Monthly Labor Review

JULY 1968 VOL. 91 NO. 7

Salaries of Federal Workers

Major Wage Developments

Defense Employment by Region

Representation of Classroom Teachers

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BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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LAWRENCE R. KLEIN, *Editor-in-Chief*

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This Issue in Brief

USUALLY, if the work force in a State is relatively large, there is also a large number of defense-generated jobs. Under the Economic Information System, developed by the Department of Defense and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, large defense and NASA contractors report at 6-month intervals the employment on their defense contracts and subcontracts. In their article, *Regional Effect of Defense Effort on Employment* (p. 1), Roger F. Riefler and Paul B. Downing examine the reports made between June 1965 and June 1967. They find that the Viet Nam buildup has increased the average "defense dependency ratio" and that smaller areas have become much more dependent while larger ones have not been greatly affected.

THE GOAL of the Salary Reform Bill of 1962 was to narrow the gap between Federal and private salaries. In a study of *Trends in Salaries of Classified Federal Workers* (p. 17), Albert A. Belman dicusses what has taken place over the past few years to establish more comparability. "The increase in minimum salaries from July 1962 to July 1968 ranged from about 20 percent in grade 1 to about 60 percent in grade 17." Mr. Belman notes that since July 1966, "Federal white-collar salaries have advanced faster than the earnings of factory workers and the Consumer Price Index, but not as fast as did salaries of professional and clerical workers in the private sector."

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING was active last year, with the number of workers covered by new settlements the greatest in any year since 1960. Also, according to Joseph E. Talbot, Jr., author of *Major Wage Developments in 1967* (p. 9), "the median annual rate of increase in wage and benefit costs was higher, 5.6 percent," than the 4.5 percent increase of 1966. Benefits were liberalized or established in contracts covering nine-tenths of the workers employed where settlements were concluded; the key settlements were in the automobile, trucking, rubber, petroleum, and railroad industries.

MANY PROFIT-SHARING PLANS do not expect to pay benefits until their participants retire. Nevertheless, each year 1.4 percent of the plans are discontinued and although accrued benefit rights are preserved, their value may be reduced over time. According to Emerson H. Beier, in *Profit-Sharing and Pension Plan Termination* (p. 37), the mortality rate is highest among the youngest plans, 60 percent of which cover fewer than 25 employees. Reasons for plan termination include sale or merger of firms having plans, financial difficulties, and business dislocations.

THE CONTEST by various organizations for representation of teachers is discussed by Charles T. Schmidt, Jr., through the use of two case studies of Michigan teachers, in Detroit and in Grand Rapids. In *Representation of Classroom Teachers* (p. 27), the author concludes that the contrast between the success of the Michigan Education Association in Grand Rapids and its lack of it in Detroit is "startlingly clear." The local in Grand Rapids was well-organized and financially secure and "most important, when the issue of employer domination was raised, the local organization was not left to its own defense but received the support . . . from the State organization" which the Detroit association did not have.

TWO PAPERS from the annual spring meeting of the Industrial Relations Research Association appear in this issue. The first, by George H. Hildebrand, discusses coordinated bargaining and in *Joint Negotiations, A Match of Bargaining Power* (p. 22), Professor Hildebrand maintains that the "common employer view that coordination is a bid for more union power is correct; but the source lies more in weakness than in strength." In the second paper, entitled *Racial Differences in Job Search and Wages* (p. 24), Alice Handsaker Kidder finds, from a survey of white and nonwhite labor force members in the Boston area, that "the black worker searches more intensively for a job and suffers higher rejection rates than does his white counterpart."

The Labor Month in Review

Goals in Development of Human Resources

"THE CONCERN of the Federal Government in the field of human resources during the past decades reflects the recognition that the society and welfare of this Nation, as of every other, depend . . . on the quality of its people." So wrote Professor Eli Ginzberg, of Columbia University, in a compendium of papers published by the Congressional Subcommittee on Economic Progress of the Joint Economic Comittee. The papers dealt with Federal programs to develop human resources.

Growth Factor. In industralized societies, emphasis has been shifting from physical capital to people as major determinants of economic growth. In recent years, programs to help people develop themselves have come under close scrutiny. Typically, the probing has dealt with a single human resource program or group of programs. In its compendium, the subcommittee hoped to give scholars an opportunity to look at public and private human resources activities, beginning with the general goals needed to mesh current and future programs better.

Studies of human resource activities are not new, but attempts to explicitly formulate national goals are. The subcommittee itself has sponsored studies of particular problems since 1949, and took its first comprehensive step in the field in 1966. Then it released a 3-volume compilation of replies from Federal departments and agencies to its inquiry about Government programs for the development of human resources. Federal agencies have been assessing for some time the manpower, educational, health, income maintenance, and other human resource activities under their jurisdiction. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has been leading an interagency effort to develop "social indicators" that would permit measurement of progress in these activities. Private researchers and organizations have also made their critiques. One such recent study (for the U.S. Chamber of Commerce) was an evaluation of the present and future manpower situation by Seymour Wolfbein, Dean of Temple University's School of Business Administration.

The Need for Goals. Because of their size and importance, Federal programs invite appraisal, but for this, specific goals are needed. The basic purpose of the first part of the committee study was to give experts an opportunity to state what they think the Nation's goals in the area of human resource development ought to be, and to permit them to suggest criteria for evaluating programs, progress, and potential or actual conflict among programs.

Although most of the contributing experts called for explicitly stated goals, few tendered a list of such goals. The implication was that in American society this was a task for the people, and goals should evolve through the political process.

Philip Hauser, sociology professor at the University of Chicago, was one of the participants who did provide a list of very general goals, but eschewed specific targets. He pointed to population growth and concentration in urban areas as underlying the problems that have summoned human resources projects and created the need to state specific goals.

Preparing the ground for his idea of the "general social goal" of the United States, Dr. Hauser assumed that the Nation was a "welfare State," and cautioned that such designation was neither "pejorative nor dangerous" but rather a "badge of maturity." He then set an ambitious social goal for the country, that of "providing each inhabitant of [the] Nation with the opportunity, freedom, and security to enable him to achieve optimal development of [himself]; and to contribute, as far as feasible, to attainment of this goal for all humanity." Hauser limned the ambitiousness of the goal by pointing out that it embraced "much more than the Nation has yet achieved or set out to achieve."

Reducing the "general social goal" to manageable chunks, Professor Hauser listed nine subgoals. His goals included items that various groups in the society have been supporting and that varying degrees of national commitment have been made too. Some of his subgoals dealt with activities that

bear very directly on getting and holding a good job. Going "beyond the 1946 Employment Act," he called on Government to provide "labor-intensive" employment when the level of economic activity and private industry do not provide enough jobs, and to establish a family allowance program such as other industralized societies already have. Each individual should be equipped to deal with our increasingly urban environment by improving levels of schooling, training, and "socialization," particularly among the disadvantaged. He also urged the Nation to provide opportunity for maximum life spans and the good physical and mental health that make such spans meaningful. Other subgoals, supporting but not bearing so directly on employment considerations were a wholesome personal and public environment, planned families, even-handed justice, rational governmental institutions, expanded cultural opportunities, and world order.

Forward Look. If Hauser's piece was a forward look to what should be, Dr. Ginzberg's article represented a sifting of what has been. Ginzberg stuck to the policy behind past congressional enactments in the human resources field in postulating national goals. He found that the Nation had set its shoulder to a number of human resources tasks, including improvement of the quality of education, training the unemployed and underemployed, bringing health services to people who need them, maintaining income for those unable to do so, improving the urban and rural environments, and hastening the integration of Negroes and other minorities into the general society. Viewing the national commitment in these areas as vague and piecemeal, Dr. Ginzberg indicated that the "primary needs are a limited number of major targets."

In his paper dealing with goals and the economy in 1975, Economist Leonard Lecht, of the National Planning Association, noted that "goals are sometimes regarded as abstractions divorced from everyday practice. Yet all of us are involved with the Nation's goals as citizens, employees, or businessmen, and all of us have notions, more or less specific, of what our goals and priorities ought to be."

Dr. Lecht took 16 "goal areas" (based on a 1960 report by the President's Commission on National Goals) as the framework for analyzing the allocation of resources and manpower in 1975. Specific goals were stated under each goal area (education, health, manpower retraining, national defense, and others) based on legislative commitments and public or private studies, reports, and recommendations. (For example, a hypothetical goal under manpower retraining was the retraining of 1 percent of the labor force each year.)

Based upon the NPA analysis, Dr. Lecht found that it would take almost $1.2 trillion to achieve all of the goals hypothetically aspired to by 1975. The largest item was the $674 billion in expenditures by or on behalf of consumers. Manpower retraining would require $3.1 billion on the basis of the stated goal, with objectives higher than 1-percent retraining of the labor force each year requiring more money.

As the NPA analysis demonstrates, explicitly stated national goals permit better planning of the allocation of resources. There is also a continuing feedback that permits alteration of goals and priorities in the light of experience. Precisely stated goals and inputs to achieve them also permit Federal programs to be considered in relation to State and local government, and private programs.

Coalescence. One message of the experts in the first part of the compendium appears to be: Establishing national goals for helping people develop themselves would put the horse before the cart. Instead of permitting disparate public and private programs to coalesce gradually into a more or less coherent effort governed by a clear-cut policy, the specialists call for specific goals and national planning targets before rather than after programs go into effect. Of course, in a free society, a determination of targets would be advisory rather than coercive.

Since present human resources programs could not be changed overnight, what at bottom is called for is a shaping of these programs with the handy tools of specific national objectives. New programs, on the other hand, could be sawed, planed, and joined before they begin.

Regional Effect of Defense Effort on Employment

ROGER F. RIEFLER AND
PAUL B. DOWNING*

THE COUNTRY'S DEFENSE ACTIVITIES have a differential effect upon the economies, particularly the level of employment, of regions and States. Until recently, no direct measurement of this differential had been made. In the last few years, however, the Department of Defense and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) have jointly developed the Economic Information Survey (EIS), which directly measures employment in 453 major defense contractor plants and imputes employment for the unsurveyed plants. This process of estimating defense-generated employment permits a comparison of the importance of defense work as a source of employment in various parts of the country.

Reported Employment

Under the EIS system, large defense and NASA contractors report, at 6-month intervals, the employment on their defense contracts and subcontracts. Defense-generated employment of small contractors, who do not submit such reports, is estimated by applying census factors to prime contract awards data. Statistics on civilian and military personnel at defense installations are derived from various Department of Defense publications.

Data presented in this article cover all direct employment on prime contracts exceeding $10,000 in value, and all the military and civilian personnel at defense installations. Subcontract and other indirect employment is included here only if reported by the 453 plants surveyed by the Economic Information System. The EIS coverage of total indirect defense employment in all stages of activity—from the production of raw materials through the completion of manufacturing or services—is estimated at about 12 percent.[1]

The result of a study of the five half-yearly reporting periods ending in June 1967 are presented in table 1, including figures for plant employment, civilians at installations, and the military on active duty. The level of defense-generated employment varies widely among States, with a definite tendency for States having a large work force, such as California, also to have a large number of defense-generated jobs. The relative effect of defense work on States is derived by dividing the defense-generated employment of each State by its work force.[2] The resulting ratio—the "defense dependency ratio"—indicates that this effect is much greater in some States than in others. A regional distribution of the State defense dependency ratios for June 1967 shows that the New England, South Atlantic, and Pacific regions[3] are much more heavily affected by defense activitives than are the central areas of the country.

It has often been suggested that even though prime contract awards are regionally concentrated, subcontracting disperses defense work. Since the EIS survey includes only those subcontracts performed by surveyed prime contractors, themselves regionally concentrated, the surveyed subcontracting is regionally bias. The Department of Defense made a separate study of subcontracting, using a sample of large defense contractors. Data were acquired on the State of origin of their subcontracts, the State of performance, and the dollar amount of the contract. Since this survey is based on a limited sample, its results are not con-

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[1] Direct employment is defined here as all employment in the plant receiving the prime contract which is a result of that contract. It includes production and administration personnel. Indirect employment is all employment resulting from the prime contract which takes place outside the plant receiving the prime contract. It includes both subcontracting and raw materials generated employment. Therefore, this measure of defense-generated employment represents an estimate of the initial effect of defense activity but does not include the total multiplier effects of that activity.

[2] Defense-generated employment is the sum of plant employment plus the civilians at installations. The military on active duty are not included for two reasons: They are not included in work force data, and they do not have a substantial multiplier effect on the regional economy.

[3] Regions used in this article are defined in table 2.

TABLE 1. DEFENSE-GENERATED EMPLOYMENT, SELECTED YEARS

[In thousands]

STATE	EIS-measured employment [1] as of—					Work force [2]		Defense dependency ratio [3]	
	June 1965	December 1965	June 1966	December 1966	June 1967	May 1965	May 1967	June 1965	June 1967
ALABAMA									
Total	47.5	47.5	49.8	53.7	53.8	1,276.0	1,281.3	3.7	4.2
Plants	14.2	14.3	16.6	21.7	22.5				
Installations	33.3	33.2	33.2	32.0	31.3				
Military	24.0	28.1	32.1	32.5	31.1				
ALASKA									
Total	8.8	8.4	9.4	9.2	9.4	90.1	95.5	9.8	9.8
Plants	2.5	2.0	2.8	2.5	2.6				
Installations	6.3	6.4	6.6	6.7	6.8				
Military	30.9	30.1	29.2	30.7	31.6				
ARIZONA									
Total	14.9	17.0	20.2	22.5	23.9	523.5	572.0	2.8	4.2
Plants	7.7	9.4	12.2	14.3	14.7				
Installations	7.2	7.6	8.0	8.2	9.2				
Military	21.2	21.0	20.7	26.4	27.4				
ARKANSAS									
Total	5.6	6.9	8.7	10.8	11.9	684.5	702.2	.8	1.7
Plants	1.6	2.7	4.2	6.4	7.1				
Installations	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.4	4.8				
Military	9.9	9.6	9.2	9.2	9.2				
CALIFORNIA									
Total	354.4	380.4	412.5	466.1	499.1	7,215.0	7,711.0	4.9	6.5
Plants	215.6	231.9	254.2	297.1	319.7				
Installations	138.8	148.5	158.3	169.0	179.4				
Military	212.9	229.7	246.6	242.8	251.2				
COLORADO									
Total	24.1	25.0	25.8	26.9	27.2	749.5	797.9	3.2	3.4
Plants	9.6	10.0	10.2	10.2	9.9				
Installations	14.5	15.0	15.6	16.7	17.3				
Military	35.4	38.0	40.5	44.6	46.8				
CONNECTICUT									
Total	68.0	73.2	77.3	97.1	96.3	1,201.8	1,280.4	5.7	7.5
Plants	64.9	69.8	73.7	93.4	92.2				
Installations	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.7	4.1				
Military	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.1	4.3				
DELAWARE									
Total	2.0	2.7	2.9	2.7	3.0	222.6	232.2	.9	1.3
Plants	.8	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.5				
Installations	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5				
Military	7.2	7.2	7.1	8.7	9.2				
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA									
Total	33.2	33.0	32.8	34.7	42.3	386.9	409.5	8.6	10.3
Plants	4.2	3.8	3.5	4.7	6.8				
Installations	29.0	29.2	29.3	30.0	35.5				
Military	19.9	22.7	25.5	28.8	26.8				
FLORIDA									
Total	68.5	69.7	73.6	80.3	82.1	2,228.5	2,371.8	3.1	3.5
Plants	43.3	43.3	45.9	50.0	50.5				
Installations	25.2	26.4	27.7	30.3	31.6				
Military	70.0	69.6	69.2	70.1	71.8				
GEORGIA									
Total	58.4	63.1	69.6	79:3	82.9	1,630.6	1,723.4	3.6	4.8
Plants	24.8	26.3	29.7	35.9	38.0				
Installations	33.6	36.8	39.9	43.4	44.9				
Military	94.0	101.7	109.4	115.0	94.9				
HAWAII									
Total	20.8	21.7	22.9	24.5	25.3	262.7	286.7	7.9	8.8
Plants	1.8	1.8	2.1	2.8	2.8				
Installations	19.0	19.9	20.8	21.7	22.5				
Military	40.2	34.4	28.7	33.1	34.4				
IDAHO									
Total	.6	.8	1.0	1.2	1.1	271.6	283.2	.2	.4
Plants	.2	.3	.5	.7	.5				
Installations	.4	.5	.5	.5	.6				
Military	5.4	4.7	4.0	4.3	4.1				
ILLINOIS									
Total	48.7	54.4	63.1	80.2	88.4	4,648.4	4,907.7	1.0	1.8
Plants	20.6	25.6	33.7	50.2	56.5				
Installations	28.1	28.8	29.4	30.0	31.9				
Military	47.4	53.9	60.3	66.5	55.9				

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1. DEFENSE-GENERATED EMPLOYMENT, SELECTED YEARS—Continued

[In thousands]

STATE	EIS-measured employment [1] as of—					Work force [2]		Defense dependency ratio [3]	
	June 1965	December 1965	June 1966	December 1966	June 1967	May 1965	May 1967	June 1965	June 1967
INDIANA									
Total	35.3	38.6	44.8	57.1	65.2	1,940.9	2,089.5	1.8	3.1
Plants	22.8	24.9	29.9	41.4	47.9				
Installations	12.5	13.7	14.9	15.7	17.3				
Military	8.5	9.2	9.8	9.8	10.4				
IOWA									
Total	7.9	8.8	10.3	14.0	14.7	1,158.5	1,234.1	.7	1.2
Plants	7.3	8.1	9.5	13.2	13.8				
Installations	.6	.7	.8	.8	.9				
Military	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6				
KANSAS									
Total	19.4	22.9	26.5	26.5	28.2	833.9	852.0	2.3	3.3
Plants	14.7	17.8	21.0	20.9	22.2				
Installations	4.7	5.1	5.5	5.6	6.0				
Military	29.8	32.3	34.8	34.8	23.5				
KENTUCKY									
Total	13.3	14.8	16.7	20.2	21.4	1,095.8	1,137.8	1.2	1.9
Plants	1.2	1.2	1.5	3.2	3.3				
Installations	12.1	13.6	15.2	17.0	18.1				
Military	48.9	50.4	51.9	69.5	57.1				
LOUISIANA									
Total	10.6	12.5	14.5	18.1	22.2	1,260.1	1,342.6	.8	1.7
Plants	4.1	5.4	6.8	10.1	13.7				
Installations	6.5	7.1	7.7	8.0	8.5				
Military	34.3	37.2	40.1	39.7	35.8				
MAINE									
Total	5.6	6.0	6.9	7.2	7.2	373.1	382.0	1.5	1.9
Plants	3.9	4.3	5.1	5.1	5.0				
Installations	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.2				
Military	12.2	11.5	10.8	10.3	10.5				
MARYLAND									
Total	70.7	74.9	84.6	89.9	94.1	1,254.8	1,373.0	5.6	6.9
Plants	29.6	31.6	39.0	43.2	45.1				
Installations	41.1	43.3	45.6	46.7	49.0				
Military	51.4	55.5	59.6	67.5	58.5				
MASSACHUSETTS									
Total	75.9	80.1	88.7	95.6	105.8	2,381.8	2,443.6	3.1	4.3
Plants	53.1	57.2	65.8	72.9	81.7				
Installations	22.8	22.9	22.9	22.7	24.1				
Military	30.5	29.3	28.2	24.1	26.8				
MICHIGAN									
Total	30.3	33.7	37.8	43.6	47.1	3,102.6	3,404.9	1.0	1.4
Plants	18.7	21.5	25.1	30.2	33.2				
Installations	11.6	12.2	12.7	13.4	13.9				
Military	19.9	19.1	18.3	18.3	18.0				
MINNESOTA									
Total	17.3	19.5	23.3	29.4	36.2	1,569.3	1,615.4	1.1	2.2
Plants	15.2	17.3	21.0	27.1	33.7				
Installations	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.5				
Military	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.2				
MISSISSIPPI									
Total	23.3	22.5	24.4	24.9	25.2	771.3	808.2	3.0	3.1
Plants	17.1	15.7	17.0	17.6	17.8				
Installations	6.2	6.8	7.4	7.3	7.4				
Military	21.3	24.7	28.0	25.3	22.2				
MISSOURI									
Total	53.6	60.9	74.9	87.7	91.5	1,940.6	2,042.9	2.8	4.5
Plants	36.5	42.0	54.3	66.0	67.6				
Installations	17.1	18.9	20.6	21.7	23.9				
Military	28.5	33.7	38.8	40.8	33.1				
MONTANA									
Total	1.5	1.7	4.5	4.8	7.5	256.1	274.4	.6	2.7
Plants	.5	.6	3.3	3.4	6.0				
Installations	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5				
Military	9.5	9.5	9.4	9.6	9.7				
NEBRASKA									
Total	5.1	5.2	6.5	8.9	9.1	648.8	651.0	.8	1.4
Plants	1.1	1.4	2.8	5.4	5.6				
Installations	4.0	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.5				
Military	16.4	14.4	12.4	12.2	12.2				

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1. DEFENSE-GENERATED EMPLOYMENT, SELECTED YEARS—Continued

[In thousands]

STATE	EIS-measured employment [1] as of—					Work force [2]		Defense dependency ratio [3]	
	June 1965	December 1965	June 1966	December 1966	June 1967	May 1965	May 1967	June 1965	June 1967
NEVADA									
Total	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.2	186.6	194.3	1.6	1.6
Plants	.3	.3	.5	.5	.4				
Installations	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8				
Military	7.6	6.9	6.3	6.9	7.3				
NEW HAMPSHIRE									
Total	11.9	12.5	13.7	15.7	18.1	265.0	283.8	4.5	6.4
Plants	3.8	4.2	5.3	6.8	8.8				
Installations	8.1	8.3	8.4	8.9	9.3				
Military	7.7	6.5	5.2	5.4	5.4				
NEW JERSEY									
Total	66.9	72.6	80.6	89.3	94.9	2,736.1	2,842.1	2.4	3.3
Plants	41.8	45.9	52.3	59.7	63.8				
Installations	25.1	26.7	28.3	29.6	31.1				
Military	36.9	42.8	48.8	48.3	47.5				
NEW MEXICO									
Total	15.3	15.4	15.4	15.7	16.3	354.8	359.9	4.3	4.5
Plants	4.2	3.9	3.5	4.0	4.2				
Installations	11.1	11.5	11.9	11.7	12.1				
Military	21.5	20.1	18.7	17.9	14.8				
NEW YORK									
Total	132.2	133.0	139.5	155.7	170.4	7,915.0	8,115.0	1.7	2.1
Plants	87.6	93.0	104.1	122.7	136.9				
Installations	44.6	40.0	35.4	33.0	33.5				
Military	35.1	34.2	33.2	28.8	32.3				
NORTH CAROLINA									
Total	26.0	26.1	30.6	41.2	41.4	1,982.3	2,048.4	1.3	2.0
Plants	15.5	15.1	19.0	27.9	27.4				
Installations	10.5	11.0	11.6	13.3	14.0				
Military	86.8	89.8	92.7	108.1	100.3				
NORTH DAKOTA									
Total	2.7	3.5	5.9	4.4	3.3	266.9	259.1	1.0	1.3
Plants	1.3	2.2	4.7	3.0	1.8				
Installations	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.5				
Military	12.3	12.2	12.2	12.3	12.4				
OHIO									
Total	81.7	81.6	90.7	104.4	107.4	4,057.7	4,295.3	2.0	2.5
Plants	44.4	43.8	52.4	65.4	68.0				
Installations	37.3	37.8	38.3	39.0	39.4				
Military	18.6	19.2	19.8	19.7	19.9				
OKLAHOMA									
Total	31.0	34.2	38.5	41.4	42.9	939.3	982.2	3.3	4.4
Plants	5.4	5.7	7.1	7.6	7.7				
Installations	25.6	28.5	31.4	33.8	35.2				
Military	34.0	35.9	37.9	40.7	44.1				
OREGON									
Total	5.5	6.2	6.4	7.4	8.0	794.0	840.5	.7	1.0
Plants	2.1	2.7	2.9	3.7	3.9				
Installations	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.7	4.1				
Military	5.0	4.3	3.6	3.7	3.7				
PENNSYLVANIA									
Total	108.4	119.8	132.0	149.2	155.8	4,690.1	4,827.0	2.3	3.2
Plants	42.0	50.9	60.6	77.9	80.8				
Installations	66.4	68.9	71.4	71.3	75.0				
Military	15.6	15.2	14.9	14.9	14.5				
RHODE ISLAND									
Total	13.4	13.4	14.2	17.9	20.1	364.3	380.7	3.7	5.3
Plants	4.6	4.3	4.9	8.3	9.9				
Installations	8.8	9.1	9.3	9.6	10.2				
Military	6.6	8.0	9.5	8.4	7.7				
SOUTH CAROLINA									
Total	19.2	20.3	23.7	29.6	30.1	997.3	1,010.4	1.9	3.0
Plants	3.9	3.8	6.0	10.9	10.7				
Installations	15.3	16.5	17.7	18.7	19.4				
Military	50.2	55.2	60.2	56.1	56.2				

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1. DEFENSE-GENERATED EMPLOYMENT, SELECTED YEARS—Continued

[In thousands]

STATE	EIS-measured employment [1] as of—					Work force [2]		Defense dependency ratio [3]	
	June 1965	December 1965	June 1966	December 1966	June 1967	May 1965	May 1967	June 1965	June 1967
SOUTH DAKOTA									
Total	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.3	1.8	264.7	260.1	.8	0.7
Plants	.8	.5	1.0	1.1	.5				
Installations	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3				
Military	6.6	6.4	6.2	6.3	5.9				
TENNESSEE									
Total	25.0	23.7	31.8	43.6	45.4	1,552.6	1,611.8	1.6	2.8
Plants	18.8	17.3	25.1	36.4	37.9				
Installations	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.2	7.5				
Military	18.4	20.1	21.9	21.5	20.4				
TEXAS									
Total	118.1	126.4	143.9	168.3	182.7	3,953.7	4,244.3	3.0	4.3
Plants	58.0	61.4	73.9	94.6	105.3				
Installations	60.1	65.0	70.0	73.7	77.4				
Military	165.1	186.0	206.9	207.4	192.5				
UTAH									
Total	28.7	32.0	35.5	38.9	40.2	378.3	404.3	7.6	9.9
Plants	9.4	8.8	8.5	8.7	8.9				
Installations	19.3	23.2	27.0	30.2	31.3				
Military	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.7				
VERMONT									
Total	2.0	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.7	160.1	173.5	1.2	2.1
Plants	1.9	2.2	2.5	3.0	3.6				
Installations	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1				
Military	.3	.3	.3	.3	.2				
VIRGINIA									
Total	112.6	119.1	126.5	134.3	143.1	1,596.8	1,697.0	7.1	8.4
Plants	33.0	34.9	37.7	43.3	45.7				
Installations	79.6	84.2	88.8	91.0	97.4				
Military	88.8	94.0	99.2	112.3	110.4				
WASHINGTON									
Total	45.7	47.1	50.2	55.8	56.2	1,155.8	1,300.2	4.0	4.3
Plants	23.4	23.7	25.7	29.8	28.4				
Installations	22.3	23.4	24.5	26.0	27.8				
Military	45.6	46.6	47.6	47.8	51.1				
WEST VIRGINIA									
Total	4.9	5.0	5.6	7.9	9.2	614.4	626.6	.8	1.5
Plants	3.8	3.9	4.5	6.7	8.0				
Installations	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2				
Military	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5				
WISCONSIN									
Total	11.4	11.7	14.4	21.5	25.1	1,749.7	1,816.8	.7	1.4
Plants	9.1	9.3	11.9	19.5	22.4				
Installations	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.0	2.7				
Military	4.2	3.8	3.4	2.9	3.1				
WYOMING									
Total	.7	.7	.9	.9	1.3	143.5	142.5	.5	.9
Plants	.1	.1	.3	.2	.5				
Installations	.6	.6	.6	.7	.8				
Military	4.6	4.3	4.0	3.9	3.8				
UNDISTRIBUTED									
Total	61.9	71.5	75.8	84.7	116.0				
Plants	61.9	71.5	75.8	84.7	116.0				
Installations	0	0	0	0	0				
Military	24.8	32.1	39.4	45.9	81.4				
TOTAL									
Total	2,055.6	2,188.9	2,418.0	2,755.1	2,958.8	76,256.8	81,021.8	2.7	3.6
Plants	1,114.7	1,201.1	1,383.2	1,678.8	1,823.4				
Installations	940.9	987.8	1,034.8	1,076.3	1,135.4				
Military	1,641.3	1,737.2	1,832.4	1,909.8	1,863.4				

[1] Defense plant employment includes that of the 453 plants measured by the Economic Information Survey (EIS) and that imputed to all other defense prime contractors not individually surveyed. Subcontract employment is included only for the 453 surveyed plants; employment on all other subcontract work and that generated by lower tier suppliers is excluded. It is estimated that plant employment in these tables represents about 50 percent of total defense generated employment. Civilian and military employment represents actual counts for periods shown.

[2] Unpublished data obtained from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security.

[3] Defense employment as percent of work force.

clusive. (See table 2.) Nevertheless, a comparison of the concentrations of the subcontract percent with the concentrations of prime contract employment casts some doubt on the hypothesis that subcontracting tends to reduce the regional concentration of defense-generated employment at the State level.

Defense dependency ratios were also calculated for Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and other job market areas (counties) within each State. The ratio was as high as 45 percent. Most areas with high dependency ratios were found to be relatively small in terms of work force; they were typically areas where military installations or ammunition plants were located, although there were some exceptions.

TABLE 2. REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF DEFENSE-GENERATED PRIME AND SUBCONTRACT ACTIVITY

Region and State	Percent of U.S. total defense subcontract value surveyed, 1966	Percent of U.S. total prime contract employment, December 1966
New England	10.8	12.1
Maine	.1	.4
New Hampshire	.3	.5
Vermont	.5	.2
Massachusetts	3.2	4.4
Rhode Island	.1	.6
Connecticut	6.6	6.0
Middle Atlantic	21.6	15.4
New York	11.3	7.1
New Jersey	5.3	3.3
Pennsylvania	5.0	5.0
East North	15.1	13.2
Ohio	5.5	4.0
Indiana	2.6	2.6
Illinois	3.3	3.4
Michigan	2.7	1.9
Wisconsin	1.0	1.3
West North	6.6	8.8
Minnesota	1.6	1.7
Iowa	1.4	.8
Missouri	2.8	4.6
North Dakota	0	.2
South Dakota	0	.1
Nebraska	.1	.4
Kansas	.7	1.0
South Atlantic	6.9	14.8
Delaware	.2	.1
Maryland	2.4	2.7
District of Columbia	.2	.3
Virginia	.5	3.0
West Virginia	.1	.5
North Carolina	.2	1.9
South Carolina	.1	.7
Georgia	2.0	2.6
Florida	1.4	3.0
East South Central	1.8	5.1
Kentucky	.1	.2
Tennessee	1.3	2.3
Alabama	.4	1.4
Mississippi	.1	1.2
West South Central	5.3	7.9
Arkansas	.2	.4
Louisiana	.1	.7
Oklahoma	.4	.5
Texas	4.6	6.3
Mountain	2.3	2.6
Montana	0	.2
Idaho	0	(1)
Wyoming	.1	(1)
Colorado	.5	.7
New Mexico	0	.3
Arizona	.7	.9
Utah	.8	.5
Nevada	0	(1)
Pacific	29.6	19.9
Washington	.6	2.0
Oregon	.2	.3
California	28.8	17.2
Alaska	0	.2
Hawaii	0	.2

[1] Less than 0.1 percent.

SOURCE: Special survey (unpublished), Department of Defense, OASD(SA)Economics.

Viet Nam Buildup

A shift in defense procurement has a differential effect upon States over a period of time. This can be demonstrated by an analysis of the differential impact of the Viet Nam buildup, taking the period between June 1965 and June 1967 as that of the most rapid increase in procurement. A comparison of the EIS results for the two dates is reported in table 1. As one might expect, the absolute increase in defense-generated employment is much greater for States having large work forces. Turning to the defense dependency ratio, the relative regional effect is greater on the coasts than it is in the central area of the county. (See table 3.) However, the West North Central and West South Central regions have gained at the same rate as the Nation as a whole. This indicates that the increase in defense-generated employment during the buildup has not had as great a differential regional effect as is evident for defense-generated employment as a whole.

A comparison of job market areas' work forces and dependency ratios for June of 1965 and of 1967, presented in the following tabulation, shows that the Viet Nam buildup has increased the average dependency ratio. It also shows that the smaller areas have become much more dependent while the larger ones have not been greatly affected by the buildup. This local effect is closely related to the types of product that have been demanded since the buildup started. The increase of employment in various programs, indicating the growth in demand for various products is presented in table 4. Of these programs, the buildups in ships, ammunition, textiles, and clothing have had significant local effect, as has the buildup at military installations.

Dependency ratio class	Number of areas	Work force (In thousands) 1 to 25	25 to 49	50 to 99	100 to 249	250 to 499	500 to 999	1,000 and over
		June 1965						
Total	359	107	77	71	56	25	15	8
15 and over	24	16	4	4	0	0	0	0
12 to 14.9	18	13	2	2	1	0	0	0
9 to 11.9	18	6	3	0	5	3	0	1
6 to 8.9	43	14	12	5	7	4	1	0
3 to 5.9	61	17	13	14	5	4	4	4
Under 3	195	41	43	46	38	14	10	3
		June 1967						
Total	362	104	76	69	59	31	14	9
15 and over	54	33	13	5	3	0	0	0
12 to 14.9	18	7	5	1	2	3	0	0
9 to 11.9	30	12	6	2	4	5	0	1
6 to 8.9	53	22	9	8	9	2	2	1
3 to 5.9	72	19	14	14	10	7	4	4
Under 3	135	11	29	39	31	14	8	3

Analysis

The indirect effects of defense activities are to be considered in two aspects: The effect of contracts awards on firms which produce parts and raw materials used by the prime contractors, and the effect of expenditures of people employed directly in the production of defense goods. The influence on other firms is reflected in the multiplier effects of an input/output model.

The individuals employed directly in the production of defense goods spend their income in the area where production takes place, and their expenditures give rise to more employment in the area, both in services and locally produced goods. The value of this income multiplier is not known. It is known that the size of the area is one factor which affects the multiplier's value. Typically, the larger the area the larger the multiplier because a wider range of goods and services can be supported within the area. It is clear that the multiplier may be expected to vary greatly among areas. Thus, an accurate estimate of the total local effect of defense expenditures is not possible without an estimate of each area's multiplier. The paucity of the local data base, combined with the relatively rudimentary techniques thus far developed, preclude any accurate calculations of local income multipliers.

A further problem in the analysis of local defense employment is that military personnel and their families do not spend as high a proportion of their income in local stores as do the civilians, since they buy at the post stores, are provided medical services, and often receive on-base hous-

TABLE 3. REGIONAL EFFECT OF THE VIET NAM BUILDUP

Region and State	Change in employment (June 1965–June 1967) as percent of the May 1967 work force
United States	1.1
New England	1.7
Maine	.4
New Hampshire	2.2
Vermont	1.0
Massachusetts	1.2
Rhode Island	1.8
Connecticut	2.2
Middle Atlantic	.8
New York	.5
New Jersey	1.0
Pennsylvania	1.0
East North Central	.7
Ohio	.6
Indiana	1.4
Illinois	.8
Michigan	.5
Wisconsin	.8
West North Central	1.1
Minnesota	1.2
Iowa	.6
Missouri	1.9
North Dakota	.2
South Dakota	.1
Nebraska	.6
Kansas	1.0
South Atlantic	1.2
Delaware	.4
Maryland	1.7
District of Columbia	2.2
Virginia	1.8
West Virginia	.7
North Carolina	.8
South Carolina	1.1
Georgia	1.4
Florida	.6
East South Central	.7
Kentucky	.7
Tennessee	1.3
Alabama	.5
Mississippi	.2
West South Central	1.1
Arkansas	.9
Louisiana	.9
Oklahoma	1.2
Texas	1.5
Mountain	1.0
Montana	2.2
Idaho	.2
Wyoming	.4
Colorado	.4
New Mexico	.3
Arizona	1.6
Utah	2.8
Nevada	.1
Pacific	1.5
Washington	.8
Oregon	.3
California	1.9
Alaska	.6
Hawaii	1.6

TABLE 4. EMPLOYMENT IMPUTED TO PRIME DEFENSE CONTRACTS, BY PROGRAM

[In thousands]

Program	Employment June 1965	Employment December 1966	Increase as percent of June 1965 employment
Total	361.0	691.9	91.7
Aircraft	26.1	29.3	12.3
Missiles and space	6.8	12.5	83.8
Ships	8.1	25.1	209.9
Vehicles and weapons	16.3	37.7	131.3
Ammunition	11.5	56.7	393.0
Communications and electronics	35.2	68.0	93.2
Miscellaneous hard goods	33.0	110.6	235.2
RDT&E [1]	37.8	45.2	19.6
Construction	48.0	52.8	10.0
Miscellaneous services	30.3	45.0	48.5
Transportation	52.5	78.7	49.9
Petroleum, fuels, and containers	7.9	8.4	6.3
Textiles and clothing	31.6	95.9	203.5
Subsistence	15.9	26.0	63.5

[1] Research, development, testing, and evaluation.

SOURCE: Department of Defense, Economics Information System.

ing. Therefore, the income multiplier effect for military personnel is lower than for civilian employees at military bases.[4] It is for this reason, and because they are not included in the civilian labor force, that military personnel are not counted in defense-generated employment.

In summary, what has been estimated in this study is the direct employment resulting from defense activities and a small portion of the subcontract employment. The study understates the effect of defense activities by the amount of the production multiplier (modified to allow for the subcontract employment that is covered). It also understates the effect by the amount of the income multiplier times all direct and military employment. The amount of this understatement and its geographic significance are unknown.

There are many other aspects of the effect of defense work that remain unknown. For example, not much is known about the source of direct employees during a buildup and their fate after the turndown. Neither is the reaction of local business to these changes known. If a contract is let to a firm in an area, the firm increases its work force. The new employees may come from other jobs, from the ranks of the unemployed, from outside the area's work force but living in the area, or from outside the area. The resulting effect on the local economy may be quite different for each of these eventualities. To take the two extremes: Employing only persons previously employed has an effect equivalent to the income multiplier times the increase in income necessary to bid the employees away from their previous employment; but employing persons from outside the area increases the demand for housing, public services, and private business facilities. Each case and each area would have its unique characteristics.

There is also an unknown effect of temporal variations in defense activity in an area. One could speculate that the present buildup is viewed by the defense worker as temporary. This view could materially increase the savings rate and thereby reduce the income multiplier effect. It could also prevent the increase in public service capacity and business investment that would normally occur.

Also undetermined at present is the effect of defense activity on regional and local economic development. Employment in defense industries is more variable than it is for industries as a whole.[5] This variability creates the need for flexibility in the local labor market. A defense firm moves into an area and employment is increased. Retail merchants experience an increase in business, expand their stock, and hire more clerks, mobilizing to serve a greater demand. But in a few years the firm closes down because of a lack of defense contracts, for one reason or another, and employment in the defense firm declines. What happens within the area? A greater service ability and, perhaps, more extensive public facilities have been developed. Will these facilities attract other firms that will hire the unemployed, or will they become excess and an added burden to the community? Also, has the increase in the short-term growth of the area due to the increase in defense employment decreased the long-term growth potential of the community?[6]

Thus, we know where the defense activity's initial and—to some extent—the subcontract effect is felt. We also know that we are underestimating total effect by some multiplier. We do not know the size of this multiplier, nor do we know the reaction—short or long term—of a community to a change in defense activity in its area.

[4] The Federal Reserve Bank of Boston states in "New England's Defense Closings," *New England Business Review*, October 1966, p. 7 that the local employment multipliers for Portsmouth, N.H., are 1.4 for the Pease Air Force Base, 1.6 for the Navy Yard, and 1.8 for private manufacturing.

[5] RMC Report UR–021, *The Variability of Employment in Defense-Related Industries*, September 1967, Prepared for the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Systems Analysis) Economics, by Resource Management Corp., Bethesda, Md.

[6] If the defense firm bids labor resources away from firms with long-term growth potential, these firms may lose their long-term competitive advantage owing to increased labor costs.

Major Wage Developments in 1967

JOSEPH E. TALBOT, Jr.*

MAJOR collective bargaining settlements concluded during 1967 covered 4.4 million workers, a number greater than in any year since 1960. The year's agreements brought the highest wage increases in recent years, and benefit improvements were widespread. The settlements emphasized, as in 1965 and 1966, immediate wage increases to keep up with rising prices. Negotiations also took place during a year of lagging productivity gains and, like 1966, during a year of relatively low rates of unemployment and rapid increases in consumer prices. (See chart.) Key settlements [1] were reached in the automobile, trucking, rubber, petroleum, and railroad industries.

Wage changes effective during the year for all workers covered by major collective bargaining agreements were larger on the average than in any other year for which comparable data is available, but they were smaller than negotiated changes considered separately. The average change actually going into effect was held down by the effects of deferred adjustments under contracts negotiated during earlier years, when the general level of settlements was smaller, and by the delay in conclusions of new contracts until 1968 for a relatively large number of workers. The number of workers who received deferred wage increases was about the same as the number whose wage and benefit increases resulted from the current year's negotiations.

About 665,000 workers were covered by contracts that expired in 1967 but which had not been renegotiated by the end of the year. In 1966 the figure was 200,000.

In the auto industry, while the UAW and the Big Three auto companies completed bargaining in 1967, American Motors and some auto parts and farm equipment manufacturers, whose contracts also expired during the year, did not complete negotiations on new agreements by the end of the year. Bargaining in the copper industry did not result in settlements during 1967, and workers were on strike for about half the calendar year, with the strike continuing into the early months of 1968.

An additional 940,000 workers were covered by agreements that specified that wages would not change during the year. Most workers in the telephone industry did not receive wage increases in 1967, as 3-year agreements concluded in late 1966 provided for immediate wage increases at that time, with provisions for reopening on wages in early 1968. About 125,000 railroad workers, and about 100,000 workers in mining, also were covered by contracts not providing wage increases in 1967.

Various measures of change in wages and benefits are presented in this article. Three that are influenced by the current economic outlook are discussed in some detail and include (1) the estimated annual rate of change in wage and benefit costs over the life of contracts negotiated in 1967; (2) the total wage changes negotiated during the year but going into effect at any time during the life of the contract and reduced to an annual rate; and (3) wage increases negotiated during the year and going into effect during the first year of the contract. While all three measures are likely to change in the same direction, one may change at a different rate from the others, depending in part on the movement of economic forces affecting collective bargaining, such as the level of consumer prices and the amount of unemployment. When prices are rising rapidly, there

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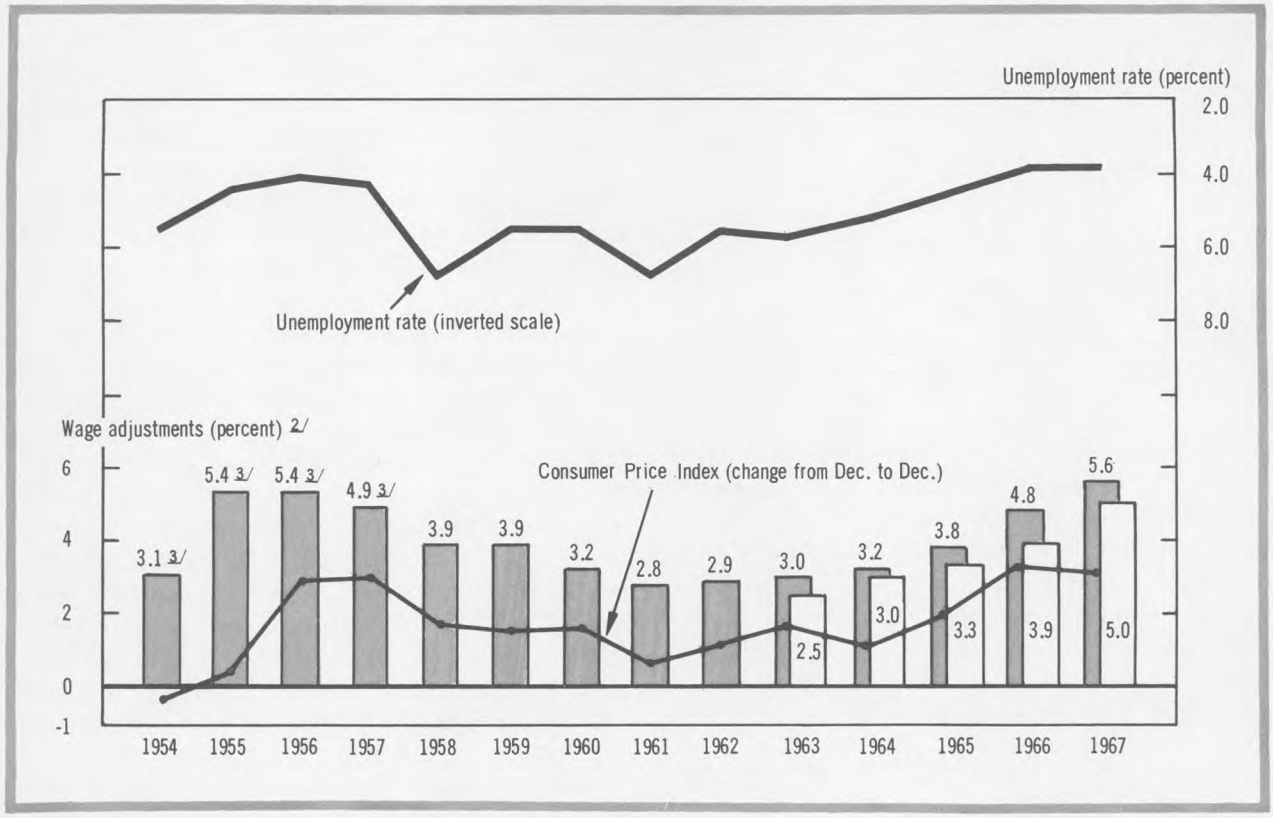
[1] This summary covers major collective bargaining agreements, defined as those covering 1,000 workers or more. Approximately 10.6 million workers are covered by such agreements (excluding government). Included are agreements affecting plants that individually employ 1,000 workers or more, and multiplant or multifirm agreements affecting a total of at least 1,000 or more. For the years prior to 1966, the summaries excluded the service; finance, insurance, and real estate; and construction industries.

Negotiated Wage-Rate Adjustments,[1] the Unemployment Rate, and the Change in the Consumer Price Index, 1954 Through 1967



[1] Median adjustments include no wage changes, decreases in wages, and increases in wages, but exclude the cost of fringe benefits.

[2] Percent of average hourly earnings, adjusted to exclude the effect of premium pay for overtime work.

[3] Estimated.

Note: The striped bars represent the median first contract year wage adjustment. The white insert bars for 1963 through 1967 represent the total percentage wage increase during the life of each contract, converted to an annual rate. For years prior to 1966, the construction, service, finance, insurance, and real estate industries were excluded.

may be a shift in bargaining emphasis from benefits to wages and to relatively large first-year wage increases at the expense of those in subsequent years. Clouding of the business outlook, relative price stability, or large amounts of overtime may reduce emphasis on immediate wage increases. When unemployment is high, bargaining is likely to emphasize income and job security.

Wages and Benefits

During 1967, estimates were prepared of the package cost (wages and benefits combined) of settlements affecting 5,000 workers or more. These key contracts affected over 65 percent of the workers covered by all major settlements (table 1).

The median annual package increase for these workers was 5.2 percent a year, assuming equal spacing of changes over the life of the contract. Comparable figures were 4.1 percent for 1966 and, for the limited number of contracts that were priced in 1965, 3.3 percent.[2]

Of the workers affected by these key settlements in 1967, 44 percent were employed where pacts were expected to increase the combined annual cost of wages and benefits by 3 but less

[2] The package estimates that were made in 1965 covered most of the settlements affecting 10,000 workers or more and covered about 40 percent of the workers affected by all major settlements concluded during the year. Estimates were made of settlement of 5,000 workers or more for 1966 (excluding construction, services, finance, insurance and real estate), and for all settlements of 5,000 or more in 1967. Settlements in government were excluded in all years. All measures, both of package increases and of wage increases negotiated during the year, exclude possible changes in wages resulting from cost-of-living escalator clauses except for any part of the escalator increases guaranteed by the contract.

TABLE 1. ESTIMATED ANNUAL RATES OF INCREASE IN HOURLY COST OF WAGES AND BENEFITS NEGOTIATED IN KEY COLLECTIVE BARGAINING SETTLEMENTS, 1967 [1]

Annual rate of increase	Percent of workers affected	
	Equal timing [2]	Actual timing [3]
All actions	100	100
3 and under 4 percent	8	6
4 and under 5 percent	36	29
5 and under 6 percent	38	42
6 and under 7 percent	8	15
7 percent and over	10	8
Number of workers (thousands)	2,938	2,938
Median increase (percent)	5.2	5.6

[1] Excluding government. Estimates were prepared only for settlements affecting 5,000 workers or more. Possible increases resulting from cost-of-living escalator adjustments (except those guaranteed in the contracts) were omitted.
[2] Based on estimated increase in hourly costs at end of contract period and assumes equal spacing of wage and benefit changes over life of contract.
[3] Takes account of actual effective dates of wage and benefit changes during contract period.

than 5 percent, with 36 percent between 4 and 5 percent. Thirty-eight percent of the workers were employed where wage and benefit expenditures were increased between 5 and 6 percent and about 18 percent received increases of over 6 percent, with 8 percent between 6 and 7 percent. None of the settlements priced out in 1967 averaged less than 3 percent.

Many of the 1967 settlements, especially those concluded in the final quarter, provided for relatively large increases in the early months of the contract. Consequently, the median annual rate of increase in wage and benefit costs was higher, 5.6 percent, taking into account actual timing rather than assuming equal timing of changes.[3] In 1966, the median increase was 4.5 percent considering the actual timing of changes. Settlements in the construction industries continued to be relatively large. The median annual package increase in construction was 7.2 percent assuming equal spacing of changes over the life of the contract, compared with 6.6 percent in both 1966 and 1965.[4]

Wages

Considering wages separately, both general wage changes averaged over the life of the contract and first-year wage increases were larger than in preceding years. Moreover, with the emphasis on immediate wage increases, first-year wage changes continued to be larger than the average annual rate of increase in wages over the entire life of the contract.

Total increases in wage rates to go into effect over the life of contracts negotiated in 1967 averaged 5.0 percent a year (table 2). Comparable increases in 1966 were 3.9 percent and in 1965, 3.3 percent.

First year adjustments in 1967 averaged 5.6 percent compared with 4.8 percent in 1966 and 3.8 percent in 1965. This was the largest first-year increase recorded in a series which dates back to 1954. In manufacturing alone the median increase was 6.4 percent compared with 4.2 percent in 1966 and 4.1 percent in 1965. The median increase for manufacturing was 5.0 percent, the same as in 1966, and 3.7 percent in 1965 (table 3).

Part of the acceleration in 1967 compared with 1966 reflects the unusually large first-year wage changes in the automobile settlements. Deferment of cost-of-living escalator adjustments in these contracts until the second contract year and establishment of a limit on cost-of-living escalation presumably were traded off for part of the first year increase.

Supplementary Benefits

Supplementary benefit changes continued to be extensive during 1967. Benefits were liberalized or established in contracts covering nine-tenths of the workers where settlements were concluded. The most frequently improved benefits were health

TABLE 2. ANNUAL RATE OF INCREASE IN WAGE RATES TO GO INTO EFFECT DURING LIFE OF CONTRACTS NEGOTIATED IN 1967

Annual rate [2]	Percent of production and related workers [1] in—		
	All industries	Manufacturing	Nonmanufacturing
All actions	100	100	100
Under 3 percent	8	8	8
3 and under 4 percent	13	14	12
4 and under 5 percent	22	22	23
5 and under 6 percent	40	50	29
6 and under 7 percent	4	3	4
7 and under 8 percent	4	1	7
8 percent and over	9	1	16
Number of workers (thousands)	4,366	2,199	2,167
Median increase (percent)	5.0	5.1	5.0

[1] Nonsupervisory workers in nonmanufacturing.
[2] Percent of estimated average hourly earnings, excluding overtime.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

[3] See footnotes 2 and 3, table 1, for definition of these terms.
[4] The figures for construction relate to settlements affecting 1,000 workers or more.

and welfare plans, paid vacations, pensions, and holidays, in that order (table 4).

Some types of health and welfare benefits were changed in contracts covering slightly over 3 million workers. Hospital or medical-surgical insurance was changed for 1.46 million workers; about as many, 1.44 million, were affected by life insurance improvements; and improved sickness and accident benefits affected 1.1 million. Additional company payments into funds to finance unspecified changes in hospital-medical-surgical benefits affected nearly 975,000 employees, while similar payments into funds to finance unspecified changes in life and sickness and accident insurance affected 930,000. Employers assumed a greater proportion of the cost of hospital-medical-surgical benefits for 320,000 workers, and assumed more of the cost of life and sickness and accident insurance for 60,000. Major medical coverage was established or improved for 250,000 workers.

Paid vacations were liberalized by settlements affecting nearly 2.9 million workers. The settlements in the automobile industry established 20 to 40 hours of paid vacation for employees with less than 1 year of service. Those with seniority entering the Armed Forces were to receive a prorated share of their vacation entitlement for the following year, and a similar extension of vacation entitlement to the estate or heirs of deceased employees was also provided.

In other settlements, a reduction in the number of years required for 4 weeks of vacation affected slightly more than 1 million workers. In addition, 450,000 were granted a reduction in the number of years required for 2 or 3 weeks of vacation. A fifth week of vacation was established for 100,000 workers, and a sixth week was established for an additional 100,000.

Pension plans were improved or established for nearly 2.6 million workers. The most frequent changes were increased normal retirement benefits, affecting 1.6 million workers; improvements or the introduction of early or disability retirement for 958,000; an increase in the employer payment into a fund to finance unspecified improvements affected nearly 875,000; and establishment or liberalization of vesting in settlements affecting about 160,000.

Holiday provisions were liberalized for more than 2 million workers, with over 800,000 receiving at least an eleventh paid holiday, 205,000 an eighth paid holiday, and 190,000 a ninth holiday.

TABLE 3. FIRST-YEAR CHANGES IN WAGE RATES NEGOTIATED IN MAJOR COLLECTIVE BARGAINING SETTLEMENTS CONCLUDED DURING 1967 [1]

Type and amount of wage-rate action	Percent of production and related workers in—		
	All industries studied	Manufacturing	Nonmanufacturing
Total	100	100	100
No change	1	1	1
Decreases			
Increases	99	99	99
IN PERCENT [2]			
Under 2 percent	1	1	1
2 and under 3	5	3	6
3 and under 4	6	9	3
4 and under 5	21	18	25
5 and under 6	23	14	32
6 and under 7	6	6	6
7 and under 8	21	36	5
8 percent and over	16	11	21
Not specified or not computed [3]	2	2	1
IN CENTS			
Under 5 cents	[4]	[4]	
5 and under 7	1	2	[4]
7 and under 9	2	3	2
9 and under 11	5	7	3
11 and under 13	11	12	10
IN CENTS			
13 and under 15	21	9	33
15 and under 17	12	13	11
17 and under 19	6	5	7
19 cents and over	40	47	34
Not specified or not computed [3]	2	2	1
Approximate number of workers (thousands)	4,366	2,199	2,167
Median adjustment [5]			
In percent	5.6	6.4	5.0
In cents	16.0	17.5	15.0
Median increase [6]			
In percent	5.7	6.4	5.0
In cents	16.1	18.0	15.0
Mean adjustment [5]			
In percent	6.3	6.1	6.4
In cents	19.3	18.2	20.5
Mean increase [6]			
In percent	6.3	6.2	6.4
In cents	19.5	18.4	20.6

[1] This table presents changes in wage rates negotiated during 1967 and effective within 12 months from the time of negotiations. The changes were converted from cents into percentage terms or from percentage terms into cents on the basis of estimated average hourly earnings (excluding premium pay for overtime), and the amounts are the average change for all workers covered by settlements.

[2] Percent of estimated average hourly earnings, excluding overtime.
[3] Insufficient information to compute amount of increase.
[4] Less than 0.5 percent.
[5] Including workers affected by settlements that did not change wages.
[6] Limited to workers affected by settlements that increased wage rates.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

In the national trucking settlement (affecting over 400,000 workers), a seventh paid holiday was provided under agreements previously providing 6, and an eighth or ninth paid holiday was added for those previously receiving 7 or 8 days off, respectively.

