193	5.6	10,087	3.3	3,164	1.0	936	.3	3,006	1.0	291,074	94.4
GS-12	129,814	8,204	6.3	4,928	3.3	1,547	1.2	457	.4	1,272	1.0	121,610	93.7
GS-13	100,582	5,104	5.1	3,100	3.1	892	.9	265	.3	847	.8	95,478	94.9
GS-14	49,100	2,487	5.1	1,334	2.7	445	.9	139	.3	569	1.2	46,613	94.9
GS-15	28,771	1,398	4.9	725	2.5	280	1.0	75	.3	318	1.1	27,373	95.1
GS-16 thru 18	5,717	202	3.5	141	2.5	36	.6	8	.1	17	.3	5,515	96.5
GS-16	4,055	146	3.6	104	2.6	21	.5	7	.2	14	.3	3,909	96.4
GS-17	1,190	41	3.4	27	2.3	10	.8	1	.1	3	.3	1,149	96.6
GS-18	472	15	3.2	10	2.1	5	1.1	0	0	0	0	457	96.8

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Press Release, March 4, 1974.

Table 9. Minority Group Employment in the Federal Government
1963

Pay Category	Total	Minority Groups		Black		Spanish Surnamed		American Indian ^{1/}		Oriental ^{2/}		All Other	
	Full Time		Per Cent		Per Cent		Per Cent		Per Cent		Per Cent		Per Cent
	Employees	Number	of Total	Number	of Total	Number	of Total	Number	of Total	Number	of Total	Number	of Total
1 9 6 3													
Total: All Pay Systems	2,298,808	374,321	16.3	301,889	13.1	51,682	2.2	10,592	0.5	10,158	0.4	1,924,487	83.7
Total: General (or Similar) Schedule	1,103,051	125,596	11.4	101,589	9.2	15,292	1.4	5,315	0.5	3,400	0.3	977,455	88.6
GS-1 thru 4	355,329	78,170	22.0	66,169	18.6	7,520	2.1	3,373	1.0	1,108	0.3	277,159	78.0
GS-5 thru 8	315,203	33,851	10.7	26,452	8.4	4,809	1.5	1,311	0.4	1,279	0.4	281,352	89.3
GS-9 thru 11	243,325	10,433	4.3	7,016	2.9	2,178	0.9	481	0.2	758	0.3	232,892	95.7
GS-12 thru 18	189,194	3,142	1.7	1,952	1.0	785	0.4	150	0.1	255	0.1	186,052	98.3

^{1/} Surveyed only in Arizona, California, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma and South Dakota in 1963.

^{2/} Surveyed only in California, Oregon and Washington in 1963.

Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission, "Study of Minority Group Employment in the Federal Government," 1963.

**Table 10. Minority Group Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment
by Occupation, Selected Central Cities, 1967**
(Full Time Noneducational Employees)

City and Race	All Occupations	White Collar				Blue Collar			Service Workers
		Total White Collar	Officials & Managers	Professional & Technical	Office & Clerical	Total Blue Collar	Craftsmen & Operatives	Laborers	
San Francisco - Oakland									
Total Number	19,745	6,850	256	4,357	2,237	5,206	3,947	1,257	7,689
Minority (%)	26.8	18.7	4.7	19.8	18.2	29.5	27.8	34.6	32.3
Black (%)	17.9	9.5	3.9	9.5	10.2	24.4	23.0	28.7	21.0
Spanish American (%)	2.0	1.4	0.0	1.5	1.6	3.2	2.8	4.2	1.7
Oriental (%)	3.8	7.8	0.8	8.8	6.4	1.9	2.0	1.7	9.1
Philadelphia									
Total Number	28,075	9,092	863	5,070	3,159	5,847	3,319	2,528	13,136
Black (%)	40.6	34.3	21.9	27.6	48.3	71.7	56.6	91.7	31.2
Detroit									
Total Number	26,448	7,206	800	3,028	3,378	8,370	5,259	3,111	10,872
Black (%)	40.1	30.5	14.4	22.3	41.6	57.1	42.7	81.5	33.4
Atlanta									
Total Number	6,001	884	65	397	422	2,997	1,450	1,547	2,120
Black (%)	32.1	3.6	0.0	4.5	3.3	53.0	16.7	87.0	14.5
Houston									
Total Number	8,417	2,060	313	751	996	2,683	1,295	1,388	3,674
Minority (%)	27.8	11.0	10.5	9.3	12.3	61.9	33.4	88.5	12.4
Black (%)	19.1	4.4	6.1	4.0	4.2	47.9	23.7	70.5	6.3
Spanish-American (%)	8.7	6.6	4.5	5.3	8.1	14.1	9.7	18.1	6.1
Memphis									
Total Number	10,729	2,783	433	1,311	1,039	3,980	1,486	2,494	3,969
Black (%)	41.7	20.9	2.8	32.5	14.0	65.8	13.9	96.7	32.2
Baton Rouge									
Total Number	1,990	597	97	230	252	702	401	301	709
Black (%)	16.4	0.9	0.0	2.2	0.0	41.6	20.0	70.4	4.2

Source: U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, "For All the People...By All the People: A Report on Equal Opportunity in State and Local Government Employment," 1969.