Cost-of-Living Escalation

The relatively sharp increase of 3.1 percent in the Consumer Price Index during 1967 led to a modest increase in the number of workers covered by contracts with escalator clauses. At the year's end, the wages of almost 2,460,000 workers under major collective bargaining agreements were subject to automatic escalation with changes in the BLS Consumer Price Index. The majority of these workers were employed in manufacturing industries.

The trend toward establishing maximum limits on the increase in escalator allowances accelerated in 1967. Such limits were established for the two largest groups covered by escalator provisions—automobile and trucking industry employees.

Of the workers covered by escalator clause provisions, nearly 1.6 million were under contracts calling for annual adjustments, including those in the automobile, trucking, and electrical equipment industries. Over 615,000 were covered by quarterly adjustments, including most workers in the aerospace and farm and construction equipment industries and nearly 100,000, mainly in the meatpacking industry, were subject to semiannual adjustments. The remaining workers were affected by various other types of adjustments.

The most common escalator increases in 1967 were 2 cents for employees of the "Big Three" automobile companies; 5 cents for farm and construction equipment employees, American Motors Corp. employees, and workers in the meatpacking industry; 3 to 8 cents, depending on the company, in the aerospace industry; and 11 cents, or the equivalent mileage rate increase, for workers in the trucking industry.

Key Settlements

Bargaining in 1967 was highlighted by settlements in the automobile and trucking industries, but important gains were also achieved in agreements in various other industries. The following summarizes the key settlements reached during the year.

Automobiles. The first of the Big Three auto settlements was reached on October 25 between the Ford Motor Co. and the Auto Workers, representing 160,000 workers. The 3-year settlement, preceded by a 7-week strike, provided an immediate 20-cent-an-hour general wage increase, with additional 30-cent increases for skilled workers. At the union's 1966 convention these workers had won the right to veto the proposed settlement. Additional increases of 3 percent were to become effective in November of both 1968 and 1969. The cost-of-living clause was modified, with annual reviews in September 1968 and 1969; in each year, a minimum of 3 cents was guaranteed, with a maximum of 8 cents. Payments will be made in separate quarterly checks, the first to be made in December 1968. A liberalized SUB plan provided payments up to 52 weeks for laid off employees, which, when combined with State unemployment payments would equal 95 percent of take-home pay, minus a $7.50 deduction for job-related expenses that would not be incurred by laid off workers. Major improvements were also gained in pensions and in health and welfare benefits. Tenth and eleventh paid holidays were added, and vacations were improved.

In November and December, Chrysler Corp. and General Motors Corp., respectively, reached agreements with the Auto Workers on contracts closely patterned after the Ford settlement.[5] The agreements covered almost 500,000 workers. On December 19, the Electrical Workers (IUE) also agreed to a 3-year contract with GM, which covered 30,000 workers, and generally followed the terms of the GM–UAW settlement.

Trucking. A 3-year master freight agreement between the Teamsters and Trucking Employers, Inc., and independent companies was ratified in late May. Terms of the settlement were incorporated in a master "National" agreement and included area supplements for local cartage and over-the-road operations. Increases of one-half cent per mile in rates paid over-the-road drivers were retroactive to April 1, and additional increases of one-fourth cent per mile effective

[5] See *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1968, p. 69, for Chrysler settlement and February 1968, p. 72, for GM settlement.

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TABLE 4. CHANGES IN SUPPLEMENTARY PRACTICES NEGOTIATED IN MAJOR COLLECTIVE BARGAINING SETTLEMENTS, 1963–67

Supplementary benefit	Percent of production and related workers in—				
	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963
Total establishing or liberalizing 1 supplementary benefit or more	89.8	80.3	80.1	85.7	87.4
Shift differentials	7.9	10.0	5.8	9.1	5.9
Paid vacations	66.2	51.2	56.8	67.8	43.4
Paid holidays	46.8	28.5	35.1	44.9	14.7
Premium pay	5.6	3.5	6.5	16.2	2.9
Pensions	59.5	50.5	57.0	67.8	37.2
Health and welfare plans	69.5	61.2	62.7	62.1	72.8
Supplemental unemployment benefits	20.4	1.2	7.3	17.8	4.2
Severance pay	1.8	8.3	9.6	25.4	8.4
Jury duty	2.5	9.8	13.1	18.1	3.5
Paid funeral leave	32.3	11.2	12.2	20.7	8.7
Paid sick leave	4.1	8.8	8.0	3.6	3.4
Other practices	8.7	11.4	24.2	21.3	27.8
Total not changing any supplementary practice	10.2	19.7	19.9	14.3	12.4
Reducing supplementary practices				(1)	.2
All workers in situations in which bargaining over wage rates was concluded during year—					
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number (in thousands)	4,366	3,391	3,590	4,305	3,370

[1] Less than 0.1 of 1 percent.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

April 1, 1968 and 1969 were also won. Hourly wage rates were increased 25, 15, and 15 cents on the respective dates.[6]

The escalator clause was modified, and annual adjustments were to become effective on April 1, 1968 and 1969. For the first time, however, a limit of 4 cents an hour, or 1 mill per mile, was put on each adjustment. Benefits included an additional paid holiday, improved vacation provisions, and increased employer contributions to the pension and health and welfare funds.

Rubber. The initial settlement in the 1967 round of bargaining in the rubber industry was concluded on July 13, when the General Tire and Rubber Co. and the Rubber Workers agreed on a 3-year pact that ended a 3-week strike for 3,300 workers at tire plants in Akron, Ohio, and Waco, Tex. Wages were increased 15 cents, with an additional 15 cents effective in 1968, and 13 cents effective in 1969; skilled tradesmen received an additional 10 cents in the first year. Vacations, pension, holidays, and health and welfare benefits were all increased.

Four other major rubber settlements, covering some 72,000 workers, followed in the wake of the General Tire agreement before the month was up. The settlements were preceded by strikes ranging from 12 days at Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co. to 97 days at Uniroyal, Inc. The terms of the agreements were patterned after the General Tire settlement.[7]

Petroleum. In January, the Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers (OCAW) signed 2-year contracts, the first in the industry's history to provide deferred increases, for about two-thirds of the country's 90,000 oil refinery workers. First-year increases followed a previous round of wage adjustments by about 15 months; for a number of years, wages in the petroleum industry had been changed about every 18 to 24 months. Gulf Oil Corp. was the first to come to final terms with the union, when, on January 4, a contract was reached for some 3,100 employees of its Port Arthur, Tex., refinery. Wages were increased 14 cents an hour, with an additional 4 percent 1 year later. Shift differentials, health and welfare benefits, and job security provisions were also improved; additional classification adjustments were provided to about 30 percent of the workers. Some contracts in the industry provided additional changes, but they generally followed the pattern of the OCAW–Gulf Oil Corp. settlement. Among these contracts were those with American Oil Co., Atlantic–Richfield, Inc., Cities Service Oil Co., Mobil Oil Co., Shell Oil Co., Sinclair Oil Co., Standard Oil Co., (Ohio), and Texaco, Inc.[8]

[6] The mileage rate increase effective April 1, 1967, includes the .275-cent-per-mile cost-of-living adjustment due on March 31, 1967, under the previous contract, and the hourly rate increase includes a similar 11-cent adjustment. (See *Monthly Labor Review,* July 1967, p. 57.)

[7] See *Monthly Labor Review,* September 1967, pp. 69–70.

[8] See *Monthly Labor Review,* March 1967, pp. 57–58.

Railroads. A significant development in the railroad industry was the announcement on September 15 by a five-member Presidential board of its recommendations to end a dispute between six shopcraft unions,[9] representing 137,000 workers, and the Nation's Class I railroads. The Board's recommendations were put into effect, as provided by the July 1967 legislation under which President Johnson appointed the Board, on October 15 since the railroads and the unions had not agreed to other terms by then. The Board proposed a 2-year contract providing a 6-percent general wage increase retroactive to January 1, 1967, a 5-percent general increase effective July 1, 1968, and an additional 20 cents to 100,000 skilled workers, 5 cents on April and October 1 of both 1967 and 1968.[10] A separate vacation agreement between the railroads and the shopcraft unions was negotiated September 27, 1967, and provided 3 weeks of vacation after 10, instead of 15 years of service.

Other significant developments in the railroad industry included:

An agreement reached on January 14 between Class I railroads and negotiating committees for 135,000 members of 4 of the 11 nonoperating railroad brotherhoods.[11]

The 18-month contracts provided 5-percent wage increases on January 1, 2½ percent on January 1, 1968, and 3 weeks of vacation after 10 instead of 15 years of service.[12]

The independent Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers in late May reached agreement with most Class I railroads on a 22½-month contract providing a 6-percent general wage increase retroactive to August 12, 1966, for about 38,000 workers. Additional increases were provided engineers working without firemen, and vacations were improved.[13]

Communications. Although contracts for most workers in the telephone industry were not subject to bargaining in 1967, some of the larger operating companies in the Bell System did reach 3-year agreements early in the year with the Communications Workers. Included were contracts covering employees at Southwestern Bell Telephone Co., New York Telephone Co., and the Long Lines Division of American Telephone and Telegraph Co. Wages generally were increased by $3.50–$8 a week and a variety of benefits were improved. Reopenings on wages were scheduled to take place after 18 months.

Construction. Significant settlements in the construction industry included those between the Carpenters, Laborers, and Bricklayers and the Builders Association of Chicago. In Cleveland, various crafts agreed with the Building Trades Employers Association on pacts providing increases in wages and benefits ranging from $1.50 to $2.30 an hour over 3 years. A 5-year agreement between the Elevator Constructors and the International Elevator Manufacturing Industry, Inc., reached after a 7-week strike, provided for the annual determination of wages and benefits by averaging the rates and benefits of the four highest building trades and crafts in each area. A 3-year settlement between the Bricklayers and four New York City area employer associations provided a $1.25-an-hour package for 26,500 workers.

Other Settlements. Three-year agreements were concluded in late January between the Ladies' Garment Workers and five associations of manufacturers, jobbers, and contractors in the dress industry, covering 80,000 workers in the northeastern part of the country. In March, agreements were reached 6 months prior to the expiration date of existing contracts between Armour and Co. and two unions, the Meat Cutters and the Packinghouse Workers. Similar settlements by other major meatpackers followed. A 3-year contract covering more than 40,000 cannery workers throughout California was negotiated in April by the Teamsters and the California Processors and Growers, Inc. In June, bargaining was completed on contracts covering 38,000 workers in the pulp and paper industry. Throughout the year, settlements concluded in various metalworking industries also affected a sizable number of workers.

Wage Changes Effective in 1967

In addition to the workers affected by settlements concluded during 1967, another 4.5 million

[9] The Machinists, Sheet Metal Workers, Firemen and Oilers, Boilermakers, Electrical Workers (IBEW), and Railway Carmen.

[10] For further details of the award, see *Monthly Labor Review,* November 1967, pp. 43–46, and p. 59.

[11] Brotherhood of Railroad Signalmen, Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees, Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union, and Transportation Communication Employees Union.

[12] See *Monthly Labor Review,* March 1967, p. 59.

[13] See *Monthly Labor Review,* August 1967, p. 68.

workers received wage raises resulting from contracts negotiated in previous years, either in the form of deferred wage increases or cost-of-living adjustments, or a combination of the two.

Among those receiving deferred wage increases during the year were 1 million workers in the construction industry, nearly a half million in primary steel and steel fabrication, over 400,000 in the aerospace industry, about 325,000 in retail and wholesale trade, 275,000 in the manufacture of electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies, and about 150,000 in the food industry.

Altogether, the workers whose pay structure was raised during the year, either as a result of current negotiations or earlier settlements, accounted for 84 percent of the 10.6 million workers under all major collective bargaining agreements. Comparable figures were 83 percent in 1966, 89 percent in 1965, and 77 percent in 1964.

Of the more than 1.6 million workers whose wages were not raised, a majority (940,000) were covered by agreements negotiated prior to 1967 that did not provide for increases during the year. Another 665,000 were employed where bargaining was not completed by the end of the year. A small minority were affected by settlements that did not change wages in the first year of the contract.

This relatively large number of workers who received no wage increase during the year held down the average adjustment for all workers effective in 1967, although the adjustment was the highest recorded in a series that dates back to 1959. The average adjustment effective in 1967 was 4.0 percent—compared with 3.6 percent in 1966, 3.4 percent in 1965, and 2.7 percent in 1964. The average effective increase of 4.8 percent was also the highest recorded—it compared with 4.0 percent in 1966, 3.5 percent in 1965, and 3.2 percent in 1964.

Federal Pay Raise

Although not within the scope of the survey, a significant development during 1967 was legislation providing wage and benefit increases for 5.5 million Federal employees. Signed by President Johnson on December 16, the bills provided 1.3 million classified, white-collar, and 750,000 postal employees increases of 4.5 and 6 percent, respectively, retroactive to the first pay period in October 1967.[14] In addition, effective July 1, 1968, classified employees will receive an increase expected to average about 4.8 percent, and postal workers will receive a 5-percent increase. Scales of both groups will be raised by an undetermined amount on July 1, 1969. A $10,000 minimum coverage for life insurance was adopted for employees earning $8,000 or less a year. The coverage for other employees was increased $2,000, with a maximum benefit being $32,000. The cost of this life insurance is shared. The 800,000 Federal blue-collar employees were not affected by the pay legislation; their wage levels are determined by comparison with those of similar trades in private industry.

The 3.5 million military personnel on active duty received a 5.6-percent increase in base pay, retroactive to October 1. This bill also provided for increases for servicemen on July 1 of 1968 and 1969 to match those for the classified employees in the absence of contrary legislation.

[14] See "Trends in Salaries of Classified Federal Workers," p. 17, this issue.

Trends in Salaries of Classified Federal Workers

ALBERT A. BELMAN*

CONGRESS AND THE PRESIDENT took necessary steps in late 1967 to achieve comparability of salaries in Federal and private employment, a goal set by the Salary Reform Bill of 1962. The remaining salary differential was to be reduced, with some limitations, by one-half in July 1968 and eliminated a year later.

The 1962 act substantially narrowed pay differences between Federal and private salaries, but a disparity remained in the middle and upper grades because of the limit placed on the pay of higher level government employees by the salaries of the members of Congress. The 1964 legislation that raised the salaries of the members of Congress and the Cabinet, and of the subcabinet officials, removed some of the roadblocks to comparability. While the 1965 and 1966 pay acts allowed the differential to widen again for the top grades, the first increase under the 1967 act moved the entire wage structure slightly closer to the comparability standard.

Salary Trends

This study provides three measures of the trend of salaries received by employees under the Federal Classification Act. These are basic salary scales, average salary rates, and average salaries.

Basic salary scales change only when Congress enacts new salary schedules. Thus, the scales index (table 1) did not change between mid-1964 and mid-1965, but rose 6.6 percent in the next year as a result of legislated increases of 3.6 percent in October 1965 and 2.9 percent in July 1966. The 1967 legislation provided an increase of 4.5 percent in October of that year and 4.8 percent in July of 1968. The total rise in basic salary scales between July 1962 and July 1968 will amount to 34 percent.

Even in the absence of changes in pay scales, average pay for a grade can change. It will advance in periods in which relatively few workers are hired or promoted; in such periods, average length of service and, therefore, the average number of instep increases will rise. Conversely, expansion or rapid promotion may increase the number of workers at the entry step and, if scales do not change, may lower average salaries for a grade.

TABLE 1. INDEXES OF BASIC SALARY SCALES, AVERAGE SALARY RATES, AND AVERAGE SALARIES[1] OF FEDERAL CLASSIFIED EMPLOYEES COVERED BY THE GENERAL SCHEDULE,[2] 1939 AND 1945–67 [3]

Date	Basic salary scales	Average salary rates	Average salaries
August 1939	52.3	49.5	40.4
June 30, 1945	52.4	[4] 49.5	(5)
July 1, 1946	69.0	64.8	55.0
July 1, 1947	69.0	66.0	58.2
July 15, 1948	76.2	73.9	64.8
July 1, 1949	76.2	74.2	65.7
July 1, 1950	79.3	78.1	70.6
July 8, 1951	87.1	84.8	75.8
July 1, 1952	87.1	84.9	77.4
July 1, 1953	87.1	85.7	79.4
July 1, 1954	87.1	86.4	81.0
July 1, 1955 [2]	93.7	93.2	88.2
July 1, 1956	93.7	93.1	89.2
July 1, 1957	93.7	93.2	91.1
July 1, 1958	103.2	103.5	103.5
July 1, 1959	103.2	103.5	105.4
July 1, 1960 [3]	111.1	[6] 111.0	115.4
July 1, 1961	111.1	[6] 110.8	116.8
July 1, 1962	111.1	[6] 110.7	[6] 118.2
July 1, 1963	117.3	[6] 117.0	[6] 127.8
July 1, 1964	[6] 127.5	[6] 128.0	[6] 142.6
July 1, 1965	127.5	128.8	144.5
July 1, 1966	135.9	137.4	152.4
October 1, 1967	[7] 142.0	[7] 143.4	[7] 159.3
July 1, 1968	[7] 148.8	(8)	(8)

[1] Basic salary scales reflect only statutory changes in salaries. Average salary rates show statutory changes and the effect of merit or in-grade salary increases. Average salaries measure the effect not only of statutory changes in basic pay scales and in-grade salary increases, but also changes in the proportion of workers in the various grades.

[2] Data for the General Schedule and Crafts, Protective, and Custodial Schedule employees have been incorporated into a single index. Since July 1, 1955, the General Schedule has covered all employees under Classification Act. At that time about one-third of the approximately 100,000 employees formerly covered by the Crafts, Protective, and Custodial Schedule were transferred to the General Schedule; the remaining two-thirds were transferred to wage-board classifications, along with approximately 2,500 workers formerly under the General Schedule. There were only minor differences among the indexes in the years prior to 1955.

[3] Beginning with 1960, data include employees in Alaska and Hawaii. Inclusion of these employees did not affect basic salary scales; average salary rates and average salaries were affected by negligible amounts.

[4] Estimated by assuming the same distribution of employees among grades and steps within grades in 1945 as in 1939. Since there was little or no increase in average salary rates because of in-grade increases during this period, it was assumed that the change in basic salary scales was almost the same as in average salary rates.

[5] Not available.

[6] Revised.

[7] Based on July 1967 employment distributions.

[8] Since the levels of these indexes are influenced by changes in the numbers of employees in the various steps and grades at the time of the increase it is not possible to compute the July 1968 levels at this time.

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TABLE 2. PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF GENERAL SCHEDULE EMPLOYEES BY GRADE, SELECTED PERIODS, 1939–67

General schedule grade	August 1939	July 1, 1946	July 1, 1950	July 8, 1951	July 1, 1957	July 1, 1958	July 10, 1960 [1]	July 1, 1961	July 1, 1962	July 1, 1963	July 1, 1964	July 1, 1965	July 1, 1966	July 1967
Number of employees	234, 067	893, 653	701, 824	885, 925	864, 126	921, 153	953, 995	988, 241	1, 039, 224	1, 083, 633	1, 071, 118	1, 092, 805	1, 167, 215	1, 227, 587
Total percent	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
1	13.1	2.5	1.8	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3
2	18.1	19.3	14.5	16.6	7.2	5.8	4.1	3.5	3.4	2.7	2.6	2.9	4.9	4.5
3	14.7	22.8	20.6	21.8	20.8	19.5	16.7	15.7	15.1	13.7	12.4	12.1	12.3	12.6
4	11.5	13.6	14.8	13.9	16.8	16.9	16.8	16.8	16.6	16.3	15.7	15.3	14.5	14.6
5 and 6	17.2	13.9	14.8	14.5	15.7	15.7	16.7	17.1	17.0	17.1	17.0	16.9	16.9	17.1
7 and 8	10.4	11.6	12.3	11.7	11.5	11.6	11.5	11.5	11.1	11.1	10.6	10.3	10.1	10.2
9 and 10	6.8	7.6	9.2	8.7	10.6	11.3	11.7	11.7	12.1	12.5	13.2	13.0	12.3	12.0
11	3.8	4.0	5.1	4.8	6.9	7.6	8.7	9.2	9.1	9.8	10.4	10.8	10.5	10.2
12 and 13	3.9	4.0	5.8	5.4	8.0	8.9	10.6	11.1	11.8	12.7	13.5	14.0	13.9	14.0
14 and 15	.5	.7	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.2	2.8	2.9	3.3	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.1
16 through 18			[2]	[2]	.1	.1	.2	.2	.2	.3	.3	.4	.3	.4

[1] Beginning in 1960, data include employees in Alaska and Hawaii.
[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

NOTE: Because of rounding, totals may not equal 100.

Normally, the effects of shifts in employment by step within a grade are small compared with the effects of legislative increases. Over the entire period from July 1962 to July 1967, changes in average length of service raised average salary rates by only about 1.5 percent.[1] In 1964, 1965, and 1966, there was a net increase in employment above the fourth step of a number of grades, while in 1967 the proportion of employees below step 5 declined slightly. The increase was greatest between mid-1964 and mid-1965, when there was no legislative change in pay but average rates rose by 0.6 percent.

The movement of average salaries is influenced by the two factors already described as well as by changes in the proportion of employees in individual grades. From the mid-1940's there has been a constant increase in the proportion of employees in the middle and upper pay levels (table 2). Only between July 1965 and July 1966 were proportionately more employees hired at the lower rungs of the scale.[2] Prior to 1962, when legislated increases in pay lagged far behind changes in private industry, there was a tendency to liberalize classification of jobs in order to maintain some degree of competition with private industry. During that period, and afterward, other changes in grade levels have reflected changes in the types of jobs in the Federal service. The proportion of professional workers has risen while employment in routine clerical jobs has declined. In 1965 and 1966, however, employment in grades 1 and 2 almost doubled as the need for routine clerical operations under the Medicare and poverty programs [3] and for some seasonal activities increased. Even after these changes, the two grades each accounted for fewer workers than any other grade except grades 8 and 10, which have traditionally been limited to a relatively small number of administrative assistants, and grades 14–18.

The differing approach to maintaining the purchasing power of Federal white-collar workers before and after July 1962 reduced the upward drift of average salaries in the latter period. From 1953 and 1957 to 1962, changes in salary structure increased average salaries at an annual rate of about 2 percent; since 1962, this measure of trend has increased only 1 percent a year.

Average salaries rose about 7 percent from July 1962 to October 1967, simply as a result of changes in grade structure. There was a greater increase in employment in grades 9 and above than in the lower ones in 1965 and 1967 but a reversal of this trend in 1966. The 1965 change raised the average salaries by about 0.7 percent; combined with the rise in the average step within a grade, this change in grade structure increased average salaries by 1.3 percent. The decline in the average grade level in 1966 resulted in average salaries rising less than legislated pay scales—5.5 percent as compared with 6.6 percent. In 1967, the increase in the proportion of workers in the higher

[1] Information on the number of workers by step and grade is available only for July of each year; hence, it is not possible to predict the increase in average salary rates or in average salaries to July 1968.

[2] Absolute employment in the upper grades increased slightly; for grades 13–18, 5,800 from July 1964 to July 1965, by 6,000 in the succeeding year, and by almost 8,000 in 1967. In grades 1–6 employment rose 5,300 between July 1964 and July 1965, 53,500 to July 1966, and by 23,300 to 1967.

[3] In the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare the proportion of employment at the grade 2 level increased from 4.7 percent in 1965 to 7.2 percent in 1966.

grades offset a slight decline in average salary rates caused by a decline in average length of service within a grade.

Variation Among Grades

Establishment of the principle of comparability between government and private salaries by the 1962 law has resulted in much larger salary increases for top than for lower level grades. Between July 1962 and October 1967, increases in minimum salaries ranged from 17 percent in grade 2 to 46 percent in grade 18, despite the limitations on attaining comparability for the higher paid jobs. Until 1964, as mentioned above, the pay of the members of Congress effectively constituted a ceiling on salaries in the top of the structure. While congressional salaries were substantially increased in that year, the disparity between private industry and the Government was so large for the top grades that legislation did not eliminate it entirely until provision was made in 1967 to do so.

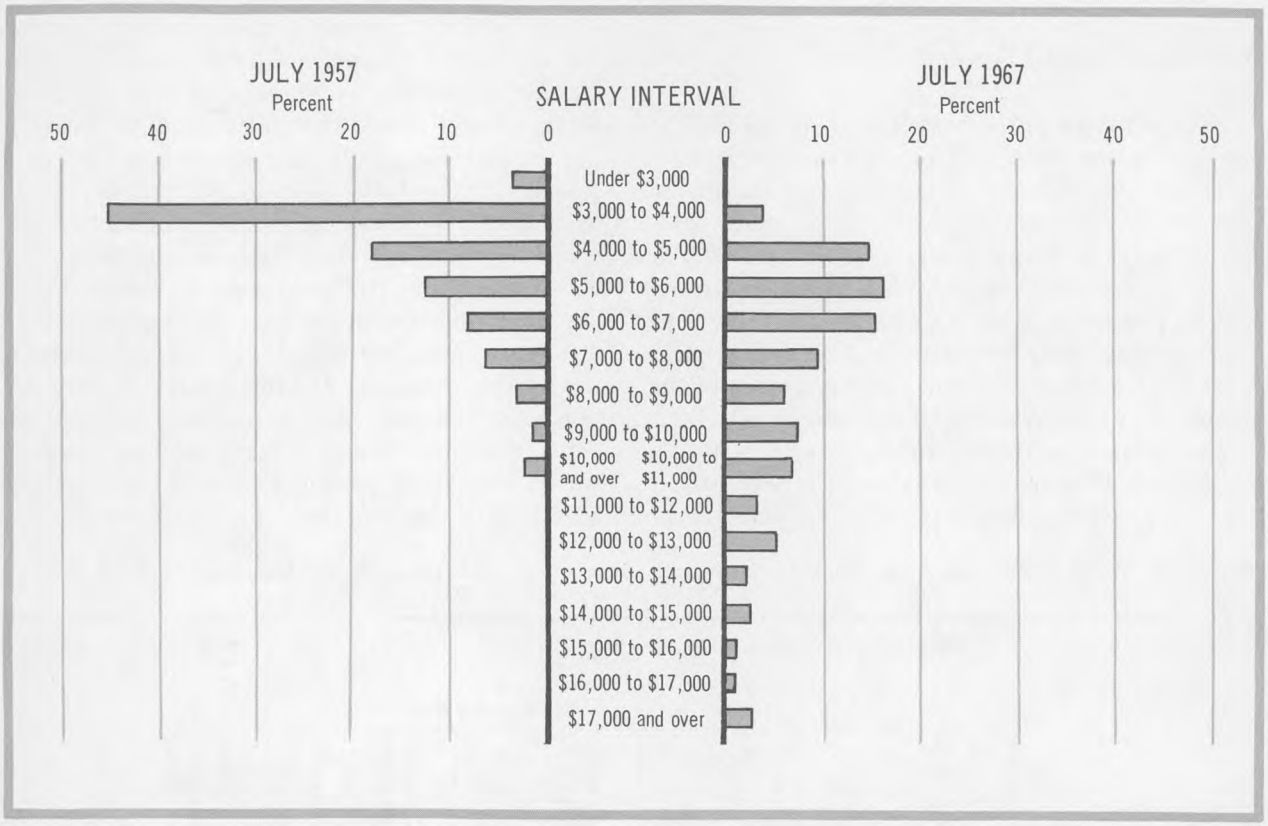
The 1967 act limited the provision for eliminating one-half of the private-public salary differential by July 1968 by specifying that no career salary should exceed that for level 5 ($28,000) in the executive schedule. The increase in minimum salaries from July 1962 to July 1968 ranged from about 20 percent in grade 1 to about 60 percent in grade 17. In July 1968, basic scales in step 4 of each grade (the step used to match pay in the Government with private industry) will rise by 3 to 8.8 percent, with the higher grades receiving the larger increases. Minimum salaries will advance by 3 to more than 10 percent (table 3). Because grades 1 through 5 have reached comparability, they will receive the minimum increase specified in the 1967 law. The largest rise (10.4

TABLE 3. MINIMUM SALARIES[1] OF FEDERAL CLASSIFIED EMPLOYEES AND PERCENTAGE INCREASE TO JULY 1968, BY GRADE, SELECTED DATES, 1939–68

General schedule grade	August 1939	July 1, 1950	July 1, 1957	July 10, 1960	July 1, 1962	July 1, 1963	July 5, 1964	July 1, 1965	July 3, 1966	October 1967	July 1968
	Minimum salary rates										
1	[2] $1,180	$2,200	$2,690	$3,185	$3,185	$3,245	$3,385	$3,385	$3,609	$3,776	$3,889
2	1,440	2,450	2,960	3,500	3,500	3,560	3,680	3,680	3,925	4,108	4,231
3	1,620	2,650	3,175	3,760	3,760	3,820	4,005	4,005	4,269	4,466	4,600
4	1,800	2,875	3,415	4,040	4,040	4,110	4,480	4,480	4,776	4,995	5,145
5	2,000	3,100	3,670	4,345	4,345	4,565	5,000	5,000	5,331	5,565	5,732
6	2,300	3,450	4,080	4,830	4,830	5,035	5,505	5,505	5,867	6,137	6,321
7	2,600	3,825	4,525	5,355	5,355	5,540	6,050	6,050	6,451	6,734	6,981
8	2,900	4,200	4,970	5,885	5,885	6,090	6,630	6,630	7,068	7,384	7,699
9	3,200	4,600	5,440	6,435	6,435	6,675	7,220	7,220	7,696	8,054	8,462
10	3,500	5,000	5,915	6,995	6,995	7,290	7,900	7,900	8,421	8,821	9,297
11	3,800	5,400	6,390	7,560	7,560	8,045	8,650	8,650	9,221	9,657	10,203
12	4,600	6,400	7,570	8,955	8,955	9,475	10,250	10,250	10,927	11,461	12,174
13	5,600	7,600	8,990	10,635	10,365	11,150	12,075	12,075	12,873	13,507	14,409
14	6,500	8,800	10,320	12,210	12,210	12,845	14,170	14,170	15,106	15,841	16,946
15	8,000	10,000	11,610	13,730	13,730	14,565	16,460	16,460	17,550	18,404	19,780
16	[3]	11,200	12,900	15,255	15,255	16,000	18,935	18,935	20,075	20,982	22,835
17	[3]	12,200	13,975	16,530	16,530	18,000	21,445	21,445	22,760	23,788	26,264
18	[3]	14,000	16,000	18,500	18,500	20,000	24,500	24,500	25,890	27,055	28,000
	Percentage increase to July 1968										
1	229.6	76.8	44.6	22.1	22.1	19.8	14.9	14.9	7.8	3.0	
2	193.8	72.7	42.9	20.9	20.9	18.8	15.0	15.0	7.8	3.0	
3	184.0	73.6	44.9	22.3	22.3	20.4	14.9	14.9	7.8	3.0	
4	185.8	79.0	50.7	27.4	27.4	25.2	14.8	14.8	7.7	3.0	
5	186.6	84.9	56.2	31.9	31.9	25.6	14.6	14.6	7.5	3.0	
6	174.8	83.2	54.9	30.9	30.9	25.5	14.8	14.8	7.7	3.0	
7	168.5	82.5	54.3	30.4	30.4	26.0	15.4	15.4	8.2	3.7	
8	165.5	83.3	54.9	30.8	30.8	26.4	16.1	16.1	8.9	4.3	
9	164.4	84.0	55.6	31.5	31.5	26.8	17.2	17.2	10.0	5.1	
10	165.6	85.9	57.2	32.9	32.9	27.5	17.7	17.7	10.4	5.4	
11	168.5	88.9	59.7	35.0	35.0	26.8	18.0	18.0	10.6	5.7	
12	164.7	90.2	60.8	35.9	35.9	28.5	18.8	18.8	11.4	6.2	
13	157.3	89.6	60.3	35.5	35.5	29.2	19.3	19.3	11.9	6.7	
14	160.7	92.6	64.2	38.8	38.8	31.9	19.6	19.6	12.2	7.0	
15	147.3	97.8	70.4	44.1	44.1	35.8	20.2	20.2	12.7	7.5	
16	[3]	103.9	77.0	49.7	49.7	42.7	20.6	20.6	13.7	8.8	
17	[3]	115.3	87.9	58.9	58.9	45.9	22.5	22.5	15.4	10.4	
18	[3]	100.0	75.0	51.4	51.4	40.0	14.3	14.3	8.1	3.5	

[1] Minimum salaries are the salaries paid at the first step in each grade.
[2] The minimum was computed by weighting equally the base pay for each of the three grades (subprofessional grades 1 and 2 and clerical, administrative, and fiscal grade 1) that were combined into this General Schedule grade.
[3] Grades 16, 17, and 18 were created by the Classification Act of 1949.

Distribution of Federal Classification Act Employees by Annual Salary Interval, July 1957 and 1967



percent) will be in minimum rates for grade 17. The grade 18 salary will advance only 3.5 percent—to the statutory ceiling; salaries in steps 8 and 9 of grade 16, and 3, 4, and 5 of grade 17 will also reach the statutory maximum.

Average salaries for most grades have increased more since 1962 than minimum salaries, in part because the 1962 law provided for widening the increments among steps within a grade and in part because of increases in average length of service within a grade. There have been exceptions, however. In some grades, a relatively large increase in employment in 1966 offset part of the increase in scales so that average salaries advanced less than minimum salaries. Between July 1964 and July 1966 the average salary of grade 1 declined by $2 as the number of workers in that grade almost doubled and their proportion at the entry rate rose from slightly under one-half to almost four-fifths.

The pay disparity for employees at the upper end of the pay scale had developed over a number of decades. Prior to 1956, Government increases were often relatively larger for employees at the lower end of the salary scale. In 1945, for example, salaries were increased by 20 percent of the first $1,200, 10 percent of the next $3,400, and 5 percent of the remainder, with a ceiling of $10,000. The act of October 21, 1951, provided a general 10-percent increase with a minimum of $300 and a maximum of $800. Beginning in 1956 pay legislation provided either uniform percentage adjustments or larger dollar increments in higher grades. These increases prevented further compression of pay scales but with larger pay increases in private industry than in Government, the gap between the two sectors continued to grow.

The net effect of salary legislation and of changes in the occupational structure of the Federal service on the distribution of employees by

TABLE 4. PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN SALARIES OF FEDERAL CLASSIFIED EMPLOYEES AND OTHER SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, AND IN THE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX, SELECTED DATES, 1939–67

Occupational group	Percentage change to October 1967 from—			
	August 1939	July 1957	July 1962	July 1966
Federal classified employees:[1]				
Basic salary scales	171.5	51.5	27.8	4.5
Average salary rates	189.7	53.9	29.5	4.4
Average salaries	294.3	74.9	34.8	4.5
Factory production workers:				
Average weekly earnings	382.2	39.5	18.1	2.2
Average hourly earnings excluding overtime	323.9	31.7	13.9	1.2
Office clerical workers (straight-time weekly earnings)[2]	(3)	(3)	20.0	4.8
Salaried workers in private industry (average monthly salaries):[4]				
Accountants	(3)	(3)	20.7	5.8
Attorneys	(3)	(3)	21.8	4.0
Chemists	(3)	(3)	23.2	5.5
Engineers	(3)	(3)	21.2	5.4
Clerical	(3)	(3)	18.1	6.1
Median wage adjustment in major collective bargaining situations[5]	(3)	(3)	17.8	4.3
Consumer Price Index	143.5	18.9	11.0	3.4

[1] Definitions of the 3 measures of salary change are provided in footnote 1, table 1.
[2] Data for 1966 and 1967 relate to 25 Standard Metropolitan Areas in the United States as established by the Bureau of the Budget through 1961. Data for 1962–67 relate to 21 areas. Data were included in surveys made in the second half of 1962, 1966, and 1967.
[3] Not available.
[4] Data were included in the "National Survey of Professional, Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Pay" surveys made in the winter, 1962 and 1966, and in the summer of 1967.
[5] Median adjustments effective in 1962, 1966, and 1967 include the following types of wage actions: No wage changes, decreases in wages, and increases in wages.

salary level in July 1957 and July 1967 is presented in the chart. The changes in scales effective in October 1967 and July 1968 will not affect the distribution substantially from that presented for July 1967, except for shifting almost all of the workers earning $3,000 but less than $4,000 to the next interval.

Comparative Trends

Because of enactment of the comparability principle, pay increases of employees covered by the Classification Act have been proportionately larger than those received by workers in private industry over the past decade, particularly since 1962. Since that year, five salary acts with six increases have increased all measures of Federal pay significantly more than earnings of the groups of workers shown in table 4. Federal salaries increased about three times as fast as the Consumer Price Index (CPI) from July 1962 to October 1967. Since July 1966, all measures of Federal white-collar salaries have advanced faster than the earnings of factory workers and the CPI but not as fast as did salaries of professional and clerical workers in the private sector.

Gains in real yearly earnings (money earnings adjusted for price changes) have been sharp and unremitting in this country since before World War II. In little more than two and a half decades, white male wage earners have increased their median annual wage income by 2½ times—from $2,600 in 1939 to $6,500 in 1966. White women workers nearly doubled their incomes—from $1,580 to $3,100—during the same period. For nonwhite men the dollar gain was far less—from $1,050 to $3,850—though their relative position improved substantially. And the same general findings apply to nonwhite women, whose average earnings went from $575 to $2,000.

These long-term gains reflect the ending of the great depression of the 1930's, the impact of World War II in stimulating employment, and postwar economic growth and rising wage levels. Moreover, the trend in earnings has continued strongly upward in recent years.

—From *Manpower Report of the President* Transmitted to the Congress April 1968.

Papers From the IRRA Spring Meeting

EDITOR'S NOTE.—*The following articles are excerpted from two of the papers delivered at the annual spring meeting of the Industrial Relations Research Association held in Columbus, Ohio, May 2 and 3. Copies of the proceedings of the meeting may be obtained in September from the Association's office, Social Science Building, The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. 53706.*

Joint Negotiation, a Match of Bargaining Power

GEORGE H. HILDEBRAND*

BARGAINING SYSTEMS are a response to the environment in which they function. If by reason of changed conditions or of inadequacy relative to the parties' . . . purposes, a given system is perceived by one or both sides to be an inappropriate mechanism, pressure will develop to bring about a more effective arrangement. . . . I view coordinated bargaining as an attempt by unions to alter certain existing bargaining systems primarily to increase their bargaining power, that is, their ability to extract more concessions from the employers.

I now venture the . . . general proposition [that] the effort to introduce coordinated bargaining is an admission of union weakness under the systems hitherto prevailing. The common employer view that coordination is a bid for more union power is correct; but the source lies more in weakness than in existing strength.

To Match Bargaining Power

Consider now some of the types of bargaining weakness which coordination seeks to overcome. First, two or even three internationals having parallel jurisdictions may deal with different plants in a given industry, some of them belonging to the same employer. This is the situation in aluminum, meatpacking, farm implements, and—until very recently—domestic copper. Absent coordination, differential wage settlements will be the rule, which will widen differences between high- and low-cost plants, with ensuing employment and bargaining disadvantages for certain locals.

Second, a given corporate giant with multiple plant operations may have some plants organized by one international, others by another, and perhaps others without any union, and these plants may be substitutes for one another as regards product lines. Collaterally, the company may also enjoy . . . other advantages—local plant contracts with divergent expiration dates. If there is no coordination between the unions, strikes by either one will be incomplete and largely ineffective. . . .

Third, the corporate conglomerate can be an independent source of union weakness, particularly when it is the product of recent mergers. Product diversity involves different technologies and different skill mixes. Thus there is a strong likelihood of multiple unionism, with different organizations involved according to particular plant and product line. In consequence, any long-established conglomerate is likely to have a plant-by-plant local bargaining system. Such fragmentation and decentralization make it extremely difficult to mount effective strikes. . . . In military parlance, the conglomerate corporation can fight on interior lines against a diverse set of weak opponents, each acting independently and, hence, vulnerable to divide-and-conquer strategies. . . .

. . . Large concerns typically now involve one or more of the following characteristics: Multiple

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plants, vertical integration, horizontal integration, and conglomerate production. Typically, local negotiations prevail in these contexts. The recent wave of corporate mergers has increased the incidence of these situations. Thus we have here a special kind of environment for bargaining, while mergers are converting old environments to this same type. This, then, is the challenge to which coordinated bargaining is the response. To match business bargaining power, the unions are seeking increased power for themselves, by centralizing the ambient of negotiations. To do so, they must sacrifice the tradition of local negotiations and organizational autonomy, a price that they seem quite willing to pay.

Importance of Being Unimportant

I propose now to examine some other aspects of coordinated bargaining. Such groupings seem easiest to form and to maintain when the problem is simply one of getting two parallel industrial unions to concert their negotiating activities. The reason is that both organizations have strong interests in common. . . . The difficulties become much greater when the attempt involves an industrial union together with a diverse collection of craft organizations. The fact that the employees jointly represented by the participating organizations are all wage workers does not mean that these employees share a set of economic interests in common. . . . Marshall's principle that a well-situated small skilled craft can achieve a relative wage advantage if it exploits "the importance of being unimportant" can still hold. [Under a coalition] the tendency will be strong to seek flat general increases; compression of the structure will begin, and at some point breakaway tendencies by the skilled groups will assert themselves. . . .

Furthermore, even wage rates conveniently can come under this logic when questions of level take precedence over those of structure, as in times of inflation. In such cases, flat general increases make sense to employees of all . . . kinds. But here are contained the latent centrifugal forces that could ultimately disrupt the coalition. For if such increases are the continuing response to persistent inflation, the squeezing effects upon skill differentials will make it necessary for one or more crafts either to obtain special concessions or to break away and go it alone. By contrast, if the inflation is eventually halted, questions of wage structure will come back into prominence. At that point it will become extremely difficult to hold the coalition together, and centrifugal forces could well take over.

Diverse coalitions with many participating organizations contain another threat to their stability, deriving from the complex pattern of separate interests involved. Coalition can be preserved only at the price of including these interests. If it is possible to compel a large employer to shift from fractional to central bargaining on a companywide level, it seems inevitable that the agenda for such bargaining will be made lengthy and complex, and that a lower tier of complicated plant-by-plant bargaining will become mandatory, simply to accommodate the interests of the diverse locals involved. Much of the malaise, including severe inflationary potential, of British collective bargaining seems to have emerged from a variant of this double-decker system, which may be a portent for this country as well.

Strike Effectiveness

Because one of the basic purposes of any form of coordination is to increase negotiating strength by enlarging strike effectiveness, a difficult question becomes posed, will [coordination] increase the potential for long and costly strikes?

The question permits an equivocal answer. Experience at Union Carbide and in copper suggests the affirmative, but obviously is not conclusive. Pointing in the contrary direction is the case of city newspapers, where uncoordinated fractional bargaining for years has produced uneconomic demands, leapfrogging by rival organizations, extremist strategies, long strikes, and the demise of several dailies. Coalition brought about extreme demands and a long and very difficult strike in copper. Lack of coalition has had the same result for newspapers. If there is a moral to all this, I cannot say what it is.

[On the reasoning that] continued success under coordination might well promote mergers of internationals as a simpler and more durable surrogate for cooperative activity, . . . the conglomerate case would seem to be the most difficult from the standpoint of putting a coalition together and

of keeping it intact. Such concerns usually are spread over several industries and therefore are in none. Because their product lines and technologies are diverse, they are likely to have a large and mixed collection of locals, affiliated with several different national unions, or in some cases with none. After coordination is achieved, to which international unions will these locals gravitate? No single product-oriented union may be able to pull them together, while continuing cooperation among internationals will be difficult. As Herbert Lahne has suggested, if coordination can be made to work, its focal point will have to be the conglomerate enterprise itself. The fascinating possibility then arises that this turning inwards of the interests of these diverse locals might ultimately lead them to combine in a new organizational form, an American version of Japanese "enterprise unionism." If so, we would witness a major deviation from the traditional trend toward national union affiliation, a displacement initially invoked by a shift in the environment within which a given bargaining structure functions, to which coordinated bargaining is the initial response, and a change in organizational forms as its ultimate consummation.

In any case, the phenomenon of coordination itself would seem to sustain the general thesis that bargaining arrangements, as with any human institutions, are created to deal with given problems and needs. As those problems and needs undergo change, the arrangements must adapt successfully if they are to survive.

Racial Differences in Job Search and Wages

ALICE HANDSAKER KIDDER*

RECENT UPHEAVALS in urban areas of the United States have shifted attention from the broad issue of employment discrimination per se to emergency programs of job-creation for the "hard-core" unemployed. Some thought, however, must be given to the continuing if less spectacular inequities based on race at all occupational levels. The fact that black professionals and hard-core unemployed live side by side raises the possibility of a demonstration effect. An increase in well-being of professional nonwhites through improved relative incomes can have an immediate impact on the poverty group. . . .

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[1] Comparative data were drawn from matched samples of 200 black and 144 white labor force members in Boston, Mass. Sample members were interviewed in 1965–66, when the overall unemployment rate in the Boston SMSA ranged from 4.0 to 3.6 percent. The universe for each racial group consisted of individuals between the ages of 20 and 50 who lived within the core city area. Black sample members were drawn at random from census tracts 50 percent or more nonwhite. Using figures for median educational attainment and distance from downtown Boston, matched white census tracts were selected and a random sample interviewed. The median income for tracts in the black community ranged from $2,700 to $5,500, compared with a range of $3,500 to $6,000 for white tracts. . . .

Researchers have thus far paid little attention to the possibility that racial differences in job search may play a role in the unequal distribution of job opportunities. This paper attempts to compare patterns of job search by race, assessing the contribution of this factor to racial wage differentials. The study of job search, furthermore, sheds light on the mechanism of job discrimination.[1]

Discrimination and Job Search

Despite a standardization of educational attainment, the two racial samples were separated by a wage differential of approximately 60 cents an hour. Further, productivity factors accounted for only about a third of the racial difference in wages. A racial wage differential of 40 cents an hour remained after standardization, through regression techniques for differences in educational level, training, age, sex, unionization, and length of time on job.

Whereas the results of discrimination showed in wage inequalities, experience with job discrimination was reported by only a small minority of the black sample. Less than 10 percent could give the details of such experience within the last 10 years. . . . Although a majority failed to encounter discrimination, the apparent wage effects

of discrimination were present for most black respondents.

It therefore appears probable that Negroes understand the social patterns of discriminatory employment, and place self-imposed restrictions on job search. Although few black respondents had encountered job bias directly, anticipation that discrimination would occur if one attempted to break into white job categories was widespread. . . . Only 20 percent of the black respondents did not anticipate discrimination . . . [when] qualifications [were] equal to those of white applicants, across skill levels. Many who had never experienced discrimination ranked in the highest quartile of intensity in anticipating discrimination. . . .[2]

Race and Job Search Success

This survey suggests that the black worker searches more intensively for a job and suffers higher rejection rates than does his white counterpart. . . . Fifty-eight percent of the whites interviewed, as opposed to only 35 percent of the blacks, claimed they had never been turned down for a job. The apparently higher rejection rate for black workers may reflect differences in preparation. It does not reflect a higher proportion of unskilled workers in the black sample, since racial differences in turndown rates appear at all skill levels. As a corollary to this point, the black worker typically engages in more intensive job search. Sixty percent of the black sample reported making more than three attempts on an average job hunt. Only 31 percent of the whites made such a statement. . . .

Integrative search by occupation obtained if the respondent at any time in the last 10 years had applied . . . for a job in an occupation in which Negroes were substantially under-represented in the experienced civilian labor force. Integrative search by geographic area describes search in any part of the Greater Boston area, except in sections occupied principally by Negroes or in areas immediately contiguous to those communities (Roxbury, South End, downtown Boston, Back Bay, Brookline, South Boston, and Jamaica Plain).

. . . Sixty-four percent of the Negro sample had always applied for "Negro" jobs as the categories "nonintegrative" and "geographically integrative only" combine to show. There are many women, for example, who serve as domestic help, and have never applied for anything else. Others have always been janitors or caretakers. Some shunt back and forth between cook and laborer jobs, stockroom help or car washers. For the majority in this sample, then, there is a time-worn path followed without any attempt to exit into the world of "white" jobs.

The reluctance to pursue occupationally integrative job search does not simply result from the fact that many "white" jobs lie in the suburbs. Interview data show that there is no greater tendency for whites living in the center city to apply for jobs on the periphery. Thirty-eight percent of the Negroes and 28 percent of the whites have at one time or another in their careers applied for jobs in the suburban belt. The fact that Negroes have a geographically extensive job search relative to whites weakens the commonly held belief that Negroes, as relative newcomers to the Boston job market, are not as aware of the location of high-paying jobs as are whites. In fact, in a direct test of knowledge of the job market, a majority of the Negro sample stated that wages would be higher in the suburbs than in downtown Boston.

. . . Black workers accomplish their geographically integrative job search despite a substantially lower rate of car ownership. . . . Relatively more Negroes than whites rode to work in car pools, compensating somewhat for the lack of private and public forms of transportation. Nonetheless, the total proportion traveling to work in cars is substantially higher among whites. Although poor transportation facilities must be considered, survey results show that it is not the prime reason for self-limitation of job search.

Sources of Job Information

. . . Negroes turn to formal sources of job information more frequently than do whites. The Massachusetts State Employment Service was used proportionately more by Negroes, and this was true at all occupational levels except among pro-

[2] Anticipation of discrimination, and intensity of anticipation, were measured on a scale which contrasted relative chances for equally qualified Negro and white applicants competing for similar jobs. The question was asked for various skill levels. Intensity was measured by the average relative difference in chances that was perceived, based on race; each occupation had equal weight.

fessionals. . . . Ninety-two percent of the Negro craftsmen had at one time or another used the State employment service, only about a third of the white craftsmen had done so. The corresponding figures for laborers, 57 percent versus 29 percent, reinforce this conclusion. . . .

A legal requirement that all vacancies be registered with the State employment service would, if these conclusions are correct, aid the Negro in his efforts at job search. A large portion of the black work force uses the public employment service. Yet . . . in some cities few job vacancies, particularly in high-paying ranges, are ever listed with the employment service. It appears that the informal job information system outside the reach of the public agencies perpetuates the unequal distribution of high wage jobs by race.

The private commercial employment agency provides an alternative source of job information. Thirty-two percent of the Negro sample and 19 percent of the white sample reported that they had used private employment agencies. Over one-third of the Negro users found these agencies "very expensive." There seems to be some advantage to this source of job information, however. About half of Negro users rated the speed of acquiring a job through a private agency "very quick." Lower wages of Negroes cannot, therefore, be attributed primarily to a relative unwillingness to use more expensive sources of job market information.

Since Negroes are more willing than whites to use formal organizations, there has been little difficulty in developing a roster of Negro unemployed in organizations specifically designed to aid the Negro in his job search. For example, within 16 months of its opening, Jobs Clearing House [a nonprofit organization in Boston] had registered 3,500 Negro jobseekers, of whom 80 percent were unemployed at the time of registration.

Given the existence of discrimination in the Boston job market, both races may be using optimal job search techniques. Whites who rely more on informal sources have higher wages than do whites who use formal sources. The opposite is true for the black work force. . . . The problem involves different initial conditions between the races. Whites, with friends in a variety of potential jobs, benefit from informal contacts. Negroes, perforce, require more formal help to overcome their initial disadvantage based on the historical distribution of jobs by race.

Discrimination in Job Search

The experience of those few Negroes who do venture beyond past patterns confirms to the black community the existence of potential job market discrimination. About half the Negro applicants who make an attempt at integrative job search finish the hunt unsuccessfully. Their chances of success are markedly inferior to those of whites, even where qualifications are largely standardized. On occupationally integrative job search, Negroes average a little better than half the white rate of success, 45 percent as opposed to 81 percent.

Let us restate briefly the results and their implications. Those black workers who do venture beyond well-worn paths of job search do indeed encounter discrimination. But few individuals even attempt such a venture. Anticipation of discrimination, based on a rational appreciation of actual patterns of Negro employment in industries, effectively circumscribes the search of the majority of Negroes. Liberal hopes for an effective attack on job bias through fair employment practice commissions must be frustrated in such a situation as long as prosecution, or even investigation, requires reasonable evidence of discrimination encountered. A more effective role for such bodies would include the power to initiate investigations where statistics by industry show an apparent pattern of discriminatory hiring.

Representation of Classroom Teachers

Two Case Studies in the Selection of Bargaining Representatives for Michigan Teacher Groups

CHARLES T. SCHMIDT, Jr.*

WITH THE ENACTMENT of Michigan's public employment collective bargaining legislation in July of 1965,[1] the stage was set for the contest to determine which organizations (if any) would represent classroom teachers, and how this representation would be apportioned among a variety of possible bargaining units.

Characteristics, positions, and strategies of the contesting organizations have been reasonably well determined, and the statewide results of bargaining unit determinations and representation drives have been examined and quantified in other research. But necessary and important as these statistics are to obtain a meaningful view of the total unit determination and representation activity, to judge the scope and relative success of each of the major organizations involved, they do not present the total nature of the dynamics of the representation drive by the employee organizations.

For this view, two case studies are presented involving specific teacher organizations and their attempts to gain representation.

CASE STUDY—DETROIT

Following World War II, Detroit's teachers found themselves in virtually the same position as were their counterparts after World War I, with average salaries lagging behind those in private industry. Unions were vigorously seeking and receiving higher wages for their members, consumer demands were high, and industrial profits soared. The growth in numbers of pupils without an equivalent increase in facilities found the school system woefully inadequate in size and often in quality. Suburban school systems drew off many city teachers, and the postwar shift of rural minority groups to urban ghettos was emphasized by the frequent requests of senior teachers to transfer out of the core, center-city schools.

When New York City's United Federation of Teachers began an active drive for exclusive representation, union officials in Detroit made a careful analysis of the process. Heartened by the success of the UFT drive in New York, the Detroit Federation of Teachers (DFT) decided to seek exclusive bargaining rights for Detroit teachers, and a campaign to this purpose was initiated early in 1963. This concept and effort were resisted by both the Detroit Board of Education and the Detroit Education Association (DEA), rival of the DFT.

Detroit at that time faced a financial crisis and scheduled an election to increase its property tax millage. The April 1963 millage campaign defi-

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[1] Section 15 of the Public Employment Relations Act provides for collective bargaining between a public employer and the representatives of its employees. This representative must be chosen by a majority of the employees in an appropriate unit. He may be granted recognition voluntarily by the employer, or he may be elected by a majority of employees in a designated unit.

For a fuller treatment of the provisions of the act and the representation procedures of the Michigan Labor Mediation Board, see Hyman Parker, "The Michigan Public Employment Relations Act and Procedures Under the Act," in Charles T. Schmidt, Jr., et al., *A Guide to Collective Negotiations in Education* (East Lansing, Michigan State University, Social Science research Bureau, 1967), pp. 20–27.

nitely influenced the timing and intensity of the exclusive representation campaign. According to Mary Ellen Riordan, DFT president, the Federation postponed its request for a representation election until after the April vote "because we wanted to place our full resources behind the millage campaign." [2]

The Millage Campaigns

Generally speaking, proposals to finance local schools have been received with much reluctance.[3]

Not until 1957 were the first signs of organized opposition seen in the Detroit area. The most active group was the Detroit Chamber of Commerce, which held the position that it would be better to raise funds through a bond issue than a millage request. The Chamber's campaign was mounted mainly in the last 10 days of the election, and successfully as the proposal was soundly defeated.[4]

Prior to the next proposal, submitted in 1959, the Board of Education began a program of community involvement in school affairs. A Citizens Advisory Committee on School Needs was formed, involving large numbers of citizens of varying economic and social background. Their comprehensive recommendations served as the foundation for the Board's financial proposals. At this time the Detroit community embarked upon the first half of a 10-year program when the voters—presented with a blueprint for a quality educational system—endorsed it by passing a 7.5 millage proposal and a $60 million bond issue for school construction and renovation. No major opposition developed in this election, and organized groups of parents, educators, and union and church members took strong positions in favor of increased financial support. The Detroit Chamber of Commerce did not take a public stand.

During the next 4 years, the Board of Education attempted to make as many of the recommended improvements as possible in curriculum development, personnel, integration, building construction, and other needs specified in the study.

But as the end of the first 5-year program drew near, the schools were confronted by a falling tax base, a recently approved city income tax, increased sales taxes, and rising operating costs. To renew existing millage would not be sufficient to maintain the type of program suggested by the Citizens' Report. The Board requested not only the continuation of the previous 7.5 mills, but an increase of 5.3 mills and a separate $90 million bond issue.

Almost immediately many groups publicly opposed both propositions. Some of the most vocal were homeowners' associations, originally formed to fight neighborhood racial integration, local groups of Negroes who were dissatisfied with the efforts to provide equal opportunities for education and housing, and small groups of retired people.[5] These groups, with the support of small neighborhood newspapers and newsletters in both the white and Negro communities, were successful in defeating both proposals.

At this point, the educational system was faced with financial disaster. The superintendent moved toward austerity by cutting services to extend existing and forthcoming funds: needed additional teachers were not hired, and special services were cut; classes for the first, fourth, and seventh grades were reduced to one-half days. One-third of the physical education staff was released and sent to other schools as resource teachers, in actuality as "permanent substitutes."

These moves brought the teachers up in arms, and the public as well. Community groups and newspaper, radio, and television editorials denounced the action. After 6 weeks of chaos, a court order restrained the Board from continuing its course, on the grounds that it was illegally withholding funds which were allocated until 1964. At midsemester the school system returned to its previous organization. In the meantime, however, a number of the staff had transferred to other systems, and teachers who would have been procured for the new semester had found jobs elsewhere.

The Board then requested special permission to propose another millage increase, but this time asked only that the 7.5–mill increase, which was about to expire, be continued for 10 years. While the public was truly aroused, by a glimpse of how an underfinanced educational system would affect

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[2] *The Detroit Free Press,* May 16, 1963.

[3] Otis A. Crosby, "Taxes and Tensions—Battle of Ballots," *Public Relations Gold Mine Volume Six* (Washington, National School Public Relations Association, 1964), p. 43.

[4] "Millage and Bond Election, April 1957," (unpublished history of the campaign on file at the Detroit Board of Education), p. 2.

[5] Ibid.

its children, the Board reached out for total community support for the renewed millage campaign. Local parent groups were organized and campaigned hard for the proposal, with vigorous support from public media. Labor unions, real estate boards (fearing losses in property values), the NAACP, the Urban League, the Wayne County Democratic Association, the United Auto Workers, and the Detroit Chamber of Commerce actively supported the issue. The only distinguishable opposition was two groups of white homeowners, but fearing public wrath, they gave only token resistence. The millage proposal was passed, and the superintendent and staff made an earnest effort to meet its educational objectives under a very limited budget. Fortunately, the Board was able to offset some of its expenses with Federal funds.

Rising Teacher Dissension

Detroit's financial crisis, however, led to overcrowded classes and to the reassignment of hundreds of teachers with little consideration for their areas of specialization, subsequent disruption of existing programs, and inconvenience to the individual teacher.

Widespread teacher dissension resulted, prompting the creation of an Assignment Review Committee to review cases of hardship and to recommend alleviation. Hundreds of requests were made for assignment reviews, and many more teachers were seriously affected, but did not request a review. The DFT promised action where violations of seniority rights, previous policy, or contract had occurred. Thus, teacher discontent reached a high level due to indiscriminate reassignment, half-day sessions, large class loads, and the failure to raise pay levels.

In the meantime, the drive for exclusive representation was somewhat muted because the school board had decided to campaign again for a November millage election for the extension of the present millage funds. Nevertheless, both teacher organizations, the DFT and the DEA, continued to be heard and to make recommendations to the board.

Demand for Representation

The success of the November millage election gave impetus to the DFT's drive for exclusive negotiation. A large segment of the teachers were in a militant mood; they were not going to subsidize education for parents who had shown themselves unwilling to pay the full bill by refusing to support the larger proposed millage increase in the April election. A march to the School Center Building demonstrated the urgency of their demand for a representation election.[6]

> More than 2,000 Detroit public school teachers staged a demonstration march to the Board of Education headquarters Tuesday in a show of strength to emphasize union demands for a collective bargaining election . . . Mrs. Riordan told the Board, "We march to enforce our petition which the Board has not answered . . . Teachers simply do not understand your delay . . ."[7]

As 1964 began, the Board maintained its position that the Hutchinson Act forbids exclusive recognition of one employee organization to bargain for all of the teachers. A strike to enforce its demand for an election was authorized by the DFT membership on February 27, 1964.[8]

The Board's problem of the legality of an election took a slight shift in the face of this threat, and the DEA supported the Board's position:

> The president of the Board of Education said Thursday night that the strike vote by the Detroit Federation of Teachers will not change the Board's position on a bargaining agent for teachers. *Even if the board* did grant the right to hold an election, it still would not have the right to designate any single bargaining agent, said Leonard Kasle.
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> . . . . .
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> The executive secretary of the DEA which vies with the DFT for membership called the decision to strike "flying headlong into a dangerous precedent." Patrick Basile said the election results are not very indicative of the will of the majority and do not speak for the total teaching staff of the City of Detroit.[9]

While Kasle and Basile were citing legal restrictions and moral obligations, the tempo of militancy was increasing:

> "I'm not a bit worried about State law," snapped Mrs. Geraldine O'Loan . . . , a teacher at Halley Ele-

[6] *The Detroit Free Press,* February 15, 1964. 6,848 teachers had signed petitions supporting this demand for a representation election.

[7] Roberta Mackey, *The Detroit Free Press,* December 11, 1963.

[8] *The Detroit Free Press,* February 28, 1964. The strike vote was passed 2,109–387.

[9] Ibid.

mentary. "They give us all parental responsibility, the children, then take away our rights. We should have the right to vote for collective bargaining and if we can't have that I wouldn't hesitate to go on strike despite the law."

. . . . . .

Wm. Meade . . . . said, "Teachers have been forced to a strike vote; no one wanted it. . . . But it's long overdue and it's the only way we're going to get a hearing. I don't feel the law will hold up. And anyway teachers don't fit under its definition. We're not a threat to public security." [10]

In the meantime, the Detroit Board of Education showed its own muscle. In an obvious attempt to set an example, Superintendent Brownell invoked the Hutchinson Act against 21 school maintenance workers—members of the mechanical trades union—who had struck in defiance of an administrative directive to report to work on schedule. All 21 were fired.

However, within 10 days following the DFT strike vote, the Board of Education moved from this extreme position and agreed to discuss a plan for teacher representation. The plan was a variation of one in use by the Dearborn Board of Education and later incorporated into a number of State laws such as those in California and Minnesota. Its principal component was a delegate form of representation, whereby the percentage of the membership of the bargaining team for each teacher organization is based upon the number of members certified by each organization. Although strongly endorsed by the press and incorporated into the policy of the Detroit Board of Education, the plan was rejected by the DFT as a system which would lead to chaos. The only alternative, in the DFT's view, was a single and exclusive bargaining agent.

Informational Picketing

Meanwhile, during the week of March 10, 1964, Detroit Federation members set up informational picket lines at seven schools from 7 a.m. until the start of classes, to emphasize their demands for an exclusive representation election. The DEA maintained its longstanding position that being a professional made it impossible for a teacher to engage in pressure tactics. Patrick Basile, executive secretary of the DEA, was quoted as saying:

. . . Picketing is not a constructive measure but . . . the teacher representation plan presented by the board is not to our liking. We hope to make refinements in it, but this picketing is just an out-of-hand demonstration.[11]

Neither appeals to professionalism, nor placation or paternalism by the Board, deterred the DFT membership. They were psychologically ready for a confrontation, legal or not, and they set the strike date for April 15, 1964.

Members of the DFT voted Tuesday to strike the city's schools April 15. Whether the DFT orders its members out of their classrooms hinges on a proposal hammered out earlier Tuesday at a school board meeting. The Board proposed that a secret ballot be conducted April 8 at which Detroit's 10,000 classroom teachers would decide:

I. To keep the situation as is with DFT and DEA submitting grievances separately.
II. To adopt a board plan for a Teacher's Representation Committee.
III. Or to have all teachers represented by a single organization.[12]

Part of the Detroit Board's position change—to allow the secret ballot poll—can be attributed to a March 1964 opinion by Michigan's Attorney General, Frank Kelley, that teacher strikes were illegal, but that school boards did have the power to accept the organization selected by a majority vote of teachers as the sole bargaining agent. Even so, the Board was hesitant and explained that the April 8, 1964, teacher poll would be strictly advisory and not necessarily a mandate. One week before the teacher poll some members of the Board of Education attempted to rescind the previous agreement to conduct the poll; only through the efforts of the Board's president was this proposal withdrawn.

The April poll results startled the Board of Education. Out of more than 9,000 Detroit teachers, 7,510 voted that they preferred to have one organization represent them; that is, they chose exclusive representation over the other alternatives on the ballot.

Subsequently, on April 11, just 4 days before the DFT's authorized strike action,

The Detroit Board of Education agreed . . . to hold an election in which Detroit teachers will choose one organization to represent them in negotiations with the school board.

Board president Leonard Kasle emphasized that the winning organization will work within the frame-

[10] Roberta Mackey, *The Detroit Free Press,* February 28, 1964.
[11] *The Detroit Free Press,* March 10, 1964.
[12] *The Detroit Free Press,* March 25, 1964.

work of the Teacher Representation Committee established by the Board March 4.[13]

By this time, the DEA was campaigning for exclusive representation rights but still deploring DFT tactics. The battle for teacher representation was on and continued until May 11, 1964, when 5,800 out of approximately 9,600 teachers voted the DFT as exclusive bargaining agent in the Board of Education-conducted election.

More recently, on April 19, 1967, in a representation election conducted by the Labor Mediation Board because of a DEA-initiated decertification petition, 6,400 teachers approved the DFT's continuing as sole negotiating agent.

CASE STUDY—GRAND RAPIDS

In 1954, two organizations of teachers in Grand Rapids claimed to speak for teachers: The Grand Rapids Teachers Association and the Grand Rapids Federation of Teachers, Local 256 of the American Federation of Teachers.[14]

The Grand Rapids Teachers Association, which in 1963 became the Grand Rapids Education (GREA) was affiliated with the Michigan Education Association (MEA) and the National Education Association (NEA). Membership in these organizations was voluntary and an individual might belong to any one, two, or all three. The Grand Rapids Federation of Teachers (GRFT) was affiliated with the Michigan Federation of Teachers (MFT) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), which is in turn affiliated with the American Federation of Labor—Congress of Industrial Organizations.

In addition, there was an active chapter of the Association of Childhood Education, the Grand Rapids Association of Childhood Education (GRACE), a Grand Rapids Elementary Principals Association (informal), a school men's club, and a school women's club. In addition, each of the secondary schools and some of the elementary ones had a "building council," which might to some extent be concerned with working conditions in the building. Primarily, however, the teachers looked to the GREA and GRFT to improve working conditions and salary, and to protect them in the event of some problem in their employment. However, both the "improvement" and "protection" activities of the organizations can at best be described as consultations with the Board of Education. Each year both the GREA and GRFT, along with other groups, made presentations regarding working conditions and salary before the Board of Education, when after the completion of the agenda at board meetings the board would allow "presentations from the floor." In addition, in the spring, a special board meeting would be held to hear presentations from employee groups on the subject of working conditions and salaries.

Otherwise, from time to time some special area of concern might be taken up with the superintendent and members of his staff. The conclusion of such a meeting was usually either the reassurance that the problem was being considered and dealt with, or the creation of a committee—of the superintendent's selection—to study and report on the issue.

An example of the nature of the consultations can be illustrated by the 1954 confrontation. That year the GREA took a hard line on salaries and for the first time employed a local attorney to represent it before the Board of Education. As the controversy developed, the GREA took the position, "$3,500 or else." Various actions were considered by the association to cover the "or else" category, and the chief one was the withholding of contracts. The Board of Education finally adopted a beginning salary of $3,400, and the president of the GREA publicly thanked the board for its action.

Federation of Teachers

In 1955 the GRFT had about 240 members. Its president had been instrumental in a successful campaign to have the Board establish a uniform policy giving credit in the salary schedule for military service. The Federation ranks were swelled with people who had joined in his support. However, the active membership (as opposed to those who simply paid dues) was somewhat less than 20, of whom no more than 5 were willing to participate beyond attendance at an occasional meeting.

In 1958, the GRFT had approximately 94 dues-paying members (the active membership remained about 5 or 6), but by 1960 the paid membership had fallen to 24. During that school year, a motion to

[13] Roberta Mackey, *The Detroit Free Press,* April 11, 1964.

[14] I am grateful to David England, former president of both the Grand Rapids Federation of Teachers and the Grand Rapids Education Association, for his assistance in reconstructing the early history and organizational dynamics of these two organizations.

deactivate the local was defeated by a vote of about 7 to 3.

In August 1960, the schedule for secondary schooldays was changed. When school resumed, teachers in all high schools found that they no longer had 50 to 60 minutes for lunch, but only 25 to 30 minutes. Neither the GRFT or the GREA took any strong position on this issue.

During the fall of 1960, representatives from the high schools and junior high schools created an organization called the "Secondary Teachers Association," with $5 dues to be used for attorney's fees to challenge the Board of Education. Between 325 and 350 teachers joined, including both GRFT and GREA members. This organization was led by a council chosen from the representatives from the schools.

In the spring of 1961 the Board of Education, uncertain of expected revenues, issued letters of intent instead of contracts. The letters expressed the Board's intent to continue a teacher's employment and asked that he sign and return a statement that he intended to return to employment the following fall.

The Secondary Teachers Association attempted to obtain an injunction to prohibit the superintendent and the school board from collecting these letters of intent, but the injunction was refused by the local circuit court. An attempt to obtain a temporary restraining order from the Michigan Supreme Court pending a hearing was denied.

Nevertheless, as a result of this activity, the attorney for the Secondary Teachers Association was able to convince the board that a clause should be added to the individual contracts issued by the board. The clause stated that changes in board policy which would change the working conditions of the certificated staff would not be affected during the period of the contract without the approval of the teachers' group.

During school year 1961–62, the leaders of the Secondary Teachers Association had only a few meetings; no membership drive was carried on, and by late 1962 the organization ceased to function.[15] However, it was from this group of secondary teachers that the GRFT sought to draw its strength in the later unit determination and representation battles with he GREA.

The constitution of the GRFT specifically disavowed the strike as a weapon. The local constitution also denied membership to any supervisors. (These provisions were local and not necessarily characteristic of the other locals in the State nor of the State organization. Detroit, for example, did have principals in their early membership and the MFT did advocate the use of the strike.) The issue of the admission to membership of administrators was of particular concern to some of the long-standing members of the GRFT; both the previous and present superintendent had once been members of the GRFT, and both had also served as president of the GREA.

Membership in the GRFT from 1960 to 1964 is indicated by the following figures published by the Michigan Department of Labor:

Year	*Members*	*Year*	*Members*
1960–61	42	1963–64	175
1961–62	69	1964–65	172
1962–63	58	1965–66	141

For the year 1966–67 the only available figure is the GRFT president's estimate of 170 members.

Education Association

In 1954 the GREA membership had reached about 1,000, which represented almost all of the teachers in Grand Rapids.[16] The local dues at that time were $4. Most teachers were members locally, even though they might be members of other organizations as well. GREA membership from 1960 to 1966 was as follows:[17]

Year	*Members*	*Year*	*Members*
1960–61	1,108	1964–65	915
1961–62	1,193	1965–66	835
1962–63	1,256	1966–67	859
1963–64	1,008		

In 1960–61 the GREA was beginning a transition that would bring its practices into line with those that were developing across the country. For one, the question of employing staff instead of depending on the work of volunteers was beginning to be considered; the first movement in this direction occurred when the local president paid his wife to do some clerical chores. At that time

[15] The Secondary Teachers Association is the organization referenced in the unit determination dispute between the GREA and GRFT. See State of Michigan, Labor Mediation Board; Case Nos. R65–I–91 and R65–J–169; *Grand Rapids Board of Education* v. *Grand Rapids Education Association and Grand Rapids Federation of Teachers,* August 29, 1966, p. 7.

[16] Dual membership in both the MFT and MEA was a common practice throughout the State.

[17] From the MEA membership files, headquarters, East Lansing, Mich.

the constitution of the organization provided that stipends be paid to the officers, but they had no expense account. In 1961–62 the association employed a secretary on a part-time basis during the school year.

In 1962–63 the GREA, in cooperation with the State organization, paid part of the salary of one of the State organization's field representatives to serve as a half-time executive secretary for the GREA. For this purpose the dues were raised. It also became apparent that the constitution needed revision to authorize the employment of a staff and to change the governing authority from general meetings to some more workable device. (General membership meetings usually had less than 20-percent attendance.) During the year an elected committee worked on a revision of the constitution, which was to be a completely new document. Further, proposals by the salary chairman for the GREA (a former and future GRFT president) brought about the adoption of a policy of requesting a graduated salary schedule with increments expressed as ratios of the beginning salary. Finally, a campaign was mounted to amend the permissive State tenure law to make it mandatory.

The new constitution,[18] which was ratified in the spring of 1963, provided that the governing authority of the organization would be a representative assembly. It provided for a president-elect, president, and past-president rather than the 1-year presidency, and for the employment of an executive secretary.

The administration of the school district was most active in the creation of the new constitution and, through their delegate, major issues were raised and reraised for discussion. Out of this debate came the compromise of the representative assembly.

The first representative assemblies were held in the fall of 1963, and efforts were commenced to wrest control of the organization from the "old guard." A proposal that the GREA secure office space outside the schools was finally rejected. Requests were made for a negotiated agreement, for dues checkoff, for exclusive recognition determined by membership, and for the assignment of committees by the association rather than by the superintendent. None of these requests were accepted, but a series of regular meetings was started between the representatives of the GREA, the superintendent, and some members of the Board of Education, where these requests and others on salaries and other economic items were discussed and debated through 1964. During this period the GRFT also presented a petition seeking recognition and the establishment of a negotiation procedure, with the representative group to be chosen by election.

Teachers started the 1965–66 school year without contracts pending important decisions by the Labor Mediation Board. Unfair labor practice charges had been filed by the GRFT, which asked, among other things, for the disestablishment of the GREA as a possible teacher representative because it was dominated and assisted by the employer. The GRFT had also filed a petition for a unit determination decision based on a 7-to-12 grade unit.

A new constitution was drafted in 1965 and reflected the results of an evaluation undertaken by the NEA of the GREA. It took into account the provisions of the legislative amendments. The presidency was made a 1-year term with no president-elect or past-president positions.

The Representation Fight

Upon the passage of the amendments, both the GREA and the GRFT were faced with some immediate problems.

The GREA found itself in the embarrassing position of having a president who was a principal (and viewed as a management representative) and having its offices located (rent free) in the school building where the principal was assigned. Throughout the State, the MEA found itself confronted with the dilemma of either (1) accepting the amendments and seeking to win the largest number of unit recognitions, while at the same time upsetting its traditional structure of encompassing the aims and interests of school administrators and school teachers, or (2) refusing to seek recognition for its locals in hopes of further amending the act to create a special set of rules. In the face of competition from the Federation of Teachers, the decision was made to seek recognition for MEA's local affiliates and to attempt to support them in the negotiation process. The GREA not

[18] *Proposed Constitution,* Grand Rapids Education Association, Grand Rapids, Mich., April 1963.

only faced decisions as to how to conform to the requirements of the act but, more important, how to win recognition as the bargaining agent in the light of the feeling on the part of some of the teaching staff that it was substantially a "company union."

On its part, the GRFT faced the question of how best to create a situation in which it might win an election as the exclusive bargaining agent and provide for its own survival. The decisions which were made resulted in its overwhelming defeat of the GRFT. It is clear that the intent of the GRFT and the decisions reached were based upon a combination of real concern for teachers' interest and an opportunity for institutional growth.

The GRFT began with these assumptions: (1) We are best able to carry on the process of collective bargaining; (2) the GREA and its affiliates, by tradition and by intent, are not able to carry on effective collective bargaining; (3) therefore, it is important that we win recognition for at least part of the teachers in Grand Rapids; (4) in any event, the GREA and the employer must be made aware of the practices and attitudes that prevent the real representation of teachers' interests.

The local attorney employed to represent the GRFT had been a Democratic candidate for office in a Republican stronghold and a supporter of unions in a determinedly open shop town. Further, he was unfamiliar with policies of the State and National Federation of Teachers. These factors played an important role in shaping the decisions that were reached.

The GRFT first filed several charges of unfair labor practices, and then a petition for a unit determination on the basis of a division of the total staff into that segment which it was believed might be won in an election, the secondary division of grades 7 through 12.

Contradiction in Position

As the cases began to develop, a conviction grew that the GREA might in fact be disestablished. This posed a serious problem for the GRFT, in light of its petition seeking a 7-to-12 unit determination. As a result the GRFT's position in the unit determination case became one of wishing to postpone the hearing until the unfair labor charges were decided, and of refusing to stand on their 7-to-12 unit request for fear that if the GREA were disestablished they would have then renounced a large part of a unit they might have had by default. These actions had all been taken unilaterally by the GRFT and their attorney. The MFT, hoping to win several other districts, some in which their strength was in the elementary level, wanted no part in a 7-to-12 unit determination controversy and hence did not file briefs or give any substantial aid to the local.

Once having embarked on the two contradictory courses, the GRFT could do nothing but press on, rationalizing as they went. From the GRFT's point of view, the situation became more and more serious as the months went by as no decision was forthcoming on the unfair labor practice charges. The Labor Mediation Board's ultimate decision to determine the bargaining unit question without a prior decision on the unfair labor charge (specifically the question of disestablishment of the GREA) removed and credibility from the GRFT's stand in those hearings.

In the meantime the GREA had sought and received assistance from the MEA. Their strategy was to intervene in the unfair labor practice charge and to attempt to disqualify the relevance of GREA activities before the amendments were passed, and thus prevent the disestablishment of the GREA; to assert publicly a belief that the board of education was guilty of the alleged unfair labor practices, but that to press the issue would result only in frustrating the teachers' best interests; and finally, in the unit hearing, to try to prevent the separation of the teachers into more than one unit.

On these grounds, the GREA asked for an election to determine the exclusive bargaining agent. It accused the GRFT of placing organizational objectives over the interest of teachers. In the face of the two-pronged attack by the GRFT, the GREA defended itself by saying that it was ready, able, and willing to have the agent determined, and if the GREA were chosen, it would effectively represent and negotiate for the teachers. In the fall of 1965 the GREA had two tasks: to rid itself of administrators, and to petition for an election as the exclusive bargaining agent for all teachers (K–12) in the district.

The following is a synopsis of the charges, arguments, and findings that ensued at the unfair labor practice and unit determination hearings conducted by the labor mediation board.[19]

Results of the Hearings

At the unfair labor practice hearing, the Federation charged that (1) evidence of activities prior to the effective date of the act should be considered to show violations of the act after its effective date; (2) the employer violated section 10A of the act by unilateral action changing the conditions of employment, and (3) the employer assisted and dominated the Grand Rapids Education Association so that an order should be issued to cause it to cease and desist; this domination should disqualify the GREA from participation in the election.

The Board of Education argued that (1) the events before the act should not apply; (2) domination and assistance were not exercised because while administrators were members they were so individually and not by direction of the employer, and while assistance was given, it was offered to both organizations on an equal basis and therefore did not favor one; (3) the employer did not in fact encourage membership in the GREA to the exclusion of the GRFT, and (4) the employer did not in fact take unilateral action contrary to law, in that it consulted with the various employee groups and the action it took followed from earlier employee requests; there was no bargaining unit with whom to bargain the issue.

The Grand Rapids Education Association intervenor arguments were that (1) membership by supervisory employees in a labor organization does not constitute support or domination of the labor organization, and (2) the alleged assistance and domination by reasons of free use of Board facilities was offered to the GRFT and used by the GRFT, albeit to a lesser degree, and therefore was not a reason to disqualify the GREA in the pending election.

The Michigan Labor Relations Board found that the interference by supervisors, the holding of offices in organizations by supervisors, the presence of a supervisor at a labor organization meeting, and the participation by a supervisor in an association election were violations of sections 10A and 10B of the act; that the membership of supervisors in employee organizations was not a violation of section 10; that the use of school mails and the use of school office space were not violations of the act; that the adoption of the MEA Code of Ethics in the employer's personnel policy was a violation of sections 10A and 10B; and that employer censorship of association material was a violation of section 10A. The Board dismissed the charge of unilateral action by the board affecting working conditions, and ruled that the issues did not justify the disestablishment of the association.

At the unit determination hearing, the GREA and the Board of Education held that the appropriate unit should be K–12. The Federation took the position that the appropriate unit should be 7-12, but that the unit should not be established until after the decisions had been issued on the unfair labor practice charges, and that the unit determination decision should be reserved until after the above decision (when the Federation—if it won—would then support a K–12 determination). The Michigan Labor Mediation Board found the appropriate unit to be K–12.

Since the issue of unit determination was heard before the rendering of the decision of the unfair charges hearing, the GRFT made no clear case for a unit other than K–12 and thus the precedent was established, in essence that the unit should be the largest appropriate for an employer.

In the election which followed the 18 months of delay after the original representation petition,

[19] The summary and much of the preceding discussion was taken from the following: (a) Partial transcript of the proceedings had and testimony taken in the hearing in *The Matter of the Grand Rapids Board of Education Hearing Before the State Labor Mediation Board;* Grand Rapids, Mich., March 22 and 23, 1966, (b) *Ibid.;* Cases Nos. R65–I–91 and R65–J–169. (c) *Memorandum Brief on Behalf of GREA;* Re: Appropriate Unit—Grand Rapids Teachers; May 31, 1966, Theodore Swift, Attorney. (d) *Brief of Grand Rapids Federation of Teachers,* Re: Case Numbers C65, L–37, Charges of Unfair Labor Practices February 16, 1966, A. Robert Kleiner, Attorney, GRFT. (e) *Exceptions to Trial Examiner's Decision and Recommended Order and Brief in Support Thereof,* Re: Case Nos. C–65–L–37; July 13, 1966, A. Robert Kleiner, Attorney—GRFT. (f) *Brief of Grand Rapids Education Association,* Re: Case Nos. C65, L37; Undated, Theodore Swift, Attorney, GREA. (g) *Exceptions to Decision and Recommended Order of Trial Examiner,* Re: Case Nos. C65–L37; July 15, 1966, J. Michael Warren, Attorney, GREA. (h) *Brief of the Grand Rapids Board of Education,* Re: Case Nos. C65, L37; February 15, 1966, Roger Anderson, Attorney, Board of Education. (i) *Written Exceptions to Trial Examiner's Decision and Recommended Order,* Re: Case Nos. C65–L37; July 13, 1966, Roger Anderson, Attorney, Board of Education. (j) *Trial Examiner's Decision and Recommended Order,* Re: Case Nos. C65–L37; June 14, 1966, Robert Pisarski, Chief Trial Examiner.

the GREA received more votes than its membership.

The election results were decisive, and devastating to the GRFT. The teachers apparently felt that the GRFT and its attorney had prolonged the dispute for its own advantage against the interest of teachers.

	Votes in election held November 9, 1966
Approximate total eligible to vote	1,450
Total votes cast	1,352
GREA	1,151
GRFT	172
Neither	13
Challenged	16

Significance of the Case Studies

Although the MFT was successful in Detroit, this success was achieved before the legislative amendments were implemented and before the MEA had displayed its later militancy. At the time of the first Detroit election the MEA had to decide whether to oppose the DFT in the aggressive and militant manner that later became an acceptable and a standard alternative, but by doing so to face the potential loss of other upstate districts by prematurely revealing this possible policy shift. At this juncture, without firm evidence that its own legislative proposals would not be enacted, the risk was too great. Further, the historical evolution of the DEA and DFT organizations and leadership indicates that Detroit would have been a rather poor risk for the MEA at the time.

The contrast with the Grand Rapids organization is startingly clear. The GREA was well-organized and financially secure. Historically, it had represented the majority of teachers in Grand Rapids even though the evidence of employer domination was substantiated. Further, and most important, when the issue of employer domination was raised, the local organization was not left to its own defense but received the support—albeit the control of its defense—from the State organization. This defense coincided with and supported the changed stance and policy of the MEA to effectively represent and bargain for the classroom teacher throughout the State, utilizing whatever means necessary to achieve this end. This message and evidence of support was not lost by other local teacher groups, nor was the State organization's assistance denied elsewhere. Alternatively, the MFT allowed the GRFT to depart from statewide federation objectives and offered little or no support to the local. Likewise, this response was not forgotten elsewhere.

Further, the MEA successfully capitalized on its national professional image to convince many boards and administrators throughout the State that it was a "safe" organization. The preponderance of first-year voluntary recognitions that were achieved testifies that the strategy was effective. It was not until later, when the nature of the position change of the MEA became evident through strike actions and hard bargaining, that the school boards or other employer representatives recognized the effect of their early, often uncontested recognitions. It was then obviously too late.

Profit-Sharing and Pension Plan Termination

EMERSON H. BEIER*

PROFIT-SHARING PLANS are established in an atmosphere of high hope and expectations of permanence. Many of them—and the ones the subject of this article—contemplate the deferment of payments until the participants retire. Like pension plans, however, some profit-sharing plans succumb in their youth.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is concerned with the magnitude, causes, and consequences of these terminations. Deferred profit-sharing plans form a substantial part of all defunct retirement plans; 3,655 of the 8,069 qualified plans terminated during the 1955–65 period tied employer contributions to their profits.[1] As with pension plans, the highest mortality rate occurred among plans that were young and small in size.[2] More than half were less than 6 years old; 3 out of 5 covered fewer than 25 employees. Company and plan mergers, financial difficulties, and business dissolutions were cited most frequently as the reason for termination.

The quarter of a million employees covered by these plans at the time of termination incurred no loss of earned benefit rights because profit-sharing participants are promised only their proportionate share of fund assets, rather than specific benefit amounts. Moreover, Internal Revenue Service regulations require full vesting of these interests. The participants in many plans were, nevertheless, affected adversely. Unless coverage was continued in another plan, they could not earn additional benefits for future employment.

Profit-sharing terminations increased markedly between 1955 and 1965, but there was little change in the rate of termination, as shown in the table. More than twice as many plans were discontinued in the last half of the period than in the first half, but this increase just kept pace with the initiation of new plans. Although the rate fluctuated, about 1.4 percent of the active plans were, on the average, closed out each year. Looking at the reasons given for termination, and the economic prospects ahead, there is little reason to expect this pattern to change in the coming decade.

In all these characteristics, profit-sharing plans resemble pension plans. The number of profit-sharing terminations increased more rapidly than did pension terminations because of the greater increase in the number of profit-sharing plans. Pension terminations substantially exceeded profit-sharing terminations during the late 1950's, but the total closed out during the 1960's was about the same for both. (See chart 1.)

Profits and Plan Growth

Profit-sharing experience did not reflect the influence of changing business conditions to the extent that pension experience did. For example, the greatest rise in the number of pension terminations occurred in 1961, a year of relatively low economic activity, and the number of terminations fell during the following year of general recovery. Profit-sharing terminations, on the other hand, rose in both years, with the greatest increase occurring in 1962. An employer's obligation to contribute to a pension plan is not related to the company's financial condition. Contributions must be made each year, unless previous contributions and investment earnings provide funds in excess of minimum IRS funding requirements. Profit sharing is more flexible in this respect. Contributions are tied to company profits; in years of little or no profit, no contribution is made.

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[1] As used herein, profit sharing refers to deferred profit-sharing plans qualified for favorable tax treatment under Sec. 401 of the Internal Revenue Code. The number of terminations included in this study differs significantly from that reported in quarterly IRS releases. This study relied on IRS termination records (Form 517T); the quarterly releases report the number of determination letters issued.

[2] See "Terminations of Pension Plans: 11 Years' Experience," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1967, pp. 26–30. Both reports were based on a BLS study conducted with the cooperation of the Internal Revenue Service.

Age and Size

Only a fifth of the plans discontinued during the 1955–65 period had been in existence for 10 years or longer. While those proportions may gradually grow smaller as the system of retirement plans reaches greater maturity, higher mortality will probably continue to prevail among newer plans, since plans (like businesses) tend to be less stable during their early years.

Most of the terminated plans had relatively few members. One out of 3 terminations affected fewer than 10 employees and 7 out of 8 affected fewer than 100. This high proportion of small plans largely reflects their prevalence within the system. However, a higher rate of termination among small plans also would be consistent with the tendency of small firms to be less stable than large firms.

On the average, profit-sharing terminations involved slightly newer and larger plans than did pension terminations. The median age of terminated pension and profit-sharing plans was 6 and 5 years respectively. Their median size was 13 and 18 members. The age differential, in large part, reflects the greater age of the pension system. A higher proportion of the existing pension plans were established before the period studied. Available data do not suggest an explanation for the size differential.

Reasons for Termination

Although a variety of circumstances were responsible for the termination of profit-sharing plans, sales and mergers, were cited most frequently as the primary reason.[3] The sales of companies and individual plants and the merger of companies and plans accounted for 2 out of 5 terminations. Financial difficulties and business dissolutions were listed about half as often. All of the other reasons were far less prominent; none accounted for more than 4 percent of the total.

[3] On IRS forms, a single reason is cited for each termination. Since the various reasons are not necessarily mutually exclusive, some distortion of their relative importance is unavoidable. Financial difficulties, for example, may be a contributory factor leading to the sale, merger, or dissolution of a company.

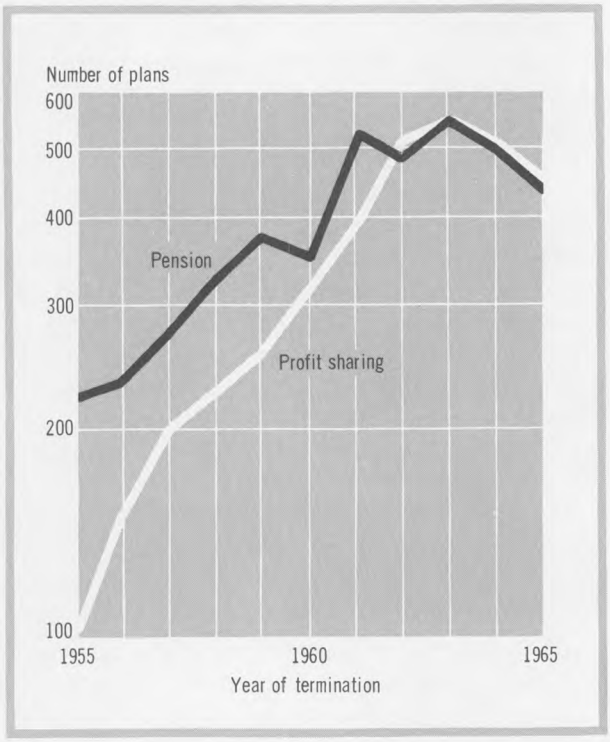
SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF TERMINATED DEFERRED PROFIT-SHARING PLANS, 1955–65

Characteristic	Plans		Participants	
	Number	Percent	Number (in thousands)	Percent
YEAR OF TERMINATION				
All plans	3,655	100.0	252.2	100.0
1955	106	2.9	5.4	2.1
1956	153	4.2	12.2	4.8
1957	199	5.4	17.2	6.8
1958	224	6.1	15.5	6.1
1959	255	7.0	22.8	9.1
1960	315	8.6	21.4	8.5
1961	387	10.6	21.9	8.7
1962	515	14.1	24.5	9.7
1963	544	14.9	31.2	12.4
1964	508	13.9	61.4	24.4
1965	449	12.3	18.7	7.4
AGE OF PLAN AT TERMINATION				
All plans	3,655	100.0	252.2	100.0
1 year or less	252	6.9	10.9	4.3
2 years	407	11.1	14.5	5.8
3 years	465	12.7	58.6	23.2
4 years	449	12.3	20.6	3.2
5 years	401	11.0	16.4	6.5
6 years	316	8.6	18.0	7.1
7 years	233	6.4	13.5	5.4
8 years	192	5.3	17.0	6.8
9 years	175	4.8	11.9	4.7
10 years	127	3.5	6.8	2.7
11 years	107	2.9	6.2	2.5
12 years	86	2.4	5.9	2.3
13 years	54	1.5	3.7	1.5
14 years	51	1.4	5.2	2.1
15 years and over	238	6.5	34.5	13.7
Unknown	102	2.8	8.5	3.4

Characteristic	Plans		Participants	
	Number	Percent	Number (in thousands)	Percent
NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS				
All plans	3,655	100.0	252.2	100.0
Under 10	1,150	31.5	6.2	2.5
10–24	1,056	28.9	17.3	6.8
25–49	605	16.6	22.1	8.8
50–99	397	10.9	28.9	11.5
100–249	298	8.2	47.8	18.9
250–499	89	2.4	31.4	12.5
500–999	39	1.1	28.9	11.5
1000 and over	21	.6	69.6	27.6
REASON FOR TERMINATION				
All plans	3,655	100.0	252.2	100.0
Merger or sale	1,394	38.1	90.1	35.7
Coverage continued	433	11.8	37.0	14.7
Coverage not continued	560	15.3	33.7	13.3
Effect on coverage unknown	401	11.0	19.4	7.7
Financial difficulties	693	19.0	28.9	11.4
Business dissolved	732	20.0	28.4	11.3
Change to pension plan	105	2.9	13.7	5.4
By agreement with union	102	2.8	53.0	21.0
Employee lack of interest	146	4.0	5.6	2.2
Transfer to another plan	119	3.3	10.6	4.2
Few employees eligible	60	1.6	1.0	.4
Other	304	8.3	21.1	8.3

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

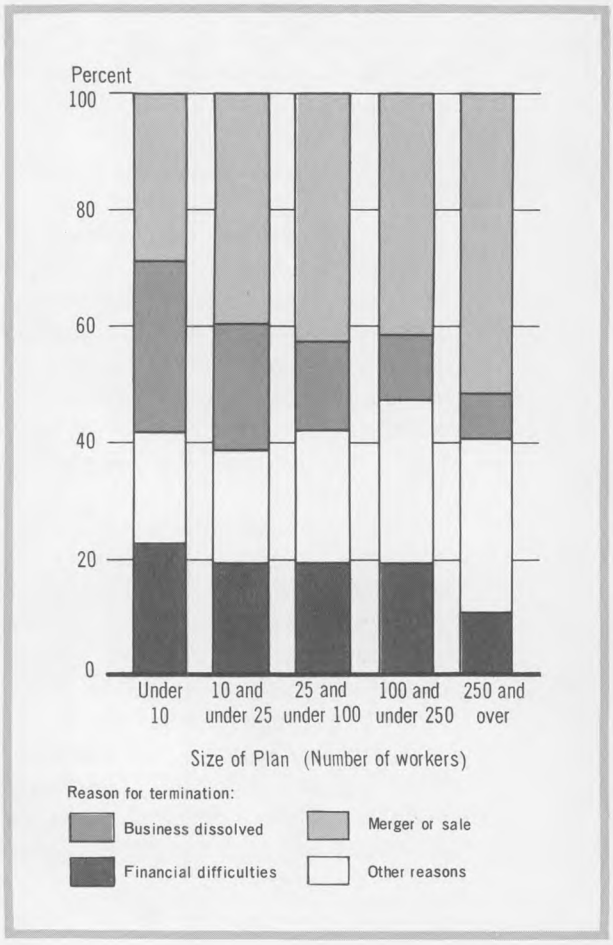
Chart 1. Terminations of Pension and Deferred Profit-Sharing Plans, 1955–65



Mergers and sales, financial difficulties, and business dissolutions also accounted for most pension plan terminations during the 1955–65 period. However, only business dissolutions were equally important among pension and profit-sharing terminations. Financial difficulties were cited less frequently by profit sharing than by pension plans (1 out of 5 compared with 1 out of 4). This proportion is consistent with the relative flexibility provided by their respective contributory requirements during adverse circumstances. As mentioned previously, linking contributions to profits has made profit sharing more sensitive to a company's financial conditions. Mergers and sales were given as reasons for termination more frequently by profit sharing than by pension plans (2 out of 5 compared with 3 out of 10). No explanation is obvious. Unfortunately, the higher incidence among the profit-sharing plans usually involved no continuance of coverage in another plan.

The reasons for profit-sharing terminations tended to vary with plan size, but were not consistent with respect to plan age or general business activity. As shown in chart 2, financial difficulties and business dissolutions were most prominent among relatively small plans. Financial difficulties accounted for 23 percent of the terminations involving fewer than 10 members. No significant decline in this proportion occurred until the plans reached a size of 250 members or more. However, financial difficulties were listed as the primary reason for terminating only 14 percent of the 250 to 500 member group. They declined to 9 and 5 percent in the 500 to 999 and 1,000 and over groups, respectively. Business dissolutions followed a smoother path of decline. They methodically declined from 29 percent of the plans with fewer than 10 members to 6 percent of those with 1,000 or more. In contrast, mergers and sales increased, though rather erratically, from 29 percent of the smallest group to over half of the groups with 250 members or more.

Chart 2. Reasons for Profit-Sharing Plan Terminations by Size of Plan, 1955–65



Pension experience was considerably different. The reasons for terminating a plan varied not only with plan size, but also with general business activity. For example, financial difficulty and business dissolution were most prominent when general economic activity was relatively low. With respect to size, financial difficulty was most common in terminations involving small groups, organizational changes—business dissolution, sale, or merger—among the larger groups.

Extent of Benefit Losses

Participants in terminated profit-sharing plans do not lose any of their accrued benefit rights because they are invariably promised only their proportionate share of fund assets, rather than specific benefit amounts, and IRS requires full vesting of these interests. Although each participant's share of company contributions, forfeitures, and investment experience may be determined in various ways, earnings and years of service are usually taken into consideration. Credit units may be used for this purpose. For example, one or more credit units might be acquired for each hundred dollars of compensation and for each consecutive year of employment. All credit units are added together. Each participant's share of the funds is equal to his proportion of the total credit units. In contributory plans, allocations may, at least in part, be related to the amounts contributed by the employees.

The preservation of accrued benefit rights, however, does not safeguard participants from being affected adversely by plan termination. Although accrued benefit rights are preserved, poor investment may sharply reduce their value. This experience is especially likely if the plan holds the employer's own securities and if it terminates because of financial difficulties. Moreover, the employees cannot earn additional benefits for future employment unless their coverage is continued in another plan.

Many terminations during the period studied occurred without any provision for the continuance of worker coverage. Although this information was only obtained for mergers and sales, it is unlikely that more than a third of the quarter of a million participants in terminations were assured of coverage in another plan.

Though assessment of existing income maintenance programs is hampered by informational gaps, it is plain that present measures to maintain income during unemployment, inability to work because of accident or illness, or old age are inadequate for most workers. The great majority of employees have some protection, varying widely in extent, but many are still without any income protection when jobless or unable to work. And the workers with the most inadequate protection or none at all are usually those most in need of help—the unskilled, the low paid, and those with long and repeated spells of unemployment.

Despite improvements in unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation programs with regard to duration of benefits, reduction of waiting period requirements, and extension of coverage and types of protection, the programs have not kept abreast of changing economic conditions in one very important respect—the ratio of maximum benefits to average weekly wages and to the cost of living. In both programs, statutory changes in benefits levels have lagged behind rising wages and living costs, so that in this regard the programs are even less adequate than they were at their inception. Today, a worker and his family, dependent solely on either program, would in a majority of cases drop below a poverty subsistence level, even if he received the maximum payment allowable under State laws.

—From *Manpower Report of the President* Transmitted to the Congress April 1968.

Canadian and U.S. White-Collar Union Increases

EVERETT M. KASSALOW*

THE GREAT SHIFTS in the labor force—the relative decline in the number of manual workers and the rise of the white-collar worker—have had a significant effect on the position of unions in both Canadian and U.S. societies. While there were occasionally minor declines in union membership in both countries, the period beginning with the mid-thirties was a foundation from which a steady, long-term growth in union membership took place.

In the United States, this growth was fairly consistent until the mid-1950's. Even before that point, however, as a percent of the labor force, union membership has begun to decline. It has followed a downward trend, to where it was only 28 percent of the nonagricultural labor force in 1966, the latest year surveyed in the United States. Even though the absolute decline was reversed after 1964, union membership reached an alltime high in 1966, employment expanded at an even more rapid rate in these same years, and the percentage of unionization continued to fall. (See table 1.)

In the Canadian case, union membership decline set in only briefly from 1960 to 1962, but by 1964 membership had reached a new absolute high. As a percent of the labor force, Canadian union membership reversed its decline after 1964, but it is not yet back to the point reached in the mid-fifties.

Generally speaking, it has been the shift in the labor force which accounted for the drop in the degree of unionization in both countries; that is, the relative losses in industrial blue-collar work as opposed to the relative gains in white-collar employment. Both the Canadian Labor Congress, CLC, and its predecessors, and the AFL–CIO and its predecessors traditionally had their basic strength in mining, railroads, construction, and manufacturing. When employment in railroads, mining, and manufacturing began to decrease, absolutely in the case of railroads and mining and at least relatively in manufacturing, either the unions would break out of their traditional boundaries, or face a decline. This was especially true in the United States where unionism had also lagged in the public sector even more than had been the case in Canada.

Between 1956 and 1966, the number of U.S. white-collar union members increased from approximately 2.4 million to 2.7 million. This may be compared with a white-collar labor force increase in the Nation of nearly 8 million. So far as the total membership of unions with headquarters in the United States is concerned, white-collar workers constituted 13.6 percent in 1956 and 14.3 percent of this total in 1966.[1]

Union Growth in Government

With increasing government employment, the number of government worker union members in the United States rose from 915,000 in 1956 to 1,717,000 in 1966. Government employment, which was 13.9 percent of nonagricultural employment in 1956, advanced to 17 percent by 1966. The proportion of union membership in government as against other sectors is rising, but it is still well behind what it might be if the density of membership were as high in government as in the private economy, particularly manufacturing and construction. To put it another way, if government were as well unionized as manufacturing in the United States, the number of union members in the public sector would be more than 150 percent greater, or 4.3 million compared with the 1.7 million actual figure in 1966.

Figures on the Canadian side depart sharply from the U.S. pattern as regards the rate of union-

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[1] U.S. union membership figures do not include members of staff associations such as those which function in the education, nursing, or State civil service fields. Many of these are being drawn into collective bargaining. Their inclusion would increase white-collar union membership figures considerably, perhaps by as much as 400,000 to 500,000. Members of unions confined to single plants are excluded from this U.S. count.

ization. Public employees in Canada are about as well unionized as those in manufacturing. However, public employment is only 7 or 8 percent of nonagricultural employment. Industrial classification differences make close comparisons between countries impossible. These figures only illustrate broad differences.

Leading public employee unions in Canada and the United States have been growing at a greater rate than has unionism generally. In the United States, for example, the growth rate of three unions organizing in the public sector far outpaced the AFL–CIO as a whole. (See table 2.)

The leading public service unions in Canada, the Canadian Union of Public Employees, CLC, and the Public Service Employees Federation of the Confederation of National Trade Unions (CNTU), have also registered important increases in recent years. CUPE, for instance, has grown over 40 percent since 1961. Employees in public administration comprise 5.4 percent of total union membership in Canada in 1962, but by 1967 this figure had grown to 10.8 percent. Because it has been newly consolidated, it is more difficult to assess the membership growth of the Public Service Alliance of Canada which has the largest whitecollar membership of any Canadian union.

There appears to be substantial room for growth of public employee unionism in both countries, with the edge given to the United States where the percent of unorganized is greater than in Canada. Most of the public employee union advance in recent years in the United States has been among manual employees, but significant gains have also taken place among some white-collar employee groups.

One comparative aspect of Canadian and U.S. public employee bargaining experience lies in the area of the right to strike. Almost everywhere in the United States the new legislation and orders establishing public sector bargaining forbid this right. In Canada, the reverse is often true, with strikes being permissible under certain circumstances. Which of these "routes" will be more successful and which will produce the more serious strikes, should be interesting to observe in the years ahead.

TABLE 1. UNION MEMBERSHIP, CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES, AS A PERCENT OF NONAGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT, SELECTED YEARS

[In thousands]

Year	Canada		United States	
	Union membership	Union members as percent of nonagricultural employment	Union membership	Union members as percent of nonagricultural employment
1930	322	13.1	3,401	11.7
1939	359	17.3	8,763	28.9
1947	912	29.1	14,787	34.0
1955	1,268	33.7	16,802	33.6
1956	1,352	33.3	17,490	33.4
1960	1,459	32.2	17,049	31.4
1962	1,423	30.3	16,586	29.8
1964	1,493	29.4	16,841	28.9
1966	1,736	30.7	17,892	28.0
1967	1,921	32.3		

SOURCE: Data for Canada taken from *Labor Organizations in Canada* (Ottawa, Canada Department of Labor, Economics and Research Branch, 1967); dat for United States from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Wages and Industrial Relations (various releases).

Public Service Bargaining

The relatively late start by public employees in bargaining collectively presents certain opportunities for structuring new style relations. The bitter, early struggles between unions and management in the private sector should have no significant counterpart in the new public unionism of today.

There is first of all the absence of the profit motive in employer-employee relations in the public sector, as contrasted to the private economy. Add to this the general scaling up of education in the past 20 years, and you have, especially among white-collar employees, what seems to be a growing desire for participation in broad decisionmaking at the work place. This desire for participation is already manifest among professional employees like teachers and social workers.

If public management turns its thoughts on how to widen, rather than limit, the scope of union-management relationships all sorts of new possibilities may be opened up. If public managers consciously set out to develop consultation and try to share policymaking with their employees, a new form of industrial relations may emerge, a form or system based on a broad cooperative bond as opposed to the usual conflictive one.

This is not to suggest that all conflicts and disagreement would or should disappear between unions and public management. But it should

prove possible to set these in a more cooperative framework than has been the case in private industrial relations in Canada and the United States.

Unhappily, to date, public management attitudes seem directed more to narrowing and confining the scope of bargaining, rather than to broadening it. Typical of these management views is the one expressed at a Canadian-American seminar on public service bargaining held in Canada a couple of years ago: "It is clear that management's objectives will be to narrow the list of subjects for negotiation, while union and association leadership, on the other hand, will inevitably be attempting to expand these. . . ." [2] Management attitudes such as these can be expected to help produce the hard, militant attitudes of unionism as it developed in the private sector.

If the possibilities of what have been variously called codetermination, joint consultation, or workers' participation in different countries are to be realized in the public sector in Canada and the United States, management must take the lead. Unions are, often enough, at this early stage barely establishing their clear cut identities and right to exist. It is difficult, therefore, to expect them to innovate in the direction of new forms of cooperation. The unions would nevertheless also be well advised to have the new possibilities of industrial relations before them. Should they fail to do so, they will miss the opportunity to expand the role and power of their members in their work lives. Indeed, the unions might find themselves outflanked by management if they approach their roles too narrowly in the public sector.

Independent Associations

Of great interest in the public white-collar field is what is happening and may happen to the so-called associations of white-collar employees. These are independent groups of teachers or State servants which predate, usually by many years, the recent explosion of public employee unionism and bargaining. The response of these groups to the new opportunities presented by recent legislation and administrative openings for collective bargaining in the public area can help determine much of the immediate future in this field. To date, however, their response has been relatively limited in effectiveness. The recent wave of teachers' strikes in the United States, including those led by the National Education Association (NEA) affiliates in Florida and New Mexico, may presage the independent association's coming of age in the struggle for effective representation.

TABLE 2. MEMBERSHIP CHANGES, AFL–CIO AND SELECTED UNIONS, 1956–57 to 1966–67

[In thousands]

Union	Number of members			Percent change
	1956–57	1960–61 [1]	1966–67 [1]	1956–57 to 1966–67
AFL–CIO	12,751	12,482	13,781	8
American Federation of Government Employees	56	68	196	250
American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees	147	188	297	102
American Federation of Teachers	48	57	125	160

[1] These are annual averages in the 2-year periods indicated.

SOURCE: *Report of the AFL–CIO Executive Council*, Seventh Convention in Bal Harbour, Fla., December 7, 1967, pp. 35–38.

To a degree a similar situation has obtained as regards the white-collar civil service at the State and local level, as opposed to the Federal level, in the United States. A large number of associations seem to have a clear inside track against the AFL–CIO's State, County and Municipal Employees and other unions. They still hold a large membership, and, indeed, they are growing. Nevertheless, as often as not, the agreements they negotiate are a reassertion of civil service rules which prevailed before they won bargaining rights.

Analogy from experience in other countries is of limited value; but it can be useful in some respects. The history of a British union of local government officers, probably the most successful such organization in the English-speaking world, is impressive. This union, with over 360,000 members, began as an association and, in its earlier years, bitterly rejected any move to identify it as a union. Its ultimate acceptance that it could only function as a union came hard, but almost inevitably. The forces that drove it in this direction are typical of similar pressures which may ultimately convert many associations into unions in the United States and Canada, whether they change their titles or not.

[2] Kenneth O. Warner, ed., *Collective Bargaining in the Public Service, Theory and Practice* (Chicago, Public Personnel Association, 1967), concluding chapter.

The almost despairing speech of one of the British local government union's leaders, at the height of the debate on whether it should register as a union or not, states the problem eloquently. Contrasting the treatment of the local government clerks with that of publicly employed, unionized manuals, he said,

> When we ask for a concession, our employers keep us waiting for months. But when the workmen seek a similar concession it is granted at once—because the request is backed by a union. The very name 'trade union' carries more weight than 'association'—simply because every big industrial area is now permeated with trade unionism . . .[3]

It is quite probable that in both Canada and the United States this next 5 or 10 years will see many associations making a similar agonizing reappraisal of their character, policies and tactics. The newly formed Public Service Alliance in Canada is proof that some of these associations can and will make the transition. In this case, of course, the consolidation of the Alliance took place within and around the Canadian Labor Congress.

White-Collar Workers in Industry

Despite an occasional thrust here and there, white-collar unionization has proceeded much less impressively in the private sector than in public service. There has been some steady growth of unions in parts of the trade field, but even here the percentage of unionization is still very modest. Banks, insurance companies, and the office side of manufacturing corporations show very little advance in unionization, and none in relation to employment expansion. This is perhaps a bit less true in Canada than in the United States where there have been a few more union breakthroughs in these industries.

The lag of private sector white-collar organization is a cause of considerable concern to organized labor and the public. Both Canada and the United States have generally accepted the principle that trade unions are a positive force in modern industrial life. Generally speaking, too, most political leaders would agree with the proposition that unions are the appropriate bodies to represent employees in determining wages and working conditions. This does not mean that political leaders or the public always approve of every union strike or campaign, but the institutional value of trade unionism as part of the fabric of modern society is called into question only by a diehard minority.

This acceptance of unionism runs not only to the area of wages and working conditions. As was indicated earlier, unions have come to play a large role in the whole decisionmaking apparatus of modern life. Hardly any top-level commission on any important social or economic problem is formed today without including one union member or several.

Under these circumstances, it seems that the failure of white-collar unionism to extend itself to the private sector more effectively must be a matter of serious concern. As long as millions of white-collar workers are unrepresented in social and economic decisionmaking of all sorts, the process and structure of democracy itself is less complete.

In Canada and the United States the need to do something "extra" to encourage unionism has been recognized so far as public employees are concerned. The legislation and policies which, beginning in the 1930's, helped produce mass unionism among manual workers in both countries were eventually judged inadequate when it came to the public employee. The response in both countries has been a wave of special legislation and executive orders aimed at encouraging and promoting public sector unionism.

In Sweden, where employer resistance to unionism by the 1930's was much less than in the United States or Canada, special legislation had to be enacted to encourage private sector white-collar unionism. Once such encouragement was given, unionism grew rapidly, to the point where, today, the great majority of white-collar employees in the private sector are unionized in that country.

In Britain the government has been conducting an extensive inquiry into unions, management, and the general state of industrial relations. While it is difficult to predict the outcome there appears to be considerable agreement, judging from important testimony, that some new recognition

[3] Quoted by Alec Spoor, in *White Collar Union, 60 Years of NALGO* (London, William Heinemann, 1967), p. 70. This union has, however, preserved its formal title, The National Association of Local Government Officers. It affiliated with the TUC only in 1965, after 60 years of separate existence. NALGO officially declared itself a union in 1920.

tribunal or process may be required, if private white-collar unionism is to advance at a more substantial rate.

Stimulants to Organization

What new policies or procedures may be called for if unionism and the evolution of mature industrial relations are to develop among the great mass of private white-collar employees? The general growth of unionism, in the public sector, especially among white-collar employees, will stimulate to some extent private white-collar organization. But past history seems to suggest some legislative assistance will be needed. It may also be necessary to reexamine the way in which bargaining units are determined in the white-collar area. Experience in other countries suggests, too, that some reexamination of the question of employer attitude and conduct, as well as the role of supervisors and their inclusion in unions will hold some clue, when it comes to giving a fillip to private sector white-collar unionism.

In the United States, the National Labor Relations Act of 1935, the Wagner Act, was the critical force in enabling the mass of manual workers in the major industries to build their unions. The earlier, more or less laissez-faire attitude had proven inadequate. Specific positive encouragement had become necessary if unions and responsible industrial relations were to develop in American industry by the mid-thirties.