Table 11. Employment Outlook in Selected Occupations, 1972-1985

Occupation	Employment: 1970			Employment: 1972		Employment Outlook: 1985		Annual Earnings, 1972	
	Total	Black	Per Cent of total	Total	Women as Per Cent of Total	Demand for Workers	Job Opportunities (Demand vs. Supply)	Beginning	Average
I. Health Occupations									
Physicians	279,658	6,002	2	316,500	7	strong	very good	\$16,700	\$44,000
Dentists	92,563	2,363	3	105,000	2	very strong	very good	13,996	34,000
Registered Nurses	835,797	65,224	8	850,000	99	very strong	good	8,100	10,000
Medical Technologists	--	--	-	75,000	80	moderate	good	7,694	9,520
II. Education									
Elementary School Teachers	1,428,831	134,537	9	1,300,000	85	weak	poor	7,357	9,823
Secondary School Teachers	993,548	65,540	7	1,100,000	50	very weak	very poor	7,357	10,460
College & University Teachers	491,707	16,284	3	620,000	25	weak	very poor	10,662	13,813
III. Social Services									
Recreation Workers	50,106	6,923	14	55,000	45	very strong	good	7,200	9,520
Social Workers	218,281	34,169	16	185,000	63	very strong	good	7,320	9,800
IV. Urban Improvement and Protection									
Architects	56,284	1,315	2	60,000	4	very strong	good	7,800	14,975
Policemen (local)	355,924	22,750	6	370,000	3	very strong	good	9,500	10,750
Urban & Regional Planners	9,130	478	5	12,000	10	strong	very good	9,000	11,667
V. Social Scientists									
Economists	66,271	1,550	2	70,000	6	moderate	good	7,694	17,200
Psychologists	28,388	1,213	4	57,000	25	strong	good	11,000	16,000
Sociologists	1,364	142	10	15,000	15	very strong	good	11,500	14,000
VI. Scientific & Technical									
Chemists	110,060	3,854	3	134,000	10	moderate	good	9,000	15,600
Engineers	1,233,148	14,343	1	1,300,000	1	very strong	good	10,700	16,600
Engineering & Scientific Technicians	819,714	26,273	3	700,000	12	very strong	good	10,000	12,000
Statistical Clerks	244,918	17,971	7	300,000	65	moderate	good	5,200	6,630
VII. Computer & Related									
Electronic Computer Operating Personnel	13,028	355	3	15,000	15	strong	very good	6,604	9,204
Programmers	163,766	6,108	4	186,000	25	strong	good	8,500	11,000
System Analysts	82,478	2,571	3	100,000	10	very strong	good	11,800	15,700
VIII. Banking, Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate									
Bank Officers	313,338	4,509	1	220,000	17	strong	good	7,980	25,000
Bank Tellers	251,110	10,491	4	250,000	86	strong	good	3,328	5,824
Insurance Agents and brokers	459,237	13,675	3	385,000	90	moderate	poor	(commission)	14,000
Insurance underwriters	--	--	--	60,000	90	moderate	good	8,140	13,500
Real Estate Salesworkers	261,300	4,573	2	--	--	--	--	--	--
Securities Salesworkers	98,135	1,260	1	110,000	90	moderate	good	7,200	21,000
IX. Administration & Related									
Accountants	711,363	16,246	2	720,000	25	strong	excellent	9,100	14,650
Lawyers	263,745	3,406	1	300,000	5	moderate	good	11,614	25,000
Purchasing Agents	162,256	2,981	2	180,000	10	moderate	good	8,000	15,000
X. Communications & Related									
Editors & Reporters	148,112	3,328	2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Newspaper Reporters	--	--	--	39,000	40	moderate	good	5,200	12,000
Radio & TV Announcers	21,705	527	2	17,000	6	moderate	poor	8,840	11,336

Source: 1970 Employment: 1970 Census of Population, "Occupational Characteristics," PC(2)7A. Employment 1972 and Outlook, 1985: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1974-75 Edition.