Following the enactment of the Wagner Act, the general climate for union growth improved and union membership increased rapidly. But public employee unions made only very slight progress. The Federal Government stepped in, early in 1962, with its famous Executive Order 10988 which encouraged union development in Federal employment. At the State and local levels new laws and orders have begun to emerge which are designed to help unions organize, and, with public management, to build viable, responsible systems of industrial relations. As a consequence of this encouragement at the national, State, and local levels, public employee unionism has surged forward in the United States in recent years.

Viewing past industrial relations history, it would appear that if unionism among white-collar employees in the private sector is to make similar progress, some new public policies and programs designed to encourage it may be in order.

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Compensation of Workers in Basic Steel

WILLIAM M. SMITH*

STEELWORKER COMPENSATION more than doubled between 1950 and 1965. Almost two-thirds of the $2.51 increase, to $4.42 a working hour, was due to a raise in straight-time pay from $1.63 an hour in 1950 to $3.22 in 1965. Nevertheless, the most significant change during the period was a marked increase in the proportion of compensation accounted for by pay supplements. These accounted for only 15 percent of compensation for steelworkers in 1950; in 1965, for 27 percent of compensation. In monetary terms, pay supplements at $1.20 an hour in 1965 were more than four times the 1950 level of 28 cents. This increase accounted for 37 percent of the total increase in steelworker compensation during the 15-year period.[1]

Seventy percent, or 65 cents an hour, of the increase resulted from greater employer expenditures for practices that existed in 1950. The other 30 percent, or 27 cents an hour, was for pay for holidays not worked, savings and vacation plans, and supplemental unemployment benefit plans, all of which were introduced in the industry after 1950.

The liberalization of existing employee benefit plans and the introduction of new plans led to increased expenditures for supplements and substantial changes in the structure of compensation in the industry. The changes in plan provisions and their effects on the structure of compensation are discussed later in this article.

Compensation in 1965

In 1965, compensation expenditures by basic steel employers totaled $4.71 an hour. This industrywide level was determined by compensation expenditures of $4.42 an hour for 550,000 production workers and expenditures of $5.88 an hour for 125,000 nonproduction workers. Straight-time pay and supplemental expenditures each were about one-third higher for nonproduction workers than for production workers. Consequently, the basic structure of compensation for the two employee groups differed in magnitude but not in form. There were, however, noteworthy differences in the importance of particular supplements in the structure of compensation for the two employee groups. The most significant of these differences was in the proportions of production and nonproduction workers' compensation accounted for by premium payments, pay for leave time, nonproduction bonuses, life and health insurance, pensions, and legally required insurance programs. (See table 1.)

Of the supplements, premium payments to production workers were almost three times greater per hour worked than premium payments to nonproduction workers. On the other hand, bonuses for nonproduction workers were much greater than those for production workers.

Pay for leave time in the steel industry was high for both employee groups, relative to other industries.[2] In 1965, it accounted for about 9 per-

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[1] For the purposes of this study, compensation is defined as the sum of the payments, subject to Federal withholding taxes, that were made by employers directly to their employees before deductions of any type, and the expenditures made by employers for legally required insurance programs and private welfare plans to provide the workers with full or partial economic security against a future contingency (for example, unemployment or medical expenses). Expenditure rates are expressed in terms of hours of working time. Working time is defined as aggregate hours paid for minus paid leave hours.

Steelworkers include production and related workers employed by firms classified in accordance with the *Standard Industrial Classification Manual* in SIC 331—Blast Furnaces, Steel Works, and Rolling and Rolling and Finishing Mills. The data for 1965 are derived from a recently completed (March 1968) BLS survey of the level and structure of compensation in the basic steel industry that will be published in a forthcoming BLS report. Those for 1950 were derived from *Wage Structure: Basic Iron and Steel, January 1951* (BLS Report Series 2, No. 81) and from *Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909–65* (BLS Bulletin 1312–3). The industrial classification system was changed in 1957 and further modified in 1963. Hence, the composition of the basic steel industry as surveyed in the 1965 compensation study was different from that surveyed in the earlier study. Nevertheless, it is believed that the classification changes do not materially affect the comparisons presented in this article.

[2] See forthcoming BLS Series 335 Reports for details of practices in other industries in 1965.

TABLE 1. EMPLOYEE COMPENSATION, BASIC STEEL, 1965

Compensation practice	Employer expenditures					
	As a percent of compensation			Per hour of working time		
	All employees	Production workers	Nonproduction workers	All employees	Production workers	Nonproduction workers
Total expenditures	100.0	100.0	100.0	$4.71	$4.42	$5.88
Straight-time pay for working time	73.1	72.9	73.7	3.44	3.22	4.34
Supplements	26.9	27.1	26.3	1.27	1.20	1.54
Premium payments	4.1	5.0	1.4	.19	.22	.08
Overtime	3.2	3.9	1.2	.15	.17	.07
Shift differentials	.9	1.1	.2	.04	.05	.01
Pay for leave time	9.9	9.4	11.7	.47	.41	.69
Vacations	7.2	7.1	7.4	.34	.31	.44
Regular	5.0	4.9	5.3	.24	.22	.31
Extended	2.2	2.2	2.1	.10	.10	.12
Holidays	2.2	2.2	2.3	.10	.10	.13
Sick leave	.4	(1)	1.7	.02	(1)	.10
Civic and personal leave	.1	(1)	.4	.01	(1)	.02
Nonproduction bonuses	.6	.1	2.1	.03	(1)	.12
Terminal payments	(1)	(1)	.1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Private welfare plans	8.5	8.6	8.1	.40	.38	.48
Pension and welfare plans	7.7	7.7	7.4	.35	.34	.44
Life, accident and health insurance	4.1	4.3	3.5	.19	.19	.20
Pension and retirement plans	3.6	3.4	3.9	.16	.15	.24
Regular	3.1	2.8	3.7	.14	.12	.23
Savings and vacation	.5	.6	.2	.02	.03	.01
SUB plans	.6	.8	.1	.03	.04	(1)
Savings and thrift plans	.2	.1	.6	.01	(1)	.04
Legally required insurance programs	3.8	4.1	2.9	.18	.18	.17
Social security	2.1	2.2	1.7	.10	.10	.10
Unemployment insurance	1.2	1.3	1.0	.06	.06	.06
Workmen's compensation	.5	.6	.2	.02	.02	.01

[1] Less than one-half cent or 0.05 percent.

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

cent of compensation and payroll hours for production workers and about 12 percent for nonproduction workers.[3] For production workers about 75 percent of leave expenditures and hours were for vacations (regular and extended) and about 25 percent were for holidays; sick leave and civic and personal leave expenditures and hours were low. Of all paid leave hours and expenditures for nonproduction workers, about 63 percent were for vacations, 19 percent were for holidays, 14 percent were for sick leave, and 4 percent were for civic and personal leave.

Expenditures for private welfare plans accounted for 8.6 percent of compensation for production workers and 8.1 percent for nonproduction workers. Expenditures were 48 cents an hour for nonproduction workers and 38 cents an hour for production workers. The difference is mainly attributable to higher expenditures for nonproduction workers for savings and thrift plans (4 cents an hour for nonproduction workers and practically none for production workers) and pension plans (24 cents for nonproduction workers and 15 cents for production workers).

Employer contributions to pension plans accounted for 3.9 percent of compensation for nonproduction workers and 3.4 percent of compensation for production workers. Nearly all of the pension plan expenditures for nonproduction workers were for regular pension plans, but one-sixth of these expenditures for production workers were made under the provisions of savings and vacation plans.

In no case did expenditures for life, accident, and health insurance or those made to SUB funds or for legally required insurance programs amount to more than 4.5 percent of compensation for either production workers or nonproduction workers.

Supplements, 1950 and 1965

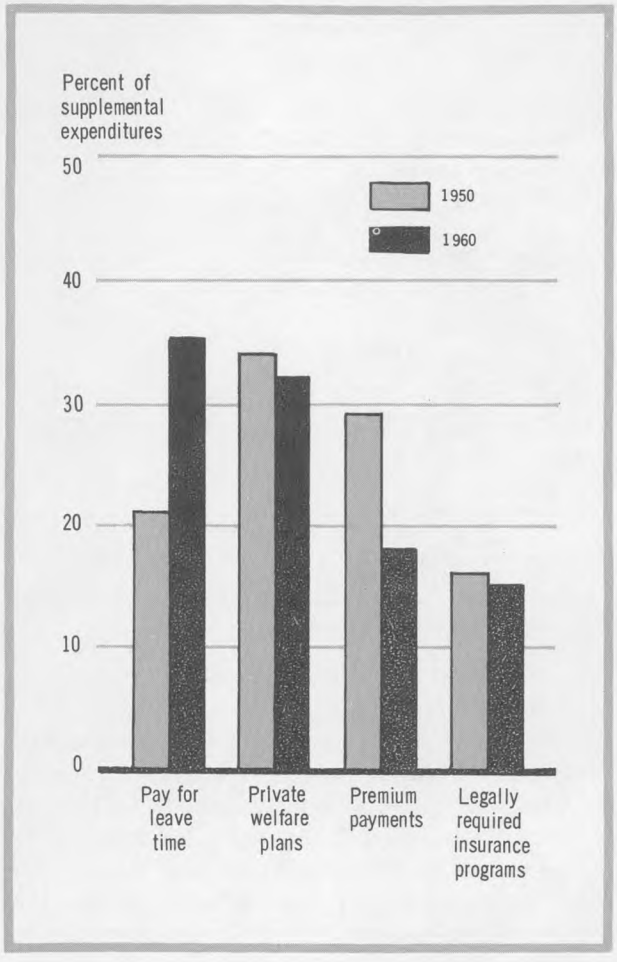
Hourly expenditures by employers for pay supplements for steelworkers more than quadrupled between 1950 and 1965, while straight-time pay doubled. (See table 2.) Among the supplements, employer expenditures for paid leave expanded most, followed by expenditures for private welfare plans, legally required insurance

[3] The ratio of paid leave time to working time for nonproduction workers in the basic steel industry is the highest ever recorded for a group of employees by the BLS in its studies of compensation costs and the composition of payroll hours. In a few of the establishments studied, paid leave time made up almost 20 percent of all payroll hours for nonproduction workers—the equivalent of 1 day in every 5 off with pay.

programs, and premium payments. Paid leave expenditures increased nearly sevenfold and expenditures for premium payments, which increased at the lowest rate, nearly tripled.

The order of importance of these supplements, in terms of aggregate employer expenditures for them, changed through the period because of their different rates of growth. In 1950, employers spent more for private welfare plans than for any other category of supplements, followed by expenditures for premium pay, leave time, and legally required insurance. By 1965, pay for leave time had become the most important supplement, followed by private welfare plans, premium payments, and legally required insurance. (See chart.)

Expenditures for Selected Supplemental Benefits for Steelworkers, 1950 and 1965



Paid Leave. In 1965, paid leave expenditures of 41 cents an hour accounted for more than 9 percent of steelworkers' compensation—three times the proportion of compensation accounted for by paid leave in 1950. The 35-cent-an-hour increase in expenditures for leave time during the period amounted to more than all 1950 pay supplements of 28 cents an hour.

Ten cents of the increased leave payments were for vacation time [4] provided under the provisions of the steel industry's savings and vacation plan, and 15 cents went for regular vacations. Employers began making expenditures for savings and vacation plans in 1962 under the provisions of contracts with the United Steelworkers of America (USA).[5] In addition to the new vacation benefits provided through savings and vacation plans, regular vacations were substantially lengthened during the 1950–65 period. In 1950, steelworkers with 1 year of service with their employer were eligible for 1 week of vacation, those with 5 years of service were eligible for 2 weeks, and those with 25 years of service were eligible for 3 weeks of vacation. These benefits for steelworkers were improved in 1952, 1956, and 1963 by revisions in labor agreements between the USA and the major producers. Agreements in effect in 1965 provided 1 week of vacation for employees with 1 year of service, 2 weeks for those with 3 years, 3 weeks for those with 10 years, and 4 weeks for those employees with 25 years of service.

In 1965, expenditures for 7 holidays amounted to 10 cents on hour and constituted 2.2 percent of compensation. In 1950, steelworkers were not paid for holidays not worked. However, 6 holidays were recognized for premium overtime purposes and time and one-half was paid for work performed on these days. The practice of paying for holidays not worked began in 1952. At that time the 6 holidays previously recognized only for overtime purposes were paid for at straight-time rates if not worked but at double time rates when worked. The seventh paid holiday was provided in 1956.

[4] Under some circumstances, workers might receive pay in lieu of vacation time off. This was considered to be vacation pay.

[5] The Steelworkers union is th dominant one in the basic steel industry; almost all production workers in the industry are organized by the USA. Compensation levels and practices for the relatively insignificant number of workers not covered by USA contracts are, of course, not directly established by USA contracts with producers. Nevertheless, pay practices in the segment of the industry not covered by USA agreements have tended to follow standards set in USA agreements. The influence of statistics from companies not covered by USA agreements on the data presented is, therefore, believed to be negligible.

Private Welfare Plans. Employer expenditures for private welfare plans covering steelworkers increased by almost 28 cents an hour between 1950 and 1965.[6] Pension and welfare plans were established in 1950[7] in accordance with newly negotiated provisions of union contracts. Other types of private welfare plans in operation in 1965 were generally established after 1950.

1950expenditures by employers for pension and welfare plans[8] included 2½ cents and hour for life, accident, and health insurance, and 7 cents for pensions.[9] By 1965, expenditures had more than tripled to 34 cents an hour. Benefits available to covered workers also had been improved and increased in the interim. In contrast to the practice in some industries where union contracts call on employers to contribute an established amount to support pension and welfare plans, most steel industry contracts establish types and amounts of benefits to be made available and do not specify the method of financing to be used.

In 1950 life insurance of from $2,000 to $4,500 was provided. In 1965, $4,500 was the minimum, and maximum coverage had increased to $7,000. Sickness and accident benefits of $26 a week were provided in 1950; the 1965 provisions included minimum benefits of $63 a week and a maximum of $78 a week. A 70-day hospitalization plan was provided in 1950. Improvements through 1965 included an increase in hospitalization coverage to 365 days and provisions for surgical benefits. In 1950, these life, accident, and health insurance benefits were paid for equally by employers and employees, with the total cost not to exceed 5 cents an hour. The provisions for employee contributions were dropped in 1960 and the plans became entirely company paid. During the 15-year period other changes, too numerous to detail, took place in these plans.[10]

The pension and retirement plan provisions in effect in 1950 included a minimum total pension of $100 a month, including social security benefits, for employees with 25 years of service or more. Employers paid for the entire cost of the plans. Changes through 1965 included a reduction in the minimum eligible age from 65 to 55 years, elimination of the provision for reducing company paid benefits by the amount of social security benefits paid, and a general liberalization and increase of benefits. Additional pension and retirement benefits were provided under the provisions of the basic steel industry's savings and vacation plans.

Supplemental unemployment benefit plans, first established in 1956, took 4 of the 38 cents an hour spent on private welfare plans in 1965. The major benefit provided by most SUB plans is a guaranteed supplemental payment to workers unemployed because of layoffs in addition to State unemployment compensation benefits. The weekly

TABLE 2. COMPENSATION EXPENDITURES FOR PRODUCTION WORKERS, BASIC STEEL, 1950 AND 1965

Compensation practice [1]	Expenditures as a percent of compensation		Cents per hour of working time		Percent increase, 1950 to 1965
	1950	1965	1950	1965	
Total expenditures	100.0	100.0	$1.91	$4.42	131
Straight-time pay for working time	85.3	72.9	1.63	3.22	97
Supplements	14.7	27.1	.28	1.20	329
Premium pay	4.2	5.0	.08	.22	175
Overtime	2.6	3.9	.05	.17	240
Shift differentials	1.3	1.1	.02	.05	150
Pay for leave time	3.1	9.4	.06	.41	583
Vacations	3.1	7.1	.06	.31	417
Holidays	[2]	2.2	[2]	.10	----
Private welfare plans	5.0	8.6	.09	.38	322
Pension and welfare plans	5.0	7.7	.09	.34	278
SUB plans	[2]	0.8	[2]	.04	----
Legally required insurance programs	2.4	4.1	.04	.18	350
Social security	1.0	2.2	.02	.10	400
Unemployment compensation	0.8	1.3	.01	.06	300
Workmen's compensation	0.5	0.6	.01	.02	100

[1] Does not include sick leave, civic and personal leave, nonproduction bonuses, terminal payments, and savings and thrift plans because expenditures for these items were insignificant in both years.
[2] Less than one-half cent or 0.05 percent.

NOTE: Due to rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

[6] Prior to the establishment of industrywide pension and welfare plans under the provisions of union contracts signed in 1949, private welfare plans covering steelworkers generally existed at the discretion of the individual employers. When such plans were provided, benefits and coverage were quite limited compared with the plans instituted after the 1949 agreements. Thus the use of 1950 as a base year does not demonstrate the full magnitude of the increase in employer expenditures for private welfare plans that would be noted if 1949 or an earlier year had been used as the basis for the comparisons presented.

[7] The agreement between the producers and the USA establishing pension and welfare plans was reached in November 1949. Companies were given until March 1950 to set up their individual programs. Thus data relating to company expenditures for 1950 do not necessarily reflect expenditures for programs in effect for an entire year.

[8] Pension and welfare plans include life insurance, accidental death and dismemberment insurance, travel accident insurance, hospitalization plans, surgical and medical plans, sickness and accident insurance, pension plans, retirement plans, and profit-sharing plans deferred until retirement.

[9] The 1950 pension data are based on information presented by industry spokesmen to the Wage Stabilization Board.

[10] For a detailed description of these changes, see *Wage Chronology: United States Steel Corporation, 1937–64* (BLS Report No. 186).

payment can amount to more than $60 for a worker with dependents not receiving State benefits. Employer contributions maintain the funds at levels adequate to cover most eventualities. Thus payments tend to vary from year to year depending on the levels of the individual funds.

Premium Payments. Premium payments for steelworkers increased from 8 cents an hour in 1950 to 22 cents an hour in 1965, and from 4 percent of compensation in 1950 to 5 percent of compensation in 1965.

Premium pay for overtime, weekend, and holiday work more than tripled from 1950 to 1965, climbing from 5 cents an hour in 1950 to 17 cents in 1965. Changes in contractual provisions affecting overtime pay were few and relatively minor during this period except for provisions that increased the rate of pay for holidays worked from time-and-a-half to double time in 1952 and 2¼ time in 1958.

Expenditures for shift differentials, the other component of premium pay, doubled during the period, going from 2½ cents an hour in 1950 to 5 cents in 1965. In 1950, most second-shift workers received 4 cents extra for each hour worked, and third-shift workers received 6 cents an hour extra. In 1952, the differentials were increased, and in 1958 differentials were further increased to 8 cents on the second shift and 12 cents on the third shift, exactly double the differentials of 1950.

Legally Required Insurance. Expenditures for legally required insurance programs increased fourfold between 1950 and 1965. Expenditures also increased significantly as a percent of compensation during the period, going from 2.4 percent of compensation in 1950 to 4.1 percent in 1965.

Employer payments of 10 cents an hour for social security coverage in 1965 were five times larger than 1950 expenditures. This was the largest rate of increase shown by expenditures for any of the legally required programs and was the largest in absolute terms as well. Payments for unemployment compensation showed a fourfold increase during the period, while expenditures under workmen's compensation programs doubled.

Savings and Vacation Plans. Employers began making expenditures for savings and vacation plans [11] in 1962 under provisions of contracts with the USA. Similar plans now extend coverage to some employees not in the bargaining units. Expenditures for these plans amounted to 13 cents an hour in 1965 and accounted for 3 percent of compensation. Savings and vacation plans basically provide extended vacations and cash retirement benefits for covered workers. In 1965, steelworkers on the upper half of seniority lists were eligible to receive, once every 5 years, a 13-week extended vacation. Plan benefits provide the amount of pay needed to extend regular vacations to 13 weeks. Workers on the lower half of seniority lists also benefited through these plans by receiving single weeks of extra vacation. Workers nearing retirement receive lump-sum payments upon retirement rather than extra amounts of vacation. Expenditures in 1965 included 10 cents an hour for extended vacations and 3 cents an hour for retirement benefits.[12]

[11] Employer expenditures for savings and vacation plans have, for the purposes of this article, already been included as subtotals of vacation and pension expenditures.

[12] In addition to the supplements discussed in the foregoing sections, compensation for steelworkers included sick leave, civic and personal leave, nonproduction bonuses, terminal payments, State temporary disability insurance, and savings and thrift plans. Due to the low level of employer expenditures for these supplements, they were not discussed. These supplements accounted for only 1 cent an hour of compensation in the industry.

Organization and Bargaining in Hospitals

WALTER J. GERSHENFELD*

THE SIZE AND SCOPE of the hospital industry underscores its importance. Despite prospects for considerable change in the technical aspects of medical care, all surveys report an expansion of employment opportunities in the hospital industry and the likelihood of severe shortages of individuals qualified to fill hospital positions.

Probably the single most important factor accounting for the relatively low level of hospital unionization has been the lack of supportive legislation in most States. With the notable exception of California, organization generally follows legislation. Other factors include difficulty and expense in organizing hospital employees, and lack of one big union. Further, hospital unions normally encounter strong opposition from the hospitals themselves, and they often receive little or no cooperation from other unions in the community.

One unique aspect of hospital organization involving nonprofessional employees stems from the heavy minority composition of the labor force. Unions are concerned about the civil rights status of their members but have found that civil rights activities can weaken organization drives. For example, what began as a joint labor-civil rights campaign at the Cooper Hospital in Camden, N.J., disintegrated as the union found its objectives and the objectives of the civil rights organizations increasingly at variance. The union found that its interest in union organization was weakened by the arousal of community attitudes unfavorable to civil rights and the consequent alienation of a substantial white minority at the hospital.

The existence of bargaining relationships and the threat of unionization have contributed to the increasing professionalization of hospital personnel departments. These are frequently without major operating responsibility compared with counterparts in other industries, but it seems likely that they will grow in stature and function.

Membership Composition

Hospital unions are many and varied. However, the Service Employees Union is by far the leader in voluntary hospitals nationally. The single largest local union is Local 1199, Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union, in New York City. In the governmental sector, the American Federation of Government Employees and the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees are preeminent. Geographically, hospital unionization is heavily concentrated in New York City, Minneapolis, and San Francisco. Many traditional union cities show little evidence of successful hospital unionization.

Among professionals, the American Nurses' Association (ANA) has been a leading organization. Its Economic Security Program has been in effect for 20 years and has had a guiding hand in the process of nurses becoming more involved with collective action. The ongoing function of organizing units and negotiating agreements is a task of State associations. These State associations vary considerably in their levels of economic security activity. Some of the more effective State organizations are found in New York, Michigan, Minnesota, Washington, and California.

Hospital organizing drives, particularly in the absence of hospital representation legislation, can and do produce scenes reminiscent of the unrest in labor relations during the 1930's. The parties seem able to make the same mistakes made by management and labor years ago. Once organized, however, they learn much more rapidly how to live together. In a relatively short number of years, many instiutions and their unions seem to work out a satisfactory *modus operandi.*

Bargaining Issues

Although growth of wage-rationalization schemes is rapid, it is common in a fair-sized hospital to find literally hundreds of job classifications, no rate ranges, and many of individual rates.

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When a hospital becomes organized, there is often frantic scurrying by both parties until the realization comes that the only possible course for wage bargaining in the first round is the negotiation of an increase to be applied to individual employees and not to job classifications. Frequently, this increase is coupled with the establishment of minima for certain classifications, particularly entry-level positions.

By the time of the third set of bargains, most problems have been thoroughly aired and the parties expect to maintain a relatively high entry-level wage, and negotiate differing increases by type of work to restore some of the relative loss to higher status positions. The parties usually agree to 2 or 3 year contracts, with stipulated increases during the life of the agreement, or wage reopeners.

Although the heart of collective bargaining as it affects nurses is the rate for the general-duty nurse, there is an impressive array of subjects which are bargained between nurses and the hospitals. It is common to find demands for uniform allowances, shift differentials, per diem and special duty rates, educational assistance, and subsistence allowances. There is also the subject of performing more nonnursing duties, caused by the shortage of service personnel.

In the unorganized sector, there are claims and counterclaims about the effect of nurse bargaining. For example, in Iowa, six Des Moines hospitals stated that the activities of the Iowa Nurses' Association were not responsible for 1967 salary changes and cited the tight labor market as the basis for the change. The INA disagreed and cited the fact that salaries had risen 40 percent in the last 2 years and only 5 percent in the preceding 2 years, according to their figures.

For the foreseeable future, the heart of the bargaining for nurses will continue to be the base rate for general duty or staff nurses. For the first time, however, there is present a considerable demonstration effect as a result of significant negotiations in New York and San Francisco in 1966. The ANA feels that the notion of a salary goal is sound and will continue to work with a target salary. Equally important, a relatively small number of key nursing agreements will have a pattern-setting effect, particularly as nonunion sectors seek to maintain their status by emulating, or even anticipating, bargained gains.

Grievance Procedure

Because hospital bargaining and resulting contracts are so new, the grievance procedure is not very well developed. Some preliminary findings are available, however.

1. Grievances are increasing but are few relative to other industries. Issues have been discipline, pay adjustments, and classification questions.
2. In the hospitals, the business agent or international representative has a more important role in the resolution of grievances than the steward and officer. Grievances are frequently saved for a periodic visit from the outside union official and are then resolved informally. The trend, however, is toward greater involvement of local personnel.
3. Grievances calling for the interpretation of contractual subleties are rare. One of the current issues of the industrial sector, technological displacement, has not been troublesome in the hospitals.

Pressure by organized labor and nurses continues for the amendment of the Taft-Hartley Act to cover nonprofit hospitals, but there does not seem to be any ground swell of support for change. One reason may well be that some active State organizations which might be expected to take up the cudgels for Taft-Hartley amendment are more interested in their own State arrangement for collective-bargaining coverage.

The Next Decade

Many tricky problems abound in future collective bargaining relationships in the hospitals, particularly with regard to the problem of resolving the interests of the various professional and nonprofessional groups there. The importance of avoiding work stoppages, however, makes hospitals a fertile ground for investigation of nonstrike substitutes in crisis bargaining. The issues of narrowing differentials and subcontracting loom as possible sources for future disharmony.

Uplift aspects of hospital unionism are present, but it is expected that hospital unions will concentrate more on business unionism in their organizing efforts and leave the general welfare programs to a time when members have become oriented to the concept and activities of trade unionism.

Hospital unions now represent approximately 15 percent of hospital employees. Much of the unionization has come in the last decade. The prospects are that a larger segment of the industry will be unionized in the next decade.

Work Stoppages in Government

STRIKE IDLENESS of government employees increased from less than .5 million man-days in 1966 to 1.2 million in 1967. Most of the change was due to an increase in the number and size of teachers' strikes. The ratio of idleness as a percent of estimated total working time (up from 0.02 in 1966 to 0.06) remained one-fifth that of the private sector in 1967.

Both State and local governments experienced increases in strike activity. The U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics recorded 181 government strikes, involving 132,000 workers, in 1967, with 169 affecting school boards, towns, or counties.

Public schools were the most frequently struck government service. Teachers were involved in 76 of the 89 school strikes. Administrative and protective services, in other branches of government, were the activities next most frequently affected by strikes, but there was a one-third drop in the number of strikes affecting sanitation services. Until 1966, sanitation facilities were most likely to be struck.

Disputes over salaries and supplementary benefits or professional standards, in the case of teachers and welfare workers, were the major issues in 1967. Some 70 percent of the stoppages, involving 90 percent of the workers, took place over these demands. Disputes over union recognition or security were the next most frequent cause of work stoppages.

—JAMES T. HALL, Jr.

Division of Industrial Relations

WORK STOPPAGES IN GOVERNMENT BY TYPE OF WORK, 1958–67 [1]

Year	Administration and protection services			Sanitation services			Public schools and libraries		
	Number of stoppages	Workers involved	Man-days idle during year	Number of stoppages	Workers involved	Man-days idle during year	Number of stoppages	Workers involved	Man-days idle during year
1958	3	620	2,230	7	950	4,890			
1959	3	130	1,560	7	390	1,020	4	220	440
1960	2	130	760	12	8,180	21,400	5	10,200	17,000
1961	2	40	1,000	12	1,390	3,550	2	90	180
1962				5	850	4,100	6	23,900	37,700
1963	2	120	240	8	1,760	7,720	7	2,540	5,080
1964	1	30	30	5	700	1,550	18	17,100	40,600
1965	3	6,620	114,000	16	1,750	8,030	9	1,930	13,800
1966	19	9,360	50,300	36	7,500	24,700	54	44,800	78,300
1967	24	22,200	197,000	23	3,100	17,300	89	96,200	983,000
	Publicly owned transportation			Publicly owned utilities			Street and highway departments		
1958				2	40	230	1	10	40
1959							6	660	5,310
1960	2	8,340	16,100	1	10	10	11	920	2,310
1961	2	4,520	4,520	5	350	4,690	3	150	1,170
1962	4	1,700	2,340	8	3,510	33,200	4	140	390
1963				3	90	580	6	260	1,580
1964	4	3,840	18,300	3	380	850	9	560	4,250
1965	1	180	4,620	3	80	230	6	650	3,700
1966	2	34,900	275,000	6	130	1,510	2	60	210
1967	6	1,530	5,360	5	670	4,780	5	1,330	3,030
	Museums, art galleries, and botanical and zoological gardens			Hospitals and other health services [2]			Miscellaneous services		
1958							2	100	130
1959	3	610	1,990				2	40	180
1960	1	200	200				2	610	610
1961	1	60	60				1	10	150
1962							1	1,070	1,430
1963							2	80	210
1964				1	10	30	1	140	5,290
1965	1	250	500	1	160	1,120	2	250	250
1966				17	7,760	23,400	6	520	1,420
1967				19	1,200	26,800	10	5,470	8,860

[1] Includes stoppages lasting a full day or shift or longer and involving 6 workers or more.

[2] "Hospitals and other health services" were included in "miscellaneous services," 1958–1962.

NOTE: Data on stoppages and workers involved refer to stoppages beginning in the year; man-days idle refer to all stoppages in effect during the year. Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Wages in Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Production

MAINTENANCE ELECTRICIANS, averaging $3.72 an hour (straight time) in August 1967, were highest paid of the 10 occupations studied in a Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of the crude petroleum and natural gas production industry.[1] Averages of over $3 an hour were also recorded for maintenance mechanics ($3.62), rotary drillers ($3.52), oilfield welders ($3.51), and gasmen ($3.46). Pumpers and roustabouts (oilfield laborers), the two largest jobs in terms of employment, averaged $2.97 and $2.86 an hour, respectively. Rotary floormen (driller's helpers) were lowest paid among the jobs studied, averaging $2.80 an hour.

Four States—California, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas—accounted for slightly more than seven-tenths of the 51,707 production and related workers covered by the survey. As shown below, occupational averages among these States were usually highest in California and lowest in Oklahoma.

	Average straight-time hourly earnings for—			
	Electricians, maintenance	*Mechanics, maintenance*	*Pumpers*	*Roustabouts*
United States [1]	$3.72	$3.62	$2.97	$2.86
California	3.86	3.81	3.32	3.11
Louisiana	3.77	3.67	3.30	3.18
Gulf Coast	3.77	3.69	3.38	3.26
Northern Louisiana		3.56	2.94	2.73
Oklahoma	3.56	3.40	2.79	2.82
Texas	3.70	3.62	3.06	2.90
Gulf Coast	3.80	3.72	3.11	2.96
Texas Inland	3.67	3.59	3.05	2.87

[1] Excludes Alaska and Hawaii. The final bulletin on the survey will provide information for additional areas and regions of the Nation.

In the four States, earnings of individuals in the same occupations tended to cluster within comparatively narrow ranges. For example, a majority of the pumpers in California, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas had earnings between $3.30 and $3.50 an hour.

[1] The survey covered establishments with 8 workers or more and primarily engaged in operating oil or gas field properties, industry 1311 as defined in the 1957 *Standard Industrial Classification Manual* (U.S. Bureau of the Budget). Wage information developed by the survey excludes premium pay for overtime and for work on weekends, holidays, and late shifts. A more comprehensive account of the survey will be provided in a forthcoming BLS bulletin.

Establishments with collective bargaining agreements covering a majority of their production workers accounted for about three-eighths of the industry's work force. The proportions were about three-fifths in California, slightly more than two-fifths in Texas, nearly three-eighths in Oklahoma, and approximately a sixth in Louisiana. Virtually all workers in the industry were paid time rates, usually under formal systems providing a single rate for a specified occupation.

Work schedules of 40 hours a week were in effect in establishments employing seven-eighths of the production workers in August 1967. This was also the predominant schedule in each of the selected States. Seven-tenths of the workers were in establishments having formal provisions for late-shift work, usually providing differentials of 10 cents an hour for second-shift work and 20 cents for third or other late shifts. Less than 5 percent of the workers were actually employed on late shifts at the time of the survey.

Paid holidays, usually 8 days a year, were provided by establishments employing nine-tenths of the industry's work force. Nearly all workers were in establishments providing paid vacations, typically 2 weeks of pay after 1 year of service, 3 weeks after 5 years, 4 weeks after 10 years, and 5 weeks after 20 years.

Life, hospitalization, surgical, and medical insurance, financed at least in part by the employer, were available to more than nine-tenths of the production workers. Four-fifths of the workers were provided catastrophe (major medical) insurance; three-fourths, sick leave (usually full pay without a waiting period); three-fifths, accidental death and dismemberment insurance; and one-fifth, sickness and accident insurance. Pension plans—providing regular lifetime payments to the employee on retirement, in addition to Federal social security benefits—applied to nearly four-fifths of the work force. Thrift or savings plans to which employers made monetary contributions beyond administrative costs were available to about two-thirds of the production workers.

—CHARLES E. SCOTT, JR.

Division of Occupational Pay

Foreign Labor Briefs*

Australia—*Advisory Labor Group*

Recently the Government created a new National Labor Advisory Council, consisting of representatives of Government (including the Minister of Labor and National Service as chairman), the employers, and the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU). The Council will advise the Government regarding policies in the national and international labor fields, and will consider problems of technological change and automation. Its creation culminated the Minister's efforts of several years to replace the earlier advisory body, which died in 1958 after the ACTU's withdrawal. Among the new council's first acts was the dispatching of a high-level tripartite mission to survey labor-management relations in the Territory of Papua-New Guinea, which is administered by Australia.

Chile—*New Social Security Law*

A revised social security law makes obligatory the previously voluntary coverage of work accidents and occupational diseases, thus extending the protection to many new groups of employees and, generally, strengthening workmen's compensation insurance in Chile. In addition, the new law expands coverage to hired workers, including domestic servants and apprentices; government employees under civil service, municipal workers, and employees of the Government's decentralized administrative agencies (including leaders of labor unions); students employed part time by their schools; self-employed persons; and students in public and private schools, who may be protected for accidents occurring during the school day or during periods of nonclassroom educational training.

The President of the Republic is required to issue a decree within a year, outlining the means of financing the program and the conditions under which persons can become incorporated into the system. Workers other than those self-employed were covered by the law automatically and immediately, others will be covered upon the issuance of the decree.

Czechoslovakia—*Strikes*

In a statement of policy unusual for a Communist-controlled country, the newly elected chairman of the Central Council of Trade Unions, Karel Polacek, declared at a plenary meeting of that body in April that "trade unions cannot give up strikes as an extreme means against gross violation of the rights of working people and against bureaucratic behavior by the economic leadership when all other forms of negotiation prove to be without result." However, several weeks earlier he had said that the strikes which had occurred under such circumstances had been as a rule "short and quickly settled."

Finland—*Income Policy*

On April 9, 1968, the Parliament granted special powers to the Government to regulate prices and incomes and to abolish the longstanding system of linking wages and salaries to the cost of living in carrying out its new policy regarding incomes. The policy received formal approval of the principal economic interest groups, including trade unions, employer organizations, and agricultural producers, on March 27. The program is to serve as the Government's chief instrument through 1969 in efforts to combat inflation and preserve the benefits gained from last fall's currency devaluation. The agreement embodies a carefully balanced structure of interrelated obligations on the part of the signatories. The workers will give up, after June 1 next and through 1969, the automatic wage increases tied to increases in the cost-of-living index, which they have been receiving on a national scale since 1942. The industrial sector accepted Government control over prices of goods and services; prices were frozen at the March 15, 1968, level, and any increases must be approved by a Wage and Price Council soon to be established. The Government agreed to curb its ex-

*Prepared in the Office of Foreign Labor and Trade, Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the basis of material available at the end of May.

penditures, to refrain from raising taxes for the duration of the agreement, and to promote investment designed to stimulate economic growth and create employment opportunities.

Japan—*Wage Research Center Terminated*

The Board of Directors of the Joint Wage Research Center recommended to the governing administration council that the center be dissolved. In its 3 years of operation apparently not enough original research was undertaken or published to justify its continued existence. In part, the center was hampered by lack of staff needed to carry out the research it hoped to do.

The center was established in 1965 as a cooperative but experimental effort of the four Japanese national labor federations—Sohyo, Domei, Shin Sanbetsu, and Churitsu Roren—with financial assistance from the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, the International Metalworkers' Federation, and American, West German, and Swedish unions. President Walter Reuther of the United Auto Workers first proposed establishment of the center while on a visit to Japan in 1962.

Peru—*Devaluation and Unemployment*

The devaluation of the sol in September 1967 has seriously affected employment in the southern part of the country. Unemployment in Arequipa has nearly doubled; most adversely affected have been workers in the construction, textile, and leather industries. Lack of education and affluence, and susceptibility to extremist agitation, lend themselves to acceptance of pro-Communist union leadership. In Tacna, a decline in trade with Chile and continuing immigration from the Sierra to the coastal areas has produced an unemployment rate of about 33 percent. The city of Ilo has been troubled by unfavorable conditions in agriculture and in the fish meal industry, as well as by continued immigration from the Sierra. Cuzco has experienced a decline in the textile industry and the resultant higher unemployment. On the other hand, Juliaca, the principal junction on the Arequipa-Cuzco-La Paz rail line, continues to grow as an entrepot and a distribution center. It boasts a Coca Cola bottling plant, maintains the storage supplies of the International Petroleum Co., has an administration which is engaged in an extensive water, sewerage and street construction program, and now enjoys rising employment. Nevertheless, the increasing unemployment in other areas of Southern Peru portends possible troubles in the approaching national elections.

United Kingdom—*Office Employment*

A recent Labor Ministry report, *Growth in Office Employment*, revealed that the number of office workers more than doubled between 1921 and 1961, rising from slightly over 6 to 13 percent of the total working population. During the same period, the labor force increased by only about one-fifth. The office workers' rate of increase was nearly 12 times that of other workers. In manufacturing industries, their number nearly trebled to 8 million during the 40-year period, increasing their proportion from 5 to 11 percent, compared with an increase to 15 million (from 7 to 14 percent) in nonmanufacturing industries. This growth occurred even in declining industries such as mining and quarrying, where employment as a whole decreased considerably. Most remarkable was the nearly four-fold rise in the number of women office workers, which accounted for three-quarters (nearly 2 million) of the overall growth of women in the labor force during the 1921–61 period. The current substantial shortage of office workers is expected to worsen with the raising of the school leaving age, now scheduled for 1973.

Yugoslavia—*Unemployment*

Yugoslavia appears to be the only communist country with an admitted serious problem of unemployment. Experts have been calling upon the government to prepare a broad program of measures to solve the problem. In April, 422,000 persons, or 7.2 percent of the civilian labor force, were reported unemployed. The rate of unemployment by republics ranged from 3 percent in Slovenia to 16.7 percent in Macedonia. The highest rate was in one autonomous region of Serbia, where one of every five workers was unemployed. It was estimated that by 1970, some 914,000 Yugoslavians would be seeking employment (about 162,000 of them returnees from work in Western Europe).

Significant Decisions in Labor Cases*

Civil Rights—Title VII

Plantwide Seniority. A Federal district court issued a temporary order [1] to Crown Zellerbach Corp. and a paperworkers' union to cease discrimination against Negro employees at the Bogalusa, La., plant, and to replace a "job seniority" system that was unfair to the Negroes with a system of "mill seniority" as regards promotion, demotion, and selection for training. The court also enjoined the union from striking or threatening to strike to prevent compliance with the order.

The injunction was issued in an action by the Department of Justice, joined in by local 189a, the Negro branch of the defendant local union. The employer and the white local, as well as the international union, were charged with the violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and of Executive Order 11246 barring racial discrimination in employment by government contractors. Of the issues involved in the suit, two were selected at a pretrial hearing for adjudication at this time and the others were deferred for later action. The two issues were: whether the company's seniority system at the Bogalusa plant was unlawful; and if so, what standard or guideline should be used to determine the seniority of employees for the purposes of promotion and demotion.

Evidence showed that, prior to January 1966, the company and the union had maintained a "pervasive pattern of discrimination" against Negro employees as regards job progression and training, and that the job seniority system was effectively ultilized as an instrument of this practice. The white local, the court said, "[a]lthough not equally responsible for this situation, . . . was in good measure at fault: the discrimination was arranged by the device of granting 'jurisdiction' over the more attractive lines of progression and the more lucrative jobs to the white local."

The court emphasized that the job seniority system was "not inherently prejudicial" to the Negro employees; nor did the court think that the mill system was necessarily a better one. But as a means of "regulating" promotion, demotion, and selection for training, the plantwide seniority system was as good as the other system, if not better, the court held. "It is not the job seniority in and of itself," the court said, "but rather the continuous discrimination practiced by the defendants within the framework of that system, which now requires that the system be abolished in this case." The court made it plain that Title VII does not require a mill seniority system and only provides for the correction of discrimination by any means that "may be necessary." Should an interested party propose an other equally acceptable system, the union could bargain for it, subject to judicial approval, the court added.

Concerning the question of the court's power to issue injunctions in suits under Title VII, the court said, "The white local is not immune from suit or injunctive process of this court by reason of the general terms of the Norris–LaGuardia Act." It pointed to the Supreme Court's pronouncements [2] prior to the enactment of the Civil Rights Act that Norris–LaGuardia does not protect unions practicing racial discrimination from corrective court orders. Even though these rulings were made in actions under the Railway Labor Act, the court held they were "equally applicable" to Title VII and Executive Order 11246 cases.

It is true, the court said, that whereas some provisions of Title VII are expressly exempt from the operation of the Norris-LaGuardia Act, section 707 of the title,[3] under which the present action was taken, is not so exempt. Yet this section is concerned with actions by the Attorney General

*Prepared in the Office of Publications and reviewed in the Office of the Solicitor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of the significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law or to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

[1] *United States* v. *Local 189, United Paperworkers and Papermakers* (D.C.—E.D. La., March 26, 1968).

[2] *Virginian Railroad Co.* v. *System Federation,* 300 U.S. 515 (1937); *Graham* v. *Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen,* 338 U.S. 232 (1949); *Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen* v. *Howard,* 343 U.S. 768, 774 (1952)—see *Monthly Labor Review,* August 1952, pp. 196–197.

[3] Section 707 of Title VII (28 U.S.C. section 2000e–6) authorizes civil actions by the Attorney General.

"necessary to insure the full enjoinment of the Title VII rights," and to deny injunctive relief in such suits while granting it in suits under other provisions of the title "would be inconsistent and irrational, and destructive to the national achievement of the [law's] basic aims," the court concluded.

Removal of Section 301 Suits. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled [4] that a State court action to enjoin a strike called in alleged violation of a contractual no-strike clause can be removed to a Federal district court, which has original jurisdiction of action arising under section 301 of the Labor Management Relations Act.

When an employer in interstate commerce obtained a State court's injunction against a strike conducted allegedly in violation of a no-strike agreement, the union had the suit removed [5] to a Federal district court as an action that had arisen under a Federal law. The employer maintained that the Federal court had no jurisdiction over the case because the Norris–LaGuardia Act deprived it of authority to grant injunctive relief necessary to enforce the no-strike agreement. But the district court declared jurisdiction and dissolved the injunction, and its action was upheld by a court of appeals.[6] The Supreme Court granted review "because of an apparent conflict" between the appellate rulings in this case and in *American Dredging Co.*[7] The clarification, however, did not come in very clear tones.

The Supreme Court held that since the labor dispute in question had arisen under a Federal law—section 301 of the LMRA, permitting suits by or against labor organizations for violations of labor contracts—the primary jurisdiction here was with the Federal district court, and the suit was properly removed to that court. But it stressed that removability of such suits is "but one aspect of 'the primacy of Federal judiciary in deciding questions of Federal law.'" The Court restated its position in *Lincoln Mills* [8] by saying that "[a]n action arising under section 301 is controlled by Federal substantive law, even though it is brought in a State court."

As regards the injunction and the applicability of the Norris–LaGuardia Act in actions for the enforcement of no-strike agreements, the Court's ruling was not entirely clear-cut. In obvious reference to the employer's argument in the lower court that Norris–LaGuardia deprives Federal court of jurisdiction in cases of this kind, the Court merely said: "It is true that the Court by a 5-to-3 decision in *Sinclair Refining Co.* v. *Atkinson* [9] held that although a case was properly in the Federal district court by reason of section 301, the Norris–La Guardia Act bars the court from issuing an injunction in the labor dispute. The nature of the relief available after jurisdiction attaches is of course, different from the question whether there is jurisdiction to adjudicate the controversy." After indicating the range of the types of relief (other than injunction) that could be granted, the Court said that the *Sinclair* decision "meant only that the Federal district court lacked the general equity power to grant the particular relief," that is, injunction, for a breach of contract.

The Court also said that after removal of the suit, the district court had the power to dissolve the State injunction. But the Court did not accept the appeals court's statement that "the remedies available in State courts are limited to the remedies available under Federal law." "We reserve decision on those questions," the Court said.

It was the brief concurring opinion of three justices that stated plainly what the main decision merely implied: ". . . [T]he Court expressly reserves decision on the effect of *Sinclair* in the circumstances presented by this case. The Court will,

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[4] *Avco Corp.* v. *Aero Lodge No. 735, International Association of Machinists* (U. S. Sup. Ct., April 8, 1968).

[5] Under the Removal Statute, 28 U.S.C., section 1441(b).

[6] C.A.6, May 2, 1967; see *Monthly Labor Review,* August 1967, p. 60.

[7] *American Dredging Co.* v. *Local 25, Marine Division, International Union of Operating Engineers,* 338 F.2d 337 (1964); see *Monthly Labor Review,* January 1965, p. 69. In this decision the court of appeals remanded the case to the State court for reconsideration, saying: ". . . [W]e are of the opinion that a suit brought in a State court, based solely on State-created rights to enjoin a union's violation, in the course of a labor dispute, of the 'no-strike' provisions of its collective bargaining agreement, is not removable to a Federal district court when the complaint does not disclose . . . that it presents a controversy respecting the validity, construction, or effect of the Constitution of the United States or section 301(a) or any other Federal law upon the determination of which the result of the suit depends."

[8] *Textile Workers* v. *Lincoln Mills,* 353 U.S. 448 (1957); see *Monthly Labor Review,* August 1957, pp. 976–977. Here the Court had said: ". . . Federal interpretation of the Federal law will govern, not State law. . . . But State law, if compatible with the purpose of section 301, may be resorted to in order to find the rule that will best effectuate the Federal policy. . . . Any State law applied, however, will be absorbed as Federal law and will not be an independent source of private rights."

[9] 370 U.S. 195; see *Monthly Labor Review,* August 1962, pp. 903–904.

no doubt, have an opportunity to reconsider the scope and continuing validity of *Sinclair* upon an appropriate future occasion."

Unilateral Action. A U.S. court of appeals sustained [10] a decision of the National Labor Relations Board that a company had committed an unfair labor practice—refused to bargain—when, without notifying its employees' union, it changed the profit distribution formula of a supplementary compensation plan it operated unilaterally for the benefit of its employees. The firm could not lawfully effect the change without the union's consent, the court held.

For almost three decades, the company was the sole manager of a profit-sharing plan it had established for its nonmanagerial employees, including members of a union. The union never challenged the unilateral management of the plan, and the benefit was never incorporated in a collective bargaining agreement, although on at least two occasions it had been discussed at the bargaining table. The dispute arose when the company decided to change the formula for profit distribution in such a way as to somewhat reduce the employees' share.

In defending its action, the company argued that its relationship with the union as regards the management of the plan was governed by customary practice, or the "common law of the shop," which included the right of the firm to determine how profits should be distributed. This right the union had never challenged, the company maintained. As evidence of this relationship the company cited its board of directors' annual determination of the employees' income share, the absence of any reference to the plan in any of its agreements with the union, the bulletin board announcements each year that the plan would be continued as originally "instituted . . . and revised from time to time," and the union's failure to protest when the profit distribution formula was changed on a previous occasion.

The court agreed with the NLRB that the company's unilateral action was an unfair labor practice under the Labor Management Relations Act (section 8(a) (1) and (5)). It pointed to "the mutual obligation . . . to . . . confer in good faith with respect to wages, hours, and other terms and conditions of employment . . ." (section 8(d) of the act), a provision based on the principle that "basic terms which are vital to the employees' economic interest, such as wages, may not be altered unilaterally by the employer without bargaining with the [employees'] representative." "Even an increase in wages unilaterally granted by an employer who has bypassed the collective bargaining representative is for this reason a violation of the act," the court stated.

The court conceded that the employer could be endowed—"by express contract"— with power of unilateral decision; but in the present case there was no written agreement that would come within the purview of the NLRB's doctrine of waiver.[11] Nor could the union's past conduct be understood to imply that, as the employer contended, the union had acquiesced in the company's unilateral actions in managing the plan. The NLRB had found no such tacit agreement, the court said, and the Board's findings, when supported by substantial evidence, as in this case, may not be set aside.

Furthermore, the court remarked, the Board had found that the union had given evidence it considered the plan to be subject to collective bargaining, as when it once reduced wage demands and made other concessions at the bargaining table in order to forestall a threatened elimination of the benefit plan. The Board's order was enforced.

Withdrawal From Bargaining Unit. An employer's withdrawal from a bargaining association during contract negotiations was untimely, but it was justified by "unusual circumstances" involving bankruptcy proceedings and removal of the plant to another State, the NLRB held.[12]

Economic difficulties forced a member of an employer bargaining association to institute bankruptcy proceedings and to seek his creditors' permission to relocate his business in another State as a matter of economic necessity. The permission was granted, under a court-approved plan, and the employer (by then a debtor in possession) began gradually to wind up his operations and to dismantle plant machinery. The employer also notified the association about his intention to resign,

[10] *Leeds & Northrup Co.* v. *NLRB* (C.A. 3, March 20, 1968).

[11] The NLRB's doctrine of waiver requires, to use the court's language, that "a union must clearly and unmistakably waive its right to bargain on a matter which is a mandatory subject of bargaining before the employer has the right to make a unilateral change."

[12] *U.S. Lingerie Corp.* and *Undergarment and Negligee Workers' Union,* 170 NLRB No. 77, March 26, 1968.

but was informed that resignation at that time would be improper because new contract bargaining had already begun. The employer resigned nevertheless.

The union was informed of the firm's economic plight and of the bankruptcy proceedings, but received no formal notice of the intended relocation. Its awareness of the move derived from its representative's conversations with the employer and from other substantial evidence. When the employer withdrew from the bargaining association, the union wrote him a letter to the effect that the withdrawal had come too late and the union would hold him bound by the new agreement with the association. In the last phase of the plant dismantlement, the union called a strike and had the place picketed until it was completely closed.

The union charged the employer with unfair labor practices in violation of section 8(a) (5) and (1) of the LMRA. The issues before the Board were whether the employer's withdrawal was timely, and if not whether it was justified; and whether he had unlawfully refused to bargain over the shutdown and relocation of the plant.

The Board held that the employer's withdrawal from the bargaining unit was not timely in that a "multiemployer bargaining relationship normally can be terminated only by mutual consent, express or implied, or by a timely withdrawal prior to the commencement of negotiations for a future contract. . . . [W]ithdrawal after bargaining has commenced is effective only if acquiesced in by the union or if justified by unusual circumstances." But the Board disagreed with a trial examiner's contention that the resignation stemmed from a desire to relocate and not from economic circumstances since these predated the contract negotiations. Instead, the Board held that the company's circumstances were indeed unusual, what with the bankruptcy action, decision to relocate, and the fact that the decision to move "raised issues inherently more amenable to resolution through collective bargaining confined to the parties immediately involved . . . than [one] on an associationwide basis." The withdrawal was justified, the Board held.

As for the alleged refusal to bargain over relocation, the Board held that the union had waived that bargaining by failing to demand it. Citing the employer's statements to the union's representative, as well as other evidence of moving, such as dismantling and crating of machinery, the Board said, ". . . the union had adequate notice of the removal, yet made no attempt to bring the issues . . . to the bargaining table." Furthermore, the Board said, a formal notice of relocation would have been a "futile action" since the union insisted that the firm could bargain with the union only through the association. And the last-minute strike had "the apparent purpose . . . to obtain [the employer's] signature on the association contract. . . . [T]he union was clearly not interested in bargaining on individual basis," the Board concluded, dismissing the complaint.

Major Agreements Expiring in August 1968

Editor's Note.—*This is a listing of collective bargaining agreements ending during the month, and contains almost all agreements, excluding government, airlines, and railroads, covering 1,000 workers or more.*

Copies of Wage Calendar 1968, (BLS Bulletin 1593) covering the entire year, are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, or to any of the Bureau's regional offices. Price 45 cents.

Company and location	Industry	Union [1]	Number of workers
Aerojet General Corp. (Azusa, Covina and El Monte, Calif.)	Ordnance and accessories.	Machinists	1,400
Aerojet General Corp. (Sacramento, Calif.)	Ordnance and accessories.	Machinists	3,650
Alabama Power Co. (Alabama)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	2,000
Associated Underground Contractors (Michigan)	Construction	Operating Engineers	1,800
Atlantic Steel Co. (Atlanta, Ga.)	Primary metals	Steelworkers	1,250
Bendix Corp., Bendix Radio Division (Baltimore and Towson, Md.)	Electrical products	Machinists	2,200
Calumet and Hecla, Inc. (Michigan)	Mining	Steelworkers	1,200
Cleveland Food Industry Committee (Ohio)	Retail trade	Meat Cutters	4,200
Cleveland Food Industry Committee (Ohio and Pennsylvania)	Retail trade	Retail Clerks	5,000
Continental Steel Corp. (Kokomo, Ind.)	Primary metals	Steelworkers	2,250
Cooper-Bessemer Corp. (Grove City, Pa.)	Machinery	Steelworkers	1,800
Douglas Aircraft Co., Inc., Division of McDonnell-Douglas Co. (California).	Transportation equipment.	Southern California Professional Engineering Association (Ind.).	1,250
Dravo Corp. (Neville Island, Pa.)	Transportation equipment.	Marine and Shipbuilding Workers	1,100
Dry Cleaning and Laundry Institute (Detroit, Mich.)	Personal services	Clothing Workers	2,000
E. I. Du Pont De Nemours and Co. (Parlin, N.J.)	Controlling instruments.	Chemical Workers	1,500
Erie Forge and Steel Corp. (Erie, Pa.)	Primary metals	Steelworkers	1,250
Evans Products Co. (Plymouth, Mich.)	Transportation equipment.	Steelworkers	1,150
Glass Container Manufacturers Institute (Interstate)	Stone, clay and glass products.	Flint Glass Workers	3,000
Grabler Manufacturing Co. (Cleveland, Ohio)	Primary metals	Steelworkers	1,000
Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Co.—3 agreements (New York and New Jersey).	Retail trade	Meat Cutters	16,200
Harnischfeger Corp. (Milwaukee and West Allis, Wis.)	Machinery	Steelworkers	2,300
I–A [2] Barber Shops (Detroit, Mich.)	Personal services	Barbers	1,150
I–A [2] Tool and Die Shops (St. Louis, Mo.)	Machinery	Machinists	1,000
International Harvester Co., Wisconsin Steel Works (Chicago, Ill.)	Primary metals	Progressive Steel Workers (Ind.)	4,400
Johnson Service Co. (Milwaukee, Wis.)	Controlling instruments.	Machinists; Steamfitters; Sheet Metal Workers; Metal Polishers; Molders; Firemen and Oilers.	1,000
Litton Industries, Royal Typewriter plants (Hartford and West Hartford, Conn.).	Machinery	Auto Workers	2,400
Lockheed Aircraft Corp. Service Division (Ontario, Calif.)	Miscellaneous repair services.	Machinists	1,100
Luggage and Leather Goods Manufacturers Assn. (New York, N.Y.)	Leather	Leather Goods, Plastic and Novelty Workers	1,700
R. C. Mahon Co. (Warren, Mich.)	Fabricated metal products.	Steelworkers	1,000
Massachusetts Leather Manufacturers Assn. (Massachusetts)	Leather	Leather Workers	2,000
Northern States Power Co., Minneapolis Division (Minnesota)	Utilities	Electrical Workers (IBEW)	1,150
Northwest Steel and Wire Co. and Parrish-Alford Fence and Machine Co., Inc. (Sterling, Ill.).	Primary metals	Steelworkers	2,850
Philco Corp., subsidiary of Ford Motor Co. (Connersville, Ind.)	Machinery	Electrical Workers (IUE)	2,000
Printing Industries of Metropolitan New York, Inc.,[3] Printers League Section (Metropolitan New York area).	Printing and publishing.	Bookbinders	5,000
Rockwell-Standard Corp. (Interstate)	Transportation equipment.	Steelworkers	2,000
Schnadig Corp. International Furniture Division (Interstate)	Furniture	Upholsterers	1,000
Shoe Retailers League, Inc. (New York)	Retail trade	Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	1,000
Tecumseh Products Co. (Tecumseh, Mich.)	Machinery	United Products Workers Union (Ind.)	3,000
Timken Roller Bearing Co. (Ohio)	Machinery	Steelworkers	10,000
Upholstery Employers Assn. (New York, N.Y.)	Furniture	Upholsterers	1,200
Valley Mould and Iron Corp. (Illinois and Ohio)	Primary metals	Steelworkers	1,450
Van Huffel Tube Corp. (Warren, Ohio)	Primary metals	Steelworkers	1,000
Whitehead and Kales Co. (River Rouge, Mich.)	Fabricated metal products.	Steelworkers	1,550
Worthington Corp. (Buffalo, N.Y.)	Machinery	Steelworkers	1,500
Worthington Corp. (Harrison, N.J.)	Machinery	Steelworkers	1,300

[1] Union affiliated with AFL–CIO except where noted as independent (Ind).

[2] Industry area (group of companies signing same contract).

[3] Information is from newspaper account of settlement.

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Chronology of Recent Labor Events

May 1, 1968

BLOOMINGDALE'S AND STERN BROTHERS department stores in Manhattan announced $7-a-week pay increases for 5,100 employees under terms of an agreement with District 65 of the Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union. The contracts, to run 2 years and 1 year respectively, will boost the minimum wage to $2 an hour, from $1.70. (See p. 67, this issue.)

May 2

EIGHTEEN COMPANIES in the Bell System and the Communications Workers of America reached 3-year agreements following strikes of about 2 weeks. The contracts covered some 200,000 workers and will reportedly raise labor costs more than 19 percent over the term. Wage increases were substantial and the settlements also contained numerous fringe benefits. (See p. 63, this issue.)

May 3

FIVE MAJOR wholesale baking companies, belonging to the Northeastern Seaboard Conference and the Third Region Bargaining Conference, and the American Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union agreed on a new 2-year contract covering 20,000 workers. The pattern for the settlement was an earlier agreement with the Paterson, N.J., plant of the Continental Baking Co. Wages were increased by 37 cents an hour for some employees and fringe benefits were improved.

May 7

AT ITS 21ST CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION in Atlantic City, the Auto Workers reelected Walter Reuther to another 2-year term as president by acclamation and without opposition. In addition, the union delegates moved to allow individual members to block the spending of their dues for partisan political purposes.

At a preconvention meeting the UAW decided to suspend dues payments to the AFL–CIO. Later in the month, having failed to pay its dues for three consecutive months, the UAW was suspended from membership in the federation for dues delinquency. (See p. 68, this issue.)

May 17

A SETTLEMENT affecting about 95,000 workers was reached by the Nation's railways and the Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees and the Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union. The new agreement provided wage increases totaling 8½ percent, adjustment of wage inequities, improved vacations for some workers, and a shorter workweek for dining car workers, plus other benefits.

A NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS BOARD trial examiner held in *Atlanta Newspapers, Inc.*, and *Albert M. Horn*, that a reporter who lied to government officials to get a news story breached a public trust and his dismissal under these circumstances was justified. The case grew out of the reporter's complaint that he had been fired by the *Atlanta Journal* for his union activity, an accusation found to be without cause.

May 19

AGREEMENT was reached on a 3-year contract between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and an employers' association in the men's and boys' clothing industry. The pact, effective June 1, covers about 125,000 workers. In addition to substantial wage increases, many supplementary benefit areas have been improved and provision was made for the establishment of an industrywide scholarship fund. (See p. 65, this issue.)

May 20

IN *Amalgamated Food Employees Union* v. *Logan Valley Plaza, Inc.*, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that union members have the right to establish picket lines inside privately owned shopping centers. To deny this right, the Court held, would be to violate constitutional guarantees of free speech since shopping centers are essentially public areas.

The court also ruled that price fixing by musicians' unions does not violate present antitrust laws. The court held, in *American Federation of Musicians* v. *Carroll*, that uniform minimum prices charged by orchestra leaders "are simply a means to protect the wage scales of musicians" employed by the orchestra.

A NEW 3-YEAR contract was ratified by 15,000 International Association of Machinist members employed by nearly 200 machine shops, manufacturing firms and electronic companies in the San Francisco Bay-Oakland area. The pact includes substantial pay increases, a cost-of-living escalator, a dental care plan that will pay 75 percent of all dental bills, and other fringe benefits.

May 21

A NEW CONFERENCE on transportation trades was formed by some 60 affiliates of the AFL–CIO to deal with labor problems peculiar to the industry. C. L. Dennis, president of the Brotherhood of Railway and Airline Clerks, was elected chairman of the new group which will include more than 2 million railroad, airline, shipping, and transit workers. (See p. 69, this issue.)

Developments in Industrial Relations*

In the sharpest break in labor unity since the ouster of the Teamsters Union from the AFL–CIO in 1957, the federation, in mid-May, suspended the 1.5-million-member Auto Workers Union for nonpayment of dues. Earlier, the first nationwide [1] telephone strike since 1947 ended following ratification of 3-year agreements covering some 200,000 members of the Communications Workers of America at various operating units of the American Telephone and Telegraph Co. The settlements ended walkouts that began April 18, and were expected to set a pattern for over 600,000 workers employed by the Bell System. A 3-year settlement negotiated between clothing manufacturers and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers benefited 125,000 workers in the men's and boys' clothing industry.

With the telephone walkout accounting for much of the time lost, idleness caused by strikes in April rose to 4,910,000 man-days [2] or 0.40 percent of the estimated total working time. In the previous April the figure was 0.20 percent and in April 1966 it was 0.24 percent.

Communications

The telephone strike began when the CWA rejected company-proposed increases under wage reopening clauses of 3-year contracts negotiated in late 1966. After a stalemate in the bargaining, the company agreed to open all the provisions of the contract for renegotiation. New 3-year agreements were reached on May 2 and ratified on May 5.

Workers at Michigan Bell Telephone Co. initially rejected the settlement, but accepted it after a second vote. The union also ordered that a new vote be taken by Western Electric Installers after voting irregularities were found. Acceptance also came on the second vote. The strike had relatively little effect on telephone service in most areas; with highly automated equipment, management and supervisory employees were able to operate facilities.

The settlement will eventually affect 400,000 CWA members, and is also expected to affect bargaining for an additional 200,000 workers in other unions. The new agreements provided the following wage increases:

Job Classification	*Weekly increases*	
	First year	*Second and third years*
PLANT CRAFTSMEN		
Top 2 levels	$12.00	$6.00
Third level	8.00	6.00
In progression	4–8.00	5.50
OPERATORS AND CLERICAL EMPLOYEES		
Top-scale employees	8.00	4.00
In progression	4.00	3.50

Each bargaining unit was allocated additional increases for job and work location upgrading, classification adjustments, and schedule improvements.

The progression schedule for operators and clerical employees was reduced to 5 years, from either 5½- or 6-year schedules. All work on holidays will now be paid at double time and one-half, instead of double time. In the second year of the contract, plant department employees receiving a night differential will be paid a differential of 10 percent, instead of a flat amount. All Saturday work in a week in which an observed holiday falls will be paid for at time and one-half. In the third contract year, all hours worked in 1 week in excess of 49 will be paid at double time rates. There will be a minimum of 8 holidays starting in the second year of the contract, affecting those operating companies which previously had less. On January 1, 1969, a fifth week of vacation will be established for employees with 25 years of service.

Effective June 1, 1969, the minimum monthly pension for employees with 20 years of service or more will be increased to $125, from $115, and the 25 percent offset to social security will be eliminated for both present and future retired workers. Pensions will also be vested so that an employee with 15 years of service and 40 years of age will be entitled to a pension at age 65. The company assumed 75 percent of the cost of basic hospital-surgical-medical insurance for employees and de-

*Prepared in the Division of Trends in Employee Compensation, Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the basis of published material.

[1] No picket lines had been set up in Montana, and A.T. and T. does not serve Alaska and Hawaii.

[2] Data for 1967 and 1968 are preliminary.

pendents and will assume the full cost in the third year; previously, the company had paid 75 percent of the cost for dependent coverage and 50 percent for employee coverage. The employees' cost of 40 cents a month per $1,000 of life insurance (after the first $2,000) was reduced to 35 cents and the entire cost will be assumed by the company in the third year of the agreement. Sickness and accident benefits provided a minimum of half-pay for 52 weeks for employees with less than 10 years of service. There were a variety of other changes in fringe benefits. Starting rates and progression schedules will be renegotiated for employees in all departments once during the 3-year agreements.

Subsequent to the settlements reached on May 2, the CWA came to terms with two additional operating companies later in the month. Terms similar to those reached in the initial agreements were attained for 70,000 employees of Southern Bell Telephone Co., which operates in nine Southeastern States, and 14,300 employees of Mountain States Telephone and Telegraph Co. which operates in seven Western States.

Construction

The Cabinet Committee on Price Stability created last January, and consisting of the Secretaries of the Treasury, Commerce, and Labor, the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, and the Chairman of the Council of Economic Advisors, expressed concern that recent wage negotations in the construction industry could imperil efforts to regain price stability.

The size of construction settlements has been accelerating since 1964 and has usually exceeded those in the rest of the economy. Last year's settlements averaged 7 percent a year while in the first quarter of this year the few already concluded reached 8.1 percent. Important negotiations causing concern were those in Ohio, Idaho, Oklahoma, Washington, Wisconsin, but most notably in Detroit, Mich., where union demands called for gains ranging from 24 to 60 percent a year. Package increases in two early settlements in the Detroit area amounted to 12½ and 18 percent a year. The Cabinet Committee said that these demands and increases threatened to harm the economy seriously and to raise sharply the cost of construction projects.

Construction settlements negotiated primarily in April and May included:

Two 5-year agreements between the Associated General Contractors and the Carpenters and Cement Masons in southern California which provided $2.70 wage and benefit packages for about 50,000 workers. Both trades bargained under wage reopenings of contracts due to expire in April of 1970.

A 3-year agreement between the Carpenters and the General Contractors of New Haven, Conn. Inc., which provided a $1.12-an-hour wage and benefit package for 1,000 workers. Highlight of the agreement was a reduction from an 8-hour day to either a 7-hour day or a 4½-day workweek effective April 1, 1970. The Bricklayers also negotiated a similar reduction, while the Plumbers will shift from an 8-hour day to a 36-hour workweek on August 1, 1968; and the Lathers shifted immediately from an 8-hour day to a 7½-hour day with a further reduction to a 7-hour day effective in April 1969.

A 3-year agreement between the Laborers and the General Contractors Association in Bridgeport, Conn., which provided a $1.05 wage package for 1,100 workers.

A 3-year agreement between the Operating Engineers and various contractor associations in eastern Pennsylvania and Delaware. Covering some 5,000 workers, the contract provided a wage and benefit package estimated at $1.94 for building construction workers and $1.87 for heavy and highway construction workers.

A 1-year agreement between the Millwrights and the Associated General Contractors in Detroit which provided an 80½-cent wage and benefit package with a provision for 40 cents an hour more in wages next year or a reopening on both wages and benefits at the option of the union.

A 3-year agreement between the Sheet Metal Workers and the Associated General Contractors in Detroit, which provided a $3.22 wage and benefit package.

A 30-month agreement between the Plumbers and the Gulf Coast Piping Contractors Association in the Beaumont, Tex., area, which provided a $1.50 wage package for 1,400 workers.

A 3-year agreement, ending a 1-month strike, between the Carpenters and the Associated General Contractors in the Oklahoma City, Okla., area which provided a $1 wage and benefit package for 1,000 workers.

A 15-month agreement, ending a 3-week strike, between the Sheet Metal Workers and the Sheet Metal and Airconditioning Contractors Association in the Colorado Springs, Colo., area which provided an 80-cent wage and benefit package for 1,000 workers.

A 2-year pact between the National Electrical Contractors Association and the Electricians (IBEW) in Colorado which provided an estimated 65-cent wage and benefit package for 1,300 workers. The agreement

also provided for double time pay for work on new projects and the elimination of wage differentials between two lower paid northern counties and the rest of the State.

A 39-month agreement, ending a 2-week strike, between the Laborers and the Inland Empire Chapter of the Associated General Contractors in Eastern Washington and Idaho which provided a $1.47 wage and benefit package for 2,600 workers.

A 39-month agreement between the Associated General Contractors and the Laborers in central Washington which provided a $1.40 wage and benefit package for 2,000 workers.

A 3-year agreement between the Associated Building Contractors of Terre Haute, Ind., and the Operating Engineers which provided a $1.80 wage and benefit package for 1,000 workers.

A national agreement between the Painters and the National Tank Fabricating and Erection Contractors providing wage increases ranging from $0.85 to $1.20 an hour over the 2-year life of the contract. The pact provided for division of the country into six districts, with wage and benefit rates varying by district and by areas within districts. The pact covers some sparsely populated areas where union contracts had been rare and the wage rates it provided were in most instances higher than those prevailing locally, according to Painters' General President S. Frank Raftery.

Apparel

Wage increases totaling 57½ cents an hour were provided 125,000 men's and boys' clothing industry employees in a 3-year contract negotiated in mid-May by the Clothing Manufacturers Association of the USA and the Clothing Workers. A 25-cent-an-hour wage increase was to be effective June 3, with an additional 17½ cents scheduled for June 2, 1969, and 15 cents on June 1, 1970. Among other terms were a revised method of calculating vacation pay; an increase in pensions of $1.50 a month for each year of service from the 21st through 40th year, and an increase of $7.50 a month for each $1,000 by which average annual earnings during the last 5 years of employment exceeded $5,000 (the previous pension benefit was a flat $75 a month at age 65 after 20 years); $3,000 instead of $2,000 life insurance; $60 instead of $50 maximum weekly disability payments; establishment of minimum scales for all time-work classifications, effective now, and for piecework classifications, effective in January 1970; provision for the establishment of an industrywide educational scholarship plan; and a variety of insurance changes. The insurance changes included full payment of a semiprivate hospital room for employees and dependents, instead of a maximum of $33 a day, for up to 120 days; a $500 instead of $375 surgical schedule; $200 instead of $100 maternity benefits; a $1,000 instead of $500 maximum for in-hospital incidental expenses; and $3 a day for up to 35 days for in-hospital nonsurgical care. The total employer payment to the Retirement and Social Insurance Funds was changed from 9½ percent of gross wages (excluding holiday and vacation pay) to 8.7 percent of gross wages plus payments for holidays and vacations. This change in the method of computing payments to the funds will not, in itself, result in a change in the dollar amount of payments, but dollar contributions to all funds were raised because the percentages will be applied to the higher wage level resulting from the settlement. Benefit improvements will be financed through this increase in funding.

Wages will remain unchanged over the next 3 years for some 550 employees of the John B. Stetson Co. in Philadelphia, Pa., as a result of a settlement on April 27 with the Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers' Union. In exchange for a "nonremoval, nondiversion" clause, which guarantees management will not move the company or any of its divisions from Philadelphia for the duration of the contract, the union agreed to no change in basic wages. The arrangement was made to help the company meet the cost of a plant modernization program aimed at increasing production and lowering unit costs. The company was reportedly losing $60,000 a month. The only immediate contract gain for the workers was an increase of about $100,000 a year in the company's contribution to the pension fund.

Metalworking

On May 7 the Crucible Steel Corp. announced a "no-strike agreement" with the Steelworkers, intended to stabilize production by eliminating the need for strike-hedge purchasing by Crucible customers. The settlement provided 15 cents an hour in temporary wage increases—10 cents immediately and 5 cents on August 1 if the major basic steel producers had not settled with the Steelworkers by then.[3] In return the union agreed not

[3] Basic steel agreements covering about 450,000 Steelworkers expire July 31, 1968.

to strike on July 31 when Crucible's contracts expire. The company added that it would adopt the wage and fringe benefit increases negotiated by the Steelworkers in the basic steel industry. The Steelworkers represent about 8,000 workers at Crucible, which produces specialty steels.

Agreement on a contract by Alan Wood Steel Co. of Conshohocken, Pa., and Local 1392 of the Steelworkers, on May 8, ended a 9-day strike by 2,350 workers. The settlement liberalized the company's JEEP [4] plan, which provides for sharing production cost savings with employees. The plan, established in 1965 and based on Kaiser Steel Corporation's Long Range Sharing Plan, is subject to further bargaining after 1 year. The 3-year contract also provided for improved working conditions. Wages, pensions, and other economic provisions were not at issue since any changes in these benefits that may result from the settlement with the major basic steel producers will be extended to Alan Wood employees.

A 3-year contract for 2,000 Auto Workers at Ex-Cell-O Corp. deviated from the auto pattern by establishing a category of "semiskilled" workers who received a 30-cent-an-hour wage increase the first year, while skilled workers received 50 cents and unskilled 15 cents. (At Ford, General Motors, and Chrysler, skilled employees received a 50-cent immediate wage increase and all other employees received 20 cents.) The skilled workers were to receive 22-cent increases in the second and third years, and other classifications 10-cent increases. Other terms of the settlement, which was preceded by a 1-month strike, were not reported.

Other Manufacturing

A 2-month strike by 6,500 employees of pineapple companies [5] in Hawaii ended on April 9 following ratification of a 4-year contract by members of the Longshoremen's Union. The agreement provided wage increases totaling 56 to 98 cents in five steps, the first retroactive to February 1, 1968. The minimum hourly rate was increased to $2.49 from $1.93 for regular workers and from $1.83 for intermittents and nonregulars. There were also some wage adjustments for harbor jobs in certain areas, and to correct intercompany inequities. Other terms included: a fourth week of paid vacation after 20 year's service effective February 1, 1971; extension of dental plan coverage to dependents up to 18 instead of 15 years of age and to 23 years for full-time students effective May 1, 1968; employer payment of 70 instead of 60 percent of the cost of medical and dental plans; improved medical and sick leave benefits; increased pension benefits; and separation allowances for intermittents and nonregulars.

Following a 1-month strike, a 3-year agreement was reached in early May by the Brown & Williamson Tobacco Corp. and the Tobacco Workers, representing 3,500 employees in Louisville, Ky. Wages were increased 28 cents in the first year, 9 cents in 1969, and 8 cents in 1970. While the total wage increase was the same as that recently negotiated by the union with other major companies in the industry, the timing differed slightly. (Wages were increased 24 cents, 9 cents, and 12 cents at the other companies.) Additional wage adjustments were provided for lower-rated classifications and a cost-of-living escalator clause was established. Second- and third-shift differentials were increased to 25 and 35 cents an hour, respectively, from 15 and 20 cents. Four weeks' vacation was provided after 20 instead of 25 years, and a fifth week after 32 years of service was established. Normal pension benefits were increased to $4 a month, from $3 a month for each year of credited service, and disability pensions were increased to $3.50 a month for each year of credited service, from $2.50. Life insurance was raised to $10,000, from $4,000, and sickness and accident, funeral leave, and seniority provisions were improved.

Union Carbide Corporation's Nuclear Division negotiated a 3-year contract with an Atomic Trades and Labor Council for 5,000 employees of two plants in Oak Ridge, Tenn. Wages were increased 5 percent effective immediately, and 4 percent in 1969, with the Trades Council having the option of a 3-percent deferred wage increase or a contract reopening in 1970. Hospital benefits were improved and a ninth paid holiday was added.

The McCall Corp. of Dayton, Ohio, and the Bookbinders in April reached agreement on a 3-year contract for 2,000 workers. Terms included an immediate 27-cent-an-hour wage increase, 20-cent increases in 1969 and 1970, an increase to $6, from $3.95 in the monthly pension for each year of credited service, and company assumption of the

[4] Joint Economic Expansion Plan.

[5] California Packing Corp., Dole Co., Hawaiian Fruit Packers, Ltd., Libby, McNeill & Libby, and Maui Pineapple Co., Ltd.

full cost of the insurance plan, which resulted in savings of $1.23 to $2.40 a week for the employees.

Trade

Spiegel, Inc., and Teamster Local 743 negotiated a 3-year contract in mid-April for about 7,000 clerical, data processing, and warehouse employees in Chicago. The agreement provided a 15-cent wage increase retroactive to March 1, and 12½-cent increases in March of both 1969 and 1970. Other terms included a cost-of-living clause and improved health and welfare benefits.

In New York City, 5,100 employees of Bloomingdale's and Stern Brothers department stores received a $7-a-week pay increase, retroactive to March 1, as a result of settlements with District 65 of the Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union. Both settlements provided for a $2 hourly minimum effective September 1, 1968. The Bloomingdale contract is for 2 years, with a provision for second year gains to match those the union will negotiate with Gimbels. The Stern contract is for 1 year.

Locals 653 and 653A of the Meat Cutters negotiated a 3-year contract in April for 6,000 meat and grocery department employees of food store chains in the Minneapolis, Minn., area. The contract provided weekly wage increases totaling $31 for meat department workers and heavy-duty clerks, and $27 for light-duty clerks. Other provisions included an increased employer contribution to the pension fund, improved health and welfare benefits, and the adoption of seniority provisions for part-time workers and an apprenticeship program for clerks.

One of the chains, Red Owl Stores, signed a concurrent agreement for its new central meat processing plant that included a wage scale 30 cents above the retail scale and a guarantee that present retail employees would not be laid off.

Meat Cutter locals in Evansville, South Bend, Indianapolis, and Terre Haute, Ind., recently negotiated a 3-year contract with the Kroger, A&P, National Tea, and Eisner Food store chains. Terms included total wage increases of $27 a week for head meat cutters and journeymen and $21 for wrappers and apprentices, and a $4 a month increase in the employer's health and welfare contribution. The previous top minimum wage rates were $131.50 for head cutters, $126 for journeymen, and $95 for wrappers.

Government

Public school teachers in Boston, Mass., ratified a 2-year contract in mid-April that had been negotiated by the Boston School Committee and the Boston Teachers Union, an American Federation of Teachers affiliate. The contract provided a $500–$700 increase effective September 1, 1968, and a $500–$600 increase a year later, bringing the range of annual salaries to $7,000–$11,300 for the 4,500 teachers. A health and welfare fund to be used for supplementing Blue Cross-Blue Shield benefits was also established; the School Committee will contribute to it $50 a year per teacher.

On April 19, the Newark (N.J.) Board of Education approved a wage settlement with the American Federation of Teachers for the city's 3,500 public school teachers. The agreement raised starting salaries to $6,700 a year, from $6,300, effective September 1, 1968.

The San Francisco, Calif., Board of Supervisors, on March 26, approved a pay raise for over 13,000 city and county employees to become effective on July 1, 1968. The average increase was 7.9 percent, with employees earning $721 or less per month receiving 10 percent and the remainder receiving an average of 5 percent. In November 1967, employees with 15 years or more of service had gained a fourth week of vacation. The previous maximum had been 3 weeks vacation after 5 years of service.

The Cuyahoga County, Ohio, commissioners on May 2 reached agreement with Local 1746 of the State, County and Municipal Employees union on a 3-year contract for 2,000 Welfare Department employees. The agreement provided a reopener on November 15, 1968, on the union's proposal that the County assume the cost of the employees' hospitalization insurance. The 9-cent travel allowance was increased to 10 cents a mile effective May 1, to 11 cents in 1969, and to 12 cents in 1970. The grievance procedure was revised, and monthly payments made by employees living in county institutions were reduced to $38 from $43. The employees will get a 5 percent wage increase July 1, 1968, under a statute already passed by the Legislature.

Legislation enacted by the Kentucky General Assembly guaranteed nonunion construction workers working on public projects the same supplementary benefits as those prevailing locally for union workers. Kentucky already had a law requir-

ing the payment of prevailing local wage scales. The Federal Davis-Bacon Act was amended in 1964 to include fringe benefits.

Other Developments

The AFL–CIO Executive Council suspended the United Auto Workers (UAW) from membership in the federation for nonpayment of dues for February, March, and April 1968. The action, effective May 15, was taken at the council's regular spring meeting and culminated a 2-year dispute over the course of the labor movement. The move was made under provisions of the AFL–CIO constitution, calling for automatic suspension if per capita payments are in arrears for 3 months. AFL–CIO President George Meany sent a letter to Auto Workers' President Walter Reuther informing him of the suspension and indicating that the federation's constitution prohibits a suspended union from being represented in any subordinate body.

As a result, Mr. Reuther was stripped of his last AFL–CIO office, the presidency of the 6.5 million member Industrial Union Department. Jack Conway, the IUD's executive director, announced that he would convene a meeting of the department's executive board to name Mr. Reuther's successor. The meeting was tentatively scheduled for June 14, at which time Mr. Conway stated that he would submit his own resignation.

The split within the federation had widened considerably in March when Mr. Reuther addressed a letter to Mr. Meany asking for a special convention in December 1968 where the UAW would present its program "for the revitalization of the American labor movement." [6] The letter indicated that the UAW would "disaffiliate from the AFL–CIO" if the special convention was not held.

At the Auto Workers' 21st convention, which began in Atlantic City on May 4, the 2,800 delegates had approved a resolution authorizing UAW officers to stop per capita payments to the AFL–CIO and to put the money in escrow unless the federation agreed to the union's demand for a special convention to be held by December 15, 1968. The UAW dues of about $1 million a year amounted to almost 10 percent of the federation's income from its affiliates. The delegates also approved several changes in the union's constitution facilitating a more "independent" course for the Auto Workers. One change authorized the union's executive board to take any action to "enable the UAW to mobilize, assist, and work with other organizations" to meet "urgent problems confronting society and the labor movement." The other constitutional amendment gave the board power to establish new State and local UAW organizations called Community Action Programs, and to require UAW locals to affiliate with them. These Programs would replace the locals' memberships in State and local AFL–CIO councils "in the event of disaffiliation." Still another constitutional change allowed UAW members to block the spending of union dues for political campaigns. In other actions, the delegates reelected Mr. Reuther to another 2-year term by acclamation and also reelected other top officers. Mr. Reuther's salary was raised from $29,500 to $31,340 annually, effective June 1, 1968.

Among other unions holding conventions in May were the Building Service Employees, the United Textile Workers, and the Hatters. The Building Service Employees' 14th convention in Washington shortened the union's name to Service Employees International Union. The dues structure was amended to provide more funds for expanded organizing and collective bargaining efforts and to meet increases in other costs. The per capita tax was raised from 70 to 80 cents a month, and local dues were increased from $3 to $4 a month, both increases to be effective January 1, 1969. The delegates reelected President David Sullivan to another 4-year term, approved a constitutional amendment increasing the number of vice presidents from 6 to 7, and enlarged the executive board from 8 to 14 members. The United Textile Workers, meeting in Miami Beach, reelected all top officers including President George Baldanzi and Secretary-Treasurer Francis Schauferbil. The 400 delegates also voted support for proposed Federal occupational health and safety standards after hearing a speech by Assistant Secretary of Labor Esther Peterson in favor of the legislation. The Hatters, meeting in New York City, reelected Alex Rose as president and Alfred Smoke as secretary-treasurer. Also reelected was an executive board of 15 vice presidents.

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[6] See *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1968, pp. 65–66.

New Transportation Conference

Formation of a conference of about 60 AFL–CIO unions in the transportation industry was announced on May 22. C. L. Dennis, president of the Railway and Airlines Clerks union, was elected chairman of the conference, which consists of six divisions covering the various types of transportation. Mr. Dennis said that the conference was formed ". . . to strengthen the interunion ties between all transportation labor" and thus "protect the jobs and the future of our members." The 60 unions represent about 2 million workers.

A "memorandum of agreement" signed March 1 by the Steelworkers and 11 major steel companies provided for an experimental program to provide mill jobs for a "limited number" of hard-core unemployed who cannot meet educational hiring standards. The agreement enables local unions and plant managements to deviate from the basic steel contract by extending the 30-day probationary period for new employees to 6 months. The companies were to lower hiring standards for unemployed persons having "basic educational deficiencies". In return, the worker must pledge to "pursue a course of study approved by the company" to raise his educational level. The course of study would presumably be undertaken on the new employee's own time. The company can discharge the worker at the end of the probationary period if he reneges on the pledge.

Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower, announced in May that the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) has enrolled 59,400 hard-core unemployed since the first project began in June 1967; of these, 22,500 [7] had been placed in jobs. He added that more than 90 percent of project placements came from families with incomes below the poverty line. The CEP goal is to place a total of 52,000 unemployed workers by July 1, 1968.

Meanwhile, 6,013 persons had been enrolled in Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) projects financed by Federal grants and business firms. The National Alliance of Businessmen, headed by Henry Ford II, is promoting the JOBS program which seeks to enlist private enterprise in fighting hard-core unemployment. The program has a goal of 100,000 job placements by July 1, 1969.

[7] Based on figures as of April 19.

Book Reviews and Notes

New Thoughts on Old Thinking

Enterprise and Environment: The Firm in Time and Place. By Neil W. Chamberlain. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968. 223 pp. $7.95.

Although relatively small in number of pages, this book is large in the amount of stimulating and refreshing thinking it contains. It is a pithy, tersely written work that carries little excess verbal fat on its lithe framework of ideas. Consequently, a short review such as this can only sample a few of its many seminal observations.

As the author notes in his Preface, "this book represents an extension of earlier thinking" contained in his previous books dealing with *A General Theory of Economic Process*, *The Firm*, *Micro-Economic Planning and Action*, and *Private and Public Planning*. The theme of the present volume, in the words of the author, is this: "How the business firm uses the discretion available to it to attempt to establish some measure of control over its operations in an environment filled with uncertainty due to change, and to relate itself to a society which is seeking to do the same thing."

Professor Chamberlain views the firm as a system embedded in an even larger system, and begins his analysis by locating the firm in "the time stream." Using the analogy of a ship embarked on a voyage on an uncharted river with many tributaries, he states a point that is reiterated throughout the book: Namely, that changes in the activities of organizations occur not only as a response to shifts in the historical environment, but also because the organization formulates goals toward which it strives. The organizational ship "throws its hook into the future, as it were, anchoring it in some intended destination toward which it pulls itself, purposively, modifying its activity and organization as necessary to achieve this end."

Throughout the first half of the book, which deals with "the enterprise," the focus continues on the purpose of the organization's decisionmaking with respect to its future. These kinds of decisions, the strategic decisions, are not dictated by the past and hence they are the more interesting type, as compared with day-to-day administrative decisions, from the author's point of view. They involve uncertainty. However, since they also involve the quality of judgment coupled with purposiveness and a sense of the future, such uncertainty should not be regarded "simply as a danger or threat to be surmounted but as an opportunity to be taken advantage of."

The last half of the book is devoted to an examination of the environment and how it meets the firm in a constant but fluid interplay between corporate discretion and social constraint. Eschewing what he refers to as the "post-Darwinian" approach to interpreting the historical environment as an evolving process where the past determines the future, the author again stresses the purposiveness of human institutions and also calls attention to the "instrusive event" that can disrupt or alter the tendency for orderly and gradual change. In so doing, he makes an extremely important point with which this reviewer fully agrees: "What the social sciences require, in contrast to the natural sciences, is not a constantly improving single system of knowledge but a succession of theoretical systems, each useful for its own epoch." Applying this specifically to economics, Professor Chamberlain believes that "there will always be revolutions in economic theory, not because—or not solely because—of radically new ways of looking at the same phenomena, but because the phenomena themselves are no longer the same."

Another contrapuntal theme, among the many that keep running through the book, is the emphasis on the necessity of studying divergent economic behavior as well as searching for generalizations and central tendencies. The standard deviation is at least as important as, and perhaps more interesting than, the mean.

In closing out the book, the author acknowledges that the kinds of issues he raises may result in a less rigorous and scientific analysis, but adds that the analytic problems thus offered may be more challenging. "For some," he says, "the

added piquancy may be worth the loss of elegance and form." For this noneconomist reviewer, it was. We can only hope that this view will be shared by some of Professor Chamberlain's own economic colleagues.

—Lyman W. Porter
Professor of Administration and Psychology
University of California, Irvine

Cut of the Cloth

New England Textiles in the Nineteenth Century: Profits and Investment. By Paul F. McGouldrick. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1968, 307 pp., bibliography. $6.50.

The main objective of this book is to evaluate the determinants of investment in plant and equipment in the New England textile industry during the period 1835 to 1885. The statistical data and other information were obtained largely from individual company records on file at the Baker Memorial Library, Harvard University.

There are eight chapters and 67 pages of appendices, bibliography, additional notes and indices, plus the book's index. Chapter 7, entitled "Plant and Equipment Spending and Its Determinants," contains the main results of the quantitative evaluation of the determinants of investment.

This study is undoubtedly of great interest from a historical viewpoint, because it contains a detailed account of 19th century textile company policies regarding investment, dividend payouts and retention of earnings, and other aspects of company financing and accounts; the structure of company management and ownership; a general description of economic conditions, especially labor conditions, during this period; a description of textile technology; and other industry problems and practices.

To explain dividend policy, the author uses the Lintner model of the form

$$\triangle D_t = A + B_1 P_t + B_2 D_{t-1} + u_t$$

where D_t represents the change in dividends during period t; P_t is profit during period t; D_{t-1} represents dividends paid out during period $t-1$; B_1 is the target level of dividends; and B_2 is the speed of adjustment coefficient. This equation is found to be superior to several others which the author tested. Thus, dividends paid out by textile companies are seen to depend primarily upon company profits during period t and on dividends paid out during period $t-1$. It was also found that the speed of adjustment and payout ratio coefficients for 19th century textile companies were considerably higher than those found by Lintner for modern corporations.

In his analysis of investment expenditures, Professor McGouldrick first tests the hypothesis according to which sales changes have a distributed accelerator effect on investment. Current sales and sales lagged 1 and 2 years used alone and in conjunction with variables such as liquidity, age of fixed capital, lagged profits, and dividend changes were found to explain only a minor fraction of capital spending.

The author then tests the widely accepted present-day hypothesis that profits have a distributed effect on investment in plant and equipment. Current profits and profits lagged 1 and 2 years used in conjunction with liquidity, age of fixed capital, and dividend changes were found to explain up to four-fifths of capital spending in the textile industry during this early period. These results do not differ widely from those found for similar variables in recent years for modern corporations.

Many other findings contained in this book would be both useful and interesting to those concerned with the evaluation of the determinants of investment spending, economic history, and research methodology.

—Joseph Zaremba
Associate Professor of Economics
Fordham University

Society and Law

Constitutional Politics In The Progressive Era: Child Labor and the Law. By Stephen B. Wood. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1968. 320 pp., bibliography. $10.

In this study, Dr. Wood has provided us with detailed, in-depth documentation of the genesis, organization, personalities, relationships, legal positions, successes, and failures of a major social

movement and the movement's adversaries. Most important, the author discusses the interaction of this movement with the principal social, political, legal, and economic forces and developments during and after the progressive era. The study is an excellent example of the historical, institutional approach to the study of constitutional politics, and although Dr. Wood's focus is not directed toward systems analysis, an obvious import of the work is the contribution that such methodological designs can and must make if systems analysis is to move beyond abstractions. In this sense, the author's work is not the final answer, but supplies the required detail relationships between a subsystem—the child labor reform movement—and the major social system of a particular period of time.

As the author points out, the history of child labor reform encompasses a period of over 30 years, from about 1907 to 1941. However, his focus is upon the events of the progressive era and particularly the political nature of the judicial decisionmaking role of the Supreme Court vis-a-vis the popular sovereignty claims of the Congress. The study clearly illustrates the peculiar American phenomenon of judicial review and how Court decisions frequently either lag or lead prevailing popular social opinion.

Child labor reform proposals are described as they were formulated and expressed by citizen committees and reform legislatures of the progressive era. The author's analysis of the reasons for rejection by a "lagging" Supreme Court is well done and persuasive. However, his out-of-hand rejection of other analytical approaches to an understanding of Supreme Court decisionmaking is unnecessary. The historical-institutional approach should be considered complementary to the analytical approaches of Schubert and others and not mutually exclusive.

I have some minor disagreements with the author's historical interpretations. The attempts of presidents to appoint Supreme Court justices with supportive economic, social, and political attitudes is oversimplified, and in my opinion, the author was much too kind to Taft. However, these criticisms are strictly minor personal differences in interpretations and in no way reflect upon the positive contributions of the work. I would highly recommend the book as supplementary reading in social security and protective labor legislation courses as well as political science courses focusing upon constitutional law and judicial decisionmaking. The nonspecialist and layman can also profit from this studied exploration of constitutional politics, although he must be prepared to accept challenges to views of the Supreme Court and the judicial process that do not reinforce contemporary myth and folklore.

—Charles T. Schmidt, Jr.

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University of Rhode Island

Guide to Creativity

Knowledge and the Future of Man: An International Symposium. Edited by Walter J. Ong. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968. 276 pp. $7.95.

Here is a collection of essays, written to celebrate the 150th anniversary of St. Louis University. The last two papers seem to provide the basic theme for the total collection. These essays summon Roman Catholics to work with other men of goodwill in building a society worthy of man's possibilities. The thought is that man is created conditioned by his past and present, and is himself creative of his future. It is to this creativity that the collection of essays is directed.

What is happening in university investigation and teaching gets attention, as well as the use made of university studies in the nonuniversity society. Sources of information, investigational techniques, and associated problems of population and resource use are all discussed. The picture is presented of an accelerating rate of human materialistic advancement.

Ranging as the collection does, from technology through law to the history of philosophical theories and of religion, probably few readers will find all the essays equally valuable, but few should fail to widen their understanding by reading them. Non-Catholic Christians may be impressed by the Catholic acceptance of "modern" views current among non-Catholics: God is regarded as a source of purpose and guidance rather than as an omnipotent and attentive supervisor, and man's objectives are considered in terms of the world, not a

heavenly hereafter. But doesn't this view also apply to members of other faiths and to rational humanists who deny religion? If so, it should provide an acceptable meeting ground for Western teachers and investigators with their fellows in such countries as India, China, and Soviet Russia.

In the essay on universities, I was pleased to find such strong support given to procedures that I have been using professionally, such as having students learn by tackling practical problems.

Having once lived in Africa, I found Sir Eric Ashby's paper on education in tropical Africa enlightening, and recommend it to others with interest in that continent.

—Edmund Whittaker
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Colorado State University
and Hampden-Sydney College

Problem Children

Families of the Slum: An Exploration of Their Structure and Treatment. By Salvador Minuchin, Braulio Montalvo, Bernard G. Guerney, Jr., Bernice L. Rosman, Florence Schumer. New York, Basic Books, Inc., 1967. 460 pp. $10.

There is a rapidly growing movement in psychiatry to understand behavioral disturbance as a function of family structure and to develop ways of treating the family as a unit. The basic concept now used for illumination is that the behavior of the disturbed individual is in some fashion an expression of his whole family and the quality of his membership in it. The task is to identify (1) what it is about the family, and (2) the way in which the individual whose behavior is of concern is involved with the family.

The behavior at issue in the present instance is delinquency. The work for this book was done at the Wiltwyck School for Boys, a small private residential treatment center in New York; the residents are described as being mostly from minority groups and from the worst slum areas. The purpose of the research was "to shed light on the dynamics of disadvantaged, 'hard-core' families which had produced more than one acting-out child (juvenile delinquent) . . . equally significant . . . was to explore the efficacy of a specially developed technique of family treatment. . . ."

The study and treatment of families as functioning units are both quite new. It is too early to expect systematic theories or definitive, rigorous findings. The most one can ask of a work such as the one under review is: does it open up promising avenues of thought and promising techniques of investigation or intervention?

In their review of the literature on the poor, the authors note that the poor are diverse rather than homogeneous. They indicate that they do not know how representative are the families on which their work is mainly based: 12 research families that have produced delinquents; and 10 families matched for ethnicity, income, presence or absence of father figure in the home, and other variables deemed relevant, but which have produced no delinquent children. In addition, the authors draw on their experience with a far larger number of poor, disorganized families. The Wiltwyck children who provide the index cases present a wide range of problems, from excessive truancy to firesetting and stabbing. One may wonder whether such a range of problem behaviors, all of which qualify for a gross diagnosis of "delinquency," provides a reasonable basis for promising exploration.

Overall, the work does not yield much in the way of significant new leads. The families which produce delinquents are found to suffer from poor internal regulation; the dominant characteristic of the family environment is its unpredictability. But we get no very clear sense of how these families differ from those which do not produce a delinquent. The authors judged that they had therapeutic success (defined as increased ability to explore alternative ways of coping with family stress) in 7 of the 12 research families; there are no substantial clues concerning the reasons for success or failure.

The basic conclusion reached by the authors seems sound. They aline themselves with the two-step hypothesis of Daniel P. Moynihan: (1) Gross poverty generates family pathology, so that large-scale social programs designed to overcome economic disadvantage are required; and (2) the eco-

nomic disadvantage of the Negro poor may be of such long standing as to result in damage that will not respond to economic remedy alone.

The book is too long, too loosely written, too lacking in focus.

—GERALD HANDEL
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City College of the City University of New York

Mathematical Adaptation

Toward a Mathematics of Politics. By Gordon Tullock. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1967. 176 pp. $7.95.

This small, overpriced book contains mathematically formulated analyses of several classical political and economic problems. Political scientists and economists familiar with previous writings by Gordon Tullock, James Buchanan, Kenneth Arrow, Anthony Downs, and William H. Riker will consult this volume for examples of growing efforts to adapt mathematics to political analysis. The problems that Tullock treats mathematically include Arrow's voting paradox, the multidimensionality of choice, the circulation of information, the relation of ignorance to rational decision, and proportional representation.

To my reading, the most original chapter undertakes to demonstrate the irrelevance of Arrow's "general impossibility theorem." Arrow logically demonstrated that a rational decision rule cannot be found that aggregates rational individual preferences into a rational social or collective choice when more than a few assumptions or criteria of rationality are entertained.

The author's treatment does not disprove Arrow's general impossibility theorem, but rather undertakes to render it trivial by arguing that it is seldom of much importance when large numbers of voters, or decisionmakers, are involved. Arrow and others confined their theorizing and exercises to relatively small numbers. Tullock, on the other hand, considers social decisionmaking at large, and while acknowledging the imperfections in majority voting, concludes that these make "no practical difference."

The sense of realism and practicality that marks the essay on the "voting paradox" is utterly absent in the chapter on proportional representation. Its naivete defies summary in a brief review. Suffice it to note that the use of computers to apportion representation and to allocate time in legislative proceedings, while doubtless within the realm of electronic possibilities, passes political understanding.

Political science, as an academic field of study, has been undergoing a quantitative revolution that other social sciences, except for anthropology and history, have previously encountered and incorporated. The stages of the revolution appear roughly comparable from one discipline to another. First, realistic observation and description encroach on speculation and abstract normative exercises. Second, anecdotal realism yields to systematic quantitative analyses including inferential statistics. The advent of computers may have further prolonged this state in political analysis, because the high speed calculation processes encourage inductive analysis at the expense of deductive theorizing. Then follows the application of formal mathematics, which may take one of two forms. The first searches or mathematical models that fit large bodies of data and express the distribution of cases according to some classical formula. The second formalizes a theory from which one derives testable hypotheses to be confirmed or disconfirmed by reference to data.

Dr. Tullock follows the latter use of mathematics, and one that I have for some time intuitively felt to be the more parsimonious (and, therefore, more promising) application. If this volume does not seem so original or striking as the earlier works of Tullock and his colleagues, it is because the frontier has been reached and we are beginning to see incremental gains in contrast to dramatic movements. What remains is to equip political scientists with the mathematics necessary to the task. Whether the graduate schools undertake this responsibility no longer matters; elementary and secondary schools have prepared the transition by revising their curricula and including "new math." When political analysts in reasonable numbers have the requisite skills for mathematical work, we will see more and more applications similar to those displayed by the author's essay. The eclectic, if uneven, character of this collection should help stimulate, as well as illustrate, the kind and range of important topics amenable to mathematical treatment.

—JAMES A. ROBINSON
Mershon Professor of Political Science
Ohio State University

Trade Preferences

Reshaping the World Economy: Rich Countries and Poor. Edited by John A. Pincus. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1968. 176 pp. $4.95.

The 15 essays appearing in this volume are oriented to the problems facing the 122 governments assembled at the second session of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development held in New Delhi early in 1968. Therefore, the major emphasis of this collection is on trade rather than on aid. Harry Johnson reviews the major arguments for and against trade preferences in favor of developing countries, and concludes preferential arrangements are best, provided they are devised with a view to maximizing trade creation and minimizing trade diversion. This system would require concentration of preferences on products in which the developed countries have a comparative disadvantage and the less developed countries an established or potential comparative advantage. John Pincus reviews the well-known limitations of international commodity agreements, but nevertheless gives them qualitative support, together with suggestions as to how they might be improved. Gottfried Haberler's essay sets forth the contributions of expanded trade to economic development including the point that "free international trade is the best antimonopoly policy and the best guarantee for the maintenance of a healthy degree of free competition." Sidney Dell outlines, in familiar terms, the advantages of expanding regional markets through economic integration and explores the possibility of a Western Hemisphere preferential system.

Several of the articles concentrate on the population problem, generally viewed as a major barrier to rapid growth. Barbara Ward points out that unlike the situation in the industrializing countries of the nineteenth century, rapid population growth in the modern developing countries has occurred before, rather than after, the breakthrough to greater mechanization and productivity.

The book reprints the dialogue between Milton Friedman and Charles Wolf, Jr., on the value of foreign aid, but the essays reveal more about the ideologies of the authors than they do about the theory and practice of foreign aid. Most of the articles are cautious regarding how much external assistance can contribute to the development process, and tend to emphasize the limitations of what can be done from the outside in the face of the sociological and structural obstacles to development.

While these essays, all of which are reprints of previously published material, will provide readers with an eclectic overview of the problems of economic development, they offer nothing new for the well-informed student of development. The dates of the original papers span more than a decade so that the reader does not have the benefit of knowing how the authors would revise what they have said in light of recent events, or how they would interpret more recent developments. Such efforts would be far more valuable if the authors of the original pieces were required to rewrite them within a year or so of publication. This procedure might prove rewarding to both the authors and their readers.

—Raymond F. Mikesell
W. E. Miner Professor of Economics
University of Oregon

Summaries of Recent Books

A Primer on the Economics of Consumption. By Elizabeth W. Gilboy. New York, Random House, Inc., 1968. 112 pp., bibliography. $1.95.

A Primer on Food, Agriculture, and Public Policy. By Earl O. Heady. New York, Random House, Inc., 1968. 177 pp., bibliography. $4.95.

As part of the continuing Primer in Economics series, these two books discuss topics of concern in the United States today. The first examines how consumers spend their money and analyzes what has happened to the size distribution of income, to leisure, and to various categories of consumer expenditure since the 1930's. Comparisons between the United States and Western Europe, the Soviet Union, and Communist China are also made to determine the relationships between consumer spending and economic growth.

The format of this series of primers is that of simplicity; the books are written for the laymen. In his discussion of food and farm problems, Pro-

fessor Heady critically evaluates government programs of the past and outlines solutions for the longrun. Although half the world's population have inadequate diets today, food has been an item of "embarrassing abundance" in the United States. But, according to the author, "to claim that the Nation's farm dilemma is one of food surpluses is to frame the problem too simply. The basic problem is much more complex. It stems basically from national economic growth and it must be solved accordingly. Solutions must extend beyond farming and into the reaches of the entire rural community."

Manpower Agenda for America. By Eli Ginzberg. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1968. 250 pp.

In the preface, the aim of this book is given as "to present a series of analyses of contemporary manpower problems that challenge both the student of ideas and the citizen looking for remedies to urgent social and economic problems." The contents of this volume were originally written as speeches or articles. The author first discusses the evolution of manpower policy and then attempts to identify the barriers that block the escape from poverty and evaluates "the forces operating to turn our productive system into an economy of skill and the problems and difficulties that this transformation has brought in its wake."

National Economic Policy: The Presidential Reports. Edited by Reuben E. Slesinger. Princeton, N.J., D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1968. 245 pp.

The Employment Act of 1946 was signed into law by President Truman and with it came the establishment of the Council of Economic Advisers, the Joint Economic Committee, and the Economic Report of the President. The concern of Congress was to make it the "continuing policy and responsibility of the Federal Government to use all practicable means . . . to foster and promote free competitive enterprise and the general welfare, conditions under which there will be afforded useful employment opportunities, including self-employment for those able, willing, and seeking to work, and to promote maximum employment, production, and purchasing power. . . ." Professor Slesinger offers a review of the Economic Reports and describes the development of major policy issues as taken up in the reports. The chapters center on discussion of full employment, prices and market structure, the guideposts, economic growth, monetary and fiscal policies, and the balance of payments. The author notes that the "heart of the 1967 Report is not much different from that of its predecessors so far as topics of coverage are concerned," but that it "delves further . . . into policies to aid the disadvantaged, and also reflects the economic impact of the activities in Viet Nam."

A Great Society? Edited by Bertram M. Gross. New York, Basic Books, Inc., 1968. 362 pp. $8.50.

In May 1965, President Johnson presented five questions on the present and future goals of the Great Society to be considered by a group of scholars from several of our Nation's universities. Bertram Gross and Michael Marien list these questions and provide some answers in the first chapter; the remainder of the book contains a dialogue in public policy by various academicians. The discussion is on economic as well as noneconomic areas. Contributors to this seminar, held at Syracuse University, include Daniel Bell, Kenneth Boulding, Peter Drucker, and Hans Morgenthau. The views of the contributors are openly expressed, and are intended to stir "meaningful controversy on the issues of future elections and the policies of future national administrations."

Other Recent Publications

Economic Development

The Economics of Development. By Everet E. Hagen. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1968. 536 pp. (Irwin Series in Economics.) $12.

Toward an Integrated Theory of Development: Economic and Noneconomic Variables in Rural Development. By William F. Whyte and Lawrence K. Williams. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, 1968. 89 pp. (ILR Paperback 5.) $1.50.

Strategic Factors in Economic Development. By Nicholas Kaldor. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, 1967. 83 pp. $2.50.

Education and Training

Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1968–69 Edition. Washington, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968. xiv, 763 pp. (Bulletin 1550; revision of Bulletin 1450.) $4.25, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Manpower and Economic Education: Opportunities in American Economic Life. By Robert L. Darcy and Phillip E. Powell. New York, Joint Council on Economic Education, 1968. 316 pp. Teacher Manual (141 pp.) also available.

Society's Children: A Study of Ressentiment in the Secondary School. By Carl Nordstrom, Edgar Z. Friedenberg, Hilary A. Gold. New York, Random House, Inc., 1967. 209 pp., bibliography. $2.45.

Labor: Neglected Source of Support. By Milferd Lieberthal. Champaign, Ill., University of Illinois, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1968. 4 pp. (Reprint Series 180; from American Vocational Journal, December 1967.) Single copies free.

Contributions and Costs of Manpower Development and Training. By Garth L. Mangum. Joint publication of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Michigan—Wayne State University and the National Manpower Policy Task Force. 1967. 85 pp. (Policy Papers in Human Resources and Human Relations, 5.) $2, Publications Office, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, Ann Arbor, Mich.

A Nationwide Evaluation of M.D.T.A. Institutional Job Training. By Earl D. Main. (*In* Journal of Human Resources: Education, Manpower, and Welfare Policies, University of Wisconsin, Industrial Relations Research Institute, Madison, Spring 1968, pp. 159–170. $2, University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wis.)

The Role of the State in Vocational Training: The Classical Economists' View. By Samuel Hollander. (*In* Southern Economic Journal, Chapel Hill, N.C., April 1968, pp. 513–525. $2.)

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Technical Note on Current Statistical Series

Introducing March 1967 Benchmarks

The annual benchmark is an integral part of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' establishment payroll survey program. It provides an accurate level of the number of employees on nonagricultural payrolls. Monthly reports submitted by a sample of approximately 150,000 employers are used to measure the month-to-month changes in the benchmark level. New benchmarks are established for March of each year. The corresponding estimates are corrected for sampling and response errors which may have accumulated since the previous benchmark.

Employment estimates appearing in table A–9 and A–10 have been adjusted to reflect the complete employment counts as of March 1967. The hours, earnings, and labor turnover series, tables B–1 and C–1 through C–6, which are weighted by the employment estimates, have also been revised. In addition, new seasonal adjustment factors, based on more current data, have been computed and the seasonally adjusted series have been brought into agreement.

In most instances of recent benchmark revisions, the estimates for major industry divisions have varied from benchmarks by less than 1 percent. The March 1967 total benchmark count of 64.8 million workers on establishment payrolls was higher than the estimate by 26,000—a difference of only 0.04 percent. The benchmarks of each of the eight divisions ranged from 1.6 percent below the estimate for contract construction to 0.5 percent above the estimate for manufacturing. Of the 285 categories shown in table A–9, the employment estimates of only 16 were revised by 5 percent or more.

Differences between estimates and benchmarks are assumed to have accumulated at a constant rate over the previous 12 months. Most series, therefore, are adjusted by wedging or tapering out the difference over the period from the new benchmark to the preceding one. Estimates subsequent to the new benchmark are revised by projecting the new level forward to the current month using the sample trend.

Benchmarks are not available for the hours and earnings and labor turnover series. The levels shown are derived from the BLS reporting sample only. However, employment benchmarks are used as weights in computing the hours and earnings averages and labor turnover rates for broader industry groupings. Revisions in employment levels may cause a reallocation of weights which, in turn, may change the averages. Generally speaking, the introduction of new benchmarks does not change average weekly hours, average hourly earnings, and labor turnover series for broader groupings by more than one tenth of an hour, one cent, or one-tenth of one percentage point, respectively.

Details of the current benchmark adjustment are given in the June 1968 issue of *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

Current Labor Statistics

TABLES

A.—Labor Force and Employment

B.—Labor Turnover

C.—Earnings and Hours

D.—Consumer and Wholesale Prices

E.—Work Stoppages

F.—Productivity

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[1] Tables A–7, A–8, and F–1 appear quarterly in the February, May, August, and November issues of the *Review*.

NOTE: With the exceptions noted, the statistical series here from the Bureau of Labor Statistics are described in *BLS Handbook of Methods for Surveys and Studies* (BLS Bulletin 1458, 1966).

A.—Labor Force and Employment

TABLE A–1. Summary employment and unemployment estimates, by age and sex, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Employment status, age, and sex	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
TOTAL															
Total labor force	82,149	81,849	82,150	82,138	81,386	81,942	81,459	81,535	81,263	81,057	80,944	80,658	79,958	80,793	78,893
Civilian labor force	78,613	78,343	78,658	78,672	77,923	78,473	77,989	78,072	77,807	77,598	77,495	77,214	76,502	77,347	75,770
Employed	75,829	75,636	75,802	75,731	75,167	75,577	75,005	74,735	74,638	74,664	74,478	74,169	73,550	74,372	72,895
Agriculture	3,893	3,980	4,014	4,127	4,003	4,216	3,839	3,718	3,697	3,956	3,847	3,739	3,728	3,844	3,979
Nonagricultural industries	71,936	71,656	71,788	71,604	71,164	71,361	71,166	71,017	70,941	70,708	70,631	70,430	69,822	70,528	68,915
Unemployed	2,784	2,707	2,856	2,941	2,756	2,896	2,984	3,337	3,169	2,934	3,017	3,045	2,952	2,975	2,875
MEN, 20 YEARS AND OVER															
Total labor force	48,689	45,716	48,632	48,678	48,538	48,555	48,350	48,365	48,269	48,295	48,270	48,191	47,988	48,184	47,437
Civilian labor force	45,713	44,758	45,792	45,909	45,770	45,783	45,578	45,598	45,506	45,489	45,430	45,309	45,089	45,353	44,787
Employed	44,742	44,758	44,783	44,842	44,740	44,775	44,506	44,460	44,468	44,421	44,346	44,174	43,989	44,294	43,667
Agriculture	2,855	2,877	2,892	2,955	2,931	2,951	2,834	2,793	2,798	2,819	2,799	2,744	2,778	2,821	2,894
Nonagricultural industries	41,887	41,881	41,891	41,887	41,809	41,824	41,672	41,667	41,670	41,602	41,547	41,430	41,211	41,473	40,773
Unemployed	971	958	1,009	1,067	1,030	1,008	1,072	1,138	1,038	1,068	1,084	1,135	1,100	1,060	1,119
WOMEN, 20 YEARS AND OVER															
Civilian labor force	26,199	25,918	26,094	26,070	25,810	26,348	26,068	26,063	25,918	25,572	25,529	25,230	24,926	25,475	24,427
Employed	25,232	24,969	25,128	25,036	24,802	25,273	25,036	24,811	24,640	24,577	24,436	24,168	23,900	24,397	23,507
Agriculture	620	637	681	690	683	825	625	575	517	699	614	584	572	619	675
Nonagricultural industries	24,612	24,332	24,447	24,346	24,119	24,448	24,411	24,236	24,123	23,878	23,822	23,584	23,328	23,778	22,832
Unemployed	967	949	966	1,034	1,008	1,075	1,032	1,252	1,278	995	1,093	1,062	1,026	1,078	919
BOTH SEXES, 16-19 YEARS															
Civilian labor force	6,701	6,709	6,772	6,693	6,343	6,342	6,343	6,411	6,383	6,537	6,536	6,675	6,487	6,519	6,557
Employed	5,855	5,909	5,891	5,853	5,625	5,529	5,463	5,464	5,530	5,666	5,696	5,827	5,661	5,682	5,721
Agriculture	418	466	441	482	389	440	380	350	382	438	434	411	378	405	410
Nonagricultural industries	5,437	5,443	5,450	5,371	5,236	5,089	5,083	5,114	5,148	5,228	5,262	5,416	5,283	5,277	5,310
Unemployed	846	800	881	840	718	813	880	947	853	871	840	848	826	838	836

TABLE A–2. Seasonally adjusted rates of unemployment

Selected unemployment rates	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Total (all civilian workers)	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.7	3.8	4.3	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.8
Men, 20 years and over	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.5
Women, 20 years and over	3.7	3.7	3.7	4.0	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.8	4.9	3.9	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.2	3.8
Both sexes, 16-19 years	12.6	11.9	13.0	12.6	11.3	12.8	13.9	14.8	13.4	13.3	12.9	12.7	12.7	12.9	12.7
White workers	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.3
Nonwhite workers	6.4	6.7	6.9	7.2	6.4	6.9	7.3	8.8	8.0	6.8	7.3	7 7	7.7	7.4	7.3
Married men	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9
Full-time workers	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.4
Blue-collar workers	3.7	3.9	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.9	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.3
Experienced wage and salary workers	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.5	3.7	4.1	3.9	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.5
Labor force time lost [1]	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.7	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.4	3.8	4.2	4.2

[1] Man-hours lost by the unemployed and persons on part time for economic reasons as a percent of potentially available labor force man-hours.

TABLE A–3. Rates of unemployment, by age and sex, seasonally adjusted

Age and sex	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
TOTAL															
16 years and over	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.7	3.8	4.3	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.8
16 to 19 years	12.6	11.9	13.0	12.6	11.3	12.8	13.9	14.8	13.4	13.3	12.9	12.7	12.7	12.9	12.7
16 and 17 years	14.4	13.5	15.2	15.8	13.4	14.7	15.9	16.4	15.5	14.9	14.6	13.9	13.9	14.7	14.8
18 and 19 years	11.5	10.8	11.4	10.9	9.9	11.3	11.9	13.6	12.1	12.2	11.6	11.6	12.3	11.5	11.3
20 to 24 years	5.3	5.4	6.0	6.4	5.6	5.8	5.5	6.4	6.7	5.5	6.1	5.7	5.2	5.7	5.3
25 years and over	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6
25 to 54 years	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.7	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.6
55 years and over	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.6
MALE															
16 years and over	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.2
16 to 19 years	10.5	10.4	11.8	12.0	11.7	12.0	14.0	14.8	12.1	12.2	12.0	12.5	12.3	12.3	11.7
16 and 17 years	13.9	13.8	13.9	13.3	13.1	14.2	15.8	17.6	13.9	14.8	14.8	14.0	14.4	14.5	13.7
18 and 19 years	8.3	8.0	9.8	10.6	10.3	10.0	11.6	12.3	10.5	10.2	9.8	10.9	11.5	10.5	10.2
20 to 24 years	5.2	4.9	5.4	5.5	4.6	4.8	5.3	5.4	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.6
25 years and over	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.7	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2
25 to 54 years	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.1
55 years and over	2.2	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.4	2.0	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.7
FEMALE															
16 years and over	4.9	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.6	5.0	4.9	5.8	5.9	5.0	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.2	4.8
16 to 19 years	15.2	13.8	14.5	13.2	10.9	13.9	13.7	15.0	15.0	14.7	13.9	12.9	13.3	13.5	14.1
16 and 17 years	15.0	12.9	17.2	19.5	13.8	15.5	15.9	14.5	18.0	15.0	14.3	13.7	13.0	14.7	16.6
18 and 19 years	14.9	13.9	13.1	11.3	9.4	12.6	12.1	14.9	13.9	14.4	13.4	12.4	13.2	12.8	12.6
20 to 24 years	5.5	5.9	6.7	7.5	6.9	6.9	5.8	7.7	9.0	6.2	7.5	6.8	5.6	7.0	6.3
25 years and over	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7	4.3	4.1	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.3
25 to 54 years	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.6	4.0	4.2	4.8	4.4	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.0	4.1	3.6
55 years and over	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.3	1.8	2.6	2.5	2.4

TABLE A–4. Employed persons, by age and sex, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Age and sex	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
TOTAL															
16 years and over	75,829	75,636	75,802	75,731	75,167	75,577	75,005	74,735	74,658	74,664	74,478	74,169	73,550	74,372	72,895
16 to 19 years	5,855	5,909	5,891	5,853	5,625	5,529	5,463	5,464	5,530	5,666	5,696	5,827	5,661	5,682	5,721
16 and 17 years	2,414	2,440	2,469	2,467	2,319	2,346	2,296	2,314	2,267	2,338	2,320	2,358	2,232	2,333	2,269
18 and 19 years	3,406	3,456	3,479	3,389	3,328	3,222	3,167	3,135	3,233	3,317	3,367	3,454	3,391	3,349	3,452
20 to 24 years	8,646	8,649	8,653	8,676	8,682	8,720	8,726	8,562	8,555	8,602	8,606	8,536	8,415	8,499	7,963
25 years and over	61,339	61,088	61,250	61,203	60,847	61,337	60,835	60,701	60,602	60,378	60,145	59,771	59,482	60,192	59,212
25 to 54 years	47,528	47,396	47,615	47,538	47,365	47,544	47,068	46,899	46,785	46,760	46,528	46,161	46,158	46,645	45,944
55 years and over	13,765	13,667	13,718	13,715	13,604	13,802	13,731	13,723	13,682	13,611	13,552	13,589	13,280	13,546	13,268
MALE															
16 years and over	48,017	48,083	48,059	48,056	47,790	47,885	47,553	47,532	47,603	47,630	47,537	47,419	47,147	47,479	46,919
16 to 19 years	3,275	3,325	3,276	3,214	3,050	3,110	3,047	3,072	3,135	3,209	3,191	3,245	3,158	3,186	3,252
16 and 17 years	1,447	1,468	1,499	1,501	1,414	1,457	1,421	1,407	1,416	1,428	1,396	1,404	1,347	1,417	1,380
18 and 19 years	1,798	1,844	1,824	1,735	1,661	1,681	1,634	1,661	1,715	1,769	1,785	1,830	1,782	1,769	1,862
20 to 24 years	4,730	4,776	4,791	4,844	4,843	4,826	4,815	4,832	4,860	4,879	4,871	4,857	4,751	4,809	4,599
25 years and over	39,960	40,017	40,004	40,000	39,891	39,945	39,723	39,625	39,608	39,558	39,476	39,317	39,190	39,485	39,069
25 to 54 years	30,995	31,038	31,123	31,084	31,031	31,015	30,806	30,678	30,700	30,668	30,614	30,434	30,432	30,653	30,378
55 years and over	8,967	8,921	8,921	8,931	8,901	8,944	8,913	8,912	8,896	8,876	8,851	8,847	8,756	8,832	8,691
FEMALE															
16 years and over	27,812	27,553	27,743	27,675	27,377	27,692	27,452	27,203	27,035	27,034	26,941	26,750	26,403	26,893	25,976
16 to 19 years	2,580	2,584	2,615	2,639	2,575	2,419	2,416	2,392	2,395	2,457	2,505	2,582	2,503	2,496	2,469
16 and 17 years	967	972	970	966	905	889	875	907	851	910	924	954	885	917	879
18 and 19 years	1,608	1,612	1,655	1,654	1,667	1,541	1,533	1,474	1,518	1,548	1,582	1,624	1,609	1,580	1,590
20 to 24 years	3,916	3,873	3,862	3,832	3,839	3,894	3,911	3,730	3,695	3,723	3,735	3,679	3,664	3,690	3,364
25 years and over	21,379	21,071	21,246	21,203	20,956	21,392	21,112	21,076	20,994	20,820	20,669	20,454	20,292	20,707	20,143
25 to 54 years	16,533	16,358	16,492	16,454	16,334	16,529	16,262	16,221	16,085	16,092	15,914	15,727	15,726	15,994	15,566
55 years and over	4,798	4,746	4,797	4,784	4,703	4,858	4,818	4,811	4,786	4,735	4,701	4,742	4,524	4,714	4,577

TABLE A–5. Unemployed persons, by duration of unemployment, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Duration of unemployment	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Less than 5 weeks	1,696	1,507	1,689	1,721	1,360	1,418	1,609	1,789	1,783	1,572	1,662	1,713	1,704	1,635	1,535
5 to 14 weeks	718	830	755	776	840	968	930	1,105	937	934	895	909	871	893	804
15 weeks and over	410	398	448	455	488	445	485	475	440	445	436	441	433	449	536
15 to 26 weeks	283	241	268	286	302	259	307	305	277	234	266	291	291	271	295
27 weeks and over	127	157	180	169	186	186	178	170	163	211	170	150	142	177	241
15 weeks and over as a percent of civilian labor force	.5	.5	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.7

TABLE A–6. Full- and part-time status of the civilian labor force, not seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Full- and part-time employment status	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1966	1967
FULL TIME															
Civilian labor force	66,943	66,729	66,713	66,655	66,293	67,135	67,170	67,309	67,950	71,134	71,058	70,195	65,538	66,943	67,465
Employed:															
Full-time schedules [1]	63,499	63,150	62,567	62,020	61,984	63,122	63,063	63,267	63,747	66,264	65,909	64,688	61,978	62,734	63,010
Part time for economic reasons	1,646	1,693	1,910	2,118	1,878	2,000	2,072	1,934	2,117	2,486	2,499	2,507	1,573	1,894	2,163
Unemployed, looking for full-time work	1,797	1,885	2,236	2,517	2,431	2,013	2,034	2,108	2,086	2,384	2,650	3,000	1,987	2,315	2,293
Unemployment rate	2.7	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.7	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.3	3.0	3.5	3.4
PART TIME															
Civilian labor force	11,292	10,906	10,733	10,747	10,054	10,923	10,943	10,823	9,576	7,978	8,413	8,825	10,557	8,830	9,882
Employed (voluntary part time)	10,785	10,300	10,040	9,976	9,411	10,216	10,083	9,980	8,767	7,421	7,813	8,197	10,086	8,279	9,199
Unemployed, looking for part-time work	506	606	693	770	643	707	860	843	809	557	600	628	471	560	683
Unemployment rate	4.5	5.6	6.5	7.2	6.4	6.5	7.9	7.8	8.4	7.0	7.1	7.1	4.5	6.2	6.9

[1] Employed persons with a job but not at work are distributed proportionately among the full- and part-time employed categories.

TABLE A–9. Employees [1] on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Total employees	67,723	67,449	66,713												
Mining	634	626	594												
Metal mining	-------	88.6	65.1												
Iron ores	-------	25.8	25.4												
Copper ores	-------	34.9	12.9												
Coal mining	-------	142.8	142.1												
Bituminous coal and lignite mining	-------	136.6	136.0												
Oil and gas extraction	-------	273.2	270.9												
Crude petroleum and natural gas fields	-------	145.3	146.3												
Oil and gas field services	-------	127.9	124.6												
Nonmetallic minerals, except fuels	-------	121.1	115.6												
Crushed and broken stone	-------	41.3	38.7												
Sand and gravel	-------	40.4	37.2												
Contract construction	3,259	3,152	2,967												
General building contractors	-------	941.0	906.8												
Heavy construction contractors	-------	643.0	557.1												
Highway and street construction	-------	295.1	232.5												
Heavy construction, nec	-------	347.9	324.6												
Special trade contractors	-------	1,567.8	1,503.1												
Plumbing, heating, air conditioning	-------	368.7	360.7												
Painting, paperhanging, decorating	-------	133.3	120.9												
Electrical work	-------	257.7	253.1												
Masonry, stonework, and plastering	-------	222.9	214.7												
Roofing and sheet metal work	-------	113.5	108.4												
Manufacturing	19,543	19,517	19,447												
Durable goods	11,525	11,518	11,440												
Nondurable goods	8,018	7,999	8,007												
Durable goods															
Ordnance and accessories	337.8	336.3	335.3												
Ammunition, except for small arms	260.5	259.7	259.2												
Lumber and wood products	597.5	589.7	587.2												
Logging camps & logging contractors	79.1	72.6	76.3												
Sawmills and planing mills	233.6	232.9	230.3												
Millwork, plywood, & related products	163.2	163.0	160.8												
Wooden containers	36.7	36.2	36.1												
Miscellaneous wood products	84.9	85.0	83.7												
Furniture and fixtures	464.9	463.2	463.1												
Household furniture	330.6	330.1	330.4												
Office furniture	-------	35.7	35.9												
Partitions and fixtures	-------	46.8	46.5												
Other furniture and fixtures	51.1	50.6	50.3												
Stone, clay, and glass products	640.1	636.5	574.6												
Flat glass	-------	29.4	29.8												
Glass and glassware, pressed or blown	126.4	125.7	74.5												
Cement, hydraulic	35.7	35.1	33.8												
Structural clay products	64.5	64.1	62.5												
Pottery and related products	-------	42.6	42.4												
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	183.6	180.2	172.8												
Other stone & nonmetallic mineral products	134.9	135.3	134.7												
Primary metal industries	1,328.3	1,327.5	1,303.5												
Blast furnace and basic steel products	651.6	652.6	649.7												
Iron and steel foundries	226.8	225.4	225.4												
Nonferrous metals	82.6	81.6	67.8												
Nonferrous rolling and drawing	207.4	206.6	199.4												
Nonferrous foundries	90.0	90.3	89.6												
Miscellaneous primary metal products	69.9	71.0	71.6												
Fabricated metal products	1,365.9	1,366.9	1,363.3												
Metal cans	63.7	62.9	61.4												
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware	158.6	159.6	160.5												
Plumbing and heating, except electric	84.0	83.8	83.4												
Fabricated structural metal products	397.0	395.0	393.4												
Screw machine products, bolts, etc	109.1	110.0	110.3												
Metal stampings	244.5	245.8	245.1												
Metal services, nec	91.1	90.5	90.4												
Misc. fabricated wire products	65.9	67.0	66.7												
Misc. fabricated metal products	152.0	152.3	152.1												
Machinery, except electrical	1,953.4	1,960.1	1,970.3												
Engines and turbines	109.7	109.9	109.7												
Farm machinery	-------	147.5	148.7												
Construction and related machinery	270.0	273.4	275.3												
Metal working machinery	342.6	343.8	345.0												
Special industry machinery	193.5	192.8	196.1												
General industrial machinery	286.9	288.1	288.6												
Office and computing machines	247.5	247.1	246.6												
Service industry machines	131.2	131.8	132.1												
Miscellaneous machinery, except electrical	227.3	225.7	228.2												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A–9. Employees [1] on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing—Continued															
Durable goods—Continued															
Electrical equipment and supplies	1,935.0	1,942.6	1,943.3												
Electric test & distributing equipment	198.4	203.4	203.2												
Electrical industrial apparatus	213.5	213.1	212.8												
Household appliances	175.9	176.8	177.1												
Electric lighting and wiring equipment	204.7	205.1	205.4												
Radio and TV receiving equipment	138.6	138.5	141.6												
Communication equipment	510.0	512.7	520.6												
Electronic components and accessories	376.0	375.1	374.4												
Misc. electrical equipment & supplies	117.9	117.9	108.2												
Transportation equipment	2,035.6	2,030.6	2,031.9												
Motor vehicles and equipment	-------	869.4	871.4												
Aircraft and parts	852.8	854.3	857.6												
Ship and boat building and repairing	183.1	184.1	182.2												
Railroad equipment	-------	43.3	45.8												
Other transportation equipment	-------	79.5	74.9												
Instruments and related products	442.1	445.3	448.0												
Engineering & scientific instruments	-------	82.8	85.3												
Mechanical measuring & control devices	107.2	107.4	107.3												
Optical and ophthalmic goods	51.8	51.6	51.9												
Ophthalmic goods	-------	32.3	32.5												
Medical instruments and supplies	66.9	67.2	67.2												
Photographic equipment and supplies	102.7	102.3	102.3												
Watches, clocks, and watchcases	-------	34.0	34.0												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	424.3	419.7	419.0												
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware	50.6	50.9	51.0												
Toys and sporting goods	-------	111.6	108.1												
Pens, pencils, office and art supplies	-------	34.0	34.0												
Costume jewelry and notions	-------	55.8	57.2												
Other manufacturing industries	166.1	167.4	168.7												
Musical instruments and parts	-------	24.9	25.1												
Nondurable goods															
Food and kindred products	1,707.3	1,699.0	1,690.4												
Meat products	318.2	318.4	316.4												
Dairy products	262.8	260.8	258.3												
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	-------	220.9	220.8												
Grain mill products	133.6	132.2	132.3												
Bakery products	279.5	280.7	281.1												
Sugar	-------	30.3	29.0												
Confectionery and related products	81.6	82.0	83.5												
Beverages	234.5	233.1	227.0												
Misc. foods and kindred products	138.7	140.6	142.0												
Tobacco manufactures	74.3	72.0	79.7												
Cigarettes	-------	39.2	42.0												
Cigars	-------	19.2	20.6												
Textile mill products	980.6	976.5	975.0												
Weaving mills, cotton	233.4	233.0	235.7												
Weaving mills, synthetics	103.9	103.6	103.7												
Weaving and finishing mills, wool	44.6	44.4	44.2												
Narrow fabric mills	30.8	30.9	30.8												
Knitting mills	240.0	236.2	232.1												
Textile finishing, except wool	80.1	80.1	80.2												
Floor covering mills	-------	50.3	50.0												
Yarn and thread mills	117.5	117.6	117.7												
Miscellaneous textile goods	80.3	80.4	80.6												
Apparel and other textile products	1,409.5	1,401.9	1,418.0												
Men's and boys' suits and coats	131.5	131.5	132.2												
Men's and boys' furnishings	372.0	368.6	367.7												
Women's and misses' outerwear	427.3	425.3	437.3												
Women's and children's undergarments	122.5	121.8	122.9												
Hats, caps, and millinery	-------	22.5	25.7												
Children's outerwear	81.2	77.7	79.1												
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel	-------	79.5	79.3												
Misc. fabricated textile products	174.7	175.0	173.8												
Paper and allied products	685.9	685.6	683.3												
Paper and pulp mills	217.1	217.1	217.0												
Paperboard mills	71.8	72.4	72.4												
Misc. converted paper products	180.3	180.7	180.3												
Paperboard containers and boxes	216.7	215.4	213.6												
Printing and publishing	1,058.3	1,057.9	1,056.3												
Newspapers	360.8	358.5	358.9												
Periodicals	-------	75.5	75.3												
Books	-------	94.5	93.5												
Commercial printing	339.5	338.7	338.7												
Blankbooks and bookbinding	54.6	54.5	54.2												
Other publishing & printing industries	134.5	136.2	135.7												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A–9. Employees [1] on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing—Continued															
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Chemicals and allied products	1,018.0	1,023.6	1,021.8												
Industrial chemicals	313.3	313.8	316.5												
Plastics materials and synthetics	207.9	212.6	211.9												
Drugs	138.0	137.8	137.5												
Soap, cleaners, and toilet goods	113.7	112.6	111.8												
Paints and allied products	69.3	68.9	68.8												
Agricultural chemicals	61.1	63.7	61.3												
Other chemical products	114.7	114.2	114.0												
Petroleum and coal products	185.2	184.0	182.8												
Petroleum refining	149.3	149.2	149.0												
Other petroleum and coal products	35.9	34.8	33.8												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	546.2	546.0	543.4												
Tires and inner tubes	111.7	111.2	111.0												
Other rubber products	179.1	179.8	179.5												
Rubber footwear	-------	23.8	23.8												
Miscellaneous plastics products	255.4	255.0	252.9												
Leather and leather products	352.2	352.8	356.1												
Leather tanning and finishing	31.3	31.1	31.2												
Footwear, except rubber	235.4	234.5	235.8												
Other leather products	85.5	87.2	89.1												
Luggage	-------	20.4	20.7												
Handbags and personal leather goods	-------	35.9	37.6												
Transportation and public utilities	4,272	4,296	4,276												
Railroad transportation	-------	667.2	664.4												
Class I railroads [3]	-------	584.7	581.5												
Local and interurban passenger transit	-------	277.9	284.7												
Local and suburban transportation	-------	82.8	82.9												
Taxicabs	-------	112.1	115.3												
Intercity highway transportation	-------	41.1	41.0												
Trucking and warehousing	-------	1,025.9	1,020.4												
Trucking and trucking terminals	-------	939.5	932.6												
Public warehousing	-------	86.4	87.8												
Transportation by air	-------	326.2	322.3												
Air transportation	-------	293.5	290.2												
Pipe line transportation	-------	18.2	18.2												
Other transportation and services	-------	348.1	338.3												
Water transportation	-------	246.7	237.0												
Transportation services	-------	101.4	101.3												
Communication	-------	983.1	979.6												
Telephone communication	-------	811.3	809.2												
Telegraph communication	-------	32.2	32.1												
Radio and television broadcasting	-------	128.1	127.0												
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	-------	649.1	648.9												
Electric companies and systems	-------	264.5	264.2												
Gas companies and systems	-------	156.3	156.5												
Combination companies and systems	-------	181.8	182.1												
Water, steam, & sanitary systems	-------	46.5	46.1												
Wholesale and retail trade	13,949	13,920	13,658												
Wholesale trade	3,597	3,591	3,581												
Motor vehicles, & automotive equipment	-------	286.4	285.2												
Drugs, chemicals, and allied products	-------	217.8	216.9												
Dry goods and apparel	-------	146.1	145.5												
Groceries and related products	-------	517.2	518.9												
Electrical goods	-------	287.7	286.6												
Hardware, plumbing, & heating equipment	-------	160.3	159.4												
Machinery, equipment, and supplies	-------	697.2	692.0												
Miscellaneous wholesalers	-------	1,189.3	1,186.3												
Retail trade	10,352	10,329	10,077												
Retail general merchandise	-------	2,030.8	1,969.4												
Department stores	-------	1,312.5	1,271.0												
Mail order houses	-------	113.7	115.0												
Variety stores	-------	316.8	307.9												
Food stores	-------	1,630.6	1,626.2												
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores	-------	1,451.9	1,452.2												
Apparel and accessory stores	-------	712.9	661.0												
Men's & boys' clothing & furnishings	-------	114.8	111.1												
Women's ready-to-wear stores	-------	257.8	245.2												
Family clothing stores	-------	107.9	103.9												
Shoe stores	-------	159.2	133.4												
Furniture and home furnishings stores	-------	432.2	432.9												
Furniture and home furnishings	-------	274.8	275.4												
Eating and drinking places	-------	2,274.7	2,180.3												
Other retail trade	-------	3,248.2	3,207.1												
Building materials and farm equipment	-------	539.0	527.4												
Automotive dealers & service stations	-------	1,525.0	1,512.8												
Motor vehicle dealers	-------	741.2	741.1												
Other automotive & accessory dealers	-------	195.2	188.1												
Gasoline service stations	-------	588.6	583.6												
Miscellaneous retail stores	-------	1,184.2	1,166.9												
Drug stores and proprietory stores	-------	430.4	430.9												
Book and stationery stores	-------	59.7	60.1												
Farm and garden supply stores	-------	107.5	104.1												
Fuel and ice dealers	-------	108.6	115.0												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A–9. Employees [1] on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Finance, insurance, and real estate	**3,326**	**3,309**	**3,288**												
Banking	-------	893.8	890.5												
Credit agencies other than banks	-------	345.6	344.6												
Savings and loan associations	-------	100.5	99.6												
Personal credit institutions	-------	184.6	184.5												
Security, commodity brokers, & services	-------	179.3	178.2												
Insurance carriers	-------	969.7	966.4												
Life insurance	-------	509.0	507.8												
Accident and health insurance	-------	76.7	76.1												
Fire, marine, and casualty insurance	-------	341.5	340.4												
Insurance agents, brokers, and service	-------	253.1	253.3												
Real estate	-------	590.0	577.6												
Subdividers and developers	-------	75.8	69.1												
Operative builders	-------	47.3	45.8												
Other finance, insurance, & real estate	-------	77.7	77.3												
Services	**10,513**	**10,410**	**10,290**												
Hotels and other lodging places	707.5	690.7	676.2												
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels	-------	630.7	616.8												
Personal services	1,032.2	1,019.7	1,012.9												
Laundries and drycleaning plants	-------	546.4	541.8												
Photographic studios	-------	39.8	40.6												
Miscellaneous business services	-------	1,382.6	1,373.0												
Advertising	-------	115.9	116.3												
Credit reporting and collection	-------	71.7	71.3												
Services to buildings	-------	236.1	234.5												
Miscellaneous repair services	-------	165.3	166.6												
Motion pictures	-------	196.6	185.0												
Motion picture filming & distributing	-------	52.0	51.3												
Motion picture theaters and services	-------	144.6	133.7												
Medical and other health services	2,610.8	2,596.6	2,582.4												
Hospitals	-------	1,630.4	1,624.8												
Legal services	-------	199.1	199.2												
Educational services	1,086.3	1,083.6	1,086.6												
Elementary and secondary schools	-------	358.5	359.2												
Colleges and universities	-------	641.2	643.2												
Miscellaneous services	-------	548.8	550.6												
Engineering and architectural services	-------	284.0	283.7												
Nonprofit research agencies	-------	85.5	85.6												
Government	**12,227**	**12,219**	**12,193**												
Federal Government [4]	2,706	2,712	2,699												
Executive	-------	2,677.3	2,664.4												
Department of Defense	-------	1,093.9	1,092.2												
Post Office Department	-------	709.4	707.1												
Other agencies	-------	874.0	865.1												
Legislative	-------	27.7	27.7												
Judicial	-------	6.2	6.5												
State and local government [5]	9,521	9,507	9,494												
State government	-------	2,452.0	2,448.6												
State education	-------	1,003.1	1,006.2												
Other State government	-------	1,448.9	1,442.4												
Local government	-------	7,054.5	7,044.9												
Local education	-------	4,108.2	4,115.2												
Other local government	-------	2,946.3	2,929.7												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] Beginning with the July 1968 issue, figures differ from those previously published. The industry series have been adjusted to March 1967 benchmarks (comprehensive counts of employment). For comparable back data, see *Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909–68* (BLS Bulletin 1312–6). Statistics from April 1967 forward are subject to further revision when new benchmarks become available.

These series are based upon establishment reports which cover all full- and part-time employees in nonagricultural establishments who worked during, or received pay for any part of the pay period which includes the 12th of the month. Therefore, persons who worked in more than 1 establishment during the reporting period are counted more than once. Proprietors, self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, and domestic servants are excluded.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Beginning January 1965, data relate to railroads with operating revenues of $5,000,000 or more.

[4] Data relate to civilian employees who worked on, or received pay for the last day of the month.

[5] State and local government data exclude, as nominal employees, elected officials of small local units and paid volunteer firemen.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics for all series except those for the Federal Government, which is prepared by the U.S. Civil Service Commission, and that for Class I railroads, which is prepared by the U.S. Interstate Commerce Commission.

TABLE A–10. Production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Total private	45,998	45,759	45,068												
Mining	486	477	450												
Metal mining	-------	70.5	50.1												
Iron ores	-------	21.3	20.9												
Copper ores	-------	26.6	7.5												
Coal mining	-------	122.8	123.2												
Bituminous coal and lignite mining	-------	117.4	117.8												
Oil and gas extraction	-------	185.0	182.7												
Crude petroleum and natural gas fields	-------	76.5	77.1												
Oil and gas field services	-------	108.5	105.6												
Nonmetallic minerals, except fuels	-------	99.1	93.7												
Crushed and broken stone	-------	34.7	32.2												
Contract construction	2,752	2,649	2,465												
General building contractors	-------	798.6	762.6												
Heavy construction contractors	-------	548.3	464.3												
Highway and street construction	-------	258.1	196.6												
Heavy construction, nec	-------	290.2	267.7												
Special trade contractors	-------	1,302.1	1,238.4												
Plumbing, heating, air conditioning	-------	296.4	287.9												
Painting, paperhanging, decorating	-------	116.6	104.3												
Electrical work	-------	204.2	199.9												
Masonry, stonework, and plastering	-------	201.4	193.3												
Roofing and sheet metal work	-------	92.2	87.0												
Manufacturing	14,336	14,318	14,248												
Durable goods	8,404	8,402	8,325												
Nondurable goods	5,932	5,916	5,923												
Durable goods															
Ordnance and accessories	193.4	191.7	190.5												
Ammunition, except for small arms	142.0	141.1	140.3												
Lumber and wood products	519.8	511.4	509.3												
Sawmills and planing mills	212.6	212.0	209.2												
Millwork, plywood, & related products	136.9	137.1	135.2												
Wooden containers	32.8	32.4	32.3												
Miscellaneous wood products	71.5	71.5	70.4												
Furniture and fixtures	383.4	382.3	382.1												
Household furniture	280.4	280.0	280.2												
Office furniture	-------	27.7	27.8												
Partitions and fixtures	-------	35.0	34.8												
Other furniture and fixtures	39.7	39.6	39.3												
Stone, clay, and glass products	514.3	512.4	447.7												
Flat glass	-------	22.6	23.0												
Glass and glassware, pressed or blown	113.2	113.1	58.8												
Cement, hydraulic	27.7	27.0	25.7												
Structural clay products	53.0	53.3	51.8												
Pottery and related products	-------	36.1	35.8												
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	142.9	139.6	132.9												
Other stone & nonmetallic mineral products	100.8	101.3	100.4												
Primary metal industries	1,061.7	1,061.0	1,039.5												
Blast furnace and basic steel products	522.1	523.8	521.5												
Iron and steel foundries	190.8	189.7	189.5												
Nonferrous metals	62.7	61.4	49.3												
Nonferrous rolling and drawing	156.4	155.2	148.5												
Nonferrous foundries	74.5	74.8	74.0												
Miscellaneous primary metal products	55.2	56.1	56.7												
Fabricated metal products	1,049.4	1,052.4	1,051.4												
Metal cans	54.2	53.2	51.9												
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware	123.2	125.5	126.7												
Plumbing and heating, except electric	61.6	62.0	62.0												
Fabricated structural metal products	284.3	282.7	281.6												
Screw machine products, bolts, etc	86.2	87.1	87.7												
Metal stampings	199.9	200.8	200.4												
Metal services, nec	75.9	75.3	75.3												
Misc. fabricated wire products	53.0	53.8	53.5												
Misc. fabricated metal products	111.1	112.0	112.3												
Machinery, except electrical	1,337.7	1,347.3	1,356.8												
Engines and turbines	74.9	75.5	75.1												
Farm machinery	-------	108.1	109.3												
Construction and related machinery	178.2	181.5	182.9												
Metal working machinery	256.2	257.2	258.5												
Special industry machinery	129.4	129.0	132.0												
General industrial machinery	187.1	189.2	189.0												
Office and computing machines	137.8	138.7	139.4												
Service industry machines	92.7	93.3	93.4												
Misc. machinery, except electrical	176.0	174.8	177.2												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A–10. Production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing—Continued															
Durable goods—Continued															
Electrical equipment and supplies	1,289.7	1,298.2	1,299.1												
Electric test & distributing equipment	135.2	139.2	138.9												
Electrical industrial apparatus	147.9	148.3	148.3												
Household appliances	139.2	139.9	140.7												
Electric lighting and wiring equipment	156.2	156.7	156.6												
Radio and TV receiving equipment	103.3	103.9	107.2												
Communication equipment	252.4	253.7	258.4												
Electronic components and accessories	265.5	266.1	266.2												
Misc. electrical equipment & supplies	90.0	90.4	82.8												
Transportation equipment	1,449.3	1,443.8	1,445.1												
Motor vehicles and equipment	-------	681.4	682.9												
Aircraft and parts	508.3	511.8	515.1												
Ship and boat building and repairing	154.1	151.8	149.9												
Railroad equipment	-------	31.9	34.4												
Other transportation equipment	-------	66.9	62.8												
Instruments and related products	272.8	274.1	277.4												
Engineering & scientific instruments	-------	40.1	43.3												
Mechanical measuring & control devices	68.3	68.7	68.9												
Optical and ophthalmic goods	37.3	37.0	37.3												
Ophthalmic goods	-------	24.8	25.0												
Medical instruments and supplies	44.7	45.2	45.2												
Photographic equipment and supplies	56.4	55.5	55.2												
Watches, clocks, and watchcases	-------	27.6	27.5												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	332.2	327.1	326.1												
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware	38.4	38.6	38.7												
Toys and sporting goods	-------	90.5	87.2												
Pens, pencils, office and art supplies	-------	24.1	24.1												
Costume jewelry and notions	-------	45.9	47.0												
Other manufacturing industries	127.2	128.0	129.1												
Musical instruments and parts	-------	19.6	19.8												
Nondurable goods															
Food and kindred products	1,116.3	1,109.3	1,100.8												
Meat products	254.4	254.0	252.3												
Dairy products	124.0	122.2	119.6												
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	-------	179.2	178.5												
Grain mill products	92.9	91.6	91.5												
Bakery products	162.6	163.8	163.5												
Sugar	-------	23.2	22.2												
Confectionery and related products	65.8	66.4	68.2												
Beverages	119.3	118.4	113.3												
Misc. foods and kindred products	88.8	90.5	91.7												
Tobacco manufactures	62.0	60.5	67.2												
Cigarettes	-------	32.4	34.7												
Cigars	-------	17.9	19.2												
Textile mill products	869.1	865.0	863.4												
Weaving mills, cotton	213.3	212.9	215.5												
Weaving mills, synthetics	93.4	93.3	93.4												
Weaving and finishing mills, wool	38.5	38.3	38.2												
Narrow fabric mills	27.4	27.6	27.4												
Knitting mills	214.0	210.1	206.0												
Textile finishing, except wool	67.7	67.7	67.8												
Floor covering mills	-------	40.0	39.7												
Yarn and thread mills	108.7	108.7	108.8												
Miscellaneous textile goods	66.2	66.4	66.6												
Apparel and other textile products	1,244.7	1,237.7	1,253.9												
Men's and boys' suits and coats	116.6	116.2	116.9												
Men's and boys' furnishings	332.0	329.0	327.8												
Women's and misses' outerwear	378.6	377.5	389.0												
Women's and children's undergarments	107.6	106.8	108.0												
Hats, caps, and millinery	-------	19.9	23.1												
Children's outerwear	72.7	69.3	71.0												
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel	-------	69.4	69.6												
Miscellaneous fabricated textile products	149.3	149.6	148.5												
Paper and allied products	531.0	530.3	528.1												
Paper and pulp mills	169.9	169.6	169.4												
Paperboard mills	57.3	57.5	57.2												
Miscellaneous converted paper products	131.7	132.0	131.8												
Paperboard containers and boxes	172.1	171.2	169.7												
Printing and publishing	664.1	662.8	661.4												
Newspapers	179.6	177.8	177.8												
Periodicals	-------	26.0	26.0												
Books	-------	55.5	54.6												
Commercial printing	265.3	264.5	264.6												
Blankbooks and bookbinding	44.4	44.3	43.9												
Other publishing & printing industries	93.7	94.7	94.5												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A–10. Production or nonsupervisory workers[1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing—Continued															
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Chemicals and allied products	604.0	608.9	607.0												
Industrial chemicals	172.4	172.7	173.7												
Plastics materials and synthetics	138.1	142.3	141.8												
Drugs	70.1	70.0	70.1												
Soap, cleaners, and toilet goods	68.4	67.1	67.6												
Paints and allied products	38.0	37.6	37.6												
Agricultural chemicals	40.2	42.5	40.4												
Other chemical products	76.8	76.7	75.8												
Petroleum and coal products	116.5	115.8	114.4												
Petroleum refining	90.9	91.1	90.7												
Other petroleum and coal products	25.6	24.7	23.7												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	420.9	421.7	419.6												
Tires and inner tubes	77.9	77.6	77.5												
Other rubber products	140.1	141.2	140.7												
Rubber footwear	-------	19.7	19.8												
Miscellaneous plastics products	202.9	202.9	201.4												
Leather and leather products	303.6	304.3	307.5												
Leather tanning and finishing	27.3	27.2	27.3												
Footwear, except rubber	205.9	205.1	206.1												
Other leather products	70.4	72.0	74.1												
Luggage	-------	16.4	16.8												
Handbags and personal leather goods	-------	30.4	32.1												
Transportation and public utilities:															
Local and interurban passenger transit:															
Local and suburban transportation	-------	78.6	78.7												
Intercity highway transportation	-------	37.6	37.3												
Trucking and warehousing	-------	925.7	921.5												
Trucking and trucking terminals	-------	850.7	845.4												
Public warehousing	-------	75.0	76.1												
Pipe line transportation	-------	15.0	15.0												
Communication	-------	771.7	769.7												
Telephone communication	-------	643.7	642.1												
Telegraph communications[3]	-------	21.8	21.9												
Radio and television broadcasting	-------	102.4	101.9												
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	-------	561.3	560.8												
Electric companies and systems	-------	225.8	225.6												
Gas companies and systems	-------	133.7	134.0												
Combination companies and systems	-------	160.7	160.7												
Water, steam, & sanitary systems	-------	41.1	40.5												
Wholesale and retail trade	12,384	12,361	12,111												
Wholesale trade	3,013	3,012	2,999												
Motor vehicles & automotive equipment	-------	238.5	237.4												
Drugs, chemicals, and allied products	-------	179.8	178.7												
Dry goods and apparel	-------	117.3	116.2												
Groceries and related products	-------	448.3	448.6												
Electrical goods	-------	234.3	233.7												
Hardware, plumbing & heating equipment	-------	135.5	134.6												
Machinery, equipment, and supplies	-------	588.2	582.1												
Miscellaneous wholesalers	-------	996.8	993.2												
Retail trade	9,371	9,349	9,112												
Retail general merchandise	-------	1,864.2	1,805.4												
Department stores	-------	1,203.6	1,164.5												
Mail order houses	-------	105.9	107.2												
Variety stores	-------	297.0	287.8												
Food stores	-------	1,505.8	1,501.3												
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores	-------	1,341.6	1,342.1												
Apparel and accessory stores	-------	643.8	593.0												
Men's & boys' clothing & furnishings	-------	102.5	98.6												
Women's ready-to-wear stores	-------	233.0	221.3												
Family clothing stores	-------	100.6	96.7												
Shoe stores	-------	142.5	117.1												
Furniture and home furnishings stores	-------	378.5	378.9												
Furniture and home furnishings	-------	240.0	240.3												
Eating and drinking places	-------	2,120.2	2,033.9												
Other retail trade	-------	2,836.5	2,799.7												
Building materials and farm equipment	-------	461.7	451.0												
Motor vehicle dealers	-------	626.8	626.5												
Other automotive & accessory dealers	-------	167.7	160.7												
Drug stores and proprietory stores	-------	386.9	389.7												
Book and stationery stores	-------	51.8	52.3												
Fuel and ice dealers	-------	94.0	100.5												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE A–10. Production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Finance, insurance, and real estate [4]	2,634	2,622	2,605												
Banking	-------	741.0	738.0												
Credit agencies other than banks	-------	270.8	271.4												
Savings and loan associations	-------	80.0	79.3												
Security, commodity brokers & services	-------	157.2	156.4												
Insurance carriers	-------	675.8	674.6												
Life insurance	-------	294.6	294.0												
Accident and health insurance	-------	66.3	65.7												
Fire, marine, and casualty insurance	-------	279.8	280.2												
Services:															
Hotels and other lodging places:															
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels	-------	586.6	573.2												
Personal services:															
Laundries and drycleaning plants	-------	497.3	492.5												
Photographic studios	-------	35.1	35.8												
Motion pictures:															
Motion picture filming & distributing	-------	33.1	31.5												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, and coverage of these series, see footnote 1, table A–9.

For mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; and for all other industries, to nonsupervisory workers. Transportation and public utilities, and services are included in total private but are not shown separately in this table.

Production and related workers include working foremen and all nonsupervisory workers (including leadmen and trainees) engaged in fabricating, processing, assembling, inspection, receiving, storage, handling, packing, warehousing, shipping, maintenance, repair, janitorial, and watchmen services, product development, auxiliary production for plant's own use (e.g., powerplant), and recordkeeping and other services closely associated with the above production operations.

Construction workers include working foremen, journeymen, mechanics, apprentices, laborers, etc., engaged in new work, alterations, demolition, repair, and maintenance, etc., at the site of construction or working in shop or yards at jobs (such as precutting and preassembling) ordinarily performed by members of the construction trades.

Nonsupervisory workers include employees (not above the working supervisory level) such as office and clerical workers, repairmen, salespersons, operators, drivers, attendants, service employees, linemen, laborers, janitors, watchmen, and similar occupational levels, and other employees whose services are closely associated with those of the employees listed.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Data relate to nonsupervisory employees except messengers.

[4] Nonoffice salesmen excluded from nonsupervisory count for all series in this division.

CAUTION

The series on employment, hours, earnings, and labor turnover in nonagricultural establishments have been adjusted to March 1967 benchmarks and are not comparable with those published in the Monthly Labor Review prior to the July 1968 issue, nor with those for periods after April 1966 appearing in the *Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1968*. (See footnote 1, table A–9, and "BLS Establishment Employment Estimates Revised to March 1967 Benchmark Levels" appearing in the June 1968 issue of *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force*.) Moreover, when the figures are again adjusted to new benchmarks, the data presented in this issue should not be compared with those in later issues which reflect the adjustments. Comparable historical data will appear in *Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909–68* (BLS Bulletin 1312–6).

TABLE A–11. Employees[1] on nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and selected groups, seasonally adjusted

[In thousands]

Industry division and group	1968					1967							
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May
Total employees	67,788	67,784	67,656										
Mining	634	632	609										
Contract construction	3,249	3,307	3,330										
Manufacturing	19,665	19,670	19,607										
Durable goods	11,538	11,544	11,495										
Ordnance and accessories	339	337	336										
Lumber and wood products	598	601	607										
Furniture and fixtures	471	468	466										
Stone, clay, and glass products	638	641	591										
Primary metal industries	1,319	1,321	1,304										
Fabricated metal products	1,370	1,374	1,374										
Machinery, except electrical	1,950	1,950	1,960										
Electrical equipment and supplies	1,959	1,958	1,957										
Transportation equipment	2,021	2,018	2,018										
Instruments and related products	445	448	449										
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	428	428	433										
Nondurable goods	8,127	8,126	8,112										
Food and kindred products	1,775	1,783	1,777										
Tobacco manufactures	86	82	87										
Textile mill products	982	979	979										
Apparel and other textile products	1,419	1,417	1,408										
Paper and allied products	693	691	690										
Printing and publishing	1,063	1,059	1,058										
Chemicals and allied products	1,017	1,020	1,024										
Petroleum and coal products	185	186	186										
Rubber and plastics products, nec	549	550	546										
Leather and leather products	358	359	357										
Transportation and public utilities	4,285	4,331	4,332										
Wholesale and retail trade	14,038	14,019	13,999										
Wholesale trade	3,644	3,638	3,632										
Retail trade	10,394	10,381	10,367										
Finance, insurance, and real estate	3,333	3,322	3,311										
Services	10,450	10,410	10,415										
Government	12,134	12,093	12,053										
Federal	2,717	2,717	2,718										
State and local	9,417	9,376	9,335										

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For coverage of the series, see footnote 1, table A–9.
[2] Preliminary.

NOTE: The seasonal adjustment method used is described in appendix A, *BLS Handbook of Methods for Surveys and Studies* (BLS Bulletin 1458, 1966)

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TABLE A–12. Production workers[1] on manufacturing payrolls, by major industry group, seasonally adjusted

Revised series; see box, p. 92

[In thousands]

Major industry group	1968					1967							
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May
Manufacturing	14,433	14,454	14,386										
Durable goods	8,404	8,422	8,371										
Ordnance and accessories	195	192	191										
Lumber and wood products	521	522	528										
Furniture and fixtures	389	387	385										
Stone, clay, and glass products	512	517	463										
Primary metal industries	1,051	1,054	1,038										
Fabricated metal products	1,054	1,059	1,062										
Machinery, except electrical	1,332	1,337	1,346										
Electrical equipment and supplies	1,308	1,313	1,311										
Transportation equipment	1,431	1,431	1,429										
Instruments and related products	275	275	278										
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	336	335	340										
Nondurable goods	6,029	6,032	6,015										
Food and kindred products	1,179	1,190	1,181										
Tobacco manufactures	73	70	74										
Textile mill products	871	868	867										
Apparel and other textile products	1,255	1,251	1,243										
Paper and allied products	535	535	534										
Printing and publishing	666	663	662										
Chemicals and allied products	600	602	607										
Petroleum and coal products	117	117	117										
Rubber and plastics products, nec	424	425	422										
Leather and leather products	309	311	308										

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For definition of production workers, see footnote 1, table A–10.
[2] Preliminary.

NOTE: The seasonal adjustment method used is described in appendix A, *BLS Handbook of Methods for Surveys and Studies* (BLS Bulletin 1458, 1966).

TABLE A–13. Unemployment insurance and employment service program operations [1]

[All items except average benefit amounts are in thousands]

Item	1968				1967								
	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.
Employment service: [2]													
New applications for work	867	829	865	961	680	800	844	820	881	967	1,335	974	859
Nonfarm placements	482	438	400	419	380	460	540	558	552	487	537	507	476
State unemployment insurance programs:													
Initial claims [3 4]	822	762	969	1,460	1,149	910	798	663	872	1,218	803	848	1,005
Insured unemployment [5] (average weekly volume) [6]	1,142	1,390	1,556	1,624	1,259	997	889	894	1,059	1,184	1,019	1,142	1,360
Rate of insured unemployment [7]	2.3	2.8	3.2	3.3	2.6	2.0	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.4	2.9
Weeks of unemployment compensated	4,666	5,451	5,769	6,057	3,954	3,414	3,139	3,186	4,351	3,808	4,071	4,663	4,977
Average weekly benefit amount for total unemployment	$43.12	$43.64	$43.58	$42.59	$41.85	$41.19	$40.70	$40.10	$41.08	$40.10	$39.99	$40.99	$41.81
Total benefits paid	$195,097	$231,107	$243,736	$248,477	$159,153	$134,877	$122,145	$122,614	$172,807	$147,307	$156,083	$183,645	$200,588
Unemployment compensation for ex-servicemen: [8 9]													
Initial claims [3 6]	18	21	24	31	25	22	20	18	21	22	17	14	14
Insured unemployment [6] (average weekly volume)	29	36	40	40	33	26	22	22	25	24	19	19	21
Weeks of unemployment compensated	----	----	158	164	109	93	82	88	106	75	82	81	85
Total benefits paid	----	----	$6,673	$6,885	$4,576	$3,960	$3,502	$3,715	$4,443	$3,126	$3,471	$3,404	$3,576
Unemployment compensation for Federal civilian employees: [9 10]													
Initial claims [3]	9	9	11	17	10	10	11	9	9	12	9	9	8
Insured unemployment [5] (average weekly volume)	23	26	29	28	23	21	20	18	19	20	18	18	19
Weeks of unemployment compensated	----	----	116	112	87	85	76	73	87	67	81	78	81
Total benefits paid	----	----	$4,945	$4,755	$3,634	$3,526	$3,164	$3,043	$3,581	$2,752	$3,370	$3,237	$3,354
Railroad unemployment insurance:													
Applications [11]	8	15	12	25	39	54	56	15	12	21	15	3	4
Insured unemployment (average weekly volume)	20	26	26	27	23	23	21	21	18	17	14	17	20
Number of payments [12]	49	62	56	78	87	90	93	46	45	32	36	42	44
Average amount of benefit payment [13]	$68.86	$67.50	$73.39	$64.90	$54.21	$47.63	$45.67	$66.68	$74.31	$73.45	$73.44	$71.29	$74.10
Total benefits paid [14]	$3,289	$4,120	$4,019	$4,715	$4,389	$4,097	$4,176	$2,910	$3,181	$2,069	$2,478	$2,812	$3,013
All programs: [15]													
Insured unemployment [6]	1,214	1,478	1,651	1,718	1,338	1,067	952	955	1,122	1,246	1,070	1,196	1,422

[1] Includes data for Puerto Rico beginning January 1961 when the Commonwealth's program became part of the Federal-State UI system.

[2] Includes Guam and the Virgin Islands.

[3] Initial claims are notices filed by workers to indicate they are starting periods of unemployment. Excludes transitions claims under State programs.

[4] Includes interstate claims for the Virgin Islands.

[5] Number of workers reporting the completion of at least 1 week of unemployment.

[6] Initial claims and State insured unemployment include data under the program for Puerto Rican sugarcane workers.

[7] The rate is the number of insured unemployed expressed as a percent of the average covered employment in a 12-month period.

[8] Excludes data on claims and payments made jointly with other programs.

[9] Includes the Virgin Islands.

[10] Excludes data on claims and payments made jointly with State programs.

[11] An application for benefits is filed by a railroad worker at the beginning of his first period of unemployment in a benefit year; no application is required for subsequent periods in the same year.

[12] Payments are for unemployment in 14-day registration periods.

[13] The average amount is an average for all compensable periods, not adjusted for recovery of overpayments or settlement of underpayments.

[14] Adjusted for recovery of overpayments and settlement of underpayments.

[15] Represents an unduplicated count of insured unemployment under the State, Ex-servicemen and UCFE programs and the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security for all items except railroad unemployment insurance which is prepared by the U.S. Railroad Retirement Board.

B.—Labor Turnover

TABLE B–1. Labor turnover rates, by major industry group [1]

[Per 100 employees]

Major industry group	1968				1967									Annual average	
	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1967	1966
Accessions: Total															
Manufacturing	4.2	3.9													
Seasonally adjusted	*4.6*	*4.1*													
Durable goods	4.1	3.8													
Ordnance and accessories	3.1	3.5													
Lumber and wood products	7.5	6.3													
Furniture and fixtures	5.2	5.1													
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.6	5.0													
Primary metal industries	3.2	3.2													
Fabricated metal products	4.8	4.7													
Machinery, except electrical	2.8	2.8													
Electrical equipment and supplies	3.5	3.2													
Transportation equipment	4.5	3.7													
Instruments and related products	2.7	2.5													
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	5.4	5.7													
Nondurable goods	4.4	4.2													
Food and kindred products	5.6	5.0													
Tobacco manufactures	1.9	2.3													
Textile mill products	5.1	4.8													
Apparel and other textile products	5.0	5.1													
Paper and allied products	3.8	3.4													
Printing and publishing	3.1	3.1													
Chemicals and allied products	2.5	2.5													
Petroleum and coal products	2.5	1.8													
Rubber and plastics products, nec	4.9	4.3													
Leather and leather products	5.7	5.3													
Nonmanufacturing:															
Metal mining	5.1	3.2													
Coal mining	1.6	1.8													
Accessions: New hires															
Manufacturing	3.1	2.9													
Seasonally adjusted	*3.4*	*3.4*													
Durable goods	3.0	2.7													
Ordnance and accessories	2.6	2.9													
Lumber and wood products	5.6	5.1													
Furniture and fixtures	4.6	4.4													
Stone, clay, and glass products	4.0	3.3													
Primary metal industries	2.5	2.2													
Fabricated metal products	3.7	3.5													
Machinery, except electrical	2.2	2.1													
Electrical equipment and supplies	2.4	2.1													
Transportation equipment	2.8	2.3													
Industries and related products	2.1	2.1													
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	4.1	3.9													
Nondurable goods	3.3	3.1													
Food and kindred products	3.8	3.3													
Tobacco manufacturing	1.3	1.7													
Textile mill products	4.2	3.9													
Apparel and other textile products	3.4	3.8													
Paper and allied products	3.2	2.7													
Printing and publishing	2.6	2.5													
Chemicals and allied products	2.1	2.1													
Petroleum and coal products	2.0	1.5													
Rubber and plastics products, nec	3.9	3.5													
Leather and leather products	4.4	4.0													
Nonmanufacturing:															
Metal mining	2.6	2.2													
Coal mining	1.1	1.1													

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE B–1. Labor turnover rates, by major industry group [1]—Continued

[Per 100 employees]

Major industry group	1968				1967									Annual average	
	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1967	1966
Separations: Total															
Manufacturing	4.0	4.1													
Seasonally adjusted	*4.4*	*4.6*													
Durable goods	3.8	3.9													
Ordnance and accessories	3.1	3.3													
Lumber and wood products	6.2	6.4													
Furniture and fixtures	5.4	5.5													
Stone, clay, and glass products	4.2	4.0													
Primary metal industries	3.0	3.0													
Fabricated metal products	4.5	4.6													
Machinery, except electrical	3.0	3.2													
Electrical equipment and supplies	3.6	3.6													
Transportation equipment	4.0	4.0													
Instruments and related products	2.7	3.1													
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	4.6	4.9													
Nondurable goods	4.3	4.4													
Food and kindred products	4.9	5.6													
Tobacco manufactures	3.6	8.1													
Textile mill products	5.1	4.9													
Apparel and other textile products	5.7	5.5													
Paper and allied products	3.6	3.6													
Printing and publishing	3.2	3.0													
Chemicals and allied products	2.3	2.3													
Petroleum and coal products	2.1	1.7													
Rubber and plastics products, nec	4.7	4.5													
Leather and leather products	5.4	5.7													
Nonmanufacturing:															
Metal mining	3.3	3.4													
Coal mining	1.8	1.6													
Separations: Quits															
Manufacturing	2.2	2.1													
Seasonally adjusted	*2.3*	*2.4*													
Durable goods	2.1	1.9													
Ordnance and accessories	1.9	1.8													
Lumber and wood products	4.2	3.7													
Furniture and fixtures	3.7	3.7													
Stone, clay, and glass products	2.5	2.1													
Primary metal industries	1.5	1.4													
Fabricated metal products	2.6	2.4													
Machinery, except electrical	1.6	1.6													
Electrical equipment and supplies	1.8	1.8													
Transportation equipment	1.6	1.5													
Instruments and related products	1.5	1.6													
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	2.8	2.7													
Nondurable goods	2.4	2.3													
Food and kindred products	2.5	2.4													
Tobacco manufactures	1.3	1.5													
Textile mill products	3.7	3.4													
Apparel and other textile products	2.5	2.6													
Paper and allied products	2.2	2.1													
Printing and publishing	1.9	1.8													
Chemicals and allied products	1.2	1.2													
Petroleum and coal products	1.0	.8													
Rubber and plastics products, nec	2.8	2.6													
Leather and leather products	3.5	3.4													
Nonmanufacturing:															
Metal mining	2.2	1.9													
Coal mining	.8	.7													

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE B–1. Labor turnover rates, by major industry group [1]—Continued

[Per 100 employees]

Major industry group	1968				1967									Annual average	
	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1967	1966
	Separations: Layoffs														
Manufacturing	1.0	1.1													
Seasonally adjusted	*1.3*	*1.2*													
Durable goods	.8	1.0													
Ordnance and accessories	.5	.8													
Lumber and wood products	1.0	1.7													
Furniture and fixtures	.5	.8													
Stone, clay, and glass products	.8	1.0													
Primary metal industries	.4	.6													
Fabricated metal products	.9	1.1													
Machinery, except electrical	.6	.7													
Electrical equipment and supplies	.8	.8													
Transportation equipment	1.5	1.6													
Instruments and related products	.5	.6													
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	.9	1.3													
Nondurable goods	1.2	1.3													
Food and kindred products	1.7	2.4													
Tobacco manufactures	1.7	6.0													
Textile mill products	.5	.5													
Apparel and other textile products	2.5	2.1													
Paper and allied products	.6	.7													
Printing and publishing	.7	.6													
Chemicals and allied products	.4	.4													
Petroleum and coal products	.5	.4													
Rubber and plastics products, nec	.8	.8													
Leather and leather products	1.0	1.2													
Nonmanufacturing:															
Metal mining	.3	.9													
Coal mining	.7	.6													

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table A–9.

Month-to-month changes in total employment in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries as indicated by labor turnover rates are not comparable with the changes shown by the Bureau's employment series for the following reasons: (1) the labor turnover series measures changes during the calendar month, while the employment series measures changes from midmonth to midmonth and (2) the turnover series excludes personnel changes caused by strikes, but the employment series reflects the influence of such stoppages.

[2] Preliminary.

C.—Earnings and Hours

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Average weekly earnings															
Total private	$106.03	$104.44	$104.90												
Mining	140.91	140.58	137.10												
Metal mining	-------	152.21	136.37												
Iron ores	-------	139.52	140.53												
Copper ores	-------	-------	131.14												
Coal mining	-------	148.45	152.59												
Bituminous coal and lignite mining	-------	150.38	154.57												
Oil and gas extraction	-------	134.30	132.62												
Crude petroleum and natural gas fields	-------	139.33	136.42												
Oil and gas field services	-------	130.42	130.03												
Nonmetallic minerals, except fuels	-------	134.24	125.99												
Crushed and broken stone	-------	133.10	122.76												
Contract construction	163.30	159.27	154.94												
General building contractors	-------	148.78	147.33												
Heavy construction contractors	-------	159.49	148.61												
Highway and street construction	-------	152.35	134.21												
Heavy construction, nec	-------	166.06	159.17												
Special trade contractors	-------	165.71	162.08												
Plumbing, heating, air conditioning	-------	172.21	174.04												
Painting, paperhanging, and decorating	-------	149.10	146.30												
Electrical work	-------	193.42	192.77												
Masonry, stonework, and plastering	-------	151.80	143.23												
Roofing and sheet metal work	-------	136.06	125.64												
Average weekly hours															
Total private	37.6	37.3	37.6												
Mining	42.7	42.6	41.8												
Metal mining	-------	44.9	41.2												
Iron ores	-------	41.4	41.7												
Copper ores	-------	-------	40.6												
Coal mining	-------	39.8	40.8												
Bituminous coal and lignite mining	-------	40.1	41.0												
Oil and gas extraction	-------	42.1	42.1												
Crude petroleum and natural gas fields	-------	41.1	40.6												
Oil and gas field services	-------	42.9	43.2												
Nonmetallic minerals, except fuels	-------	45.2	43.0												
Crushed and broken stone	-------	46.7	44.0												
Contract construction	37.8	37.3	36.2												
General building contractors	-------	36.2	35.5												
Heavy construction contractors	-------	41.0	38.6												
Highway and street construction	-------	41.4	37.7												
Heavy construction, nec	-------	40.7	39.3												
Special trade contractors	-------	36.5	35.7												
Plumbing, heating, air conditioning	-------	37.6	38.0												
Painting, paperhanging, and decorating	-------	35.5	35.0												
Electrical work	-------	38.0	38.4												
Masonry, stonework, and plastering	-------	34.5	32.7												
Roofing and sheet metal work	-------	34.1	31.1												
Average hourly earnings															
Total private	$2.82	$2.80	$2.79												
Mining	3.30	3.30	3.28												
Metal mining	-------	3.39	3.31												
Iron ores	-------	3.37	3.37												
Copper ores	-------	-------	3.23												
Coal mining	-------	3.73	3.74												
Bituminous coal and lignite mining	-------	3.75	3.77												
Oil and gas extraction	-------	3.19	3.15												
Crude petroleum and natural gas fields	-------	3.39	3.36												
Oil and gas field services	-------	3.04	3.01												
Nonmetallic minerals, except fuels	-------	2.97	2.93												
Crushed and broken stone	-------	2.85	2.79												
Contract construction	4.32	4.27	4.28												
General building contractors	-------	4.11	4.15												
Heavy construction contractors	-------	3.89	3.85												
Highway and street construction	-------	3.68	3.56												
Heavy construction, nec	-------	4.08	4.05												
Special trade contractors	-------	4.54	4.54												
Plumbing, heating, air conditioning	-------	4.58	4.58												
Painting, paperhanging, and decorating	-------	4.20	4.18												
Electrical work	-------	5.09	5.02												
Masonry, stonework, and plastering	-------	4.40	4.38												
Roofing and sheet metal work	-------	3.99	4.04												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Manufacturing	$120.99	$117.91	$120.18												
Durable goods	130.19	126.54	129.68												
Nondurable goods	107.98	104.76	106.79												
Ordnance and accessories	131.29	129.04	133.95												
Ammunition, except for small arms	128.47	125.61	130.47												
Lumber and wood products	102.97	100.25	100.50												
Sawmills and planing mills	98.49	97.36	96.64												
Millwork, plywood, & related products	112.17	107.59	108.50												
Wooden containers	85.97	84.20	84.71												
Miscellaneous wood products	90.35	89.27	91.08												
Furniture and fixtures	96.87	95.26	98.42												
Household furniture	91.64	90.32	93.32												
Office furniture	-------	108.93	110.70												
Partitions and fixtures	-------	118.31	118.59												
Other furniture and fixtures	103.46	100.61	105.71												
	Average weekly hours														
Manufacturing	40.6	39.7	40.6												
Durable goods	41.2	40.3	41.3												
Nondurable goods	39.7	38.8	39.7												
Ordnance and accessories	40.9	40.2	41.6												
Ammunition, except for small arms	40.4	39.5	40.9												
Lumber and wood products	40.7	40.1	40.2												
Sawmills and planing mills	40.7	40.4	40.1												
Millwork, plywood, & related products	41.7	40.6	41.1												
Wooden containers	39.8	38.8	39.4												
Miscellaneous wood products	39.8	39.5	40.3												
Furniture and fixtures	39.7	39.2	40.5												
Household furniture	39.5	39.1	40.4												
Office furniture	-------	39.9	41.0												
Partitions and fixtures	-------	39.7	40.2												
Other furniture and fixtures	40.1	39.3	40.5												
	Average hourly earnings														
Manufacturing	$2.98	$2.97	$2.96												
Durable goods	3.16	3.14	3.14												
Nondurable goods	2.72	2.70	2.69												
Ordnance and accessories	3.21	3.21	3.22												
Ammunition, except for small arms	3.18	3.18	3.19												
Lumber and wood products	2.53	2.50	2.50												
Sawmills and planing mills	2.42	2.41	2.41												
Millwork, plywood, & related products	2.69	2.65	2.64												
Wooden containers	2.16	2.17	2.15												
Miscellaneous wood products	2.27	2.26	2.26												
Furniture and fixtures	2.44	2.43	2.43												
Household furniture	2.32	2.31	2.31												
Office furniture	-------	2.73	2.70												
Partitions and fixtures	-------	2.98	2.95												
Other furniture and fixtures	2.58	2.56	2.61												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Manufacturing—Continued															
Durable goods—Continued															
Stone, clay, and glass products	$125.88	$123.55	$119.19												
Flat glass	------	154.22	156.94												
Glass and glassware, pressed or blown	125.05	127.72	112.97												
Cement, hydraulic	143.10	143.90	135.30												
Structural clay products	104.45	104.19	101.96												
Pottery and related products	------	108.26	108.27												
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	134.70	129.07	122.26												
Other stone & nonmetallic mineral products	123.97	119.48	121.54												
Primary metal industries	148.97	149.81	146.23												
Blast furnace and basic steel products	------	166.00	153.92												
Iron and steel foundries	134.15	130.07	136.27												
Nonferrous metals	140.28	143.99	139.26												
Nonferrous rolling and drawing	141.10	137.94	140.94												
Nonferrous foundries	127.00	120.26	126.18												
Miscellaneous primary metal products	150.55	145.67	156.56												
	Average weekly hours														
Stone, clay, and glass products	42.1	41.6	41.1												
Flat glass	------	40.8	41.3												
Glass and glassware, pressed or blown	41.0	41.2	39.5												
Cement, hydraulic	41.6	42.2	41.0												
Structural clay products	40.8	40.7	40.3												
Pottery and related products	------	39.8	40.1												
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	44.9	43.9	42.6												
Other stone & nonmetallic mineral products	41.6	40.5	41.2												
Primary metal industries	42.2	42.2	41.9												
Blast furnace and basic steel products	------	43.8	41.6												
Iron and steel foundries	40.9	39.9	41.8												
Nonferrous metals	42.0	42.6	42.2												
Nonferrous rolling and drawing	42.5	41.8	43.1												
Nonferrous foundries	41.1	39.3	41.1												
Miscellaneous primary metal products	40.8	39.8	42.2												
	Average hourly earnings														
Stone, clay, and glass products	$2.99	$2.97	$2.90												
Flat glass	------	3.78	3.80												
Glass and glassware, pressed or blown	3.05	3.10	2.86												
Cement, hydraulic	3.44	3.41	3.30												
Structural clay products	2.56	2.56	2.53												
Pottery and related products	------	2.72	2.70												
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	3.00	2.94	2.87												
Other stone & nonmetallic mineral products	2.98	2.95	2.95												
Primary metal industries	3.53	3.55	3.49												
Blast furnace and basic steel products	------	3.79	3.70												
Iron and steel foundries	3.28	3.26	3.26												
Nonferrous metals	3.34	3.38	3.30												
Nonferrous rolling and drawing	3.32	3.30	3.27												
Nonferrous foundries	3.09	3.06	3.07												
Miscellaneous primary metal products	3.69	3.66	3.71												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Manufacturing—Continued															
Durable goods—Continued															
Fabricated metal products	$130.94	$123.91	$128.44												
Metal cans	-------	144.38	144.49												
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware	123.30	118.60	122.89												
Plumbing and heating, except electric	115.92	110.40	117.16												
Fabricated structural metal products	124.54	120.69	123.93												
Screw machine products, bolts, etc	133.49	127.91	134.42												
Metal stampings	-------	139.94	145.25												
Metal services, nec	113.15	109.30	111.50												
Misc. fabricated wire products	116.28	112.63	116.72												
Misc. fabricated metal products	127.07	120.20	125.22												
Machinery, except electrical	138.53	135.38	140.86												
Engines and turbines	147.24	143.87	154.64												
Farm machinery	-------	130.48	136.75												
Construction and related machinery	138.53	136.53	139.11												
Metal working machinery	157.47	153.36	161.09												
Special industry machinery	129.89	126.59	131.55												
General industrial machinery	133.82	131.38	136.78												
Office and computing machines	132.03	131.70	134.14												
Service industry machines	122.72	118.20	121.81												
Misc. machinery, except electrical	136.96	131.14	136.85												
	Average weekly hours														
Fabricated metal products	41.7	40.1	41.3												
Metal cans	-------	40.9	41.4												
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware	41.1	39.8	41.1												
Plumbing and heating, except electric	39.7	38.2	40.4												
Fabricated structural metal products	40.7	39.7	40.5												
Screw machine products, bolts, etc	43.2	41.8	43.5												
Metal stampings	-------	40.8	42.1												
Metal services, nec	40.7	39.6	40.4												
Misc. fabricated wire products	40.8	39.8	41.1												
Misc. fabricated metal products	41.8	40.2	41.6												
Machinery, except electrical	41.6	40.9	42.3												
Engines and turbines	40.9	40.3	42.6												
Farm machinery	-------	39.3	40.7												
Construction and related machinery	41.6	41.0	41.9												
Metal working machinery	43.5	42.6	44.5												
Special industry machinery	41.9	41.1	42.3												
General industrial machinery	40.8	40.3	41.7												
Office and computing machines	40.5	40.4	41.4												
Service industry machines	40.5	39.4	40.2												
Misc. machinery, except electrical	42.8	41.5	42.9												
	Average hourly earnings														
Fabricated metal products	$3.14	$3.09	$3.11												
Metal cans	-------	3.53	3.49												
Cutlery, hand tools, and hardware	3.00	2.98	2.99												
Plumbing and heating, except electric	2.92	2.89	2.90												
Fabricated structural metal products	3.06	3.04	3.06												
Screw machine products, bolts, etc	3.09	3.06	3.09												
Metal stampings	-------	3.43	3.45												
Metal services, nec	2.78	2.76	2.76												
Misc. fabricated wire products	2.85	2.83	2.84												
Misc. fabricated metal products	3.04	2.99	3.01												
Machinery, except electrical	3.33	3.31	3.33												
Engines and turbines	3.60	3.57	3.63												
Farm machinery	-------	3.32	3.36												
Construction and related machinery	3.33	3.33	3.32												
Metal working machinery	3.62	3.60	3.62												
Special industry machinery	3.10	3.08	3.11												
General industrial machinery	3.28	3.26	3.28												
Office and computing machines	3.26	3.26	3.24												
Service industry machines	3.03	3.00	3.03												
Misc. machinery, except electrical	3.20	3.16	3.19												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Manufacturing—Continued															
Durable goods—Continued															
Electrical equipment and supplies	$116.18	$112.90	$115.49												
Electric test & distributing equipment	124.64	121.81	124.84												
Electrical industrial apparatus	123.41	119.40	121.20												
Household appliances	122.85	121.29	124.31												
Electric lighting and wiring equipment	111.52	106.90	108.80												
Radio and TV receiving equipment	96.33	94.46	95.10												
Communication equipment	127.98	123.80	128.61												
Electronic components and accessories	99.54	96.38	100.04												
Misc. electrical equipment & supplies	128.15	124.19	126.63												
Transportation equipment	150.23	143.24	151.62												
Motor vehicles and equipment	-------	153.12	161.50												
Aircraft and parts	145.55	139.04	150.23												
Ship and boat building and repairing	134.53	131.54	136.20												
Railroad equipment	-------	131.51	133.28												
Other transportation equipment	-------	103.83	105.86												
	Average weekly hours														
Electrical equipment and supplies	40.2	39.2	40.1												
Electric test & distributing equipment	41.0	40.2	41.2												
Electrical industrial apparatus	41.0	39.8	40.4												
Household appliances	39.5	39.0	40.1												
Electric lighting and wiring equipment	40.7	39.3	40.0												
Radio and TV receiving equipment	39.0	38.4	38.5												
Communication equipment	40.5	39.3	40.7												
Electronic components and accessories	39.5	38.4	39.7												
Misc. electrical equipment & supplies	40.3	39.3	40.2												
Transportation equipment	41.5	39.9	42.0												
Motor vehicles and equipment	-------	40.4	42.5												
Aircraft and parts	41.0	39.5	42.2												
Ship and boat building and repairing	40.4	39.5	40.9												
Railroad equipment	-------	37.9	38.3												
Other transportation equipment	-------	38.6	39.5												
	Average hourly earnings														
Electrical equipment and supplies	$2.89	$2.88	$2.88												
Electric test & distributing equipment	3.04	3.03	3.03												
Electrical industrial apparatus	3.01	3.00	3.00												
Household appliances	3.11	3.11	3.10												
Electric lighting and wiring equipment	2.74	2.72	2.72												
Radio and TV receiving equipment	2.47	2.46	2.47												
Communication equipment	3.16	3.15	3.16												
Electronic components and accessories	2.52	2.51	2.52												
Misc. electrical equipment & supplies	3.18	3.16	3.15												
Transportation equipment	3.62	3.59	3.61												
Motor vehicles and equipment	-------	3.79	3.80												
Aircraft and parts	3.55	3.52	3.56												
Ship and boat building and repairing	3.33	3.33	3.33												
Railroad equipment	-------	3.47	3.48												
Other transportation equipment	-------	2.69	2.68												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Manufacturing—Continued															
Durable goods—Continued															
Instruments and related products	$117.89	$115.74	$119.66												
Engineering & scientific instruments	-------	129.03	136.50												
Mechanical measuring & control devices	116.18	112.22	116.47												
Optical and ophthalmic goods	110.15	104.99	109.34												
Ophthalmic goods	-------	93.74	98.60												
Medical instruments and supplies	102.29	100.10	103.57												
Photographic equipment and supplies	-------	142.00	142.54												
Watches, clocks, and watchcases	-------	93.59	95.65												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	96.61	95.12	98.60												
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware	111.76	109.57	113.42												
Toys, and sporting goods	-------	85.96	89.60												
Pens, pencils, office and art supplies	-------	93.99	95.26												
Costume jewelry and notions	-------	86.94	91.08												
Other manufacturing industries	102.04	100.20	103.62												
Musical instruments and parts	-------	101.76	104.41												
	Average weekly hours														
Instruments and related products	40.1	39.5	40.7												
Engineering & scientific instruments	-------	39.7	42.0												
Mechanical measuring & control devices	40.2	39.1	40.3												
Optical and ophthalmic goods	40.2	38.6	40.2												
Ophthalmic goods	-------	37.8	39.6												
Medical instruments and supplies	39.8	39.1	40.3												
Photographic equipment and supplies	-------	41.4	41.8												
Watches, clocks, and watchcases	-------	38.2	39.2												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	38.8	38.2	39.6												
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware	40.2	39.7	40.8												
Toys and sporting goods	-------	37.7	39.3												
Pens, pencils, office and art supplies	-------	39.0	39.2												
Costume jewelry and notions	-------	37.8	39.6												
Other manufacturing industries	38.8	38.1	39.4												
Musical instruments and parts	-------	38.4	39.4												
	Average hourly earnings														
Instruments and related products	$2.94	$2.93	$2.94												
Engineering & scientific instruments	-------	3.25	3.25												
Mechanical measuring & control devices	2.89	2.87	2.89												
Optical and ophthalmic goods	2.74	2.72	2.72												
Ophthalmic goods	-------	2.48	2.49												
Medical instruments and supplies	2.57	2.56	2.57												
Photographic equipment and supplies	-------	3.43	3.41												
Watches, clocks, and watchcases	-------	2.45	2.44												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	2.49	2.49	2.49												
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware	2.78	2.76	2.78												
Toys and sporting goods	-------	2.28	2.28												
Pens, pencils, office and art supplies	-------	2.41	2.43												
Costume jewelry and notions	-------	2.30	2.30												
Other manufacturing industries	2.63	2.63	2.63												
Musical instruments and parts	-------	2.65	2.65												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Average weekly earnings															
Manufacturing—Continued															
Nondurable goods															
Food and kindred products	$113.12	$110.48	$111.08												
Meat products	122.36	116.23	116.42												
Dairy products	118.58	117.32	117.04												
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	-------	86.98	88.60												
Grain mill products	123.82	122.27	125.24												
Bakery products	112.31	109.73	110.15												
Sugar	-------	116.18	121.98												
Confectionery and related products	93.51	89.25	93.14												
Beverages	128.24	127.92	125.77												
Misc. foods and kindred products	112.20	109.48	111.64												
Tobacco manufactures	97.88	87.12	92.01												
Cigarettes	-------	100.46	105.70												
Cigars	-------	69.35	74.84												
Textile mill products	89.40	86.43	89.84												
Weaving mills, cotton	87.53	86.27	89.44												
Weaving mills, synthetics	93.50	91.12	94.17												
Weaving and finishing mills, wool	96.73	94.11	95.00												
Narrow fabric mills	87.94	85.41	88.17												
Knitting mills	83.13	79.00	82.71												
Textile finishing, except wool	98.21	93.94	98.41												
Floor covering mills	-------	91.49	93.29												
Yarn and thread mills	84.86	81.20	84.23												
Miscellaneous textile goods	101.52	96.46	102.24												
Average weekly hours															
Food and kindred products	40.4	39.6	40.1												
Meat products	41.2	39.4	39.6												
Dairy products	41.9	41.9	41.8												
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	-------	36.7	37.7												
Grain mill products	43.6	42.9	44.1												
Bakery products	40.4	39.9	40.2												
Sugar	-------	37.0	38.6												
Confectionery and related products	38.8	37.5	39.3												
Beverages	40.2	40.1	39.8												
Misc. foods and kindred products	41.1	40.4	41.5												
Tobacco manufactures	37.5	33.9	37.1												
Cigarettes	-------	33.6	36.7												
Cigars	-------	34.5	37.8												
Textile mill products	41.2	40.2	41.4												
Weaving mills, cotton	40.9	40.5	41.6												
Weaving mills, synthetics	42.5	41.8	43.0												
Weaving and finishing mills, wool	42.8	42.2	42.6												
Narrow fabrics mills	40.9	40.1	41.2												
Knitting mills	39.4	37.8	39.2												
Textile finishing, except wool	42.7	41.2	42.6												
Floor covering mills	-------	41.4	42.6												
Yarn and thread mills	41.6	40.4	41.7												
Miscellaneous textile goods	42.3	40.7	42.6												
Average hourly earnings															
Food and kindred products	$2.80	$2.79	$2.77												
Meat products	2.97	2.95	2.94												
Dairy products	2.83	2.80	2.80												
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	-------	2.37	2.35												
Grain mill products	2.84	2.85	2.84												
Bakery products	2.78	2.75	2.74												
Sugar	-------	3.14	3.16												
Confectionery and related products	2.41	2.38	2.37												
Beverages	3.19	3.19	3.16												
Misc. foods and kindred products	2.73	2.71	2.69												
Tobacco manufactures	2.61	2.57	2.48												
Cigarettes	-------	2.99	2.88												
Cigars	-------	2.01	1.98												
Textile mill products	2.17	2.15	2.17												
Weaving mills, cotton	2.14	2.13	2.15												
Weaving mills, synthetics	2.20	2.18	2.19												
Weaving and finishing mills, wool	2.26	2.23	2.23												
Narrow fabric mills	2.15	2.13	2.14												
Knitting mills	2.11	2.09	2.11												
Textile finishing, except wool	2.30	2.28	2.31												
Floor covering mills	-------	2.21	2.19												
Yarn and thread mills	2.04	2.01	2.02												
Miscellaneous textile goods	2.40	2.37	2.40												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Manufacturing—Continued															
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Apparel and other textile products	$78.70	$75.95	$80.15												
Men's and boys' suits and coats	93.37	89.66	94.85												
Men's and boys' furnishings	71.62	69.31	70.83												
Women's and misses' outerwear	79.33	76.89	82.96												
Women's and children's undergarments	73.33	71.91	74.13												
Hats, caps, and millinery	-------	73.56	80.01												
Children's outerwear	75.14	68.54	73.39												
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel	-------	77.50	81.81												
Misc. fabricated textile products	86.94	82.94	87.62												
Paper and allied products	128.83	124.27	125.93												
Paper and pulp mills	147.30	144.21	145.84												
Paperboard mills	149.07	145.20	144.53												
Misc. converted paper products	112.48	107.32	111.11												
Paperboard containers and boxes	116.34	110.68	111.93												
Printing and publishing	131.45	128.59	130.64												
Newspapers	135.75	132.46	131.02												
Periodicals	-------	144.02	148.27												
Books	-------	117.01	118.55												
Commercial printing	132.48	130.68	134.55												
Blankbooks and bookbinding	99.68	96.83	101.11												
Other publishing & printing ind	133.79	130.53	134.11												
	Average weekly hours														
Apparel and other textile products	36.1	35.0	36.6												
Men's and boys' suits and coats	37.8	36.3	38.4												
Men's and boys' furnishings	37.3	36.1	36.7												
Women's and misses' outerwear	33.9	33.0	35.3												
Women's and children's undergarments	36.3	35.6	36.7												
Hats, caps, and millinery	-------	34.7	36.7												
Children's outerwear	36.3	33.6	35.8												
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel	-------	34.6	36.2												
Misc. fabricated textile products	37.8	36.7	38.6												
Paper and allied products	42.8	41.7	42.4												
Paper and pulp mills	44.5	44.1	44.6												
Paperboard mills	44.9	44.0	44.2												
Misc. converted paper products	41.2	39.6	41.0												
Paperboard containers and boxes	41.7	40.1	40.7												
Printing and publishing	38.1	37.6	38.2												
Newspapers	36.2	35.8	35.7												
Periodicals	-------	40.8	41.3												
Books	-------	39.8	40.6												
Commercial printing	38.4	38.1	39.0												
Blankbooks and bookbinding	37.9	37.1	38.3												
Other publishing & printing ind	37.9	37.4	38.1												
	Average hourly earnings														
Apparel and other textile products	$2.18	$2.17	$2.19												
Men's and boys' suits and coats	2.47	2.47	2.47												
Men's and boys' furnishings	1.92	1.92	1.93												
Women's and misses' outerwear	2.34	2.33	2.35												
Women's and children's undergarments	2.02	2.02	2.02												
Hats, caps, and millinery	-------	2.12	2.18												
Children's outerwear	2.07	2.04	2.05												
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel	-------	2.24	2.26												
Misc. fabricated textile products	2.30	2.26	2.27												
Paper and allied products	3.01	2.98	2.97												
Paper and pulp mills	3.31	3.27	3.27												
Paperboard mills	3.32	3.30	3.27												
Misc. converted paper products	2.73	2.71	2.71												
Paperboard containers and boxes	2.79	2.76	2.75												
Printing and publishing	3.45	3.42	3.42												
Newspapers	3.75	3.70	3.67												
Periodicals	-------	3.53	3.59												
Books	-------	2.94	2.92												
Commercial printing	3.45	3.43	3.45												
Blankbooks and bookbinding	2.63	2.61	2.64												
Other publishing & printing ind	3.53	3.49	3.52												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing—Continued															
Nondurable goods—Continued															
Average weekly earnings															
Chemicals and allied products	$134.60	$134.18	$132.70												
Industrial chemicals	153.15	153.36	149.10												
Plastics materials and synthetics	133.88	137.69	132.19												
Drugs	122.61	117.51	121.69												
Soap, cleaners, and toilet goods	128.61	122.70	127.39												
Paints and allied products	128.24	123.01	124.34												
Agricultural chemicals	115.01	115.36	113.10												
Other chemical products	126.36	127.51	126.17												
Petroleum and coal products	161.25	161.78	154.24												
Petroleum refining	169.06	171.54	162.57												
Other petroleum and coal products	133.15	124.80	123.97												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	118.94	113.60	117.14												
Tires and inner tubes	171.99	162.01	170.67												
Other rubber products	113.24	109.14	111.76												
Rubber footwear	-------	99.07	100.23												
Miscellaneous plastics products	102.00	98.60	100.69												
Leather and leather products	84.58	81.92	85.25												
Leather tanning and finishing	112.19	110.55	111.38												
Footwear, except rubber	82.84	79.64	83.49												
Other leather products	79.29	76.89	80.51												
Luggage	-------	78.41	80.63												
Handbags and personal leather goods	-------	73.28	79.63												
Average weekly hours															
Chemicals and allied products	41.8	41.8	41.6												
Industrial chemicals	42.9	42.6	42.0												
Plastics materials and synthetics	42.1	43.3	42.1												
Drugs	40.6	39.7	40.7												
Soap, cleaners, and toilet goods	40.7	39.2	40.7												
Paints and allied products	41.5	40.2	40.9												
Agricultural chemicals	43.4	44.2	43.5												
Other chemical products	40.5	41.0	40.7												
Petroleum and coal products	43.0	42.8	41.8												
Petroleum refining	42.8	43.1	41.9												
Other petroleum and coal products	43.8	41.6	41.6												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	41.3	40.0	41.1												
Tires and inner tubes	44.1	42.3	44.1												
Other rubber products	40.3	39.4	40.2												
Rubber footwear	-------	38.4	39.0												
Miscellaneous plastics products	40.8	39.6	40.6												
Leather and leather products	38.1	36.9	38.4												
Leather tanning and finishing	40.5	40.2	40.8												
Footwear, except rubber	38.0	36.7	38.3												
Other leather products	37.4	36.1	37.8												
Luggage	-------	36.3	37.5												
Handbags and personal leather goods	-------	35.4	38.1												
Average hourly earnings															
Chemicals and allied products	$3.22	$3.21	$3.19												
Industrial chemicals	3.57	3.60	3.55												
Plastics materials and synthetics	3.18	3.18	3.14												
Drugs	3.02	2.96	2.99												
Soap, cleaners, and toilet goods	3.16	3.13	3.13												
Paints and allied products	3.09	3.06	3.04												
Agricultural chemicals	2.65	2.61	2.60												
Other chemical products	3.12	3.11	3.10												
Petroleum and coal products	3.75	3.78	3.69												
Petroleum refining	3.95	3.98	3.88												
Other petroleum and coal products	3.04	3.00	2.98												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	2.88	2.84	2.85												
Tires and inner tubes	3.90	3.83	3.87												
Other rubber products	2.81	2.77	2.78												
Rubber footwear	-------	2.58	2.57												
Miscellaneous plastics products	2.50	2.49	2.48												
Leather and leather products	2.22	2.22	2.22												
Leather tanning and finishing	2.77	2.75	2.73												
Footwear, except rubber	2.18	2.17	2.18												
Other leather products	2.12	2.13	2.13												
Luggage	-------	2.16	2.15												
Handbags and personal leather goods	-------	2.07	2.09												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Average weekly earnings															
Transportation and public utilities:															
Railroad transportation:															
Class I railroads [3]	-------	-------	-------												
Local and suburban transportation	-------	$121.35	$118.56												
Intercity highway transportation	-------	145.35	143.62												
Trucking and warehousing	-------	139.33	137.03												
Trucking and trucking terminals	-------	142.14	139.86												
Public warehousing	-------	102.44	101.77												
Pipe line transportation	-------	167.27	166.84												
Communication	-------	116.70	116.70												
Telephone communication	-------	113.10	113.78												
Telegraph communication [4]	-------	138.97	137.26												
Radio and television broadcasting	-------	133.91	132.48												
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	-------	147.85	145.55												
Electric companies and systems	-------	152.62	149.92												
Gas companies and systems	-------	134.87	133.98												
Combination companies and systems	-------	159.33	156.15												
Water, steam, & sanitary systems	-------	120.07	117.86												
Average weekly hours															
Transportation and public utilities:															
Railroad transportation:															
Class I railroads [3]	-------	-------	-------												
Local and suburban transportation	-------	41.7	41.6												
Intercity highway transportation	-------	40.6	40.8												
Trucking and warehousing	-------	41.1	41.4												
Trucking and trucking terminals	-------	41.2	41.5												
Public warehousing	-------	39.1	39.6												
Pipeline transportation	-------	41.3	41.4												
Communication	-------	38.9	38.9												
Telephone communication	-------	39.0	39.1												
Telegraph communication [4]	-------	43.7	43.3												
Radio and television broadcasting	-------	37.3	36.8												
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	-------	41.3	41.0												
Electric companies and systems	-------	41.7	41.3												
Gas companies and systems	-------	40.5	40.6												
Combination companies and systems	-------	41.6	41.2												
Water, steam, & sanitary systems	-------	40.7	40.5												
Average hourly earnings															
Transportation and public utilities:															
Railroad transportation:															
Class I railroads [3]	-------	-------	-------												
Local and suburban transportation	-------	$2.91	$2.85												
Intercity highway transportation	-------	3.58	3.52												
Trucking and warehousing	-------	3.39	3.31												
Trucking and trucking terminals	-------	3.45	3.37												
Public warehousing	-------	2.62	2.57												
Pipeline transportation	-------	4.05	4.03												
Communication	-------	3.00	3.00												
Telephone communication	-------	2.90	2.91												
Telegraph communication [4]	-------	3.18	3.17												
Radio and television broadcasting	-------	3.59	3.60												
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	-------	3.58	3.55												
Electric companies and systems	-------	3.66	3.63												
Gas companies and systems	-------	3.33	3.30												
Combination companies and systems	-------	3.83	3.79												
Water, steam, & sanitary systems	-------	2.95	2.91												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Average weekly earnings															
Wholesale and retail trade	$84.73	$84.85	$84.85												
Wholesale trade	120.99	120.29	119.80												
Motor vehicles & automotive equipment	-------	111.24	111.92												
Drugs, chemicals, and allied products	-------	120.59	121.21												
Dry goods and apparel	-------	113.83	116.12												
Groceries and related products	-------	112.63	112.12												
Electrical goods	-------	116.87	120.38												
Hardware, plumbing & heating equipment	-------	116.69	113.94												
Machinery, equipment, and supplies	-------	138.79	137.57												
Miscellaneous wholesalers	-------	118.29	118.20												
Retail trade	73.40	73.70	72.93												
Retail general merchandise	-------	66.77	66.45												
Department stores	-------	70.18	69.86												
Mail order houses	-------	79.10	78.75												
Variety stores	-------	52.29	51.60												
Food stores	-------	77.17	75.67												
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores	-------	77.83	76.31												
Apparel and accessory stores	-------	66.05	63.28												
Men's & boys' clothing & furnishings	-------	80.03	77.40												
Women's ready-to-wear stores	-------	59.84	58.22												
Family clothing stores	-------	61.24	59.02												
Shoe stores	-------	69.74	62.70												
Average weekly hours															
Wholesale and retail trade	35.6	35.8	35.8												
Wholesale trade	39.8	39.7	39.8												
Motor vehicles & automotive equipment	-------	41.2	41.3												
Drugs, chemicals, and allied products	-------	38.9	39.1												
Dry goods and apparel	-------	37.2	37.7												
Groceries and related products	-------	39.8	39.9												
Electrical goods	-------	38.7	39.6												
Hardware, plumbing & heating equipment	-------	40.1	39.7												
Machinery, equipment, and supplies	-------	40.7	40.7												
Miscellaneous wholesalers	-------	39.3	39.4												
Retail trade	34.3	34.6	34.4												
Retail general merchandise	-------	32.1	32.1												
Department stores	-------	31.9	31.9												
Mail order houses	-------	35.0	35.0												
Variety stores	-------	30.4	30.0												
Food stores	-------	32.7	32.2												
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores	-------	32.7	32.2												
Apparel and accessory stores	-------	32.7	31.8												
Men's & boys' clothing & furnishings	-------	35.1	34.4												
Women's ready-to-wear stores	-------	32.0	31.3												
Family clothing stores	-------	32.4	31.9												
Shoe stores	-------	31.7	30.0												
Average hourly earnings															
Wholesale and retail trade	$2.38	$2.37	$2.37												
Wholesale trade	3.04	3.03	3.01												
Motor vehicles & automotive equipment	-------	2.70	2.71												
Drugs, chemicals, and allied products	-------	3.10	3.10												
Dry goods and apparel	-------	3.06	3.08												
Groceries and related products	-------	2.83	2.81												
Electrical goods	-------	3.02	3.04												
Hardware, plumbing & heating equipment	-------	2.91	2.87												
Machinery, equipment, and supplies	-------	3.41	3.38												
Miscellaneous wholesalers	-------	3.01	3.00												
Retail trade	2.14	2.13	2.12												
Retail general merchandise	-------	2.08	2.07												
Department stores	-------	2.20	2.19												
Mail order houses	-------	2.26	2.25												
Variety stores	-------	1.72	1.72												
Food stores	-------	2.36	2.35												
Grocery, meat, and vegetable stores	-------	2.38	2.37												
Apparel and accessory stores	-------	2.02	1.99												
Men's & boys' clothing & furnishings	-------	2.28	2.25												
Women's ready-to-wear stores	-------	1.87	1.86												
Family clothing stores	-------	1.89	1.85												
Shoe stores	-------	2.20	2.09												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Average weekly earnings															
Wholesale and retail trade—Continued															
Retail trade—Continued															
Furniture and home furnishings stores	-------	$95.13	$95.38												
Furniture and home furnishings	-------	95.38	95.26												
Eating and drinking places [5]	-------	51.83	51.51												
Other retail trade	-------	90.95	90.32												
Building materials and farm equipment	-------	98.98	96.80												
Motor vehicle dealers	-------	118.01	117.18												
Other automotive & accessory dealers	-------	98.88	98.14												
Drug stores and proprietary stores	-------	66.26	65.65												
Book and stationery stores	-------	78.86	79.11												
Fuel and ice dealers	-------	107.86	111.22												
Finance, insurance, and real estate [6]	$100.37	99.36	99.80												
Banking	-------	90.41	90.28												
Credit agencies other than banks	-------	92.25	94.08												
Savings and loan associations	-------	91.88	90.28												
Security, commodity brokers & services	-------	158.30	155.96												
Insurance carriers	-------	105.77	105.41												
Life insurance	-------	105.67	105.97												
Accident and health insurance	-------	93.18	93.33												
Fire, marine, and casualty insurance	-------	108.75	108.09												
Average weekly hours															
Furniture and home furnishings stores	-------	37.6	37.7												
Furniture and home furnishings	-------	37.7	37.8												
Eating and drinking places [5]	-------	32.6	32.6												
Other retail trade	-------	38.7	38.6												
Building materials and farm equipment	-------	40.9	40.5												
Motor vehicle dealers	-------	41.7	41.7												
Other automotive & accessory dealers	-------	41.9	42.3												
Drug stores and proprietary stores	-------	32.8	32.5												
Book and stationery stores	-------	33.7	34.1												
Fuel and ice dealers	-------	40.7	41.5												
Finance, insurance, and real estate [6]	36.9	36.8	37.1												
Banking	-------	36.9	37.0												
Credit agencies other than banks	-------	37.5	38.4												
Savings and loan associations	-------	37.2	37.0												
Security, commodity brokers & services	-------	38.8	38.7												
Insurance carriers	-------	36.6	36.6												
Life insurance	-------	35.7	35.8												
Accident and health insurance	-------	36.4	36.6												
Fire, marine, and casualty insurance	-------	37.5	37.4												
Average hourly earnings															
Furniture and home furnishings stores	-------	$2.53	$2.53												
Furniture and home furnishings	-------	2.53	2.52												
Eating and drinking places [5]	-------	1.59	1.58												
Other retail trade	-------	2.35	2.34												
Building materials and farm equipment	-------	2.42	2.39												
Motor vehicle dealers	-------	2.83	2.81												
Other automotive & accessory dealers	-------	2.36	2.32												
Drug stores and proprietary stores	-------	2.02	2.02												
Book and stationery stores	-------	2.34	2.32												
Fuel and ice dealers	-------	2.65	2.68												
Finance, insurance, and real estate [6]	$2.72	2.70	2.69												
Banking	-------	2.45	2.44												
Credit agencies other than banks	-------	2.46	2.45												
Savings and loan associations	-------	2.47	2.44												
Security, commodity brokers & services	-------	4.08	4.03												
Insurance carriers	-------	2.89	2.88												
Life insurance	-------	2.96	2.96												
Accident and health insurance	-------	2.56	2.55												
Fire, marine, and casualty insurance	-------	2.90	2.89												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–1. Gross hours and earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers [1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
	Average weekly earnings														
Services:															
Hotels and other lodging places:															
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels [5]	-------	$57.87	$58.68												
Personal services:															
Laundries and drycleaning plants	-------	68.82	67.34												
Photographic studios	-------	78.43	77.03												
Motion pictures:															
Motion picture filming & distributing	-------	148.57	147.68												
	Average weekly hours														
Services:															
Hotels and other lodging places:															
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels [5]	-------	35.5	36.0												
Personal services:															
Laundries and drycleaning plants	-------	37.0	36.6												
Photographic studios	-------	34.4	34.7												
Motion pictures:															
Motion picture filming & distributing	-------	39.2	39.7												
	Average hourly earnings														
Services:															
Hotels and other lodging places:															
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels [5]	-------	$1.63	$1.63												
Personal services:															
Laundries and drycleaning plants	-------	1.86	1.84												
Photographic studios	-------	2.28	2.22												
Motion pictures:															
Motion picture filming & distributing	-------	3.79	3.72												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968 see footnote 1, table A–9. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table A–10.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Based upon monthly data summarized in the M–300 report by the Interstate Commerce Commission, which relate to all employees who received pay during the month, except executives, officials, and staff assistants (ICC Group I). Beginning January 1965, data relate to railroads with operating revenues of $5,000,000 or more.
[4] Data relate to nonsupervisory employees except messengers.
[5] Money payments only, tips not included.
[6] Data for nonoffice salesmen excluded from all series in this division.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics for all series except that for Class I railroads. (See footnote 3.)

TABLE C–2. Gross and spendable average weekly earnings of production or nonsupervisory workers[1] on private nonagricultural payrolls in current and 1957–59 dollars

Item	1968				1967									Annual average	
	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	Apr.	1967	1966
Total private															
Gross average weekly earnings:															
Current dollars	$104.44	$104.90													
1957–59 dollars	87.11	87.78													
Spendable average weekly earnings:															
Worker with no dependents:															
Current dollars	85.36	85.70													
1957–59 dollars	71.19	71.72													
Worker with 3 dependents:															
Current dollars	92.93	93.30													
1957–59 dollars	77.51	78.08													
Manufacturing															
Gross average weekly earnings:															
Current dollars	117.91	120.18													
1957–59 dollars	98.34	100.57													
Spendable average weekly earnings:															
Worker with no dependents:															
Current dollars	95.57	97.29													
1957–59 dollars	79.71	81.41													
Worker with 3 dependents:															
Current dollars	103.68	105.50													
1957–59 dollars	86.47	88.28													

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table A–9. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table A–10.

Spendable average weekly earnings are based on gross average weekly earnings as published in table C–1 less the estimated amount of the workers' Federal social security and income tax liability. Since the amount of tax liability depends on the number of dependents supported by the worker as well as on the level of his gross income, spendable earnings have been computed for 2 types of income receivers: (1) A worker with no dependents and (2) a married worker with 3 dependents.

The earnings expressed in 1957–59 dollars have been adjusted for changes in purchasing power as measured by the Bureau's Consumer Price Index.

[2] Preliminary.

NOTE: These series are described in "The Calculation and Uses of Spendable Earnings Series," *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1966, pp. 406–410.

TABLE C–3. Average weekly hours of production or nonsupervisory workers[1] on private nonagricultural payrolls, by industry division and selected groups, seasonally adjusted

Industry division and group	1968					1967							
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May
Total private	37.7	37.6	37.8										
Mining	42.5	42.9	42.3										
Contract construction	37.4	37.8	36.8										
Manufacturing	40.6	40.0	40.7										
Durable goods	41.1	40.5	41.4										
Ordnance and accessories	40.9	40.5	41.9										
Lumber and wood products	40.3	40.0	40.5										
Furniture and fixtures	40.3	40.0	40.9										
Stone, clay, and glass products	41.8	41.6	41.7										
Primary metal industries	42.0	42.1	41.8										
Fabricated metal products	41.5	40.3	41.5										
Machinery, except electrical	41.4	40.9	42.1										
Electrical equipment and supplies	40.2	39.6	40.2										
Transportation equipment	41.4	40.3	42.4										
Instruments and related products	40.1	39.7	40.8										
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	39.0	38.5	39.5										
Nondurable goods	39.7	39.2	39.8										
Food and kindred products	40.5	40.4	40.7										
Tobacco manufactures	37.9	33.9	37.9										
Textile mill products	41.2	40.7	41.6										
Apparel and other textile products	36.1	35.1	36.2										
Paper and allied products	42.9	42.1	42.7										
Printing and publishing	38.1	37.8	38.0										
Chemicals and allied products	41.6	41.4	41.6										
Petroleum and coal products	42.7	42.5	42.2										
Rubber and plastics products, nec	41.4	40.4	41.4										
Leather and leather products	38.4	38.1	38.7										
Wholesale and retail trade	35.8	36.1	36.1										
Wholesale trade	39.8	39.9	39.9										
Retail trade	34.6	34.9	34.7										
Finance, insurance, and real estate	37.0	36.8	37.1										

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For employees covered, see footnote 1, table A–10.
[2] Preliminary.

NOTE: The seasonal adjustment method used is described in appendix A, *BLS Handbook of Methods for Surveys and Studies* (BLS Bulletin 1458, 1966).

TABLE C–4. Average hourly earnings excluding overtime of production workers [1] on manufacturing payrolls, by major industry group

Major industry group	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr [2]	Mar	Feb	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing	$2.86	$2.86	$2.85												
Durable goods	3.03	3.03	3.02												
Ordnance and accessories	-------	3.11	3.10												
Lumber and wood products	-------	2.40	2.39												
Furniture and fixtures	-------	2.36	2.34												
Stone, clay, and glass products	-------	2.83	2.77												
Primary metal industries	-------	3.39	3.34												
Fabricated metal products	-------	2.99	2.98												
Machinery, except electrical	-------	3.19	3.18												
Electrical equipment and supplies	-------	2.82	2.80												
Transportation equipment	-------	3.46	3.45												
Instruments and related products	-------	2.86	2.85												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	-------	2.43	2.42												
Nondurable goods	2.61	2.61	2.59												
Food and kindred products	-------	2.67	2.65												
Tobacco manufactures	-------	2.53	2.44												
Textile mill products	-------	2.07	2.06												
Apparel and other textile products	-------	2.14	2.14												
Paper and allied products	-------	2.83	2.81												
Printing and publishing	-------	[3]	[3]												
Chemicals and allied products	-------	3.10	3.08												
Petroleum and coal products	-------	3.62	3.58												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	-------	2.74	2.72												
Leather and leather products	-------	2.17	2.16												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table A–9. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table A–10. Average hourly earnings excluding overtime are derived by assuming that overtime hours are paid for at the rate of time and one-half.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Not available because average overtime rates are significantly above time and one-half. Inclusion of data for the group in the nondurable goods total has little effect.

TABLE C–5. Average weekly overtime hours of production workers[1] on manufacturing payrolls, by industry

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May[2]	Apr.[2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Manufacturing	3.4	2.8	3.3												
Durable goods	3.5	2.9	3.5												
Nondurable goods	3.2	2.7	3.1												
Durable goods															
Ordnance and accessories	-------	2.6	3.2												
Ammunition, except for small arms	-------	2.3	2.7												
Lumber and wood products	-------	3.4	3.5												
Sawmills and planing mills	-------	3.8	3.7												
Millwork, plywood, & related products	-------	3.2	3.6												
Wooden containers	-------	2.7	2.8												
Miscellaneous wood products	-------	2.5	2.8												
Furniture and fixtures	-------	2.4	3.0												
Household furniture	-------	2.4	3.0												
Office furniture	-------	2.7	3.1												
Partitions and fixtures	-------	2.6	2.6												
Other furniture and fixtures	-------	2.1	3.1												
Stone, clay, and glass products	-------	4.3	3.7												
Flat glass	-------	3.4	3.5												
Glass and glassware, pressed or blown	-------	4.5	3.2												
Cement, hydraulic	-------	2.5	2.2												
Structural clay products	-------	3.5	3.3												
Pottery and related products	-------	2.5	2.3												
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	-------	6.5	5.5												
Other stone & nonmetallic mineral products	-------	3.1	3.3												
Primary metal industries	-------	4.1	3.8												
Blast furnace and basic steel products	-------	4.4	3.0												
Iron and steel foundries	-------	3.8	4.4												
Nonferrous metals	-------	4.3	4.7												
Nonferrous rolling and drawing	-------	4.4	4.9												
Nonferrous foundries	-------	2.5	3.6												
Miscellaneous primary metal products	-------	3.5	4.9												
Fabricated metal products	-------	2.9	3.6												
Metal cans	-------	2.9	3.0												
Cutlery, handtools, and hardware	-------	2.4	3.1												
Plumbing and heating, except electric	-------	1.6	2.6												
Fabricated structural metal products	-------	2.5	2.7												
Screw machine products, bolts, etc	-------	4.0	5.5												
Metal stampings	-------	3.4	4.7												
Metal services, nec	-------	3.5	3.8												
Miscellaneous fabricated wire products	-------	2.8	3.7												
Miscellaneous fabricated metal products	-------	2.8	3.6												
Machinery, except electrical	-------	3.1	4.1												
Engines and turbines	-------	2.8	4.8												
Farm machinery	-------	2.1	2.9												
Construction and related machinery	-------	2.9	3.5												
Metal working machinery	-------	4.7	6.0												
Special industry machinery	-------	3.2	4.2												
General industrial machinery	-------	2.2	3.4												
Office and computing machines	-------	1.8	2.5												
Service industry machines	-------	1.7	2.4												
Miscellaneous machinery, except electrical	-------	4.2	5.0												
Electrical equipment and supplies	-------	1.7	2.3												
Electrical test & distributing equipment	-------	2.3	2.8												
Electrical industrial apparatus	-------	2.2	2.5												
Household appliances	-------	1.6	2.2												
Electric lighting and wiring equipment	-------	2.0	2.4												
Radio and TV receiving equipment	-------	.8	1.2												
Communication equipment	-------	1.7	2.5												
Electronic components and accessories	-------	1.5	2.1												
Misc. electrical equipment & supplies	-------	1.9	2.6												
Transportation equipment	-------	3.0	4.1												
Motor vehicles and equipment	-------	3.9	4.7												
Aircraft and parts	-------	2.1	3.8												
Ship and boat building and repairing	-------	3.0	3.6												
Railroad equipment	-------	1.1	1.1												
Other transportation equipment	-------	2.4	2.4												
Instruments and related products	-------	1.9	2.5												
Engineering & scientific instruments	-------	2.5	2.9												
Mechanical measuring & control devices	-------	1.7	2.6												
Optical and ophthalmic goods	-------	1.5	2.4												
Ophthalmic goods	-------	1.2	2.2												
Medical instruments and supplies	-------	1.5	2.2												
Photographic equipment and supplies	-------	3.0	3.0												
Watches, clocks, and watchcases	-------	.8	1.3												
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	-------	1.9	2.5												
Jewelry, silverware, and plated ware	-------	2.5	3.7												
Toys and sporting goods	-------	1.9	2.3												
Pens, pencils, office and art supplies	-------	1.4	1.7												
Costume Jewelry and notions	-------	1.9	2.7												
Other manufacturing industries	-------	1.7	2.4												
Musical instruments and parts	-------	1.4	2.5												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE C–5. Average weekly overtime hours of production workers [1] on manufacturing payrolls, by industry—Continued

Industry	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Nondurable goods															
Food and kindred products		3.4	3.4												
Meat products		3.5	3.4												
Dairy products		3.9	3.7												
Canned, cured, and frozen foods		2.3	2.3												
Grain mill products		5.3	5.8												
Bakery products		3.5	3.4												
Sugar		2.3	2.6												
Confectionery and related products		1.4	2.4												
Beverages		3.4	3.1												
Misc. foods and kindred products		3.9	4.3												
Tobacco manufacturers		1.1	1.2												
Cigarettes		1.4	1.4												
Cigars		.7	1.1												
Textile mill products		3.3	4.2												
Weaving mills, cotton		3.5	4.3												
Weaving mills, synthetics		3.9	5.0												
Weaving and finishing mills, wool		4.3	4.6												
Narrow fabric mills		2.7	3.4												
Knitting mills		2.4	3.0												
Textile finishing, except wool		4.0	5.1												
Floor covering mills		3.8	4.8												
Yarn and thread mills		3.4	4.4												
Miscellaneous textile goods		3.5	4.4												
Apparel and other textile products		1.0	1.4												
Men's and boys' suits and coats		1.1	1.8												
Men's and boys' furnishings		.8	1.0												
Women's and misses' outerwear		1.0	1.5												
Women's and children's undergarments		1.2	1.3												
Hats, caps, and millinery		.8	1.5												
Children's outerwear		.8	1.4												
Fur goods and miscellaneous apparel		.8	1.0												
Misc. fabricated textile products		1.5	2.2												
Paper and allied products		4.4	4.8												
Paper and pulp mills		5.9	6.2												
Paperboard mills		6.3	6.7												
Misc. converted paper products		2.8	3.5												
Paperboard containers and boxes		3.5	3.7												
Printing and publishing		2.6	3.0												
Newspapers		2.4	2.5												
Periodicals		3.2	3.3												
Books		2.7	3.5												
Commercial printing		2.8	3.5												
Blankbooks and bookbinding		1.6	2.0												
Other publishing & printing ind		2.3	2.7												
Chemicals and allied products		3.1	3.0												
Industrial chemicals		3.5	3.1												
Plastics materials and synthetics		3.4	2.8												
Drugs		1.4	2.4												
Soap, cleaners, and toilet goods		1.9	2.7												
Paints and allied products		2.3	2.6												
Agricultural chemicals		6.8	5.5												
Other chemicals products		2.6	2.8												
Petroleum and coal products		3.6	2.8												
Petroleum refining		3.4	2.4												
Other petroleum and coal products		4.4	4.1												
Rubber and plastics products, nec		3.1	3.9												
Tires and inner tubes		4.3	6.3												
Other rubber products		2.3	2.9												
Rubber footwear		2.1	1.9												
Miscellaneous plastics products		3.1	3.6												
Leather and leather products		1.5	2.2												
Leather tanning and finishing		3.9	3.8												
Footwear, except rubber		1.3	2.1												
Other leather products		1.2	1.8												
Luggage		1.1	1.4												
Handbags and personal leather goods		1.0	2.1												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table A–9. For employees covered, see footnote 1, table A–10.

These series cover premium overtime hours of production and related workers during the pay period which includes the 12th of the month. Overtime hours are those paid for at premium rates because (1) they exceeded either the straight-time workday or workweek or (2) they occurred on week ends or holidays or outside regularly scheduled hours. Hours for which only shift differential, hazard, incentive, or other similar types of premiums were paid are excluded.

[2] Preliminary.

TABLE C–6. Indexes of aggregate weekly man-hours and payrolls in industrial and construction activities [1]

[1957–59=100]

Activity	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May [2]	Apr. [2]	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Man-hours															
Total	114.3	111.3	111.1												
Mining	82.5	80.7	74.7												
Contract construction	113.2	107.7	97.1												
Manufacturing	116.1	113.5	115.5												
Durable goods	122.1	119.6	121.3												
Ordnance and accessories	222.6	216.9	222.8												
Lumber and wood products	94.3	91.5	91.3												
Furniture and fixtures	122.5	120.7	124.4												
Stone, clay, and glass products	110.8	109.0	94.2												
Primary metal industries	113.5	113.5	110.3												
Fabricated metal products	124.0	119.6	123.0												
Machinery, except electrical	131.4	130.1	135.4												
Electrical equipment and supplies	139.4	136.7	140.3												
Transportation equipment	120.9	116.8	122.1												
Instruments and related products	119.9	118.7	123.9												
Misc. manufacturing industries	105.3	102.1	105.4												
Nondurable goods	108.2	105.5	108.0												
Food and kindred products	89.3	87.0	87.4												
Tobacco manufactures	70.9	62.6	75.9												
Textile mill products	105.8	102.6	105.7												
Apparel and other textile products	118.0	113.5	120.3												
Paper and allied products	116.0	112.7	114.2												
Printing and publishing	116.2	114.5	116.0												
Chemicals and allied products	121.7	122.7	121.6												
Petroleum and coal products	82.8	81.8	79.0												
Rubber and plastics products, nec	152.7	148.5	151.8												
Leather and leather products	94.6	91.8	96.6												
Payrolls															
Mining	109.1	106.9	98.2												
Contract construction	173.3	162.9	147.3												
Manufacturing	163.7	159.3	161.8												

(Figures will be added in August 1968 issue.)

[1] For comparability of data with those published in issues prior to July 1968, see footnote 1, table A–9.

For mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers and for contract construction, to construction workers, as defined in footnote 1, table A–10.

[2] Preliminary.

D.—Consumer and Wholesale Prices

TABLE D–1. Consumer Price Index [1]—U.S. city average for urban wage earners and clerical workers, all items, groups, subgroups, and special groups of items

[1957–59=100 unless otherwise specified]

Group	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
All items	120.3	119.9	119.5	119.0	118.6	118.2	117.8	117.5	117.1	116.9	116.5	116.0	115.6	116.3	113.1
All items (1947–49=100)	147.6	147.1	146.6	146.0	145.5	145.0	144.5	144.2	143.7	143.4	142.9	142.3	141.8	142.7	138.8
Food	118.8	118.3	117.9	117.4	117.0	116.2	115.6	115.7	115.9	116.6	116.0	115.1	113.9	115.2	114.2
Food at home	115.6	115.1	114.7	114.2	113.8	112.9	112.3	112.6	112.9	113.9	113.3	112.3	110.9	112.3	112.6
Cereals and bakery products	118.4	118.3	118.1	118.2	118.3	118.4	118.4	118.2	118.4	118.4	118.2	118.3	118.8	118.5	115.8
Meats, poultry, and fish	113.0	112.7	113.1	112.0	111.6	111.2	111.4	112.3	113.4	113.1	112.3	111.6	108.5	111.2	114.1
Dairy products	120.2	118.8	118.7	118.5	118.5	118.1	117.8	117.9	117.3	116.6	116.4	116.3	115.9	116.7	111.8
Fruits and vegetables	130.7	128.3	126.1	124.9	124.1	119.6	116.7	115.3	115.6	122.7	124.4	119.9	116.4	117.5	117.6
Other foods at home [2]	101.9	103.0	102.2	102.6	101.9	102.2	101.5	102.3	102.4	102.6	100.2	100.0	100.7	101.9	103.9
Food away from home	135.1	134.4	133.7	133.3	132.9	132.4	132.0	131.4	130.8	130.3	129.7	129.1	128.7	129.6	123.2
Housing	117.8	117.5	117.2	116.9	116.4	116.0	115.5	115.3	115.0	114.7	114.3	114.1	113.9	114.3	111.1
Shelter [3]	121.6	121.3	121.0	120.8	120.2	119.9	119.4	119.0	118.7	118.4	117.9	117.7	117.5	117.9	114.1
Rent	114.6	114.4	114.2	113.9	113.7	113.5	113.2	113.0	112.8	112.6	112.4	112.2	112.1	112.4	110.4
Homeownership [4]	124.3	124.0	123.8	123.5	122.9	122.6	121.9	121.5	121.1	120.8	120.2	119.9	119.7	120.2	115.7
Fuel and utilities [5]	110.3	110.0	109.9	109.8	109.5	109.3	109.3	109.4	109.4	109.1	108.9	108.6	108.7	109.0	107.7
Fuel oil and coal	115.3	114.0	113.9	113.8	113.7	113.1	112.7	112.5	112.3	111.7	111.4	110.5	110.8	111.6	108.3
Gas and electricity	109.5	109.5	109.3	109.3	108.9	108.7	109.0	108.9	108.9	108.5	108.3	108.2	108.3	108.5	108.1
Household furnishings and operation [6]	112.5	112.2	111.8	111.2	110.6	109.7	109.3	109.1	108.8	108.3	108.2	108.1	107.9	108.2	105.0
Apparel and upkeep [7]	119.5	118.4	117.6	116.6	115.9	116.8	116.6	116.0	115.1	113.8	113.7	113.9	113.8	114.0	109.6
Men's and boys'	119.8	119.2	117.9	116.8	116.3	116.8	116.6	116.1	115.5	114.5	113.9	114.1	114.0	114.3	110.3
Women's and girls'	116.2	114.5	113.6	112.4	111.4	113.6	113.5	112.7	111.1	108.8	109.2	109.7	109.6	109.9	105.1
Footwear	131.2	130.4	129.7	129.1	128.1	127.9	127.6	127.1	126.4	126.0	125.4	125.4	125.2	125.5	119.6
Transportation	119.1	119.0	119.0	118.6	118.7	117.9	118.3	117.7	116.8	116.4	116.2	115.7	115.5	115.9	112.7
Private	116.8	116.8	116.7	116.4	116.6	115.8	116.2	115.7	114.8	114.4	114.1	113.7	113.6	113.9	111.0
Public	137.3	137.2	137.1	136.2	135.5	134.9	134.6	133.0	133.0	132.8	132.7	132.2	130.9	132.1	125.8
Health and recreation	129.2	128.8	128.3	127.5	127.1	126.6	126.2	125.5	124.9	124.2	123.6	123.2	122.8	123.8	119.0
Medical care	144.0	143.5	142.9	141.9	141.2	140.4	139.7	139.0	138.5	137.5	136.9	136.3	135.7	136.7	127.7
Personal care	119.6	119.0	118.4	117.6	117.6	117.2	116.9	116.5	116.4	116.1	115.5	115.3	115.0	115.5	112.2
Reading and recreation	125.3	124.9	124.2	123.0	122.7	122.2	122.0	121.4	120.5	120.0	119.8	119.7	119.6	120.1	117.1
Other goods and services [8]	122.6	122.5	122.4	122.1	121.9	121.4	121.0	120.3	119.7	118.8	117.8	116.9	116.7	118.2	114.9
Special groups:															
All items less shelter	120.0	119.6	119.1	118.5	118.2	117.7	117.5	117.1	116.7	116.5	116.1	115.6	115.1	115.9	112.9
All items less food	121.0	120.6	120.2	119.7	119.3	118.9	118.7	118.2	117.7	117.1	116.8	116.5	116.3	116.8	113.0
All items less medical care	118.9	118.5	118.1	117.6	117.3	116.8	116.5	116.2	115.8	115.6	115.2	114.8	114.4	115.0	112.3
Commodities	114.7	114.3	113.9	113.5	113.2	112.9	112.6	112.4	112.0	111.9	111.5	111.0	110.5	111.2	109.2
Nondurables [9]	117.8	117.3	116.9	116.4	116.0	115.6	115.3	115.1	114.9	114.8	114.3	113.8	113.2	114.0	111.8
Durables [10]	106.9	106.9	106.6	106.4	106.3	106.1	106.0	105.7	104.8	104.7	104.4	104.1	103.9	104.3	102.7
Services [11] [12]	133.0	132.5	132.1	131.3	130.8	130.1	129.6	129.1	128.7	128.2	127.7	127.4	127.0	127.7	122.3
Commodities less food	112.5	112.2	111.9	111.5	111.2	111.1	111.1	110.6	110.0	109.4	109.1	108.9	108.7	109.2	106.5
Nondurables less food	117.0	116.4	116.1	115.6	115.1	115.2	115.2	114.5	114.1	113.2	112.8	112.7	112.7	113.1	109.7
Apparel commodities	118.7	117.6	116.6	115.6	114.8	115.9	115.7	115.1	114.1	112.7	112.6	112.8	112.7	113.0	108.5
Apparel commodities less footwear	116.2	115.0	114.0	112.9	112.2	113.5	113.4	112.7	111.7	110.0	110.0	110.3	110.2	110.5	106.3
Nondurables less food and apparel	116.0	115.8	115.8	115.5	115.3	114.7	114.8	114.2	114.1	113.4	113.0	112.7	112.6	113.1	110.3
New cars	100.3	100.3	100.6	100.8	101.0	101.3	101.4	101.1	96.1	96.9	97.0	96.8	96.9	98.1	97.2
Used cars	126.7	126.3	(13)	123.6	125.8	124.8	125.6	126.0	126.2	125.2	124.8	122.4	121.4	121.5	117.8
Household durables [14]	101.1	100.8	100.4	99.9	99.6	99.1	98.8	98.7	98.4	98.2	98.1	98.0	98.1	98.2	96.8
Housefurnishings	104.4	104.2	103.8	103.1	102.6	102.1	101.8	101.5	101.2	100.8	100.8	100.7	100.6	100.8	98.8
Services less rent [11]	137.1	136.6	136.1	135.2	134.6	133.8	133.2	132.7	132.3	131.7	131.2	130.8	130.4	131.1	125.0
Household services less rent	132.1	131.5	131.1	130.6	129.9	129.1	128.6	128.4	128.1	127.5	127.0	126.7	126.5	127.0	121.5
Transportation services	132.9	132.7	132.4	131.9	131.5	130.4	130.0	129.2	128.9	128.8	128.3	128.1	127.7	128.4	124.3
Medical care services	155.0	154.3	153.6	152.3	151.4	150.4	149.6	148.7	148.0	146.7	146.0	145.2	144.4	145.6	133.9
Other services [15]	138.3	137.6	137.0	135.3	134.8	134.3	133.9	133.1	132.4	131.9	131.6	131.3	130.8	131.5	126.5

[1] The CPI measures the average change in prices of goods and services purchased by urban wage-earner and clerical-worker families. Beginning January 1964, the index structure was revised to reflect buying patterns of wage earners and clerical workers in the 1960's. The indexes shown here are based on expenditures of all urban wage-earner and clerical-worker consumers, including single workers living alone, as well as families of two or more persons.

[2] Includes eggs, fats and oils, sugar and sweets, nonalcoholic beverages, and prepared and partially prepared foods.

[3] Also includes hotel and motel room rates not shown separately.

[4] Includes home purchase, mortgage interest, taxes, insurance, and maintenance and repairs.

[5] Also includes telephone, water, and sewerage service not shown separately.

[6] Includes housefurnishings and housekeeping supplies and services.

[7] Includes dry cleaning and laundry of apparel, infants' wear, sewing materials, jewelry, and miscellaneous apparel, not shown separately.

[8] Includes tobacco, alcoholic beverages, and funeral, legal, and bank service charges.

[9] Includes foods, paint, furnace filters, shrubbery, fuel oil, coal, household textiles, housekeeping supplies, apparel, gasoline and motor oil, drugs and pharmaceuticals, toilet goods, nondurable recreational goods, newspapers, magazines, books, tobacco, and alcoholic beverages.

[10] Includes home purchase, which was classified under services prior to 1964, building materials, furniture and bedding, floor coverings, household appliances, dinnerware, tableware, cleaning equipment, power tools, lamps, venetian blinds, hardware, automobiles, tires, radios, television sets, tape recorders, durable toys, and sports equipment.

[11] Excludes home purchase costs which were classified under this heading prior to 1964.

[12] Includes rent, mortgage interest, taxes and insurance on real property, home maintenance and repair services, gas, electricity, telephone, water, sewerage service, household help, postage, laundry and dry cleaning, furniture and apparel repair and upkeep, moving, auto repairs, auto insurance, registration and license fees, parking and garage rent, local transit, taxicab, airplane, train, and bus fares, professional medical services, hospital services, health insurance, barber and beauty shop services, movies, fees for sports, television repairs, and funeral, bank, and legal services.

[13] Not available due to insufficient data.

[14] Does not include auto parts, durable toys, and sports equipment.

[15] Includes the services components of apparel, personal care, reading and recreation, and other goods and services.

TABLE D–2. Consumer Price Index—U.S. and selected areas for urban wage earners and clerical workers [1]

[1957–59=100 unless otherwise specified]

Area [2]	1968					1967								Annual average		1947–49=100
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966	May 1968
All items																
U.S. city average [3]	120.3	119.9	119.5	119.0	118.6	118.2	117.8	117.5	117.1	116.9	116.5	116.0	115.6	116.3	113.1	147.6
Atlanta, Ga.	(4)	(4)	117.8	(4)	(4)	116.8	(4)	(4)	115.6	(4)	(4)	114.8	(4)	115.0	111.5	(4)
Baltimore, Md.	(4)	(4)	118.7	(4)	(4)	117.4	(4)	(4)	117.6	(4)	(4)	115.7	(4)	116.1	113.4	(4)
Boston, Mass.	(4)	123.6	(4)	(4)	121.7	(4)	(4)	120.8	(4)	(4)	119.9	(4)	(4)	119.8	117 0	(4)
Buffalo, N.Y. (Nov. 1963=100)	114.3	(4)	(4)	112.3	(4)	(4)	111.2	(4)	(4)	110.4	(4)	(4)	109.5	109.9	107.0	-------
Chicago, Ill.–Northwestern Ind.	117.8	117.4	117.0	116.5	115.9	115.8	115.5	115.1	115.0	114.5	113.7	112.9	112.6	113.6	110.7	148.5
Cincinnati, Ohio–Kentucky	(4)	(4)	117.1	(4)	(4)	116.0	(4)	(4)	114.7	(4)	(4)	113.1	(4)	113.5	110.3	(4)
Cleveland, Ohio	119.1	(4)	(4)	117.8	(4)	(4)	114.7	(4)	(4)	113.2	(4)	(4)	111.8	112.9	109.7	147.9
Dallas, Tex. (Nov. 1963=100)	112.7	(4)	(4)	110.3	(4)	(4)	109.1	(4)	(4)	108.9	(4)	(4)	107.5	108.1	105.0	-------
Detroit, Mich.	118.9	118.5	118.2	117.3	116.6	116.4	116.0	115.5	115.3	115.3	115.0	114.7	114.5	114.9	111.1	146.6
Honolulu, Hawaii (Dec. 1963=100)	(4)	(4)	110.8	(4)	(4)	109.7	(4)	(4)	108.4	(4)	(4)	107.5	(4)	107.8	104.9	-------
Houston, Tex.	(4)	118.0	(4)	(4)	116.7	(4)	(4)	115.6	(4)	(4)	114.3	(4)	(4)	114.4	111.5	(4)
Kansas City, Mo.–Kansas	(4)	(4)	121.7	(4)	(4)	120.2	(4)	(4)	120.1	(4)	(4)	117.4	(4)	118.7	116.3	(4)
Los Angeles–Long Beach, Calif.	120.9	121.1	121.1	120.7	120.5	119.9	120.0	118.9	119.1	118.3	117.5	117.3	116.9	117.6	114.7	150.7
Milwaukee, Wis.	115.9	(4)	(4)	115.0	(4)	(4)	114.5	(4)	(4)	113.6	(4)	(4)	112.2	112.9	110.6	146.1
Minneapolis–St. Paul, Minn.	(4)	120.4	(4)	(4)	119.3	(4)	(4)	118.4	(4)	(4)	115.6	(4)	(4)	115.9	112.2	(4)
New York, N.Y.–Northeastern N.J.	122.9	122.5	122.1	121.5	120.9	120.8	120.3	120.2	119.7	119.4	119.1	118.7	118.4	119.0	116.0	148.0
Philadelphia, Pa.–N.J.	121.5	121.0	120.7	120.1	119.6	118.7	118.6	118.3	117.9	117.4	116.7	116.6	116.0	116.8	113.7	149.1
Pittsburgh, Pa.	(4)	119.4	(4)	(4)	117.5	(4)	(4)	115.5	(4)	(4)	115.0	(4)	(4)	115.0	113.0	(4)
Portland, Oreg.–Wash.	-------	*121.3*	(4)	(4)	*119.8*	(4)	(4)	*119.4*	(4)	(4)	*118.2*	(4)	(4)	*118.2*	*115.3*	-------
St. Louis, Mo.–Ill.	(4)	(4)	120.2	(4)	(4)	118.9	(4)	(4)	117.7	(4)	(4)	116.5	(4)	116.8	113.5	(4)
San Diego, Calif. (Feb. 1965=100)	108.7	(4)	(4)	107.7	(4)	(4)	106.5	(4)	(4)	105.9	(4)	(4)	104.1	105.1	102.1	-------
San Francisco–Oakland, Calif.	(4)	(4)	122.7	(4)	(4)	121.3	(4)	(4)	120.4	(4)	(4)	118.4	(4)	119.0	115 6	(4)
Scranton, Pa.	*121.4*	(4)	(4)	*121.1*	(4)	(4)	*119.6*	(4)	(4)	*118.7*	(4)	(4)	*117.1*	*118.0*	*114.9*	*144.8*
Seattle, Wash.	121.1	(4)	(4)	[5]120.2	(4)	(4)	119.2	(4)	(4)	118.2	(4)	(4)	116.8	117.5	114.1	152.2
Washington, D.C.–Md.–Va.	121.0	(4)	(4)	119.1	(4)	(4)	117.8	(4)	(4)	117.3	(4)	(4)	115.7	116.5	113.3	145.6
Food																
U.S. city average [3]	118.8	118.3	117.9	117.4	117.0	116.2	115.6	115.7	115.9	116.6	116.0	115.1	113.9	115.2	114.2	-------
Atlanta, Ga.	117.2	116.3	115.8	114.4	115.0	114.3	114.1	115.0	115.1	115.4	114.4	114.3	113.6	114.2	112.9	-------
Baltimore, Md.	120.6	119.6	118.8	118.2	117.7	116.9	116.7	117.6	118.1	118.3	117.6	115.5	114.9	116.3	115.9	-------
Boston, Mass.	122.5	121.4	121.6	121.1	120.8	119.9	119.7	120.5	121.3	121.1	120.1	119.0	118.3	119.4	117.0	-------
Buffalo, N.Y. (Nov. 1963=100)	114.8	113.4	112.9	112.1	111.6	110.8	109.9	109.9	110.4	111.3	111.1	110.6	108.9	110.0	108.8	-------
Chicago, Ill.–Northwestern Ind.	118.9	118.7	118.1	118.5	117.7	116.5	116.4	116.7	116.6	117.7	116.4	114.5	113.9	115.4	114.6	-------
Cincinnati, Ohio–Kentucky	116.0	115.0	113.7	113.3	113.2	112.3	112.0	112.2	112.4	114.4	115.2	113.7	111.9	112.5	111.8	-------
Cleveland, Ohio	115.8	115.3	114.6	114.2	113.1	112.2	112.5	112.1	112.4	113.0	112.2	111.5	109.9	111.4	110 9	-------
Dallas, Tex. (Nov. 1963=100)	113.6	112.9	112.4	111.4	111.2	110.7	110.0	110.2	110.0	110.8	110.2	109.4	108.4	109.7	110.0	-------
Detroit, Mich.	116.7	116.2	116.4	116.1	115.5	115.4	114.7	114.7	114.5	116.3	115.1	113.5	113.0	114.1	112.2	-------
Honolulu, Hawaii (Dec. 1963=100)	112.2	112.4	111.7	111.1	110.5	109.6	109.8	110.0	109.2	108.7	108.5	107.9	107.4	108.3	106.3	-------
Houston, Tex.	118.7	118.0	117.9	117.4	116.7	116.1	115.9	116.1	116.2	116.1	115.9	115.0	114.2	115.8	115.4	-------
Kansas City, Mo.–Kansas	122.3	122.3	121.6	120.4	120.0	119.5	118.9	118.6	118.5	119.1	118.4	117.8	116.1	117.9	117.2	-------
Los Angeles–Long Beach, Calif.	116.8	116.9	116.2	116.3	116.2	117.1	115.7	115.2	115.1	114.6	114.3	113.6	112.4	114.1	113.3	-------
Milwaukee, Wis.	117.2	117.0	116.7	116.2	115.8	115.2	114.7	115.2	114.9	116.5	-------	----	113.5	114.5	113.9	-------
Minneapolis–St. Paul, Minn.	117.4	116.2	115.5	114.8	114.8	114.1	113.5	113.4	113.1	114.3	113.1	112.3	111.8	113.0	112.4	-------
New York, N.Y.–Northeastern N.J.	119.4	118.8	118.4	118.0	117.3	116.6	116.0	116.1	116.2	117.2	116.5	115.5	114.3	115.7	115.1	-------
Philadelphia, Pa.–N.J.	119.5	118.4	118.0	117.1	116.8	115.4	115.1	115.3	116.5	115.9	114.7	114.5	113.3	114.5	113.1	-------
Pittsburgh, Pa.	115.0	114.6	114.3	113.6	113.4	111.4	111.7	111.8	112.0	113.1	112.9	111.6	109.1	111.2	111.8	-------
Portland, Oreg.–Wash.	-------	*118.7*	-------	-------	*116.7*	-------	-------	*115.2*	-------	-------	*115.9*	-------	-------	*115.4*	*114.7*	-------
St. Louis, Mo.–Ill.	123.8	122.6	122.5	121.3	121.4	120.7	119.2	119.7	119.0	120.0	119.9	118.8	117.4	119.0	117.8	-------
San Diego, Calif. (Feb. 1965=100)	111.2	110.3	109.8	109.2	109.1	110.4	108.9	108.5	108.6	109.1	-------	----	106.2	107.6	106.6	-------
San Francisco–Oakland, Calif.	118.0	118.1	117.2	117.2	117.2	116.2	115.1	115.4	115.7	116.4	116.1	114.4	112.8	114.7	114.2	-------
Scranton, Pa.	*117.7*	-------	-------	*116.0*	-------	-------	*114.7*	-------	-------	*116.0*	-------	----	*112.0*	*113.6*	*112.8*	-------
Seattle, Wash.	118.2	118.0	117.5	117.1	117.3	116.6	115.8	115.2	115.2	115.2	115.4	114.4	113.6	114.6	114.1	-------
Washington, D.C.–Md.–Va.	120.7	119.4	118.3	117.2	117.4	116.7	116.0	116.8	117.8	118.0	116.3	115.7	114.4	115.9	114.0	-------

[1] See footnote 1, table D-1. Indexes measure time-to-time changes in prices. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one area than in another.

[2] The areas listed include not only the central city but the entire urban portion of the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, as defined for the 1960 Census of Population; except that the Standard Consolidated Area is used for New York and Chicago.

[3] Average of 56 "cities" (metropolitan areas and nonmetropolitan urban places) beginning January 1966.

[4] All items indexes are computed monthly for 5 areas and once every 3 months on a rotating cycle for other areas.

[5] Corrected index; all items (1947–49=100) for February 1968 is 151.1.

TABLE D–3. Indexes of wholesale prices,[1] by group and subgroup of commodities

[1957–59=100, unless otherwise specified] [2]

Commodity group	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
All commodities	108.5	108.3	108.2	108.0	107.2	106.8	106.2	106.1	106.2	106.1	106.5	106.3	105.8	106.1	105.9
Farm products and processed foods and feeds	107.9	105.8	106.9	106.8	105.3	104.8	103.4	104.1	105.3	105.2	107.3	106.8	105.0	105.2	108.9
Farm products	103.6	102.1	102.1	101.3	99.0	98.9	96.4	97.1	98.4	99.2	102.8	102.4	100.7	99.7	105.6
Fresh and dried fruits and vegetables	123.6	112.0	114.5	112.5	108.1	105.0	102.9	91.6	92.2	96.6	107.9	114.3	104.4	101.6	102.5
Grains	86.4	84.7	85.1	86.3	85.0	85.4	81.3	86.6	85.6	86.1	92.6	96.1	98.0	92.2	97.3
Livestock	105.4	105.2	105.7	102.7	98.7	97.6	96.2	101.8	103.5	106.3	107.4	104.9	102.6	101.1	110.0
Live poultry	85.4	81.1	81.4	87.0	78.2	68.2	65.6	73.8	72.9	77.3	91.9	85.7	85.6	82.2	91.4
Plant and animal fibers	75.8	76.1	76.5	76.5	79.4	80.8	74.9	72.4	72.4	71.4	70.9	70.9	69.9	72.1	82.3
Fluid milk	128.3	126.5	123.9	124.6	124.0	124.3	123.6	123.5	123.7	120.9	121.3	121.3	120.9	122.0	117.6
Eggs	72.6	82.7	80.9	80.0	73.8	90.9	80.7	76.8	93.1	82.1	86.0	76.0	74.5	84.3	107.9
Hay, hayseeds, and oilseeds	114.1	113.9	114.1	113.0	112.9	112.7	109.9	108.5	109.0	111.6	117.1	116.6	117.8	115.5	122.9
Other farm products	101.8	101.6	101.4	101.1	101.7	101.3	100.9	97.4	97.7	99.3	99.7	100.2	99.9	99.6	101.5
Processed foods and feeds	113.6	112.8	112.9	113.3	112.4	111.5	110.9	111.7	112.7	112.1	113.1	112.6	110.7	111.7	113.0
Cereal and bakery products	117.1	117.3	117.4	117.4	117.1	116.9	117.0	116.8	116.6	116.8	116.9	117.2	117.4	117.1	115.4
Meats, poultry, and fish	107.0	105.8	107.0	107.6	105.5	103.2	102.2	104.7	108.6	107.4	109.9	108.3	103.8	105.0	110.2
Dairy products	128.9	125.9	123.3	124.0	123.8	124.1	123.0	123.0	122.8	122.1	122.0	122.2	120.8	122.0	118.5
Processed fruits and vegetables	114.6	114.6	114.4	113.8	113.7	113.1	112.0	109.3	107.9	107.1	107.0	106.5	105.1	107.2	104.8
Sugar and confectionery	114.2	114.0	113.7	113.7	113.4	112.7	113.9	113.9	113.8	113.8	113.7	112.7	112.0	113.0	110.5
Beverages and beverage materials	109.4	109.5	108.9	108.6	107.9	107.7	107.4	107.3	106.7	106.6	106.4	106.3	106.0	106.5	105.8
Animal fats and oils	66.6	71.9	72.5	71.0	70.4	73.5	70.8	76.3	79.6	83.0	77.4	82.4	89.8	83.4	113.1
Crude vegetable oils	92.7	88.8	90.4	93.0	85.5	83.9	82.7	83.3	87.9	89.8	86.8	91.7	93.9	89.7	107.2
Refined vegetable oils	98.9	93.0	98.7	102.1	89.4	87.0	87.5	88.1	91.3	91.9	88.3	93.5	96.6	92.3	108.7
Vegetable oil end products	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	101.5	101.8	102.0	101 0	101.3	101.6	101.6	102.0	104.6
Miscellaneous processed foods	113.9	114.0	114.1	114.1	114.1	113.7	113.1	112.6	112.5	112.1	113.1	112.6	112.4	112.6	114.0
Manufactured animal feeds	117.8	117.1	118.9	119.7	120.2	119.6	118.8	120.6	121.5	119.6	123.2	122.4	118.7	122.5	126.6
All commodities except farm products	109.0	109.0	108.9	108.7	108.1	107.7	107.3	107.2	107.1	106.8	106.8	106.7	106.4	106.8	105.8
Industrial commodities	108.6	108.8	108.6	108.3	107.8	107.4	107.1	106.8	106.5	106.3	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.3	104.7
Textile products and apparel	104.8	104.7	104.6	104.6	104.3	103.8	103.0	102.2	102.0	101.7	101.5	101.6	101.6	102.1	102.1
Cotton products	104.9	105.2	105.0	105.0	105.2	104.2	101.2	99.1	99.2	98.8	98.9	99.7	100.3	100.7	102.5
Wool products	103.5	103.0	103.1	102.8	102.3	102.2	102.2	102.8	102.7	102.9	103.3	103.2	103.1	104.2	106.0
Manmade fiber textile products	89.7	89.3	89.3	89.6	89.3	88.6	88.1	86.9	86.3	85.9	85.5	85.8	86.3	86.8	89.5
Silk yarns	183.8	189.7	196.3	197.2	196.8	189.7	183.9	179.5	175.7	172.6	168.4	167.0	167.0	171.9	153.6
Apparel	109.4	109.3	109.1	108.8	108.3	108.1	108.0	107.5	107.4	107.3	107.1	106.7	106.3	106.9	105.0
Textile housefurnishings	110.6	110.7	110.9	111.2	110.6	109.8	107.3	107.4	106.8	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.5	106.1	104.4
Miscellaneous textile products	110.1	110.1	109.9	110.4	112.4	114.0	114.5	115.9	115.6	116.0	117.1	118.0	118.5	117.6	122.6
Hides, skins, leather, and related products	118.8	118.3	117.9	116.7	116.5	116.0	115.4	114.8	114.4	114.4	115.2	115.6	115.2	115.8	119.7
Hides and skins	98.2	95.6	99.3	89.5	87.3	89.7	90.4	86.8	93.2	86.8	93.4	95.8	87.2	94.0	140.8
Leather	112.5	111.5	110.3	108.9	108.6	109.1	106.5	104.7	105.3	109.2	109.5	110.2	110.9	110.5	121.1
Footwear	127.0	126.6	125.6	125.5	125.6	124.3	123.7	123.6	121.8	121.2	121.4	121.5	121.4	122.1	118.2
Other leather and related products	112.5	112.5	112.4	112.2	112.2	111.5	111.9	111.9	111.8	112.5	112.9	113.3	114.3	113.2	114.4
Fuels and related products, and power	102.4	102.4	102.0	102.5	101.8	102.6	102.8	103.0	104.5	104.7	103.9	104.0	104.4	103.6	101.3
Coal	105.2	105.4	105.5	105.0	105.0	104.9	104.8	103.8	104.1	103.0	103.0	102.4	102.6	103.2	98.6
Coke	117.0	117.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	112.0	109.8
Gas fuels (Jan. 1958=100)	123.6	125.0	126.5	133.3	130.0	133.1	132.8	132.7	132.6	132.0	131.8	134.3	135.0	133.6	129.3
Electric power (Jan. 1958=100)	101.3	101.3	101.2	101.1	101.0	100.9	100.9	100.8	100.7	100.5	100.6	100.5	100.6	100.7	100.3
Crude petroleum	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	98.4	98.3	98.3	98.6	97.5
Petroleum products, refined	100.5	100.3	99.5	99.5	98.8	99.9	100.4	101.0	103.9	104.6	103.3	103.1	103.7	102.2	99.5
Chemicals and allied products	98.7	98.8	98.6	98.1	98.2	98.4	98.2	98.2	97.9	98.0	98.3	98.5	98.8	98.4	97.8
Industrial chemicals	99.0	98.8	98.7	98.5	98.5	98.3	98.3	98.3	97.1	97.1	97.2	97.2	97.5	97.4	95.7
Prepared paint	114.4	114.4	114.1	113.2	113.2	112.2	109.9	109.9	109.9	108.8	108.8	108.8	108.8	109.3	106.8
Paint materials	92.4	92.5	92.5	92.6	91.5	91.3	91.4	91.0	90.6	90.7	90.9	91.0	91.0	90.9	90.1
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.0	92.9	93.8	93.7	93.6	93.5	93.6	94.1	94.1	94.1	94.0	94.5
Fats and oils, inedible	78.4	80.9	80.0	76.7	76.4	77.2	77.9	78.5	77.1	77.2	77.1	79.5	82.9	81.3	102.8
Agricultural chemicals and chemical products	101.6	101.6	101.2	100.6	99.5	102.2	101.7	101.6	101.2	101.8	103.5	105.1	105.2	103.6	102.8
Plastic resins and materials	82.3	83.2	82.8	83.3	86.6	86.6	86.3	86.1	87.7	89.5	90.0	90.3	90.7	89.1	89.0
Other chemicals and allied products	110.0	109.8	109.5	108.7	108.6	108.5	108.6	108.8	108.7	108.7	108.7	108.5	108.7	108.4	106.6
Rubber and rubber products	99.8	99.7	99.7	99.5	99.5	99.2	99.1	98.8	98.2	97.8	95.8	95.8	95.8	97.0	94.8
Crude rubber	89.5	84.1	84.0	83.2	83.6	83.7	83.8	84.2	83.9	84.8	85.7	86.2	85.9	85.5	89.2
Tires and tubes	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	94.0	94.0	94.0	96.2	93.3
Miscellaneous rubber products	106.7	106.9	106.9	106.8	106.5	105.9	105.6	104.8	103.7	102.3	101.6	101.5	101.5	102.5	98.8
Lumber and wood products	117.0	115.8	113.9	111.6	108.6	107.6	106.7	107.3	108.7	106.1	105.3	104.7	104.2	105.4	105.6
Lumber	125.3	123.6	120.3	117.1	114.0	111.8	110.9	111.2	112.0	109.0	108.3	108.0	107.0	108.4	108.5
Millwork	117.8	116.6	115.6	114.7	113.9	113.7	113.5	113.4	113.1	112.6	112.1	111.7	111.7	112.2	110.0
Plywood	97.3	97.3	96.9	94.6	89.8	90.2	87.8	90.2	95.7	90.9	89.4	87.6	87.5	89.3	92.8
Other wood products (Dec. 1966=100)	106.3	106.1	105.9	105.9	101.9	101.5	101.5	101.5	101.3	101.6	102.0	102.0	102.0	101.8	------

See footnotes at end of table.

The former D–2 table: *Consumer Price Index—U.S. city average for urban wage earners and clerical workers, selected groups, subgroups, and special groups of items, seasonally adjusted* has been discontinued and the remaining tables in the Consumer and Wholesale Prices series have been renumbered.

TABLE D–3. Indexes of wholesale prices,[1] by group and subgroup of commodities—Continued

[1957–59=100, unless otherwise specified] [2]

Commodity group	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
Industrial Commodities—Continued															
Pulp, paper, and allied products	105.5	105.2	105.2	105.7	105.2	104.8	104.6	104.3	104.1	104.0	104.1	103.9	103.9	104.0	102.6
Pulp, paper, and products, excluding building paper and board	106.0	105.7	105.7	106.2	105.8	105.3	105.1	104.8	104.6	104.5	104.6	104.3	104.3	104.4	103.0
Woodpulp	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0
Wastepaper	98.2	96.5	89.0	81.8	76.9	78.1	76.5	76.6	75.4	74.6	76.2	76.7	77.5	78.1	105.0
Paper	113.5	112.1	111.9	111.9	111.2	111.2	111.2	111.2	110.9	110.9	110.9	109.6	109.5	110.0	107.3
Paperboard	91.7	91.7	91.7	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.1
Converted paper and paperboard products	106.4	106.5	107.0	107.0	106.7	105.8	105.5	104.9	104.8	104.6	104.7	104.9	104.9	104.8	102.3
Building paper and board	92.3	92.1	92.0	91.8	92.1	92.1	92.0	92.1	91.4	91.3	91.5	91.5	91.7	91.9	92.6
Metals and metal products	111.7	113.3	113.9	112.8	111.7	111.0	110.5	109.8	109.6	109.2	109.0	108.9	108.9	109.5	108.3
Iron and steel	104.9	105.1	105.5	105.8	105.5	104.7	104.3	103.9	104.0	103.5	103.4	103.3	103.2	103.6	102.3
Steel mill products	107.9	107.9	107.9	107.8	107.7	107.0	106.8	106.5	106.3	105.7	105.7	105.7	105.7	106.0	104.7
Nonferrous metals	124.1	130.8	133.3	128.8	125.1	123.7	122.7	120.7	119.4	118.9	118.6	118.7	118.9	120.6	120.9
Metal containers	116.9	116.9	113.4	113.4	112.9	112.9	112.9	111.7	111.7	111.7	111.7	111.7	111.7	111.8	110.0
Hardware	116.7	116.6	116.8	116.6	116.3	116.1	115.7	115.4	115.3	115.2	113.8	113.0	112.9	113.9	109.6
Plumbing fixtures and brass fittings	114.6	114.6	114.3	113.3	110.7	110.6	110.2	110.2	110.2	110.1	110.0	110.8	110.7	110.4	108.4
Heating equipment	94.7	94.5	94.3	93.8	93.1	93.4	93.3	92.9	92.7	92.5	92.6	92.5	92.0	92.6	92.5
Fabricated structural metal products	106.7	107.1	106.8	106.4	106.2	106.1	105.9	105.7	105.6	105.5	105.1	104.9	105.1	105.3	103.9
Miscellaneous metal products	115.5	115.5	115.3	115.3	114.7	114.4	114.1	114.1	114.1	114.2	113.8	113.7	113.7	113.9	111.6
Machinery and equipment	115.0	114.8	114.3	114.1	113.9	113.2	112.6	112.2	111.9	111.8	111.6	111.6	111.6	111.8	108.2
Agricultural machinery and equipment	126.3	126.2	126.1	125.8	125.8	124.9	123.8	122.3	122.2	122.0	121.9	121.8	121.8	122.3	118.5
Construction machinery and equipment	129.4	128.9	128.3	127.7	127.2	126.3	125.3	124.3	122.4	122.4	122.1	121.9	121.9	122.7	118.9
Metalworking machinery and equipment	128.0	127.6	127.3	126.6	126.1	125.8	125.4	124.6	124.4	124.4	123.9	123.6	123.6	123.8	118.8
General purpose machinery and equipment	117.0	116.8	116.5	116.0	115.4	115.2	114.7	114.4	114.0	113.6	113.2	113.1	113.2	113.6	109.7
Special industry machinery and equipment (Jan. 1961=100)	121.8	121.6	120.2	120.1	120.1	118.3	118.3	118.2	116.7	116.7	116.3	116.1	116.1	116.5	111.8
Electrical machinery and equipment	102.9	103.0	102.6	102.7	102.7	102.3	101.6	101.5	101.5	101.6	101.7	101.8	101.9	101.8	99.0
Miscellaneous machinery	114.2	113.0	112.7	112.3	112.0	110.8	110.4	109.9	109.7	109.4	109.1	109.1	108.9	109.3	106.5
Furniture and household durables	104.0	103.8	103.6	103.3	103.0	102.1	102.0	101.7	101.2	101.0	100.9	100.8	100.8	101.0	99.1
Household furniture	116.9	116.2	116.0	115.7	115.2	114.3	114.3	113.4	113.0	112.8	112.6	112.4	112.4	112.8	109.1
Commercial furniture	115.1	114.5	114.0	113.4	113.4	112.6	112.3	112.0	112.0	111.9	111.9	111.9	111.9	111.1	105.7
Floor coverings	95.1	95.2	95.2	94.8	95.3	95.2	94.9	94.8	93.4	92.6	92.9	93.1	93.1	93.7	97.0
Household appliances	92.2	92.2	91.9	91.6	91.1	90.9	90.8	90.5	90.3	90.1	90.1	90.0	89.7	90.1	89.1
Home electronic equipment	81.8	81.8	81.6	81.7	81.7	81.8	82.2	82.1	81.6	81.8	81.8	82.0	82.9	82.5	83.6
Other household durable goods	124.5	124.5	124.3	123.9	123.4	119.5	118.9	118.9	118.2	117.9	116.6	115.9	115.8	116.9	111.6
Nonmetallic mineral products	107.8	107.4	107.3	106.9	106.0	105.3	105.1	104.9	104.7	104.5	104.2	103.9	103.8	104.3	102.6
Flat glass	109.4	109.4	109.4	107.2	107.0	107.5	107.0	107.0	106.9	106.9	104.5	103.3	103.3	105.0	100.7
Concrete ingredients	109.1	109.0	108.6	108.5	107.8	106.5	106.4	106.3	106.1	106.0	106.0	105.9	105.9	109.0	103.9
Concrete products	107.6	107.5	107.0	106.8	106.5	105.8	105.6	105.9	105.9	105.8	105.8	105.7	105.2	105.8	103.0
Structural clay products excluding refractories	112.5	112.1	112.0	111.9	111.8	111.6	111.1	110.7	110.7	110.4	109.9	109.7	109.7	110.1	108.4
Refractories	112.5	112.5	112.6	112.4	106.8	106.0	106.0	104.9	104.9	104.9	104.9	104.9	104.9	105.1	103.7
Asphalt roofing	97.6	97.6	98.0	98.0	99.6	99.3	99.4	95.1	95.1	91.8	91.6	88.3	88.3	94.1	96.0
Gypsum products	105.1	105.1	105.1	105.1	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	100.7	100.7	100.7	100.9	102.3	102.4	102.4
Glass containers	109.7	106.3	106.3	106.3	102.9	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.0	101.1	99.9
Other nonmetallic minerals	103.7	103.8	103.9	103.7	103.0	102.3	102.0	101.9	101.7	101.8	102.2	102.2	102.1	101.9	101.7
Transportation equipment [3]	104.2	104.3	104.3	104.4	104.3	104.0	104.0	103.7	101.5	101.3	101.3	101.4	101.6	102.1	100.8
Motor vehicles and equipment	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.4	104.8	104.8	104.5	102.9	102.9	102.9	102.9	102.9	103.3	101.2
Railroad equipment (Jan. 1961=100)	111.8	111.8	111.5	111.3	111.0	110.7	110.6	110.5	110.2	110.0	109.7	109.6	108.0	109.2	106.8
Miscellaneous products	108.2	108.1	107.4	106.6	106.7	106.4	106.3	106.3	106.1	105.8	105.6	105.3	105.3	105.6	104.1
Toys, sporting goods, small arms, ammunition	114.9	114.9	114.9	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	114.8	112.9	109.6
Tobacco products	108.1	105.7	105.7	105.7	102.2	102.2	102.1	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.8	101.0	100.5
Notions	113.8	114.9	114.8	114.8	113.6	113.6	113.6	113.6	111.6	111.3	110.1	110.1	110.1	111.2	108.9
Photographic equipment and supplies	110.6	110.4	109.9	109.9	109.9	109.2	108.9	108.7	108.7	108.5	108.3	108.0	107.4	108.1	105.3
Other miscellaneous products															

[1] As of January 1967, the indexes incorporated a revised weighting structure reflecting 1963 values of shipments. Changes also were made in the classification structure, and titles and composition of some indexes were changed. Titles and indexes in this table conform with the revised classification structure, and may differ from data previously published. See *Wholesale Prices and Price Indexes*, January 1967 (final) and February 1967 (final) for a description of the changes.

[2] As of January 1962, the indexes were converted from the former base o 1947–49=100 to the new base of 1957–59=100. Technical details and earlier data on the 1957–59 base furnished upon request to the Bureau.

NOTE: For a description of the general method of computing the monthly Wholesale Price Index, see *BLS Handbook of Methods for Surveys and Studies* (BLS Bulletin 1458, October 1966), Chapter 11.

TABLE D–4. Indexes of wholesale prices for special commodity groupings [1]

[1957-59=100, unless otherwise specified] [2]

Commodity group	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct.	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
All commodities—less farm products	109.0	109.0	108.9	108.7	108.1	107.7	107.3	107.2	107.1	106.8	106.8	106.7	106.4	106.8	105.8
All foods	112.2	110.8	111.0	111.1	109.5	109.1	108.0	107.5	109.3	108.8	110.7	110.3	107.8	108.6	110.7
Processed foods	112.8	111.9	112.0	112.2	111.2	110.2	109.6	110.4	111.6	111.1	112.0	111.4	109.6	110.3	111.5
Textile products, excluding hard and bast fiber products	100.0	99.9	99.9	100.1	99.8	99.1	97.6	96.4	96.1	95.6	95.5	95.9	96.3	96.8	98.5
Hosiery	92.4	92.4	92.4	92.2	92.0	91.9	91.8	91.6	91.6	91.6	91.3	91.3	91.7	91.6	92.0
Underwear and nightwear	112.5	112.5	112.1	111.6	110.2	109.9	109.9	109.9	109.9	109.7	109.7	109.7	108.7	109.0	106.8
Refined petroleum products	100.5	100.3	99.5	99.5	98.8	99.9	100.4	101.0	103.9	104.6	103.3	103.1	103.7	102.2	99.5
East Coast, refined	106.9	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	101.6	101.6	102.8	97.5
Mid-Continent, refined	96.4	103.8	101.7	101.7	98.7	100.9	100.9	97.9	103.0	103.0	103.0	103.0	103.0	101.7	98.6
Gulf Coast, refined	102.3	99.1	97.5	97.6	96.8	99.2	100.8	102.3	107.0	108.6	107.0	107.0	107.2	104.4	102.2
Pacific Coast, refined	90.0	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.3	92.2	92.2	92.1	95.6	93.2	90.7
Midwest, refined (Jan. 1961=100)	94.4	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.7	95.2	95.0	96.3	98.8	98.8	95.2	95.2	95.2	95.4	92.7
Pharmaceutical preparations	95.4	95.3	95.3	94.9	94.4	95.8	95.7	95.6	95.5	95.6	96.1	96.1	96.2	96.0	96.8
Lumber and wood products excluding millwork and other wood products [3]	118.7	117.4	114.9	112.0	108.3	106.9	105.6	106.5	108.6	105.1	104.1	103.4	102.6	104.2	105.1
Special metals and metal products [4]	110.2	111.3	111.6	111.0	110.2	109.7	109.4	108.8	107.8	107.5	107.4	107.3	107.5	108.0	106.7
Machinery and motive products	111.6	111.5	111.2	111.1	111.0	110.4	110.1	109.7	108.6	108.5	108.4	108.4	108.5	108.8	106.0
Machinery and equipment, except electrical	122.7	122.2	121.7	121.2	120.9	120.0	119.6	119.0	118.3	118.2	117.8	117.6	117.6	118.0	114.0
Agricultural machinery, including tractors	128.5	128.4	128.3	128.1	128.1	127.2	125.9	124.3	124.1	123.9	123.9	123.8	123.7	124.3	120.3
Metalworking machinery	134.5	134.1	133.7	133.7	133.6	133.3	133.2	131.7	131.5	131.5	130.6	130.4	130.5	130.7	124.1
Total tractors	130.6	130.3	129.7	129.5	129.0	128.6	126.7	125.4	123.7	123.7	123.4	123.3	123.3	124.2	120.2
Industrial valves	126.3	125.0	123.0	122.5	122.8	122.8	122.8	122.8	122.8	121.9	121.8	121.5	122.7	122.5	116.3
Industrial fittings	106.1	109.2	109.2	109.0	105.6	105.6	103.0	103.0	101.5	101.5	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.4	95.9
Abrasive grinding wheels	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.2	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.7	94.9	93.9
Construction materials	110.2	110.5	109.7	108.8	107.6	106.7	106.2	106.2	106.3	105.3	104.9	104.6	104.4	105.2	103.9

[1] See footnote 1, table D–4.
[2] See footnote 2, table D–4.
[3] Formerly titled "Lumber and wood products, excluding millwork."
[4] Metals and metal products, agricultural machinery and equipment, and motor vehicles and equipment.

TABLE D–5. Indexes of wholesale prices,[1] by stage of processing and durability of product

[1957–59=100][2]

Commodity group	1968					1967								Annual average	
	May	Apr.	Mar.	Feb.	Jan.	Dec.	Nov.	Oct	Sept.	Aug.	July	June	May	1967	1966
All commodities	108.5	108.3	108.2	108.0	107.2	106.8	106.2	106.1	106.2	106.1	106.5	106.3	105.8	106.1	105.9
Stage of processing															
Crude materials for further processing	102.0	101.4	101.6	100.9	99.1	98.6	96.5	97.9	98.5	99.5	101.7	101.4	100.6	99.6	105.3
Crude foodstuffs and feedstuffs	104.1	102.9	102.6	101.8	99.1	98.3	96.1	99.1	99.9	101.4	104.7	104.2	103.1	101.2	107.2
Crude nonfood materials except fuel	96.6	97.6	98.9	98.4	98.2	98.4	95.9	94.2	94.3	94.5	94.6	95.1	94.7	95.5	101.9
Crude nonfood materials, except fuel, for manufacturing	95.5	96.6	98.1	97.5	97.4	97.6	95.0	93.1	93.3	93.5	93.7	94.2	93.7	94.6	101.8
Crude nonfood materials, except fuel, for construction	109.4	109.2	108.4	108.3	107.8	106.9	106.8	106.6	106.1	106.0	105.9	105.7	105.7	105.8	103.9
Crude fuel	112.4	112.3	112.2	111.7	111.4	111.5	111.3	110.9	111.0	110.3	110.2	109.8	110.3	110.3	106.4
Crude fuel for manufacturing	112.1	112.0	111.9	111.4	111.0	111.2	111.0	110.7	110.7	110.0	109.9	109.5	110.1	110.1	106.3
Crude fuel for nonmanufacturing	112.9	112.9	112.7	112.2	111.9	112.0	111.9	111.3	111.5	110.8	110.7	110.3	110.7	110.7	106.6
Intermediate materials, supplies, and components	107.7	107.9	107.7	107.4	106.7	106.3	105.9	105.7	105.7	105.4	105.4	105.4	105.3	105.6	104.8
Intermediate materials and components for manufacturing	106.9	107.2	107.1	106.7	106.0	105.6	105.2	104.8	104.7	104.5	104.4	104.4	104.4	104.7	104.0
Intermediate materials for food manufacturing	110.6	109.7	109.6	109.9	108.7	108.1	108.0	108.6	110.0	109.9	110.2	110.2	109.1	109.2	111.3
Intermediate materials for nondurable manufacturing	100.3	100.0	99.9	100.1	99.8	99.8	99.3	98.8	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.6	98.9	99.0	99.5
Intermediate materials for durable manufacturing	110.9	112.3	112.8	111.3	110.2	109.3	108.8	108.4	108.2	107.7	107.5	107.4	107.4	108.0	106.6
Components for manufacturing	110.5	110.6	110.0	109.9	109.4	109.1	108.6	108.1	108.0	107.9	107.5	107.5	107.6	107.9	104.9
Materials and components for construction	109.8	109.9	109.3	108.5	107.4	106.8	106.3	106.2	106.3	105.5	105.2	104.9	104.8	105.4	104.1
Processed fuels and lubricants	99.7	99.8	99.4	100.8	100.0	101.0	101.1	101.3	102.2	102.4	102.1	102.7	103.2	102.2	101.4
Processed fuels and lubricants for manufacturing	101.8	102.0	102.1	103.4	102.7	103.1	103.1	103.0	103.0	102.8	102.9	103.5	103.7	103.3	102.5
Processed fuels and lubricants for nonmanufacturing	96.2	96.3	95.3	96.7	95.7	97.6	98.0	98.5	100.9	101.5	100.8	101.5	102.3	100.3	99.4
Containers	110.2	109.7	109.1	109.3	108.4	107.3	107.3	106.6	106.6	106.4	106.4	106.5	106.6	106.6	104.9
Supplies	112.5	112.3	112.6	112.5	112.1	111.5	111.1	111.3	111.2	110.8	111.5	111.3	110.4	111.4	110.7
Supplies for manufacturing	113.8	113.8	113.6	113.1	112.2	111.5	111.1	110.9	110.8	110.7	110.6	110.6	110.4	110.5	108.9
Supplies for nonmanufacturing	111.3	111.0	111.4	111.5	111.4	110.8	110.3	110.7	110.6	110.0	111.1	110.9	109.7	111.0	110.7
Manufactured animal feeds	110.4	109.7	111.7	112.4	112.9	112.5	111.5	113.2	114.2	112.2	115.9	115.2	111.6	115.3	119.5
Other supplies	108.1	108.0	107.6	107.4	107.0	106.4	106.1	105.9	105.3	105.4	105.3	105.3	105.2	105.4	103.4
Finished goods (goods to users, including raw foods and fuels)	110.9	110.4	110.4	r110.2	109.7	109.3	108.9	108.6	108.7	108.3	108.7	108.4	107.6	108.2	106.9
Consumer finished goods	109.5	109.0	109.0	108.9	108.2	107.9	107.5	107.2	107.6	107.2	107.7	107.4	106.4	107.0	106.4
Consumer foods	113.0	111.7	111.9	112.0	110.6	110.1	109.1	108.8	110.5	109.6	111.5	110.9	108.5	109.5	111.2
Consumer crude foods	109.5	106.6	107.0	106.6	103.2	105.7	102.7	96 3	100.3	98.3	104.6	104.4	99.9	101.6	106.5
Consumer processed foods	113.7	112.7	112.8	113.0	111.9	110.9	110.3	111.0	112.4	111.7	112.7	112.1	110.0	110.9	112.0
Consumer other nondurable goods	109.1	109.0	108.6	108.4	108.0	108.0	107.9	107.8	108.0	108.0	107.4	107.2	106.9	107.2	104.8
Consumer durable goods	103.4	103.5	103.6	r103.5	103.5	103.0	103.0	102.8	101.4	101.2	101.1	101.0	101.3	101.7	100.2
Producer finished goods	114.9	114.7	114.4	114.2	114.0	113.4	113.0	112.6	111.6	111.4	111.2	111.2	111.1	111.5	108.0
Producer finished goods for manufacturing	119.3	119.1	118.4	118.2	118.1	117.3	117.1	116.7	115.9	115.8	115.4	115.3	115.2	115.5	111.3
Producer finished goods for nonmanufacturing	110.7	110.5	110.4	110.2	110.0	109.5	109.0	108.6	107.5	107.2	107.2	107.1	107.2	107.6	104.6
Durability of product															
Total durable goods	111.2	111.5	111.4	r110.8	r110.1	109.5	109.1	108.7	108.2	107.9	107.6	107.5	107.5	108.0	106.0
Total nondurable goods	106.5	106.0	105.9	105.9	105.0	104.8	104.0	104.2	104.8	104.8	105.6	105.4	104.6	104.7	105.6
Total manufactures	109.1	109.0	108.9	r108.6	108.1	107.6	107.2	107.1	107.1	106.8	106.8	106.6	106.3	106.7	105.7
Durable manufactures	111.5	111.8	111.5	110.9	110.3	109.6	109.3	109.0	108.4	108.1	107.9	107.7	107.7	108.2	106.0
Nondurable manufactures	106.7	106.4	106.3	106.4	105.9	105.6	105.2	105.3	105.8	105.6	105.8	105.6	105.0	105.3	105.3
Total raw or slightly processed goods	105.6	104.6	104.8	104.5	102.8	102.7	100.9	101.2	101.9	102.3	104.5	104.4	103.1	102.7	106.5
Durable raw or slightly processed goods	98.6	102.9	107.9	108.5	106.5	105.6	103.6	100.5	100.7	100.3	99.4	99.6	99.9	101.5	109.0
Nondurable raw or slightly processed goods	106.0	104.7	104.7	104.3	102.5	102.6	100.7	101.2	102.0	102.4	104.8	104.7	103.3	102.8	106.4

[1] See footnote 1, table D–4.
[2] See footnote 2, table D–4.

NOTE: For description of the series by stage of processing, see *Wholesale Prices and Price Indexes*, January 1967 (final) and February 1967 (final); and by durability of product and data beginning with 1947, see *Wholesale Prices and Price Indexes, 1967* (BLS Bulletin 1235, 1958).

E.—Work Stoppages

TABLE E–1. Work stoppages resulting from labor-management disputes [1]

Month and year	Number of stoppages		Workers involved in stoppages		Man-days idle during month or year	
	Beginning in month or year	In effect during month	Beginning in month or year	In effect during month	Number	Percent of estimated working time
1945	4,750		3,470,000		38,000,000	0.47
1946	4,985		4,600,000		116,000,000	1.43
1947	3,693		2,170,000		34,600,000	.41
1948	3,419		1,960,000		34,100,000	.37
1949	3,606		3,030,000		50,500,000	.59
1950	4,843		2,410,000		38,800,000	.44
1951	4,737		2,220,000		22,900,000	.23
1952	5,117		3,540,000		59,100,000	.57
1953	5,091		2,400,000		28,300,000	.26
1954	3,468		1,530,000		22,600,000	.21
1955	4,320		2,650,000		28,200,000	.26
1956	3,825		1,900,000		33,100,000	.29
1957	3,673		1,390,000		16,500,000	.14
1958	3,694		2,060,000		23,900,000	.22
1959	3,708		1,880,000		69,000,000	.61
1960	3,333		1,320,000		19,100,000	.17
1961	3,367		1,450,000		16,300,000	.14
1962	3,614		1,230,000		18,600,000	.16
1963	3,362		941,000		16,100,000	.13
1964	3,655		1,640,000		22,900,000	.18
1965	3,963		1,550,000		23,300,000	.18
1966	4,405		1,960,000		25,400,000	.19
1965: January	244	404	98,800	183,000	1,740,000	.18
February	208	393	45,100	149,000	1,440,000	.15
March	329	511	180,000	274,000	1,770,000	.16
April	390	603	141,000	194,000	1,840,000	.17
May	450	669	127,000	201,000	1,850,000	.19
June	425	677	268,000	354,000	2,590,000	.23
July	416	702	156,000	334,000	3,670,000	.34
August	388	685	109,000	229,000	2,230,000	.20
September	345	631	155,000	250,000	2,110,000	.20
October	321	570	101,000	209,000	1,770,000	.16
November	289	505	140,000	192,000	1,380,000	.13
December	158	371	24,300	75,800	907,000	.08
1966: January	238	389	113,000	140,000	1,090,000	.10
February	252	421	101,000	138,000	928,000	.09
March	336	536	217,000	265,000	1,410,000	.12
April	403	614	227,000	392,000	2,600,000	.24
May	494	720	240,000	340,000	2,870,000	.26
June	499	759	161,000	265,000	2,220,000	.19
July	448	704	286,000	347,000	3,100,000	.29
August	442	718	117,000	310,000	3,370,000	.27
September	422	676	132,000	226,000	1,780,000	.16
October	410	651	191,000	255,000	2,190,000	.19
November	288	533	126,000	234,000	2,150,000	.19
December	173	389	49,000	158,000	1,670,000	.15
1967: January [2]	275	440	98,000	190,000	1,270,000	.11
February [2]	325	465	106,000	151,000	1,280,000	.12
March [2]	430	575	141,000	202,000	1,490,000	.12
April [2]	440	600	409,000	443,000	2,170,000	.20
May [2]	535	695	255,000	402,000	3,900,000	.33
June [2]	430	670	177,000	350,000	4,360,000	.36
July [2]	375	630	804,000	1,010,000	4,710,000	.43
August [2]	385	655	86,000	231,000	2,840,000	.22
September [2]	405	670	375,000	484,000	6,320,000	.57
October [2]	405	645	158,000	440,000	6,510,000	.54
November [2]	300	530	197,000	388,000	3,060,000	.26
December [2]	190	400	64,700	194,000	2,610,000	.24
1968: January [2]	310	470	135,000	211,000	2,520,000	.21
February [2]	330	500	232,000	326,000	3,780,000	.33
March [2]	330	510	130,000	302,000	3,550,000	.31
April [2]	490	690	438,000	545,000	4,910,000	0.40

[1] The data include all known strikes or lockouts involving 6 workers or more and lasting a full day or shift or longer. Figures on workers involved and man-days idle cover all workers made idle for as long as 1 shift in establishments directly involved in a stoppage. They do not measure the indirect or secondary effect on other establishments or industries whose employees are made idle as a result of material or service shortages.

[2] Preliminary.

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